An interpretive investigation of trust and workflow in advertising communities

by

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Abstract

Adopting a socio–economic perspective and a multimethod field research approach this thesis investigates the correlation between trust and workflow in advertising communities of practice. Using a semiotic mode of analysis a comparative examination of offline and online communities will be conducted to inspect the practices of trust when multiple stakeholders follow the creative workflow process to fulfil creative briefs. The motivation to lead the research stems from a current lack of understanding of how trust is operationalized in online creative communities. Shortcomings from the literature 1) do not account for the significance of constructed workplace settings in the offline domain, 2) focus on providing generalisations through quantification, while fail to offer insights through qualitative methods and 3) overlook the weaknesses of trust in professional relationships.

To address these shortcomings the thesis provides an extensive literature review to explicate the complexity of trust. The review forms the foundation of the thesis from which it makes original *theoretical*, *analytical* and *empirical* contributions. It 1) introduces a conceptual framework that correlates trust with workflow in offline and online advertising communities; 2) presents a novel thematic–narrative analytical method to interpret and map trust and workflow at the granular level; 3) reports from three sequential field studies that explores trust and workflow in professional relationships. These contributions highlight the operationalization of trust and that trust is an active determinant of workflow. The findings have implications to the study of trust and virtual workspaces in the digital economy that will influence their design, development and utilization.

The first study examines trust and workflow in an offline advertising community. The findings indicate a positive correlation: trust is strongly aligned to workflow, inferred by strongly embedded situational and trust–warranting properties. The second and third studies examine trust and workflow in online advertising communities. The former indicates a negative correlation: trust is mediumly misaligned to workflow, inferred by weakly embedded situational properties. The findings of the latter also indicate a negative correlation: trust is strongly misaligned to workflow, inferred by weakly embedded situational and trust–warranting properties. In short, trust and workflow have a negative correlation online compared to the offline domain and is deficient in situational and trust–warranting properties. As a consequence the online domain does not perform to the same professional standard as the offline domain.

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In loving memory of 婆婆.

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Glossary

Advertising practitioner	A practitioner who works in a brick–and–mortar advertising agency.
Correlation	Refers to the mutual dependent relationship of trust and workflow.
Constructed team	A familiar group or workplace setting that is arranged in an offline community of practice.
Creative brief	A set of requirements to construct a creative concept.
Creative process	Concerned with the cognitive exploration and development of creative spaces (ideas).
Creative/s or Creative practitioner	A practitioner involved in the creation and development of advertisements (copywriter, graphic designer).
Crowdsourcing	An online web–based business model and process that outsources and solicits contributions.
Graphical user interface or GUI	A web–based interface that consists of signs (graphical, audio) to support the navigation of websites.
Informant	A person who is involved in a study and has provided information in a covert, informed setting.
Molar	Refers to the technique of observing or conducting analysis on a large unit of activity as a whole.
Molecular	Refers to the technique of observing or conducting analysis on small and highly specific behaviors.
Occurrence	A paragraph that represent a vested, thick description of an event.
Offline	Refers to reality and the physical domain
Offline institution	Refers to a brick–and–mortar proprietary organization
Online	Refers to web–based and the virtual domain
Online institution	Refers to a website proprietary organization. The operators and administers of an online community.
Phenomenon	An observable occurrence that has arisen in a contextual offline or online setting.

Pitch	Refers to the initial presentation of a creative concept, which is developed from the creative brief.
Sign	A physical manifestation that has implied propositional content. By default a sign refers to a *pragmatic sign*.
Situational properties	Refers to structural properties that are embedded within an institution, which facilitate the assessment of trust. Synonymous with *contextual–properties*.
Spontaneous team	An unfamiliar group or workplace setting that requires self–organization in an online communities of practice.
Theme	A type of emergent pattern with loaded meaning.
Trust–warranting properties	Refers to properties that are likely to cause fulfilment of a trusting action from a trustee.
User	A person who participates in an online community.
Variance	Refers to the identification of *similarities* or *differences*.
Workflow process	A sequence of activities prescribed by an institution that enable a person to conduct work and deliver outputs.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Research scene

As industrialised nations become more dependent on the creativity of its own people to stimulate economic growth how creative communities of practice operate online is becoming more pivotal to scholars and practitioners. This is because the creative economy has the ability to emancipate creative talents and generate wealth enabling a new generation of pioneers to surface and shine (Howkins, 2002). In the United Kingdom the creative industries contribute £76.9 billion to the national economy and account for 1.7 million jobs in 2013 that equate to 5.6% of total jobs in the U.K. (Gov.uk, 13th Jan., 2015). More specifically the advertising and marketing segment accounted for 482, 000 creative jobs and has the largest number of workers employed outside the creative industry in 2013 (Gov.uk, 13th Jan., 2015) which indicate the diversity of this segment relative to the value of other non–creative industries.

Online creative opportunities

With the advent of the Internet, online creative communities like Poptent.com and Crowdspring.com have flourished offering the opportunity to people from all walks of life to participate in freelance creative work. These *crowdsource* (see Glossary) communities have diminished barriers of entry enabling people to work from a distance, at home and in creative labour markets that traditionally have been competitive to enter. However, they nevertheless raise concerns in terms of how working processes are operationalized in the online domain. For instance, in an unfamiliar online setting that requires cooperative action and task fulfilment, *"Are working practices the same online as they are offline?"* Exploring this concern is fundamental if we as a nation want to unlock the potentialities of these communities and create wealth that is still yet to be fully realised.

Comparative examination of workflow

To investigate this concern I study two contrasting *workflow processes* (see Glossary) that are used by practitioners: one in the offline community domain and the other in the online community domain, in order to identify *variances* (see Glossary) between the two. I define the workflow process as a sequence of

activities prescribed by institutions that enable a person or group of people to conduct work and deliver outputs (Aalst and Hee, 2004). I use a dyadic cooperative relationship (Person A, B) where fulfilment of a task is required from Person B to illustrate how the latter is distinct from the former. In the online domain the absence of physical biological signs (body language, gestures) can inhibit Person A's ability to assess Person B's intention or willingness to act. These inhibitions are more prevalent in unfamiliar than familiar relationships. However, the intention and willingness components of this relationship are significant in creative communities because it requires cooperative action (team work) to achieve fulfilment of task. An inability to assess Person B's trustworthiness in this case can increase the risk in the relationship and result in non–fulfilment of task. Workflow processes in the online community domain therefore requires a different set of principles and properties.

Working practices and trust

Exploring the working practices of *trust* can address this said *concern*. As a social construct, trust can be traced back to the dawn of the human civilisation (Johnson, 2011) and its utilitarian value has been debated by both Western (Plato, 360 BCE; Hume, 1939–40) and Eastern (Confucius, 551–479 BCE) philosophers throughout the discourse of time. Fundamentally, trust is defined and shaped by the people who use it (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Rousseau *et al.,* 1998) and is most pronounced in settings of adverse risk and uncertainty (Luhnman, 1979). It is at the heart of understanding how people behave and come together. As a multi–dimensional construct, trust is complex and illusive and continues to perplex both scholars and practitioners.

Whether people interact offline or online, trust is still required because it is an economic imperative (Berg *et al*., 1995) and forms the foundation of all relationships (Hardin, 2002). In ancient Greek societies (5–4 BCE) trust was embedded in social systems and practices like haggling, money, measurements and rhetoric. These social systems diminished uncertainties of fear and risk and enabled ancient Greeks to establish relationships with unfamiliar people, particularly in the Agora (open market vendors) (Johnson, 2011). While the context of these social systems and practices are different in today's networked society: where the Agora is replaced by a more complex myriad of digital marketplaces and communities, the nature of trust is still applicable. Technology

may have evolved since Ancient Greece but we are still dependent on a similar set of social systems and practices to make decisions on *whom* and *what* we trust.

Role of signs in trust

In web–based software applications these social systems and practice of assessing trust are manifested as perceptual or social cues, which are embedded in the *graphical user interface* (see Glossary) of websites. To avoid describing the plethora of cues available, of which there are many, and therefore dilute the focus of my investigations I refer to these cues as *signs* in the thesis. Crucially signs can help formalise unfamiliar relationships in the online domain and connect people with others in society with the technology they use (Elder and Caspi, 1992). Castells (2005) once said that, *"Society shapes technology according to the needs, values and interests of people who use the technology"* (p.3). If this is the case, then the relationship between trust, signs and workflow will be informed by the online experiences of those people who use such communities (Shneiderman, 2000). In summary, if society wants to unlock the potential of human capital held in online creative communities, then an understanding of how trust and signs operate in virtual workplace settings is therefore required.

1.2 Research phenomenon

The thesis will examine trust as an emergent phenomenon that arises between people in workplace settings in the offline and online domains. I place emphasis on the latter. While previous studies have focused solely on the utility of trust in online professional communities (O'Murchu *et al*., 2004; Wahlstrom and Louis, 2008), how trust is related to workflow processes in online *communities of practice* (Wenger, 2011) and whether these are *similar* or *different* to their offline community counterparts is a phenomenon that is yet to be investigated. Essentially, this investigation examines how trust is operationalized in virtual workplace settings and is experienced by creative practitioners. Unlike past studies I do not view working practices as a *passive determinant* of trust (Lacono and Weisband, 1997; Kanawattanachai and Yoo, 2002). Instead, I interpret trust as an *active determinant* in cementing activities and relationships: where different facets of trust can be involved and where its presence is more prominent in some workflow components than in others.

Offline–online workflow distinctions

For instance, in an offline brick–and–mortar advertising agency (ad–agency) I observed that practitioners will use established creative workflow processes to fulfil a *creative brief* (see Glossary). However, in online advertising communities I noticed distinct differences in the manner work is performed when creative practitioners fulfil similar creative briefs. In the online domain, a practitioner's behaviour (perception, attitude) towards trust is comparatively different from their peers in offline ad–agencies. Unfortunately, this *offline–online misalignment* of trust can have implications to online advertising communities: particularly, in terms of how relationships are formed, information is exchanged and critically whether tasks are fulfilled.

Offline–online conceptual misalignment

Present conceptual models of trust are insufficient to either provide an answer or investigate this offline–online misalignment. This is due to the fact that trust is principally–based on social relationships and is therefore situational specific: trust in one setting may not be applicable to trust in another (Cahill *et al*., 2003). In this case, these models do not reflect the creative workplace settings from which trust emerges nor does it account for the structural weaknesses in professional relationships, which are displaced and affected by a different set of principles and properties. Moreover they focus on quantitative methods and in providing generalisations and overlook the practical insights that can be gained from small–scale qualitative research. To investigate the phenomenon of trust in online advertising communities an anthropologic understanding is required: one that identifies its principles and properties at the granular level.

1.3 Research context

The advertising profession is the research context. While I examine general advertising practitioners, I place emphasis on studying creative practitioners: those who are involved in the creation and development of advertisements. In the thesis I use the term community to describe a group of practitioners who work together to fulfil shared goals (Bellah *et al*., 1985; Nixon, 2003). I define the scope of these communities in Chapter 3.

Ad-agency in offline domain

In the offline domain the advertising community of practice can be found within the institution and is *physical* but on the online domain it is *virtual*. In the offline domain the institution is represented as the ad–agency and the community is manifested as the public workplace setting: where trust modulates relationships and facilitates the workflow process. The offline ad–agency is a critical platform from which to compare and contrast online advertising communities. Mindful of this importance, I break down and pinpoint the structures and group dynamics of the institution that will support the direction of the research.

Advertising practitioners

I start by briefly discussing the role of advertising practitioners then introduce the ad–agency. Within the context of the ad–agency institution, advertising practitioners work in collegial circumstances of similarity and adopt objectives that are mandated by the institution (Pratt, 2006). In the workplace setting practitioner's share similar interests with their colleagues and are driven by collective goals such as the fulfilment of creative briefs and advertising campaigns (Nixon, 2003). However, studies on advertising have documented irregularities in the workplace. For instance, advertising is seen to be dominated by the male perspective. This gender imbalance is perpetuated by the institutional embeddedness of masculine engineered practices (Alvesson, 1998). In addition, Hackley (2000) has shown that in the upper echelons (management) of the institution discourse and power have been used as a means to conform behaviour and subdue internal tensions and conflicts.

Despite these unfavourable conditions practitioners continue to work in a cohesive manner where the positive outcomes of trust are to be expected. This is because the institutional structures are strong in the ad–agency and breaches of trust could result in unforgiving sanctions (dismissal) to the practitioner. In short, similar interests and collective goals are two core properties that have cemented strong–ties between practitioners in the workplace and have regulated much of the interplay of trust in interdependent relationships. To encourage positive behaviour practitioners are governed by formalities of culture and conduct which are overlooked by external professional bodies (Brien, 1998). These formalities are further discussed in Chapter Two. What should be noted is that they unpin the essence of professionalism and underline the differentiality of trust in social and professional relationships.

Advertising governance

Formalities are required in advertising due to two reasons. First, there is general public concern on the ethics of advertising. This is because there is a broad public perception that advertising often violates ethical norms (Treise *et al*., 1994). Secondly, practitioners continue to wrestle with ethical dilemmas, one of which is how honest it is to advertise a client's products and services (Hunt and Chonko, 1987). In the U.K. the professional conduct and ethics that practitioners have to uphold are regulated by two main governing bodies: 1) the Committees of Advertising Practice (CAP) and 2) the Advertising Standards Authority (ASA).

CAP is the foremost body that writes the advertising codes of conduct that are to be followed by practitioners. In contrast, ASA is the self–regulatory body who are responsible for applying the codes of conduct written by CAP. They receive and act on public complaints as a result of misleading or offensive advertisement. There is also a third body: 3) the Institute of Practitioners in Advertising (IPA). However, their role is non–regulatory but advisory in nature and provide consultation to ad–agencies to address matters concerning professional standards.

Ad–agency institution

Ad–agencies come in a variety of sizes and areas of specialism. They can range from small boutiques that specialise in online advertising with less than 100 employees to large communication groups like WWP PLC, with over 100, 000+ employees (WWP, 2014) and provide full house communication services. Regardless of size, the institutional structure of an ad–agency plays a pivotal role in modulating relationships between practitioners in different departments, despite the tensions that exist between creative fulfilment and corporate instrumentality (Hackley, 2000). They provide relative security and limited guarantees and assurances that prevent the abuses of trust from occurring (Shapiro, 1987).

Moreover, they nurture cultural norms and practices (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 2005) that are embedded within the social fabric of the institution, the outcomes of which cements collegial relationships and collective goals. Consequentially, these norms and practices also contribute to the creative culture of the ad–agency (Nixon, 2003). This culture is a unique type of sub–culture that fosters creative talents and has been described as a *bohemian, stylised casual identity* (Nixon, 2003). Internally, this identity projects a distinct sense of belonging that is permeated throughout the institution. Externally, it is used as a

point of differentiation, whereby ad–agencies use corporate identity as a means to distinguish themselves from their competitors (Alvesson, 1994; Krugman and Ferrell, 1981). Critically, the creative culture reinforces the values and belief that ad–agencies perceive themselves as knowledge experts, capable of delivering creative professional solutions to a client's advertising needs. This continued conviction has helped sustain the familiar structure of the ad–agency which is present to this day (Hackley, 2000; White, 2000). Nixon (2003) highlighted that this creative culture is shaped in highly engendered terms by, *"...the intense bonds between young male creatives and the older men who managed creative departments that helped to fix the culture..."* (Nixon, 2003, p.163). This gender imbalance was discussed at the beginning of this section and remains a significant barrier for female entrants who wish to establish a footing in the ad–agency business (Alvesson, 1998; Mallia, 2009).

While it is true that this creative culture has been influenced by the male persuasion and has resulted in very few women becoming ad–agency directors (Mallia, 2009), they have also been instrumental in the development of institutional practices. These institutional practices have enabled ad–agencies to enter and focus on segments of the male consumer market to communicate and deliver gendered commerce, such as lifestyle commodities, that are targeted towards young male audiences, whom practitioners can empathize with (Nixon, 2003). Yet in focusing in this segment they apply the same practices to the female audience, despite research indicating a variance in male and female decision–making styles (Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006). Fundamentally, this undervalues the potentialities of the young female audience.

1.3.1 Structure of ad–agency

In this section I present an overview of the ad–agency institution where I use a full house ad–agency as a case study to break down the institutional structure and creative workflow process. According to White (2000) a traditional full house offline ad–agency consists of a network four main departments: 1) account planning, 2) media, 3) account management and 4) creative (see Fig. 1).

Department 1: account planning

The account planning department is where the long–term strategic planning is conducted and consumer insight is gained. Within this department practitioners can typically adopt the role of strategic planner. Working with client's needs they

acquire consumer insight: in terms of how consumers experience the client's product or brand, then develop bespoke integrated marketing communications that entrench these insights to the strategic plan (White, 2000; Vurro, 2009).

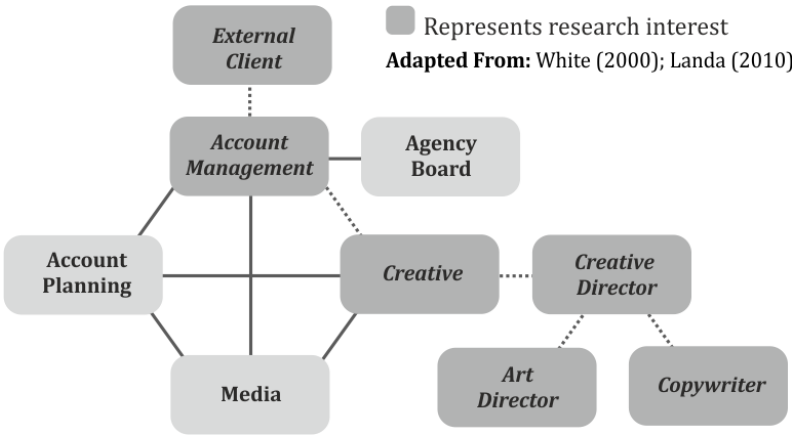


Fig. 1 Ad–agency structure

Department 2: media

The media department is where the media planning and buying of advertising space is conducted. When creative briefs are fulfilled the media department is responsible for communicating, distributing and displaying the advertisement in public venues that can be found in the offline or online domains. Within this department practitioners can adopt the role of media planner were they work with the client's needs and budget to plan and purchase media space using a mix of media channels to maximise exposure of the advertisement (Hameroff, 1998; White, 2000).

Department 3: account management

The account management department is where the client's needs are discussed and where the entire process is managed. Within this department practitioners can typically adopt the roles of accounts executive or account planner. The role of accounts executive is crucial in an ad–agency and involves managing a client accounts or project. Here practitioners draft and project manage the creative brief and liaise with the client and various departments in the ad–agency. This is mostly the creative department (Hameroff, 1998).

Department 4: creative

The creative department is where the creative brief is fulfilled: specifically in terms of conceptualisation, which may entail creating and developing visuals or crafting copy (White, 2000; MacKay, 2004). Within this department practitioners are usually employed in pairs. This pairing is to foster creative direction and was first arranged by the advertising pioneer Bill Bernbach in the 1960's (Levenson, 1988). While this creative ideation model is still being employed today, it is slowly changing. As people take up mobile devices, engage in different digital platforms and increasingly use online creative communities to share their creative crafts, this inevitably puts pressure on ad–agencies to think *outside the box* in terms of how ideas are generated and distributed.

In pairs, practitioners in the creative department can typically adopt the roles of art director or copywriter, both of whom will be supervised by the creative director who will have final say over the direction of the creative brief. It should be noted that the ability to draw is not always necessary for the art director and the copywriters will not always provide the copy: their roles are interchangeable and are not mutually exclusive (MacKay, 2004). Practitioners working in the department are referred to as *creatives* (see Glossary). They often bond closely together to form exclusive *creative teams* either with practitioners in other departments in the ad–agency (accounts executive) or with freelance experts outside the ad–agency, such as graphic or user experience designers (Landa, 2010).

In short, it can be said that the creative department is the means of production, *"the powerhouse of an agency, the motor that makes it all work."* (Creative Review, December 1983: 19—20 in Nixon, 2003). They are cut off from the bureaucracy of the rest of the ad–agency. The department has been described as *"...resting places for ideas of romantic individualism and...gendered attributes...glossed with...conceptions of masculine juvenility and the childlike qualities of creative people"* (Nixon, 2003, p.163). In sum, the department is fiercely guarded by the agency board or management (White, 2000; MacKay, 2004) which is understandable because without the creatives there is no means of production.

1.3.2 Creative workflow process

Using the ad–agency structure (see Fig. 1) as a reference point I re–examine the six *research interest* nodes shaded in dark grey. Within this internal structure the

business activities that are of interest to the thesis are centred on two main departments, the: 1) accounts and 2) creative department. The accounts department is represented by the accounts executive and the creative department is represented by the creative team (creative director, art director and copywriter). From this internal network (of departments and people) I break down the *creative workflow process* that is used to fulfil creative briefs into modular components, and present it through a basic then detailed view.

Basic overview of creative workflow process

The *workflow process* refers to a sequence of activities prescribed by an institution (Aalst and Hee, 2004). It predominately consists of three parts: 1) inputs, 2) rules and 3) outputs. Inputs refers to the type of information required to complete the work, rules refers to the principles used to guide the work and output is the end product of the work (Aalst and Hee, 2004). I apply this general principle to break down the creative workflow process. In this setting, the six research interest nodes identified in Fig.1 can be reconfigured into four modular components (see Fig. 2). These components are as follows: 1) the external client represent the inputs, 2) the ad–agency represent the rules, 3) the advertising community and 4) the creative team represent the outputs.

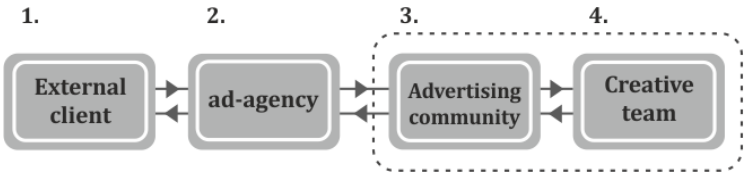


Fig. 2 Creative workflow process–basic view

First, the external client represents the customer, a corporate person that requires the professional services of an ad–agency to fulfil an advertising need. Secondly, the ad–agency represents the corporate institutional structure, where formal rules are applied and enforced. It is led by the accounts executive who coordinates relationships between the client (component 1) and the advertising community (component 3) and creative team (component 4). In this case, the accounts executive listens to the needs of the client and crafts a creative brief to resolve these needs. The creative brief is then passed to the next two components. Thirdly, the advertising community represents the public workplace setting, which is composed of multiple internalised departments. The accounts executive will pass the creative brief through this public workplace, which may pass through

other departments (account planning, media). Fourthly, the accounts executive will submit the creative brief to the creative department for fulfilment, where the creative team will work on the conceptualisation of the creative brief.

Detailed overview of creative workflow process

In Fig. 3, I provide a more elaborate overview of the creative workflow process, to highlight the closely–coupled nature of relationships, as the creative brief is transferred between different stakeholders. In this view the fragile *client–agency* relationship is more exposed, which is why this type of relationship is often perceived as one which is built on mutual trust and understanding (LaBahn and Kohli, 1997; Caceres and Paparoidamis, 2007). Of the five stages the first can be defined as inputs, the second and third can be defined as rules and the fourth and fifth can be defined as outputs.

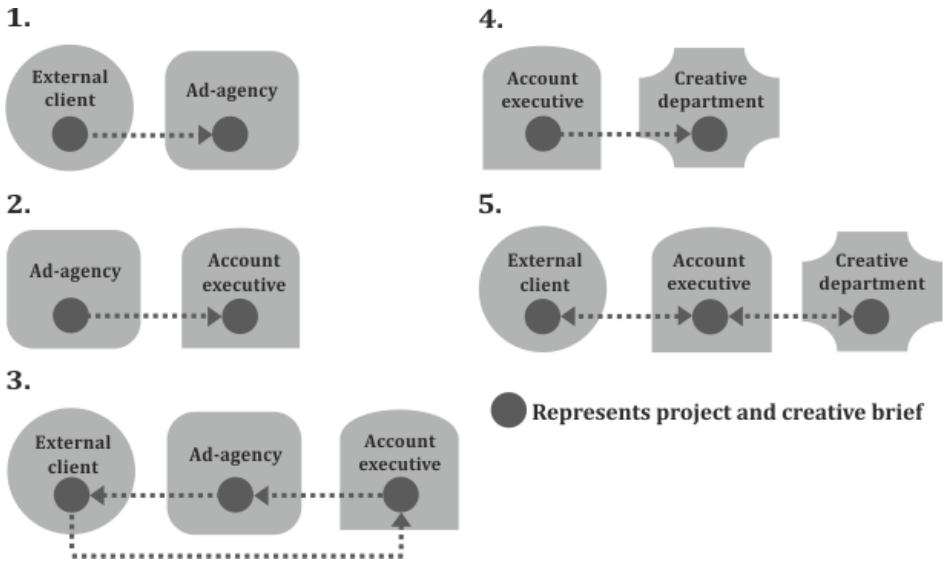


Fig. 3 Creative workflow process–detailed view

In this setting, the external client will come to the ad–agency with an advertising *need* (stage–1). This need will be allocated to a front facing representative of the ad–agency, which in this case will be the accounts executive, who will define the scope of the need and liaise relationships between the client and the internalised departments of the ad–agency (stage–2). When defining the scope of the need the accounts executive will draft a creative brief, which encapsulates the advertising need and requirements of the client. Then alongside with the client they both mutually agree on common goals and the strategic direction of the creative brief. Upon agreement, the creative brief is then packaged

as a project (stage–3). The accounts executive will then submit the creative brief to the creative department for fulfilment where it will be worked on by the creative team (stage–4). Finally, during the brief fulfilment process the accounts executive will liaise relationships between the client and the creative team until the creative brief is fulfilled and signed off by management (stage–5).

1.4 Research aim and objectives

The aim of the thesis is to identify the active determinants of trust as practitioners follow the workflow process to fulfil creative briefs. It purports to explore the following research question:

"How is trust[1] correlated to workflow[2] in offline and online advertising communities[3]?"

Where 1) trust is the principal construct that will be studied, 2) workflow is the operational structure that trust is correlated to and 3) advertising communities (offline, online) are the research context, from which trust and workflow will be concurrently studied.

Research scope

While the thesis has a strong online communitarian focus it is important not to exclude offline communities as these can inform their online counterparts. Therefore I will expand the scope of the research to include both offline (ad–agency) and online (web–based) advertising communities. Essentially the thesis will establish a *correlation* between trust and the creative workflow process and explore this relationship at the granular level. While research orthodoxy suggests that correlation is usually associated with the quantitative dependency measurement of two variables (Lee Rodgers, Nicewander, 1988), Lin (1998) has shown that qualitative studies can consist of interpretive and positivist approaches and thus can borrow aspects of positivism. As such in this thesis I borrow the term correlation but use it in a qualitative sense to examine the mutual dependency and interplay of trust in working practices and processes.

Research approach

Following a strand of the interpretive tradition, adopting a socio–economic outlook and semiotic mode of analysis, I study this correlation from multiple stakeholder perspectives: particularly when practitioners follow prescribed

creative workflow processes to fulfil creative briefs. A multimethod field research approach will be employed to illustrate emergent patterns and themes from three field studies that will highlight the degree of alignment trust has with workflow. The outcomes will underline the dependency of trust in certain components of the creative workflow process. In short, this will place the thesis in broader discourses that will have implications to the study of trust and virtual workspaces in the digital economy that will affect the future design, development and utilization of online advertising and creative communities.

Research objectives

To investigate the research aim I have proposed four research objectives which are as follows:

Objective 1: conceptualisations

The first objective is to develop a conceptual framework for trust and workflow. The framework will be informed by the literature review and will correlate trust with the creative workflow process employed in offline and online advertising communities. Development of the framework will entail two parts. First, an extensive review will be conducted that will explicate the complexity of trust. Secondly, principles and properties of trust will be aligned to the creative workflow processes in offline (ad–agency) and online (web–based) advertising communities. It will then be applied to the three field studies.

Objective 2: field study one

The second objective forms the basis of the first field study. In this study I investigate the correlation between trust and workflow in an offline brick–and–mortar ad–agency. I examine how trust is operationalized in the institution, where I map the actions and interactions that occur between different stakeholders as they perform their craft. I use a participant observation method to collect data and job shadow influential *informants* (see Glossary) in their community as they follow prescribed creative workflow processes to fulfil creative briefs. This study establishes a strong footing from which to compare and contrast trust and workflow in online advertising communities.

Objective 3: field study two

The third objective forms the basis of the second study. In this study I investigate the correlation between trust and workflow in online professional communities. I

use a naturalistic observational method to collect data, where I evaluate the contextual structures of websites that host professional communities. This evaluation will entail a comparative analysis of two categories of online professional communities, those that are: 1) non–advertising and 2) advertising, insofar as to highlight trust and sign variances between communities. I then focus on the creative category from which I then map the activities of users and break down the creative workflow process.

Objective 4: field study three

The fourth objective forms the basis of the third field study. In this study I investigate the correlation between trust and workflow from two distinct online advertising communities. Unlike the previous study, this study is informant led. I use a mixture of observational and interview methods to probe an informant's experiences of trust and working practices: specifically when they follow prescribed creative workflow processes to fulfil creative briefs. It entails two parts. Part A, involves conducting a cognitive walkthrough to map navigation behaviour. Part B, involves conducting a minimally structured interview to attain user experiential insight.

1.5 Research contributions

The thesis makes 1) *theoretical*, 2) *analytical* and 3) *empirical* contributions and introduces the research field of Human–Computer Interaction (HCI) and Information Systems (IS) to a general business management audience. It advances the study of trust in virtual workplace settings and establishes an interpretive foundation from which to study trust and workflow in both the offline and online domains. Scholars who have research interests in Organisational Studies (OS) or Science and Technology Studies (STS) will find this thesis insightful. In contrast, it will also be relevant to advertising practitioners and those who are part of an interdisciplinary team that design and develop online creative communities.

Contribution 1: theoretical

I highlight shortfalls from the offline and online literature on trust and present theoretical insights. The operationalization of trust in the offline domain is well established and has positive socio–economic benefits to institutions (Dirk and Ferrin, 2001). In contrast, research in the online domain is weaker and is inferred by offline studies. Surprisingly, in both domains the intricacies of working

practices are often overlooked and workflow processes are viewed as *passive determinants* of trust. Moreover, in the online domain there is no clear distinction between social and professional relationships: definitions of trust are used synonymously to describe both relationship types.

In investigating the practices of trust in the offline and online domains, I illustrate that trust is an *active determinant* of workflow that is moderated by *agents* (people) and *structures* (institutional arrangements): in which multiple facets of trust are involved and where its presence is stronger in some workflow components than in others. It is therefore not passive and is distinct from social relationships. The basis of this theory is inferred by the extensive literature review where I decode, unpack and conceptually rearrange the many layers of trust into thematic categories and groups. This rearrangement forms the foundation of the theoretical framework, where I establish a correlation between trust and workflow and align the categories and groups (of trust) with the creative workflow processes practised in the offline and online domains.

Contribution 2: analytical

To study the thick descriptions attained from the observational data (field studies 1, 3) and interpret the meanings that underpin these descriptions the thesis introduces a novel *thematic–narrative* analytical method to identify and map the nuances of trusting behaviours and actions. I start by using an established data analysis method (thematic analysis) to conduct my analysis. I then adapt and extend this method from two directions. First, I expand the use of categories in thematic analysis to reduce the data corpus: where contextual codes are placed into first–order then second order categories. Secondly, in addition to the reporting of themes I add an extra layer of synthesis, where I focus on a prominent theme and apply techniques employed in narrative analysis to explore the personal experiential accounts that are embedded within the theme, insofar as to identify and map decisions and acts of trust.

Contribution 3: empirical

The findings from the three sequential field studies presents empirical evidence and practical insights. Sourced from observational and informant–driven data they underline the fragile correlation between trust and workflow in online advertising communities. The first study examines trust and workflow in an offline advertising community (ad–agency). The study is observation–based and involves job

shadowing influential stakeholders in the workplace: specifically when they follow prescribed institutional processes to fulfil creative briefs. The second study examines trust and workflow in online professional communities, where I evaluate the professional context and structure of websites. The study is observation–based and involves comparing and contrasting two types of professional communities (non–advertising and advertising). I highlight trust and sign variances between the two categories, then focus on the latter category where I map the activities of users and bread down the creative workflow process. The third study is an extension of the second study and is informant–led. Using a mix of observation and interview methods it involves eliciting informants online experiences of trust (institutional, interpersonal) as they folllow prescribed creative workflow processes to fulfil creative briefs.

1.6 Research format

In the thesis I explore the interplay of *agents* and *structures* that moderate trusting behaviours in offline and online workplace settings. This investigation is conducted in eight parts: 1) Introduction, 2) Literature review 3) Conceptual framework, 4) Research methodology, 5) Findings of study one, 6) Findings of study two, 7) Findings of study three and 8) Conclusion (see Fig. 4).

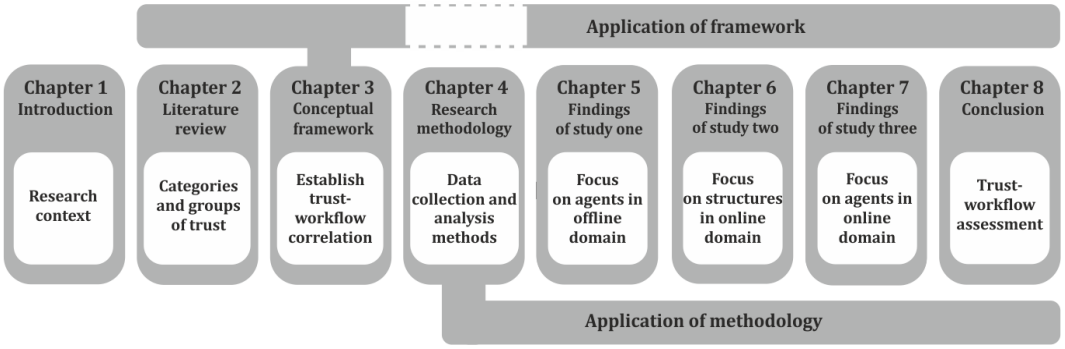


Fig. 4 Research format

Chapter 1: introduction

This chapter establishes the direction and backdrop of the research. It highlights the potentialities of online creative communities and raises research concerns. In addition, it sets out a research pathway which outlines the research phenomenon, aim, objectives and contributions. It also provides a descriptive account of the research context where it highlights the ad–agency structure and breaks down the creative workflow process from two viewpoints.

Chapter 2: literature review

This chapter presents an extensive literature review of trust. It gives a multi–layered review of the construct and justifies its value and utility in interdisciplinary circles. It moves beyond what is traditionally required from a literature review and decodes and unpacks these multiple layers that offers new insights. These layers are then re–arranged into thematic *categories and groups* that support the exploration of the research question. Critically, they contain the *a priori* keywords, which are used to induce codes from the datasets.

Chapter 3: conceptual framework

This chapter presents the conceptual framework. It provides a preliminary definition of trust, discusses the role of signs and establishes a correlation between trust and workflow in the offline (ad–agency) and online (web–based) domains. The framework is informed by the categories and groups (of trust) identified in the literature review, which are then aligned to the offline and online creative workflow processes. The framework serves as a strategic introspection point to set the propositional map and assess the correlation and alignment of trust and workflow.

Chapter 4: research methodology

This chapter presents the research methodology. It outlines the philosophical assumptions that underpin the research and introduces the *research design*. The design describes the methods used to collect and analyse the primary data. It includes the quality guidelines, data collection instruments and protocols. In addition, it also provides a brief overview of the three studies and proceduralises a novel thematic–narrative analytical method to map the nuances of trust and workflow.

Chapter 5: findings of study one

This chapter presents the findings of the first study, where there is a focus on the *agents* that moderate trust in the *offline domain*. Using a participant observational method I investigate the correlation of trust and workflow in a physical ad–agency. To examine how trust is operationalization in *constructed teams* (see Glossary), I job shadowed and recorded the actions and interactions of three informants. A thematic–narrative analytical method is applied to identify emergent patterns and themes. Two pronounced themes are then examined in–depth, in the form of

narrative accounts, to gain insight as to how trust and workflow are enacted from the decision–making perspectives of two solo practitioners.

Chapter 6: findings of study two

This chapter presents the findings of the second study, where there is an emphasis on the *structures* that moderate trust in the *online domain*. Using a naturalistic observational method I study the correlation of trust and workflow in online professional communities. I conduct a comparative analysis between two categories of online professional communities (non–advertising vs. advertising) to underline trust and sign variances. I then focus on the latter where I identify and map structural properties that facilitate trust and workflow in *spontaneous teams* (see Glossary) and break down the online creative workflow process to determine how work is practised in virtual workplace settings.

Chapter 7: findings of study three

This chapter presents the findings of the third study, where there is a focus on the *agents* that moderate trust in the *online domain*. Using a mix of observational and interview methods I examine the correlation of trust and workflow in two distinct online advertising communities. The study consists of two parts. Part A is the cognitive walkthrough, where I map how informants utilize the website to fulfil the creative brief. Part B is the main interview, where I probe an informant's experiences of trust and working practices. A thematic–narrative analytical method is used to identify emergent themes and patterns. Two prominent themes are then further explored, in the form of narrative accounts, to unveil insights as to how trust and workflow are enacted from the decision–making perspectives of two solo practitioners.

Chapter 8: conclusion

This chapter presents the conclusion. It provides an overview of the three field study findings, where I then use the conceptual framework as an introspection point from which to assess trust–workflow correlation outcomes. I then revisit the aim, objectives, and contributions set forth at the beginning of the thesis and the propositional map. This is followed by a re–examination of the research methods used to ensure that quality guidelines were followed. I finally close the chapter by discussing the research limitations and recommend directions for future work.

Chapter 2

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review on the literature related to trust. A broad multidisciplinary approach has been used to include offline and online studies. It goes beyond what is expected of a traditional literature review; it is not a summarisation of the literature (Boot and Beile, 2005) but a conceptual rearrangement of the construct that offers new insights. The chapter is divided into seven sections. Section two discusses the value of trust, while section three outlines how trust is conceived from a basic socio–economic perspective. Section four reviews trust in–depth, where it conceptually rearranges the construct into thematic categories and groups. This re–arrangement opens up the principles and properties of trust to greater scrutiny and unearths its multiple facets. Section five dispels some common fallacies associated with trust. Section six discusses relevant offline and online studies and identifies significant gaps in the literature. Section seven presents the chapter summary.

2.2 Value of trust

Trust, security and privacy are three interrelated constructs which effect one another (Flavián and Guinalíu, 2006; Dong–Hee, 2010). These three constructs can be considered as the holy trinity of human–computer interaction (HCI) and Information Systems (IS). Relative to the other two constructs, trust underpins the security dimensions of socio–technical systems (Flechais, Riegelsberger and Sasse, 2005) and affects the antecedents and outcomes of privacy concerns (Dwyer, Hiltz and Passerini, 2007).

To understand the value of trust you must ask yourself, *"If you would go to work in the morning without it"*. I ask this question because the fundamentality of trust becomes apparent when it is absent, diminished or damaged (Cook, 2003). Most people do not ponder this dilemma because when we go to work trust is to be expected. It is an automatic social mechanism that is relied upon to reduce the complexity of the environment (Luhmann, 1979). For instance, I trust that the institution I work in will provide for me and that my colleagues will not harm me as they had done yesterday and the day before. In this setting, the automatic

process of trusting frees my mind and allows me to think about other things. However, this fast–track form of trust is often taken for granted (Gigerenzer and Selton, 2002) and rarely questioned unless it is abused. When this occurs trust becomes more conscious.

Trust, risk and uncertainty

The prior instance only demonstrates one form of trust. It presumes that the trustor is familiar with the trustee (person, institution), but what happens in unfamiliar environments. In these settings, trust enables people to take risks in situations of uncertainty (Boon and Holmes, 1991; Kollock, 1994). For instance, a trustor may take a risk and initiate a relationship with a trustee, who the trustor has no prior knowledge or history with. In this setting, if trust was to be removed then it will make the trustor more exposed (Mayer *et al.,* 1995) and susceptible to the downside risks of human actions.

This exposure, according to Baier (1994), is an accepted vulnerability from the trustor that the trustee can possibly but will not intentionally abuse trust in the relationship. In this unfamiliar setting trust has two benefits. First, it brings people together harmoniously and secondly it helps build the social structures of society (Cook *et al.,* 2007). The latter benefit is critical because without trust it has been stated that society would simply dissolve, crumble and fall (Bok 1978; Simmel, 1990). The value of trust in society therefore cannot be dismissed, regardless of whether it is manifested in the offline or online domains, as it provides political, economic, social and cultural stability to society.

Offline value

In the offline domain, at the state macro–level, trust contributes to the nation's democratic stability (Warren, 1999; Newton, 2001) and economic well–being and competitiveness (Fukuyama, 1996). Conversely, at the micro–level it plays an essential role in civic engagement and in the participation of local communal organisations (Putnam, 1995), particularly amongst the economic less well–off in society (Uslaner and Brown, 2005). Pivotally, trust is only one critical ingredient amongst others (social and cultural norms) that contribute to the accumulation of social capital. (Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 2005). While some practitioners and scholars in the past have used these two constructs synonymously it is important to distinguish between the two.

Social capital, *"…refers to features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trust, that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit. Social capital enhances the benefits of investment in physical and human capital"* (Putnam, 2001 in Blair *et al*., 2013, p.250). In sum, social capital is dependent on trust to build social stock (accumulative social value) that contributes to social capital but cannot be used as a primer to initiate trust–based relationships. As a primer trust sustains the social affairs of everyday life and as Gambetta (1988) infamously states can '*make or break cooperative relationships'*. In the online domain trust makes economic and social transactions tenable (Tan and Thoen, 1999; Golbeck, 2005) and can help initiate and foster unfamiliar relationships in social (Golbeck, 2005) and professional online communities (Donath and Boyd, 2004).

Online value

While trust is equally paramount in both domains (offline, online) it can be argued it is more crucial online than offline. This is because online institutional structures are weaker in engendering trust than offline institutional structures (Stewart, 2003). These weak structures reduce the perceptual effectiveness of signs that warrant trust, which are exchanged between trustor and trustee (Riegelsberger *et al*.. 2005). The evidence of this weakness is presented in the media in recent years. The numerous breaches of trust by online companies and governmental institutions have touched a nerve with the general public. Regardless of whether it is the sensitivities surrounding the unethical use of non–consensual user data by online companies (Bunz, 2010) or the government's illegal interception of personal and sensory data (Corera, 2013) it is self–evident that the issue of trust lay at the centre of the debate.

2.3 Basic conception

While trust is occurring around us most people think they know what it is, yet given the opportunity to explain its existence they often find it hard to conceptualise behaviours of trust (Hardin, 2002; Hoy and Moran, 2007). This is due to the fact that trust is an elusive concept as it is complex in nature. To give some clarity of what trust is I present a basic conception that will support its offline and online exploration. Constructed from the interdisciplinary literature that offers behavioral insights I conceptualize trust from a *socio–economic* perspective.

The conception consists of three parts: Part 1) examines how trust is constructed from the sociological and psychological dimensions; Part 2) examines the antecedent requirements of trust; Part 3) examines the utility and value of trust from a behavioral economic dimension. For the latter part, there will be a focus on the utility, behaviors (decisions, actions) and payoffs of trust in dyadic exchanges. In short, the basic conception will illustrate the value and usefulness of trust in situations of risk, unfamiliarity and uncertainty.

Part 1: socio–psychological dimension

As for the first part, trust at the most basic level is a social construct that consists of both cognitive (implicit) and behavioural (explicit) components that occur as a result of the continual pedagogic process of *externalization*, *objectivization* and *internalisation* (Berger and Luckmann, 1966; Weber and Carter, 2003). I refer to this process as the pedagogic cycle of trust (see Fig. 5). While the former component is psychological and is concerned with the intrinsic cognitive factors that attribute to trusting behaviors and actions (Rotter, 1967; McKnight and Cummings, 1998), the latter is sociological and is concerned with the behavioral manifestations of trust, as it emerges and interacts with objects (human, artefacts) in the physical world (Berger and Luckmannm, 1966).



Source: Berger and Luckmann (1966); Weber and Carter (2003)

Fig. 5 Pedagogic cycle of trust

Within this cycle a trustor's internal belief system of trust is formed with the support of institutional structures. These structures are experienced by trustors who are intrinsically motivated to habitually learn and practice them as an objective reality in repeated exchanges because trust breeds familiarity (Gulati, 1995; Nooteboom and Berger, 1997; Gefen, 2000). This first phase of the process: the learning and practising of support structures, constitutes the socialization of trust and forms the externalized world view of the trustor. This externalized world

view is then objectivized by the trustor in the human social world and is experienced in specific events or actions.

This second phase of the process constitutes the objectivization world view of the trustor. This view is then internalised during which the trustor finds personal meaning in the trusting experience. In short, a trustor's belief of trust is externally learned and practised, both of which are intrinsically motivated, internally reformed and socially enacted and personalised (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). Within this pedagogic cycle it is the *personalisation* of trust (Gambetta1988; Abdul–Rahman and Hailes, 2000), the fact that people conceptualize it in their own unique way that makes trust elusive and bestows it with chameleon–like properties.

Part 2: antecedent requirements

As for the second part, it can be said that trust is as old as the human civilization. Throughout history trust has allowed people to live and work in environments characterised by risk and uncertainty (Deutsch, 1962; Mayer *et al*., 1995). These adverse properties are considered central tenents of the requirements of trust because where there is trust there is also the general feeling that others (trustees) will not exploit the trustor (Porter *et al*., 1975)

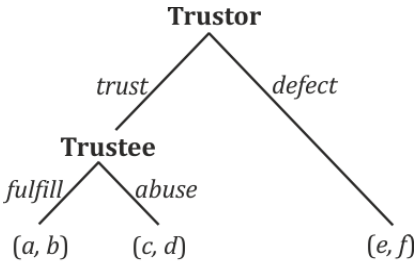
In this setting risk can be defined as, *"the chance of injury, damage, or loss"* (Slovic, 1999, p.690). While trust reduces risk it should be noted that it does not necessarily make the situation safe (Wildavsky, 1979). In contrast, uncertainty which is studied as a downside antecedent of trust (Luhnman, 1979; Kollock, 1994; Cahill, 2003) can be defined as situations where the trustor has incomplete information of the trustee: in terms of the motives, intentions and trustworthiness (Camerer, 2003), and is unable to predict the decisions and actions of the trustee (Giddens, 1990; Jeckbert, 1996). In this basic conception trust is therefore mostly required in situations that are characterised by risk and uncertainty.

Part 3: economic dimension

As for the third part, I use the economic dimension to accentuate trusts utility and value. For this, I use the basic trust game (Berg *et al*., 1995) to illustrate the emergent and situational requirements of the construct. While it does not fully capture the pedagogic cycle (see Fig. 5), it does however showcase the operationalization of trust: particularly how people make objective decisions based on signals and historical outcomes in situations of risk and uncertainty.

Furthermore, though the basic trust game does not involve the type of relationships and communications that are normally present in trusting situations, its main strength lies in its ability to strip the institutional support structures and rules that often complicate trusting behaviours (Camerer, 2003). By reducing the complexity of trust to its *purest form* the game has been able to produce defined behavioural outcomes and payoffs in dyadic interactions (Camerer, 2003).

For instance, it has shown that trust is a primitive construct in economic exchanges: it is required in settings where relationships are weak or when they do not even exist (no social history of trustee). This has contributed to the basic abstract model of trust in HCI (Riegelsberger, 2005). The basic trust game is a sequential economic investment one–shot game based on two anonymous players (trustor and trustee) both of whom are mediated by an experimenter. The purpose of the game is to assess a trustee's willingness to reciprocate back to the trustor.



Source: Berg *et al.*, (1995)

Fig. 6 Basic trust game

In this experimental setting, both players are given an *x* amount of money. First, the trustor can entrust a certain amount of money to the trustee. The trustor is then informed that the amount sent to the trustee will be tripled by the experimenter. Secondly, the experimenter will then give this amount to the trustee, who is given similar instructions as the trustor. Thirdly, with the amount of cash tripled the trustee has the option of returning zero to the trustor. The trustor can defect and submit zero to the trustee or fulfil the trusting action and submit *x* amount to the trustee. In contrast, assuming the trustor has submitted money to the trustee, she also can make one of two decisions: 1) she can abuse by defecting from the game and not return the *x* amount of money or 2) she can fulfil by returning amount of money to the trustor. In the basic game (see Fig. 6) the payoff for the trustor and trustee is shown at the end of the decision tree and is denoted by the values (a, b) where the first value represents the payoff of the trustor and the second value represents the value of the trustee.

Conversely, if the trustor decides to trust then the payoff would be $a > e > c$, if he decides to defect then it would be $e > c$. For the trustee, if she decides to fulfil then the payoff would be $d > b > f$, if she decides to abuse then it would be $d > b$. When assessing the previous actions of each player to determine which actions would maximise his or her utility (backward induction) then the economic equilibrium for the trustor will be not to defect and the trustee not to abuse. In the original trust game (Berg *et al*., 1995) participants were paired then organised into two treatments: 1) no history and 2) social history. In this setting, the experimenter provided social history about the trustor to the trustee in treatment two, while no history was given to the trustee in treatment one. Between these two treatments, I use the former. The prior treatment ran 32 game trials, while the latter treatment ran 28 game trials. From the two treatments trustor's had submitted money to the trustee in 55 of the 60 game trials which averaged just over 50% of what they were given from the experimenter.

In sum, the results from the trustee were more varied, due to the fact that reciprocation is dependent on the social history of the trustor. In average trustee's returned more cash than was originally sent by the trustor (Berg *et al*., 1995, 2003). This game was repeated in different countries which yielded similar results (Willinger *et al*., 2003) and establishes a positive and strong correlation between trust and reciprocity. From the perspective of the trustee, the amount of money received was an indication that trust was being utilized to encourage mutual beneficial outcomes. With prior knowledge of this the trustee is therefore more willing to reciprocate back to the trustor. The advantages of the behavioral economic dimension is that it often highlights the utility and value of trust and takes a predefined view of the possible behavioral decisions, outcomes and payoffs. I integrate this dimension with the sociological and psychological dimension discussed earlier to construct a socio–economic perspective to conceptualize trust, which will direct the discourse of the research.

Construct complexity

The complexity of trust is perpetuated by two main perspectives: 1) from the general public, who are placed in situations where trust becomes valuable and 2) from scholars and practitioners, who conceptualise trust as a phenomenon or problem. While the former refers to how trust is intrinsically interpreted from a trustor or trustee in society, the latter refers to how trust is extrinsically interpreted and studied from the perspective of the researcher.

Perspective 1: general public

In the first perspective, trust is made complex by the *personalisation* of experiences. When trust becomes personalised people experience it like any other intense emotion (like love) and through their own unique interpretative perspectives (Weber and Alison, 2003). Sometimes when these intense emotions meander their way into the public realm it somehow has the ability of galvanising the collective consciousness of the nation (Fukuyama, 1995). In contrast, when trust is abused (acts of betrayal) we as a people often empathise for its victims in our own interpretive way (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Koehn, 1998; Weber and Alison, 2003). The personalisation of trust is shaped and driven by our experiences, which in turn informs our internal belief system of what constitutes trust (McKnight, 2000; Richardson *et al*., 2004).

As part of an internal belief system trust has been associated as a moral property (Baier, 1987; Silver, 1985) and like morality is rather subjective and complex. This is the reason why trust is situational specific: meaning that trust in one situation may not be applicable nor transferrable to trust in another (Narowski, 1974; Cahill *et al.,* 2003). In this setting, trust has been described as something magical (Möllering, 2006). As a *synthetic force* (Simmel, 1950) trust can be described as the cosmic soup of life. In cosmology cosmic soup is a mixture of subatomic particles that had emerged not long after the big bang (Otter, 2013) and is enigmatic but critical in the early development of the universe. Comparatively, trust is equally as enigmatic and critical, we don't fully understand it but must depend on it every day, where it ebbs and flows around us and binds all whom we love and care.

Perspective 2: scholars and practitioners

In the perspective two, trust is made complex by the conceptual overstretch of the construct in research circles. It is the reason why there are still wide–scale disagreements on its definition, properties and outcomes (Mayer *et al*., 1995; Rousseau *et al.*, 1998; Golbeck, 2009). This complexity is compounded by the growing volume of multidisciplinary literature in the last three decades (Stolle, 2002), which has generated a plethora of contextual models, concepts and definition. While some researchers will be lost in this sea of confusion, it should be pointed out that each discipline offers a unique perspective. For instance, philosophy questions the epistemology and ontology of trust (Warren, 1999; Uslaner 2002); psychology identifies its intrinsic properties (Rotter, 1967;

McKnight and Cummings, 1998); sociology makes observations and identifies its extrinsic behavioural properties (Luhmann, 1979; Gambetta, 1988) and economics tests its utility, transaction costs and benefits (Axelrod, 1984; Berg *et al*., 1995).

As these disciplinary strands continue to merge into each other's academic territory they continue to enrich but also deepen the complexity of the construct. This complexity is conveyed through one of two frequently cited keywords in the literature: 1) *multidimensional* (Grabner–Kräuter and Kaluscha, 2003; Bunker and Bartholomew, 2010) and 2) *multifaceted* (Zaheer *et al.*, 1998; Costa and Anderson, 2011). While the latter refers to the many faces of trust (Blomqvist, 1997) the former refers to the many layers of trust and the degree of depth between its layers (Corritore *et al*., 2003). Lewis and Weigert (1985) infamously described trust as a construct that has, *"distinct cognitive, emotional, and behavioural dimensions which are merged into a unitary social experience"* (Lewis and Weigert, 1985, p.970). In sum, these many dimensions and facets of trust have stimulated scholarly interest of the construct but have also created an intellectual quagmire in research circle (Metlay, 1999) that has compounded its elusive identity causing what Watson (2009) calls a *crisis of trust*.

2.4 Categories and groups

To explicate the complexity of trust I decode and unpack its multiple layers and conceptually rearrange them into thematic categories and groups. While each respective category represents a significant building block of trust, collectively they are mutually dependent on one other. It should be noted that the hierarchical ordering of these categories do not infer the sequencing of relationships or how relationships are initiated or fostered. They are strictly thematic in nature.

In contrast, groups are nested within a category and represent the many layers (facets, dimensions) in a building block: where each layer represents a distinct set of principles or properties that constitute the formation of that layer. To respect previous works I attempt to use as much of the original keywords as possible but at the cost of some overlaps. In this regard, some keywords and their principles and properties may be found in other categories and groups. This overlap reflects the complexity of the construct and the continual challenge of disseminating its principles and properties.

Rationale of conceptual arrangement

This conceptual rearrangement is required to support the exploration of the main research question. It is also required to identify prominent themes in trust: which on one hand does not over simply the construct, but on the other clarifies the scope of these multiple layers in a manner that reflects its complexity. Both offline and online trust studies were included in the categorisation and grouping of themes. However, offline works dominant much of this arrangement due to three reasons.

First, most of the significant studies of trust have been conducted in the offline domain (Rotter, 1967; Luhmann, 1979; Coleman, 1990; Gambetta, 1988; Shapiro *et al.,* 1992; Yamigishi and Yamigishi, 1994; Mayer *et al.,* 1995; Roussea *et al.,* 1998; Hardin, 2002). Secondly, scholars believe that researchers should ground an understanding of trust offline before it is applied and studied online (Wang and Emurian, 2005; Pavlou and Gefen, 2004; Lee *et al*., 2007). Thirdly, it has been proposed that what is applicable to trust offline can also be applied to trust online (Corritore *et al.,* 2003; Lee *et al.,* 2007) with some *modifications* (Shankar *et al*., 2002; McKnight *et al*., 2011). These modifications are required because there are some significant distinctions that differentiates online situations from those in the offline domain (Wang and Emurian, 2004).

Thematic categories

From the review of literature the identified layers of trust can be classed into ten groups. These groups can be further downsized into four categories: 1) analytical perspectives, 2) relationship state, 3) mediated exchange and 4) temporal transference. The first category conveys the breadth of relationships, the second conveys the depth of relationships, the third conveys how trust is assessed in relationships and the fourth conveys the transitive nature of trust over time.

2.4.1 Analytical perspectives

The analytical perspective category consists of three groups: 1) objects of trust, 2) manifestations of trust and 3) structures of trust. Previously I discussed that trust can be studied from different disciplinary perspectives. The groups in this category represent the different analytical perspectives and orientations that can be used to study trust and therefore conveys the breadth of relationships.

2.4.1.1 Objects of trust

Trust can be studied through the agency of human constructed objects. Sztompka (1996, 1999) for instance emphasised that trust can be embodied in different objects. These o*bjects of trust* (Hall *et al.,* 2001; Sztompka, 1996) can come in a range of social forms and be found at various levels of society. If one is to study trust as an object, then at the most basic level you will require two objects: a trustor and trustee, where the former will have to be at least a person, since trust is a social construct that requires human action and interaction. However, the object from the trustee side does not need to be human. For instance, the trustee could be a structure of social order like an *institution* (Parry, 1976; Pavlou and Gefen, 2002) or even an *artefact* (information system).

People as objects

When the object of trust (trustee) is another person then it can be referred to as *interpersonal trust* (Rotter, 1971; Mayer *et al*., 1995) because it entails the actions and interactions that can occur between two people (inter) (Rotter, 1971) which is also individualistic (personal) (Luhmann, 1988). Interpersonal trust can be found in groups (Corritore *et al*., 2003) or networks of people (Abrams *et al*., 2003)**.** For instance, in the online domain interpersonal trust can be found in the transitive exploitation of social networks, which is commonly found in online social networking sites (Golbeck, 2005).

Consider the setting where the trustor is unfamiliar with the trustee but both know and trust a third–party (mediating person). The third–party in this case can act as a *trust bridge* between the two who can recommend to the trustor that the trustee is trustworthy. This setting is referred to as the *transivity* of trust (Golbeck 2005, 2006; Jøsang *et al*., 2006). Though it should be noted that Golbeck (2006) states that it is not transitive in a tightly–coupled manner since peoples behaviours (decisions, actions) can be unpredictable (Sztompka, 1998). Nevertheless, transivity illustrates the utility of trust in fostering and expanding personal connections between unfamiliar persons that extend beyond the trustor's immediate social circle. From the perspective of the trustor transivity is propagated by, *"...trusting all those people who are trusted by persons we trust."* (Zieglar and Lausen, 2005, p.337). It is the reason why transivity is often perceived as the most explicit form of trust propagation in online social applications (Jøsang *et al*., 2006, 2007).

Institution as objects

When the object of trust is an offline (brick–and–mortar) or online (web–based) institution then it is referred to as *institutional trust* (Metlay, 1999; Hudson, 2006) or *institution–based trust* (Pavlou and Gefen, 2004). In this setting, trust is embedded in the internal (legal conditions), external (regulators) or authoritative (legal or regulatory) networks of that institution. These networks provide relative stability, security and protection for unfamiliar persons to come together and build relationships (Zucker, 1986; Shapiro, 1987; Mollering, 2006 in Bachmann and Zaheer, 2006; Lim *et al*., 2006) that also prevent such unfamiliar persons from the abuses of trust. For instance, in an unfamiliar setting a trustor may be less willing to entrust the trustee because he has no social history of her and is uncertain of her motive and actions. In this setting the institution could provide the relative security to induce participation from both parties, while also provide limited guarantees and assurances that would prevent the abuses of trust from the trustee (Shapiro, 1987; McKnight and Chervany, 2002; Pavlou and Gefen, 2004).

Artefacts as objects

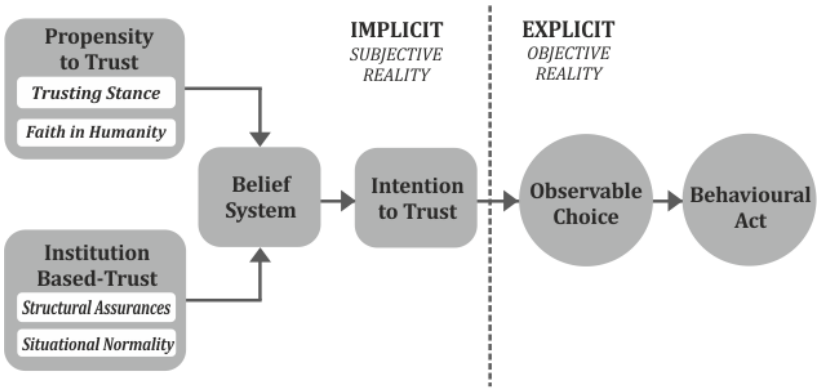
When the object of trust is an artefact the principles and properties that regulate trust is not as clear compared to interpersonal or institutional trust. In the online domain artefacts can be socio–technical systems such as the encryption methods used to process monetary transactions (PayPal) or the metrics used in computational networks (rating and recommendation systems) (Massa and Avesani, 2007; Golbeck, 2009).

2.4.1.2 Manifestations of trust

When trust can is studied at the personal level it can manifest as an *implicit* or *explicit* phenomenon (Frith and Frith, 2008). These two broad manifestations can be studied as a mutual exclusive phenomenon, where there is either a focus on an implicit (Rotter, 1980; McKnight and Cummings, 1998; McKnight and Chervany, 2002) or explicit (Gambetta, 1988; Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001). Alternatively, it can be studied as a mutual dependant phenomenon, where both implicit and explicit manifestations are investigated (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010).

To demonstrate the relationship between the implicit and explicit I adapt three conceptualisations of trust and elucidate the trusting process as experiences as it transitions from the subjective reality to objective reality (see Fig. 7). In implicit manifestations, trust is typically examined as an intrinsic construct where

cognitive antecedents of trust are identified and mapped (McKnight and Chervany, 2002). In contrast, explicit manifestations is typically examined as an extrinsic construct where the decision to trust can be observed its fulfilment is performed as a behavioural action (Berg *et al.,* 1995; Creed, 1996).



Adapted From: Mayer *et al.,* (1995); McKnight and Chervany, (2002); McKnight *et al.*, (2011)

Fig. 7 Implicit and explicit manifestations

Unlike the explicit, implicit manifestations cannot be physically observed. In this imperceptible setting, there is an intention to trust which is formed in the trustor's belief system. According to McKnight *et al.,* (1998) this trusting belief is influenced by two antecedents: 1) a *propensity to trust* (Mayer *et al.,* 1995; Kramer, 1999) and 2) *institution–based trust* (McKnight *et al.,* 1998; McKnight and Chervany, 2002).

Antecedent 1: Propensity to trust

Propensity refers to the general willingness of a trustor to entrust the trustee (Mayer *et al.,* 1995; Lambright *et al.,* 2010). The propensity to trust will vary for each person (Hofstede, 1980; Mayer *et al*., 1995) and will be influenced by a further two properties: 1) *faith in humanity*, which assumes that people generally mean well and is dependable and 2) *trusting stance*, which assumes that it is better to treat people as though they mean well and is dependable as this will result in a better outcome for both parties (McKnight and Chervany, 2002; McKnight *et al*., 2011).

Antecedent 2: Institution–based trust

Institution is composed of two properties: 1) *structural assurances* and 2) *situational normality*, both of which are tied to the setting of trust. Whereas structural assurance refers to the belief that fulfilment of trust will be predicated by contracts, regulations and guarantees, situational normality refers to the belief

that fulfilment of trust will be contingent on the favourability of the situation and that it is well ordered (McKnight and Chervany, 2002; McKnight *et al*., 2011).

From implicit to explicit

To further explicate the mutual dependent relationship between the implicit and explicit I provide the following instance. Consider the setting where a belief to trust has been formed by the trustor about a particular retail shop in a shopping mall and there is an intention to buy a product from the shop. Fulfilment of the intention will be influenced by the trustor's high propensity to trust and perceptions on the situational and structural properties of the shop (security, reputation). Conversely, this intention may be suppressed and therefore not explicitly acted upon by the trustor, who may feel there is still insufficient information to perform the intention (Tan and Thoen, 2000). If however the trustor does fulfil this intention and purchases the product, then this will be manifested as an observable decision and act that can be experienced and witnessed by other parties (Deutsch, 1958; Skirbekk, 2009).

2.4.1.3 Structures of trust

Trust can be studied through the formation of social structures (Wasserman, 1994). These structures are found in interpersonal relationships and denotes the breadth, in terms of the number of contacts a trustor has in his social structure. I use the terms micro, meso and macro to convey this breadth relative to their vertical alignment in society. Four common social structures have been identified in the literature: 1) dyads 2) triads 3) groups or teams and 4) networks.

Structure 1: dyads and triads

Dyadic and triadic structures can be found at the micro–level of society. The former involves two contacts (Larzelere and Huston, 1980; Butler and Cantrell, 1984), while the latter involves three contacts in a relationship. Dyads can be illustrated through the basic *three–part relation*, where the trustor entrusts the trustee to do *x* (Baier, 1986; Hardin, 1992; Warren 1999). It is called a three–part relation because there is an expectation from the trustor that the trustee is willing to contribute to the fulfilment of *x* (Barber, 1983; Marsh 1994). Conversely, the trust bridge analogy previously discussed where a third–party mediates relations between a trustor and trustee, is an instance of a triad as it involves three contacts in the relationship (Busken, 2003).

Structure 2: groups or teams

Group or team structures can be found at the meso–level of society. These structures typically involve groups of people (Stolle, 1998; Knack, 2003) and encompass regional or local voluntary communities and associations (Putnam, 1995; Anheier and Kendall, 2002). Within these groups shared beliefs, knowledge and goals enable collective cooperative action between contacts, in such a way that the payoff of the collective action of the group is at times deemed more important than the payoff of the individual group member (Kramer *et al*., 2001). This is evident in commercial institutions where temporarily interdisciplinary teams are formed to solve specific problems (Meyerson *et. al*., 1996; Jarvenpaa *et al*., 1998). In this setting, groups can induce its members to cooperate and contribute to the social structure even if it is against the self–interest of the member in the group.

Moreover, it can also provide a disciplinary framework to propagate cultural norms the violations of which (acts of distrust), could result in the punishment of the group member (Cook *et al*., 2009). While this disciplinary enforcement may be costly to groups it offers three benefits. First, groups will adopt the interests of the individual even if the group and its members are cautious and do not trust the individual (Hardin, 2001). Secondly, the cohesive structure of groups provides protection for the individual, particularly in risk–laden situations, because it reduces the complexity of the world (Luhnman, 1979) and the vulnerability of individual actions (Meyerson *et. al*. 1996; Kramer, 2001). Thirdly, when the level of trust is increased in groups it results in higher levels of cooperation and performance; correspondingly when the level of trust is diminished, then it results in lower levels of cooperation and performance (Golembiewski and McConkie, 1975; Mayer *et al*., 1995; Jones *et al.,* 1998).

Structure 3: networks

Network structures can be found at the macro–level of society (Cook *et al.,* 2009). In the offline domain they are typically found in brick–and–mortar institutions (Ring, 1997) and in the online domain in web–based social networking sites (Ziegler and Lausen, 2005). The latter has become a mainstream diet of social communication for half the UK's population (eMarketer.com, 2013) despite some high profile breaches in trust and privacy (Dwyer *et al.,* 2007). In networks, particularly those that are in the online domain, like social networking sites, the transitive nature of trust has been influential in establishing first encounter relationships and multiple dyadic ties between unfamiliar persons (Fono and

Raynes–Goldie, 2006; Golbeck and Kuter, 2009) that extend beyond the trustor's immediate social circle. These dyadic ties are cemented by two properties: 1) by information deemed trustworthy from individuals, which is referred to as *trust statements* (Massa and Avenai, 2007) and 2) by the *reputation* of the trustee (Mui, 2002; Golbeck and Hendler, 2004). These properties are reflective of those found in the Friend–Of–A–Friend (FOAF) project (FOAF, 2004). The project enabled people to create and interlink trust statements based on the familiarity of persons in the project. This enabled trustor's to build a *web of acquaintances* who are deemed trustworthy (Golbeck *et al.,* 2003). In short, these two properties have reduced the complexity of these networks and supported the decision–making process to trust (Kim *et al.,* 2008).

2.4.2 Relationship state

The relationship state category consists of three groups: 1) characters of trust, 2) attitudes of trust and 3) degrees of trust. The groups in this category represent the relational role, state and convey the depth of trust in relationships. Here, I highlight principal and property differentiations in social and professional relationships and underline how these distinctions affect the depth of trust in a relationship.

2.4.2.1 Characters of trust

Character refers to the qualities (characteristics) of a person in their adopted societal roles. There are two broad types of characters: 1) *social characters* and 2) *professional characters*, each one of which encompass principles and properties that are distinct from the other. Corritore *et al.*, (2003) use the terms *general* and *specific* to distinguish the two characters. Similarly, I use the following statement to separate these two said characters, insofar as to highlight their distinct qualities: *"knowing too well that my friend Adam is not a dentist I trust him to drive me to work (generality) but not perform dentistry (specificity) on me"*. I therefore align and extend Corritore's terms to the social and professional characters outlined above: where *general* is aligned to social characters and *specific* is aligned to professional characters (see Fig 8).

Social characters: generality

Social characters can be found in social relationships. According to Earle and Cvetovich (1995) social relationships of trust are based on the cultural similarity of people and have played an important function for social organisation in society.

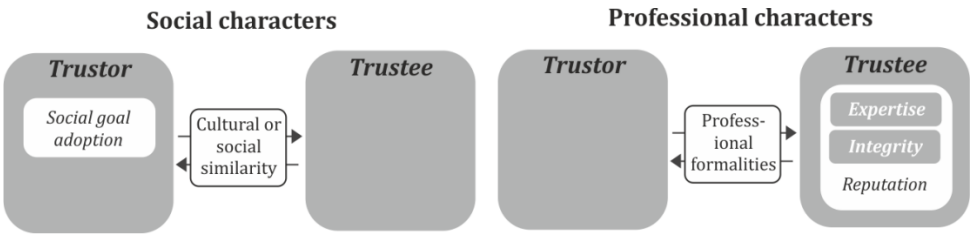


Fig. 8 Social and professional characters

For instance, social relationships have enabled people to accumulate social capital, particularly when participating in voluntary organisations, which can increase the level of trust in society (Putnam, 1995; Anheier and Kendall, 2002). In this setting, it is the participation and engagement of informal relationships (family, friends) that put the *social* in social relationships, Yamagishi and Yamagishi (1993) in (Delhey and Newton, 2003, p.98). Within the confines of these informalities it is the social circumstances of similarity (similar interests, hobbies) and the act of social goal–adoption (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010) that moderates much of the interplay in social relationships. Castelfranchi and Falcone (2010) state that social goal–adoption occurs when a person altruistically adopts a goal as though it is theirs. These types of relationships represents the type of genuine relationships that does not require much enforcement or regulation (Offe, 1999).

Professional characters: specificity

Professional characters can be found in professional relationships. Compared to the former these types of relationships are distinct because they are characterised by *expertise* of a specific craft or specialised knowledge (Barber, 1983; Downie, 1990). Moreover, they are governed by professional formalities such as culture (professional norms) and conduct (ethical and legal codes) that are sometimes regulated by exogenous professional bodies (Brien, 1998). In their adopted roles or what Milgram (1963, 1974) would call *agentic state*: a position in which a professional will play their roles and enact behaviours and actions that is passed by other higher authority figures, expertise often solidifies their adopted role. However, while trust remains a crucial bases for professional and business

morality (Brenkert, 1998) it nevertheless lacks the care and intimate conditions found in social relationships, particularly those found in the family unit. As Sir Walter Scott (1815) eloquently puts it*, "Weel, blude's thicker than water..."* (Scott, 1815, Chapter IX).

Role of expertise in professions

The property of expertise is central in professional relationships because it enables people to assess and screen the authenticity of a professional (Siergrist and Cvetkovich, 2000; Owen and Powell, 2006). For instance, in a workplace setting, expertise can become a powerful sign to authentic the identity of a professional. In a complex group or network of professionals this minimises the costly signals of screening individuals (Spence, 1973). It is widely acknowledged that professionals, such as doctors or civil engineers, communicate through a common rhetoric that may be alien to people outside those professional circles (Barber, 1983). In this setting, the identification of this common rhetoric by a trustor can be used to authenticate the identity and therefore trustworthiness of a trustee.

However, whereas trust in social relationships is voluntary (McCabe and Rigdon, 2003; Gächter *et al.,* 2004) this is not so evident in professional relationships where trust is dependent on the fulfilment of contractual obligations (Barber, 1983; Luhnman in Gambetta, 1988; Sake, 1991). In this setting, there is the perceived positive expectation (from the trustor) that these obligations will be fulfilled expertly and with a degree of '*technical competence* and *fiduciary responsibility'* (Barber, 1983). The former can be interpreted as a form of ability, the latter a form of integrity. Expectation remains positive because there is an ethical or legal (contractual) obligation to fulfil a trusting action (DeMott, 1988). For instance, the term technical competence can refer to the satisfactory fulfilment of a task. The trustee must first meet this basic requirement. The preceding term fiduciary refers to the trustee's just use of knowledge and the expectation that the trustee will refrain from performing acts that may harm the trustor (Marsh, 1994; Offe, 1999). This second requirement will reinforce the first.

In short, it is the reason why in some special settings (surgical operating theatre) a trustor will place more faith in a professional to fulfil a task compared to a person of general social standing (Barber, 1983; McKnight *et al.,* 2004). While this may be interpreted as a form of reliability it is important to note that the properties of expertise and integrity in this situation goes beyond the

dependability of the trustee due to the faith reason of entrusting. Expertise can therefore be used in conjunction with integrity to self–regulate relationships in professional circles insofar as to identify rogue agents who may have deceptive or insidious intentions. However, this self–regulation may come at the cost of alienating those who are not part of the professional circle. From the perspective of the outsider, it is the reason why there is a significant correlation between trust and the perceived risks and benefits of professional services, especially those professional services people are unfamiliar with (Siegrist and Cvetkovich, 2000).

Role of power in professions

If information and the judgement to execute that information is a key characteristic of a professional (Frowe, 2005; Oakeshott, 1989) then it is the latter part '*...the judgement to execute that information...'* that give professionals discretionary powers to legitimise their decisions and actions (Barber, 1983; Frowe, 2005). Consider the following instance where a trustor has minimal knowledge of motor vehicles and gets his car repaired by a mechanic (professional and trustee) in an auto repair centre who he is both unfamiliar with. In this setting the mechanic possesses the expertise that enables her to repair the car. This specialised knowledge enables her to regulate the course of the relationship as to what parts of the car needs to be repaired whether or not they have to be repaired at all. In the end it legitimises her decisions and actions despite how much the repair may unknowingly cost the trustor. In sum, Barber (1983) emphasises that, *"...when some parties to a social relationship or some members of a social relationship cannot comprehend that expertise, performance can be controlled by trust "*(Barber, 1983, p.14).

Party and control trust in professions

In the online domain, this form of self–regulation is reflective of Tan and Thoen (2000) system of *party trust* and *control trust*. Whereas the former refers to the intrinsic properties of the trustee, the latter refers to the structural mechanisms that enforce trust (institutions). In this setting, the control property could be in–part the auto repair centre where the car is being repaired. The reputation of the institution in this case is used to legitimise decisions and actions. In contrast, the party component could be the specialised knowledge that is used by the mechanic to dictate the course of the relationship. While self–regulation has powerful

benefits for those inside the professional circle the lack of understanding from those who are outside can create rifts in society.

Role of distrust and reputation in professions

It is the reason why there is a lack of trust or rise of distrust in some professions. For instance, in two consecutive public opinion polls nurses have been perceived by the public as being more trusted than doctors (Davis, Which? 2012; Ipsos Mori, 2013) despite being labelled as lacking in empathy or compassion by the Government (BBC, A Point of View, 7th June, 2013). Given the controversial subject matter, at present there is a lack of research to explain why this is a consistent positive perception. Based on present research two possible reasons can be postulated: 1) nurses provide intimate palliative care to patients (William, 2001) and 2) nurses reduce the use of rhetoric and communicate more directly and openly to patients (McCabe, 2004). From the view of the patient (trustor) they may feel that the patient–medic relationship is unidirectional and dictated by doctors who use rhetoric and reputation as a means to self–regulate and empower the relationship.

Reputation remains an invaluable asset of trust to professionals. In this context, I define reputation as an intangible asset that can yield positive economic benefits. It is built over time as a result of repeated actions and interactions and can validate the expertise and integrity of the trustee, Newton (2003) in (Harrison *et al.,* 2003, p.111). Reputation is strongly associated with trust and can signal the trustworthiness of the trustee (King–Cases *et al.,* 2005; Muller, 2006). Although reputation can be found in social and professional relationships (Sabater and Sierra, 2001; Aharoni, 2000) it can be argued that reputation cements status more so in professional than in social relationships (Barnett and Pollock, 2012). For instance, an online study conducted by Resnick and Zeckhauser (2002) on eBay's (an online auction marketplace) feedback and reputation system highlighted that people are more likely to buy from vendors (sellers) with higher reputation scores.

Fragility and repair of trust in professions

Kramer (1999) states that trust can be fragile because it is easier to damage that create. If reputation can signal trust in a relationship then a damaged reputation can diminish and therefore damage trust (Meyerson *et al.*, 1996; Lucas, 2005). In professional relationships damaged trust can be more diffused and prolonged compared to social relationships. This is because professional relationships lack

the intimate conditions that strengthen the relational bond between people in social situations. Using the above eBay case, if a buyer (trustor) purchased a product from a vendor and found it unsatisfactory he will simply not buy from that vendor again. Repairing a damaged reputation that is built on a past trustworthy encounters requires reciprocal exchanges between two willing parties to resolve cognitive conflicts of beliefs. This is because present trusting behaviours have become misaligned due to non–fulfilment (Kim *et al.,* 2009).

Extant studies have already shown that damaged trust can be repaired in social relationships (Kim *et a*l., 2009) and at the institutional–level (Gillespie, 2009). However, there is no research to show how a damaged reputation can be repaired in professional relationships or examine the role of *forgiveness* in the repair of trust (Xie and Peng, 2009; Marsh and Briggs in Golbeck 2009). Sells and Hargrave (1998) propose that forgiveness generally requires letting go of something over time. Pingleton's (1989) defines forgiveness as, *"…relinquishing the right to retaliate subsequent to injury"* (Sells and Hargrave, 1998, p.22). In retrospect, Shoorman *et al*., (2007) proposes that further research has to be conducted in this area: particularly in terms of identifying the type of conditions that are required to forgive trust after it has been abused.

2.4.2.2 Attitudes of trust

Attitudes are types of conscious experiences (internal evoked feelings) found in trust relationships (Dunn and Schweitzer, 2005). There are two broad types of attitudes: 1) rational attitudes (Coleman, 1990; Tadelis, 2008) and 2) emotional attitudes (Boon and Holmes, 1991; Dunn and Schweitzer, 2005). In research circles, rational attitudes have been referred to as cognitive trust (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Webber, 2008), while emotional attitudes have been referred to as affective trust (Jones, 1996; Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Chen *et al*., 2011) or relational trust (Rousseau *et al*., 1998).

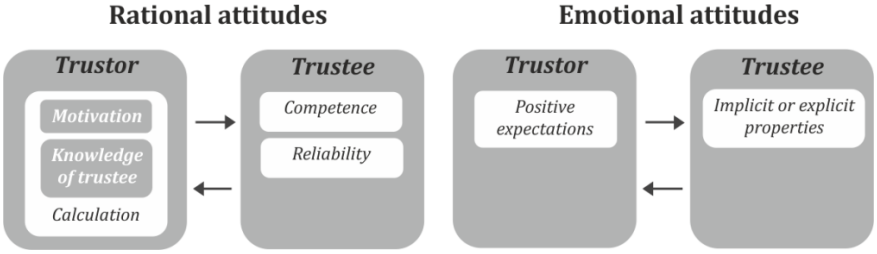


Fig. 9 Rational and emotional attitudes

Research has shown that rational attitudes are distinct from emotional attitudes but the type of relationships that emerge in society are complex and may not necessarily reflect these distinctions. More pivotally, relationships may not be rational or emotional in the purist sense but can consist of both types of attitudes (Jones, 1996; Johnson and Grayson, 2005). In a sense, it may not follow the described rational, emotional sequence but occur in the reverse order (emotional, rational) (McAllister, 1995). Notwithstanding these distinctions, it is still vital to clarify these two terms independently before their mutual dependency is further elaborated (see Fig. 9).

Rational attitudes

A trustor's rational attitude can refer to his willingness to assess the competence and reliability of the trustee (McAllister, 1995; Rempel *et al.,* 1985). It can be found in workplace environments that are cemented by professional interdependent relationships, Lewick and Bunker (1996) in (Kramer and Tyler, 1996, p.114). In these settings, the assessment process of entrusting can be conceptualized as a form of rational calculation (Rousseau *et al.,* 1998) to weigh the accumulated knowledge of the trustee. This entails assessing their history (McAllister, 1995) and reputation (Johnson and Grayson, 2005). Consequentially this rational calculation can be used by the trustor to predict the trustee's likeliness of fulfilment.

For instance, consider the setting where a shop manager (trustor) is about to interview a prospective shop assistant (the trustee) for a vacant shop position. In this setting the manager would assess and therefore calculate the shop assistant's level of competence and reliability. Competence can refer to her ability to fulfil the role, while reliability can refer on her ability to arrive to time on work. The manager will make this calculation based on the limited information that is presented on the shop assistants resume. With no personal contact or history with the shop assistant the resume becomes a critical source for the manager to predict the trustworthiness of the shop assistant. In this setting, the strength of the trustor's rational attitude to entrust could dictate whether or not to hire the trustee. If the trustor strongly believes that the trustee is competent and reliable (trusts information in resume) then this could result in a positive outcome where the trustee is hired. Under this positive condition the trustor is incentivized to hire the trustee because rational calculation has been able to predict the favorability of the trustee.

In sum, this condition is reflective of Coleman's (1990) conception of *complex rational expectations* where knowledge (of the trustee) and the incentive to trust (from the trustor) are seen as two mutual dependent properties in the process of rational decision–making (Hardin *et al*., 1992). Conversely, if the trustor strongly disbelieves that the trustee is not competent and reliable (distrust information in resume) then this could result in a negative outcome where the trustee is not hired (Sonnenwald, 2002). This instance reflects the trustor's rational choice to trust or distrust (Coleman 1990; Hardin 2004) when calculating the economic costs and benefits of a trustee in settings of uncertainty (Chiles and McMackin, 1996). Although it should be underlined that this calculation will be predicated by the trustor's extrinsic motivations (perceived incentives) to entrust and the trustee's competence and reliability of fulfilling the trusting action.

Emotional attitudes

Conversely, an emotional attitude is the intense emotional bond that exists between a trustor and a trustee (Lewis and Weigert, 1985). Emotional attitudes can be found in social relationships such as those found in family circles or romantic relationships (Boon and Holmes, 1991). In these settings there is a general positive expectation that others (trustee's) will be good to us be competence and look after our interests (Jones, 1996). The strength of emotional attitudes depends on whether the properties that contributes to these emotions are *explicit* or *implicit*. Explicit properties could be physical perceptions such as the attractiveness or the aesthetics of the trustee (Riegelsberger *et al.,* 2005).

In contrast, implicit properties could be the positive personal history of the trustee. This personal history is accumulated through repeated exchanges of caring and concerning actions between the trustor and trustee (Rosseau *et al.,* 1998). Whether attitudes are explicit or implicit it should be noted that like rational attitudes, emotional attitudes are not immune to the abuses of trust. Thought when trust is diminished or damaged it may be less problematic to repair. From this position, Lewis and Weigert (1985) had posited that when trust is broken so do the emotional properties that bond the relationship. However, unlike rational attitudes relationships fostered on emotions are not as calculative but is driven by intrinsic motivation and bias.

For instance, when shopping for consumer goods a trustor may purchase Product A, instead of Product B. The decision to purchase will not be contingent on price or quality of the product (B cost less and is of higher quality) but by the

trustor's emotional attachment to Product A. In contrast, homo economicus (economic man) would simply focus on the utility of the product regardless of emotions and choose Product B. In sum, emotional attitudes establish emotional attachments to the things we love. It is the reason why institutions with global brands continue to spend billions on *marketing communications* (marcom) (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2009). Marcom based on rationality may sell the odd product in the short–run to consumers but marcom based on emotional touch–points can bring consumer loyalty, commitment and trust in the long–run (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; O'Shaughnessy, O'Shaughnessy, 2003).

Mutual dependency of attitudes

When rational and emotional attitudes are brought together in a relationship their influences are not always equally weighted. While both attitudes can coexist in the same relationship it is important to stress that rationality forms the basis from which emotional attitudes can emerge (Lewis and Weigert, 1985). This rational accession before emotion is more prevalent when relationships of trust are in their initial phases and there is incomplete information about a trustee (Swift and Hwang, 2013). Though as McAllister (1995) had suggested when relationships of trust progress over time and emotional properties start to mature, rationality becomes less important to assess trustworthiness.

On contemplating the interdependent nature of both attitudes it has come to fruition that their relational link is fragile and one that is hard to define. While rational attitudes can be found in professional relationships it does not per se exclude these relationships from being loaded with emotional attitudes. Thus whether an attitude is rational or emotional will be predicated by the extrinsic motivations of the trustor, the intrinsic properties (ability, competence, benevolence) of the trustee (Yang *et al*., 2009) and past experiences (Morrow and Hansen, 2004).

2.4.2.3 Degrees of trust

Degree is associated with the depth of trust in a relationship (Corritore *et al.,* 2003). The degree of trust in society will vary. These degrees are influenced by political (Slovic, 1993, Zmerli and Newton, 2008), economic (Bergren *et al.,* 2006), social (Knight, 2001) and cultural (Sztompka, 1996; Inglehart, 1997) norms. While I have outlined four main norms, not all of these types will be discussed in this section as it will deviate the direction of the thesis. The purpose of the listing is to

illustrate how trust is a percolation from the macro to micro–level where I focus on the latter. I first examine the political, social and cultural dimensions that can influence trust from an established political study.

Trust at the macro–level

From his Poland Study, Sztompka (1996) highlighted that culture norms can weaken the depth of trust in a country. In his study, he observed that the concept of *closed societies* (type of authoritarian society) (Popper and Havel, 2011) was responsible for depriving the cultural resources of his nation. In this setting, people were not able to openly and freely express their personal opinions, beliefs and behaviours because of the fear of being persecuted by state authorities. The constant feeling of fear had diminished the cultural identity of the nation which in turn had erected social barriers between people and thus created a counter–culture of distrust. In these conditions it was safer to distrust a trustee than to entrust. Sztompka (1996) continued to propose that trust at the macro–level can permeate down the strata of society and influence the depth of relationships at the micro–level (interpersonal, dyads). In sum, if the nation–state can be trusted and present structures to support the development of relationships, then we as a people will be more inclined to trust others.

Trust at the micro–level

Trust at the micro–level is mainly concerned with interpersonal relationships which is the focus of this thesis. At this level the degree of trust in society is dependent by the strength of relational ties that exists between the trustor and the trustee (Granovetter, 1973; McAllister, 1995; Buchillon, 2013). The strength of ties is considered significant as it plays a critical role in fostering cohesion in a group or network of people (Granovetter 1973, Forrest and Kearns, 2001). Three types of relational ties have been identified from the literature: 1) *strong–ties* (Granovetter, 1973), 2) *weak–ties* (Granovetter, 1973) and 3) *latent–ties* (Haythornthwaite, 2002) (see Fig. 10).

Relational tie 1: strength of strong–ties

The strength of these ties are influenced by three general properties: 1) the amount of time invested in the relationship, 2) the type of attitudes that are present in the relationship and 3) the type of social or professional characters that are present in a relationship (Granovetter, 1973). In the following paragraphs I discuss the ties relative to these three properties. Strong–ties or what has been

also been referred to as *thick trust* (Williams, 1988; Newton, 1997) is when a trustor and trustee share similar attitudes of trust. This attitudinal convergence forms the thick crust that bonds the two parties. In strong–ties, a trustor will participate in the stable and secure confines of his own social circle (family, friends) but will be less willing to interact with trustee's outside this circle whose values and beliefs may clash with his own (Yamigishi and Yamigishi, 1994, 1998).

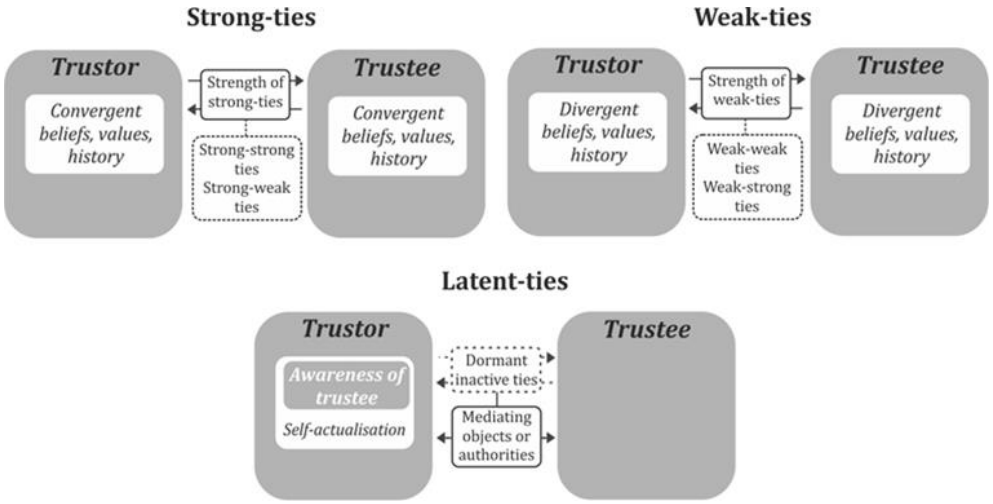


Fig. 10 Strong, weak and latent–ties

Properties of strong–ties

Within this social circle people will share common beliefs, values and history that is reflective of what Barber (1983) calls the *'primordial source'* of trust. These are engrained through the family unit, which in essence is the earliest stage of development of trusting beliefs and values. Uslaner (2002) refer to these trustor's collectively as *particularized trusters* because they stay within their own social cliques and are less willing to participate in wider society (Uslaner, 2002; Freitag *et al.,* 2009). The level of participation within these cliques will be dependant by the *strength of strong ties* (Krackhardt, 1992) but having very strong ties (strong–strong ties) in a relationship will not necessary mean that this depth will remain consistently strong and maintained in a state of equilibrium over time.

In Garfinkel's (1963) classic breaching experiments he illustrates that even the most patient and trusted people, however close they may be to the trustor, will have their limits of tolerance. In this setting, Garfinkel conceptualised trust as a form of *social order* and *stability*. From this interpretation he conducted a series of experiments to breach trust between people who are familiar with each other. Through these experiments he used irrational, illogical and sometimes nonsensical

acts to breach the strength of strong ties in relationships. For instance, in one experiment a trustor was told to converse to a trustee in an irrational, illogical sense that was designed to misalign the social order and stability of trust. The outcomes of the experiment highlighted that when trust becomes misaligned: as a result of unexpected trusting behaviours that violate social norms, then the trustor can become anxious, angry or bewildered, where the trustworthiness of the trustee is often put into doubt (Lindenberg, 2000).

Variances in strength of strong–ties

Irrespective of a trustor's allegiance to his clique in conditions of *strong–strong ties* research has shown the downside weaknesses of such behaviour. In contrast, a trustor with *strong–weak ties* will be more inclined and opportunistic to extend relations beyond his clique. However, this will be dependent on the level of *outward exposure* (amount of social connectedness) the trustor has with the wider society (Ermisch and Gambetta, 2010). Notwithstanding this opportunistic difference, having strong–strong ties does not necessarily mean that trustor's are always less willing to move beyond his clique and interact with the wider society. In hindsight, the strength of strong–ties will be influenced by society's political, economic, social and cultural norms.

For instance, in a cross–societal questionnaire study between American and Japanese participants, Yamagishi and Yamagishi (1994, 2011) illustrated that strong–ties in Japanese culture contributed to a lower level of *generalized trust* (willingness to trust strangers) compared to Americans whom are more willing to trust people they are unfamiliar with. This lower level of trust in Japan had unveiled a public dilemma in this type of society, from which the researchers further explored the societal conditions that led to this outcome. To resolve the dilemma, Yamagishi (1994) distinguished the difference between mutual assurance and generalised trust (Kramer, 1999; Gheorghiu *et al.,* 2009). In accordance to their rationale the results yielded in the questionnaires were shaped by a clash of opposing divergent cultures.

American culture is characterised by individualism, where a trustor is responsible for their own actions and will participate in unfamiliar settings. However, Japanese culture is characterised by collectivism, where a trustor will participate in settings of familiarity (Hagen and Choe, 1998). Within the confines of this condition trustors and trustees will cooperate in relatively secure social circles that are predicated by limited institutional guarantees and assurances. In

this setting the cultural norms that are shared and believed by members provide the basis from which signs of trust can be identified and confirmed. Subsequently these cultural norms and limited properties (guarantees, assurances) can be used to monitor and punish untrustworthy behaviour in the collective (Yamagishi 1994; Gheorghiu *et al.,* 2009).

In this familiar setting, trustors are able to foster and strengthen mutual assurances with trustees at the cost of the diminishing returns of generalised trust with unfamiliar trustees outside the circle. This way of building trust is reminiscent of Golbeck's *et al*., (2003) web of acquaintances that can be found in social networking sites. It is a phenomenon found in the online domain where a trustor will only initiate and foster relationships with those they are familiar with. In the case of Yamagishi's study (1994, 2011) trustors are locked in a collectivist culture that prevents bridges of trust from being built to trustees outside these circles of familiarity thus inhibiting generalized trust. However, more research has to be conducted in this area. Whether there is a direct causal relationship between collectivist culture and low levels of generalised trust is a hypothesis that is yet to be confirmed or rejected in research (Gheorghiu *et al.,* 2009).

Relational tie 2: strength of weak–ties

Weak–ties or what has been referred to as *thin trust* (Radin, 2006) occurs when a trustor and trustee have divergent attitudes of trust. This attitudinal divergence forms the thin crust which bonds the two parties. In relation to the depth of relationships weak–ties are so–called *weak* because they are established outside a trustor's social circle (Putnam, 1995) and is therefore not as deep–rooted compared to strong–ties.

Properties of weak–ties

In this setting, a trustor lacks the deep–rooted beliefs, values and history that are shared by particularized trustor's (Yamigishi and Yamigishi, 1994, 1998) and are more dependent on reputation as a means of cementing relationships (Zucker 1986; Yamigishi and Yamigishi, 1994). As a consequence of this weakness relationships are exposed by an increased level of uncertainty because unlike particularized trustors, trust is not informed through a familiar collective but is assumed (Luhnman 1979; Gambetta, 1988). These trustors are collectively known as *generalized trustors* (Stolle, 1998; Freitage *et. al*, 2009) and the outcome of these

trusting assumptions are dependent on the strength of weak ties (Granovetter, 1973).

Variances in strength of weak–ties

For instance, in an unfamiliar setting it is assumed that a trustor will fulfil a trusting action or reciprocate favorably. However, in situations where a trustor is characterized by weak–weak ties, then he will be less inclined to fulfil or reciprocate. Alternatively, in a situation where the depth of the trustors relationship is characterized by weak–strong ties then he will be more inclined fulfil or reciprocate favorably. While the relationship may seem weak in the initial phases a trustor will be more confident and willing to build bridges of trust with strangers with society at large (Putnam, 1995) even if those strangers have different beliefs, values and history from their own (Fukayama, 1995).

In addition, generalized trustors have more faith with human nature compared to particularized trustors. They take greater risks in fostering relationships and understand the social benefits and payoffs of interacting with the wider society (Granovetter, 1973). For instance, establishing relationships with unfamiliar but influential groups and networks (Baer, 2010) facilitates the accumulation of social stock and therefore social capital (Putnam, 1995; Gheorghiu *et al.,* 2009), the implications of which could open new unforeseen avenues and opportunities.

Relational tie 3: strength of latent–ties

Unlike the former two, latent–ties cannot be observed. I have identified this under–explored tie as a unique emergent phenomenon that is distinct from either strong or weak ties. The latency of ties remain speculative and a conjecture to be either confirmed or rejected in future studies. However, there is some promising empirical evidence to confirm its quasi–presence in relationships. While latent–ties have not been associated with studies in trust, the fact that latent relationships are present could signal the dormant embeddedness of trust in interpersonal relationships. The term latent–tie was first coined by Haythornthwaite (2002) whom defined it as, *"...a tie for which a connection is available technically but that has not yet been activated by social interaction..."* (2002, p. 389).

Properties of latent–ties

Latent–ties can refer to the dormant inactive tie that connects a trustor to a trustee. When activated these ties can add depth to the relationship. Consider the instance

where a trustor is participating in a group that consists of familiar and unfamiliar persons. Within this group dynamic he is aware of the presence of a particular trustee but has not had any previous interaction with her. In this situation the tie with the trustee is yet to be *self–actualised* by the trustor (Haythornthwaite, 2002, 2011; Flynn, 2006): meaning that this awareness must be activated through some type of physical enactment to trigger the initial process of relationship building. While Haythornthwaite (2002, 2005, 2011) states that latent ties are strictly interpersonal, Liu *et al.,* (2012) proposes that these ties can also emerge and be activated from what they call *mediating objects* like those found in images, groups or activities. This proposition remains credible because familiarity, regardless whether it is embedded in material objects in the offline (Gulati, 1995) or online (Komiak and Benbasat, 2006) domains can evoke emotive feelings of trust.

In short, if trust can pass between persons in a network of people as previously had been indicated by Golbeck (2005) in her concept of transivity, and a person can be represented as an object of trust (Sztompka, 1996; Corritor *et al*., 2003), then there is good reason to believe that trust can pass through mediating material objects. For instance, a trustor may be aware of a trustee in his wider social circle but may not have interacted with her before due to unfamiliarity. Then let us suggest that the trustor views an image of her who is seen embracing a third–party whom the trustor is familiar with and entrusts. In this setting the image of the third–party embracing the trustee has activated the dormant social–tie of the trustee and awakened the potentialities of initiating a relationship. While trustees are more likely to come from outside the trustor's immediate social circle and the initial relationship building phase may be weak (weak–ties) to begin with, Lüders (2008) suggests that these weaknesses can be diminished through repeated reciprocal exchanges with the trustee.

2.4.3 Mediated exchange

The mediated exchange category consists of two groups: 1) directions of trust and 2) factors of trust. The groups in this category represent the ebb and flow of signs of trust that are exchanged between the trustor and trustee. It therefore examines the properties that warrant trust of the trustee. Identifying these properties is important since they enable the assessment of trust from the perspective of the trustor.

2.4.3.1 Directions of trust

The directions of trust refer to the abstract flow of trust (Fisman and Khanna, 1999) as it ebbs and flows to and fro the trustor and trustee. Trust in dyadic relationships can flow in three directions: 1) *unidirectional*, 2) *bidirectional* and 3) *mutual* (Svensson, 2001, 2004) (see Fig. 11). These directions are not always mutually exclusive and the flow of trust can sometimes change from one direction to another. This is because relationships are not static but are shaped by an array of situational and temporal conditions and properties. As people grow and develop their characteristics, attitudes and situations can change which also affect the direction of trust.

Direction 1: flows unidirectionally

When trust is unidirectional, the trustor and trustee in the dyadic relationship are not in asymmetric roles. For instance, when the trustor entrusts the trustee, she may not necessary have the ability or power to reciprocate back to the trustor (Tipton and Krause, 2008; Kaplan, 2008). In this setting, trust is therefore unidirectional and flows one–way (Kramer, 1999; Hardin, 2002). It is dictated and flows from the trustor to the trustee and is indicative of a parent's relationship with their child.

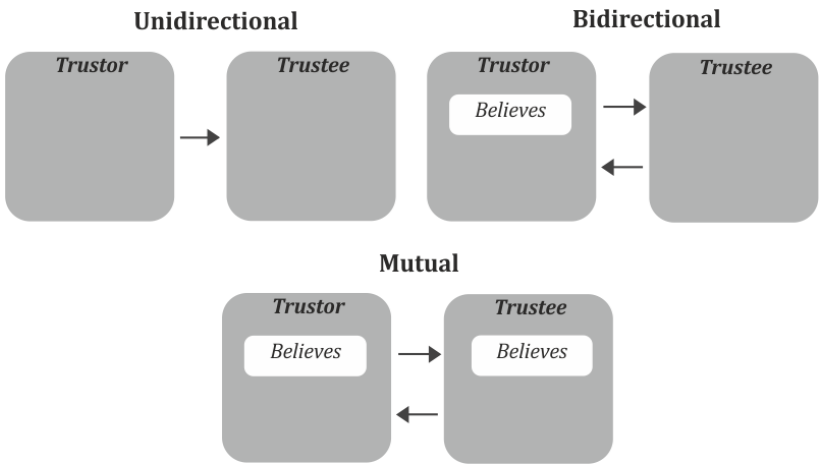


Fig. 11 Unidirectional, bidirectional and mutual

Direction 2: flows bidirectionally

When trust is bidirectional, trust flows from both directions. For instance, both the trustor and trustee will entrust each other and in repeated exchanges of trusting actions and interactions will share in the costs and benefits of the relationship (King–Cases *et al.,* 2005; Matsuo and Yamamoto, 2009). When trust becomes

bidirectional it can therefore be perceived as being reciprocal by the trustor. In this instance, the trustor has formed a positive expectation of the trustee and believes that the trustee will place her trust on the trustor (Ostrom and Walker, 2003; Castelfranchi, 2004).

Direction 3: flows mutually

When trust is mutual, it reflects the type of relationships that are experienced every day (Ostrom *et al*., 1992; Gambetta, 1998 in (Gambetta, 1990). Mutual trust *"…involves an interaction that is part of a long sequence of exchanges between the same parties."* (Hardin, 2002, p.17). Hardin (2002) states that these sequence of exchanges are similar to a game of prisoner's dilemma (PD). PD is a type of symmetric sequential game used in behavioural economics. It is used to evaluate the interaction of two people (Person A, B) to explain why these two might not cooperate with one another even though the payoff of the cooperative act may benefit the two relative to their mutual defections (Osborne, 1994). The mutual defection aspect of PD captures the intuition that cooperation is fragile in the face of risk of others succumbing to the temptations of defection as Person A benefits most in this game by defecting while Person B cooperates.

A game of PD that is repeated iteratively represents an ongoing interaction where mutually trusting and reciprocal exchanges develop over time. When trust is mutual it can therefore be perceived as being reciprocal by both the trustor and the trustee. In this setting, the trustor has formed a positive expectation of the trustee and believes that she will entrust him. Respectively, the trustee has formed a positive expectation of the trustor and believes that he will entrust her (Castelfranchi, 2004). Needless to say, these higher orders of mutual trust are complex from the perspective of economic theorizing and underdeveloped in the literature on trust.

Distinctions between three directions

In bidirectional and mutual relationship settings the trustor will actively remember and recall the trustee because positive expectations have been formed and she is perceived to be reliable. McCabe *et al*., (2003) calls this cognitive tracking of trust as '*goodwill accounting'*. More importantly, when trust flows unidirectionally it does not necessarily require the consensus of the trustee and is almost guaranteed. However, when trust flows bidirectionally or mutually it is

never guaranteed because unlike one–way trust a trustor may not have the power and authority to exert influence and control of the relationship.

For instance, in an unfamiliar setting a trustor will be uncertain of the trustee's motives and actions. Assuming the trustor is motivated and is willing to initiate a relationship with the trustee, then he in the face of uncertainty and risk will have to take a *leap of faith* (Luhnman, 1979; Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Giddens, 1990) to entrust the trustee. Yet this will be dependent on the trustor's willingness to be made exposed and vulnerable in the first place (Mayer *et al*., 1995; Rousseau *et al*., 1998) to the trustee's intentions and subsequent actions. This is because in dyadic relationship that flows back and fro the trustee must be given a degree of autonomy and opportunity to fulfil the trusting action regardless of whether she decides to defect or fulfil from the trusting action: even if this results in the trustee as being perceived as either trustworthy or untrustworthy by the trustor (Kee and Knox, 1970; Falcone and Castelfranchi, 2004).

In sum, the bidirection and mutual direction in which trust can flow from is therefore not quite a guarantee (Boon and Holmes, 1991) that trust will happen between the two parties but can be perceived as a positive expectation (Möllering, 2005), that is placed at the intersection of *hope* and *confidence* that it will most likely happen (Luhman, 1980). Though there are exceptions to the case, particularly in situations where a trustor will go beyond the leap of faith and risk his wellbeing for the betterment of others. For instance, Kurzban in Ostrom and Walker (2003) in investigating the evolutionary nature of reciprocity had suggested that in conditions of familiarity: where involved parties have repeatedly interacted in the past and benefits are mutually shared within the social structure, a trustor may *reciprocate altruistically* without the need of a conditional action from the trustee. In this setting, the trustor will behave in a way that may reduce his physical or mental wellbeing: in a manner that the cost of his diminishment will directly benefit the wellbeing of the trustee, with the expectation that she will reciprocate the favour back in the future.

2.4.3.2 Factors of trust

The factors of trust refer to the assertion that trust is a psychological belief that is composed of three main properties: 1) *ability*, 2) *integrity* and 3) *benevolence* (Gefen, 1997; Brower *et al.,* 2000; Poon, 2013). These three properties are collectively known as the *factors of trust* (Butler, 1991) and represent the intrinsic

properties of the trustee. They are intrinsic because they contribute to the basic trustworthiness of the trustee (see Fig. 12).

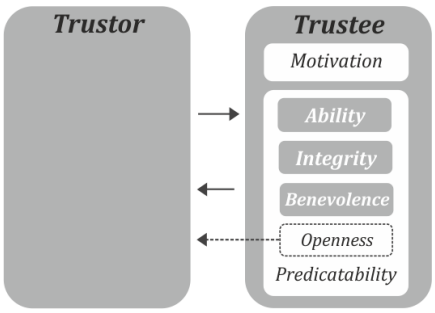


Fig. 12 Extended factors of trust

Trust–warranting properties

Properties that are likely to cause fulfilment of a trusting action have been referred to as *trust–warranting properties* (Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001). It is so called because, *"trust in the trustee is only warranted if these properties are present and if they motivate the trustee sufficiently."* (Riegelsberger, 2005, p.70). The factors of trust are therefore properties that warrant the trustworthiness of the trustee. They are applicable in the assessment of relationships when the directions of trust is either bidirectional or mutual, when both parties are active and return trusting actions. Though it is redundant in unidirectional relationships where trust is dictated by the trustor and the role of the trustee is inactive. I review each of these three factors respectively then elaborate on two influential trust-warranting properties (predictability, openness) that have surfaced in recent years.

Property 1: ability

Ability refers to the competence of a trustee in fulfilling a trusting action (Mayer *et al*., 1995) or her ability to influence an object of trust or situation (Ridings *et al*., 2002). It denotes her expertise of a specific craft or knowledge (Corritore *et al*., 2003).

Property 2: integrity

Integrity refers to the expectation that the trustee will act accordingly to a set of accepted formalised principles (Mayer *et al*., 1995; Corritore *et al*., 2003) or internalised norms (Riegelsberger *et al*., 2005) and can denote her credibility, dependability, honesty and reliability (McKnight and Chervany, 2000; Yoon, 2002). In a professional workplace setting integrity is when a trustee fulfils her

trusting action with a degree of *fiduciary responsibility* (Barber, 1983). These responsibilities can be in the form of professional formalities (professional culture, conduct) that is enforced within the internal structure of the institution and further reinforced through exogenous regulatory bodies (ASA, CAP).

Property 3: benevolence

Benevolence refers to the expectation that the trustee will look out for the welfare of the trustor and is driven by intrinsic motivations of caring and concerning actions (Mayer *et al*., 1995; Mayer and Davis, 1999). In this setting, the trustee could behave unconditionally to the trustor, such as performing voluntary acts of altruism, where there is no expectation of return from the trustee (Andreoni, 1990; Andreoni and Miller 2002). These intrinsic motivations occur as a result of repeated exchanges of caring and concerning actions between the parties (McAllister, 1995) and is reflective of the emotional attitudes that bond long–term trusting relationships. Unlike the prior two properties, acts of benevolence can signal the trustsee's personal attachment with the trustor. Yamigishi and Yamigishi (1994) and Uslaner (2002) both state that interpersonal relationships that are built on trust contain the unconditional belief that benevolent acts can happen in a trusting relationship.

Yamigishi extends this proposition one step further to argue that trust based on benevolence is the only true form of trust (Gheorghiu *et al*., 2009), just as true love can only be found in the trusting phase in romantic relationships and is dependent on the unconditional belief of the charitable orientation of the trustee (Boon and Holmes, 1991; Hinde and Groebel, 1991). This proposition may be extreme as it excludes the inferences from the former two properties and assumes that relationships that do not result in benevolent acts: such as those found in some professional relationships, are not and cannot be based on trust. This reductionist interpretation of trust to a single property is vocally criticized by scholars, such as Castelfranchi and Falcone (2000, 2010), who argue that this conception often overlook or negate the richness of trust and undermine its other facets and properties.

Other emergent properties

Besides the three factors (ability, integrity, benevolent) the properties of *predictability* and *openness* have emerged and gained momentum in research

circles. I have aligned these two dimensions to the basic three factors to extend the conceptualisation of trust–warranting properties (see Fig. 12).

Predictability property

McKnight and Cummings (1998) had first suggested the additional property of predictability which continues to be used in present research circles (Wu *et al*., 2010; Montgomery and Zhang, 2013). However, predictability may not be an exclusive independent property in addition to the basic factors but may be an outcome of their accrued value (Mayer *et al.,* 1995). By this I mean that the sum total of the basic factors infers the predictability of trust (Shapiro, 1992; Riegelsberger *et al.,* 2005).

Openness property

As for the latter, Mishra (1996) from an interview of 33 organizational managers had identified the property of openness. Openness refers to the willingness of the trustee to openly communicate (share knowledge) with the trustor. Following this emergence, Mayer *et al.,* (1995) and McKnight and Chervany (2000) had proposed that openness relates to dimensions of integrity or benevolence but this proposition may be understated. Although openness may include dimensions of integrity or benevolence, it also suggests that the trustee is more proactive than reactive in establishing open communications with the trustor (see Fig. 12). Openness can therefore be mutually exclusive and independent from integrity and benevolence. In this setting, openness can be conceived as a form of *pre–emptive open invitation* from a trustee to the trustor, the purpose of which is to enable the trustor to openly assess and probe the trustworthiness of the trustee.

Yet this dimension of openness is not directly implied in the properties of integrity or benevolence, which is more reactive in nature and where the trustor actively looks for these open signs but are not to be found. Consequentially, openness becomes an influential trust–warranting property for the trustor to assess trust and reinforce the internal validity of the basic factors. Unfortunately, due to the imperceptibility of openness it cannot be predicted, since the trustee must initially awaken and enact the open invitation to the trustor. Research at the institutional macro–level has already shown that openness in trust can positively influence how knowledge is used by workers within an institution (Ibrahim and Ribbers, 2009), whereas at the interpersonal micro–level it has shown that in a

business transaction a consumer (trustee) is more willing to buy from a vendor (trustor) if he is perceived to be more open (Ganesan and Hess, 1997).

2.4.4 Temporal transference

The temporal transference category consists of two groups: 1) dynamics of trust and 2) steps of trust. The groups in this category represent the changing and transitory nature of trust as it ebbs and flows through the passage of time. It examines the dispositional and situational properties that can influence this change and highlights *transition points* that can occur in a trusting relationship.

2.4.4.1 Dynamics of trust

Dynamics refers to the fluidic and changing nature of trust. The term dynamic has been associated with the construct because, trust *"...changes with experience, with the modification of the different sources it is based on, with the emotional state of the trustier, with the modification of the environment in which the trustee is supposed to perform...."* (Falcone and Castelfranchi, 2003, p.738). In a professional workplace setting, Rempel *et al.,* (1985) and Elofson (1998) have both demonstrated that the type of relationships we have with our colleagues can change for the better or worse. Falcone and Castelfranchi (2003) have identified two facets that can change the nature of trust: 1) emotional state of the trustor and 2) modification of the environment. Whereas the former facet can be interpreted as a type of *dispositional dynamic* since it warrants trust, the latter can be interpreted as a type of *situational dynamic*, since it is extrinsic and influenced by endogenous environmental properties (see Fig. 13). In the forthcoming paragraphs I discuss each of these dynamics respectively and emphasis the role of *time* in influencing the nature of trust in relationship (Elofson, 1998; Jonker and Treur, 1999).

Dynamic 1: dispositional dynamics

Dispositional dynamics refer to the emotional state of people involved in relationships. Although Castelfranchi and Falcone (2003) state that this emotional state emanates from the trustor it can also emerge from the side of the trustee. Compared to the latter type, the concept of dispositional dynamics is considered volatile because peoples experiences, such as their feelings, are not predictable but can vary (Zajonc, 1980) and become vulnerable to mood (McFarlane and Martin, 1988) and emotional (Dunn and Schweitzer, 2005) fluctuations.

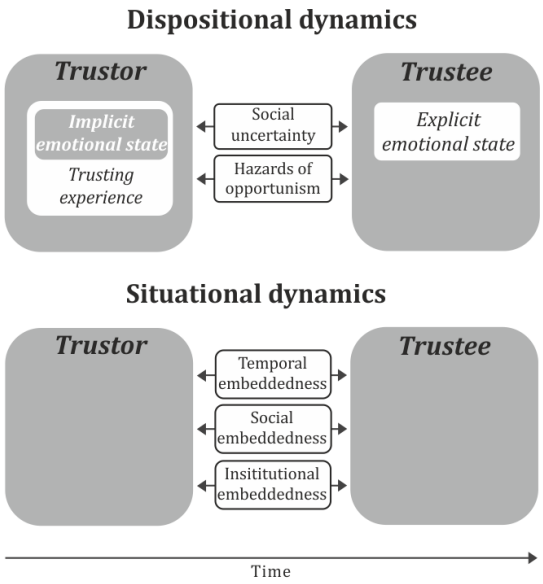


Fig. 13 Dispositional and situational dynamics

This type of dynamic can emerge when a trustor's experience (of trust) with the trustee changes overtime or vice versa. For instance, it can emerge in settings of *social uncertainty* or *hazards of opportunism*. When these emotional states change it can derail committed relationships (Lazzarini *et al*., 2008) or affect the subjective probability to assess trust (Gambetta, 1988). Moreover, these emotional states can either be implicit or explicit, both of which have been rigorously studied by Falcone and Castelfranchi in different instantiated settings (2001, 2004, 2010).

Emotional state A: implicit

An implicit emotional state emerges from a trustor's direct experience with the trustee. For instance, every time a trusting action is fulfilled, his level of trust of her will increase incrementally. In contrast, when a trusting action is not fulfilled his level of trust will diminish correspondingly. When he is engaged in a positive reciprocal exchange with the trustee this is known as a type of *circular relationship* or *positive feedback* that can influence and change his internal belief (to trust) and future decisions (intentions to act) with her. As Falcone and Castelfranchi (2001) states *trust therefore can influence trust itself*.

Emotional state B: explicit

Unlike the former, an explicit emotional state emerges from the side of the trustee (individual, group, network). As the breadth of the trustee's social structure expands, trust becomes more diffused because it is thinly spread throughout the structure. Consequentially, the thick crust that bonds the relationship and the trust bridges that connect the trustor to the potential latent relationships outside his immediate social circle also weakens. In this case the *latency of relationships* will unlikely be self–actualised and activated (see Section 2.4.2.3). In this setting, the drop in power relations between the trustee and trustor will affect her internal belief and future decisions with him. From a negative standpoint this could possibly mean withdrawing from the relationship or not reciprocating back to the trustor.

Dynamic 2: situational dynamics

Situational dynamics refer to the embeddedness of environmental properties. These properties are commonly called *contextual–properties* (Kramer, 1999; Riegelsberger, 2005) are structurally embedded in a setting (Granovetter, 1985) and can provide the foundations from which to signal trustworthiness (Riegelsberger, 2005). They are reminiscent of McKnight *et al.,* (2002, 2004) structural factors (see Fig. 7) which are properties embedded in situations that can influence a trustor's internal belief and intentions to trust. Unlike the volatility of dispositional dynamics, situational dynamics can stabilise and even induce trustworthy behaviour (Raub and Weesie, 1993, 2000). They are attributed by three main properties, the: 1) *temporal*, 2) *social* and 3) *institutional embeddedness* of the situation.

Attribution A: temporal embeddedness

Temporal embeddedness refers to the trustor's repeated reciprocal exchange with a trustee (Heide and Miner, 1992). For instance, in a workplace relationship a trustor may frequently interact with a trustee and she reciprocates correspondingly but this does not necessarily prevent him from interacting with her outside the workplace. In this setting, the accumulation of past behaviors and knowledge of the trustee enables the trustor to better predict her intentions and actions regardless of where the interaction have taken place. While the trustee, in a situation outside the workplace, could possibly abuse the relationship this would be costly to her. It would damage the relationship with him and diminish any social

stock accumulated by him of her and the benefits she could receive in future reciprocal exchanges. In repeated prisoner dilemma games temporal embeddedness has shown to induce cooperative (Coleman, 1990; Granovetter, 1985) and trustworthy (Axelrod, 1980; Sally, 1995) behavior; as the '*shadow of the future*' (Axelrode, 1984) often looms over the trustee the expectation of future reciprocity is often a strong enough incentive for her to fulfil a trusting action.

Attribution B: social embeddedness

Social embeddedness refers to the trustor's social exchange with a trustee. The degree of embeddedness is dependent by the stability, repetition and connectivity (breadth of social structure) embedded in the social exchange (Podolny and Baron, 1997; Glaeser *et al*., 2000). Social exchange can present itself as a form of information transaction that can signal the performance and reputation of a person (Riegelsberger, 2005). For instance, if the trustor has a strong reputation in a professional networking site like Linkedin.com, then it can be said that the trustor is socially well–embedded in the network. Then let us consider the setting where a trustee who is unfamiliar with the trustor wants to interact with him insofar as to gain access to some privileged information that he possesses within the network (professional circle). In order to gain access to such information the trustee will be incentivized to fulfil any requested actions from the trustor. In this setting, reputation for the socially well embedded can therefore be leveraged to induce trustworthy behavior from unfamiliar agents (Raub and Weesie, 2000; Riegelsberger, 2005).

However, this instance of social exchange is loosely–coupled and only provides a dyadic representation of social embeddedness, while undermining the potential of tightly–coupled, highly connected exchanges. For instance, Hayton and Carnabuc (2012) illustrate the correlation between the social embeddedness of cooperative behavior in social networks and the perceived organizational support (POS) of an institution. In this setting, when institutions make claims that they provide emotional support to workers, this support can be accessed through the internal social network of the institution. Their study showed that the size of the social network can affect the range of socio–economic resources available to workers. In this case, the density of the social network enabled workers to access a wider range of socio–emotional resources and encouraged the monitoring of people within the network (Lin, 1999; Hayton *et al*., 2012). Consequentially, this monitoring can help induce cooperative, helpful behaviour from colleagues in the

network, in which they voluntarily offer emotional support to distressed workers, because uncooperative behavior could lead to detection and punishment (Buskens and Raub, 2002; Hayton *et al*., 2012).

Attribution C: institutional embeddedness

Institutional embeddedness refers to the authoritative networks that can either be internally or externally found in a setting (Shapiro, 1987). These networks provide relative *stability*, *security* and *protection* that enable a trustor to initiate and foster a relationship with a trustee, particularly in the face of risk and uncertainty (Luhnman, 1979). These properties can be interpreted as a form of *control mechanism* (Tan and Thoen, 2000) that, *"...makes agreements and commitments credible: transactions take place under the shadow of the law..."* (Rooks *et al*., 2000, p.43) where abuses of trust are punished and trusting actions are rewarded by the institution. Institutional embeddedness can be found in for–profit, non–profit and governmental institutions. Let's consider the former where I will use the case of a well–known company that produces consumer goods. In this setting, it can be stated that some of the branded consumer goods we use every day have control mechanisms that we are familiar with and trust (Koehn, 2001).

If the said good is faulty, then we simply return it and get a refund or call customer services and get it repaired or replaced. If we do the latter, with knowledge that these control mechanisms are embedded within the company, then we are more willing to call customer services and converse with a company representative whom we have not met before. This type of embeddedness therefore provides limited guarantees and assurances that are absent in socially embedded networks. For instance, punishment imposed from non–fulfilment of a trusting action in socially embedded networks will not necessarily be bound by formal rules and regulations and enforced by the law but institutional embedded networks are more likely to be (Rooks *et al.,* 2000). For institutional embedded networks to be effective and therefore induce trustworthy behaviour from those exposed and vulnerable parties involved in the relationship, Macauley (1963) states that, *"the cost of investigation and sanctioning must be low compared to the cost of non–fulfillment."* (Riegelsberger, 2005, p.81). These limited guarantees and assurances are the reason why trust embedded in institutions has been argued as the most common form of mediated exchange and contrary to popular belief may not be generalised trust (Giddens, 1990; Putnam, 2000).

2.4.4.2 Steps of trust

The steps of trust is a model that attempts to encapsulate the critical *transition points* a relationship *could* possibly proceed through. I define a transition point as a distinct phase of trust that embodies characteristic principles and properties, which defines the breadth and depth of an interpersonal relationship, in that temporary point in time. In this section, there are major principal and property crossovers with previously discussed thematic categories and groups. It is hoped that these intersections will galvanise a reader's understanding of these transition points without diluting the complexity of trust. It is the reason why this layer is placed at the very end. In the following paragraphs I rationalise the use of steps opposed to stages, elaborate on the conceptual inferences of the model and enumerate the transition points.

Steps vs. stages of trust

It should be noted that *steps* are not used in the literature to describe a transition point. Instead when changes occur in an interpersonal relationship the expression '*stages of trust*' (Corritore *et al*., 2003) is commonly used. However, when the word *stage* is used it often suggests that trust is developmental (Shapiro *et al*., 1992; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996) and that it can transform (Jones and George, 1998; Panteli and Sockalingam, 2005) into something more conducive to the relationship. For instance, a reciprocal relationship that is repeated over time (incremental development) transforms a less trusting relationship into something more trusting. While documenting and grouping transition points for the said model I have favoured the term step (to encapsulate a thematic group) as opposed to stage. Unlike the latter, step is less abstract and can be conceived as an iconic sign that we are all familiar with. Moreover, it does not suggest the linear development of trust. In essence, trust does not always result in positive outcomes, it can equally by progressive (developmental) as it can be regressive (detrimental). In this manner, steps are comparable to those found in the staircase of a house. In this analogous setting, each step represents a group of transition points that determines the level of *level of acquaintance* (Riegelsberger, 2005) a trustor has with the trustee.

For instance, a trustor's level of acquaintance with the trustee can move from one step to another, the consequences of which can add or diminish the level of social stock that is accumulated in the relationship (Lewiki and Bunker 1996). This transformational facet of trust occurs naturally because the foundations of

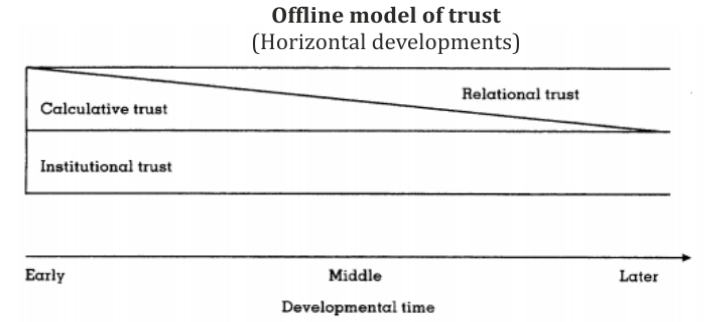
trust are not linear but transitional (Lewiki and Bunker 1996; Lewiki *et al*., 2006) and sensitive to the movement of *time* (Rempel *et al.,* 1985). It has been said that trust is, "*...shaky rather than solid, slow rather than swift, and actions will be tentative rather than firm"* (Meyerson *et al*., 1996, p.183). Using the steps analogy, relationships can move in three directions. They can either move: 1) progressively, 2) regressively or 3) remain static. These directions are not mutually exclusive and relationships can move from one direction to another (progressive then static) which reflects the fluidity of trust in reality. It has been stated that *"trust, like other moral resources grows with use and decays with disuse..."* Hirshman (1984) in (Dasgupta, 1988, p.56). Aligning this logic to the step analogy, it can be argued that when a relationship progresses it grows, when it regresses it decays and when it is static there is no *immediate* change to the relationship in the short–run. Progression therefore means that the relationship will move forward and is a positive sign of its developmental growth. Regression, means that the relationship will move backward and is a negative sign of its detrimental decline. Static means that the relationship remains in the same step and is in a temporary state of homeostasis.

Critically, these steps are loosely–coupled and do not suggest fixed points of dependency in a relationship because it is unlikely that most relationships will move through all the steps incrementally. Moreover, when relationships move forwards or backwards they will not necessarily start from the first step nor will they move to the next closest step but can leap a few steps. Similarly, when relationships are static they will not necessarily start from step one but can start and end on any of the steps within the spectrum. For instance, in a dyadic relationship a trustor could progress or regress through a series of steps with a trustee. Conversely, he can have a static relationship with her in the short–run until future behaviours, actions or situational outcomes dictate otherwise. When a trusting action has been fulfilled, then it could progress forward, where it will either move incrementally to the next step or leap a few steps. However, if a trusting action has not been fulfilled then this could be detrimental to the relationship. In this setting the relationship could regress backward, where it will either move back incrementally to the previous step or leap back a few prior steps.

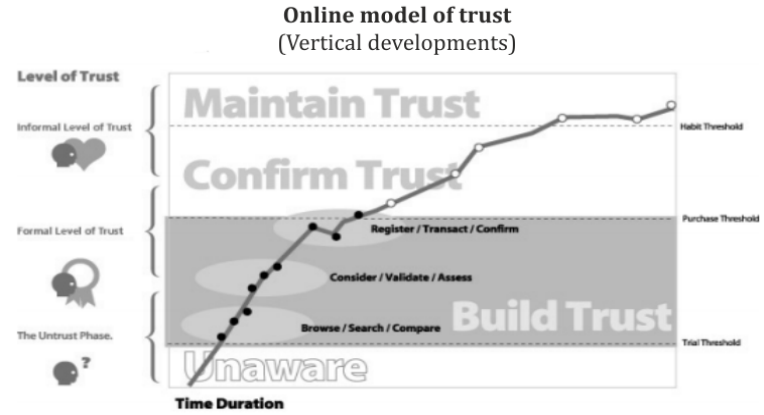
Conceptual inferences of 'step' model

The steps of trust are inferred by Rousseau *et al's*., (1998) model of trust and Cheskin's (1999) model of e–commerce trust (see Fig. 14). They were selected for

three reasons. First, used in conjunction they capture the horizontal and vertical transitions of trust and convey movements in a relationship that can result in transformational outcomes. Whereas, horizontal refer to the changing breadth of trust over time; vertical refer to the deepening of trust, as the level of acquaintance the trustor has with the trustee changes. Secondly, both models bridge the offline domain with their online counterparts. While Rousseau's model represents a model of trust offline, Cheskin's model represents a model of trust online. Thirdly, as implied by Corritore *et al.,* (2003) and Lee *et al.,* (2007) both models illustrate the consistency of trusting behaviours, particularly that understandings of trust in the offline domain can be transferred and applied to trust in the online domain.



Source: Rousseau *et al.*, (1998)



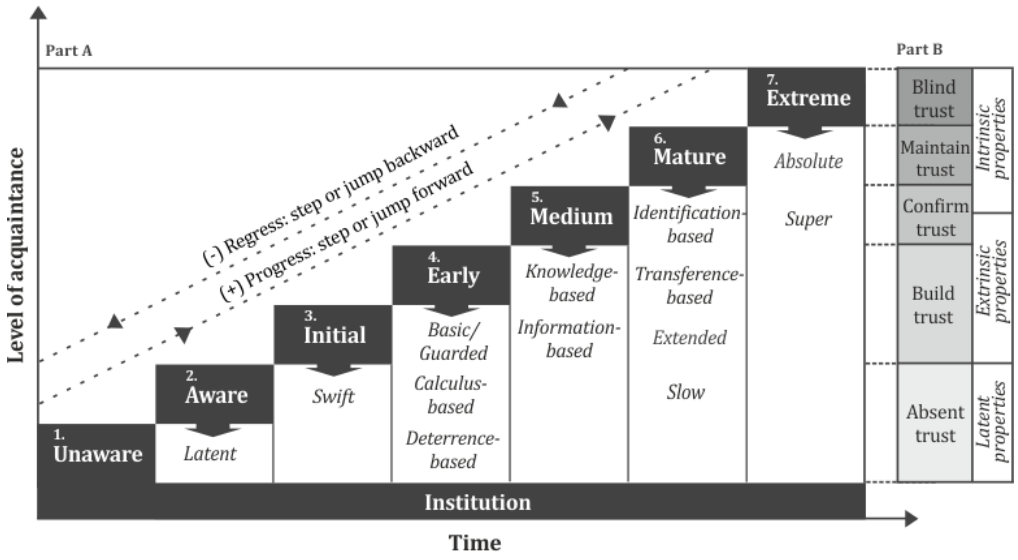
Source: Cheskin (1999)

Fig. 14 Rousseau and Cheskin models of trust

Rousseau *et al's.*, (1998) offline model (see Fig. 14) encapsulates three phases of trust (early, middle and later) and underline the horizontal transitions (temporal changes) that can occur in a relationship. Along this temporal timeline the institution provides the foundation support structures to facilitate the development of relationships. As relationships progress from the early to later phases it can be calculative (calculate costs/benefits of relationship) to begin with

but as it grows this calculative nature will diminish and transform into a form of relational trust, where each party will show care and concern for one another.

Cheskin's (1999) online model (see Fig. 14) encapsulates trust in a strata, in which there are four (unaware, build trust, confirm trust, maintain trust) that illustrate the vertical transitions (deepening of trust) that can occur in a relationship. A strata conveys the level of personal trust that is innate to a trustor relative to their stratum layer. In this setting, the unaware and build trust stratums correspond to the untrust level of trust (trustor will not trust), the build trust and confirm trust stratums corresponds to the formal level of trust (trustors relationship is based on rationality), the confirm trust and maintain trust stratums correspond to informal level of trust (trustor's relationship is based on emotions)



Adapted From: Lewicki and Bunker, (1996); Cheskin (1999) in Jøsang *et al.*, (2005, p.99), Riegelsberger, (2005); Lewiki *et al.*, (2006)

Fig. 15 Steps of trust

Enumerating transition points

From the literature thirteen prominent transition points can be identified. They are: *latent*, *swift* (Meyerson *et al*., 1996), *basic/guarded* (Brenkert, 1998; Corritore *et al*., 2003), *calculus–based* (Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Rousseau *et al*., 1998), *deterrence–based* (Shapiro *et al*., 1992), *knowledge–based* (Shapiro *et al*., 1992), *information–based* (Ratnasingham and Pavlou, 2002; Lander *et al*., 2004), *identification–based* (Shapiro *et al*., 1992), *transference–based* (Doney *et al*., 1998; Ba, 2001), *extended* (Corritore *et al*., 2003), *slow* (Cheskin, 1999; Corritore *et al*., 2003), *absolute* (Thorne and Robinson, 1988; Hosking, 2013) and *super* (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010). I have arranged and classified these transition

points into seven groups which represents the seven steps of trust. These steps are: 1) *unaware*, 2) *aware*, 3) *initial*, 4) *early*, 5) *medium*, 6) *mature* and 7) *extreme* (see Fig. 15).

Proceeding through the seven steps

The steps of trust have annexed the basic principles and properties that underpin Rousseau *et al*., (1998) and Cheskin's (1999) models, to highlight the horizontal and vertical transition points that can occur in a relationship. In Fig. 15, Part A denotes horizontal transitions (breadth of trust), whereas Part B denotes vertical transitions (depth of trust). Similar to Rousseau's model I have positioned the institution on the baseline because they provide the support structures that facilitate the initiation and development of trust. In addition, I have also accommodated Rousseau's three phases of trust (early, middle, later) which have been renamed to early, medium and mature for reasons of consistency.

Conversley, akin to Cheskin's model I have accommodated the four stratums of trust with some modifications. The first stratum (unaware) was renamed to absent and an additional stratum (blind trust) was added. Unlike the original model where stratums were correlated to the personal level of trust that is innate to a trustor, this was substituted with motivational and behavioural properties that cement the depth of trust in relationships. This is favoured as it highlights characteristic profiles of the stratums from a trustor and trustee relational perspective. In this respect, latent, extrinsic and intrinsic properties were correlated with the strata. The first refers to dormant and inactive motivations and behaviours. The second refers to extrinsic motivations and behaviours (actively pursue trust) and the third refers to intrinsic motivations and behaviours (care, concerning actions).

In short, the steps of trust can be conceptualised as follows. Part A, signify the breadth of trust. This part of a relationship can begin at any one of the seven steps and does not necessarily have to start from unaware. Once positioned at a step the relationship can proceed in one of three directions (progressive, regressive, static). When the relationship moves in one of these directions, by either stepping or leaping forward (progressive) or backward (regressive), then this will change the level of acquaintance a trustor has with a trustee. Alternatively, if it remains static then the relationship remains in a temporary state of homeostasis. In Part B, the location of the new step will correspond to a stratum that will signify the motivational and behavioural properties that cement the depth

of the relationship of which there are three (latent, extrinsic, intrinsic). In the following paragraphs I review these seven steps (Part A) in greater depth, relative to their corresponding stratums (Part B).

Steps 1 and 2: absent trust and latent properties

The unaware and aware steps are correlated to the absent trust stratum and latent properties. It represents the latency of trust in a relationship. In the unaware step a trustor has the potential to be attracted to the relationship with a trustee (Cheskin, 1999; Jøsang *et al*., 2005) but the relationship is yet to be self–realised. A general awareness is yet to be formed by the trustor. Conversely, in the aware step the trustor is made aware of this potential attraction but the relationship is yet to be self–actualised. In this setting the relational tie with the trustee has yet to be confirmed and activated through social action (Haythornthwaite, 2002, 2011; Flynn, 2006). In short, the motivations and behaviours that confirm and activate these relational ties remain dormant.

Steps 3 and 4: build trust and extrinsic properties

The initial and early steps are correlated to the build trust stratum and extrinsic properties. It represents the trust building phases in a relationship (McKnight and Cummings, 1998; Bachmann and Inkpen, 2011). For instance, a trustor could be extrinsically motivated to actively participate with a trustee (Williamson, 1993; Benanou and Tirole, 2003) based on her reputation, (Cheskin, 1999; Jøsang *et al*., 2005) because in the unfamiliarity phases of a relationship there is incomplete information to predict how trustworthy she is (Gulati, 1995; Gefen, 2000; Chen and Barnes, 2007). While Rousseau *et al*., (1998) had conflated the initial and early phases into the one phase (early) I have broken them down into two distinct steps. This is because the initial step marks the point of first contact in the formation of new relationship (McKnight and Cummings, 1998). This point of first contact is considered the most critical step, more so in the online domain than in the offline domain, because sufficient initial trust is required from trustors to compensate for the downside risks of new relationships (McKnight and Choudhury, 2002).

Initial step transition points

Underneath the initial step is one transition point (swift trust). Swift trust is characterised by fragile, swift and sometimes temporal properties (Meyerson *et al*., 1996) and is synonymous in the initial phases of relationship building (McKnight *et al.,* 2004). Research has shown that swift trust can occur in online

workplace settings (Jarvenpaa and Leidner, 1998) where the authority of institutions can be used to facilitate the formation of temporary groups to fulfil common time–pressured goals. In these temporary groups the constraints of time and the relative security of the institution, reduces the need for a trustor to acquire further information from the trustee. In this setting, relationships are cemented through professional formalities and repeated interpersonal exchanges that result in positive outcomes and contributes to the fulfilment of group goals (Meyerson *et al*., 1996; Jarvenpaa and Leidner, 1998; Greenberg *et al*., 2007).

Early step transition points

Underneath the early step are three transition points (basic/guarded, calculus – based, deterrence–based). In this step, the foundation of the relationship still remains fragile and the trustor is exposed to vulnerabilities, such as non–fulfilment of a trusting action or the abuses of trust (Lewicki *et al.,* 2006; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996). Of the three transition points, basic/guarded (Brenkert, 1998; Corritore *et al.,* 2003) and deterrence–based (Shapiro *et al*., 1992) trust have similar properties. In this phase, trust is guarded by formal contracts and sanctions which are used to deter the abuses of trust from the trustee (Brenkert, 1998; Corritore *et al.,* 2003). In this setting, the trustor is dependent on the positive expectations of the trustee to *act favourably* (Möllering, 2001). Conversely, calculus–based trust (Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Rousseau *et al.,* 1998) is attributed to a trustor's continual calculation of the risks and returns of a relationship (Schoder and Haelein, 2004) and its stability is dependent on the outcomes of trusting actions (Shapiro *et al*., 1992). Similar to the prior two transition points, in calculus–based trust, a trustor remains exposed to the vulnerabilities of trust where there is an increased risk of non–fulfilment or the abuses of trust, such as unethical behaviour (Tuan, 2012).

Steps 5: confirm trust and extrinsic/intrinsic properties

The medium step is correlated to the confirm trust stratum and is positioned in–between the extrinsic and intrinsic properties. In this phase trusting actions have been fulfilled and confirmed by the trustor, Cheskin (1999) in (Jøsang *et al*., 2005, p.99). As a result, the trustor had formed positive expectations of the trustee. While the relationship is not as fragile as it was before, it is still not strong enough to be unguarded and be exposed to the potential vulnerabilities and abuses of trust. It cannot be reliant on intrinsic properties alone but must compensate the weakness

of this relationship with extrinsic properties. This phase is a critical turning point in an interpersonal relationship because it is dependent on the continual exchange of knowledge between the two parties (trustor, trustee) as opposed to using formal contracts and sanctions to regulate the relationship (Shapiro *et al*., 1992; Lewicki *et al.,* 2006). However, over time and contingent upon the outcomes of future trusting actions, this step may also exhibit full intrinsic properties. When accumulated knowledge/information of the trustee has acquired an optimum amount social stock then the relationship can become more personal. In this setting, the trustor has become intrinsically motivated to participate and engage with the trustee (Benanou and Tirole, 2003; Cheskin, 1999).

Medium step transition points

Underneath the medium step are two transition points (knowledge–based, information–based). Both are predicated by knowing the trustee. This knowing facet is considered critical because, *"You do not trust a person to do something merely because he says he will do it. You trust him because, knowing what you know of his disposition, his information, his ability, his available options and their consequences, you expect he will choose to do it."* Hirschman (1984) in (Dasgupta, 1988, p.55). Knowing a trustee will entail collecting relevant information that has value about the trustee. This has three benefits. First, it fosters familiarity of the trustee. Secondly, it reduces uncertainty and risk. Thirdly, it enables the trustor to better predict the trustee's behaviour (Shapiro *et al*., 1998; Ba, 2001). With repeated exchanges with the trustee this predictability will increase over time.

Moreover, as familiarity grows this will make the transfer of knowledge less costly (Zaheer *et al.* 1998; Levin and Cross, 2004), stabilise the foundation of the relationship (Lewicki *et al.,* 2006) and will add depth to the relationship (Shapiro *et al*., 1992). Relationships of trust that are knowledge–based (Shapiro *et al*., 1992; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996) have been influential in fostering connections in online social networking sites, where common goals and a willingness to share knowledge have galvanised relational ties. This has enabled a trustor to better predict a trustee in his social network (Chiu *et al*., 2006; Hsu *et al*., 2007). In contrast, relationships that are information–based (Ratnasingham and Pavlou, 2002; Lander *et al*., 2004) have been tied to professions, where it has been associated with the ability and reliability (integrity) trust–warranting properties of the trustee (Dasgupta, 1988; Leimeister *et al*., 2005) particularly her compliance

to technical standards, mechanisms and processes that is expected from that profession (Ratnasingam and Pavlou, 2002; Hsu *et al.,* 2007; Hsu *et al.*, 2011).

Steps 6: maintain trust and intrinsic properties

The mature step is correlated to the maintain trust stratum and intrinsic properties. Over time a trustor's repeated reciprocal exchange with the trustee have confirmed her ability and integrity to fulfil trusting actions. These reciprocal exchanges have cemented the foundation of the relationship. It has thus progressed beyond extrinsic motivations and behaviours. The trustor is now intrinsically motivated to participate with the trustee. In this setting, a mutual understanding has formed that has enabled both parties to optimise decisions, actions and predict each other's trustworthiness but this will depend on the depth of trust in the relationship (Cheskin,1999; Jøsang *et al*., 2005).

Pivotally this phase is about maintaining trust (Cheskin, 1999) and the instabilities that could emerge in the relationship (Vangen and Huxham, 2003). These instabilities can occur because the foundation of trust is not linear but fluid and sensitive to changes (Rempel *et al*., 1985; Meyerson *et al*., 1996) that can emerge from dispositional or situational–properties (see Section 2.4.4.1). Failure to maintain instabilities, such as conflict or misinformation, could result in the erosion of trust (Currall and Judge, 1995). Subsequently, maintaining trust will entail a continual assessment of the trustee's trust–warranting properties when relational ties are at their strongest (Currall and Judge, 1995) and the context–properties that are embedded in the setting.

Mature step transition points

Underneath the mature step are four transition points (identification–based, transference–based, extended, slow). A relationship of trust that is identification–based (Shapiro *et al*., 1992; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996) is identified by a mutual understanding of each party's intentions and interests, where each party is able to act on behalf of each other interests (Shapiro *et al*., 1992; Lewicki and Bunker, 1995). Respectively, transference–based (Doney *et al*., 1998; Ba, 2001) in a different context refers to the transfer of trust from a familiar party to an unfamiliar party. However, this type of transference assumes that the institution that is managing the transfer process can first be trusted (Doney *et al*., 1997, 1998). Ba (2001) had borrowed the concept of transference from Lewicki and Bunker's (1995) conceptual model to examine trust in online communities. Through his

study he proposed that a person, whose level of trust cannot be determined, can free ride on the general trustworthiness of the online community. He states, *"when a community is trustworthy, the design of the community structure ensures that the members of the community can be trusted as well"* (Ba, 2001, p.329). On reflection, when two parties from two trusted but different online communities want to interact, they can do so as though they are interacting within the one community (Ba, 2001) because each party can act on each other's behalf with the support from their online community structures to ensure their trustworthiness (Lander *et al*., 2004; Hsu *et al*., 2007).

The extended (Corritore *et al.,* 2003) phase of a relationship is based on Mishra's (1996) concept of openness (to communicate) and refers to the depth of relationships. Relational ties with the trustee become extended and formal contracts or sanctions to regulate the relationship, which are prevalent in the fragility of the initial and early steps, are thus not required. Conversely, the slow (Cheskin, 1999; Corritore *et al.,* 2003) phase of a trusting relationship refers to the incremental development of trust over time. In this setting, the trustor has already formed positive expectations of the trustee but trust is slow, gradual and is accumulated through repeated reciprocal exchanges with the trustee over time (Levinthal and Fichman, 1988; Cheskin). This type of trust is typically found in long–term social relationships (Corritore *et al.,* 2003).

Steps 7: blind trust and intrinsic properties

The extreme step is correlated to the blind trust stratum and intrinsic properties. While trust has been associated as a rational attitude (see Section 2.4.2.2) it has been posited that trust can also be irrational (Deutsch, 1973; Sheppard and Sherman, 1998; Kramer, 1994), a perspective that is often overlooked. In this setting irrational trust can refer to, *"inflexible, rigid, unfaltering tendency to act in a...suspicious manner, irrespective of the situation or the consequences of so acting"...* (Duetsch, 1973, p.171 in Kramer, 1994, p.200). As Sheppard and Sherman (1998) state irrationality can be found in all social strata's of society, from workers making suboptimum choices that could affect their careers to parents hiring knowingly incompetent babysitters to monitor their child.

The attitude to act irrationally is associated with the final extreme step, where a trustor decides to place blind faith in a trustee, which under rational settings would not normally warrant trust (Mayer *et al.,* 1995), to fulfil a trusting action regardless of outcome, situation or the implications of such actions. The

extreme step does not necessarily mark a natural linear development from the mature step but could be manifested as a standalone step (static). It is rather unfaltering as Deutsch (1973) puts it and should thus be perceived as an anomaly: an intense, rigid projection of what *could* possibly emerge during a transitional point in a relationship. While most scholars believe that trust is a rational belief (Coleman, 1990; Hardin, 1992; Rousseau *et al*., 1998) it is highly improbable that the extreme step would develop in most relationships, but like trust itself, there is no guarantee that it will not develop and so therefore should not be overlooked.

Extreme step transition points

Underneath the extreme step are two transition points (absolute, super). The term *absolute* (Thorne and Robinson, 1988; Hosking, 2013) is used loosely in this situation because it has been argued that trust is never absolute (Jøsang *et al*., 2003). The literature on absolute trust is centred on healthcare and political structures (Thorne and Robinson, 1988; Boya *et al*., 2006; Mishler and Rose, 1997; Hoskings, 2013). Within these authoritative networks there are two common patterns to absolute trust. First, it is unidirectional (flows one–way) and secondly, it is governed by power. The relationship between trust and power is not new (Berie, 1931; Soloman, 1960). In professional circles power has been employed as a means to self–regulate relationships (see Section 2.4.2.1).

For instance, in healthcare institutions, patients place absolute trust with medical professionals (Thorne and Robinson, 1988; Boya *et al*., 2006), while in some political networks citizens and political party members are sometimes expected to place absolute trust with their political parties or Government (Mishler and Rose, 1997; Hoskings, 2013). Though the literature on healthcare and politics may differ in context the prominent property that cements power in relationships is similar. In this setting, power is driven by expertise of a specific craft or specialised knowledge. This expertise can skew the rationality of a relationship used to self–regulate the directional flow of trust (unidirectional) in favour of the trustor and to legitimise decisions and actions (Barber, 1983; Frowe, 2005). For instance, patients (trustors) who are not knowledgeable about their ailments are placed at the mercy of doctors, who are expected to accept that the diagnosis conducted by their doctor (trustee) is correct; while citizens and political party members (trustors) are expected to accept that their Government (trustee) is democratic, fair and just.

Alternatively, the *super* phase of trust (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010) has distinguishing properties from the former but is still considered an extreme step. Unlike absolute trust, the super phase of a relationship is not necessarily unidirectional and governed by power but may flow bidirectionally or mutually (see Section 2.4.3.1). In a super trusting relationship both parties have formed a common understanding but there is an over–reliance on the trustee (Casstelfranchi and Falcone, 2010). This is a radical form of Hardin's (1992) *trust as encapsulated interest* where the trustee adopts the trustor's goal and makes it her own. In Castelfranchi and Falcone's (2010) reconceptualisation of Hardin's proposition the trustor will literally place himself at the mercy of the trustee.

For instance, the trustor has faith that the trustee will take care and over–compensate on her welfare, better than he could possibly could and that the trustee will actively pursue his interests and goals in a way that goes beyond his original intentions. Furthermore, in pursuing these adopted goals the trustee may violate certain requests from the trustor, which may be perceived in–part as collateral damage, in order to fulfil these goals (Castelfranchi and Falcone's, 2010). In retrospect, unlike absolute trust, which is governed by power and dictated by the trustor, super trust is not unidirectional but is a mutual extreme extension of the trustor's belief where he surrenders his free will and places blind faith in the trustee in the hope that she actively pursues his adopted goals.

Step model as 'phases of expectation'

Rempel *et al*., (1985) states that trust is composed of different '*phases of expectations'*. Through the steps of trust, I have presented a relational conception of these expectations through the analogy of steps, where I have highlighted horizontal (breadth) and vertical (depth) transitions points in trust. The first five steps (unaware, aware, initial, early, medium) correlate to the absent, build and confirm stratums in a relationship of trust. The review has illustrated that these steps are unstable, inconsistent and can make the trustee unpredictable. In contrast, the latter two steps (mature, extreme) correlate to the maintain and blind stratas. These steps are more stable compared to the prior five steps, where repeated reciprocal exchanges with the trustee, makes the relationship more tenable (Rempel *et al*., 1985).

The works of Rousseau *et al*., (1998) and Cheskin (1999), which are encapsulated in Part's A, B (see Fig. 15), form the structural foundation of the steps and extend their conceptual inferences. In this regard, the movement and direction

of relationships are not necessarily linear and progressive but can be regressive or static. Consequentially, this step or leap forward or backward can change the breadth and depth of a relationship. Although the steps provide an insightful perspective into the transient nature of trust, it should only be used as a rough guideline and *not* something definitive. This is because conceptual stages of trust do not embody the complete configuration of trust–warranting (see Section 2.4.3.2) and situational–properties (see Section 2.4.4.1) in a relationship (Tan and Thoan, 2000; Riegelsberger, 2005).

2.5 Fallacies of trust

Fallacies of trust refers to common misunderstandings. Often overlooked and undermined they represent the darker layers of the construct. I separate these layers from the main categories and groups because they do not directly involve parties that are in a relationship of trust (general public). Instead they are preconceptions that are extrinsically interpreted from scholars and practitioners who study and exercise trust (see Section 2.2.1). From the literature two dark layers have been identified: 1) negating forces and 2) misconceptions. These layers presume that certain properties are correlated to trust, which may not be true at all. These presumptions should be briefly discussed to dispel these misunderstandings and clarify *what trust is* and *what it is not*.

Negating values

The *negating values* are the opposite values of trust. If trust is conceived as a positive value (fulfilment of action) and is positioned on the left side of a linear continuum then the negating values (non–fulfilment of action) will be positioned on the right hand side.

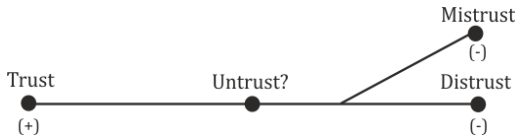


Fig. 16 Negating values of trust

For most researchers this negating value of trust would be *distrust* (Bigley and Pearce, 1998; Kramer, 1999; Guha *et al.,* 2004; Hardin 2004) which represents the *negative mirror image of trust* (Sztompka, 2000, p.25). However, it could equally be *mistrust* or *untrust* (Marsh and Dibbin, 2005; Marsh and Briggs 2009) (see Fig.

16). If a trustor abuses a trustee then, depending on the setting from which the abuse had emerged, trust may not necessarily lead to distrust but could turn to mistrust or untrust, Marsh and Briggs in (Golbeck, 2009).

Alternative value 1: mistrust

In this setting, mistrust can denote misplaced trust, where the trustee has defaulted on a trusting action that is caused by a disingenuous act of misinformation (Abdul–Rahman, 2004; Marsh and Briggs in Golbeck, 2009). Consider the following instance where the trustor has incomplete information of the trustee (stranger) but must rely on her to fulfil a trusting action from which he expects a positive outcome. In this setting, the trustor must calculate the economic costs and benefits (Williamson 1985; Coleman, 1990) of the exchange with the limited information available. Yet if she acts self–interested and provides misinformation to fulfil that action, insofar that she maximises the utility from that outcome, then this will be costly to the trustor. This *misalignment of interest* (Lindenberg, 2000) can be interpreted as a form of misplaced trust.

However, Marsh and Briggs (2009) may have overlooked one inferential facet. Mistrust may not be inferred by disingenuous acts of misinformation (from trustee) but could be inferred by misguidedness. For instance, consider the setting where the trustor knows and entrusts the trustee but does not know the third–party. Then let us propose that she recommends to him that the third–party can be trusted. If the trustor accepts this referral but upon interacting with the third–party finds that the person cannot be trusted, then this can be interpreted as a form of *misguidedness*. In this setting, trust is not misaligned as a result of misinformation nor is it a disingenuous act and therefore is not misplaced. Instead, it is a defaulted transitive (Golbeck 2005; Jøsang *et al*,. 2006) connection. When the third–party was referred by the trustee to the trustor, he in turn accepts this as a true guide but when the third–party defaults on a trusting action, this truth becomes negated (misguided).

Alternative value 2: untrust

Untrust is difficult to pin down and is positioned in–between the fuzziness of trust and distrust in the linear continuum (Griffiths, 2006; Marsh and Briggs 2009). As a result of this fuzziness, Marsh and Briggs (2005) states that whether untrust represents a negative or positive value of trust is uncertain at the moment as its position and role continues to be debated. What is known is that untrust can be

conceived as a form of insufficient trust (Griffiths, 2006). For instance, if the trustor knows and entrusts the trustee, he may ask her to cook a meal, but will not ask her to perform brain surgery on him, knowing too well that she is not a brain surgeon. In this setting, the trustor does not distrust the trustee as there is just insufficient information to warrant such trusting actions.

Default value: distrust

Unlike the prior two negating values, distrust is the default choice used by most researchers, but unfortunately is not as researched as much as trust (Benamati *et al.,* 2006). While it is sometimes perceived as being the bipolar opposite to trust (Rotter, 1967) this proposition may be false. Distrust may coexist along the same linear spectrum and share a degree of dependency with trust but the new proposition states that distrust is a mutually exclusive construct (Lewicki *et al.,* 1998; McKnight *et al*., 2004). This is because it has asymmetric properties: an opposing set of negative emotional values (Kramer, 1996; Lewicki et al., 1998), compared to the positive emotional values associated with trust (McKnight and Choudhury, 2006).

Comparatively, if mistrust is conceived as a form of misinformation then distrust can similarly be conceived as a form of *disinformation*, where information is intended to be falsified to deceive the trustor (Marsh and Briggs in Golbeck 2009). In this respect, distrust can be defined as, *"The expectation from the trustor that the trustee will not act favourably towards the trustor and may even engage in performing actions that may harm the trustor"* (Govier, 1994). Moreover, the proposition that distrust is a mutually exclusive construct can be extended to the negating value of mistrust (misplaced or misguided) but not necessarily to untrust whose position within the linear continuum (see Fig. 16) remains undefined.

In short, while emotions such as doubt and fear are subdued in trust (Holmes, 1991) these same emotions can be studied in distrust (Deutsch, 1958). These adverse emotions have been responsible for descending society into a general state of apathy, helplessness and passivism (Sztompka, 2004). While this descent into chaos may be true, to a certain extent, it should also be noted that distrust and also mistrust should not be narrowed to conceptions of good and bad (Lewicki *et al*., 1998) and like trust will be dependent on the setting from which it emerges. Emotional values such as doubt and suspicion can ironically have positive social utility (Gambetta, 1988; Hardin, 2002) as Gambetta (1996) had shown in The Sicilian Mafia study and his subsequent collaborative work with

Bacharach in Trust in Signs (Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001). In the former, he illustrated that the Italian mafia had engaged in acts of distrust to recruit criminal members and to cement social and political influence. Doubt and suspicion were used as social mechanism to keep trustors alert in settings characterised by social uncertainty (Kramer, 1999) and power. In this case, power was absolute and became a means of suppressing trustees (Sztompka, 1996, 1997, 2004), where they can choose to isolate themselves from the problems by not cooperating (Kramer, 1999; Hardin, 2002) or sharing knowledge (Mayer and Mussweiler, 2011) with those whose interests conflict with their own (authorities, police).

Misconceptions

Misconceptions can refer to two types of fallacies: 1) false properties and 2) false preconceptions. The first refers to incorrect properties that have been associated with trust, while the second refers to false conceptions of trust, in terms of how trust is perceived, studied and practised.

Misconception 1: false properties

In an attempt to repair damaged relationships with the general public governmental institutions with the support from policy–makers have perpetuated a cultural trend to encourage greater institutional openness. In this setting, there is a general assumption that advocating greater openness will repair damaged relationships with societal members (BBC, 5th Nov, 2007; BBC, Foulkes, 10th Jan, 2012) but this assumption is a fallacy. Openness (Mishra, 1996) as used in this setting, is an attempt to make governmental institutions more *accountable* and *transparent*. In public life, accountability is *'the person to blame when things go wrong'*, whereas transparency is clarity of process (functions of institution) (Rawlins, 2008).

It has been frequently proposed that institutions can become more open by distributing relevant information: that has value about themselves, to the public domain, which must be made accessible to the general populace (Welch *et al*., 2005). However, contrary to public belief, O'Neil (2002) in the Reith Lecture's on '*A Question of Trust'*, had argued that accountability and transparency may not lead to the repair of trust. This is because the information supplied by governmental institutions could misdirect or misinform the public and add to the existing deception perpetrated by them (O'Neill, 2002). While there is no denial that a system of checks and balances is required in these institutions to prevent the

corruption of power (Kipnis, 1972; Schedler, 1999), Frowe (2007) states that policy–makers must first specify, *"What they should be accountable for and to whom?"* Accountability and transparency are false properties of trust that unfortunately continue to be found in the public domain but they are not the only misconceptions.

Misconception 2: false preconceptions

Trust cannot give 1) *certainty* or 2) *confidence* (Luhnman, 1979) nor should it be confused with 3) *social capital* (Hardin, 2002; Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010) or 4) *trustworthiness* (Hardin, 2003). First, regarding the certainty of trust, it has been stated that the gain or loss of trust is equivalent to that of uncertainty. Trust therefore cannot be certain as it would be foolish to perceive so (Eliot, 1958). Secondly, trust cannot give confidence. This is because trust requires previous interactions and involves an element of risk (Luhnman, 1979), where information about the trustee can sometimes be incomplete (Swift and Hwang, 2013).

In contrast, confidence involves knowledge (Walker and Erdman, 1984; Shipman *et al*., 2008) and in knowing about the trustee. Unlike trust, confidence does require past interactions, only familiarity of the trustee which reduces the perception of risk (Gambetta, 1988). Thirdly, trust should not be confused with social capital (also see Section 2.2) and be conceived as a type of good. In the past, trust has been described as a form of *public good* (Bok, 1978) since it is as important as the *"…air we breathe and the water we drink…"* (Bok, 78, p.26–27) however this conception may be false. In this setting, a public good can be described as, *"..a good that, once produced, can be consumed by an additional consumer at no additional cost"* (Holcombe, 1997, p.1). The theory of trust as a good may be outdated because trust cannot be easily traded like other public goods (knowledge). As Hardin (2002) states, trust is not like a good in a market place because it cannot be easily created and destroyed. If it was a good, like knowledge, then people would be incentivized to free ride on the commodity and not contribute to any acts of trust (Hardin *et al*., 2001). He proposes that when the correlation between trust and social capital is being examined scholars or practitioners are not referring to trust but trustworthiness.

Finally, to reinforce the prior facet trust is not trustworthiness. Although trust and trustworthiness do share a causal relationship, trustworthiness is in fact a property and product of trust (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010). As Hardin emphasises, *"Trust is merely one reason for confidence in taking cooperative risks,*

and trustworthiness is merely one reason such risks can pay off." (Hardin, 2003, p.172). Trustworthiness is therefore the fulfilment of a trusting action from the trustee. As a product of trust, trustworthiness is sometimes studied as a mutually exclusive construct (Granheim and Lundman, 2004). It has a distinct set of properties (credibility, dependability, transferability) that have been used to evaluate trustworthiness of parties in qualitative research (Polit and Hungler, 1999; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Granheim and Lundman, 2004). In sum, unlike trust, trustworthiness is a commodity that *can* be invested and traded (Dasgupta, 1988; Khan 2002) or contribute to the accumulation of social stock and therefore social capital (Putnam, 1995; Francois and Zabojnik, 2005).

2.6 Previous studies

I use the discussed thematic *categories and groups* (see Section 2.4) as introspection points to review past relevant studies and themes of trust and identify gaps in the literature from which the thesis will explore and fulfil. Both offline and online studies will be discussed because at the beginning of this chapter it had been suggested that principles and properties of trust in the offline domain can be applied to phenomena in the online domain (Corritore *et al.,* 2003).

Relevant offline studies

The offline literature on trust in workplace settings is well established. There is strong empirical evidence to support that trust has socio-economic benefits for institutions (Dirk and Ferrin, 2001). Early studies have been centred on *communities of practice* where the operationalization of trust in work teams were explored (Mayer *et al*., 1995; Kramer and Tyler, 1995). Dirks and Ferrin (2001) propose that this operationalization can emerge from *main effects or moderating effects*. For the former, the engagement of beliefs are the cause of trusting behaviours (direct effect), for the latter the situational properties provide the conditions from which to moderate trusting relationships (indirect effect) (see Section 2.4.4.1). Neither are mutually exclusive and phenomena of trust can encompass both effects. In this setting, main and moderating effects have enabled cooperative behaviour (Mayer *et al*., 1995) in work teams, where members are able to share knowledge (Brown and Duguid, 2001) and foster relationships, both with their colleagues (Lewicki *et al*., 1998) and the managers who supervise them (Deluga, 1994), all of which contribute to the structural development (Lane and Rachmann, 1998) of institutions.

Research has shown that such trusting actions and interactions can influence later experiences, attitudes, emotions and values of trust within the team (Jones and George, 1998). Subsequently this can have implications for team cooperation and performance. This performance facet underpins the economic benefits of trust. When relational ties are strong in the work team, then this translates to positive attitudes and perceptions towards team members (attitudinal commitment) and the institution where the performativity of tasks have been associated with team satisfaction (Dirk and Ferrin, 2001; Costa, 2003). However, in closer inspection work teams with strong relational ties do not necessarily outperform those with weak relational ties. In this situation, the motivation of members in the former team are more closely–coupled, which enhances a collective understanding of team tasks and goals, while in the latter group the conditions are loosely-coupled, which can result in less unfavourable outcomes (Dirk, 1999).

Moreover, in special circumstances normative institutional structures are not even required to facilitate relationship. For instance Meyerson *et al.,* (1996) seminal study of Swift trust in temporary groups, illustrate that even in conditions of weak relational ties and minimum history, spontaneous teams can still be formed although for only a short limited period. In this setting, when complex goals have to be fulfilled in a short space of time by a spontaneous group of professionals, all of whom have not interacted before, then it has been suggested that normative institutional structure are not required to facilitate relationships or sanction trust. Instead they can be substituted by *temporary systems* to coordinate tasks and interdependent relationships because professional formalities can reduce risk and cement relationships.

Relevant online studies

The online literature on trust in workplace settings is scant compared to the offline domain, where there is a focus in online e–commerce (Gefen, 2000; Weisberg, Te' eni and Arman, 2011), virtual community (Ridings *et al*., 2002; McWilliam, 2012) and social networking (O'Murchu, Breslin and Decker, 2004; Golbeck, 2005) settings. Studies that have been conducted in these settings have capitalized on the downside risks of online mediated transactions and communications (Olson and Olson, 2000; Friedman *et al*., 2000). In this context, the absence of physical biological signs in online web–based *graphical user interfaces* had opened new design opportunities and challenges to enhance how signs (that warrants trust)

are perceived (Hoffman, Novak and Peralta, 1999), exchanged (Riegelsberger *et al*., 2005) and therefore experienced (Shneiderman, 2000) by different stakeholders (Shankar, Urban and Sultan, 2002).

For instance, early studies have explored graphical signs (Kim and Moon, 1997) to induce formations of initial trust. Then structural signs (Nielson *et al*., 2000; Cheskin, 1999) were studied to enhance the accessibility, navigation and usability of online web–based applications. Then information–based signs (Hoffman *et al*., 1999; Egger, 2001) were studied, to examine how best to arrange and disclose information, to foster greater openness. Later social signs, such as real–time chat (video telephony), were studied to compliment the inherent physical deficiencies in online mediated communications (Wang and Emurian, 2005). These array of signs have been examined in online social networking sites to assess how signs of trust (Donath, 2007) have been used to initiate and foster social relationships (Golbeck, 2005) but are rarely investigated in online professional communities of practice.

When professional communities or workplace settings are studied in the online domain they are examined through the narrow lens of virtual spontaneous teams and is aligned to the concept of swift trust (Lacono and Weisband, 1997; Jarvenpaa, Knoll and Leidner, 1998; Kanawattanachai and Yoo, 2002). These are deviations or extensions of Meyerson *et al.'s*, (1996) original study and only encapsulate one facet of trust. Unfortunately these temporary and collective goal–driven conditions do not provide the trust–warranting or situational foundations from which to cement slow trust (see 2.4.4.2) in online communities of practice.

Fulfilling literature gaps and positioning of the thesis

A comparative review of previous offline and online studies of trust in workplace settings have exposed gaps in the literature. I review three significant shortfalls: 1) one in the offline domain, 2) one in the online domain and 3) one commonly found in both domains. In the offline domain, the operationalization of trust in workplace settings is strong but is examined at the macro–level where there is an emphasis on the actions and interactions of interpersonal relationships. Given the importance of working activities in cementing relationships, workflow processes are examined as passive determinants in the facilitation of trust. This oversight has created an opportunity to establish a new direction to explore the exercise and practice of trust and workflow, as people conduct their duties in institutional settings. Essentially, I propose that workflow should be conceived as *active*

determinants that can be used to moderate interdependent relationships and trusting behaviours. In this alternative setup, trust is not generalised as being *important* across the board, but its utility is *more important* in some workflow components compared to others.

To better understand the correlation between trust and workflow: more specifically how principles and properties of the former are aligned to the latter, a granular approach must be adopted to identify and map nuances in trusting behaviours. In the online domain, the operationalization of trust in workplace settings is in a very poor state of academic health. It requires immediate attention because online web-based applications are becoming increasingly important virtual workspaces for many working people in the digital economy. Most studies have been centred on e-commerce or social community/networking settings. In the latter when trust is applied to professional networking sites or communities of practice researchers make implicit assumptions that social relationships are synonymous with professional relationships, but the thematic categories and groups would argue otherwise. On reflection, the thick crust that ties social parties together are stronger and more forgiving than those in professional parties. Here, there is an opportunity to distinguish the two divergent types of relationships and highlight the pivotal role of professional formalities (see Section 2.4.2.1) in the study and design of virtual workspaces.

When the operationalization of trust in workplace settings is examined in both domains, it is studied through the formation of virtual spontaneous teams. These work teams are not affected by the conventional structures found in institutions or communities of practice and only portray a narrow perspective of trust (swift). While this may not be directly applicable to all online web–based communities, indirectly it illustrates the fuzzy mutual dependency of the offline and online domains, as trust related tasks are exercised and practised back and fro. In this setting, there is an opportunity to explore this shortfall and study the transient nature of trust and workflow as practices are exercised between the offline and online domains. Consider the setting where a trustor has to complete a task in an online community of practice that involves multiple stakeholders. In this setting, the working process to fulfil the task will require him to practise and exercise trust in the offline and online domains because not all parts of the task can be conducted online and vice versa. In the same vein, not all stakeholders involved in the task can be found in the same said domains.

In short, in this thesis I intend to investigate the correlation between trust and workflow in advertising communities of practice in the online domain. While there will be a focus in the online domain, I propose that offline advertising communities of practice are equally as important and can inform online practices. The thesis is therefore positioned at the interchange of these two domains (see Fig. 17). Moreover, I study trust and workflow as a decision and as an act (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010) and at the granular level from which I will explore and fulfil shortfalls in the literature, in terms of how trust is operationalized in online creative communities. Although the examination of these shortfalls will directly benefit communities of practice in the online domain, indirectly they will equally be as insightful to their offline counterparts.

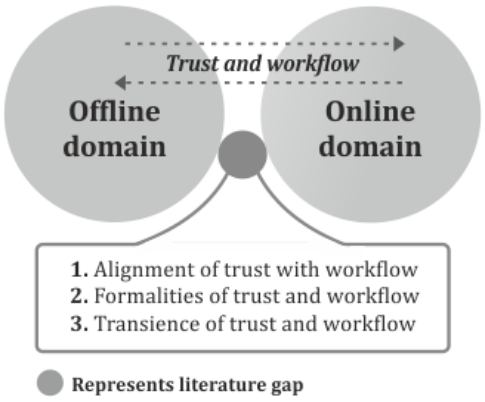


Fig. 17 Fulfilling gaps in literature

In investigating, "*How trust is correlated to workflow in offline and online advertising communities?*" I will be investigating three gaps in the literature. First, the above mentioned literature review illustrates that working practices are dependent on trust, but this assumption is passive and does not shed light on what parts (mechanisms, processes, procedures) of the workflow process require trust. In this thesis, I will show that trust is an *active determinant* of workflow. It is composed of a blend of trust–warranting (see Section 2.4.3.2) and situational properties (see Section 2.4.4.1), that moderate working practices and relationships. I therefore highlight that workflow can actively encompass different facets of trust and its presence is stronger in some workflow components than in others.

In this alternative setup, I will align the principles and properties of trust with workflow. Secondly, I will show that professional interdependent relationships have formalities and properties that are distinct from social

relationships. Thirdly, I will show the transient nature of workflow as practices of trust are exercised to and fro the offline and online domains and involve different types of practitioners, some of whom may be deemed untrustworthy. In this setting, I adopt a multiple stakeholder perspective to investigate the correlation of trust and workflow. Since, a significant proportion of the literature is from the interdisciplinary field of Human-Computer Interaction (HCI) and Information Systems (IS), the thesis will be relevant to scholars and practitioners in this two fields. However, it is primarily targeted towards the business management audience, where it will be applicable to those in the fields of Science and Technology Studies (STS) or Organisational Studies (OS).

2.7 Summary

This chapter presented the literature review on trust and has been divided into seven sections. Section two discussed the value of trust, while section three described its conceptualisation from the most basic socio–economic perspective. Section four unpacked the complexity of trust: by decoding and rearranging its many layers into thematic categories and groups, which conveys the breadth and depth of trust in relationships. Section five discussed some common fallacies of trust. Section six reviewed relevant offline and online studies, where I then highlight three significant shortfalls in the literature and position the thesis at the intersection of the offline and online domains. In short, I have taken an unconventional approach to review the literature on trust. Adopting a socio–economic perspective, I classify the multiple layers of trust into thematic categories and groups, which are then explored in–depth, and in a manner that does not compromise the complexity of the construct. In the following chapter I will present and discuss the conceptual framework, which will correlate trust with workflow in the offline and online domains.

Chapter 3

Conceptual framework

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conceptual framework and fulfils the first research objective. The framework establishes a correlation between trust and workflow and will be applied to the three subsequent studies. It is divided into six sections. Section two examines the relationship between trust and signs, where it discusses the modalities of signs and how it is interpreted. Section three presents the foundation structure of the framework were it examines its basic properties. Section four presents the main structure of the framework, where it aligns the thematic categories and groups with the offline and online creative workflow processes. Section five outlines the propositional map, where propositions are linked back to gaps in the literature and research aim and objectives. Section six presents the chapter summary.

3.2 Trust and signs

The thesis will interpret the alignment of trust and workflow through the observation and exchange of signs. In this setting, *"A sign is a physical manifestation with implied propositional content that has an effect on some agent"* (Price and Shanks, 2004, p.662). I view signs as a physical manifestations that enable the interpretation of trusting of phenomena. I use the thematic categories and groups as an assemblage point from which to identify layers (of trust) and map signs of trust in the offline and online domains. By definition *agent* refers to the trustor. In this setting, signs are used by a trustor to assess whether the trustee can be entrusted. The relationship between signs and properties that warrants trust can be broadly expressed as *'signs of trust–warranting properties'* (Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001).

Interpreting the credibility of these signs remains a significant component on whether or not to trust (Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001). Though it should be noted that not all signs are used to assess the properties of the trustee. For instance, a sign could equally be an independent property that conveys confidence of a field object and thus be used in conjunction with other signs in the assessment of trust. In sum, signs are often associated with the field of linguistics (Sebok,

2001). This facet remains a relevant attribute to the thesis since trust is being examined as an observational phenomenon, where it is strongly embedded in the situational context and dialogue of trusting parties.

Modality of signs

People who study signs and communications (semioticians) distinguish between three sign modalities: 1) icon, 2) index and 3) symbol. These modes establish different types of relationships and experiences between the sign vehicle (see Part A, Fig. 18) and the referent (see Part B, Fig. 18) in the semiotic triangle (Hawkes 1977; Johansen, 1984). These three will be reviewed respectively in accordance to the Peircian (1931–58) model and will be applied to the analytical stages of the studies to identify signs of trust–warranting properties.

Modality 1: iconic sign

First, an icon/iconic is a sign that resembles or imitates the object that it represents. A sign is only an icon if there is the perceived similarity to the object and is used in replacement of the object. Being similar means the sign must have some of the qualities of the object, such as perceptual similarity, or an analogous sound, smell, taste or feel. Icons can come in the form of images, diagrams or literary metaphors. Images can be in the form of a photograph or painting, diagrams can be in the form of a railway map and literary metaphors can be in the form of phrases such as piggy–bank or paper–plane.

Modality 2: indexical sign

Secondly, an index/indexical is a sign that is characterised by sensory properties (looks, smell, feel) that indicates to an object. Pierce notes that anything that focuses our attention is an index. Unlike icons, it does not represent or replace the object but makes genuine inferences to the object. Like an icon, an index will share some qualities with the object but unlike an icon, index signs do not resemble or imitate the object nor is it dependent on the interpretation of the sign but makes a real physical connection. Index signs can come in the form of tracks, symptoms and designations. Tracks have physical relationships with the object, such as an animal's footprint. Symptoms occur concurrently with the object, for instance *pain* is a symptom of *illness*, while *smoke* is a symptom of *fire*. Designations point to the object, for instance a *pointed finger*, a *signpost*, a clock pointing to the time of day and word like *this*, *that* and *there*.

Modality 3: symbolic sign

Thirdly, a symbol/symbolic is a sign that is socially constructed. Unlike icons it does not resemble the object but is arbitrary and is dependent on conventional usage to determine meaning. Fundamentally, this means that the relationship between the sign and object must be correlated and actively earned. Icon and index signs occur more naturally compared to symbols because they require an interpretant to learn and decode the symbol. Without an interpretant a symbol is not a sign. For instance, language is a common symbolic sign system. The alphabet and numerical system we use every day are symbols as much as the words fly or duck are also symbols that have to be actively learned before it is decoded.

Interpretation of signs

The interpretation of signs within the field of semiotics is called *semiosis*. I use the Peircian (1931–58) basic model to briefly describe how signs can be decoded in the offline and online domains. Detailing this process is considered important because it illustrates that signs are interpreted as a form of human behaviour as opposed to a cognitive phenomenon (Nöth, 1995). Peirce states that a sign consists of three logical components: 1) sign vehicle, 2) thought or reference and 3) referent.

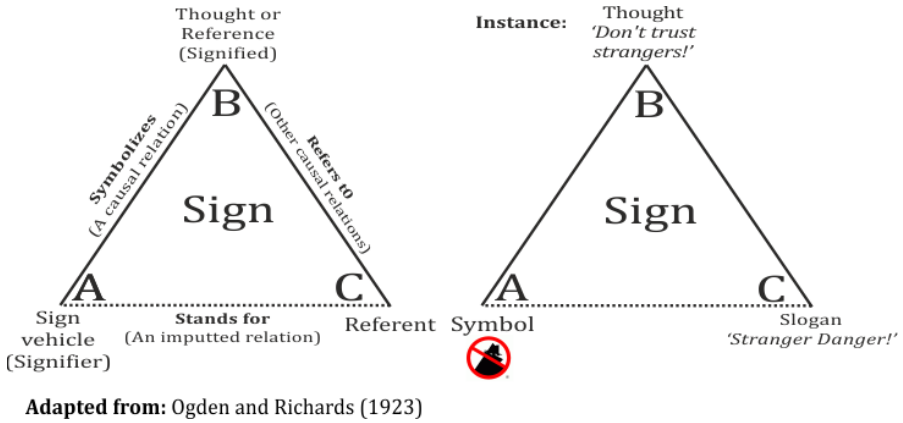


Fig. 18 The semiotic triangle

A sign vehicle refers to the physical manifestation of a sign. Thoughts or reference refers to the sense–making of that sign, whereas referent refers to the implied proposition of that sign. These three components can be found in the *semiotic triangle* (Nöth, 1995) (see Fig. 18). In sum, Part A is the signifier: the materiality of signs, whereas Part B the signified: the concept it refers to (Saussure, 1983). There is a direct causal relationship between Part A and Part B and between

Part B and Part C but there is no relationship between Part A and Part C. This is because the person (trustor) will have to attain experience of using the sign and therefore make sense of it (Part B) before he knows what it refers to (Part C).

Syntactics, sematics and pragmatics

It is widely acknowledged that signs can be interpreted in three broad branches: 1) syntactics, 2) semantics and 3) pragmatics (Pierce, 1931–1935; Morris 1938; Nöth, 1995). Syntactics is concerned with the relationships signs have with each other; semantics is concerned with the implied proposition and reference of signs; pragmatics is concerned with the origin, use and effects of signs, especially from people who use signs. Of these three branches there is a strong pragmatic focus in the thesis, by default when the word sign is used it broadly refers to a pragmatic sign.

Critically, this is the relationship between Part B and Part C (see Fig. 18). Sowa states that, "*Pragmatics relates signs to the agents who use them to refer to things in the world and to communicate their intentions about those things to other agents who may have similar or different intentions…"* (Sowa, 2000, p.56). This branch is relevant to the thesis because there is an emphasis on those (trustors) who are dependent on signs to assess trust: particularly in situations where information asymmetry is present or where intentions to act is unclear or may result in untrustworthy outcomes.

Denotation and connotation of pragmatics

Denotations and connotation are analytical tools used to interpret the meaning of signs (Silverman, 1983: Hall, 1993). Denotation refers to the most basic, literal meaning of a sign. For instance, the word *creative* in an ad–agency signifies *novelty of idea*. This meaning can be conceptualised as a common form of rhetoric that is shared amongst people whom have come from the same cultural background (Barley, 1983). In contrast, connotation refers to the secondary meaning of signs. For instance, *creativ*e in an ad–agency also signifies a *person with creative abilities*. It thus annexes social, cultural and personal associations to signs and compared to denotations are more open to interpretation (Barley, 1983). While semioticians interpret the meaning of signs from multiple facets and degrees of complexity, in the thesis I apply the two terms broadly. In this context, the connotative and denotative meaning of phenomena will be interpreted from *a priori codes* induced from the categories and groups (See Section 3.5.2).

Default interpretation of 'sign' and conjunctive uses

When the term *sign/signs* is used in the thesis, by default it means *pragmatic sign*. Throughout the thesis I therefore explore the denotation and connotation of these signs. Moreover, signs will sometimes be used in conjunction with a verb to denote its descriptive type base. For instance, the term *perceptual sign* refers to a '*pragmatic sign of a perceptual nature*' where the word perceptual refers to the productive or receptive state of the sign. In short, it is a pragmatic sign that can be seen by a person.

3.3 Framework foundations

I establish the foundations of the conceptual framework by reviewing three field objects: 1) trust, 2) workflow context and 3) creative context. The first object offers a working definition of trust, the second outlines the context of trust: where it distinguishes offline communities from their online counterparts, while the third discusses the role of creativity.

3.3.1 Professional trust

I start by offering a preliminary definition of trust that reflects the research themes (categories and groups) and supports the exploration of the main research question. This working definition is required because trust is *situational specific* (Cahill *et al*., 2003). I have therefore formulated a definition that captures the professional properties in a relationship and define trust as:

> *"A willingness to be vulnerable, based on positive expectations, that a trustee will perform fiduciary actions: competently and responsibly, in a situation of risk."*

The definition was constructed in three parts. First, using Castaldo *et al*., (2010) semantic schema as a reference point, I identify the basic situational parameters of trust by referring back to the thematic categories and groups and select properties that fit the professional and creative context of the research (see Table 1).

Secondly, I then select three relevant definitions of trust from which I provide a general critique of how they have been used in the confines of their studies. I then break down these definitions and highlight *critical keywords* (willingness, vulnerable, positive expectation, action, online situation of risk) that

fit into the themes (trust, workflow, professional, offline, online) of the main research question outlined in the first chapter (see Table 2).

Table 1 Basic situational parameter

Basic situational parameter*	Literature review From categories and groups
Actors	People (advertising or creative practitioners)(see Glossary), institutions (ad–agency, website proprietors)
Relationship type	Professionals: characterized by a trustee's ability (expertise, technical competence) and integrity (fiduciary responsibility)
Behavioral type	Rational attitudes, emotional attitudes
Context	Advertising community, creative team, creative, workflow process, online, offline

NB: *Basic situational parameters categories sourced from Castaldo *et al*., (2010).

Thirdly, I then begin formulating the definition by using those identified keywords and use Castaldo *et al*., (2010) semantic schema as a reference point to assess the credibility of the definition compared to broader definitions of trust. From a content analysis of 96 multidisciplinary definitions of trust, which spanned a period of 50 years, Castaldo suggested that trust definitions can be divided into five main components. These components do not have to flow in one logical sequence and can be expressed in a number of different sequences. Though it should be noted that definitions that do not encompass these components will not necessarily make them invalid.

Table 2 Critique of three definitions of trust

Definitions	General critique
"an attitude of confident expectation in an online situation of risk that one's vulnerabilities will not be exploited" (Corritore *et al*., 2003, p.740)	Corritore's *et al*., defines trust as an attitude and overlooks the behavioural component but distinguishes online from offline trust, which is characterized by risk.
"Trust is the willingness to be vulnerable based on positive expectations about the actions of others" (Riegelsberger, 2005, p.30)	Riegelsberger's definition is user centric overlooks cooperative facet but recognizes exposure of trust and that it is an attitude that embodies both rational and emotional components.
"Alice trusts Bob if she commits to an action based on a belief that Bob's future actions will lead to a good outcome" (Golbeck, 2005, p.2)	Golbeck's definition is based on online social networking sites but overlooks facets of risk but recognizes the implicit manifestation of trust in directing explicit behaviors.

I compare and contrast the working definition relative to Castaldo's five components (see Table 3). The working definition can be interpreted as follows. There is a general willingness from the trustor to be made vulnerable to the actions

of the trustee. The trustee in this setting can be a person or institution. At the cost of exposing himself to such vulnerabilities he has formed positive expectations about the trustee and that he will likely benefit from her intended outcomes. These intended outcomes can be presented as fiduciary actions: contractual activities, which in alignment to professional formalities, should be fulfilled with a degree of technical competence and responsibility by her, in situations (offline or online) that are characterised by a degree of risk and vulnerability.

Table 3 Schema relative to preliminary definition

Five components of schema*	1) an expectation (belief, a reliance etc.) that a 2) subject distinguished by specific characteristics (competence, benevolence etc.) 3) will perform future actions aimed at producing 4) positive results for the trustor 5) in situations of consistent perceived risk and vulnerability. (Castaldo *et al*., 2010, p.665)
Preliminary definition	1) A willingness to be vulnerable, based on 4) positive expectations, that a trustee 3) will perform fiduciary actions: 2) competently and responsibly, 5) in a situation of risk.

3.3.2 Workflow context

I examine the context of workflow, in terms of where working processes are exercised and practised. I start by examining the concept of community, then define the scope of these communities, relative to trust, in the offline and online domains.

Institution–community relationship

As discussed workflow is a sequence of activities that are prescribed by institutions (Aalst and Hee, 2004). Within these institutions they are exercised in a communitarian setting that enables a person or group of people to conduct work and deliver outputs (Aalst and Hee, 2004). In this respect, a community is related to the concept of *community of practice* (Wenger, 2000) and refers to a group of people who have a sense of familiarity, who feel they belong together and share the belief that their needs will be fulfilled (McMillan and Chavis, 1986; Rovai, 2002; Wenger, 2011).

Offline–online community distinctions

In the offline domain, *"A community is a group of people who are socially interdependent, who participate together in discussion and decision making, and who share certain practices that both define the community and are nurtured by it..."* (Bellah *et al*., 1985, p. 333). In contrast, in the online domain it has been used in

conjunction with the work *virtual* to describe, *"...groups of people with common interests and practices that communicate regularly and for some duration in an organized way over the Internet through a common location or mechanism.*" (Ridings *et al.*, 2002, p.273). Regardless of their offline or online presence Lesser *et al*., (2009) states that communities have three consistent components: 1) people, 2) places and 3) things. These are embedded in both definitions. First, people are required to build communities. Secondly, places are required. This can be physical spaces (offline domain) or virtual spaces (online web–based domain). Thirdly, things are required, like norms, tools and procedures that allow people to interact and fulfil activities, within communities.

The most notable distinction that separate the two domains is role of the Internet in mediating relationships. In the offline domain relationships are localised and constrained by geographical boundaries but communities in the online domain are more global and do not exhibit such constraints. Moreover, Anatoliy *et al*., (2011) emphasised that for a community to be considered online it must involve a degree of interactivity, which includes using different modes of communications in a virtual space, where people can come together and interact for a sustained amount of time.

Professionalism and community of practice

In the thesis I am investigating offline and online *communities of practice* (CoP), where I examine the role and function of professional practitioners, as they practice their craft, in workplace settings (Wenger, 2000). CoP can be found in professional institutions. It is organically formed because people have commonalities, can identify with each other and share similar professional interests and goals. In this type of communitarian setting, sharing knowledge and experiences, particularly where people learn from each other, often fosters professional interdependent relationships (Wenger, 2000).

Framework substructure

I ground the foundation of the framework by aligning the institution and community of practice to the workflow process in the offline and online domains. As a reminder the offline creative workflow process is composed of four modular components (basic view) that consist of input, process and output. These modular components were used to capture the creative workflow process in online domain. In essence, both workflow processes mirror each other. In both domains, the

workflow process is prescribed by institutions. In the offline domain the institution is a brick–and–mortar ad-agency, whereas in the online domain it is the web–site proprietors: those who operate, manage and administer the online communities. Through the substructure I examine three parts, where I: A) configure the workflow process in the offline and online domains, B) clarify the input, process and output stages and C) align the *trust–warranting* (Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001) and *situational properties* (Kramer, 1999; Riegelsberger, 2005) (see Fig. 19).

Part A: configuration workflow in offline–online domains

The basic components of the workflow process in an offline ad–agency were discussed in Chapter 1 (see Section 1.3.2). Critically, the workflow process in the online domain is consistent with those found in the offline domain though there are variations in practice (see Fig. 19, Part A). They both require an external client. This person may represent a corporate customer who has a marketing or advertising–related problem that needs to be addressed. The client seeks the creative professional services of an offline or online advertising institution to fulfil these needs. The institution sends a representative (of the institution) to negotiate with the client to ratify a set of agreements and goals that will culminate in the formation of a creative brief.

In the offline domain, this representative is typically the advertising executive, while in the online domain it will be a person of similar standing or member of operational management. Upon confirmation of the client's agreements and goals the creative brief will be send to the community of practice for processing. In the offline domain the workplace setting is physical and will consist of various departments (media, planning). The brief may be passed to these departments for processing before it is dispatched to the creative department and team for fulfilment. In this setting, the creative team is constructed: meaning that it is organically arranged within the institution, where team members are familiar with each other.

However, in the online domain the workplace will be web-based and virtual. In this setting, the contents of the creative brief will be assessed and edited by the institution (website proprietors). Afterwards the brief will then be pushed out to the community in the form of a public announcement, where community practitioners will be invited to compete with one another to fulfil and submit an initial pitch based on brief requirements. Successful selection of the pitch/s (either

individual or team) will result in a monetary prize for the individual creative practitioner or team. This public announcement may be made public for all members of the community to read and access or may be made private and targeted towards individual practitioners or teams (see Chapter 6).

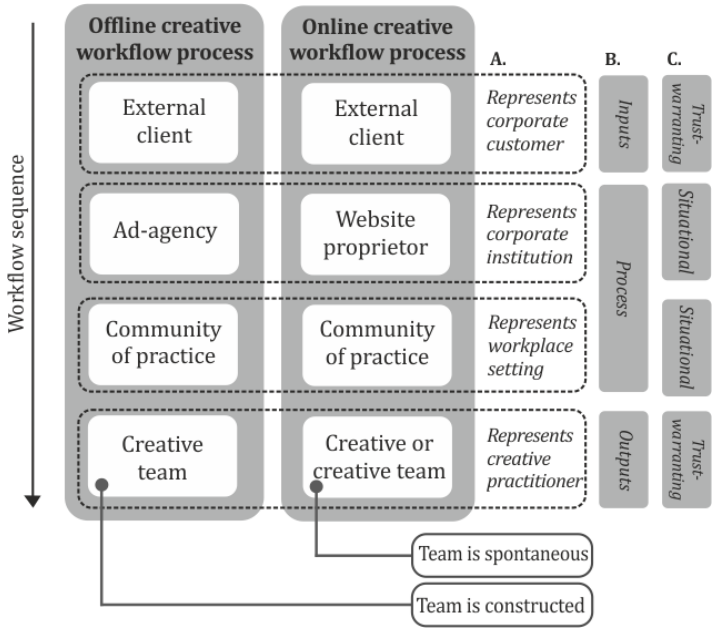


Fig. 19 Framework substructure

When fulfilling the creative briefs, contrary to the constructed teams in the offline domain, briefs can either be fulfilled independently or through temporary spontaneous teams, arranged by the creative practitioner. If the latter is chosen then, team members may be unfamiliar with each other, where team duties will be organised around the temporary remit and time constraints of the brief. This setting is reflective of the conditions in *swift trust in temporary groups* (Kramer and Tyler, 1996; Lacono and Weisband, 1997) but in this situation community practitioners are given the choice to screen and assess whom they want to work with. Spontaneity is therefore not predetermined and thrust upon team practitioners.

Essentially, in the online domain conceptualisation of briefs is no longer constrained within the creative departments (as in offline domain) but instead the institution has *democratised* the workflow process and solicited the brief to a wider, participative audience. In this context, I use and adapt Huntingdon's (1993) description of democratisation to define the term as a gradual transition of workflow: from what used to be a closed exclusive process (offline workflow) to a process that is more open, inclusive, equal and free (online workflow).

Part B–C: positioning 'process stages' and trust nexus points

In the four components (see Fig. 19, Parts B) the external client can be conceived as the *input stage* of the workflow process. In this setting, the client provides the instructions and requirements of the creative brief. From the perspective of the client, trust is yet to be warranted from the institution offering the creative service. The institution (ad–agency, website proprietor) and the community of practice (physical, virtual) can be conceived as the *process stage* of the workflow process. The creative brief goes through the logistical infrastructure (situational properties) of the institution to be processed.

Finally, the creative or creative team can be conceived as *output stage* because they fulfil the brief and deliver the final ideas and concepts, either to the institution or directly to the client. From the perspective of creative practitioners, whom are working on the fulfilment of the brief, properties that warrant trust from team practitioners are important in cementing a collective understanding of brief needs, requirements and goals. As an important note, I have positioned the trust–warranting and situational properties broadly, relative to the workflow components (see Fig. 19, Parts C). Given the complex nature of the construct, the position does not convey exclusivity. Instead they represent *nexus points* from which other categories and groups (of trust) can ebb and flow to and fro from.

3.3.3 Creative context

The term creativity is a significant contextual backdrop to the thesis and has a number of connotations. I define the scope of this term relative to the advertising profession in which it is applied to.

Creative properties

Creativity at the most rudimentary level can be interpreted as something a creative person does or produces (Young, 1985). It can denote a person's cognitive and behavioural capacity to be creative. In the thesis, *"Creativity is the production of novel and useful ideas in any domain"* (Amabile, 1996, p.1). The literature indicates that creativity has two consistent properties: 1) novelty and 2) usefulness (Rogers, 1954; Stein, 1963; Mumford and Gustafson, 1988; Amabie, 1996). First, for an object to be creative a person must take an object and transform it into something else. To achieve this, he must take something from the past and using his imagination must transform it into something relatively new and novel (Young, 1985; Amabie, 1986). Secondly, it must be targeted and express something

meaningful, that has utility to an audience and which reflects the context of the situation (Amabie, 1986; Smith and Yang, 2004).

Contextual setting

Creativity is examined in the advertising profession. In this setting, it can refer to: 1) the people who create and develop advertisements, 2) a type of task or 3) the prescribed workflow process practised in community. First, it can refer to a specific type of practitioner (copywriter, art directors) (see Section 1.3.1) or it can refer to the intrinsic trust–warranting property of the trustee (ability, technical competence) (see Section 2.4.3.2). Secondly, it can refer to the task (creative brief, project). From the perspective of creative practitioners a creative brief is a set of instructions and requirements that allow creatives to generate advertising concepts and ideas. Thirdly, it can refer to the workflow process creative practitioners use to fulfil a creative brief. It is so called the *creative workflow process* because it encompasses creative tasks and people.

3.4 Framework overview

I extend the framework substructure in Fig. 19 and establish a correlation between the thematic categories and groups and the creative workflow process practised in the offline and online domains (see Fig. 20). The term correlation does not infer any statistical relationship but denotes the mutual dependent relationship of trust and workflow: specifically the degree by which the properties of trust are aligned to the components of workflow. Fundamentally, this relationship explores the dependency of trust relative to the components of the workflow process. Unearthing the granular properties that enable a better understanding of how two constructs interact (trust, workflow) has been called causal mechanisms by Lin (1998). The extended framework is a strategic blueprint from which to establish propositions, methodological protocols, analyse data and assess the alignment of trust and workflow. As an important conceptual roadmap that drives the theoretical discourse of the thesis I have tagged the three subsequent field studies to their respective offline and online domains.

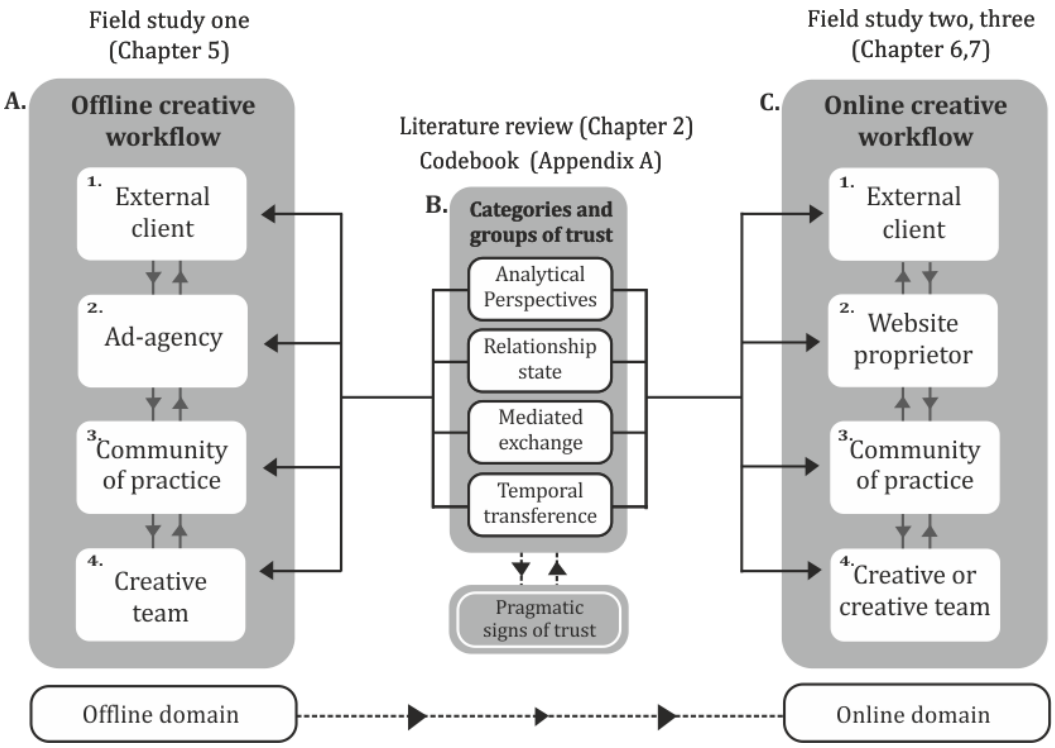


Fig. 20 Framework overview

3.4.1 Trust–workflow correlation

The extended framework is divided into three main parts (A, B, C). Part A represents the creative workflow process practised in the offline domain (ad–agency) and is related to field study one (see Chapter 5). Part B represents the four main categories of trust (see Chapter 2). Part C represents the creative workflow process practised in the online domain and is related to field studies two and three (see Chapters 6–7). I first examine Part B followed by the latter two parts. Part B represents the four main categories of trust. I examine each of the four thematic categories respectively where I select relevant groups and layers while eliminate others. This process of selection and deduction will support the exploration of the main research question. Within these groups I map and align the layers to their offline and online workflow components from which I then establish general propositions. I position the role of *signs* underneath Part B and use the thematic categories as a codified reference point to interpret the denotation and connotation of signs.

In this setting, when observing phenomena in the offline and online domains, these phenomenological emergences will be inferred by the *a priori* keywords contained in the categories and groups and logged as *pragmatic signs of trust* (see

Section 3.5.2). The workflow process of Part A and C have already been discussed (see Section 3.2.2) so they will only be lightly touched upon here. They represent the basic view of workflow which I broke down into four main components in Chapter 1 (see Section 1.3.2). I use the four modular components in the offline domain as a reference point from which to configure workflow in the online domain. Moreover, I have conceptualised the workflow components in a manner that illustrates the consistent role of agents (client, creatives) and structures (embedded institutional arrangements) in both domains. This consistency consolidates the premise that trust is informed by trust–warranting (agents) and situational (structural) properties. The thematic categories and groups therefore ebbs and flows from these two broad nexus points (see Fig. 19).

Main and supporting research questions

The thesis explores four questions. The research aim represents the main research question, whereas the three subsequent supporting questions are assigned to the three respective field studies. In unison the three supporting questions contributes to the fulfilment of the main question (see Table 4).

Table 4 Linking research questions to studies in framework

Main research question (AIM)	
"How is trust correlated to workflow in offline and online advertising communities?"	
Supporting research questions	**Study**
"What properties of trust are aligned to the creative workflow process of agents in an offline ad–agency community?"*	One
"What structural[1] properties moderate trust and working condition in online advertising communities?"*	Two
"What properties of trust are aligned to the creative workflow process of agents in online advertising communities?"*	Three

NB: *Agents refers to practitioners, whereas *[1]structural refers to institutional arrangements.

Part A in Fig. 20 represents the first field study. It explores the correlation and alignment of trust and workflow in an offline brick–and–mortar ad–agency from a multiple stakeholder perspective (see Chapter 5). Part C represents the second and third field studies both of which are conducted in the online domain. Of this the former study (see Chapter 6) examines the structure and operationalization of trust in online professional communities. It can be viewed as a rational bridge that connects field study one to field study three. The latter study (see Chapter 7), unlike the prior is informant–led and explores the correlation and

alignment of trust and workflow in two different online advertising communities, from the perspective of creative practitioners who utilize these communities to fulfil creative briefs and projects.

3.4.1.1 Analytical perspectives

The analytical perspectives category consists of three groups: 1) objects of trust and 2) manifestations of trust and 3) structures of trust. The layers in these groups represent different analytical perspectives that can be adopted to study trust and denote the breadth of relationships (see Fig. 21). Groups one and three will be aligned to workflow, while group two will be excluded. This is because it is neither a direct structure nor agent. Instead it informs how trust is conceptualised from a personal perspective as it transitions from the implicit (subjective reality) to explicit (objective reality).

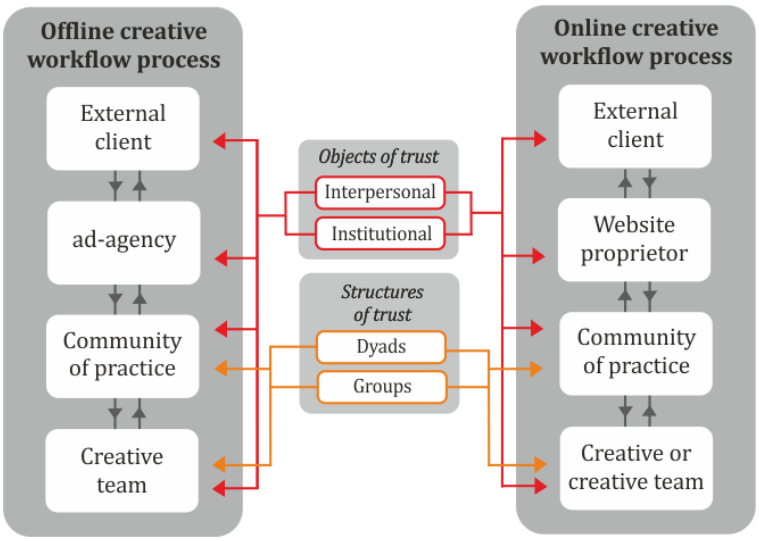


Fig. 21 Alignment with analytical perspectives

Selected object layers

As stated trust can be examined through the agency of human constructed objects or what has been referred to as *objects of trust* (see Section 2.4.1.1). In this group there are three layers: 1) interpersonal, 2) institutional and 3) artefact, of which the first two (interpersonal, institution) are relevant to the thesis. They broadly fit into the trust–warranting and situational nexus points (see Fig. 19). This is because the creative workflow process is dependant on the institution to moderate interpersonal relationships via the community to process the creative brief.

Selected structure layers

Trust can be examined through formalised social structures (see Section 2.4.1.3). These structures denote the breadth of the relationship (number of contacts). In this group there are four layers: 1) dyads, 2) triads, 3) groups and 4) networks, of which layers one and three (dyads, groups) are relevant to the thesis. Triadic structures are more complex to observe, in terms of assigning trustors and trustee tags and logging observational phenomena that are exchanged between the parties. Conversely, networks are more relevant for quantitative–based research designs and do not provide the granual details of a phenomenon.

Dyadic and group structures are most appropriate for this type of small scale interpretive research. The former was selected because there is a focus in investigating professional interdependent relationships (trustor, trustee). The latter was selected because teams are often used to fulfil creative briefs (see Section 1.3.2). However, whereas group structures are organically constructed in the offline domain they are spontaneously arranged in the online domain (see Section 3.2.2). In aligning the layers of trust in this category the framework makes the following proposition:

Propositional statement one

"Workflow consists of institutional and interpersonal objects, where fulfilment of brief is dependent on dyadic and group structures in the community."

3.4.1.2 Relationship state

The relationship state category consists of three groups: 1) characters of trust, 2) attitudes of trust and 3) degrees of trust. The layer in these groups represents the relational state and denotes the depth of relationships. All three groups will be aligned to workflow (see Fig. 22).

Selected character layers

Characters refer to the qualities of a person in their adopted roles (see Section 2.4.2.1). There are two layers in this group: 1) social characters and 2) professional characters, of which the latter layer (professional) has been selected. The former will not be mapped and aligned to workflow because the remit of the thesis is to investigate professional interdependent relationships, in physical and virtual workplace settings. However, indirectly it will be used as a reference point from which to compare professional characters.

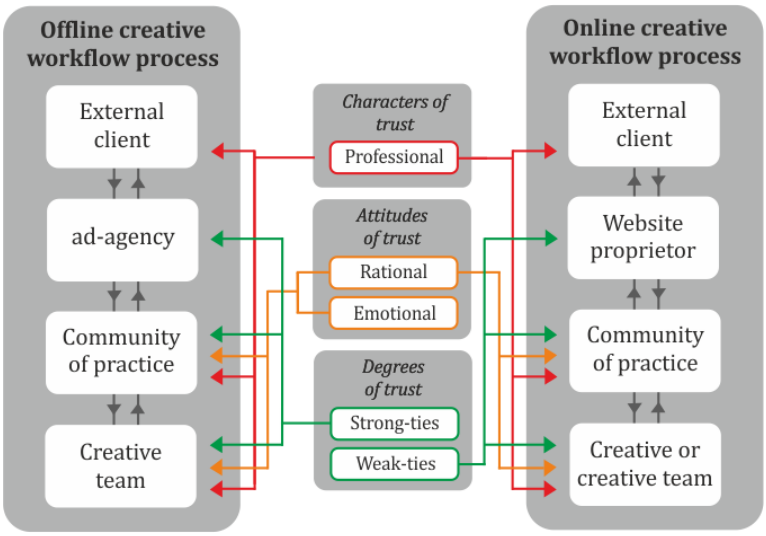


Fig. 22 Alignment with relationship state

Selected attitude layers

Attitudes refer to the evoked feelings that can emerge in trust–based relationships (see Section 2.4.2.2). In this group there are two layers: 1) rational and 2) emotional attitudes, of which both were selected. They were mapped and aligned to workflow components three (community of practice) and four (creative/creative team), where most of the work is fulfilled. In the offline domain both types of attitudes can be evoked in the community as a result of shared values and a strong sense of identity and belonging. Conversely, only rational attitudes are found in the online domain where decisions and actions are more calculative.

Selected degree layers

Degree refers to the depth of trust in relationships (see Section 2.4.2.3). There are three layers in this group: 1) strong–ties, 2) weak–ties and 3) latent–ties, of which the first two were selected. The latter was excluded because of the difficulties of assessing the latent probability of a relational ties, since it has to be awakened and activated. Strong–ties exist in the offline domain due to convergent beliefs, values and a cohesive social structure in the community. In comparison, in the online domain weak–ties are the result of divergent beliefs, values and a fragmented social structure in the community. In aligning the layers of trust in this category the framework makes the following proposition:

Propositional statement two

"Workflow is characterized by professional relationships. Offline, it is rational, emotive and connected through strong–ties while online it is rational and connected through weak–ties."

3.4.1.3 Mediated exchange

The mediated exchange category consists of two groups: 1) directions of trust and 2) factors of trust. The layers within these groups convey the ebb and flow of trust and highlight trust–warranting properties. Both groups will be aligned with workflow (see Fig. 23).

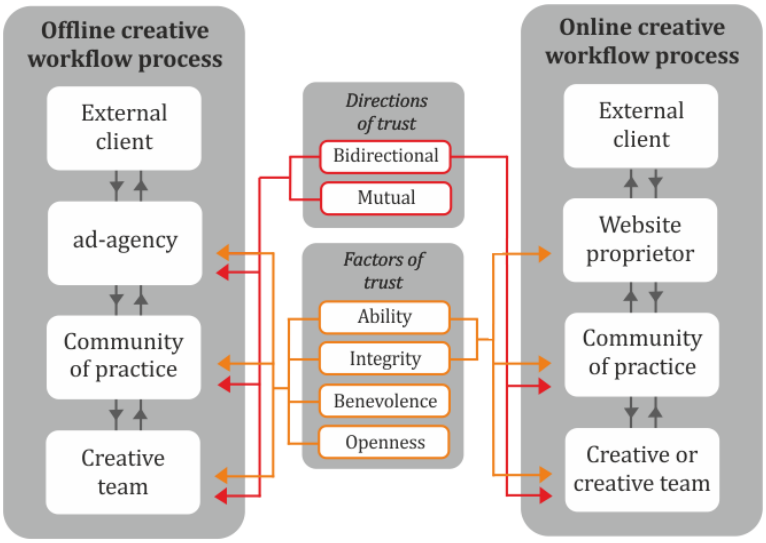


Fig. 23 Alignment with mediated exchange

Selected direction layers

Direction refers to the abstract ebb and flow of trust (see Section 2.4.3.1). There are three layers in this group: 1) unidirectional, 2) bidirectional and 3) mutual, of which the latter two (bidirectional, mutual) have been selected. The first has been dismissed because trust is not dictated (does not flow one way) and the practitioners in the relationship are in asymmetric roles. In the offline domain trust can be bidirectional or mutual: it flows from both sides of the relationship (trustor, trustee), where positive beliefs and expectations have been formed with the institution, community and team. This is because repeated reciprocal exchanges over time have fostered mutual interdependence between parties. In the online domain, positive beliefs and expectations are not mutually formed with

the institution due to reciprocal deficiency and informal relationships. Moreover, dyadic and group relationships are calculative and therefore bidirectional in the community and teams because involved parties will be continually assessing costs and benefits of the relationship.

Selected factors layers

Factors represent trust–warranting properties (see Section 2.4.3.2). There are five layers in this group: 1) ability, 2) integrity, 3) benevolence, 4) openness and 5) predictability, of which the first four have been selected. The latter (predictability) has been excluded because it is viewed as an outcome of the basic factors (Mayer *et al.,* 1995). In the offline domain all four layers can be found in the institution, community and team. With shared beliefs and history trust moves beyond the formalities of professionalism (ability, integrity) and encompasses properties of benevolence and openness.

Involved parties will express care and concern for each other in the workplace by assisting and supporting each other to fulfil collective goals. This collective consciousness (shared identity, vision) encourages knowledge–sharing between people. In the online domain ability and integrity can be found in the institution, community and team. Relational–ties with the institution (website proprietor) are weak due to informalities and the lack of shared beliefs and values. Creative practitioners in the community do not form any attachments with the institution and assess trust through strict professional formalities. These formalities are percolated through to the community and team levels.

Propositional statement three

"Offline workflow is mutual, where ability, integrity, benevolence and openness warrants trust. Online workflow is bidirectional, where ability and integrity warrants trust".

3.4.1.4 Temporal transference

The temporal transference category consists of two groups: 1) dynamics of trust and 2) steps of trust. The layers in these groups denote the transitory nature of trust as it ebbs and flows through the history of an interpersonal relationship (see Fig. 24). Both groups will be aligned with workflow.

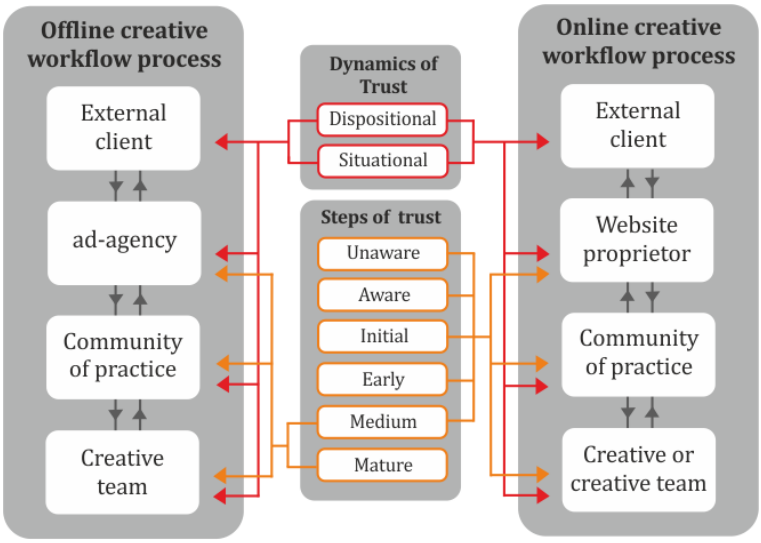


Fig. 24 Alignment with temporal transference

Selected dynamic layers

Dynamics denotes the fluidic and changing nature of trust. It highlights the dispositional and situational–properties that can influence this change and underlines transitional points that can occur in a relationship (see Section 2.4.4.1). There are two layers in this group: 1) dispositional and 2) situational dynamics, of which both are relevant to the framework (see Fig. 24, prior page). As stated, dispositional dynamics refer to the changing emotional state (implicit, explicit) of people (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2003), whereas situational dynamics refer to the embeddedness of environmental properties. These properties are also referred to as *contextual–properties* (Kramer, 1999).

Both offline and online creative workflow processes are vulnerable to transitional changes and fluctuations from these two types of dynamics. While it is difficult to anticipate occurrences of dispositional dynamics: due to the imperceptibility of pinpointing individual emotive fluctuations before they are transformed into behavioural acts, it is more accessible to examine the latter. Situational dynamics are attributed by three main properties: 1) temporal 2) social and 3) institutional embeddedness. The first refers to repeated reciprocal exchange, the second refers to social exchange and the third refers to authoritative networks embedded within an institution. Exploring the emergence of these embedded phenomena in workplace settings can determine the degree of structural alignment trust has with the workflow process.

Selected step layers

Steps of trust is a model that encapsulates the *transition points* that could possibly occur in a relationship (see Section 2.4.4.2). I showcase seven distinct steps in the model: 1) unaware, 2) aware, 3) initial, 4) early, 5) medium, 6) mature and 7) extreme, of which all of been selected with the exception of the latter. This is because extremities (of trust) are more likely to emerge from social relationships that are cemented from strong–strong ties and not from professional relationships were ties are weaker. In the offline domain, Steps 6–7 are typically found in the institution, community and team. In this setting, shared beliefs, values and a strong collective identity is cemented through repeated reciprocal exchanges. Positive expectations are confirmed between parties and the operationalization of trust is about maintaining the equilibrium (degree of trust). Moreover, people who trust have moved beyond extrinsic motivations and actively pursue and exhibit trusting behaviours and actions (implicit) with those whom they are engaged with.

In the online domain, Steps 1–6 are typically found in the institution (website proprietor), community and team. In this setting, the institutional structures are weaker, compared to the offline domain, particularly in permeating beliefs and values to creative practitioners within the community. Moreover, virtual profiles and representations of creative practitioners fragment collective identity in the community and narrow communication bandwidths have displaced power relations between influential stakeholders. In this setting, creative practitioners may be aware or unaware of others in the community they would like to cooperate and work with. Trust in this situation is in the very early phases and is about initiating and building relationships, yet the asymmetry of roles between creative practitioners often makes this trust building phase a challenging one to operationalise and practice in virtual workplace settings.

Propositional statement four

"Situational properties can determine the degree of structural alignment. Whereas offline trust is operationalized in the medium to mature steps, online trust is operationalized in the unaware to medium steps."

3.4.2 Trust–workflow assessment

In the previous section I establish a correlation between trust and workflow, where I mapped and aligned the categories and groups (layers) to the four components of the workflow process. This section presents an overview of how

this trust–workflow alignment is assessed (see Table 5) in the concluding chapter when I reflect upon all three studies. Given the qualitative nature of the research, these assessment measures are a *general rule of thumb*, where broad values are assigned to alignment outcomes of the field studies. When the findings of the three studies are explored respectively and reflected upon, correlation will be assigned a general positive (+) or negative (-) value to denote alignment or misalignment trust has with workflow. Assignment of values will be based on logging and interpreting signs of trust and identifying them from the categories and groups. In the negative value I have included both *distrust* and *mistrust* (see Section 2.5) as possible outcomes that could misalign workflow. While alignment of workflow components in the respectively offline and online domains may contain a combination of positive and negative values, these values will be principally assessed by the prominence of a theme.

Positive correlation and alignment

When correlation is positive then trust is aligned to workflow and exhibit *degrees* of high trust. Lewicki *et al*., (1998) characterise high trust as hope, faith, confidence, assurance and initiative. Subsequently an alignment value of *weak, medium* or *strong* will be assigned. Assessment of alignment value is based on three measures: 1) theme presence, 1) frequency and 2) consistency. The first denotes the presence of a prominent theme in a workflow component (acts of trust); the second, frequency of that theme (repeated exchanges); the third, consistency of that theme (fulfilment, non–fulfilment).

Alignment of trust with workflow is weak when the presence of a prominent theme is infrequently and inconsistently found in one or more of the workflow components; is medium when frequent and consistent; is strong when very frequent and consistent. It should be noted the designation of a theme is not mutually exclusive. While themes may be *more pronounced* in a modular component, they may also be found in other components but *less pronounced*. This can also be said with negative correlation and misalignment.

Negative correlation and misalignment

When correlation is negative then trust is misaligned to workflow and exhibit *degrees* of low trust. Lewicki *et al*., (1998) characterise low trust as no hope, no faith, no confidence, passivity and hesitance. Subsequently an alignment value of *weak, medium* or *strong* will also be assigned. The same three prior assessment

measures (theme presence, frequency, consistency) will also be applied to assign misalignment value. Misalignment of trust with workflow is weak when the presence of a prominent theme is infrequently and inconsistently found in one or more of the workflow components; is medium when frequent and consistent; is strong when very frequent and consistent.

Table 5 Trust–workflow assessment criteria

Correlation value	**Positive** (+)			**Negative** (-)		
Correlation Description	Workflow exhibit significant positive signs that moderate and facilitate trust			Workflow exhibit negative signs of trust or significant signs of distrust/mistrust		
Alignment value	**Weak**	**Medium**	**Strong**	**Weak**	**Medium**	**Strong**
Alignment Description	Infrequent Incon-sistent	Frequent Consistent	Very frequent Very consistent	Infrequent Inconsistent.	Frequent Consistent	Very frequency Very consistent
	Alignment and degrees of high trust			Misalignment and degrees of low trust		

3.5 Propositional map

To ensure the propositions put forward are consistent with the research direction I draft a propositional map. Through this map I revisit the gaps in the literature and research objectives, from which I then align these two elements to the propositional statements. Furthermore, within this map I also discuss the role of *a priori* keywords, which were extracted from the thematic categories and groups.

Link objectives to propositions

The aim of the research is to investigate, *"How is trust correlated to workflow in offline and online advertising communities?"* This main question is explored in four research objectives: 1) develop conceptual framework, 2) field study one, 3) field study two and 4) field study three, which are in turn are informed by the gaps in the literature (see Table 6).

Table 6 Linking objectives to literature gaps

Nos.	Literature gaps (see Section 2.6)	Explored in objectives	Found in chapters
1.	Align trust with workflow. *Trust is an active determinant of working practices*	1, 2, 3, 4	3, 5, 6, 7
2.	Formalities of trust and workflow. *Distinction between social and professional relationships*	2, 4	5 ,6, 7
3.	Transience of trust and workflow. *Bridge offline–online practices by adopting a multiple stakeholder viewpoints*	2, 4	5, 7

The first objective has already been fulfilled in this chapter. Its purpose is to establish a theoretical framework, from which to study the correlation between trust and workflow. Using the four objectives as points of introspection, I then link them to the four propositional statements: which are embedded in the framework and were previously discussed. Finally, I then outline where these propositions and objectives are explored and can be found in the thesis (see Table 7).

Table 7 Linking objectives to propositional statements

Nos.	Propositional statements	Explored in objectives	Found in chapters
1.	Workflow consists of institutional and interpersonal objects, where fulfilment of brief is dependent on dyadic and group structures in the community.	2, 3, 4	5, 6, 7
2.	Workflow is characterized by professional relationships. Offline, it is rational, emotive and connected through strong–ties while online it is rational and connected through weak–ties.	2, 4	5, 7
3.	Offline workflow is mutual, where ability, integrity, benevolence and openness warrant trust. Online workflow is bidirectional, where ability and integrity warrants trust.	2, 4	5, 7
4.	Situational properties can determine the degree of structural alignment. Whereas offline trust is operationalized in the medium to mature steps, online trust is operationalized in the unaware to medium steps.	2, 3, 4	5, 6, 7

Identifying pragmatic signs from 'a priori' keywords

The thematic categories and groups (Fig. 20, Part B) play a pivotal role in aligning the multiple layers of trust to the four modular components of the workflow process. However, it also serves a secondary function. As discussed in Section 3.4.1, they also function as *codified references* from which to identify the denotation and connotation of pragmatic signs. In this context, pronounced keywords from the thematic categories and groups have been extracted and placed in a separate document to form a *keyword codebook* (see, Appendix A–A2). This codebook will

be used in the data analysis stages of field studies one and three. In the initial stages of coding, codes which are presented as *a priori keywords* are applied to the datasets to induce and construct meanings.

3.6 Summary

This chapter presented the conceptual framework and has been divided into six sections. The framework is a strategic introspection point from which to establish propositions, correlate findings and conduct dialogic inquiry (Wells, 1999). Section two reviewed the concept of signs, relative to trust, and described how signs are interpreted from a Peircian mode of analysis. I then briefly reviewed three common modalities of signs. Section three presented the foundations of the framework. Section four builds upon this foundation and offers an overview of the main conceptual framework. The categories and groups of trust (see Chapter2) were revisited and aligned to the components of the workflow process. In each of the four thematic categories propositional statements were put forth to convey the degree of dependency and alignment trust has with workflow. Section five presents the propositional map, where it links the propositional statements back to the research aim, objectives and gaps in the literature. In the following chapter I present the research methodology and discuss the methods, processes, procedures, protocols and instruments used to collect and analyse the data corpus.

Chapter 4

Research methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology. It outlines the methods used to document, collect and analyse the datasets of the three field studies. The chapter is divided into six sections. Second two examines the paradigmatic allegiance of the thesis where it reviews the philosophical assumptions that underpin the research. Section three presents the research design. It defines the scope of the research, as far as the breadth of data collection and depth of analytical synthesis. Presented in the research design are the quality guidelines, data collection methods, instruments and units of measurement. Moreover, I also introduce and proceduralise a novel analytical method to identify and map pragmatic signs of trust from thick descriptions. Section four presents the three field studies. In each of these respective studies I provide an overview plan from which I then discuss the processes and procedures used to collect the data and consider any ethical dimensions. Section five discusses the limitation of the methodology. Section six presents the chapter summary.

4.2 Research paradigm

Since there are multiple ways of seeking knowledge Hudson and Ozanne (1988) state that researchers should delineate how it is acquired. This can be clarified by outlining the paradigmatic allegiance of a study. The term *paradigm* was popularised by Kuhn (1962) who used it to denote a seismic shift in thinking in the way researchers practise their discipline. It conveys a set of philosophical assumptions and beliefs about the physical world that underpins the activities and conceptual framing of the research: this can include the guidelines methods, instrument and field objects used in a study (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011).

A paradigm consists of four main components: 1) ontology, 2) epistemology, 3) methodology and 4) axiology (Creswell, 1998; Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Ontology is the study of the nature of existence in the world (Smith, 2004), where beliefs are inferred by their physical (environmental) and social (human) realities (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988; Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1992). Epistemology is the study of knowledge. It examines the properties that makeup knowledge, and

explores how it is acquired (Piaget, 1972). Methodology is the set of methods, processes and procedures used in research (Cresswell, 1998). Axiology is the study of values (Hartman, 1967) or ethics (Brady, 1999).

Emergence of positivism and interpretivism

It is widely agreed that there are two dominant paradigms in information systems: 1) positivism and 2) interpretivism (Walsham, 1995; Weber 2004; Chen and Hirschheim, 2004), in which the thesis is aligned to the latter. Each of these paradigms project a different world view of how ideas and beliefs are formed. In reviewing the history of information systems epistemology Hirshman (1985) states that positivism emerged from the renaissance period. Shaped by the systematic works of the likes of Francis Bacon (1561–1626), Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) and Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1726) knowledge is attained from observing natural phenomena which were interpreted through logic and sustained reasoning and verified by empirical evidence (Ayer, 1966). The formation and testing of hypothese, measurement of quantifiable variables and the belief that objectivity can be used to infer theory, predict casual relationships and universal laws are attributes of the positivist tradition (Chen and Hirschheim, 2004).

In contrast, interpretivism was the outcome of the anti–positivist movement at the end of the 19th Century, which surfaced as a reaction against the rigidity and experiential oversights of the positivist tradition. Hirshman (1985) in paraphrasing Wilhelm Dilthey (1833–1911) states, *"that individuals do not exist in isolation, they need to be understood in the context of their cultural and social life"* (Hirshman, 1985, p.20). The popularisation of the term *Verstehen* in German scholarly works in the 20th Century defined as, intentional and meaningful behaviour and subjective understanding (Tucker, 1965), captured the interpretive essence of the anti–positivist movement. It signalled the development of alternative methodological approaches and later the post–positivist era, *"the assertion that there is no one correct method of science but many methods"* (Hirshcman, 1985, p.32).

4.2.1 Interpretive tradition

Within the interpretivist school of thought the aim of attaining *verstehen* (subjective understanding) may be universal in research but there are sometimes variances in the philosophical assumptions that underpin the paradigm (Hudson

and Ozanne, 1988). I define the interpretive position of the thesis by outlining what these variances are relative to the four paradigmatic components.

Component 1: ontological position

Unlike positivism, interpretivism is non–deterministic and takes a relativist stance because reality is multiverse and is attributed by different social perspectives (Myers, 1997). In this regard, reality is inter–subjective in the way that people will use mental devices, such as theories, to conceptualise and comprehend their worlds (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Walsham, 1995). Physical reality is socially constructed through the sense–making of working practices where the enactment of such practices from *field objects* (informants, practitioners) determine their meanings (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988).

Social reality therefore is the outcomes of voluntary endogenous human actions and interactions, where people are actively engaged in shaping that facet of that reality (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988; Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1992; Chen and Hirschheim, 2004). As a result, research can be ideographic in circumstances, whereby there is a focus on understanding the activities of an individual (Klein and Myers, 1999), insofar as to uncover collective patterns of behaviour. From this position, social practices and systems cannot be objectively measured and discovered but instead must be ontologically perceived from which *insights* and *practices* can be attained and understood.

Socio–economic perspective

This ontological position has a socio–economic facet. This facet was previously introduced in the literature review where I described the *conception of trust* at the most basic level (see Section 2.3). This constructivist conception includes sociological, psychological and economic dimensions that constitute the physical and social reality of trusting phenomena. I use this perspective to identify the value and utility of trusting behaviours and actions (of agents, structures), relative to working practices, in the offline and online domains.

Component 2: epistemological position

Interpretive research is more nuanced compared to the positivist paradigm where it is concerned with the specific and historical properties of a phenomenon (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988). Researchers adopt an active role where they acquire thick descriptions to understand their field object's lived experiences, mindfulness and behaviours (Geertz, 1973): particularly how they interact and are shaped by

information systems (Walsham, 1995). In this context, researchers are focused on searching for shared meanings embedded in the language and the rhetoric used by their field objects. This can be manifested in the form of personal and collective motivations, reasons or user experiences (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988; Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1992).

Hermeneutics, a branch of philosophy that is concerned with text interpretation, can be used to interpret and analyse these shared meanings. For instance, it can be employed to unearth meanings that are hidden deep inside the text, which can only be brought to light through reflective accounting (Ponterotto, 2005). Originally confined to the interpretation of theological texts (Gadamer, 1975) hermeneutics has a strong history in academic circles and has evolved to include experiential *"meanings embedded in common life practices"* (Lopez and Willis, p.728). In this position, understanding is a continual process of learning that never ends. Phenomena that are interpreted and entered into discourse are then reinterpreted into subsequent works and so forth*..."Thus the movement of understanding is constantly from the whole to the part and back to the whole"* (Gadamer 1976, p.117). This process is called the *hermeneutic circle* and is a foundation principle in all interpretive research (Klein and Myers, 1999). In essence, the cyclical relationships between the micro–parts (properties) and the macro–whole (overview) of a phenomenon constitute the harmony of the hermeneutic circle (Gadamer, 1976). While a facet/s of reality can be understood, that is time–bound to the context of the phenomenon, a complete understanding can never be attained (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988).

In short, these shared meanings contribute to the construction of theory and understanding them constitutes a comprehension of that facet of reality. However, due to the complexity of this multifaceted reality, cause and effect relationships cannot be obtained but correlation between interdependent constructs and the constituent properties that are practised can be observed, explored and mapped (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1992; Lin 1998). As a result of this nuance, empirical evidence has limited generalizability and is time–bound to the naturalistic setting from which the phenomenon emerges from.

Component 3: methodological position

A field research approach is favoured in interpretivism, where researchers immerse themselves '*in the wild*' (Chamberlain, *et al*., 2012) in the field object's natural environment and engage with critical stakeholders (Orlikowski and

Baroudi, 1992). Schatzman and Strauss (1973) state that *"The field researcher is a methodological pragmatist. He sees method of inquiry as a system of strategies and operations designed at any time for getting answers to certain questions about events which interest him"* (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973, p.7). In this setting a researcher's prior assumptions (beliefs, values) can influence the impact of the study and therefore any biases should be declared.

Moreover, the aforementioned *'system of strategies and operations'* mentioned in the prior quote can transform the research design. As a result, research guidelines are well–defined but remain malleable and can evolve depending on the changing conditions of the contextual setting and the sensitivities of the field objects (Burgess, 1984; Hudson and Ozanne, 1988). Hermeneutic informed methods are employed to collect and analyse data. Data is acquired through language and rhetoric from the perspective of the field objects to understand their facet of reality. For instance, observations and interviews can be used to acquire thick descriptions from multiple stakeholders (Crist and Tanner, 2003), while analytical methods like content analysis (Marsh and White, 2006) and thematic analysis (Attride–Stirling, 2001) can be employed to develop an understanding of shared meanings.

Consequentially, categories and themes that emerge from these types of analysis are related back to those field objects, Glaser and Strauss 1967 in (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1992). Throughout this methodological process the hermeneutic circle is used to attain insight and understanding of the interdependent parts of the phenomenon relative to its overarching whole (Klein and Myers, 1999). These insights are reflected upon in context to their professional workplace settings, where they are correlated back to the conceptual framework (see Chapter 3) and dialogically inquired (Wells, 1999), to highlight theoretical contradictions and variances in interpretation from the field objects.

Semiotics as a mode of analysis

This methodological position has a semiotic facet. Hermeneutics has a symbiotic relationship with semiotics. In information science they are both used in tandem to identify and process sign–based information insofar as to develop an understanding of a phenomenon (Capurro, 1985). In this context, the online virtual domain can be conceived as a large semiotic ecosystem that consists of iconic, indexical and symbolic *modalities of signs* (Sowa, 2000). These signs are also

manifested in the offline domain. Semiotics therefore becomes a common modality from which to bridge the physical (offline) and virtual (online) worlds.

The nature and role of semiotics (modalities, interpretation) was introduced in the conceptual framework (see Section 3.2) where I discussed the closely–coupled relationship between trust and signs. Through this conceptualisation, I use semiotics as a complimentary *mode of analysis* in conjunction with hermeneutics to identify and interpret *pragmatic signs* of trust. Following this identification, I then delve into these signs to explore their denotative (literal, manifest) and connotative (secondary, latent) meanings.

Component 4: axiological position

In interpretivism the researchers values cannot be separated from the research process because activities are conducted in the natural world where they develop prolonged and close relationships with their field objects (Winters (1996; Ponterotto, 2005). Beneficially these values shape the discourse of research activities and instead should be acknowledged and *bracketed* (Ponterotto, 2005). For instance, this can be achieved by note–taking personal reflective accounts in one journal and observational accounts (from study) in another.

Specific values, like ethics, can enhance the *quality* of the research by identifying notions of good and bad, right and wrong (Hartman, 1971; Eubanks, 1978). For instance, it is commonly espoused that research should include 1) transparency, in a way that opens the research up to suggestions and criticisms; 2) consensual agreement, which must be granted from field objects involved in studies or when retrieving sensitive documents; 3) stakeholder confirmation, where contents should be acknowledged and if necessary corrected before publication and 4) responsibility, where the researcher is responsible for maintaining the anonymity, confidentiality and privacy of stakeholders.

4.3 Research design

The research design serves as, *"a plan that describe how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed"* (Parahoo, 1997, p.142). Research designs have consistently been classed into one or more of the following five categories: 1) historical research, 2) descriptive research, 3) correlational research, 4) causal comparative research and 4) experimental research (Isaac and Michael, 1977; Gay, 1987; Fraenkel and Wallen, 1990).

Types of research designs

Historical research concerns the critical inquiry of past events, the objective of which is to accurately describe and interpret nuances that may have been previously overlooked (Wiersma, 1986). Descriptive research is the examination of a population, where it is often used to describe people and the context of the situation. Its objective is to accurately draw facts and characteristics of that population (Issac and Michael, 1977; Kane, 1985). Correlational research is the examination of variables where no manipulation of the variables has been instigated. Its objective is to describe the relationships between the variables (Hazelwinkel, 2001).

Causal–comparative research is the examination of causal differences that exist among groups. Its objective is to identify cause and effect relationships in behaviours (Schenker and Rumril, 2004). Experimental research is the examination of variables which have been manipulated. These manipulations may present itself in the form of intentional treatments insofar as to identify cause and affect relationships (Maxwell, 2012). On reflection, the thesis can loosely be described as *correlational* in its outlook, though not in the large–scale sense that infers a *correlation coefficient* (quantitative dependency) and generalisation. Instead, it is used to convey small–scale interpretive exploratory research, which identifies the interplay of behavioural and situational properties, when investigating the *qualitative dependency* (degree of alignment) trust has with workflow (Lin, 1998).

4.3.1 Research guidelines

The word *quality* is synonymous with qualitative research and denotes the academic standard researchers should aim to obtain when collecting and analysing data (Seale, 1999; Mays and Pope, 2000). Quality in qualitative research has been described as research that is *'fit for purpose'* (of improvements in practice) (Melrose, 2001, p.164) and resides in the awareness and transparency of the type of choices the researcher makes (Reason, 2006) but also in the wise judgement and insight of the reader in comprehending the context of the phenomenon (Rolfe, 2006).

Quality vs. rigour

Quality is parallel to rigour which is a term that is often associated with the positivist paradigm (Healy and Perry, 2000) but is a contested label governing

qualitative research (Rolfe, 2006; Agar 1986) and the interpretive tradition (Sandelowsk, 1993) because it undervalues lines of naturalistic inquiries (Schmid, 1981) and the multiple constructed realities that can be interpreted from a phenomenon (Sandelowsk, 1993). While positivism has applied criteria of validity and reliability to ensure rigour (Hammersley, 1987; Winter, 2000), the criteria governing the quality of interpretivism unfortunately remains a contested topic between European and North American scholars (Rolfe, 2006; Denzin, 2009).

Reconfiguring validity and reliability

Avoiding this muddled debate (Denzin, 2009) this thesis adopts the position that validity and reliability are not fixed to positivism (Winter, 2000) but can also be applied to the interpretive tradition (Patton, 2002; Long and Johnson, 2000). They are applicable because without de–facto standards of credibility academic knowledge cannot be generated (Hammersley, 1992; Yin 1994). Recognising the reliability weaknesses of the interpretive tradition: as a result of its objectivity, replicability, generalisability and exposure to forms of researcher bias (Mays and Pope, 1995; Reason, Bradbury, 2001), there is general consensus that if validity and reliability are to be applied to interpretivism then it will have to be reconfigured (Stenbacka, 2001; Hope and Waterman, 2003).

Just as I have reconfigured how correlation is assessed in the thesis, validity and reliability will also require the same treatment. This is required because, *"usual canons of 'good science'…require redefinition in order to fit the realities of qualitative research"* (Straus and Corbin, 1990 p.250). To address this issue I provide definitions of validity and reliability from both research positions and highlight distinctions that separate positivism from the interpretive traditions (see Table 8).

Table 8 Comparative definitions of validity and reliability

	Positivist tradition	**Interpretive tradition**
Validity	*"An account is valid or true if it represents accurately those features of the phenomena, that it is intended to describe, explain or theorise."* (Hammersley, 1987, p. 69)	*"validity refers to the accuracy and trustworthiness of instruments, data, and research finding"* (Bernard, 2000 in Melrose 2001, p.163)
Reliability	*"Reliability is essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents".* (Cohen *et al.,* 2000, p. 117)	*"the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions"* (Hammersley, 1992, p.67)

Embedding criteria to guidelines

In terms of validity, Melrose (2001) states there are three types of criteria applicable to qualitative research: 1) internal validity, 2) external validity and 3) construct validity. Contrarily, Seal (1999) states that trustworthiness lies at the heart of reliability issues in qualitative research. I embed these quality criteria to the research guidelines, where it will be employed to assess the *quality of signs*: how the rhetoric of signs is used and affects other parties (See Table 9). Quality is attained by using the guidelines to support the description of two components: i) the task that is being conducted (working practices) and 2) the contextual setting (workplace) from which signs emerge (Price and Shanks, 2004).

Table 9 Validity and reliability criteria

		Descriptions
Validity	**Internal**	Can refer to *descriptive validity*: the accuracy of the recorded observations and reflective experiences (Maxwell, 1992) or *interpretive validity*: confirmation from those parties involved, that the researcher's interpreted data is accurate and true (Maxwell, 1992; McTaggart, 1997).
	External	Can refer to the *generalizability*: the ability to apply findings to a broader group, community or situation (Maxwell, 1992; Melrose 2001) or *evaluative validity*: the applicability of a research framework to other projects (Maxwell, 1992).
	Construct	Can refer to *theoretical validity*: the knowledge generated is accurate and trustworthy (Maxwell, 1992; Melrose, 2001) or *method validity*: the methods used are relevant and reflect the framework or paradigm employed (Melrose, 2001).
Reliability	**Trustworth-iness**	Can refer to the *trustworthiness of the researcher*: the reflexivity of the researcher in declaring personal and intellectual biases (Mays and Pope, 2000), the *audit trail*: transparency of past decisions and actions (Sandelowski, 1986) or the *research report*: the findings, interpretive claims and parties involved in the research (Denzin, 2009).

Strengthening criteria using triangulation

Quality can be strengthened by using *triangulation* (Checkland and Howell, 1998; Melrose, 2001). Triangulation has been defined as *"...a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study"* (Creswell and Miller, 2000, p. 126). It can reinforce findings, interpretative claims, highlight issues of bias and provide alternative perspectives of the construct (Johnson, 1994; Guion *et al*., 2002; Bryman, 2004; Denzin, 2009) all of which increases the scope, depth and consistency of the research (Flick, 1998). According to Denzin (1970) there are four types of triangulation (see Table 10).

Table 10 Four types of triangulation

Nos.	Types	Description
1.	Data triangulation	When different sources of data are used.
2.	Investigator triangulation	When more than one investigator is employed.
3.	Theory triangulation	When other disciplines or theoretical perspectives are used.
4.	Methodological triangulation	When different multiple–methods are used.

Of the four triangulation types, three are applicable to the thesis. Due to resource constraints, there is only a principal investigator involved in the research, so 2) investigator triangulation, will not be employed. However, data triangulation is applicable because different sources of data have been acquired from primary and secondary sources. For the former, data was acquired from multiple stakeholders. This enhances the truth value: the validity and therefore the credibility of the research findings (Cutcliffe and McKenna, 1999). Secondly, a multidisciplinary lens has been used to decode the complexity of trust (see Chapter 2) and develop the conceptual framework (see Chapter 3). This fulfils the theory triangulation remit. Thirdly, a multimethod approach is used to investigate trust and workflow in different contextual workspace settings. This fulfils the methodological remit.

4.3.2 Data collection methods

Primary data collection methods should be driven by the main research question. When considering primary data collection methods the researcher should reflect upon the research phenomenon and assess whether the method will deliver the insights that will contribute to the discovery or confirmation of that phenomenon (Reason and Bradbury, 2001). When designing the research the following four methods were reviewed: 1) interviews, 2) focus groups, 3) observations and 4) questionnaires. All these methods are typically employed in HCI and IS qualitative research (Lazar *et al*., 2010).

Reducing data collection methods

Each of the methods offers a unique perspective of the phenomenon (Patton, 2005) though not all are adequate to the thesis. For instance, focus groups is a premature method to investigate an emergent phenomenon that is not well understood. While the strength of the method encourages focused interaction from those involved in the group, unrepresentative samples and weak structures can cause invalid results

(Morgan, 1996). Conversely, while questionnaires can increase the sample size it poses a severe reliability issue as it offers a weak means of mapping emergent human behaviour (Sharp and Kine, 2008). It remains unreliable because people may answer the questions superficially without much thought. It is therefore difficult to gauge how truthful the person may be (Sharp and Kine, 2008).This will have implications to the internal validity of the data since trust is being examined as a decision and act.

Selected data collection methods

To tackle the issue of informant unreliability and superficiality the thesis will employ 1) *observation* and 2) *interview* methods. These methods are favoured with anthropologists and ethnographers who work in the field (Atkinson and Hammersley, 1994), where they are immersed in the phenomenon and work close with the data. In this setting, they principally become the main research instrument in mediating the exchange of information and knowledge.

4.3.2.1 Observations

All three field studies involved some type of observation. This method was selected for two reasons. First, observations provide an internal view of a social phenomenon (Cooper *et al*., 2006; Bryman, 2012). The directness of observing and recording data as it occurs by documenting behavioural actions, dialogues and day–to–day tasks (Becker, 1958), such as performing walkthroughs and job–shadowing informants, are absent from the other reviewed research methods. Secondly, when using a multimethod approach observations are considered a flexible method that can be triangulated with other data collection methods (Cooper *et al.,* 2006). Observations can be classed into three broad pathways (see Table 11).

Table 11 Observation pathways

<table>
<tr><th>1. Party awareness</th><th>2. Format style</th><th colspan="2">3. Engagement in setting</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">A) Overt</td><td rowspan="2">C) Highly–structured</td><td rowspan="2">F) Participant</td><td>H) Participant observation</td></tr>
<tr><td>I) Ethnography</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">B) Covert</td><td>D) Semi–structured</td><td rowspan="2">G) Non–participant</td><td rowspan="2">J) Naturalistic observation</td></tr>
<tr><td>E) Unstructured</td></tr>
</table>

Pathway 1: party awareness of observer

First, they can be covert, where field objects are consciously aware of the researcher's position and intentions and give consensus to be studied. Alternatively they can be overt, where the parties involved are not consciously aware and do not give consensus (Reid, 1970; Lugosi, 2006).

Pathway 2: format style of observation

Secondly, they can be highly–structured. This will involve using tightly pre-set coding sheets and checklists to deduce theory. In contrast they can be semi–structured or unstructured, in which case the use of coding sheets are minimised, and preference is given to theory to naturally emerge from the data (Cohen *et al*., 2000; Bryman, 2012).

Pathway 3: engagement in observational setting

Thirdly, it can be participant, where the researcher is immersed in the phenomenon and interacts with other informants in the contextual setting. Alternatively, it can be non–participant, where the researcher studies the construct externally. In this setting, the researcher remains unobtrusive and does not engage with the field objects (Cooper *et al*., 2004; Davies, 2007). The non–participant pathway is commonly associated with forms of naturalistic observations where the researcher investigates the natural context of the setting with minimum or no intervention (Miller, 1977; Christensen and Hazzard, 1983).

Conversely, the participant pathway is commonly associated with forms of participant observation (PO) or ethnography (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Participant observation, *"combines participation in the lives of the people being studied with maintenance of a professional distance that allows adequate observation and recording of data"* (Fetterman 1998, p. 34). However, ethnography follows a different route and can be defined as; *"...the study of people's behavior in naturally occurring, ongoing settings, with a focus on the cultural interpretation of behaviour..."* (Watson–Geogeo in TESOL Quarterley, 1988)

Observational pathways taken in studies

Using Table 11 as a reference point the observational pathway in field study one can be described as: A) overt, E) unstructured, F) participative and H) participant observation. The second field study can be described as: B) covert, D) semi–structured, G) Non–participative and J) naturalistic observation. Finally, the third

field study can be described as: A) overt, D) semi–structured, F) participant and H) participant observation. All three pathways will be elaborated in greater details when discussing their study design plans respectively.

Role of observer

If the researcher employs the participant observational pathway then Gold (1958) and Junker (1960) state that he can adopt one of four roles. These roles are not mutually exclusive and an observer can mediate between different roles (see Table 12).

Table 12 Types of participant observational roles

Nos.	Types	Description
1.	Complete participant	Researcher becomes complete covert member of community.
2.	Participant as observer	Researcher becomes overt member of community, with focus on observing than participating in community.
3.	Observer as participant	Researcher participates in activities but is not member of community but an observer and the community is covertly aware of this role.
4.	Complete observer	Researcher is hidden and is not part of community, but completely observes community with no intervention or obstruction.

Participant observation role in studies

In field studies one and three the observer as participant role (nos. 3) was selected. This role is favoured compared to the others because it complies with the ethical policies of being overt and completely open (Glaser, 1978) to the community of practice. In study two, participant as observer role (nos. 2) was selected insofar as to log and map workflow activities within the community.

Participant observation weaknesses

The strength of this role lay in its ability to create a professional distance between the researcher and the field objects involved in the study. This aspect is considered important as this distance reduces the weaknesses of the *observer–expectancy effect*: this occurs when the researcher unconsciously influences objects in the field that induces favourable observations or characteristics (Rosenthal, 1964). Creating a buffer between researcher and field objects has two advantages. First, it allow the researcher to focus and reflect on the phenomenon (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983; 1994). Secondly, the researcher is able to mediate between different angles because it has been suggested that by shifting between a *wide* to *narrow* perspectives can enrich observational findings (Merriam, 1998). For

instance, using this role can involve performing *walkthroughs* with field objects: a personalised guide of an area or task that is presented by an informant to the researcher (Roes *et al*., 2009). This walkthrough can entail aspects of *job shadowing* where informants are followed and their day–to–day activities and actions are observed and logged (Lozada, 2001).

Logging observations

When immersed in the phenomenon Angrosino and dePerez (2000) state that three types of observations can be logged: 1) descriptive, 2) focused and 3) selective. First, in descriptive observations everything is observed and recorded. Secondly, focused observations are complimented by interviews that guide the observational process. Thirdly, selective observations focus on different types of events which are then compared and differentiated. In the three studies a combination of *descriptive* and *focused* observations have been employed, where I will be shifting between the general and specific, insofar as to enrich findings and record different perspectives of the phenomenon (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002).

4.3.2.2 Interviews

An interview method was employed in field study three. This method was selected due to three reasons. First, it complements the observational method and adds value through insight in such a way that it cannot be attained through observations alone. Secondly, they provide an opportunity to directly communicate to those who use such social systems. From this perspective, an interviewee will be more likely to be open and discuss their experiences on a personal one–to–one basis (McNamara, 1999). Thirdly, this flexibility allows the researcher to personalise the format of the interview to the target groups and probe certain subjects and sensitive issues (McNamara, 1999). Generally, interviews can be classified into three pathways (see Table 13).

Pathway 1: direction of interview

First, interviews can be focused. In this setting, researchers take a more active role in mediating the interview and emphasis is placed on the interview topic or experiences of the field objects. In contrast it can be unguided. This happens when the interviewer takes a passive role and the objects are allowed to express themselves freely with minimum intervention (Merton, 2008; Hussain, 2011).

Table 13 Interview pathways

Direction	Time lapse	Format style		
A) Focused	**C)** Asynchronous	**E)** Structured	**H)** Standardised	**K)** Group interview
B) Unguided/ non directive	**D)** Synchronous	**F)** Unstructured	**I)** Unstandardised/ conversational interview	
		G) Semi–structured	**J)** Semi–standardised/ standardised open–interview	

Pathway 2: time lapse of interview

Secondly, interviews can be asynchronous. This occurs when the interplay of questioning and responding between the interviewer and field objects emerge at irregular intervals. Alternatively, it can be synchronous. This happens when the interplay of questioning and responding emerges simultaneously in real–time (Kazmer and Xie, 2008). Both types of interviews can be conducted via computer mediated communications (CMC) using the Internet or web–based applications.

Whereas asynchronous interviews can be e–mail based and conducted over an extended length of time, synchronous interviews can be conducted via an Internet telephony voice call application like Skype in real–time (Kazmer and Xie, 2008). Unlike conventional face–to–face interviews, interviews conducted via Skype are not constrained by geographical location and time–zone. This expands the informant base whom can come from a diverse range of countries. However, just as it is easy to conduct the interview online, it is even easier for the informant to defect altogether or withdraw halfway during the study. Though, this may not be the case in face–to–face interviews where it is harder to remove the interviewer when he is knocking on your doorstep.

Pathway 3: format style of interview

Thirdly, interviews can be structured. This is when questions are ordered and close–ended similar to survey research. This type of interview has also been referred to as the standardised interview (Berg and Lune, 2004) and leaves no room for improvisation. They can also be semi–structured. This is when questioning consists of open–ended or both close and open–ended questions. This type of interview is also referred to as the semi–standardised interview (Berg and Lune, 2004) or the standardised open–ended interview (Patten, 1987). Finally, it can be unstructured. This involves using questions that have not been predefined.

These interviews have been referred to as the unstandardised interview (Berg and Lune, 2004) or the conversational interview (Patten, 1987; Jennings, 2005). In this setting, questioning is based on the naturalistic social interaction that occurs between researcher and field objects (Gubrium and Holstein, 2002). Compared to the former the latter two types (semi–structured, unstructured) allow more room for improvisation. In addition, there is also the group interview. In this setting, more than two informants are interviewed at the same time, which can come in the form of a structured or unstructured interview (Fontana and Frey, 2000). On reflection, the label unstructured is often misleading because all interviews have some type of structure (DiCicco-Bloom, Crabtree, 2006), in most cases they should be referred to as minimally structured than unstructured.

Interview pathway taken in study three

Using Table 13 as a reference point the interview pathway for field study three can be described as: A) Focused, D) synchronous, F) unstructured. In this setting it resembles more like a I) unstandardized/conversational interview, where prompts and probes are employed to elicit information from the interviewee.

Role of interviewer

Myers and Newman (2006) based on the works of Goffman (1959) state that the role of interviewer and interviewee can be interpreted as stage actors. In this setting, the interviewer is the motivator whom is actively engaged in acquiring knowledge from the interviewee (expert in this case). As a stage–actor the interviewer can adopt one of three roles. These roles are not mutually exclusive and an interviewer can mediate between different roles (see Table 14).

Table 14 Types of interview roles

Nos.	Types	Description
1.	Role of empathizer	Ability to emphasize with interviewee concerns and the complexity of the topic.
2.	Role of learner	Ability to show interest by listening to the interviewee and responding accordingly.
3.	Role of leader	Ability to show leadership, by probing and prompting accordingly, encouraging interviewee activity and directing general course of interview.

Interview role in study three

When conducting the third field study I adopted: the 2) role of learner and 3) role of leader, where I mediated in–between these two stances. As a learner I gained

insight of an interviewee's experiences, perceptions and attitudes of trust. In contrast, as a leader I was able to prompt and probe accordingly to elaborate and expand on special interest topical areas.

Interview weaknesses

Interviews have two drawbacks which are particularly vulnerable to inexperienced interviewers (Myers and Newman, 2006). First, there is the issue of confirmation bias. This happens when the researcher actively seeks information to support their theory (Phillips and Dipboye, 1989; Friedrich, 1993). The second is the issue of the *Hawthorne effect*. This occurs when the researcher unconsciously influences the parameters of the situation which effects the field object's behaviour and therefore the neutrality of the interview (Amici *et al.,* 2000; Myers and Newman, 2006). To reduce confirmation bias, the researcher had to pilot the interview questions to ensure weaknesses, such as leading questions, are removed. To reduce the probability of the Hawthorne effect from happening, interviews were conducted via the Internet through internet telephony (Skype). In this setting, the physical abstractions of the interviewer can reduce this effect and if such effects was to occur these can be identified (Kazmer and Xie, 2008).

4.3.2.3 Instruments

A research instrument is a *"Device used to collect data such as a paper questionnaire or computer assisted interviewing system"* (U.S. Statistical Quality Standards Bureau, 2010). I briefly outline the types of instruments used to collect data in the three field studies (see Table 15).

Table 15 Linking instruments to field studies

Study	Instruments
One	Researcher, journal, logs, memos.
Two	Researcher, journal, memos.
Three	Researcher, journal, memos, digital voice recorder, computer–based voice recording program, computer–based screencasting program (video capture).

Data instruments can be classed into two general categories: 1) intrinsic instruments and 2) extrinsic instruments. The former refers to internal recording devices, such as the researcher. The latter refers to external recording devices, such as a tape recorder (Roghmann and Haggerty, 1972). The instruments employed in the studies are largely extrinsic in nature and are further elaborated

below (see Table 16). Whereas journals provide an *etic* account of the contextual setting, logbooks offer an *emic* account. The latter (emic) is used to describe the inside view of a phenomenon: specifically how people within a culture behave or act. The former is used to describe the outside view of a phenomenon: specifically from the perspective of the researcher. It is said that the synergy of both views can enrich insights of a contextual setting (Morris *et al*., 1999).

Table 16 Description of extrinsic instruments

Instruments	Description	Size/format
Research journal	Type of field note that records reflections; interpretive thoughts, decisions and actions.	20cm x 12.5cm
Logs/logbook	Type of data collection that logs observational phenomena's that is specific to the study.	20.5cm x 14.5cm
Memos/ post–it notes	Type of jotted short personal note that expresses a single thought or feeling (Birks *et al*., 2008).	7.5cm x 7.5cm
Digital voice recorder	A digital device used for recording audio activity.	MP3
Computer–based voice recorder	A personal–computer based program that is used for recording audio activity.	MP3
Computer–based screen recorder	A personal–computer based program that is used for recording computer screen and audio activity.	MP4

4.3.3 Data analysis methods

Data analysis is about data reduction and inducing meaning from the rich, thick descriptions that are found in the dataset (Ritchie and Spenser, 2002). A list of analysis methods that are typically used in interpretive research were selected. These methods were reviewed respectively and inappropriate methods were deduced from the list. The final chosen methods were employed to identify emergent patterns and themes from each of the three data sets (field studies), all three of which contribute to the data corpus (see Table 17).

Deducing data analysis methods

Both, 1) content and 2) thematic analysis share similar attributes. They remain flexible in that they both accommodate different philosophical perspectives of interpreting the data and use of codes and themes to identify emergent patterns (Boyatzis, 1998). In content analysis predefined categories are used to count the frequency of an occurrence (theme). This type of analysis is often accused of stripping the meaning of a phenomenon, particularly in terms of the context from which it is used (Silverman, 1993).

In essence, this delineates the *quality* of qualitative research (Morgan, 1993). In comparison, these issues are averted in thematic analysis, where its strength lay in unearthing the semantic meaning of text that can hidden in the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Since dialogue is a significant data contributor 3) conversation and 4) discourse analysis are also logical choices. In the former language is used as a basis to understand human behaviour and how actions are socially constructed. In the latter language is consequential and is viewed as an active determinant of outcomes (Wooffitt, 2005).

Table 17 Data analysis methods

Nos.	Method	Definition
1.	Content analysis	*"any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages"* (Holsti, 1969, p. 14)
2.	Thematic analysis	*"a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organises the possible observations and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon"* (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 161)
3.	Conversation analysis	*"studies the methods participants orient to when they organize social action through talk"* (Mazeland, 2006, p.153)
4.	Discourse analysis	*"Discourse analysis focuses on talk and texts as social practices, and on the resources that are drawn on to enable those practices."* Potter (1996, p.7)
5.	Narrative analysis	*"one method of recapitulating past experience by matching a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events which actually occurred"* (Labov, 1972, p.359–360)
6.	Comparative analysis	*"Comparative research or analysis is a broad term that includes both quantities and qualitative comparison of social entities"* (Mills *et al*., 2006, p.621)

In conversational analysis the depth of insight that can be acquired from conversations, in terms of identifying the nuances of speech: such as its speed, tone and pitch, which are embedded in the symbolic notations when transcribing the dialogues are enriching (Jefferson, 2004). However, the type of data that was gathered through the studies did not conventionally fit into the structure of conversational analysis. First, it was not aligned to structural concepts such as turn–taking: a process which regulates the flow of conversation (Strivers *et al*., 2009) or repair: a process of resolving issues within a conversation (Kasper, 2006).

Similarly, discourse analysis, which is a distinct approach used within conversational analysis (Fairclough, 1996) is equally as insightful with regards to making sense of language but is not limited to the nuances of speech (Wooffitt, 2005). They have broader implications that encompass a wide array of interest which have sometimes caused confusion when not elaborated (Alvesson and Karreman, 2000). One prominent interest is the integration of Foucauldian power inferences, which can overshadow naturally emergent phenomena that are not power–related. Determining how the context of language is used and not the meaning embedded in the language is the impetus of discourse analysis (Potter, 1996). In sum, while both conversational and discourse analysis are beneficial in disseminating dialogue they focus too much on its structure and subsequent interactions. This raises two problems for the thesis. First, both methods are liable to over analysis (Brown and Yule, 1983) and secondly, by focusing on the structure of language the researcher can easily overlook the situational properties that are embedded in the contextual setting.

Selected data analysis methods

From the list: 2) thematic, 5) narrative and 6) comparative analysis methods were used to analyse the data corpus. In field study two, a comparative analysis method was used. This method is a thematic fit with the nature of the study, since it is concerned with identifying variances between different types of online professional communities. In field studies one and three, both thematic and narrative analysis methods, were used. I merged these two components and refer to this method of analysis as *thematic–narratives*. The reason for creating this type of analysis is to offer a multiple stakeholder perspectives of the phenomenon by shifting between a wide (thematic) and narrow (narrative) perspective. It has been suggested that mediating between the *descriptive* (wide perspective) and *focused* (narrow) observations (Angrosino and dePerez, 2000; DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002) can enrich findings.

Summary of data corpus

Observational findings from studies one and two were recorded in logs and journals. Logbooks provide an emic account of phenomena and were the main data source. In study three, findings were recorded and saved in digital audio and media files. The audio files represent the interviews, which were manually transcribed to a word processor (MS Word) then printed on A4 paper. The media files represent

the screencasting program (video capture) used to record the navigational behaviour of users/informants as they utilize different parts of a websites graphical user interface. In this setting the A4 transcription sheets and media (digital videos) are the main data source (see table 18).

Table 18 Summary of data corpus

Study	Logs/logbook	Journals	A4 transcriptions	Media/video
One	380 Pages	21 Pages	n/a	n/a
Two	26 Pages	07 Pages	n/a	n/a
Three	n/a	35 Pages	176 Pages	3hr 24mins*

NB: *Unedited video footage. Not all informants had fulfilled the allocated 15m timeslot.

4.3.3.1 Thematic–narrative analysis

Thematic–narratives encompass both thematic and narrative components to determine the denotative and connotative meanings of signs (see Section 3.2). Denotation conveys the literal meaning of signs whereas connotation conveys the social, cultural or personal associations (their secondary meanings).

While thematic analysis has proven its usefulness in reporting general patterns of interaction it does not necessarily offer experiential insight of specific instances: such as the types of decision and actions an informant may make or how signs are exchanged between parties at the personal level. Contrarily, these phenomena are found in the actions, characters, settings and plots of personal stories (Sandelowski, 1991), which is why the narrative method was chosen to delve deeper into a general theme.



Fig. 25 Thematic–narrative components

Two interdependent components

Thematic–narratives consist of two components, the: 1) thematic and 2) narrative. Riessman (1993) states that while thematic analysis highlights what is said about the text, structural analysis focuses on how the story is told. On reflection, thematic–narratives initially cast a wide–lens in which they provide a descriptive backdrop of the phenomenon and at this stage emergent themes are identified.

This is followed by a narrow–lens where there is a focus in expanding a prominent theme and at this latter stage decisions and actions are identified through personal narrative accounts. This second layer illuminates the *keyness* (thematic essence) of a theme. Interdependently both components convey the depth of analysis and synthesis of theory.

Component 1: thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is commonly viewed as a key foundation method in qualitative research because it opens choice points for further layers of analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Themes generally denote, *"... something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set."* (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.10). According to Braun and Clarke (2006) thematic analysis consists of six main stages, which I have adapted to the thesis (see Table 19). Searching for patterned responses involves coding and categorising data to convey the consistency of meanings. Thematizing meanings (Holloway and Todres, 2003) convey patterns of behaviour (Boyatzis, 1998), which can include *1)* manifest: observable, descriptive meanings, and 2) latent: underlying, hidden meanings, in the contents (Marks and Yardley, 2004).

In relation to the conceptual framework the former refers to connotative signs, while the latter refers to denotative signs (see Section 3.2). When coding, Boyatzis (1998) states that themes can be derived via deductive or inductive coding. While the former is theory–driven, where the codes are inferred by empirical data, in the latter themes emerge from the data. As recommended by Fereday and Cochrane (2006) this research has employed a combination of both to capture the richness and diversity of the datasets. In terms of the identification of themes there are no definitive frameworks that guide researchers as to what counts as a theme. Braun and Clarke (2006) stress that researchers should use personal judgment to interpret themes as they, *"reside in our heads from our thinking about our data and creating links as we understand them"* (Ely *et al*., 1997, p.206–6 in Braun and Clarke, 2006). However, both Braun and Clarke (2006) and Fereday and Cochrane (2006) propose that processes should be implemented to ensure the *quality* of the research, like establishing general rules, to assess the *keyness* of themes.

Table 19 Six stages of thematic analysis

Nos.	Stage*	Description
1.	Familiarize with dataset	Prepare dataset then read text multiple times. Then format text by segmenting text into Occurrences.
2.	Generate inductive codes	Contextualize keywords and groups in broader sentences. Interpret meaning of sentences to form contextual codes.
3.	Search for themes	Transfer contextual codes and categories to MS Word. Axial code and establish relationships between categories with Occurrences and dataset to search for themes. Consolidate categories by forming first–order and second order categories, where contextual codes from the first-order categories are inherited by second–order categories.
4.	Review themes	To ensure relevancy of emergent themes, check that they fit into an Occurrence and correspond to the dataset.
5.	Define and name themes	Define the emergent themes and provide descriptions about the theme.
6.	Report on themes	Report thematic findings substantiate themes with quotes.

NB: *Six thematic stages sourced from Braun and Clarke (2006) and adapted.

Component 2: narrative analysis

The narrative component offers a more structured and experiential type of analysis to examine a general theme. While Riesman (1993) had identified two other narrative models, the 1) interactional and 2) performative, the structured approach was favoured due to its ability to order and formalise personal experiences based on specific events (Bamberg, 2012). These conditions are aligned to the *syntagmatic relation* of signs, where their (of signs) meanings are interpreted sequentially from a dialectical chain (Mick, 1986) and can amplify the keyness of a general theme.

A narrative is defined as *"a kind of organisational scheme expressed in story form"* (Polkinghorne, 1988, p.3) where there is emphasis on understanding the major events (decisions, actions) that are embedded in personal stories (Labov, 1997). Narrative analysis uses narrative reasoning to collect events of a phenomenon, which are configured to form a plot to represent the personal stories of people (Labov, 1972; Polkinghorne, 1995). When a person describes a past event, this description is recorded as text in the data collection stages. Consequentially, in the analytical stages the units of text (keywords, groups, sentences etc.) that describe the event are purposively selected from the dataset and sequentially arranged as *Clauses* (Labov and Waletzky, 1967) to reflect the ordered past experiences of those events.

This sequential arrangement can be used to evaluate the function of such clauses (Litosseliti, 2010) which in the context of the thesis is the outcome of behavioural decisions when parties practise their craft in workplace settings. According to the Labovian (1972, 1995) structural model, the arrangement of a narrative, which are also referred to as a *narrative clause*, contains at least two independent clauses that are connected by a *temporal juncture*. This juncture signifies a change in the sequencing of clauses that results in a change of interpretation of that clause (Labov, 2007). Labov illustrates this temporal arrangement in the following instance (see Table 20).

Table 20 Labov narrative arrangement

Nos.*	Description
1.	I know a boy named Henry.
2.	Another boy threw a bottle at him in the head.
3.	And he had to get seven stitches.

NB: *Instance of temporal arrangement of narrative sourced from Labov and Waleztzky (1967).

In the above Labovian instance only clauses 2) and 3) is considered narrative clauses because they are sequentially ordered and include a temporal juncture that connects the two events. However, clause 3) does not; it is considered as a *free clause* because it can freely move between clauses 2) and 3) without changing the meaning of the narrative (Labov, 2007). Franzosi (1998) highlights that narrative clauses cannot liberally move like free clauses because it can change the meaning of the narrative. If for instance clause 3) proceeded before 2) it would alter the outcome of the narrative. In general Labov (1972, 1995) states that a complete narrative should encompass a start, beginning and end that embodies the six different types of clauses.

Generally, there are six main types of clauses employed in a narrative structure (see Table 21). The abstract refers to the initial clause and reflects the sequence of events. Orientation*, "...provides answers to the potential questions, who? when? where? what were they doing?"* (Labov, 2007, p.3), sets the scene and can be found in different locations of the narrative (Gwyn, 2001). Complicating action remains the most important clause of the six, as it represents actions, and therefore the essence of the narrative (Labov, 1995). It is a sequential clause *that "responds to a potential question, "what happened then?"* (Labov, 2007, p.2).

Table 21 Labov six clauses

Nos.	Clause*	Description
1.	Abstract	Reflects sequence of events.
2.	Orientation	Sets scene of narrative; time, context, informants involved.
3.	Complicating action	Represents main actions of narrative consisting of a series of events.
4.	Evaluation	Highlights relative importance of the narrative.
5.	Resolution	Illustrates outcome of events.
6.	Coda	Return back to the present of the event.

NB: *Six clauses of narrative structure sourced from Labov (2007).

Evaluation, *"provides a response to the potential question, "So what?"* Labov, 2007, p.4) and gives depth to the narrative because it is able to, *"reveal the attitude of the narrator towards the narrative by emphasising the relative importance of some narrative units compared to others"* (Labov and Waletzky, 1967, p.97). Due to this reflective perspective from the narrator, the evaluation clause can emerge from any location of the narrative (Briggs *et al*., 2012). Resolution provides an ending to the evaluation clause and therefore resolves the action (Riessman, 1993).

Table 22 Instance of Labov narrative from interview data

Abstract	Orientation	Complication action	Evaluation	Resolution	Coda
L02.BC *"uh (.) overseas I nearly died (.) uh (.)"*	L04 *"…before the war uh I was in India before the war"* L05 *"I got um(.) apart from malaria and things like that"*	L07. *"I got um (.) heat stroke uh first I got sand fly fever"* *L08. "and doped myself and carried on (.)*	L. 16. *"this is what I was told I wasn't (.) compos mentis [laughs]"*	L09. *"In the end I collapsed with a temperature of"* L10. *"a hundred an seven point five (.)"*	L31. *"(.) so that's my first real illness "*

NB: Based from interview data sourced from Gwyn (2001), p. 146–147.

Finally, the coda *is "a functional device for returning the verbal perspective to the present moment"* (Labov and Walktzsky, 1967, p.100). While it completes the ending of the narrative, it is not mandatory to understand the essence of the narrative as this is often communicated in the resolution clause (Labov and Walktzsky, 1967). Based on an interview of an elder man, named Ben Coates (BC), whom had an health ailment, Gwyn (2001) illustrates how the dataset from the interview can be used to structure the six clauses of a narrative (see Table 22).

Thematic–narrative process overview

A general overview of the thematic–narrative process is shown in Table 23. It includes facets of deductive and inductive reasoning. While I have borrowed both, thematic and narrative procedures, these methods have been modified. I first outline the former followed by the latter.

Table 23 Overview of thematic–narrative process

	Nos.	Description of stage	Data reduction units	Reasoning
Thematic component	**1.**	Familiarize with dataset	Occurrences	n/a
	2.	Highlight *a priori* codes	keywords, groups	Deductive
	3.	Generate inductive codes	Contextual sentences, contextual codes	Inductive
	4.	Sort and filter codes	Categories	
	5.	Search for themes		
	6.	Review themes		
	7.	Define and name themes		
	8.	Report on themes		
Narrative component	**9.**	Focus on a theme		
	10.	Locate theme and informant from text		
	11.	Structure narrative using clauses		
	12.	Discuss narrative		

NB: Nos. 2, 4 shaded parts illustrate the two annexed thematic stages.

Stages 1–8: thematic analysis procedure

In addition to Braun and Clarke's (2006) six thematic stages I annex a further two: 1) I use *a priori codes* to deduce meaning (see Fig. 23, nos. 2) and 2) increase the use of categories (see Fig. 23, nos. 4) to strengthen internal and construct validity. First, when pawing (scanning) through the text, *a priori* keywords and groups will be deduced with reference from the keyword codebook (see Appendix 1–1.2). Secondly, I use a more intricate procedure to *sort and filter codes*, where I employ a combination of post–it notes, matrix tables and thematic maps to arrange contextual codes into general and sub–categories. The role of categories play a pivotal role in the formation of these categories.

The systematic manner by which these categories are used and ordered are similar to those used in *Grounded Theory* (GT), where construction of theory is induced from the data source (Glaser and Strauss, 2009), though critically that is where the similarity departs. Furthermore, the thematic analysis component

includes aspects of *open* and *axial coding* (see Table 24). Whereas open coding is the procedure of data reduction, where codes emerge from the dataset and are clustered and categorised; axial coding is the procedure of connecting the categories to the context of the situation to highlight behavioural patterns (Straus and Corbin, 1990).

Reduction of thematic data

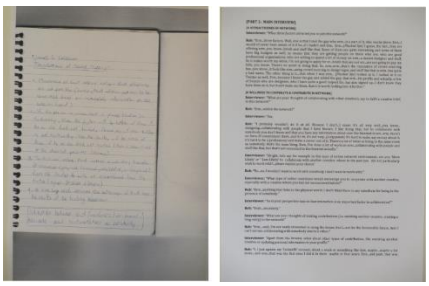
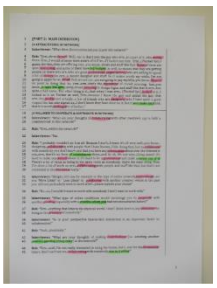
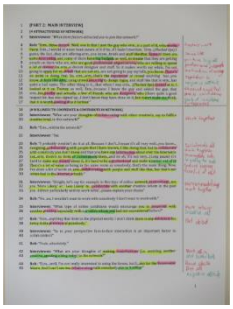
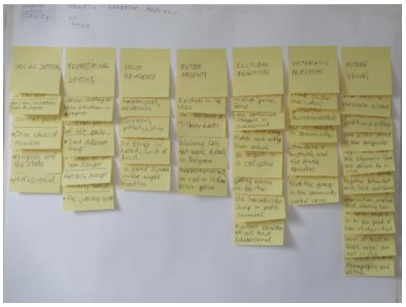
When pawing through textual data Braun and Clarke (2006) propose that flexible rules should be established to identify emergent codes. Following this axiom, I have defined data reduction units (see Tables 24) to support the consolidation of thematic data.

Table 24 Procedure to reduce thematic data

Nos.	Data reduction units	Description of stage	Coding type	Next action
1.	Occurrences	Paragraphs that represent an effort to log an observation.	Open	Segment dataset into Occurrences
2.	Keywords, groups	Manifested as *a priori* keywords or a group of text.		Highlight *a priori* keyword, group
3a.	Contextual sentences	Keywords and groups are contextualized.		Induce meaning from context
3b.	Contextual codes	Meanings induced from contextual sentences.		Sorter and filter contextual codes.
4.	General categories	Sort and filter contextual codes.		Order categories
5	First–order and second order cats.	Establish relationships between categories, occurrences and dataset.	Axial	End

Reduction of thematic data is conducted in five stages (see Table 24–25). The first stage involves segmenting the dataset into *Occurrences*: paragraphs that represent a vested effort to log a general or focused thick descriptions of an event or action. These Occurrences are then logged in a keyword codebook in which they were further collapsed and codified. The second stage involves deductive reasoning. In this part *a priori* codes (inferred from thematic categories and groups) from the keyword codebook are anchored and highlighted in the dataset using coloured pens. Referential units (Krippendorff, 1980), keywords of similar likeness are also enlisted: since it is highly unlikely that a person will use specific trust keywords from the literature review, such as '*interpersonal*' or '*institutional*'.

Table 25 Instruments used to reduce thematic data

Stage 1a.	Stage 1b.	Stage 2.
		
Stage 3.	**Stage 4.**	**Stage 5.**
		

Nos.	Descriptions of stage
1a.	**Familiarize dataset**: photocopy observational logs or transcribe interviews. Become familiar with dialectics by reading and mapping text.
1b.	**Format dataset:** divide dataset into Occurrences. Paragraphs that represent vested, thick descriptions of an event. Add line nos. and margins to pages.
2.	**Highlight a priori codes:** deduce codes from text. Highlight a priori keywords and groups from keyword codebook (see Appendix 1–1.2).
3.	**Generate inductive codes:** contextualise keywords and groups in broader sentences. Interpret meaning of sentences to form contextual codes.
4.	**Sort and Filter Codes:** use post –it notes, matrix tables and thematic maps to sort and filter contextual codes.
5.	**Search for themes:** transfer codes and categories to matrix tables on MS Word. Axial code and establish relationships between categories with Occurrences and dataset.

The third stage and subsequent stages involve inductive reasoning. In this stage keywords and groups, which were highlighted in the previous stage, are contextualised in broader sentences to define their usage, relative to the Occurrences by which they are bound by. The meanings of broader sentences are then decoded using the interpretive approach that result in the creation of contextual codes. The fourth stage involves sorting and filtering contextual codes. A combination of techniques (post–it notes, matrix tables and thematic maps) are employed to assist the arrangement of contextual codes into general and sub categories. This procedure involves: 1) clustering, 2) collapsing and 3) eliminating

contextual codes based on their *contextual similarity* and *keyness* (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

First, clustering involves dividing and grouping contextual codes. Secondly, collapsing involves converging and consolidating the contextual codes to further reduce the volume of codes. Thirdly, when re–reading the dataset it is highly probable that some contextual codes may not fit within an Occurrence (are false) and may have to be eliminated or re–interpreted. The fifth stage involves searching for themes. Whereas the prior four stages revolves around open coding, this stage is concerned with axial coding. The procedure involves transferring the contextual codes and categories to MS word from which relationships between categories, Occurrences and the dataset are mapped. Once these relationships are identified then categories go through a further reduction process, where they collapse into first–order and second–order categories.

In this setting, contextual codes from the first–order category are inherited and became part of the second–order category. Category relationships were established based on the similarity of conditions and the context of the settings (Straus and Corbin, 1990). Using these conditions can confirm *causal relationships*, asserted by words like *because*, *result* etc. in the text or *conditional relationship*, asserted by words like *if*, *then* etc. in the text. While the researcher is not performing content analysis (CA) per se, the frequency of keywords and groups, which is a technique used in CA, can strengthen the internal validity of the contextual codes within the categories. However, as Braun and Clarke (2006) state, in thematic analysis this must be evaluated by how they are contextualised and therefore used in sentences.

Stages 9–12: narrative analysis procedure

Narratives expand on a general theme insofar as to provide a personal instance of that theme. These general themes convey a patterned response of a repeated behavioural trait. In semiotics this phenomena within a narrative is called an *isotopy* (Greimas, 1966). Within an Occurrence paragraphs and extracts, that emphasise the keyness of a theme, will be purposively selected and sequentially arranged to form a structured narrative (Riessman, 1993). This is achieved by referring back to line numbers from the dataset and the coded identification of field objects. The narrative structure was adapted to highlight decisions and actions of trust that are encapsulated within a story. Relative to the Labovian

narrative structure clauses 3–6 were modified to enable a more relevant assessment of trust and workflow (see Table 26).

Table 26 Modified clauses of Labov narrative structure

Nos.	Clause	Description
1.	Abstract	Reflects sequence of events.
2.	Orientation	Sets scene of narrative; time, context, informants involved.
3.	Dilemma	Represents main actions of narrative consisting of a series of events to resolve a dilemma.
4.	Options	Highlights types of decisions an informant can make to resolve dilemma.
5.	Selection	Illustrates the decision an informant has made to resolve dilemma.
6.	Assessment	Return back to the present of the event and assesses dilemma outcome.

NB: Nos. 3–6 shaded parts illustrate modified clauses.

4.3.3.2 Comparative analysis

Comparative analysis is a broad analytical approach that is used to compare and contrast two social phenomena (Mills *et al*., 2006). While it is frequently used in sociology and political science at the macro–level to compare cross–national distinctions, particularly between different countries (Skocpol, 1979), it has also been used at the micro–level to compare social groups (Whitehead *et al*., 2000). It has been purported that comparative analysis should be used as a means, *"...to separate patterns that are more general and isolate regularities from the context laden environment."* (Mills *et al*., p.621). This is accomplished by identifying variances between social phenomena (Mills *et al*., 2006). The variance aspect is considered critical because through this discrepancy we can have a *"better understanding of the causal processes involved in the production of an event, feature or relationship."* (Pickvance, 2005, p.2).

Identifying variances of 'similarity' and 'difference'

Variances can involve searching for either *similarities* or *differences* of a phenomenon (Vijver and Leung, 1997; Pickvance, 2005; Mills *et al*., 2006). Whereas the former attempts to draw universal similarities (generalisations) the latter attempts to explain differences between phenomena. The flexibility of the comparative approach made this method an appropriate choice for field study two, where different types of online advertising communities could be compared. Thus

drawing similarities and differences from these communities can highlight unique properties that distinguish one community from the other.

4.3.3.3 Units of measurement

Unit of measurement is the collective term to describe unitary values employed in data collection and analysis. Three broad units of measurement have been identified in the thesis: 1) units of observation, 2) units of analysis and 3) coding units. Firstly, units of observation refer to the specific field objects that are being observed in studies (Berg and Lune, 2004).

Table 27 Units of observation

Unit of observation	Description
Molar	Involves observing large units of activity as a whole.
Molecular	Involves observing small and highly specific behaviours.

According to Polit and Hunger (1987) *units of observation* can be grouped into two general categories (see Table 27). Relative to the thesis, both molar and molecular observations have been used whereas the latter reflects parts of a phenomenon, the latter conveys the whole. Mediating between the two units can add depth to the synthesis of theory and enrich insights (Adler and Adler, 1994). Secondly, *units of analysis* refer to the field object that is being analysed (not observed) in the thesis. According to Trochim (2006) it is concerned with *who* or *what*: essentially, this can be an individual, group or institution. In Table 28, I outline both units of observation and units of analysis relative to their field studies.

Table 28 Units of observation and analysis in three studies

	Units of Observation		Units of Analysis
Nos.	**Source**	**Units**	**Units**
1.	Logs/ logbook	Molar	Institution (community)
		Molecular	Individuals, dyads, group
2.	Logs/ logbook	Molar	Institution (community)
		Molecular	Individuals
3.	Transcripts / videos	Molar	Institution (community)
		Molecular	Individuals

Thirdly, a *coding unit* (Baxter, 1991) refers to a unit of text (Krippendorff, 1980). These are relied upon during the data analysis stages of research (Findahl and

Hoijer, 1981). The units of text employed to analyse the data corpus is shown in Table 29.

Table 29 Analytical coding units

Nos.	Unit	Description
1.	Keyword	One or two words that is less than a group.
2.	Group	An expression/phrase that consists of a group of words and that is greater than a keyword but less than a sentence.
3.	Sentence	A sentence consists of a string of words and that is equal or greater than a group but less than a paragraph.
4	Paragraph	A paragraph consists of a string of sentences and that is equal or greater than a sentence but less than a page.

4.4 Field studies

Here I outline the three field studies that constitute the empirical findings of the thesis. An overview of the three studies is shown in Table 30 in which I refer back to the research methods used in the respective studies. Each of the studies offers a distinct socio–economic perspective of the phenomenon where there is either a focus on the *agents* or *structures* that moderate trust and workflow. The first study is conducted in the offline domain where there is a focus on the actions and interactions of a select group of people whom work in an ad–agency.

Table 30 Methodological overview of three studies

	Field study one	Field study two	Field study three
Setting	Offline ad–agency	Online community	Online community
Focus	Agents (people)	Structures (institution)	Agents (people)
Approach	Qualitative	Qualitative/Quantitative*	Qualitative
Team/group	Constructed	Spontaneous	Spontaneous
Collection method	Participant observation	Naturalistic observation	Participant observation/ conversational interview
Role of researcher	Observer as participant	Participant as observer	Observer as participant/ Learner–leader
Analysis method	Thematic–narratives	Comparative analysis	Thematic–narratives
Practical insights	Practice of trust and workflow in offline domain	Structures of trust and workflow in online domain	Practice of trust and workflow in online domain

NB: *Quantification includes basic tallying and cross tabulation.

The second study is conducted in the online domain, where there is a focus on the structures of online professional communities. This study bridges Study one

(offline domain) with Study two (online domain). The third study is also conducted in the online domain where there is a focus on the actions of a select group of creatives who use online advertising communities.

4.4.1 Plan of field study one

In field study one, I used a participant observational method to collect data and a thematic–narrative method to analyse the dataset. In this setting, I was immersed in an offline ad–agency setting where I paid particular attention to the creative workflow process in constructed teams. The study was informant–led and was directed by the following research question:

"What properties of trust are aligned to the creative workflow process of agents in an offline ad–agency community?"

The purpose of the study was to investigate how trust was practised and therefore operationalized in an offline ad–agency. The purpose was to elicit the type of properties from practitioners that defines trust in professional workplace settings in the offline domain. Identifying these properties could support the correlation assessment of trust and workflow, essentially how practices of trust are aligned or misaligned with workflow. The study was conducted on February, 2013, during which I had spent two continuous weeks (10 working days, excluding weekends) in an ad–agency (coded as AGE01) where I job shadowed three informants (see Fig. 26).



Fig. 26 Plan of field study one

NB: AGE refers to ad–agency, INF to informant, M to male (see Appendix 1.3).

Data collection procedure

Data collection encompassed four steps: 1) select ad–agency, 2) prepare to enter field, 3) enter field and 4) exit field. First, a snowball sample was used to acquire a list of relevant ad–agencies based on the institution selection criteria (see Appendix 2)**.** The History of Advertising Trust (HAT) institution was initially referred to from which a handful of secondary contacts were acquired. These

contacts further snowballed into a tertiary list of contacts. From the tertiary list, ad–agencies were shortlisted and contacted directly either via e–mail or telephone to enquire about their willingness to participate in the study. Secondly, preparation to enter the field encompassed contacting the ad–agency directly to negotiate the role and remit and terms and conditions of the study (see Appendix 3). Topics on discussion included: 1) purpose and duration of the study, 2) how data will be used, 3) the role, remit and boundaries of the observer and 4) data confidentiality. Consensual agreement forms were presented to the ad–agency management (for approval) and from those informants who were willing to be job shadowed (see Appendix 4). Thirdly, when entering the field three key stakeholders were job shadowed.

While the Creative and IT informants were shadowed within the institution, the Accounts Executive was shadowed partially outside the institution as an outcome of the remit of that particular role. Subsequently, observations were recorded in accordance to the observational protocols (See page 165). The incumbent data were a combination of observational logs and reflective field notes which were mostly recorded introspectively after the Occurrence had happened in short–hand and then expanded upon when time was available. During confidential events, such as meetings and when engaged with external clients, logs and notes were not taken during the setting but were reflected upon and recorded at a later point. Fourthly, when exiting the field a short report that summarised the observational logs was submitted to the institution.

Field study schedule and timing

The study schedule illustrates the data collection dates and when the three informants were job shadowed (see Table 31). Object codes are related to the study plan (see Fig. 26). Of the ten active days, approximately 7.5 hours of observations were conducted each day. When possible, observational logs were recorded at 30 minute intervals. This general rule was also applied when job shadowing the three informants. In circumstances were a Critical Occurrence (highly significant) was witnessed, logs were either recorded in situ (if it was permitted) or within 10 minute from the emergence of the Occurrence. In all three settings between 5–10 minutes was allocated to record logs. Moreover, a final *running log* was written at the end of the working day in the log book, while a personal reflective account was also recorded in a separate reflective journal.

Table 31 Data collection schedule for study one

Timeline		Object code	Description
Start	Finish		
12.02.13	13.02.13	INF01_M	Job shadowing the Creative informant.
17.02.13	18.02.13	INF02_M	Job shadowing the IT Analyst informant.
19.02.13	20.02.13	INF02_M	Job shadowing the Accounts informant.

Ethical Considerations

Before conducting the study in the ad–agency consensual agreements from all stakeholders were approved from management of the institution and from the three informants who were job shadowed. Moreover, anonymity of the institution, its employees, its clients and project details, such as ad–campaigns, budgets, strategies, creative briefs and concepts were not be revealed in the thesis. During the analytical coding process the names of informants, work and project details were either replaced with assigned codes or pseudonyms. Sensitive commercial and financial details were omitted altogether.

4.4.2 Plan of field study two

In field study two, I used a naturalistic observational method to collect qualitative and quantitative data and a comparative analysis method to analyse the dataset. I reviewed two categories of online professional communities, where I mapped user behaviour in spontaneous teams and identified structural properties that moderate trust and workflow. This was followed by a dissemination of the creative workflow process of online advertising communities. The study was evaluated from a researcher's perspective and was directed by the following research question:

"What structural properties moderate trust and working conditions in online advertising communities?"

The purpose of the study was to highlight structural *differences* and *similarities* found in online professional communities. Defining these *variances* could support the structural distinctions of trust and workflow in the offline and online domains. Two categories of communities of practice were targeted and observed. Category A represents professional communities that are not directly related to the advertising industry. Category B represents professional communities that are related to the advertising industry. Each of these two categories contain four communities respectively. In total eight online

communities were examined. The study is partitioned into two parts. The first part of the study comparatively reviews Category A communities with those in Category B. The purpose is to identify trust–warranting properties that are distinct in online advertising communities. The second part focuses on Category B communities (advertising). The creative workflow process in these communities were broken down and compared with others in the category. I then mapped user behaviour, where I followed users from two distinct communities (COM06, COM07) in Category B insofar as to attain an understanding of their working practices.

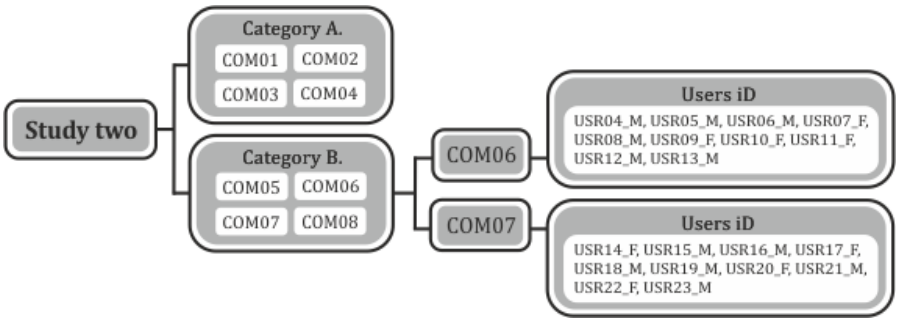


Fig. 27 Plan of field study two

NB: COM refers community, USR to user (see Appendix 1.3.1).

Data collection procedure

Data collection encompassed four steps: 1) select online communities, 2) prepare to enter field, 3) enter field and 4) exit field. First, a purposive sample was used to acquire a list of online professional communities based on the institution selection criteria (see Appendix 2.1). Two categories of online professional communities were selected: those that are not directly related to advertising and those that are directly related to advertising. For the latter community type online searches were conducted. Potential communities were verified with advertising publications, such as Adweek and Advertising Age, which were then cross referenced with Alexa (Alexa.com), where the website community's ranking were identified and their credentials confirmed.

The two categories of communities were then shortlisted to eight. Secondly, preparations were made to enter the field. This involved creating temporary website accounts that enabled access to the internal graphical user interface and dashboards of the communities. Thirdly, when entering the field, observations were logged where there was a focus on Category B communities. In both

community categories observational logs and field notes were recorded in real time. From each of the respective categories, 100 user profiles were collected, tallied and assessed. In Category B, a further 20 users were followed closely from two different communities: users were equally divided into lead and new user groups to identify behavioural nuances. In short, the dataset consisted of a combination of qualitative and quantitative data. The term *quantitative* is used loosely to denote tallying and cross tabulation of data variables. Fourthly, exiting the field entailed closing the user accounts associated with those communities.

Field study schedule

The study schedule details the data collection dates (see Table 32). It shows when the websites and its internal users were observed and logged. Object codes are related to the study plan (see Fig. 27). Data was collected during six periods. The first period (2012) was a pilot study that was not formally part of the main research. However, as the direction of the thesis became more focused this preliminary study was revisited and extended (2014), at which point it formally became part of the thesis.

Table 32 Data collection schedule for study two

Timeline		Object code	Description
Start	Finish		
10.03.12	13.03.12	COM01–COM04	Log profile descriptions of Category A communities.
14.03.12	16.03.12	COM05–COM08	Log profile descriptions and break down workflow process of Category B communities.
20.03.12	21.03.12	COM01–COM08	Log structural and trust–warranting properties from Category A then B.
15.03.14	20.03.14	COM01–COM08	Update observational logs (of website and users) from Category A then B.
17.03.14	25.03.14	COM01–COM08	Log 100 user profiles respectively from Category A then B.
27.03.14	31.03.14	USR03_M–USR22_M	Follow 20 users in Category B and log behavioral workflow patterns.

Ethical Considerations

The conducted study was naturalistic from its outset meaning there was no human intervention nor did it breach individual privacy. Therefore consensual agreements were not required. The identity of users in Category B were anonymised and substituted with assigned codes.

4.4.3 Plan of field study three

In field study three, I used a mix of participant observation and interview methods to collect data and a thematic–narrative method to analyse the dataset. This field study was an extension of the prior study in which it delved deeper into the working behaviours of creative practitioners who worked individually and through spontaneous teams. It was composed of two parts: 1) a cognitive walkthrough (Part A) that is 2) complimented by an interview (Part B). The study was informant–led and was directed by the following research question:

"What properties of trust are aligned to the creative workflow process of agents in online advertising communities?

From the stakeholder perspective of informants who utilize such communities to fulfil creative briefs, the purpose of the study was to investigate how trust is practised and operationalized from two distinct online advertising communities. The objective is to elicit the type of properties that define trust in virtual workplace settings in the online domain. Defining these properties can facilitate the final correlation assessment of trust and workflow in the conclusive chapter, from which it essentially highlights how practices in trust are aligned or misaligned with workflow.

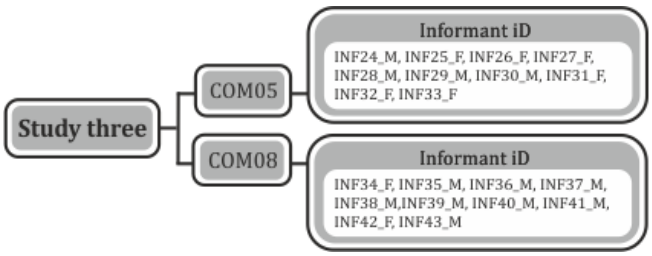


Fig. 28 Plan of field study three

The study was conducted during two periods: 1) between February–March, 2012 and 2) January–February, 2014. The first period marked the pilot testing and refinement stage. Approximately 90 minutes was slotted to conduct the study. In the study, two online advertising communities were selected from Category B (COM5, COM08). From each community, ten informants were selected respectively (see Fig. 28). The interview part of the study was conducted via Internet telephony (Skype) and was recorded using a digital voice recorder and a computer–based screencasting application called Camstudio. Part A of the study (cognitive walkthrough) mapped how informants navigated around the graphical user

interface of the community as they practised their crafts: website and subsequent webpages were studied. Part B of the study (conversational interview) recorded dialectical data. Its purpose was to attain experiences, perceptions and attitudes of virtual workspaces.

Data collection procedure

Data collection encompassed four steps: 1) select online advertising communities, 2) prepare cognitive walkthrough and interview, 3) perform cognitive walkthrough and interview and 4) exit study. First, two online advertising communities were purposively selected from Category B (see page 202) based on the institution selection criteria (see Appendix 2.2). Interview questions were then constructed, questions and probes were inferred from the prior two studies. I delved into the iterative development of these questions in the following section. Secondly, ten informants were selected from two online advertising communities respectively.

Of the ten, five represented *lead* informants whereas the other five were *new* informants. The criterion used to select lead and new informants was the same used in study two (see Table 59). Informant details were initially attained from within the communities. However, they were contacted outside the community via e–mail, Skype or telephone. In total, three e–mails were submitted to prospective informants (see Appendix 3.1–3.3). The initial email was in the form of an open call to participate. Included in this call was basic information about the study (rationale, time, setting) and the monetary incentive of EU$20.00, US$25.00 or UK£15.00 upon completion of the study.

If the potential informant agreed to participate then a follow up e–mail, which detailed relevant times (date and time) was submitted to them. Attached in this e–mail was an information sheet (see Appendix 5) detailing the study and the consent form (see Appendix 4.1) which the informant had to complete and return alongside the confirmed date and time. The day before the study a final reminder was sent to the informant. Thirdly, on the date of the study, audio recording and screencasting applications were setup. Informants were then contacted via Skype. The study started with the cognitive walkthrough (Part A) which was followed by the main interview (Part B). Approximately 15 minutes was slotted for Part A. In the cognitive walkthrough the informant was given three scenario–orientated tasks (see Table 33).

These tasks required the informant to navigate around different parts of the websites graphical user interface. When informants performed these tasks and navigated around the website they would verbally describe step–by–step their walkthroughs, which were triggered by their mouse movements. I was particularly interested in attaining navigational patterns, in terms of what they (informant) had scrolled, clicked or typed onscreen. As I did not have remote access to the informant's computer terminal I had to repeat and mimic these movements, which were subsequently recorded through a computer screencasting program and analysed at a later date via the recorded video files.

Table 33 Scenario–orientated tasks

Nos.	Scenario	Task (action)
1.	When you enter the community what parts of the website do you typically use first?	Please navigate to parts of the websites that you would typical use first.
2.	How do you fulfil creative briefs in the community?	Show me how you would assess creative brief. Please navigate to these parts.
3.	How do you establish or foster relationships in the community?	Please show me how you would assess other creative in the community.

Approximately 75 minutes was slotted for Part B. The interview format was minimally structured and resembled more like a conversation (see Section 4.3.2.2). Its purpose was to probe the informant's experiential insights of the community, in terms of how they utilise the community to fulfil creative briefs and practice their craft. This would shed light into perceptions and attitudes of trust, relative to the workflow process. Fourthly, at the end of the study learned actions were summarised and reiterated back to the informant and if necessary errors were corrected. Upon completion of study all monetary payments were then transferred to the informant and as agreed an e–mail was submitted back to myself to acknowledge reception of payment.

Construction of interview questions and probes

Spradley (1980) states that questions come in three general forms: 1) descriptive, 2) structural and 3) contrast. Descriptive questions describe events, structural questions assess how interviewees organise information while contrast questions highlights how interviewee's compare the situational context to similar settings. I used a combination of these three to offer: 1) descriptive experiential insights, in terms of how informants utilise online advertising communities, 2) structural insights, in terms of how informants organise work related information through

the communities website, 3) contrast insights, in terms of how working processes and practices differ from the offline context.

Table 34 Overview of questions and probes

Nos.	Thematic categories	General questions	Focused probes
1.	Motivations and utility	What motivated you to join and use this community?	Reasons of joining community?
			Usefulness of community?
			Use any other similar web–based advertising community?
2.	Trusting experiences	Have you experienced any problems or issues with the community?	Issues with community?
			Work with others in community?
			Issues with website proprietors?
			Verifying user identity?
			Authenticity of materials or portfolio?
3.	Workflow practices and processes	Can you describe how you would typically complete a creative brief?	Employ similar creative workflow process offline?
			Online or offline cooperation with another member?
4.	Willingness to cooperate and contribute	Have you cooperated on a creative brief or made a contribution to the community?	Willingness to cooperate on a brief?
			Willingness to contribute to community?
5.	Perceived expectations and desirability's	What are your thoughts of using these communities to review and complete briefs?	Changing perceptions and attitudes about community?
			Resolutions and changes to community?
			Additional information?

NB: General questions inferred by thematic findings from studies one and three (see Appendix 6–6.2).

The interview questions went through an iterative development process (see Appendix 6–6.2). Construction of questions was inferred from thematic findings (enumerated sub–themes) from studies one and two and initially was rather fluid. These questions were not categorised. However, as the number of completed studies increased, the interview format started to develop and questions became more focused. Subsequently, questions were classed into broad thematic categories. As the number of studies exceeded the halfway point questions and categories became more refined, in such a way that similar questions collapsed and merged with each other, where there was a focus on using probes to offer *molecular* insight (see Table 34).

Field study schedule

The study schedule outlines the data collection dates (see Table 35). It shows when the informants were interviewed relative to their communities (COM05, COM08). Object codes are related to the study plan (see Fig. 28). Data was collected during two periods. The first period (2012) marked the pilot study. During this time the study was not formally part of the main research. However, as studies one and two began to take shape and direct the discourse of the thesis, the incumbent study was revisited and refined in 2014.

Table 35 Data collection schedule for study three

Timeline		Object code	Description
Start	Finish		
05.02.12	24.03.12	INF24_M, INF25_F, INF26_F, INF34_F, INF35_M, INF36_M	Three lead informants assessed from COM05 and COM08 respectively.
07.02.14	22.02.14	INF29_M, INF30_M, INF31_F, INF39_M, INF40_M, INF41_M	Three new informants assessed from COM05 and COM08 respectively.
02.03.14	14.04.14	INF27_F, INF28_M, INF32_F, INF33_F	Two lead informants and two new informants assessed from COM05.
28.04.14	15.05.14	INF37_M, INF38_M, INF42_F, INF43_M	Two lead informants and two new informants assessed from COM08.

Ethical considerations

Before commencement of the study consensual agreement from creative users in the community was approved. The informants were aware of the nature and purpose of the study and that the study was being recorded (audio and visual). I did not access the informant's personal dashboard community pages at any point of the study or request/exchange personal passwords that would compromise ethical standards or their privacy. In each of the two online advertising communities informant *usernames* alongside other *sensitive activity information* (project, brief details) were kept anonymous and were replaced with assigned codes or pseudonyms**.**

4.5 Limitations of methodology

The words anti–positivist is sometimes used to describe the interpretive paradigm. While the incumbent research does not negate the positivist paradigm there are three prominent trade–offs when employing the philosophical and ontological assumptions that are associated with interpretivism.

Produces 'limited generalizability'

First, it does not offer broad generalizability. This is in direct conflict with the philosophical assumptions of the interpretive tradition. Research of this type is not concerned about breadth of scale but rather depth of analysis and synthesis, exploring emergent phenomena from different theoretical and stakeholder perspectives. Instead the methods employed produce insights that reflect how trust and workflow is practised in small constructed and spontaneous teams in the real world. Under these small–scale interpretive conditions findings are equally valid and reliable and therefore can produce *'limited generalizablility'* in their contextual settings.

Conducted 'in the wild' with no control measures

Secondly, unlike the controlled laboratory conditions practised in the positivist paradigm, where instruments are often tested and re-tested to ensure reliability, the methods employed in interpretivism do not share the same advantages. In this setting, research is not confined to experimental labs, but is taken out *'into the wild'* in–situ where the researcher is engaged with practitioners in their natural setting. In essence, the field research approach offers organic lines of dialogic inquiry to explore phenomena which are absent in controlled lab conditions.

Researcher as research instrument

Thirdly, in these chaotic but natural environments the researcher becomes immersed in the phenomenon as it emerges and as such is more dependent on their experiences and neutrality (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983; 1994). As the principal research instrument data interpretation is influenced by the researcher's personality, beliefs and therefore bias (Schwartz and Schwartz, 1955), which can affect the reliability, particularly the internal consistency of the data (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2010). To reduce this issue it is often recommended that multimethods are used to triangulate the consistency of findings. Although it does not remove the reliability issue, which is inherent in qualitative research, it offers some reassurance that it is more reliable than when only one method is used.

4.6 Summary

This chapter presented the research methodology and has been divided into six sections. Section two discussed the philosophical assumptions that shape and drives the research activities. It deviates from the interpretive tradition in that it

adopts a socio–economic ontological perspective and a semiotic mode of analysis. Section three discussed the research design. Included within the design are the quality guidelines, data collection methods, instruments, data analysis methods and units of measurement. Within this section I proceduralised in detail the novel thematic–narrative analytical method used to identify and map pragmatic signs. Section four discussed each of the three field studies sequentially. It outlined the study plan, procedure, schedule and ethical implications respectively. Section five discussed the limitations of the interpretive approach. The following chapter will present the findings from field study one, where there is an emphasis on the agents that facilitate trust and workflow in a community of practice that is found in an offline brick–and–mortar ad–agency.

Chapter 5

Findings of study one

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of field study one and fulfils the second research objective. It is directed by the following research question, *"What trust–warranting properties are aligned to the workflow process of agents in an offline ad–agency community?"* In this study there is a focus on the agents that moderate trust in physical workplace settings. The methods and procedures used in the study were discussed in the methodology chapter. This chapter is divided into seven sections. Section two discusses the contextual setting and protocols. Section three reviews the thematic development of the dataset. Emergent themes were reviewed, defined and reported using a semiotic mode of analysis. Section four presents the situational map. It is the strategic bridge that connects the thematic and narrative components. Section five presents the micro–narratives: two narrative accounts will be reviewed to assess how trust is practised in constructed workplace settings. Section six offers a reflective account of the study. The sixth section presents the chapter summary.

5.2 Contextual setting

A participant observation was conducted in an offline brick–and–mortar ad–agency, where I had spent two weeks (working days, excluding weekends), from 10th to 21st, February, 2013, to observe and log the activities of advertising practitioners in the workplace. Consensual agreement was granted to job–shadow three informants, with some limited access given to interact with but not shadow management (see Table 36). While only two days was formally planned to job–shadow each of the three informants, some were followed more frequently than others. For instance the accounts executive (INF02) was followed more than the other two because he was designated the duty (by management) to guide the researcher around the community of practitioners within the institution. Moreover, there was a focus on INF01 and INF03 were possible because of the relevance of their designated job roles in investigating the research question.

Table 36 Study one: job–shadowed informants

Role	Remit	Code
Creative	Creative role. Creates and delivers of creative concepts.	INF01_M
IT analyst	Analytical role. Analyses advertising and marketing data.	INF02_M
Account executive	Client role. Represents agency and meets with clients.	INF03_M

Role and protocols

While job–shadowing informants the role of *observer as participant* (Gold, 1958; Junker, 1960) was adopted. Within this role I participated in activities but did not actively become a member of the community nor participated in the workflow process. This aspect is pivotal as creating a buffer between researcher and field objects can reduce the observer–expectancy effect (Rosenthal, 1964). In the field I adhered to a general set of observational protocols. Inferred by the conceptual framework it guides what to observe and log (see Table 37). This study involves observing the activities of the institution as a whole (molar) while also shifting attention to observe specific behaviours from the job–shadowed informants (molecular). Shifting between general and focused observations when logging descriptions can enrich the thickness of descriptions (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002). While job–shadowing informants I periodically prompted and probed the informants to explain a phenomenon, particularly when encountering unfamiliar events, actions, processes or words.

Background of field objects

Two main field objects are used in the study: 1) the institution and 2) the three informants who were job–shadowed. The ad–Agency (AGE01) was observed in February, 2013. Located in the East–Midlands the ad–agency specialises in the creation of digital interactive advertisements. These advertisements are distributed through online web–based platforms, where there is a focus on delivering content to mobile telephony channels. At the time of participation the ad–agency was working on two significant project briefs. One of these projects was to create a digital advertisement campaign to pre–launch a console game that was developed by an established American video game publisher. The institution has between 15–30 employees, not including external freelancers. According to the European Commission for Enterprise and Industry (2003) this is considered to be a small sized company.

Table 37 Study one: observational protocols

Thematic categories		What to observe	What to log
Mediated exchange (+)	**Relationship state**	Social interaction	General description of social exchanges (either verbal or physical) between informants in ad–agency.
		Verbal and physical behavior	Focus on verbal signs: verbal nuances, casual conversations and social signs: such as body language, gestures.
	Analytical perspective	Situational context	General description of interior or exterior setting, work space, recreational space, design and aesthetics, of situational context.
		Relational context	Focus on the relationship between the informant and the situational context.
	Temporal transference	Influential informants	General description of managements influence and informants whom the researcher is job–shadowing.
		Workflow activity	Focus on how activities and tasks are performed when job–shadowing informants.

INF01_M has been working in the ad–agency sector for approximately 10 years, three of which was spent at the incumbent institution. Male and 36 years of age, he was an art director in several London–based ad–agencies. Specialising in digital graphic design and animation he is responsible for the creative direction of client–based briefs. This includes organising and leading the creative team. INF02_M has been working in the incumbent institution for the last 2 years. Male and 25 years of age the ad–agency has been his first employment since graduating from University.

The informant is part of the analytics and insights team. His role as digital marketing analyst involves performing ROI (return on investment) analysis to evaluate the effectiveness of a client's digital advertising campaign. INF03_M has been working in the ad–agency sector for approximately 8 years, the last four of which was spent at the incumbent institution. Male and 32 years of age he spent two to three years working in a similar role in several London–based digital ad–agencies. As a frontline representative of the institution he is the smartest dressed of the three informants (suited) and is responsible for coordinating and liaising relationships between the client, the creative team and ad–agency directors.

5.3 Thematic development

As discussed in the methodology chapter themes were allowed to naturally emerge from the dataset. The dataset was segmented into Occurrences and *a priori codes* (see Appendix 1–1.2) were deployed to deduce keywords from the dataset. These

were then defined in broader sentences from which contextual codes were induced, sorted, filtered and categorised.

Segmentation of Occurrences

Analysis of the dataset involved segmenting the text into Occurrences: paragraphs that represent a vested effort to log a general or focused description of an event or action. These Occurrences were unstructured and surfaced organically from the workplace setting. Once the text was segmented they were then tagged, which involved giving each tag a brief description. Occurrences were then clustered, collapsed and/or eliminated, from which ten types of general and focused Occurrences were identified from the text. These were subsequently logged in the codebook (see Appendix 1.4) and were correlated back to the study timeline.

Table 38 Study one: unstructured Occurrence overview

First week					
Date	**Mon. 10.02.13**	**Tue. 11.02.13**	**Wed. 12.02.13**	**Thu. 13.02.13**	**Fri. 13.02.13**
Recorded Occurrences	Ph–Ge–01,* Wf–Ge–03, Ea–Ge–05, In–Ge–07, Hi–Ge–09	Ph–Ge–01, Ea–Ge–05, Hi–Fo–10, In–Ge–07, Hi–Ge–09	Ph–Ge–01, Ea–Ge–05, Hi–Ge–09, Hi–Fo–10, In–Fo–08, Wf–Fo–04	Ph–Ge–01, Hi–Ge–09,Ea–Ge–05, Wf–Ge–03, Wf–Fo–04	Ph–Ge–01, Hi–Ge–09, Ea–Ge–05, In–Ge–07, Ea–Fo–06, In–Fo–08
Second week					
Date	**Mon. 17.02.13**	**Tue. 18.02.13**	**Wed. 19.02.13**	**Thu. 20.02.13**	**Fri. 21.02.13**
Recorded Occurrences	Ph–Ge–01,* Wf–Ge–03, Ea–Ge–05, In–Fo–08, Hi–Ge–09,Wf–Fo–04	Ph–Ge–01, Ea–Ge–05, Hi–Ge–09, Wf–Fo–04, Ea–Fo–06, Ph–Ge–02	Ph–Ge–01, In–Fo–08Ph–Ge–02, Wf–Fo–04, Hi–Ge–09, Ea–Ge–05	Ph–Ge–01, Ph–Ge–02, Hi–Ge–09, Wf–Fo–04, Ea–Ge–05, Hi–Fo–10	Ph–Ge–01, Hi–Fo–10, Wf–Ge–03, Ea–Ge–05, Hi–Ge–09

NB: *Codes refer to Recorded Occurrences. Description of codes can be found in Appendix A4.

Table 38 above outlines the Recorded Occurrence codes relative to the number of observational days at the ad–agency. The shaded cells (Recorded Occurrence) indicate the days informants were job–shadowed. The first week I was inducted into the ad–agency. As such the first two days involved logging the physical and human setting of the ad–agency. A guide (INF03_M) was provided by the ad–agency. He offered insight, in terms of how workflow processes are practised by practitioners in the community and also introduced me to the two informants. While other practitioners were also introduced they were not followed as

thoroughly as the three key informants and so were coded simply as staff and senior staff in the text and subsequent extracts. The second week I became familiar with the physical and human setting of the institution. Less emphasis was placed on the description of the institution, instead attention shifted to the community of practitioners.

Table 39 Study one: calendar of Critical Occurrences

First week		
Timeline		**Occurrence description**
Start	**Finish**	
10.02.13	11.02.13	Inducted into ad–agency by INF01_M, logged thick descriptions of physical and human contextual setting.
12.02.13	12.02.13	Participated, observed and logged first creative team update meeting.
12.02.13	13.02.13	Job–shadowed INF01_M (the creative) inside the ad–agency.
14.02.13	14.02.13	Corporate client visited the ad–agency. Observations made in public spaces, not permitted access while in private spaces.
14.02.13	14.02.13	Briefly spoken to senior staff (director) inside the ad–agency.
Second week		
17.02.13	18.02.13	Job–shadowed INF02_M, the IT Analyst, inside the ad–agency.
18.02.13	18.02.13	Corporate client visited the ad–agency. Observations made in public spaces, not permitted in private spaces.
19.02.13	19.02.13	Participated, observed and logged second creative team update meeting.
19.02.13	20.02.13	Job–shadowed INF03_M, the accounts executive, inside and outside the ad–agency.
20.02.13	20.02.13	When job–shadowing INF03_M, went outside to venue to visit client to discuss project brief.
21.02.13	21.02.13	Had lunch and briefly spoken to senior staff (director) inside the dining area.

While general behaviours were logged there was a focus on mapping the behaviours of those who were job–shadowed. In this context, I logged how informants engaged with their colleagues and the role of the institution in moderating actions and interactions as they practised their daily duties. When conducting the study some Occurrences were deemed more critical (significant) than others because they facilitated the exploration of the research question. For instance, one such Critical Occurrence was job–shadowing the three informants. These Critical Occurrences were logged and then reviewed separately (see Table 39) before they were merged with the other minor Occurrences from the text.

Deployment of a priori codes

Once Occurrences were segmented, *a priori codes* (see Appendix 1–1.2) were deployed insofar as to deduce initial codes. This involved highlighting *trust* keywords and groups from the text. These *a priori codes* are bound by their Occurrences type and sub–group (see Table 40).

Table 40 Study one: Occurrences relative to a *priori* codes

Occurrence type	Occurrence sub–groups	A *priori* codes*
Physical and human settings	General description of physical or human setting inside of agency.	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–Ot–02**,** Ap–St–07**,** Ap–St–08, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–03, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–05
	General description of physical or human setting, outside of agency.	Ap–Ot–01, , Ap–St–06, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–At–03, Me–Dt–02, Tt–Tr–07
Work flow process or practice	General description of work flow process or practice.	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–St–08, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–03, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–05, Tt–Dy–02
	Focused description of significant work flow process or practice.	Ap–Ot–0, Ap–Ot–02, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–03, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–05, Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–03, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–05, Me–Ft–06, Tt–Dy–02, Tt–Tr–08
Events or Actions	General description of events or actions.	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–St–06, Ap–St–07, Ap–St–08, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–At–04, Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–03, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–05, Me–Ft–06, Tt–Dy–02, Tt–Tr–07
	Focused description of significant events or actions.	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–Ot–02, Ap–St–06, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–03, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–05, Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–03, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–05, Me–Ft–06, Tt–Dy–02, Tt–Tr–08, Tt–Tr–07
Informant/s	General description of informant/s.	Ap–Ot–01, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–04, Me–Ft–05
	Focused description of significant informant/s.	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–Ot–02, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–03, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–05, Me–Ft–05
Informants interacting with others	General description of two or more informants interacting.	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–St–06, Ap–St–07, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–05, Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–03, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–06, Tt–Tr–08
	Focused description of two or more significant informant interacting.	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–Ot–02, , Ap–St–06, Ap–St–07, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–03, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–05, Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–03, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–06, Tt–Dy–02, Tt–Tr–08

NB: *A *priori* codes refer to specific *'trust'* keywords and groups, which were identified and deduced from the segmented Occurrences. Description of trust codes can be found in Appendix A2.

In essence, this is the deductive stage of analysis. It connects the text embedded within the dataset to the categories and groups of trust presented in the literature review (see Chapter 2) and conceptual framework (see Chapter 3). Once keywords

and groups were highlighted they were contextualised in broader sentences. The semantic meanings of these sentences provided the basis of interpreting the inductive contextual codes. Consequently, this is the inductive stage of analyse (see Section 5.3.1).

5.3.1 Categories and emergent themes

During data analysis *categories* played a systematic role in sorting and filtering the contextual codes and searching for themes. This category component is borrowed from grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 2009) and is a deviation from Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis procedure: where categories played a less active role in data reduction. Contextual codes went through a process of clustering, collapsing and elimination which resulted in the first–order categories. These categories were further collapsed, based on their contextual similarity and *keyness* to create second–order categories. When these second–order categories were formed they inherited the contextual codes from the first–order categories. Consequentially, sub–themes and general themes were then formed by means of backward induction, through the interpretation of second–order and first–order categories (see Table 41).

Table 41 Study one: categories and emergent themes

Codes (A+)	First–order categories	Codes (B+)	Second–order categories	Emergent themes	
				Sub–themes	General–themes
01.	Professional features	01.	Physical context inside/outside of agency	Built environment signal confidence	Ecological setting
02.	Physical features				
03.	Social habitats	02.	Human habitual context within agency	Social spaces serve as collective habitats	
04.	Collective Behavior				
05.	Shared Ideals and vision	03.	Professional work processes and practices	Culture converges beliefs and goals	Internal ambience
06.	Creative ethos				
07.	Cooperate and contribute				
08.	Work experiences	04.	Attitude towards work processes and practices	Institution fosters positive working experiences	
09.	Motivations and incentives				
10.	Role of institution				
11.	Pronounced characteristics	05.	General behavior of informants within the agency	Pronounced characteristics are favored	Mediating properties
12.	Management interventions				
13.	Signs in body language	06.	Observable acts of communication within agency	Sensory signs emphasis meaning	
14.	Signs in speech and text				
15.	Workplace activities	07.	Initiating and managing relationships	Activities can define relationship state	
16.	Working boundaries				

5.3.2 Review and define themes

General and sub–themes were reviewed to show that they fit back into the Occurrences and that they correspond to the dataset. This procedure is advocated by Braun and Clarke's (2006) to strengthen internal validity. In this case, second–order categories were used as a basis to create the sub–themes, which were correlated back to their Occurrence types and the dataset. Table 42 highlights the second–order categories with their final contextual codes. These were inherited from their first–order categories. They show a contextual similarity to the Occurrence types previously identified in Table 41.

Table 42 Study one: second–order category with inherited first–order codes

Inherited codes from first–order	**– 01** Open plan and spacious – **02** Branded and professional signs **– 03** Distinguish between types of functional spaces **– 04** symbolic fixtures and fittings	**– 01** Aspirational and optimistic **– 02** Private and public domains **– 03** Social space as collective habitat **– 04** Promote participative behavior	**– 01** Flexible rules of engagement **– 02** Lateral thinking and newness **– 03** Cooperation behavior **– 04** Work independently **– 05** About people creating ideas **– 06** Understanding the client **– 07** Shared beliefs and goals	**– 01** Relaxed atmosphere **– 02** Intrinsically motivated to work **– 03** Anxiety towards time pressures **– 04** Freedom of expression **– 05** Guidance brings assurances **– 06** Benefits and rewards **– 07** Trust of the institution
Second–order category	**B01. Physical context inside/outside of agency**	**B02. Human habitual context within agency**	**B03. Professional work processes and practices**	**B04. Attitude towards work processes and practices**
Inherited codes from first–order	**– 01** Socially active and professional **– 02** Entrepreneurial characteristics **– 03** Take calculated risk and exploit opportunities **– 04** Influences of leadership **– 05** Proactive and direct action	**– 01** Body posture **– 02** Types of gestures **– 03** Speech and spoken language **– 04** Text and written language	**– 01** Fuzzy professional and social boundaries **– 02** Building long–term relationships **– 03** Depth of trust in relationship **– 04** Role of formal and informal activities	
Second–order category	**B05. General Behavior of informants within the agency**	**B06. Observable Acts of communication within agency**	**B07. Initiating and managing relationships**	

As previously stated general and sub–themes were formed by means of backward induction. Thematic definitions were induced by using the second–order categories and their inherited inductive codes. This was then correlated back to the first–order categories from which definitions were formulated to fit into the general and sub–themes. Critical to the formulation of these thematic definitions are the *keyness* of the inherited codes from the second–order category (see Table 43).

Table 43 Study one: definitions of general and sub–themes

Nos.	General and sub–themes	Definitions
1.	Ecological setting	Perceptual signs of professionalism are embedded in the environment: the built environment conveys signs of professionalism, which influences the perception of the institution.
1.1.	Built environment signal confidence	Corporate identity and history of success conveys confidence and familiarity to clients.
1.2.	Social spaces serve as collective habitats	Social spaces serve as focal points to induce collective behavior from practitioners.
2.	Internal ambience	Working atmosphere fosters interpersonal trust: creative culture strengthens social cohesion, which is validated by positive working experiences.
2.1.	Culture converges beliefs and goals	Creative culture strengthens social cohesion and is attributed by shared beliefs and goals.
2.2.	Institution fosters working experiences	Trust of the institution sustains the creative culture and contributes to positive working experiences.
3.	Mediating properties	Relationships are mediated by influential signs and activities: it is attributed by pronounced characteristics, sensory signs and engagement of recreational activities.
3.1.	Pronounced characteristics are favored	Entrepreneurial characteristics are desirable behavioral traits in the institution.
3.2.	Sensory signs emphasis meaning	Sensory signs are exchanged during human interaction and used to emphasis meaning.
3.3.	Activities can define relationship state	Work creates fuzzy professional and social boundaries in a relationship, but can be defined through formalized activities.

5.3.3 Report themes

Reporting involved describing relevant themes which are then supported by data extracts from the Logbook. I used a Piercian (Pierce, 1931–1935) *semiotic mode of analysis* to report the themes where I: 1) determined the meaning of contents, 2) identified the signs used to represent those contents and 3) the practitioners who produced, received and interacted with those signs.

5.3.3.1 General–theme 1: ecological setting

The first general–theme is ecological setting. It is composed of two sub–themes: the built environment (1.1) and social spaces (1.2). This theme reports on the physical environment and describes how it has influenced the perception of the institution, externally (by clients), and internally by its own practitioners (workers).

Sub–theme 1.1: built environment signal confidence

This sub–theme refers to the ecological setting. In the first week I was introduced into the institution by INF03_M. The first two days involved logging thick descriptions of the physical context of the setting insofar as to attain an understanding of the social mechanics that foster relationships. What was notable was the use of use of space to negotiate perceptions and behaviours. When the researcher entered the institution he was greeted by INF03_M, whom the researcher was to job–shadow in the following week. Extract 1 describes the internal built environment of the institution.

Professional signs embedded in setting

The dataset indicates that signs of professionalism are embedded in the built environment. Professionalism, as Barber (1983) dictates, conveys expertise of a specific craft or specialised knowledge. The picture framing of previously completed advertisement projects and the strategic use of corporate imagery (branding, logos etc.), which are found in various formats throughout the institution, is an attempt to convey perceptions of confidence and familiarity of the institution (see extract 1).

Extract 1 Description of internal environment

> "The agency is entered through two glass doors. On the front of the agency there is a reception room. On each side of the room there are two red sofas with coffee tables. On top of these coffee tables there are some framed advertisements. (as the observational studies progressed these advertisements were confirmed to be previous completed projects of the ad–agency).At the back of the room there is a reception desk. Above desk there is a large logo of the ad–agency....On each side of the reception desk there are two corridors. One leads to the left. One lead to the right...."
>
> (Researcher, 10.02.13, L 1–13)
>
> "To the right corridor there are several small rooms. They have glass walls..."(later to be confirmed as meeting rooms and offices, where senior members of the agency reside)"
>
> (Researcher, 10.02.13, L 18–20)
>
> "To the left there is a large open plan room. It is where most of the workers reside. To the left of room there are about a dozen cubicles with computers. To the right there is a corner sofa and a few bean bags. At the back of the room there is a small kitchen and dining area. It is surrounded by a few more smaller rooms. Some of are private offices. Others are public spaces (used for recreation)..."
>
> (Researcher, 10.02.13, L 24–29)

These signs are bold and can be seen by external clients when entering the institution. In this setting, it is widely acknowledged that confidence and familiarity are antecedents of trust (Jarvenpaa *et al*., 1998). In this case, the picture framing of completed projects demonstrate the institutions expertise and therefore ability to fulfil a client's requests; while the use of professional corporate imagery reinforces these trust–warranting properties, by associating expertise with the logo (Uggla, 2006). However, to decode and make–sense of these brand and corporate associations will depend on whether the client has seen the logo before and has acquired a history of positive associations with the institution (Uggla, 2006). In the main open room, more professional signs are embedded in the fixtures and fittings.

Extract 2 Rationale of institutional design

> "We're in advertising, it's all about creative communications, about taking our clients briefs and turning them into desirable, liveable stories....we do this by using images and good copy....that's why I suppose our home (referring to agency) is designed the way it is....you practise what you preach...right?"
>
> (Inf03, 10.02.13; L 59-67)

While the room is neutral in colour the wall at the rear is red. Words like *Be inspired* and *My eureka moment* adorn the walls in a variety of black oversized fonts. When I asked INFO3_M why these words were printed on the walls the following response was given (see extract 2). "*We're in the game of advertising…*" he says, from which he meant the promotion and practice of creativity. In the extract, this is underlined by the statement, *"...you practise what you preach...right?"* In sum, as clients enter the room the familiarity of the creative surroundings conveys a degree of confidence and positive expectations of the institutions professional ability to deliver its value propositions (Luhmann, 1988; Gulati, 1995).

Sub–theme 1.2: social spaces serve as collective habitats

Practitioners engage in spatially configured spaces that induces collective behaviour. For instance, in the main open plan room wooden plaque signages with words like *Thinking Space*, *Eat here* and *Resting Place* can be observed hanging from the ceiling. This conveys that spaces are segmented into smaller social arrangements that serve a more specific function.

Extract 3 Collective social spaces

> "Yeah...Things are quire relaxed here....there is always good vibes about the place, you can take your work down there (pointing to 'Thinking Space' table), have a cuppa and chill out"
>
> (Staff, 10.02.13; L 201-209)

The following response (see extract 3) illustrates that these social spaces can be used informally, while in a more latent manner, gently reminding practitioners of the creative ethos of the type of work they are involved in. While most of the segmented social spaces are public and therefore accessible for practitioners, some remain private and are reserved for senior staff and management (directors) and external clients.

Distinction between private and public spaces

Private spaces are positioned in different parts of the institution that cannot be manifestly observed. By positioning private spaces on the right wing of the institution removes any notion of social exclusion from its practitioners. However, what is intriguing is that public social spaces, particularly those in the main open plan room, are actively shown to clients to demonstrate the creative ethos of the institution and its practitioners. This proposition is underlined by statements like *"...give them a grand tour..."* and *"...give them a feel for the place..."* (see extract 4).

Extract 4 Public and private spaces

> "We'll take clients to the right wing...then after we've done our presentations we'll give them a grand tour of the left wing (referring to main open plan room), jus' to give them a 'feel' for the place.... making connections to the client is important in this game."
>
> (INF03_M, 11.02.13; L 314-319)

This was observed in two occasions. When clients arrive, tours would be given by INF03_M or by other practitioners. This action projects positive perceptual signs of professionalism. As one member of staff puts it they need to *"...have the right tools for the job"*. Demonstrating these creative abilities through perceptual signs is considered important because it reinforces familiarity and confidence. As stressed by INF03_M, *"...making connections to the client is important in this game"* (see extract 4).

Public spaces and collectivization

Within the community of practice, public social spaces are used to collectivise behaviour. The wooden plaque signages above the ceilings are further supported by *participative artefacts* in the main open plan room. Artefacts, like the oversized blackboard: where practitioners can jot down thoughts, can be observed on one of the walls. Whereas the wooden plaques are used to collectivise behaviour, artefacts are used to induce contribution and possible cooperation: depending on what is written on the board. Just as *participatory art* allows people to be part of the co-creative process (Bishop, 2012), these participative artefacts are used in a similar engaging manner.

Extract 5 Function of participative artefacts

> "...it's cool, I use it (the blackboard) to put all sorts of ideas down...and not all of them are job related. I once put my nan's chicken casserole recipe on it...(Laughed)....in the end I think it's about being part of something...I feel that I'm being heard.."
>
> (Staff, 11.02.13; L380-384)

The above extract illustrates the function these artefacts in the community. In a playful manner, they allow practitioners to voice their personal thoughts and opinions. An observation of the text and images on the blackboard reveal that, not all that is written or drawn are related to work: however as stated by one practitioner *"...there are rules about what we can put up..."*. This *collective feeling* of being part of a wider encompassing community is fundamental to the institution because it reflects the communicative and creative properties of the advertising business (see extract 6).

Extract 6 Connecting practitioners with ideas

> "...creativity is at the heart of what we do. It doesn't happen instantly...and it can't be forced. Its, its....it's about bringing creative people together and hoping that something...something magical will happen"
>
> (INF03_M, 11.02.13 ; L 198-201)

In this instance, sharing thoughts and opinions through participative artefacts allow practitioners to contribute and cooperate with each other. While making these contributions familiar practitioners can foster and strengthen interpersonal ties with their colleagues. Conversely, unfamiliar practitioners can also build

bridges through their informal communications with other unfamiliar colleagues. In sum, this is reminiscent of Golbeck's (2005) *transivity of trust* where trust can be passed between unfamiliar agents but in this setting trust is transferred not necessarily through people but through the modality of pragmatic signs: what practitioners have written and drawn in the chalkboards.

5.3.3.2 General–theme 2: internal ambience

The second general–theme is internal ambience. It is composed of two sub–themes: culture (2.1) and role of institution (2.2). This theme reports on the working culture of the institution, particularly how it brings practitioners together that contributes to positive working experiences.

Sub–theme 2.1: culture converges beliefs and goals

This sub–theme refers to the cultural working practices in the institution. Focus was placed not necessarily on workflow itself but how relationships are moderated within this culture. Embedded within the working culture is the *creative* ethos of the institution. In the conceptual framework, I define creativity as something novel that has social value or is useful (Mumford and Gustafson, 1988; Amabie, 1996). As stated by INF03_M, *"…creativity is at the heart of what we do"* (see extract 6).

Extract 7 Creative ethos of institution

> "we offer creative solutions to our clients....when they come to us they want to see something original and new"
>
> (INF03_M, 19.02.13; L120-123)

When referring to creativity associated words like *new*, *original* and *fresh* are frequently used to describe an idea or concept (see extract 7). In this respect, the built environment and the social spaces that vacate the community give rise to these creative talents and activities. In essence, they shape the *creative culture* of the institution, which is supported by shared common beliefs and goals (see extract 8).

Extract 8 Convergence of working practices

> "Thinking outside the box is important in my job....it's not always about coming up with something totally new...it's about coming up with something that works for the client...to make that happen we need people...people with ideas. We're all on the same boat, when there is a big account, we all chip in and do our part..."
>
> (INF01_M, 13.02.13; L314-320)

While practitioners participate in, what is observed to be formalised surroundings, during large projects practitioners will share a common goals and make a concerted collective effort to fulfil a client's creative brief. This is noted by the extended hours of employment associated with some practitioners (see extract 9).

Extract 9 Working extended hours

> "When we have looming deadline, I can easily work twelve...thirteen hours...(Laughs)...I even have a sofa bed in my office!"
>
> (Senior Staff, 14.02.13; L421-426)

Cooperation and contribution in constructed teams

During heightened and tense events these shared beliefs and goals formalise group behaviour and strengthen the level of intra–group cooperation and contribution. In this setting, practitioners conduct their daily duties in close proximity from one other. This proximity and cohesive group structure is further cemented by frequent presentations and meeting which are time–bound to creative briefs and projects. While some practitioners are specialised in specific disciplines (INF02_M is an IT analyst) that may be outside their area of creative expertise, they may be encouraged to contribute and/or cooperate with other creative groups in the institution if requested by management.

For instance, INF03_M has a front facing role where he liaises on relationships with the external client and the various departments in the institution, but has also been a member of the creative team. In this setting, INF03_M contributed and cooperated with the creative team to *make sense* of a creative idea that has been generated by the creative team on behalf of the external client (see extract 10). In this setting, shared beliefs and goals remain central

tenets to induce contribution and cooperation. This centrality is directed by the institution's philosophy and core values.

Extract 10 Sense–making of creative work

> "There's a system of checks and balances....working on a brief its kind 'a important to get other peoples perspective and get feedback to see if the ideas work...you know?....making sense of those ideas is the difference between success and failure..."
>
> (INF01_M, 13.02.13; L584–587)

Institutional philosophy and values

The philosophy and core values are communicated in promotional materials (website, leaflets) and can also be found in the ecology of the built environment. They are also actively taught through the training programme to practitioners who have recently joined the institution. This ensursd the cultural homogeneity of the institution: when practitioners performed their daily duties the philosophy and values reminds them of the creative context of the institution.

A philosophy is a formulaic statement created by the institution that delivers a promise (value proposition) to its external clients. It communicates the creative properties of the institution and the expectation of professional fulfilment. Themes of hard work, consistent delivery of projects and relationship building (with clients) are encapsulated in the philosophy. Conversely, core values refer to the code of conduct that the institution and its practitioners adheres to. It communicates a collective vision to complete a brief, the creative competencies of its practitioners and the accountabilities of the institution (see extract 11).

Extract 11 Philosophy and core values

> "...from my experience, most agencies have their own way of doing things. They might specialise in an area which makes their values different. We're no different, we're in digital and mobile advertising so we have a unique set of values that shout, "Hey look at us, we can do this"...(laughs)...we work, rest and play by those values."
>
> (INF03_M, 11.02.13 ; L458–464)

While the philosophy and core values of the institution may indeed bring practitioners together, in terms of their willingness to contribute and cooperate, its true pulling power is its ability of converge beliefs and values. Making references to the Mars Bar slogan, INF03_M states that, *"...we work, rest and play by those values"*, reiterating the commitment to work by those values.

Retrospectively, these conditions are reflective of the strong–ties that connect particularized trusters: people whom share similar beliefs, values and history (Williams, 1988; Newton, 1997).

Sub–theme 2.2: institution fosters working experiences

This sub–theme refers to the institution's ability to foster positive working experiences. When observing informants, I would periodically query their actions, particularly to describe and define phenomena that are unfamiliar. A consistent pattern of *trust of the institution* had emerged. Trust of the institution in this setting sustains the creative culture of practitioners in the community, enabling them to execute those previously described core values

Trust of institutional and contractual benefits

Institutional trust, as reviewed in literature, is when institutions provide relative security and guarantees certain assurances that prevent the abuses of trust (Shapiro, 1987; McKnight and Chervany, 2002). In this setting, security is the legal and contractual safeguards offered by the institution, whereas assurances compromise the system of structural properties that enables the creative culture to be sustained. While words like *security* and *protection* were not directly used, rather referential words were identified in the latency of the text. For instance, when following INF02_M the following extract was logged when enquiring about working experiences (see extract 12).

Extract 12 Security of employment

> "...it's not bad here. I've worked in places where they really grind you...the hours are long...and can be tough, but they look after you pretty well..."
>
> (INF02_M, 17.02.13 ; L284-289)

The key group of words in the above extract are, *"...look after you pretty well..."* This line of inquiry was further probed by asking, *"What do you mean by pretty well?"* from which the following response was given (see extract 13). In the extract the informant suggesting employment benefits. Although the three informants did not specify the keyword *benefit* itself, the referential term *perks* had been used occasionally. Comparatively, the descriptions as to what benefits were offered are logged more frequently, as highlighted in the above extract, as opposed to the keyword *perk* itself. These benefits are embedded in the informant's

employment contracts to incentivize fulfilment and as such can be conceived as a form of job security (Guest, 2004).

Extract 13 Benefits of institution

> "...well I mean sometimes they let you off early...and there is the free movie pass...and I'm sure we get some sort of health insurance...Oh! I got my glasses through here..."
>
> (INF02_M, 17.02.13 ; L321-325)

Limited institutional guarantees and assurances

Conversely, guarantees and assurances are properties which are institutionally bestowed from the institution to practitioners in the community. Three properties were identified from the contextual codes: 1) *freedom of expression*, 2) *acknowledgement of work* and 3) *guidance and supervision*. Freedom of expression refers to the openness of the working atmosphere. Practitioners in conditions of openness are able to freely express their thoughts and opinions.

This freedom is supported by participative artefacts such as the oversized chalkboard (see sub–theme 1.2). Furthermore, it has previously been suggested by INF03_M that advertising is essentially about communicating ideas creatively. Communicating these ideas will thus require freedom, because as INF01_M states, social constraints can often restrict creativity and therefore lateral thinking. This is conveyed in his statement, *"Thinking outside the box is important in my job...."* (see extract 8). When this statement was further probed, the following response was given (see extract 14).

Extract 14 Freedom of expression

> "...being out there is jus' a Figureurative of speech. Ideas are not plucked from the air...they're based on past experiences on what kind 'a things work and what doesn't...to let those creative juices flow...we need space to think and do stuff to distract us from what we're actually doing."
>
> (INF01_M, 13.02.13; L330-337)

In this setting, the keyword is *space*. It refers to the designated social spaces such as the *Thinking Space* and *Resting Place* (see sub–theme 2.1). Within these social spaces practitioners can relax and disengage from their daily routines. However, it can also refer to political freedom, which allow practitioners to be detached from the bureaucracy of the institution. This is particularly relevant to creative practitioners whom are given preferential treatment from management

compared to other departmental practitioners, due to their dependency and natural talents of generating ideas and concepts for external clients (Hackley and Kover, 2007).

Extract 15 Preferential treatment for creatives

> "...laughs....We're (Creative's) are a bit of a wild, spoiled bunch...back in the city, sometimes I'd turn up to work at 11...I was given a lot of slack...anywhere else and I'd probably be fired"
>
> (INF01_M, 13.02.13; L497-503)

The second property is acknowledgement of work. When practitioners work more hours than is contractually required, which is the case when completing projects from large client accounts, then their hard work is acknowledged. When job shadowing INF02_M the following extract was logged after the conversation (see extract 16). The above extract shows that the extended hours of work performed by the informant was recognised and acknowledged by the director in the institution, who rewarded the informant with extra days off for his endeavours. This form of reward is reminiscent of Tan and Thoen's (2000) control trust where abuses of trust (like not performing duties) result in punishment and fulfilment of actions, which is the case in this situation, is rewarded.

Extract 16 Prolonged working hours

> "...I remember last month we had a big client and I had a lot of data to crunch...it was long gruelling hours that week...but at least it was completed as scheduled...I was happy and I suppose so was the bigwig (senior director)...the following week I was given an extra day off...sweet!"
>
> (INF02_M,18.02.13; L267-275)

The third property is guidance and supervision. When new practitioners join the institution they are expected to perform their duties with a degree of *technical competence and fiduciary responsibility* (Barber, 1983). While it has been stated by INF02_M and INF03_M that practitioners are *"...thrown at the deep end..."* they are also given formal training that includes guidance, supervision and support from senior staff. In this setting, the power structure and management hierarchy within the institution provides limited guidance and supervision for new practitioners (see extract 17).

Extract 17 Guidance and supervision provided

> "...you're thrown at the deep end here...it was hard in the first few days, but you slowly get used to the different types of systems...with a little help from your mentor...you are not left totally alone."
>
> (INF02_M,18.02.13; L337–344)

In sum, these securities and limited assurance have been well received from the three job shadowed informants. This is reflected by their positive working experiences and attitudes. Though all three informants have highlighted certain anxieties and stresses from their designated roles, these are related to time–bound schedules and looming deadlines when fulfilling large projects. Despite these stresses, they are intrinsically motivated to work collectively and if necessary for prolonged hours beyond those contractually required. These observational findings are consistent with the works of Golembiewski and McConkie (1988) who suggest that when trust is strong in a group then this results in increased levels of cooperation and performance.

5.3.3.3 General–theme 3: mediating properties

The third general–theme is mediating properties. It is composed of three themes: pronounced characteristics (3.1), sensory signs (3.2) and informal activities (3.3). This theme reports on the influential role of signs and use of informal activities to cement interpersonal relationships.

Sub–theme 3.1: pronounced characteristics are favoured

This sub–theme refers to a practitioner's characteristics. While each practitioner will have their own personal set of characteristics, which identifies them from other practitioners (Thompson, 2004), observations have logged two emergent patterns. First, institution favours pronounced characteristics and secondly, there is a concentration of these pronounced characteristics from lead characters (mangers, directors).

Five behavioural traits

Five behavioural traits that constitute these pronounced characteristics were logged: 1) *creativity and newness*, 2) *focus and commitment*, 3) *risk and opportunity*, 4) *proactive and direct action* and 4) *independence and responsibility*. Practitioners are creative in their own unique way, in terms of exploring new ideas, concepts,

methods or techniques. Secondly, there is a focus and commitment in performing their duties. This is driven by shared beliefs and goals, where there is a particularly emphasis on the outcomes of such goals. Thirdly, they are willing to assess and take calculated risks and exploit opportunities which could add value to these outcomes. Fourthly, they are proactive and take direct action to fulfil these outcomes, all of which are intrinsically motivated. Fifthly, practitioners understand that they are given a degree of autonomy to fulfil these outcomes and take responsibility for their actions.

Thematic and entrepreneurial characteristics

These behavioural traits are reflective of Bolton and Thomas's (2003) *thematic characteristics* which are used to identify entrepreneurs. The word entrepreneur in this situation can be defined as, *"a person who habitually creates and innovates to build something of recognised value around perceived opportunities"* (Bolton and Thompson, 2000, p.5). The keyword entrepreneur is relevant in this case as it was logged during a particular Occurrence, which involved a brief conversation with a director. When I had asked the director "...*So when you employ someone to fill a job vacancy in the advertising agency, what type of person are you looking for?"* he gave the following response (see extract 18).

Extract 18 Desired behavioural traits

> "...it all depends what the position is...they really need to know what we do...most of the people here are under thirty five (referring to age)...I think it's important to keep up with the tempo...we're looking for go-getters and ball-breakers...people like entrepreneurs who have the energy to see things through..."
>
> (Senior Staff,14.02.13; L480-489)

The extract shows that practitioners come from a relatively young demographic group, in which they are expected to understand and maintain the philosophy and core values of the institution. This proposition is supported by the statement, *"...they really need to know what we do..."* (see extract 18). The keywords to highlight in this case are *go–getters* and *ball breakers* which underline the risk and opportunity behavioural traits. These traits are reflective of entrepreneurial behaviour. This proposition is further supported by the statement, *"...who have the energy to see things through..."* which highlight the proactive nature that are expected from practitioners. The discussed instance conveys that these behavioural traits are highly desirable and are actively searched for when

recruiting potential practitioners to the institution. Moreover, if these behavioural traits are indeed desired then it would explain why the institution's formulaic philosophy and core values were crafted in a manner that reflects elements of those entrepreneurial properties.

Of the five behavioural traits that were logged I focus and provide extracts on the *risk and opportunity* behavioural trait in the subsequent paragraphs. This is because evidence of the other four other traits can be found throughout the report and therefore will not be further elaborated upon. In Bolton and Thompson's (2000) definition of entrepreneur the risk and opportunity behavioural trait is encapsulated in the keywords *perceived opportunities*. Of the informants that were job shadowed this behavioural trait has been identified from INF01_M and INF03_M but not INF02_M. From the logged evidence this may be due to the nature of their designated roles. The working practices performed by INF02_M is more procedural and predicable where risk and uncertainty is minimised. However, INF01_M (the creative) and INF03_M (the accounts executive) are in fluid roles that are susceptible to unpredictable events. Under these conditions they are exposed to greater risks and uncertainties that will require them to quickly adapt to changing ecological settings.

Practitioner's assessment of risk and opportunity

This risk and opportunity behavioural trait was logged when job–shadowing INF01_M (the creative) during the development of creative ideas or concepts (see extract 19). As for INF03_M (the accounts executive), this behavioural trait was manifested when he liaised and communicated with an external client to discuss brief–related issues.

Extract 19 Risk and opportunity of creative role

> "...the secret is to read and stick to the brief. Sometimes when the brief is a bit dry (insufficient informant)...then, we get imaginative and surprise them with something we think will work....but we'll always back this up with another concept in case things go wrong"
>
> (INF01_M, 13.02.13; L467–475)

While extracts 19–20 are different: both roles are exposed to different types of risk and uncertainty, the manner in which practitioners assessed risk are similar. For instance, both informants evaluated the contextual situation and made a calculated risk based on present limited or opportunistic resources which are disposable to

them. On closer inspection, these behavioural traits are more concentrated and intense from lead practitioners, such as management and directors, who provide leadership and vision to the institution and are able to exercise considerable influence (motivation).

Extract 20 Risk and opportunity of accounts role

> "...No two relationships are the same, people are different and you need to know what those differences are...if the client is new and if you're doing my job then you'll have to use your initiative and do what it takes to make things happen...I like to stay in touch and give them regular updates about our progress, making sure we have the correct info. to crack the brief...making the client happy is part of my job."
>
> (INF03_M, 20.02.13; L292-299)

In hindsight, job shadowing the director would have been an ideal means to gain internal insight into the power relationship between lead (directors, supervisors) and normative practitioners. However, this was not feasible due to the sensitivity of their positions. While engagement with those types of informants was limited, they nevertheless provided limited insight in terms how trust is perceived and enacted, which is principally centred on power and influence. From a leadership practitioner's perspective philosophy and core values should be percolated throughout the community of practice and the creative culture should be stimulated to induce proactive behaviour.

Sub–theme 3.2: sensory signs emphasis meaning

This sub–theme refers to the exchange of sensory signs between two or more practitioners. In Occurences that involve physical interaction a practitioner will produce a sensory sign which will be received and decoded by another practitioner. The production and reception of these sensory signs have been used to contextualise the meaning of actions and interactions (Fast, 1988). Two types of sensory signs have been logged: 1) *social signs*, which are non–verbal and refers to body language and 2) *linguistic signs*, which can be non–verbal or verbal and can refer to speech or text.

Distractions and noise of environment

While attempts were made to log as many sensory signs as possible, not all types of sensory signs were logged due to two observational constraints. First, it is difficult to focus on the nuances of sensory signs. For instance, it is often

challenging to record dialogue when noises that emerge from the community cannot be controlled. Secondly, there is a limitation of the types of sensory signs that can be captured since no electronic recording devices (video camera, dictaphone) were permitted.

Social signs and communications

Social signs refer to non–verbal communications that have been exchanged between two or more practitioners. Observable social signs exchanged are centred on body language: a sign that has been produced by a practitioner to another that expresses a thought or feeling, which is manifested as a physical behaviour (Fast, 1988). Three types of body language were logged: 1) *gestures*, 2) *body posture* and 3) *social proximity*, the latter of which refers to how close practitioners are with each other. While facial expressions were observed frequently and are considered to be an integral part of body language (Meeren, 2005), this was not relied due to two reasons. First, in the wild it was difficult to capture and interpret facial expressions as they changed quickly from one expression to another.

Secondly, and more critically, it is difficult to correlate the facial expression to the context of the contextual setting. As a result of these challenges observations were focused on what can be observed, justified and interpreted. Gestures are simply movement of parts of the body (McNeil, 1992). Observed gestures have predominately been hand–bound but other body parts: such as the legs and feet which are used to produce a stamping gesture (signal awareness), pacing gesture (signal rhythm and tempo) and elbows which are used to produce a shrugging gesture (signal uncertainty) were observed. Conversely, the following hand gestures have been logged frequently: salute (signal respect), thumbs up (signal approval), hand shake (signal greetings), point finger (signal direction), hand block (signal disapproval), raising hand vertically (signal confirmation), raising hands horizontally (signal rhythm and tempo), clapping hands (signal celebration), rubbing hands (signal eagerness), wave (signal farewell), crossing fingers (signal hope), swaying hands (signal uncertainty), mimicry (signal expressive thought). The latter hand gesture (mimicry) will be discussed later in detail. Body posture refers to the position of the body (Meeren, 2005).

Observations logged fewer body postures than gestures, due to the rich range of gestures that can be expressed through parts of the body compared to the position of the body (McNeill, 1992). Nevertheless, the following body postures were logged: sitting, standing, crouching and lying down. Independently, these

observed body postures signal insufficient meaning but used concurrently with gestures that signal a stronger pragmatic sign. Both, gestures and body postures are signalled strongest in two types of Occurrences: in the *events and actions* and *Informants interacting with others* groups (see page 168). They are particularly prominent during formal meetings or presentations.

Extract 21 Sensory signs in creative meeting

> "...It was located on the right wing of the agency...everyone entered the meeting room. The room was small and had a long table at the centre. It was surrounded by chairs. At the front was a projector....INF01_M stood beside the projector to show some slides. These slides showed a collection of images (animated characters)...INF01_M paced around the room and described the images. He points at the images...Makes circular motion with hands...Mimics actions; rocket ship, mountain top..."
>
> (Researcher, 12.02.13; L438-475)

The above extract was logged when job–shadowing INF01_M during an update meeting with the creative team. It involved brainstorming ideas and concepts for a new digital online campaign. In this setting, body posture and gestures were used concurrently by INF01_M and subsequent members of the creative team to express and/or emphasis a thought or feeling that was connected to the creative idea and concept. A prominent logged observation was the anecdotal use of hand gestures, which were used to direct attention to images (point finger) insofar as to describe the creative idea and concept. In this situation mimicry was employed as a means to either amplify or personify certain actions, behaviours or iconic objects. For instance, a clenched fist that was punched into air was used to mimic the motions of a rocket ship on one Occurrence, whereas another the fingertips of each hand touched each other diagonally, to mimic a mountain top.

Linguistic signs and communications

Linguistic signs refer to non–verbal or verbal communications that are exchanged between two or more practitioners. Observable linguistic signs are centred on the use of *rhetoric*: a mode of language that is communicated between a common professional groups (Barber, 1983). Rhetoric has been observed through speech and text in linguistic signs, where the former has been observed more frequently than the latter. Observations have indicated that there are two levels of rhetoric in

the institution. The first level can be referred to as *general rhetoric* which is understood and used by all practitioners in the institutions.

For instance, keywords like *client*, *brief*, *project*, *concept*, *artwork* and *copy* are considered denotative signs (manifest in their meaning) and therefore understood by the majority of practitioners in the institution. The second level can be referred to as *specialised rhetoric* which is understood and used by specific expert practitioners. For instance, when job–shadowing INF02_M, who is part of the analytics and insights team, keywords such as *PPC* (Pay–Per–Click), *KPI* (Key Performance Indicator) and attribute modelling were used. These keywords are familiar with practitioners within the insight team but may be foreign to other practitioners in other community groups.

Sub–theme 3.3: activities can define relationship state

This sub–theme refers to the fuzzy (blurred) relational state of practitioners and the role of informal activities in cementing interpersonal relationships. While job–shadowing informants an observational pattern emerged regarding the informant's perception of their colleagues. This observational was logged with INF01_M and INF03_M but did not necessary reflect all practitioners in the institution.

Fuzzy professional and social boundaries

In conditions of prolonged working hours, informants at times feel the professional boundaries that separates their professional and social domains can become fuzzy. Whereas the professional domain refers to working actions and activities that are conducted and associated with the institution (formality), the social domain refers to social actions and activities that are associated with the informant's personal life (informality). The latter is mostly conducted external of the institution.

Extract 22 Fuzzy professional and social boundaries

> "...managing clients is a 24/7 job. Sometimes I bring that job back home with me...as I said I like to keep them updated on our progress...that means giving them a call when I'm off...we (referring to creative team) don't always talk about things in the office. It's just nice to relax and talk about the brief in a different place..."
>
> (INF03_M, 20.02.13; L380–405)

The prior extract (see extract 22) shows that the informant in question is willing to bring work back home with him after formal working hours at the institution. Highlighted in the extract is the continuation of working practices outside the institution which is expressed in the statement, *"...talk about the brief in a different place..."* In this setting, the informant was referring to the *local* (public house). The extended formal relationship practitioners have with each other can on occasional infringe on their informal, personal times. This facet is a prominent contributing factor that blurs professional boundaries. When I asked the informant, what he thought about taking work home with him or associating with other practitioners after formal working hours the following response was given (see extract 23).

Extract 23 Difficult to distinguish fuzzy boundaries

> "...yeah, I joke about it all the time and tell my mum I see my colleague's a lot more than her....it's hard to separate what I do from my private life...as I said its a 24/7 job..."
>
> (INF03_M, 20.02.13; L431-440)

The above extract illustrates the difficulty of defining the boundaries that separate the professional and social domains. These fuzzy states are not constant and seem to emerge in certain intensified periods where there is a significant increase in the volume of work. Moreover, they are also enacted by formal and informal activities: that can either clarify and define these fuzzy boundaries or reinforce and add to its impending confusion. Informal activities have already been discussed (see extract 22) and can be social venues like the *local*. While in this setting the informality of the *local* has added to the fuzziness of the relationship in a reinforcing manner, it should be noted that this is not always the case for all *informal* activities.

Building affect–based trust through activities

In contrast, formal activities are those connected to work. These activities can be conducted within the institution (indoor) such as team building exercises, where practitioners are divided into groups to tackle and solve hypothetical challenges. Alternatively, they can be conducted outside the institution (outdoor) and be presented as recreational activities, like the rock climbing event organised by institutional management (see extract 24).

Extract 24 Recreational formal activities

> "...to keep our staff fresh we arrange activities inside and sometimes outside the agency...It's an opportunity to stand back and see the big picture from a different angle...the lot have to recharge...it's a time to relax and be themselves...it's also a time to mix the pot and introduce new staff...last month we went paint balling, it was a whale...next few months down the line we're organising a rock climbing event."
>
> (Senior Staff,21.02.13; L297-311)

Formal activities, such as recreational activities that are conducted outside the institution have the ability to detach practitioners from the ecological setting of the institution (see general–theme 1). This separation creates a casual environment and the perception of informality from which practitioners can relax unwind and foster affect–based relationships with their colleagues. Affect–based trust is based on emotional bonds where the trustor has already acquired a positive history of the trustee (Jones, 1996; Lewis and Weigert, 1985). Compared to its opposite cognitive–based trust, which is based on rationality (Coleman, 1990), affect–based trust is able to offer greater depth to relationships. On reflection, both indoor and outdoor activities can be interpreted as *team–exercises* used to conform behaviour: converging practitioners towards a shared umbrella of beliefs, values and vision.

These activities are intended to extend and reinforce the professional working domain but unfortunately for some practitioners have the unintended consequences of creating more fuzziness than clarity in terms of whether the activity is formal (professional) or informal (social). This consequence can merge behaviours expected from the former domain with those in the latter domain, the implications of which can redraw the social context and boundaries of interpersonal relationships. This phenomenon can occur because the creative culture (philosophy, values) that is perpetuated by the institution provides an intense ontological and epistemological understanding of the world that is fluid and holds no boundaries. Regardless whether the practitioner is involved in a formal or informal activity, they are still to a degree mentally influences by the cultural properties of the institution.

5.4 Situational map

A situational map has been drawn to connect the reported themes with trusting behaviours and perceptions, signs and workflow (see Table 44). The general and

sub–themes offer a molecular perspective of Occurrences but collectively present a molar perspective of the institution. Presenting this view offers an opportunity to identify prominent themes from which narrative accounts can be constructed insofar that trust and workflow can be analysed in greater depth and richness.

Table 44 Study one: mapping themes with trust, signs and workflow

Themes		Trust behaviors	Signs	Modality	Work implications
1.	**1.1**	– Professional signs embedded in built environment	– Corporate identity and image – Framed Evidence of success – Oversized print on walls	– Icon – Symbol	– Project confidence and familiarity to client – Project expertise and expectations to client
	1.2	– Social spaces collectivize behavior – Induce cooperation and contribution within social space	– Wooden plaque signages – Participative artifacts	– Icon – Index	– Institution listens to practitioners – Remind practitioners of institution – Exhibit social space to client
2.	**2.1**	– Shared beliefs and Goals – Willingness to contribute and cooperate	– Institutional philosophy – Core values of institution	– Symbol – Index	– Creative culture, Social cohesion and collective vision – Harbor creative talents and activities
	2.2	– Intrinsically motivated to work independently and collectively	– Relative institutional security – Limited institutional assurances	– Index – Iconic	– Positive working experiences – Trust of the institution – Increase work performance
3.	**3.1**	–Pronounced characteristics affect behavior	– Entrepreneurial behavioral traits – Leadership vision and influences	– Index – Symbol	– Entrepreneurial traits favored to recruit practitioners – Reflect institutional philosophy and core values
	3.2	– Exchange of sensory signs in interactions	– Body language: posture, gesture–Spoken language: speech and text	– Index – Iconic	– Clarifies and emphasis meaning of communications in interactions.
	3.3.	– Professional and social domains become fuzzy	– Participation of informal and formal activities.	– Index	– Conform behavior, converge beliefs, values and vision – Foster affect–based relationships

5.5 Micro–narratives

Micro–narratives are extensions of a general theme. They are presented in the form of a narrative account and illustrate how a specific behavioural decision has been made in relation to trust and workflow. The two discussed narratives are related to general–theme 3 (mediating properties). This general theme and their associated sub–themes were purposively selected because they illustrate the type of common signs that are exchanged between practitioners when they practice their crafts. As indicated in the methodology chapter a micro–narrative is an adaption of Labov's (1995) structured narratives.

In this case, a practitioner's personal narrative account is sequentially and temporally arranged into junctures from the text. However unlike Labovs (1972, 1995) narratives the functionality of junctures are adapted to identify behavioural decisions and acts. Moreover, they only represent a small segment of the dataset: they are not the main mode of analysis but instead compliment the thematic report (see Section 5.3.3) by adding analytical depth. I constructed narrative accounts from INF01_M and INF03_M. I selected these two informants because they were job–shadowed in the study from which I fostered a close connection to the field objects in terms of personal insights and practices of trust and workflow.

Micro–narrative of INF01_M

The narrative account of INF01_M (the creative) is related to the *events and actions* Occurrence type which was logged on 12th February, 2013. It is considered a Critical Occurrence in the observational calendar (see Table 39). The narrative was centred on an update meeting the informant had with the creative team. This meeting involved brainstorming initial ideas and concepts for a digital online campaign for a new client. The product that was to be promoted is a well–known branded of food snack. In the text I removed the name of the project and refer to it as *'X'* Project.

Orientation and dilemma

The meeting was held in the right wing of the institution away from the main community. Apart from the informant two other practitioners were also involved. The real names of the people were removed and coded as Practitioner A and B. Both practitioners have complementary skills that benefit the team. Practitioner A is male and has graphic design and editorial talents. Practitioner B is female and has IT and web–development talents. The narrative account continues from

extract 21. In this setting, the informant chairs the meeting and presents a series of projector slides to the creative team. He continues and explain the contents of the slides one–by–one then sits down. The dilemma occurs when the team re–examines the brief and its requirements. They decide to use a style of animation to fulfil part of the brief but come across a problematic situation (see Table 45).

Table 45 Study one: micro–narrative of INF01_M

Abstract	Orientation	Dilemma	Options	Selection	Assessment
(R,12.02.13; L417)	(R,12.02.13; L429–432)	(R,12.02.13 ; L510–518)	(R,12.02.13; L542–561)	(R,12.02.13 ; L571)	(R,12.02.13; L586–L624)
"We walked towards the meeting room for a presentation"	".. INF01_M was going to discuss the 'X' Project with Worker_A and Worker_B...he said to ''pull some ideas"	"The brief was re–read...They decide to use a style of animation...but came across a problem"	"…they can cancel the animation idea... "…increase workload of existing projects… "…outsource work to a freelancer…"	"…inconclusive about issue, but likely to be outsourced to animator …"	"…worker_A refers and… …recommends an animator… They check his work…"

NB: X=refers to project name. Real names of Practitioner A and B have been removed.

Option, selection and assessment

One of the key decisions the team had to make was whether to: 1) complete the animation sequence in–house where institutional resources were already stretched, 2) substitute the animation sequence with another type of artwork or 3) outsource the work to an external creative freelancer.

Of the three options the latter was favoured. However, it was only confirmed in the following week after INF01_M had deliberated and sought approval of the option from senior staff (directors). Upon deciding that the most *likely* option was to outsource the work to a freelancer Practitioner A had recommended a freelance creative animator for the project. They then proceeded to examine his professional credentials, which entailed an examination of his previous works through the freelancer's web–based portfolio. They agreed that the style of the animation was compatible with the requirements of the brief and then proceeded to contact the freelancer. In this setting, assessing the trustworthiness of the freelancer involved examining indexical and iconic signs.

First, indexical sign can refer to the Occurrence when Practitioner A had recommended the freelance creative animator to the other practitioners in the meeting. In this situation, Practitioner A represented the physical trust bridge that connects the freelancer with the institution. This modality of sign is introspective of the *transivity of trust* (Golbeck 2005) that can transfer between agents in a social networking site. Alternatively, it can also refer to the testimonial evidence provided by Practitioner A, where he use information (manifested as speech) as a means to ensure the credibility of the freelance creative. Secondly, iconic signs can refer to the Occurrence when the practitioners decided to validate the professional properties of the freelance creative insofar as to affirm his proposed expertise and ability to fulfil what is required from the project. This process involved actively seeking and confirming the identity of the freelancer (through website, personal contacts), evaluating past creative works (physical or online creative portfolio) and externally validating any referrals (through other ad–agencies).

Micro–narrative of INF03_M

The narrative account of INF03_M (the accounts executive) is related to the *events and actions* Occurrence type which was logged on the 20th February, 2013. It is considered a Critical Occurrence in the observational calendar (see Table 39). The narrative is centred on a meeting to see an external client regarding a creative project. The discussion with the client involved presenting some advertising concepts. The client, represents a consumer goods company, and had been using the creative services offered by the institution for the last two years. The consumer product involved in this case is a type of confectionery good, which is to be promoted and distributed through an online interactive campaign.

Orientation and dilemma

The meeting included the informant, myself, and the client. It was not held internally at the ad–agency nor at the institution of the client but in a neutral local venue, which in this case was a private pre–booked meeting room. The informant had to drive to the venue of the meeting. The narrative account begins when I left the premises of the ad–agency and entered the informant's vehicle from which he then drove to the venue. It took approximately 25–30 minutes to get to the venue. As the informant left the vehicle to enter the venue he carried with him a satchel and laptop. The informant arrived at the venue early and had to wait an additional 10–15m before the client arrived. At this point he had prepared his presentations

in advance. The dilemma occured during the meeting with the client. When presenting the concept through the laptop, the client expressed signs of dissatisfaction (see Table 46).

Table 46 Study one: micro–narrative of INF03_M

Abstract	Orientation	Dilemma	Options	Selection	Assessment
(R,20.02.13; L436)	(R,20.02.13; L457)	(R,20.02.13; L582–614)	(R,20.02.13; L646–683)	(R,20.02.13; L695–724)	(R,20.02.13; L619–640)
"...on the way to the venue to see the client."	"...In hotel X INF03_M had already booked the private meeting room…"	"…client does not seem satisfied with concept… …did not represent brand or audience…"	"…amendments to concept… About the other concept… …alternatives can be explored…"	"…decides to keep options open…about other concepts."	"…INF03_M reacts to negative body language... …tutting… …Spoke about product…"

NB: X=refers to location name.

Option, selection and assessment

In this setting, the client believed the proposed concept did not reflect the brand image of the product nor found it effective enough to target its consumer base. In this dilemma the informant explained the rationale of the concept and offered amendments. A secondary concept, which was not initially presented was also offered but was showcased at a later time in the meeting. The informant also discussed the possibility of exploring *alternative concepts* if the remaining presented concepts were still unsatisfactory. At the end of the meeting the client had examined the secondary brief but requested the informant to explore these *other alternatives*. Throughout the meeting the informant actively engaged with the client and requested feedback and information regarding the requirements and needs of the creative brief.

In this case the open dyadic dialogue between client and informant was significant in aligning the needs of the client with the service offerings of the ad–agency. Indexical signs (social and linguistic) played an important role in mediating the discourse of the relationship. The informant was able to proactively decode the negative body language of the client, such as *vocal tutting* gestures (signalling dissatisfaction) and offered alternative concepts (secondary concept, alternatives). Moreover, through linguistic signs (speech) the informant reassured the client by demonstrating his knowledge of the client's products by reiterating

information related to the product while also comparing the proposed concept and campaign to previous successful campaigns from the ad–agency.

5.6 Critical reflection

In this section, I reflect on two thematic issues that have arisen from field study one, both of which are not encapsulated in the conceptual framework.

Institutional access and logging observations

In terms of data collection the most notable challenge was the arrangement of the field study which had taken a significant amount of time to plan. First, gaining access to an ad–agency was a significant barrier of entry. Access was only granted due to tapping into a network of existing creative contacts who were involved in the advertising industry. One of the contacts referred the researcher to an institution who was willing to engage in the field study. In essence, the creative contact was the trust bridge which connected researcher to ad–agency. Secondly, logging observational Occurrences and phenomena were challenging.

While protocols were established to narrow the scope of observations, it appears that it is only human nature to be distracted, lose focus and inadvertently observe something else. Moreover, the physical clutter and noise of a setting can be disruptive but as Smith (1997) had suggested recalling what the research question is can often bring that focus back. It is important to emphasise that conversations were not logged in verbatim since audio and visual recording equipment was not permitted at the ad–agency. Instead they were logged using the general personal shorthand writing system, where the elimination and/or the replacement of vowels are often exercised to accelerate the pace of data logging. This shorthand system was selected due to its ease of use compared to other more complex notation based shorthand systems.

Power dimension and gender imbalance

Thirdly, the thematic report and narrative accounts convey an underlying *power* dimension in relationships within constructed teams: whether they are between practitioners in the institution (see Narrative of INF01_M) or with external clients (see Narrative of INF03_M). When I use the term power I refer to the ability to influence and change psychological behaviour attitudes and opinions (French and Raven, 1959). This power facet is concentrated between senior staff (directors,

supervisors) and general practitioners in the community, where gentle persuasion and influence is employed as a means to moderate trusting behaviours.

Pivotally, this is reflective of Tan and Thoen's (2000) *party trust*. While I am mindful of the influence of power, particularly in professional relationships, I do not let this facet dominate the analysis. Fourthly, it may be relevant to indicate that both the thematic report and narratives are largely interpreted from a male gendered perspective since those who were job–shadowed are male. This gendered imbalance is consistent with the rest of the institution where male roles dominate female roles in terms of numbers. In sum, this correlates the gendered imbalance perspectives initially proposed by Alvesson (1998).

5.7 Summary

This chapter presented the findings of study one and offer insights, in terms of how trust is operationalized in an offline advertising community of practice, where there is a focus on the agents that influence trust and workflow. It has been divided into seven sections. The second section outlined the contextual setting of the study. It detailed the backdrop of the study and those who were job–shadowed. The third section unwrapped the thematic development of the dataset. Using a semiotic mode of analysis emergent themes were reviewed, defined and reported. The fourth section presented the situational map. The map linked the thematic report to the micro–narratives by connecting prominent themes with trusting behaviours, signs and workflow. The fifth section assessed the two micro–narratives in–depth insofar as to offer a personal account of how trust is practised in physical workplace settings. The sixth section provided a critical reflective account of the study. The following chapter presents the findings of field study two, where there is an emphasis on the structural properties that regulates trust and workflow, in two distinct categories of online professional communities.

Chapter 6

Findings of study two

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of study two and fulfils the third research objective. It is directed by the following research question, *"What structural properties moderate trust and working conditions in online advertising communities?"* In this study there is a focus on the embedded structures that moderate trust in virtual workplace settings. The methods and procedures used in the study were discussed in the methodology chapter. This chapter is divided into six sections. Section two discusses the contextual setting and protocols. It provides a background review of the two categories of online communities (Category A, B). Section three conducts a comparative analysis of both categories. In each category I highlight utility, payoff, motivation and sign variances. I then focus on Category B where I break down the creative workflow process and map user behaviour to understand how trust is practised by users. Section four reviews and defines prominent themes, while the fifth section offers a reflective account of the study. Section six presents the chapter summary.

6.2 Contextual setting

The study was conducted via a computer terminal that was connected to the Internet. It involved observing two categories of online professional communities (non–advertising vs. advertising) and logging structural properties embedded within the respective community websites. I examine two types of structures: 1) embedded signs that warrant trust and 2) prescribed online workflow processes. Temporary online community accounts were created to gain access to these online professional communities but were deleted upon completion of study.

Throughout the study the institutions (website proprietors) and users (creative practitioners) of the communities were not contacted. These users are freelancers and do not work in a traditional ad–agency setting so cannot be called *advertising practitioners*. Instead they perform roles similar to creatives from those institutions (create and develop adverts) so have been labelled *creative practitioners*. I initially conducted the pilot study from the 10th to 21st March, 2012. As the direction of the thesis began to take shape the pilot study became more

significant. Consequentially, both categories of communities were re–examined in March 15th to 25th, 2014 to update the logbook. In addition, from March 27th to 31st, 2014 I spent approximately four days following and mapping the online behavioural pattern of users in the respective communities.

Role and protocols

The role of the researcher in this study can be described as a form of *complete observer* (Gold, 1958; Junker, 1960). In this role the researcher is hidden behind the scenes but observes the two categories of online professional communities with no intervention**.** In the field I adhered to a general set of observational protocols that is inferred by the conceptual framework (see Table 47).

Table 47 Study two: observational protocols

Thematic categories		What to observe	What to log
Mediated exchange (+)	**Relationship state**	Social interaction	General evidence of social exchange (verbal or physical) between users in professional communities.
		Verbal behavior	Focus on verbal signs; verbal nuances and casual conversations, which are manifested as text.
	Analytical perspective	Situational context	General description of utility of online professional communities; the design and aesthetics of situational context.
		Relational context	Focus on the relationship between the user and the situational context.
	Temporal transference	Influential users	General description of users in professional communities, particularly lead users.
		Workflow activity	Focus on how activities are performed in advertising communities, particularly the work flow briefing process.

Similar to the previous study I mediated between molar and molecular observations (Polit and Hunger, 1987) to give depth to the dataset (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002). This involved observing general activities in online professional communities as a whole (molar) while also shifting attention to observe more nuanced patterns of behaviours from users (molecular).

Classifying difference and similarity

A basic set of comparative classifiers were used to determine *differences* and *similarities* (see Table 48). Classifiers were employed because it is often challenging to isolate and identify what is different or similar. Classification therefore was dependent on the philosophical and interpretive stance of the

researcher and the properties that were assigned to those field objects (Pickvance, 2005; Mills *et al*., 2006).

Table 48 Study two: difference and similarity classifiers

Variance	Description
Difference	– Used to *explain* variances. – Isolate and identify consistent irregular patterns that make, Object A distinct and unique from, Object B from the situational context. – Exclude similarities.
Similarity	– Used to *make sense* of variances. – Identify consistent regular patterns that make, Object A equal and comparable to, Object B from which, Object A conforms to the patterns of Object B. – Exclude differences.

Background of field objects

There are two types of field objects: 1) institution and 2) the online community of practice. In the offline domain, the institution is represented as a brick–and–mortar ad–agency (see Chapter 5) but in the online domain they are the website proprietors: they are the people who operate, manage and administer online professional communities (see Fig. 19).

Table 49 Study two: background of Category A communities

Category A Non–advertising			
Nos.	**Name***	**Code**	**Category description**
1.	Efactor	COM01	Users who participate and engage in Category A communities of practice are able to establish and build a network of contacts that connects to other like–minded people, groups, institutions, job offerings and business services.
2.	LinkedIN	COM02	
3.	Viadeo	COM03	
4.	Xing	COM04	

NB: *Website URL: 1) Efactor @ efactor.com, 2) LinkedIN @ linkedin.com, 3) Viadeo @ viadeo.com, 4) Xing @ xing.com.

Category A communities (see Table 49) have a professional audience but are not directly related to the advertising industry. Communities in this category all offer a similar *subscription business model* and *value proposition* (service promise) to its users. However, they target different business sectors or cultural groups. For instance, Efactor attracts entrepreneurial business users, whereas Viadeo has a European orientated focus and mainly attracts French users.

Category B communities are related to the advertising industry. Like Category A they are professional in context, but they differ widely in terms of their value proposition and business model. For instance, all communities in this

category are *contest–based* and adopt the *crowdsource* (see Glossary) *business model* to sustain their operations. Respective communities are centred on the fulfilment of creative briefs. These are packaged as projects, the requirements of which are supplied and funded by external clients. These projects are then publicly posted to the community as a monetary induced competition where users, who are commonly referred to as *creatives* in community, are invited to compete with each other in the form of an open *pitch*: an initial presentation or sale of a creative idea or concept. While this basic process has consistently been found, each community has a unique selling point that distinguishes itself from the other (see Table 50).

Table 50 Study two: background of Category B communities

Category B Advertising			
Nos.	**Name***	**Code**	**Community differences**
5.	Blur	COM05	The community screens and checks user applicants before they are permitted to compete for projects.
6.	Crowdspring	COM06	The community has a reputation system that assigns a score to its users.
7.	Poptent	COM07	The community specializes in the production, refinement and testing of commercial videos.
8.	Zooppa	COM08	The community focuses on the development of graphic designs and commercial videos.

NB: *Website URL: 1) Blur @ blurgroup.com, 2) Crowdspring @ crowdspring.com, 3) Poptent @ poptent.com, 4) Zooppa @ zooppa.com.

6.3 Comparative analysis of communities

Comparative analysis of online communities entail identifying variances: *differences* and *similarities* between the two categories (see Table 48). As outlined in the methodology chapter the analysis was conducted in two parts. The first part compared and contrasted communities in Category A with those in Category B. The second part compared and contrasted communities within Category B.

6.3.1 Category A vs. Category B communities

I first conducted a comparative analysis of communities between Category A and B. Both are professional communities of practice but as I have already illustrated they offer different value propositions and business models to target different professional groups. Identifying these variances can help differentiate advertising communities (Category B) from those that are non–advertising based (Category

A). This can highlight distinct working practices in Category B communities to support a better understanding of their utility and functionality, while also highlighting any website design or user experience issues (Beldad *et al.*, 2010).

6.3.1.1 Compare utility and payoff

The differences of *utility* and *payoff* between the two categories of communities will be reviewed. From the user's perspective, utility refers to the usefulness of a community to fulfil a certain professional needs or demands, whereas payoff refers to the return of investment (outcome), when users participate and actively engage in the community.

Category A: utility and payoff

Category A communities are generally contact–based. While initial membership to these professional communities of practice are free, institutions (website proprietors) sustain their operations through a subscription–based business model where users pay to access further content. In this setup, paid subscriptions can enable a user to unlock additional features which can be used to expand their professional network of contacts and connections. A user's payoff is therefore the acquisition of new contacts in their professional network. These new contacts can lead to knowledge gain and unforeseen cooperative opportunities that can enhance working practices in offline settings (Burrus, 2010), while also paving the way for prospective job offerings (Gralla and Widman, 2008; Burrell, 2014). In sum, these communities are a human resource marketplace matching professionals with their needs and are driven by tapping and exploiting contacts and connections.

Category B: utility and payoff

Category B communities are contest–based and use the crowdsource business model to outsource and solicit contributions of a creative advertising nature. Membership is generally free, though depending on the type of community, the institution may enforce measures to vet and verify the expertise of prospective applicants. The usefulness of communities is determined by the *open–call* facet of the community. In this setup, users openly and freely compete with one another to fulfil projects which are publicly posted by the institution. This democratisation of the creative workflow process lowers the barrier of entry, enabling users from all

professional levels in the community to work in an industry which has traditionally been difficult to enter.

The payoff of pitching and competing in this open contest is therefore the *limited possibility* of a monetary award if the user/s are selected as the winning entrants. Institutions generate income from external clients who they charge for the fulfilment of their creative advertising needs. In this setup, institutions mediate relationships between the external client and users in the community, where they exert stronger influence and control over the latter compared with the former. Institutions elicit creative needs from external clients and are placed in the creative brief. Their briefs detail the nature and requirements of the need (logo design, illustration etc.) and subsequently are packaged as *projects* or *submissions*. Cooperating with the external client, institutions will either publicly announce the brief to the wider community or communicate directly to specific users. Finally, these briefs are then either independently or collectively fulfilled by the end user.

6.3.1.2 Compare motivations and signs

Research indicates that the utility of an online community can highlight a user's motivations (Sutcliffe, 2001). Identifying these motives are considered critical as it can underline the attractiveness of an online institution and their value propositions. Since utility and payoff in the two categories of communities differ widely we can safely presume that the motivations and signs that govern these categories are also different.

Motivation and mixed incentives

A user's motivation of using a community is inferred by the incentive structure of the institution. This structure is an implied proposition formulated by the institution to attract certain target user groups to participate and engage in the community. In essence, the incentive structure implied in Category A communities are different compared to those in Category B. These variances are reflective of the physical world (offline domain) where professionals are driven by a range of intrinsic (opportunity, identity) and extrinsic motivations (money, security) (Centres and Bugental, 1966; Deci, 1972). Since each of the respective two categories attract a different user group, this will have implications to the design of the graphical user interface (Zviran *et a*l., 2006) and the type of signs that are embedded within the user interface (Wang and Fesenmaier, 2003).

Overview of motivations and signs

An overview of the motivations and signs that distinguish the two categories is presented in Table 51. Mixed incentives are listed in ascending order of importance. Signs convey the trust–warranting properties of the trustee: they enable a user (trustor) to assess the trustworthiness of the trustee. Profile refers to the number of professional properties (introduction, education etc.) that are embedded within a user's profile and signifies its *completeness*. A detailed view of the properties of these motivations and signs is further elaborated in Table 52.

Table 51 Study two: motivations and signs–overview

Category	Motivations*	Signs of trust–warranting properties*				
	Mixed incentives	**Profile**	**Reputation**	**Award**	**Circle**	**Follow**
A	1– Contacts 2– Knowledge	08	75% No	100% No	100% Yes	100% Yes
B	1– Monetary 2– Reputation	06	50% No	50% No	100% Yes	50% Yes

NB: *Description for mixed incentives, profile, reputation, award, circle and follow can be found in Appendix G1.

Category A: motivation and mixed incentives

In Category A communities mixed incentives include acquiring contacts, knowledge and opportunity. This is reflective of the intrinsic motivations that regulate higher occupational levels (Centres and Bugental, 1966). An Alexa demographic analysis of communities in this category illustrates that a significant segment of the user base had attended graduate school. According to Alexa this user group is over–represented, relative to the general Internet population (Alexa.com 12th Jan, 2014). In sum, this indicates that users in these online communities have strong professional attributes.

Category B: motivation and mixed incentives

In Category B communities, users who had attended graduate school, are under represented. In contrast, users in this category are extrinsically motivated and are incentivized by monetary rewards which are attributes typically found in lower occupational levels (Centres and Bugental, 1966). This is because money is a basic hierarchical need that ensures safety as it fulfils the basic requirements of security and employment (Maslow, 1943; Deci, 1972).

Analysis of 'user profiles' in both categories

The proposition that users in Category A are intrinsically motivated and category B users are extrinsically motivated, in which both category of users represent different occupational levels, is supported by a random sample of 200 user profiles (100 from each category). Of the 100 profiles selected from Category A communities (25 from the four communities) 74% of the profiles listed advanced qualifications: users had either advanced postgraduate degrees and/or are members of professional organisational bodies. In comparison, in Category B communities only 6% of profiles listed advanced qualifications. However, it should be noted that this low percentage is a result of *incomplete data* from the user's profile. In these settings, users did not put qualifications on their profiles or profile information was listed as private and therefore were not accessible.

Profile as a prominent sign

In Category A, three out of the four communities have extensive properties embedded within their profiles that support the identification of users in the community (education background, employment history). However, these very same properties are weakly represented in Category B communities. In this case the profile remains a prominent sign that differentiates Category A from Category B communities. I explored these profiles in–depth where I analysed their visual and textual properties.

Table 52 Study two: motivations and signs–detailed view

Category A Non–advertising									
		Motivation*	**Signs of trust–warranting properties***					**Alexa ranking*[1]**	
Code	**Name of community**	**Mixed incentives**	**Profile**	**Reputation**	**Award**	**Circle**	**Follow**	**Global rank**	**Most used**
COM01	EFactor	Mc, Mk, Ms*[3]	Po, Pi, Ph*[3]	Ys*[3]	No*[3]	Ys*[3]	Ys*[3]	2354	USA
COM02	LinkedIN	Mc, Mk	Po, Pi, Pe, Ph, Pa, Pw, Pr, Px	No	No	Ys	Ys	12	USA
COM03	Viadeo	Mc, Mk	Po, Pi, Pe, Ph, Pa, Pw, Pr, Px	No	No	Ys	Ys	688	France
COM04	Xing	Mc, Mk	Po, Pi, Pe, Ph, Pa, Pw, Pr, Px	No	No	Ys	Ys	369	Germany
Category B Advertising									
COM05	Blur	Mm, Mr, Mc	Po, Pi, Ph, Pa, Pw	No	No	Ys	No	32470	USA
COM06	Crowdspring	Mm, Mr	Po, Pp, Pi, Ph, Pa, Pw	Ys	No	Ys	No	12947	USA
COM07	Poptent	Mm, Mr	Po, Pp, Pi, Ph, Pa, Pw	No	Ys	Ys	Ys	113319	USA
COM08	Zooppa*[2]	Mm, Mr	Po, Pp, Pi, Ph, Pa, Pw	Ys	Ys	Ys	Ys	42691	USA

NB: *Description for mixed incentives, profile, reputation, award, circle and follow can be found in Appendix G. *[1]Alexa.com site information correct as of 19th March, 2014. *[2]Zooppa website survey conducted on 20th, March 2012, on *original* website before redesign. *[3]Definition of hand–codes can be found in Appendix G2.

Table 53 Study two: user's willingness to upload profile photo

Category A Non–advertising			Category B Advertising		
Code	**Community**	**Upload photo ratio**	**Code**	**Community**	**Upload photo ratio**
COM01	EFactor	11:25	COM05	Blur	05:25
COM02	LinkedIN	17:25	COM06	Crowdspring	08:25
COM03	Viadeo	15:25	COM07	Poptent	08:25
COM04	Xing	17:25	COM08	Zooppa	05:25
Total mean average		060%	**Total mean average**		026%

Visual properties embedded in profiles

First, I examined the visual properties embedded in profiles. An analysis of Category A communities indicates that users are 2.3 times more likely to upload their personal photo compared to communities in Category B (see Table 53). In this context, personal photo refers to the photographic representations of the user, which are uploaded as digital format (JPEG, JIF, PNG, BITMAP) in their profile pages. Graphical representations such as: random images, caricatures, logos etc., which do not depict the user were excluded from the analysis.

Given the physical absence of users in online interactions, personal photographs in profiles, were identified as an effective means of capturing a user's physical properties, which can be used (when triangulated with other properties) in the assessment of trust (Dwyer *et al*., 2007; Hum *et al*., 2011). Despite the significant function of personal photos, users in Category B were still less likely to upload photos to confirm their identities compared to Category A users. This can signal their lack of commitment and openness to participate and engage with other users in the community.

Textual properties embedded in profiles

Secondly, I then examined the textual properties embedded in profiles where I explored the relationship between the type of username used and the quantity of information that is associated with that username in a profile. I discover that in Category A, 92% of profiles used an *orthonym*: a real name which included the first and surname of the user, compared to 15% in Category B communities. In contrast users in Category B are more likely to use a *pseudonym*: an assumed or adopted name/handle that is different from their real names (see Table 54). In sum, uploading personal photos and using an orthonym (real name) may seem trivial

but could signal a user's willingness to be open and transparent with other community users.

Table 54 Study two: use of orthonym and completeness of profiles

Category A Non–Advertising				Category B Advertising			
Code	**Com'unity**	**Ortho–nym ratio**	**Avg. word count**	**Code**	**Com'unity**	**Ortho–nym ratio**	**Avg. word count**
COM01	EFactor	23:25	152	COM05	Blur	04:25	054
COM02	LinkedIN	24:25	369	COM06	Crowdspring	02:25	032
COM03	Viadeo	22:25	314	COM07	Poptent	06:25	026
COM04	Xing	23:25	297	COM08	Zooppa	03:25	015
Total mean average		092%	283 Words	**Total mean average**		015%	032 Words

In closer inspection, the reason why a user may not want to use an orthonym in Category A communities is understandable. For instance, it would put into doubt the professionalism of the user. In this setting, a false name could be costly and result in lost opportunities if another community user or worse a prospective employer is able to confirm the user's intention to deceive. Further analysis of the text has unearthed disparities between the two categories. A basic word count of the profile's *introduction* section, which is used to provide a synopsis of the user (sometimes called general, summary etc.) was conducted.

The results indicate that users in Category A contribute a mean average of 283 words to their profile introductory section, compared to 32 Words from users in category B. This suggests that users in Category A are more likely to complete their profiles insofar as to confirm their identity and degree of professionalism. Moreover, unlike users in Category B, symbolic abstractions such as *reputation rankings* and *awards* are not required because the rich textual properties embedded within profiles are sufficient information containers to assess the intrinsic nature of users. For instance, a user's professional rank or position in the offline institution can be internally validated, by checking referrals from other users or prospective employers.

In this setting, reputation earned offline can be virtually extended and reinforced online (Townsend, 2012). In sum, profiles are designed and experienced differently in both categories of communities. However, this does not necessary mean that Category B is less professional than Category A. Nevertheless, it does convey that users in Category B are less willing to validate their real

identities (upload personal photo, use orthonym etc.) and complete their profiles compared to Category A users. By not validating their identity and professional credentials, such as their expertise, integrity, reputation (see Section 2.4.2.1), they are inhibiting the potential development of prospective relationships: both with users within the community as well as those external clients (whom are in the search for creative talents) that are found outside of the community.

Showcasing professional 'ability' through portfolios

As stated users in Category B are more likely to employ pseudonyms to mask their identity and less likely to expand the textual properties (introduction etc.) embedded in their profiles. However, such action or lack of action, does not give confidence to other users or prospective employers to initiate a relationship of trust. Instead users utilize their working *portfolios* as a leverage to compensate against the signalling deficiencies of their profiles. A portfolio provides a sample arrangement of previous work that showcases a users degree of professionalism (mostly ability).

The portfolio is either directly embedded within the design of the GUI. In this case, the user will upload their works to their personal dashboard or control panel, where it will be shared with others in the community. Alternatively, it can be indirectly accessed through a URL website hyperlink from the user's profile page. While a user's previous work in Category A will be manifested as text in Category B this will manifested in different types of media (graphical, audio–visual works etc.) and is multi–sensory. For instance, a piece of sample work in a user's online portfolio could present itself as a form of a print advertisement (graphic format) or an advertising video commercial (video format).

6.3.2 Category B communities

The subsequent sections represent the second part of the study. It focuses on Category B communities and users where I searched for and identified *structural variances* between the four types of advertising communities. Searching for these *differences* and *similarities* can unearth emergent patterns and the consistency of those patterns. When I refer to structure I mean the *institutional structures* that are embedded within the communities GUI. This enforcement of design presents a prescribed way of practising trust and workflow, particularly how a user fulfils creative briefs and projects.

6.3.2.1 Compare workflow processes

For this part I broke down the four creative workflow processes (see Fig. 29–32 and Table 55–58) employed by the four communities in Category B. The processes were prescribed by the institution to the community and thus followed by users to fulfil creative briefs and projects. Contained in creative briefs were requirements and instructions (provided by external client) to create and develop advertising related ideas or concepts. Central to the fulfilment process was the submission of an initial *pitch* from community users.

Workflow process of Blur community

Fig. 29 and Table 55 shows the prescribed workflow process and steps required to fulfil a creative brief and project by users in the Blur community (COM05).

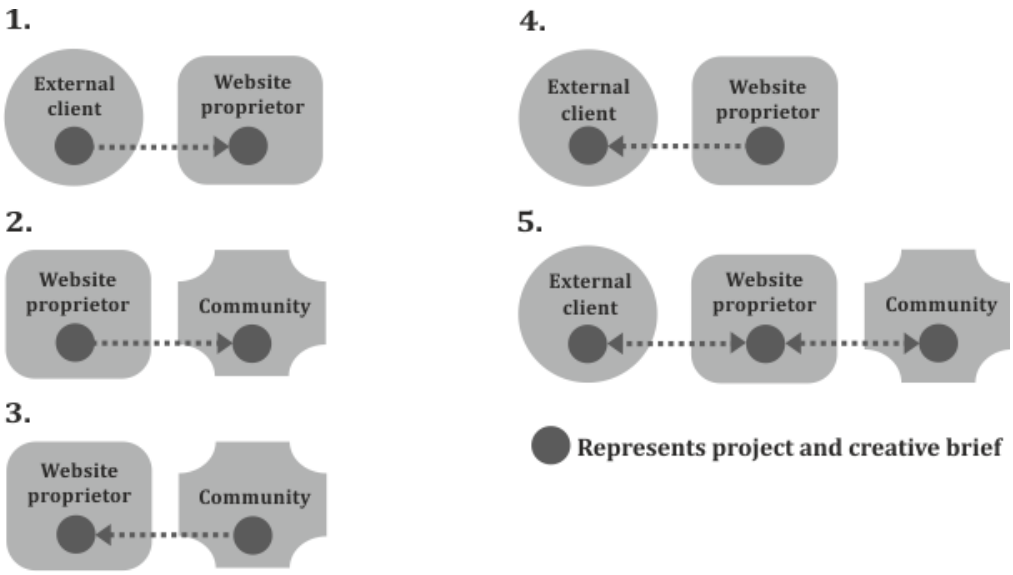


Fig. 29 Workflow process of Blur (COM05)

Table 55 Study two: workflow steps of Blur (COM05)

Nos.	Description
1.	The external client approaches website proprietor with creative brief. The website proprietor cooperates with the external client to define brief instructions.
2.	The website proprietor publicly announces creative brief in community.
3.	Users submit pitches for the creative brief to website proprietor, which are collected and shortlisted.
4.	The website proprietor presents shortlisted pitches to external client whom selects winning pitch.
5.	External client cooperates with user/s in the community through the website proprietor: during which website proprietor regulates progress and delivery of the creative brief until brief deadline.

Workflow process of Crowdspring community

Fig. 30 and Table 56 shows the prescribed workflow process and steps required to fulfil a creative brief and project by users in the Crowdspring community (COM06).

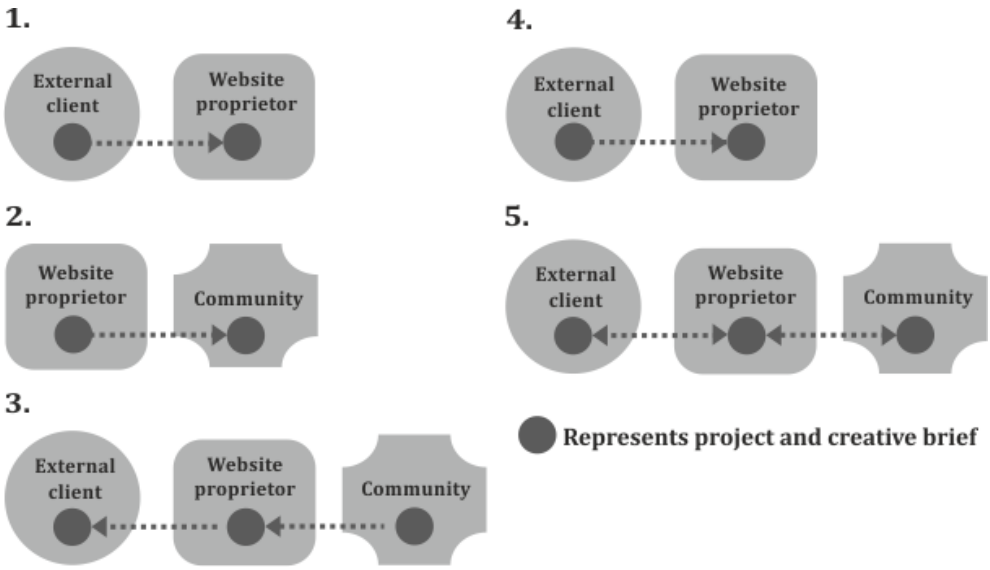


Fig. 30 Workflow process of Crowdspring (COM06)

Table 56 Study two: workflow steps of Crowdspring (COM06)

Nos.	Description
1.	The external client approaches website proprietor with creative brief. The website proprietor cooperates with the external client to define brief instructions.
2.	The website proprietor publicly announce creative brief in community.
3.	Users submit pitches for the creative brief to the website proprietor and the external client.
4.	External client reviews and rates 50+ pitches which is regulated by the website proprietor.
5.	External client selects the top entry users. Feedback is then submitted back to users to refine pitch. This refinement loop continues until brief deadline.

Workflow process of Poptent community

Fig. 31 and Table 57 shows the prescribed workflow process and steps required to fulfil a creative brief and project by users in the Poptent community (COM07).

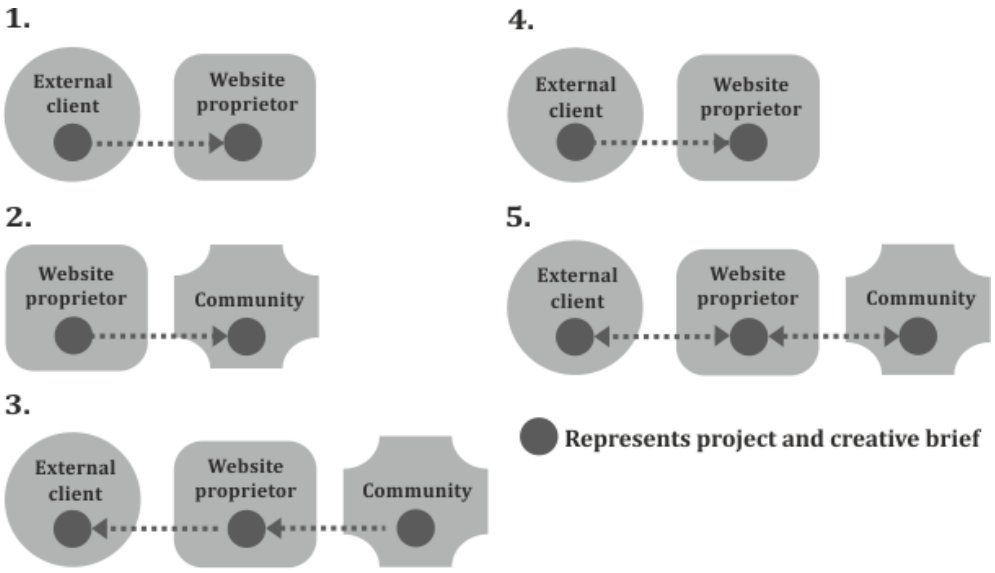


Fig. 31 Workflow process of Poptent (COM07)

Table 57 Study two: workflow steps of Poptent (COM7)

Nos.	Description
1.	The external client approaches website proprietor with the creative brief. The website proprietor cooperates with the external client to define brief instructions.
2.	The website proprietor either publicly announces brief or privately submits it to targeted users depending on the external client's request.
3.	Users submit pitches for the creative brief to the website proprietor and the external client.
4.	External client selects winning pitch from website proprietor.
5.	External client cooperates with user/s and website proprietor and their in–house support teams to refine and test pitch materials until brief deadline.

Workflow process of Zooppa community

Fig. 32 and Table 58 shows the prescribed workflow process and steps required to fulfil a creative brief and project by users in the Zooppa community (COM08).

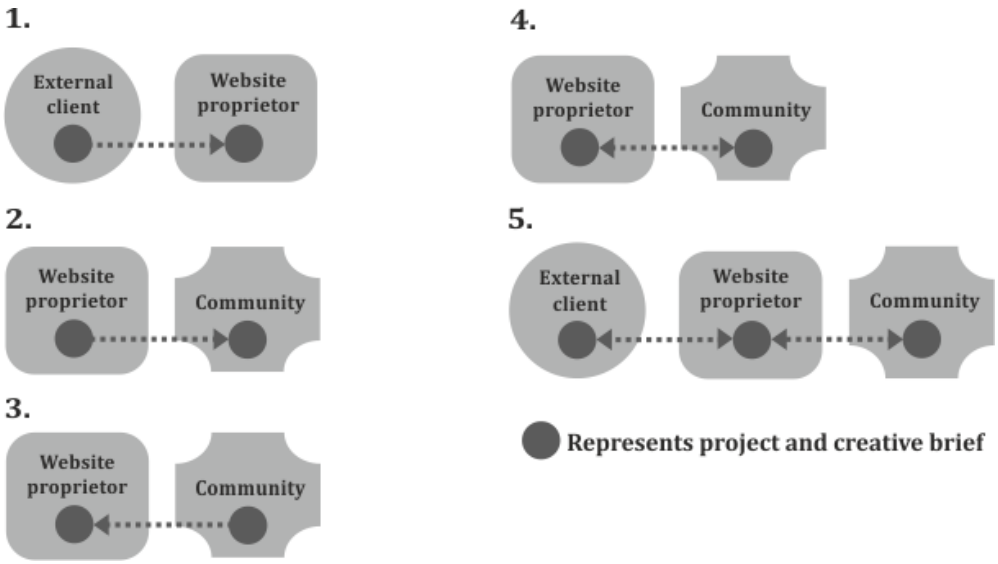


Fig. 32 Workflow process of Zooppa (COM08)

Table 58 Study two: workflow steps of Zooppa (COM08)

Nos.	Description
1.	The external client approaches website proprietor with the creative brief. The website proprietor cooperates with the external client to define brief instructions.
2.	The website proprietor publicly announce creative brief in community.
3.	Users submit pitches for the creative brief to website proprietor.
4.	Pitch entries are voted by community users. Best pitch is awarded *popular submission* award. Then another vote is caste by website proprietor where the best pitch is awarded *personal favorite* award.
5.	External client selects winning pitch from entries. This could be one of the awarded pitches or a pitch that was not awarded. External client then cooperates with user/s through the community until deadline of brief.

Power variance between stakeholders

There are minor workflow differences between the four communities in terms of how creative briefs and projects are fulfilled. However, these minor differences determine the *balance of power* between different stakeholders. For instance, Blur (COM05) as an institution has a high barrier of entry and are selective of whom they permit to join the community. They also exert considerable influence when selecting winning entries and in moderating of client–community relationships. Zooppa in contrast has a more democratic entrant selection process. Entries are

initially voted by community users before they are delivered and recommended to the external client.

This minimises institutional bias regarding the creative assessment of an entry and results in a more transparent workflow process. However, like Blur the institution is equally as authoritative in the moderation of client–community relationship. In both cases, the institution can exercise power, more from the community side than the external client side. This is because they have authoritative control over the community, in terms of regulating the course of communications and relationships (between external client and community), and can exert punitive measures to users in the community if required. This facet is reminiscent of Tan and Thoen's (2000) *control trus*t (see Section 2.4.2.1) where institutional structures can be used to exert influence in interpersonal relationships.

Online workflow similarities to offline domain

Similar to the creative workflow process used in the offline domain (ad–agency), workflow in Category B communities is composed of four basic components: 1) external client, 2) website proprietor, 3) community of practice and 4) creative or creative team (see Fig. 19). First, they consistently require an external client. Like those found in the offline domain (ad–agency) the corporate client sets the requirements of the creative brief. Secondly, they require a corporate institution to construct the community and moderate relationships between different stakeholder parties (external client, community, user or creative, creative team). Whereas the institution is represented as a brick–and–mortar ad–agency in the offline domain, it is represented as website proprietors (website operators, managers) in the online domain.

In this setting, website proprietors provide limited security and assurances for both stakeholders (external client, user) to conduct their activities (McKnight *et al.,* 1998). On one side, external clients are offered a professional service with the expectation of delivery, and on the other side users are given contractual assurances to fulfil and submit creative briefs and are awarded potential monetary prizes, if their pitches are shortlisted and selected. Thirdly, there is the community of practice. In the offline domain this is the formal physical workplace setting where prcatitioners come together and perform their daily duties and routines. In the online domain this is the informal virtual workplace setting. Users of these

communities are separated by geography and time differences and communication is mediated by computer terminals connected to the Internet.

Fourthly, there are the individual users or practitioners who reside in the community. In the offline domain the practitioners come together to form predetermined *constructed teams* to tackle and fulfil a creative brief. In the online domain users or creatives can fulfil creative briefs individually or form a *spontaneous team*. If the latter is chosen users will have to contact other users in the community, whom they may or may not know, and coordinate brief–related tasks in a piecemeal manner. This spontaneous arrangement is reminiscent of the conditions bound in *swift trust in temporary groups* (Kramer and Tyler, 1996; Lacono and Weisband, 1997). However, unlike these studies, the users investigated in this incumbent study are not forced to come together by the institution nor do they enact temporary systems of practices to regulate outcomes.

Instead they are given the choice to screen and assess whom they want to work with. In this setting, trust is not swift but falls in-between the early and medium transitional steps (see Fig. 15). On reflection, institutions both in the offline and online domains adopt a strong power–breaking and interventionist role in the coordination of client–community relationships. However, in the offline domain the exercise of power and control, particularly with the creative department, is less authoritative since the pool of creatives is limited to a handful of specialised practitioners. While the range (of expertise) and number (of volume) of creatives in the online domain is more extensive compared to the offline domain, signalling deficiencies (in profile, portfolio) can cast doubt on the identity of users and their degree of professionalism (expertise, integrity, reputation).

Nevertheless, from the perspective of the external client this increase in number and range can give them more of a creative choice. For instance, in the online domain, external clients can choose to announce the creative briefs publicly in the community to maximise crowd coverage and submission rates, or select a target group or specific user. While this choice is lacking in the offline domain, the validation of professionalism within the institution: which is strengthened by a collective understanding of the requirements and needs of the external client, assures consistency of creative quality and service.

6.3.2.2 Compare workflow activities

I observed and followed the workflow activity patterns of ten users from two distinct communities to identify variances. Five lead users and five new users were selected from Crowdspring (COM06) and Poptent (COM07) respectively. I purposively selected these user groups to identify *competitive rivalry* between new entrants and established users. The criterion to select these users is shown below (see Table 59)**.**

Table 59 Study two: lead and new user criterion

Type	Criterion
Lead user	– More than 1 year user experience in community. – Awarded minimum of 1 prize from a contest.
New user	– Less than 6 month's user experience in community.

When observing a user's public workflow activities, I logged signs that encapsulate a user's historical data. For instance the sign, *submitted projects*, presents a historical record of the number of submissions made by a user. These signs are not always manifest (observable) in the GUI but are sometimes latent and therefore need to be mined and unearthed. For a sign to be eligible to be compared, it has to be present in both communities (COM06, COM07). In sum, five common pragmatic signs were found (see Table 60).

Table 60 Study two: five common pragmatic signs

Nos.	Sign	Description
A.	Submitted projects	Total number of creative briefs a user has submitted to a single contest.
B.	Awards prize	Total number of prizes awarded where each award is equivalent to a single winning creative brief.
C.	Average prize fund	Mean average monetary prize amount awarded to a user.
D.	Cooperation	Determines whether user has cooperated with other users in the community.
E.	Use forum	Determines whether user utilizes public forums in community.

Four workflow–user group correlations

A comparative analysis of the five signs was conducted in both communities (see Table 61). When I mapped the user's workflow activities, relative to the five signs, I uncovered four workflow–user group correlations. The first correlation relates to Sign A (submitted projects) and B (awards prize) and has implications for the

lead user groups in both communities. In this setting, lead users from both communities submit high volumes of project entries which yield low returns. Of the 919 projects that were submitted by the ten lead users from the two communities only 66 projects resulted in a winning entry. This produced a return on investment yield of 7.18%.

Table 61 Study two: user work activity in two communities

		User code	A. Submitted projects	B. Awards prize	C. Average prize fund	D. Cooper–ation	E. Use forum
Crowdspring (COM06)	Lead users	USR04_M	190	35	£184.68	No	Yes
		USR 05_M	11	01	£184.68	No	No
		USR 06_M	39	02	£184.68	No	No
		USR 07_F	39	03	£184.68	No	Yes
		USR 08_M	510	19	£184.68	No	Yes
	New users	USR 09_F	04	00	£0	No	No
		USR 10_F	02	00	£0	No	No
		USR 11_F	04	00	£0	No	No
		USR 12_M	06	00	£0	No	Yes
		USR 13_M	01	00	£0	No	No
Poptent (COM07)	Lead users	USR 14_F	24	01	£615.576	No	Yes
		USR 15_M	37	02	1231.31	No	Yes
		USR 16_M	18	01	£1538.94	No	Yes
		USR 17_F	35	01	£800.23	No	No
		USR 18_M	16	01	£2,154	No	Yes
	New users	USR 19_M	05	00	£0	No	Yes
		USR 20_F	00	00	£0	No	No
		USR 21_M	00	00	£0	No	No
		USR 22_F	02	00	£0	No	No
		USR 23_M	04	00	£0	No	Yes

NB: Converted from US Dollars to Sterling. Rate US$1.00=UK£0.61, at XE.com, March 31st, 2014

The second correlation relates to Sign A (submitted projects), B (awards prize) and E (use forum) and has implications for the lead user group in both communities. In this context, lead users who submit high volumes of entries, which result in a winning submission and a monetary prize, are more likely to use community forums compared to new users, whom have not been awarded a prize from a submission. Of the ten lead users from the two communities, 70% have used the public forums. In contrast, of the ten new users from the two communities, only 30% have used the public forums. However when forums are used, both lead and

new users use them to acquire additional information about the external client's requirements and needs, insofar as to provide clarity as to how the creative brief should be fulfilled. This suggests that website proprietors may have published incomplete or insufficient creative briefs to the public community.

However, the lack of information in creative briefs can create interpretive ambiguity or worse complete misinterpretation of the brief. The third correlation relates to Sign B (awards prize) and C (average prize fund) and has implications to the lead user group in both communities. In this setting, awarded monetary prizes are distributed using different methods. For instance, Crowdspring (COM06) accepts more than one winning entry: where a project's total monetary prize fund is equally distributed amongst a wider range of winning entrants. It is the reason why the average prize fund consistently remains the same. In contrast, Poptent (COM07) accepts only one winning entry: where a project's total prize fund is assigned to only one user. This suggests a user's probability of winning is higher in Crowdspring (COM06) than in Poptent (COM07) at the cost of a reduced monetary prize fund. From an economic game theoretic perspective, the *best response* (outcome of a strategic situation) will therefore be to participate and invest in the former community where results are more favourable.

The fourth correlation relates to Sign A (submitted projects) and D (cooperation) and has implications for both lead and new user groups in the two communities. Regardless of the workflow process or prize award variance in both communities, all users do not cooperate with other community users to fulfil a creative brief. While both communities have embedded structural properties, in the user's GUI to induce interpersonal and inter–group cooperative activity: such as invite buttons, cooperation tabs in user's personal dashboard, there is no manifest observational evidence to suggest that users use such signs to actively seek partnerships and organise spontaneous teams to fulfil project briefs. This may be due to unfamiliarity between different users and groups. For instance, when observing and logging past winning entries, only single users were listed as winners and there was no evidence of joint or cooperative winners.

6.4 Review and define themes

The comparative analysis of Category A and B communities have produced some significant themes. Similar to the previous study, I review and define these emergent general and sub–themes (see Table 62).

Table 62 Study two: definition of general and sub–themes

Nos.	General and sub–themes	Definitions
1.	Variances between Categories A and B	Similarities and differences between Category A and B communities.
1.1	Utility and payoff disparity	Both categories are used differently. Category A is contact–based, where payoff can lead to new contacts; Category B is contest–based, where payoff can lead to monetary rewards.
1.2	Incentive and motivation disparity	Both categories present different incentives. Category A users are intrinsically motivated; Category B users are extrinsically motivated.
1.3	Interface design and sign disparity	The GUI's of both categories are experienced differently. Category A is dependant on profiles to signal trust; Category B is dependant on portfolios, to compliment the sign weakness of profiles.
2.	Variances in Category B	Similarities and differences between Crowdspring (COM06) and Poptent (COM07) in Category B.
2.1	Offline workflow similarities	Online workflow is similar to offline domain: both consist of four components, where institutions adopt a strong interventionist role.
2.2	Workflow nuances shift power balance	Nuances in workflow practices determine power relationship of stakeholders, but institutions consistently exercise *control trust* over community.
2.3	Low probability of winning contest	Lead users more likely to win compared to new users. They submit high submission volumes that yield low returns, but chance of winning increases when prize fund is distributed to more than one entrant.
2.4	Lead users more likely to use forums	Lead users who have won before are more likely to use forums compared to new users. When using forums, users request brief–related information.
2.5	Unwilling to cooperate with user	Despite properties embedded in the GUI to induce cooperation, users are unwilling to work with other user or form spontaneous teams.

6.5 Critical reflection

In this section, I reflect on three thematic issues that have arisen from field study two, which are not encapsulated in the conceptual framework.

Analysis constraints

While I endeavoured to present a comprehensive analysis of Category A and B communities, I was limited to what I could and could not naturally observe and compare. It is said that accessibility to comparative data remains a consistent challenge that limits what properties can and cannot be compared (Øyen, 1990). In this case, analysis was limited to the GUI constraints of community websites: the

signs and embedded properties (textual, visual, multimedia etc.) that could be observed through the website and subsequent webpages.

Manifest and latent phenomenons

Observational phenomena that occur in Community B are not always manifest (clearly visible) but can be hidden and therefore latent. For instance, information about the institution (*about us* section) or regarding the conditions of use (*term of use* section) are often explicit in detail and meaning. However, some communities will not directly disclose the amount of submissions a user has made to the community nor how much a user has won. Conversely, if they have disclosed such information, it is sometimes not directly observable. Instead these phenomena are latent and scattered throughout different webpages of the community and have to be mined, tallied and pieced together.

Limited user insight

Logging observational phenomena from Category B communities has yielded four significant correlations from users, in terms of how they perform their workflow tasks in virtual workplace settings. However, these correlations only offer limited behavioural insight. This limitation is a result of two constraints. First, are the control mechanisms enforced by the institution. These mechanisms formalise behaviour and present a prescriptive pattern of practising workflow. Secondly, is the lack of *openness* to communicate and be direct (Mishra, 1996) with others in the community. Users in general are reluctant to reveal information or be open with others in the community or the institution. In sum, both constraints do not provide answers as to why they had enacted some of those behaviours.

6.6 Summary

This chapter presented the findings of study two and offer insights, in terms of how trust is operationalized in two distinct categories of online professional communities, where there is a focus on the institutional structures that moderate trust and workflow. It has been divided into six sections. The second section provided a background review of the two categories of communities: Category A represents non–advertising communities, whereas Category B represents advertising communities. In the third section I conducted a comparative analysis of both categories to identify utility, payoff, motivation and signs variances. These

variances highlighted distinctions between both categories. I then conducted an in–depth examination of Category B communities, where I broke down the creative workflow process and mapped patterns of behaviour to understand how trust and workflow is practised by users. The fourth section reviewed and defined prominent themes from the findings of the study, while the fifth section presented a critical reflective account of the study. The following chapter presents the findings of field study three, where there is an emphasis on the agents that influence trust and workflow in two distinct online advertising communities of practice.

Chapter 7

Findings of study three

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of field study three and fulfils the fourth research objective. It is directed by the following research question, *"What properties of trust are aligned to the creative workflow process of agents in online advertising communities?"* In this study there is a focus on the agents that moderate trust in virtual workplace settings. The methods and procedures employed in the study were discussed in the methodology chapter. The study is conducted in two parts (Part A, B) and the chapter is divided into eight sections. Section two presents the contextual setting and protocols. Section three examines Part A of the study: the cognitive walkthrough. Section four presents Part B of the study, the main interview. I apply the same thematic–narrative method to analyse the interview dataset as I had done in the first study. Section five presents the situational map, it is the strategic nexus point that bridges the thematic and narrative components. Section six presents the two micro–narratives. It provides in–depth narrative accounts of two prominent themes. Section seven offers a reflective account of the study. Section eight presents the summary.

7.2 Contextual setting

Parts A and B of the study were conducted via a computer terminal that was connected to the Internet. Two main software applications were used: 1) Skype, an Internet telephony voice call application and 2) Camstudio a screencasting application that captures onscreen movements.

Part A, is the cognitive walkthrough. I used the Camstudio application to record (in digital video format) the walkthrough process. From the producer side, an informant would *verbally describe* her onscreen actions as she navigated to different tabs and webpages on the community's graphical user interface to fulfil the three scenario–orientated tasks (see Table 33). The onscreen mouse cursor provided an anchor from which track navigation patterns. At the receiving end, I accessed the same webpage as the informant from an alternative community account. I then mimiced her navigation behaviour, based on her verbal

descriptions. At no point of the study did I access the informant's personal community account.

Part B, is the main interview. Interviews were conducted via Skype and recorded via digital voice recorder. The first batch of pilot studies were conducted between, February to March, 2012 and involved six informants. Due to the redirection of the research and the emphasis on acquiring an informant driven perspective of the phenomenon, in 2014 the sample size of the study was expanded to include an additional fourteen informants and this phase was conducted between, January to May, 2014.

Role and protocols

In Part A, when observing informants navigation patterns, I adopted the role of *observer as participant* stance (Gold, 1958; Junker, 1960) and adhered to a general set of observational protocols that is inferred by the conceptual framework (see Table 63).

Table 63 Study three: observational protocols

Thematic categories		What to observe	What to log
Mediated exchange (+)	**Relationship state**	Social interaction	General description of any form of social exchange with other members when an informant conducts cognitive walkthrough in community.
		Perceptions and verbal behavior	Focus on verbal signs; verbal nuances, when informant describes cognitive walkthrough to researcher.
	Analytical perspective	Situational context	General description of the aesthetic design of the community and the types of properties that are embedded in the communities interface.
		Relational context	Focus on the relationship between the informant and the creative brief–based activities that had to be completed.
	Temporal transference	Influential informants	General description of any influential community members that the informant had contacted or had communicated with.
		Workflow activity	Focus on how brief–based activities are performed and what tabs were clicked or scrolled when shadowing informants.

In Part B, I borrowed and adapted protocols traditionally used in *contextual interviews* (see Table 64). These protocols were considered appropriate for the study since it was principally centred on the interaction of the users (Holtzblatt and Jones, 1995). When conducting interviews behavioural questions were asked

before opinionated questions, insofar as to establish inferences to the reasons of such behaviours (Patton, 1987).

Table 64 Study three: interview protocols

Nos.	Stage	Time	Actions
1.	Conventional	5m	A. Welcome and greet informants
			B. Introduce researcher
			C. Explain purpose of study
			D. Guide informant to interview format
			E. Confirm consensual agreement
			F. Confirm permission to record interview
2.	Contextual	15m	A. Observe and listen to informant
			B. Perform cognitive walkthrough
			C. Follow observational protocols
3.	Transition	45m	A. State new rules of study
			B. Ask Occurrence–based questions
			C. Prompt and probe informants
4.	Wrap up	10m	A. Summarize learned actions
			B. Correct any misunderstandings
			C. Emphasis confidentiality and implications of study
			D. Confirm researchers contact details
			E. Wire transfer money to informant
			F. Request email to acknowledge payment

Background of field objects

Two main field objects constituted the study: 1) the two online advertising communities and 2) the twenty informants who utilize these communities. I provide a backdrop of the former followed by the latter. The two online advertising communities are named as: 1) Blur (COM05) and 2) Zooppa (COM08). Both communities are from Category B communities in study two (see Table 50). Selection of communities was based on the criterion set in Appendix B. Moreover, preference was given for these communities due to their workflow similarities.

In short, both communities use the crowdsource model to outsource and solicit contributions in the form of an *open call* to an undefined size of crowd (Howe, 2006; Branbham, 2008). They are contest–based, where a creative's winning contributions can result in a monetary prize. Most critically they are centred on the fulfilment of creative briefs packaged as projects. I present a brief

overview of the twenty informants involved in the study (see Table 65). From each respective community five *lead* and *new* informants were selected to identify trust and workflow variances. The criterion used to select lead and new informants was the same used in study two (see Table 59). Basic background information was extracted from their public community profiles, which were supplemented by interview data from the respective informants.

Table 65 Study three: background of informants

	Informant code		Expertise	Location	Subm'ted projects*	Award prize	Total awards
Blur (COM05)	Lead informants	INF24_M	Art and graphics	U.K.	26	1	£1,564.62
		INF25_F	Art and graphics	U.K.	33	2	£1,877.60
		INF26_F	Graphic and copy	U.K.	48	2	£2,190.53
		INF27_F	Art and graphics	U.S.A.	62	2	£1,877.60
		INF28_M	Graphic and copy	Mexico	51	1	£938.831
	New informants	INF29_M	Videography	U.S.A.	15	0	0
		INF30_M	Art and graphic	U.K.	9	0	0
		INF31_F	Graphic and copy	U.K.	2	0	0
		INF32_F	Art and graphic	U.S.A.	6	0	0
		INF33_F	Graphic and copy	U.S.A.	4	0	0
Zooppa (COM08)	Lead informants	INF34_F	Videography	U.S.A.	36	1	£1,251.83
		INF35_M	Videography	Canada	46	1	£2,190.70
		INF36_M	Videography	U.K.	17	1	£1,251.83
		INF37_M	Videography	U.S.A.	15	1	£938.871
		INF38_M	Graphic and copy	Canada	52	2	£2,503.52
	New informants	INF39_M	Videography	U.S.A	3	0	0
		INF40_M	Art and graphic	U.S.A	1	0	0
		INF41_M	Videography	Finland	1	0	0
		INF42_F	Videography	U.K.	6	0	0
		INF43_M	Art and graphic	U.S.A.	4	0	0

NB: Total awards were converted to Sterling Pounds at following rate US$1.00=UK£0.62 at XE.com, June 14th, 2014.

7.3 Study Part A

This section presents the findings of the cognitive walkthrough. Informants were given three scenario–orientated tasks to complete (see Table 33). It occupied the initial 15m of the study.

7.3.1 Walkthrough logs

Logs were compiled from two sources: 1) Camstudio videos and 2) interview voice recordings. Camstudio videos were played back to track onscreen mouse cursor movements, these videos were synced with the voice recording from the interview to determine time invested in community tabs and webpages.

Table 66 Study three: time invested in webpages

	Informant code		Home*	Inbox*	Prof'l/ port. page*	Com/ forum page*	Contest page*	Entry page*	Other page*	Total time
Blur (COM05)	Lead informants	INF24_M	1.2m	2.4m	0.9m	0.8m	3.2m	0m	2.4m	10.9m
		INF25_F	1.9m	2.1m	2.2m	1.7m	2.5m	0m	1.2m	11.6m
		INF26_F	1.8m	1.8m	0m	1.3m	3.9m	2.2m	1.4m	11.1m
		INF27_F	1.6m	1.2m	1.1m	0m	3.2m	3.1m	1.1.m	11.3m
		INF28_M	1.1m	0m	0m	1.8m	3.4m	2.7m	1.8m	10.8m
	New informants	INF29_M	1.4m	1.3m	0m	0.5m	2.3m	2.6m	1.1m	11.2m
		INF30_M	1.5m	1.6m	1.2m	2.9m	2.6m	3.5m	2.3m	15.6m
		INF31_F	0.8m	2.4m	2.1m	0.5m	2.6m	1.4m	1.6m	11.4m
		INF32_F	1.1m	1.2m	0m	0.2m	0.9m	1.3m	2.3m	7m
		INF33_F	1.4m	1.6m	0.8m	1.3m	2.8m	0.5m	1.4m	9.8m
Zooppa (COM08)	Lead informants	INF34_F	1.1m	1.2m	1.2m	1.6m	2.8m	3.2m	1.2m	12.3m
		INF35_M	1.4m	0.6m	0.9m	1.8m	2.6m	2.1m	1.5m	10.9m
		INF36_M	1.5m	0.9m	1.2m	2.6m	2.8m	2.1m	1.2m	12.3m
		INF37_M	0.8m	1.4m	1.4m	2.1m	3.0m	2.4m	1.5m	12.6m
		INF38_M	1.7m	1.1m	0.7m	0.8m	2.4m	1.8m	1.1m	9.6m
	New informants	INF39_M	1.6m	1.7m	2.8m	0.3m	1.9m	0m	2.3m	10.6m
		INF40_M	1.2m	1.3m	2.0m	0.8m	1.4m	1.5m	1.6m	9.8m
		INF41_M	1.9m	1.2m	1.5m	0.5m	1.8m	0m	1.8m	8.7m
		INF42_F	1.1m	1.7m	0.8m	1.2m	2.6m	2.1m	1.2m	10.7m
		INF43_M	1.8m	0.7m	1.7m	0.9m	2.7m	1.6m	1.7m	11.1m
Percentage*[1]			**12.7 %**	**12.5 %**	**10.3 %**	**10.4 %**	**23.4%**	**15.5 %**	**13.9 %**	**n/a**
Total time of all informants										**219.3 m**

NB: *Description for home, inbox, prof'l, som/forum, contest page, entry page and *'other'* page can be found in Appendix G3. *[1]Percentage of time spent on specific webpage relative to total time.

Units of time were measured in minutes and only webpages where informants had stayed for a minute or more were logged. As noted, descriptions of the tabs (home, inbox etc.) that were used can be found in Appendix G3. Webpages where the informant had spent less than one minute or had unintentionally visited

were grouped in *other pages* (see Appendix 7.4). These other pages were logged in ascending temporal order. Accompanying Table 66 are screenshots of the two respective online advertising communities (Blur, Zooppa), which mark (in black dots) the most frequently visited tabs and hyperlinks in the home and contest pages (see Fig. 33–34).

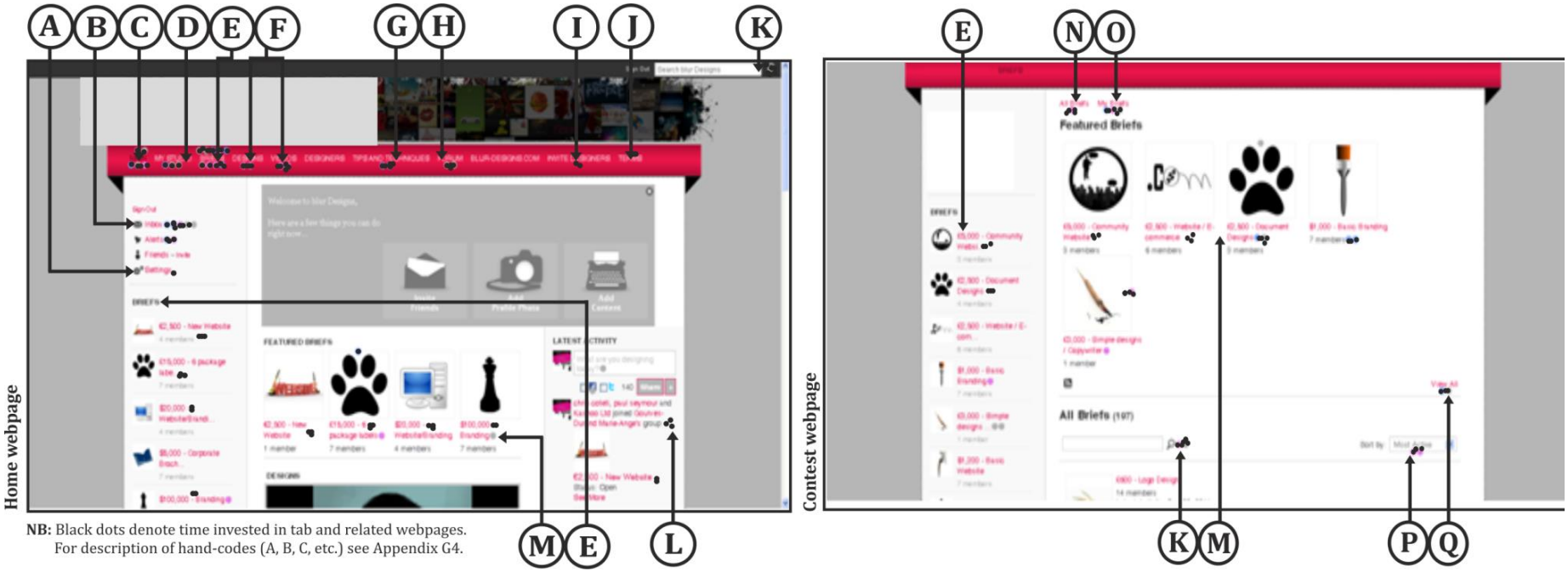


Fig. 33 Annotated screenshots of webpages in Blur (COM05)

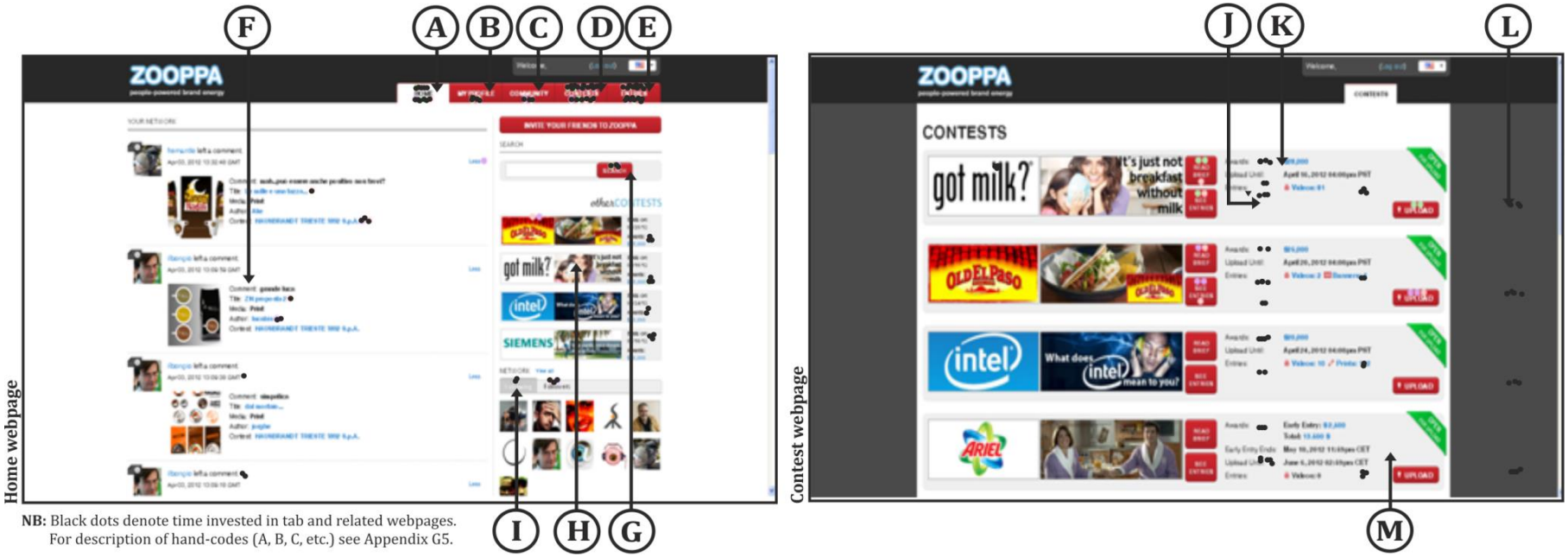


Fig. 34 Annotated screenshots of webpages in Zooppa (COM08)

7.3.2 Walkthrough report

Despite the graphical user interface design differences of the two respective online advertising communities, the navigation behaviour of informants in both communities conveys similar patterns of usage.

Communications: time invested in home webpages

When informants login they were directed to the default home/main webpages. Informants on average spent 12.7% on these pages where attention was placed on contest related materials, such as *featured briefs,* which are displayed at the front of the website. Within this default webpage informants would typically click tabs or links which directed them to the e–mail/inbox. On average 12.5% of the time was invested on these related pages. Within the Email/inbox pages informants would check if there was any messages from the institution (website proprietors) regarding contest related materials, particularly any updated information on creative briefs.

Professional identity: time invested in personal webpages

Informants invested 10.3% of time in the profile/portfolio tab and webpages. While at these pages informants did not edit or add information on their personal profiles, instead attention was focused on their portfolios, to ensure that relevant and updated works were uploaded and presented. Of the twenty informants, three uploaded creative works (images, videos) to their online portfolios.

Community relations: time invested in forum webpages

Informants invested 10.4% of time in the forum tab and webpages. In average, lead informants invested 20.1% longer in these pages compared to new informants. When both lead and new informants visited community pages, they typically searched for brief–related information. Conversely, no informant had contributed to the community (forum posting, blog entry etc).

Competition: time invested in contest webpages

The contest and entry/review pages were used in conjunction with each other and were most frequently used compared to the previously mentioned tabs. Separately, informants invested 23.4% of time on contest pages and 15.5% of the time on the Entry/review pages. In the contest sections, informants would browse through and read potential creative briefs. If creative briefs were made public by

the institution then informants would then access and examine these briefs. Attention would focus on the quality and volume of entries. Lead informants invested 6.1% longer in these two pages compared to new informants.

General navigation: time invested in 'other' tabs and webpages

Informants invested 13.9% on *other* tabs. These were webpages where the informant had spent less than one minute or had unintentionally clicked on the section (see Appendix 7.4). Informants invested most of their time viewing user profiles, community news and creative resources. As for the former, fifteen of the twenty informants viewed the profiles of other users in the community with a focus on assessing their previous creative works (portfolios). Thirteen informants viewed the community news insofar as to be updated with latest brief–related information. Six of the informants visited the creative resources sections, to familiarise themselves with the creative workflow process. However, these webpages are more likely to be visited by new informants than lead informants.

Walkthrough summary

In short, relative to the first task–orientated scenario (see Table 33) informants from both online advertising communities, would use the home/main webpages initially when they entered the community. This was due to the fact that it was set as the default page. In this page they would invest time in the e–mail/inbox pages. Regarding the second task of creative brief fulfilment, informants would view the creative brief sections embedded in the front pages (features) and verify them through the entry and review webpages to evaluate fulfilment potential. This was done by assessing the: brief and project requirements, deadlines and volume of submitted briefs already submitted (if available).

High submission volume may deter informant from entering. If an informant was attracted by a specific brief and project they would accrue additional information about the brief by accessing forum webpages or corresponding with the institution directly. A prominent theme was a need to acquire additional information to fulfil brief needs and requirements. Finally, as for the third task of establishing of fostering relationships, informants would invest the least amount of time in assessing potential cooperative relationships. When informant did actively search for users (through the task) portfolios were weighted more significantly than profiles in the assessment of professional ability.

7.4 Study Part B

I use the same thematic–narrative method and procedure to analyse interview transcript dataset, as I originally had done in the first study. Subsequent data analysis resulted in emergent categories and themes which will be reviewed and defined in the forthcoming sections.

Segmentation of Occurrences

I segmented the dataset into Occurrences: paragraphs that represent a vested effort to log a general or focused description of an event or action. While the method and procedure with study one may be similar, how Occurrences were constructed are different. Whereas Occurrences in study one were unstructured, Occurrences in the incumbent study was more structured.

Table 67 Study three: structured Occurrence overview

Study two		**Study three**
Nos.	**Sub–Themes**	**Occurrences**
1.3	Difference signs of trust–warranting properties	Experiences and signs of trust–warranting properties
2.4	All informants do not cooperate	Willingness to cooperate and contribute
1.2	Differences in motivations	Motivations and utility
1.1	Differences in utility and payoff	
2.1	Workflow process involves three objects of trust	Brief fulfilment processes and experiences
2.2	Low probability of winning a contest	Perceived expectations of community and desired community properties
2.3	Lead informants more likely to use public forums	

Occurrences were more structured because study activities were inferred from the prior two studies. More specifically, the thematic findings from the second study (see Table 67) were used to form questions and probes. For each Occurrence type I formulated a *general question* that was followed by *a focused probe*. Probes present an in–depth account of an Occurrence (see Table 68). Consequentially, when interviews were conducted and findings compiled Occurrences from the dataset were thus bound to the context of these questions and probes.

Table 68 Study three: formation of questions and probes

Occurrence type	Codes*	Formalizing questions and probes
Motivations and utility	Mu–Ge–01	General question as to what motivated the informant to join the community.
	Mu–Fp–02	Focused probe of motivational factors and utility of the community.
Experiences and signs of trust–warranting properties	Te–Ge–03	General question whether informant has experienced any issues with using these communities.
	Te–Fp–04	Focused probe of types of trust relationships informant has experienced in community and how informant assess these relationships.
Brief fulfilment processes and experiences	Bf–Ge–05	General question as to how an informant fulfils creative brief in community.
	Bf–Fp–06	Focused probe to evaluate differences in online and offline workflow processes to fulfil a creative brief.
Willingness to cooperate and contribute	Cc–Ge–07	General question to determine whether informant has cooperated or contributed in community.
	Cc–Fp–08	Focused probe to reveal an informants personal thoughts of cooperating and contributing to the community.
Perceived expectations and desired properties	Ea–Ge–09	General question to determine informant's thoughts of using advertising communities to fulfil creative briefs.
	Ea–Fp–10	Focused probe to identify informant's expectations and desired properties of the community.

NB: *Codes refer to the question or probe type relative to their Occurrences. Descriptions of question and probe codes can be found in Appendix A4.

Deployment of a priori codes

A priori keywords and groups (see Appendix 1.2) were deduced from the general question and focused probe findings from the dataset. Keywords and groups were highlighted then contextualised in broader sentences: semantic meanings interpreted from those sentences subsequently formed the inductive codes. The list of a priori codes (see Appendix 1.2) used in the study, relative to their Occurrence type, is shown in Table 69.

Table 69 Study three: Occurrences relative to a *priori* codes

Occurrence type	General and focused codes*	*[1]a *priori* codes
Motivations and utility	Mu–Ge–01	Ap–Ot–02, Ap–Mt–04, Ap–Mt–05, Ap–St–08, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–03, Me–Ft–05
	Mu–Fp–02	
Experiences and signs of trust–warranting properties	Te–Ge–03	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–Ot–02, Ap–Mt–04, Ap–Mt–05, Ap–St–06, Ap–St–08, Rs–Ct–01, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–06, Me–Dt–01, Me–Dt–02, Me–Ft–04, Tt–Dy–01, Tt–Dy–02, Tt–Tr–05, Tt–Tr–07
	Te–Fp–04	
Brief fulfilment processes and experiences	Bf–Ge–05	Ap–Ot–02, Ap–Ot–03, Ap–Mt–04, Ap–Mt–05, Ap–St–08, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–04, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–05, Tt–Dy–02, Tt–Tr–07
	Bf–Fp–06	
Willingness to cooperate and contribute	Cc–Ge–07	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–Ot–02, Ap–Mt–04, Ap–Mt–05, Ap–St–06, Ap–St–07, , Rs–Ct–01, , Rs–At–04, Me–Dt–01, Me–Dt–02 , Tt–Tr–06
	Cc–Fp–08	
Perceived expectations and desired properties	Ea–Ge–09	Ap–Ot–01, Ap–Ot–02, Ap–Mt–04, Ap–Mt–05, Ap–St–08, Rs–Ct–02, Rs–At–04, Rs–De–06, Me–Ft–04, Me–Ft–05, Tt–Dy–02, Tt–Tr–05, Tt–Tr–07
	Ea–Fp–10	

NB: *Codes refer to question or probe type relative to their Occurrence type, as shown in Table 68. These code descriptions can be found in Appendix A4. *[1]*A priori* codes refer to specific *'trust'* keywords and groups, which were identified and deduced from the segmented Occurrences. Description of trust codes can be found in Appendix A2.

7.4.1 Categories and emergent themes

Initial inductive codes from the dataset went through a phase of sorting and filtering. During this procedure categories played a central role in the deduction of the data and the refinement of sub and general themes (see Table 70).

7.4.2 Review and define themes

Emergent sub and general–themes were mapped back to Occurrences to indicate that they corresponded to the entire dataset, a procedure recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006). Table 71 illustrate the second–order–categories with their final inductive codes, which were inherited from the first–order categories. Consequentially, definitions of themes were induced from second–order categories and their inherited inductive codes. Definitions were then linked back to first–order categories, from which thematic definitions were formulated (see Table 72). Critical to the formulation of thematic definitions were *keyness* of inherited codes from second–order categories.

Table 70 Study three: categories and emergent themes

Codes (A+)	First–order categories	Codes (B+)	Second–order categories	Emergent themes	
				Sub–themes	General–themes
01.	Greater public exposure	**01.**	Informants motivations to participate	Motivated by chance and opportunity	Focused utility
02.	Increase reputation				
03.	Community attractiveness	**02.**	Incentives offered by the institution	Incentivized by monetary rewards than community statues	
04.	Monetary prizes				
05.	Unfamiliar with members	**03.**	Relationship with community members	Members viewed as competitors rather than cooperators	Weak–ties
06.	Issues of free–riding, mimicry and deception				
07.	Weak signs of trust–warranting properties				
08.	Delays in prize payment	**04.**	Relationship with institution	Uncertain of institutions ability to deliver services	
09.	Weak physical infrastructure				
10.	Weak communications				
11.	Incomplete information	**05.**	Fulfilment of creative briefs	Gaps in brief is a sign of unprofessionalism	Briefing issues
12.	Incorrect information				
13.	Lack of professionalism				
14.	online fulfilment process	**06.**	Fulfilment processes used online and offline	Physical contact with external client is preferred	
15.	offline fulfilment process				
16.	Contact external client				
17.	offline physical contact	**07.**	Cooperating with community members	Prefer to cooperate offline than online	Com'uity disengage–ment
18.	Uncertain of identity				
19.	Read relevant contributions	**08.**	Contributing to welfare of community	Will view but less likely to contribute to community	
20.	Unlikely to contribute				
21.	Dislike social encouragements				
22.	Perceived chance of winning	**09.**	Before and after using community	Expectations do not meet Experiences	Unfulfil'd expectat–ons
23.	High investment low returns				
24.	Informed briefing process	**10.**	Desired institutional properties	Desire for greater openness and fairness	
25.	Increase or distribute prize fund fairly				
26.	Institutional openness				

Table 71 Study three: second–order category

Inherited codes from first–order	**– 01** Create awareness of informant **– 02** Form of self promotion **– 03** Being identified as an expert **– 04** Chance of winning **– 05** Work with famous brands	**– 01** Cash prize rewards **–02** Institutional incentives **– 03** Interest to compete in community contest **– 04** Strengthen reputation statues in community	– **01** Do not know members **– 02** Members viewed as competitors **– 03** Easy to steal or free ride ideas and concepts **– 04** Pretending to be an expert **– 05** Difficult to assess identity of members – **06** Weak properties to signal trust	**– 01** Uncertain of institutions abilities **– 02** Payment issues **– 03** Issues with uploading contents **– 04** Feel not appreciated **– 05** Do not communicate directly **– 06** Impersonal Communications
Second–order category	**B01. Motivated by chance and opportunity**	**B02. Incentivized by monetary rewards than community statues**	**B03. Creatives viewed as competitors rather than cooperators**	**B04. Uncertain of institutions ability to deliver services**
Inherited Codes from first–order	**– 01** Dissatisfied with missing brief information **– 02** Wrong information on brief **– 03** Poor professional practices **– 04** Inability to communicate mistakes	**– 01** online workflow process **– 02** Offline workflow process **– 03** More client information to clarify/validate info. **– 04** Face–to–face contact with client preferred	**– 01** More likely to use people informant knows **– 02** Cemented by offline relationships **– 03** Preference of physical contact **– 04** No evidence of expertise **– 05** Establish contacts offline but work online	**– 01** Read brief materials **– 02** Not social but professional community **– 03** Skeptical of incentivized contributions **– 04** Contributing yields minimal benefits
Second–order category	**B05. Gaps in brief is a sign of unprofessionalism**	**B06. Physical contact with external client is preferred**	**B07. Prefer to cooperate offline than online**	**B08. Likely to view than to contribute to community**
Inherited codes from first–order	**– 01** Significant investment to fulfil brief **– 02** Institution makes promises to creative's **– 03** Difficult to win contest **– 04** Lead informant become barriers for new informers **– 05** Too many competitors	**– 01** Clarify brief fulfilment process **– 02** Better physical infrastructure **– 03** Accurate information of briefs **– 04** Increase cash prize fund **– 05** Distribute prize fund fairly **– 06** Honesty and openness in process and communications		
Second order category	**B09. Expectations do not meet Experiences**	**B10. Desire for greater openness and fairness**		

Table 72 Study three: definitions of general and sub–themes

Nos.	General and sub–themes	Definitions
1.	Focused utility	Informants use online advertising community for specific reasons; they are motivated by chance and opportunism, and incentivized by monetary rewards.
1.1.	Motivated by chance and opportunity	Informants are motivated by chance of winning (to supplement income) and the opportunity to be associated with trustworthy brands.
1.2.	Incentivized by monetary rewards than community statues	Informants are more incentivized by monetary rewards than building community reputation.
2.	Weak–ties	Informants exhibit weak interpersonal ties with other creatives* and the institution: which is caused by unfamiliarity of creatives and institutional uncertainty.
2.1.	Creatives viewed as competitors than cooperators	Informants are aware of dishonest behavior from creative: whom are viewed as competitors than cooperators
2.2.	Uncertainty of institutions ability to deliver service	Delay of payment and weak physical infrastructure undermine institutions ability to deliver services.
3.	Briefing issues	Weakly defined briefs causes dissatisfaction and undermines institutional professionalism: this can be compensated by allowing contact with external clients.
3.1.	Gaps in brief is a sign of unprofessionalism	Incomplete or incorrect information on creative briefs undermines professionalism of institution.
3.2.	Physical contact with external client is preferred	Physical contact with external client is preferred to validate brief requirements and creative conceptualizations.
4.	Community disengagement	Informants are disengaged from community: they are less likely to cooperate or contribute to the welfare of the community, where there are no perceived benefits.
4.1	Prefer to cooperate offline than online	Informants prefer to cooperate offline and then cement physical relationships through the online community.
4.2	Likely to view materials than contribute	Informants are more likely to view brief–related materials than contribute to the welfare of the community.
5.	Unfulfilled expectations	Expectations of community are unfulfilled: they are misaligned with acquired experiences, but can be fulfilled through greater institutional transparency and fairness.
5.1	Expectations do not meet experiences	Informant's expectations prior to using the community are misaligned with their acquired experiences.
5.2	Desire for greater openness and fairness	Informant's dissatisfaction with institution can be diminished through greater institutional openness and fairness.

NB: *Creatives/creative practitioner (see Glossary).

7.4.3 Report themes

Reporting entails describing the general and sub–themes. These descriptions are supported by data extracts from the interview transcripts and by tallying the number of informants whom are aligned to those themes.

7.4.3.1 Theme 1: focused utility

The first general–theme is focused utility. It refers to the perceived usefulness of the institution and community. It is composed of two sub–themes: motivated by chance and opportunity (1.1) and incentivized by monetary rewards (1.2). This theme reports on the informant's principal motivations and the parallel incentives offered by the institution, which trigger these primal motives.

Sub–theme 1.1: motivated by chance and opportunity

This sub–theme refers to extrinsic motivations. In the lead informant group six of the ten informants are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group seven are aligned. In short, lead and new informants from both communities are motivated by chance and opportunity, which is induced by the incentive structure of the institution. By competing in virtual contests creatives can supplement existing incomes and be associated with trustworthy brands.

Perceived chance of contest success

In extract 25 INF36_M acknowledges that *'works drying up in the real world'*. There is the perceived notion that there is more work (projects) in the virtual domain than there is in the physical domain and the competition to elicit such works is less intense. This is supported by the statement, *"I hear there are less people in this site..."* from INF30_M.

Extract 25 Perceived chance of success

> "...works drying up in the real world a little bit and it seems there should be some sort of system for getting clients, these kind'a competitions are a good way of getting work and a second income..."
>
> (INF36_M,24.03.12; L007-0029)

Opportunity to work with trustworthy brands

Informants who are motivated by chance also seek opportunity. Informants are attracted by the opportunity of working with familiar consumer goods companies.

However, it is not the institutions per se that informants want to be associated with but the *brands* that they represent (Microsoft, Gillette). Brands in this context can be conceived as symbolic signs (see Section 3.2) which enable consumers to identify and bond with a product (Aaker, 1992). Brands can signal the quality (Ford, 2005) and trustworthiness of a product (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001).

Extract 26 Association with trustworthy brands

> "...you are working with real brands...it's a great opportunity...It makes you feel part of the crew. When clients see that you have those brands in your portfolio then hopefully it will pull in some more work..."
>
> (INF31_F,16.01.14; L010-038)

> "...its big names, it's not small, little companies, that are just paying a couple of dollars for this advertising...its huge, loud companies that carry a lot of clout. We got to do a shoot for 'Microsoft' and we got noticed by X..."
>
> (INF39_M,03.02.14; L018-046)

In the dataset, brand is a significant keyword that has been recorded from seventeen of the twenty informants. Informants are eager to be associated with the familiarity and trustworthiness of brands that conventionally have used brick–and–mortar ad–agencies to develop their advertising campaigns. Branded institutions likewise have utilized the power of the online crowd to elicit creative works. Being aligned to trustworthy brands can have a *transitive* effect on creatives. Transivity, as used by Golbeck (2005) to describe the use of trust bridges to connect two different agents, can strengthen a creatives professional reputation and signal their ability to fulfil high profile projects and briefs. Though it should be cautiously noted that being connected to a trustworthy brand does not necessarily make the creative trustworthy (see extract 26).

Contests are supplementary and success is transferrable

Online contests are perceived as supplementary sources of income. As one informant puts it, it can used to '*...pull in some more work...*' Under this prize induced online setting, the community is less about the social mechanics of communitarian life (building social, professional relations) and more focused on the community activities that can facilitate contest success. In essence, the community becomes an employment platform from which to expose one's creative abilities (see extract 25).

The proposition of the community as an alternative employment channel is consistent with findings across the board. In this setting, 70% of lead informants and 60% of new informants acknowledge using similar online contest–based advertising communities other than the one they are currently utilizing. Ultimately, succeeding in an online contest can strengthen a creative's professional reputation online. This reputation is not confined to the parameters of the online community from which the contest is won but can spread like a *meme*: a viral unit of information that is transmitted from person to person (Blackwell 2000), to other creative online communities or those in the offline domain.

Sub–theme 1.2: incentivized by monetary rewards than community statues

This sub–theme refers community incentives. In the lead informant group six of the ten informants are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group eight are aligned. In sum, lead and new informant are attracted by the monetary and reputation building incentives offered by the institution: more so with the latter than former. The monetary prize is the main reason why creatives participate in the community. As stated by INF30_M:

Extract 27 Incentivised by monetary reward

> "...in the end it's about the prize money, I'm not in here to do charity work...erm, I've been to design school already and got bills to pay...I guess, it gives you more experience here, but it's the prize I'm here for."
>
> INF30_M,08.01.14; L015–021)

Reputation building less likely to be practised

The institutions of both communities have embedded structural properties within the graphical user interface of the websites that facilitate a creative's reputation building process. For instance, they have structural properties that count and aggregate the number of contributions a creative makes to the community (nos. of forum submissions etc.). These contributions can be used to assess the status and rank of the creative in the community. However, creative informants are more incentivized by monetary rewards than cementing their reputation in the community.

As emphasised by INF25_F, *"I don't care for all that social networking and reputation stuff...I'm here for the cash prize..."* This informant was less interested in reputation building and more in the participating of contests. Introspectively, this

may first appear counterproductive, since a solid reputation in the community can galvanise confidence for external clients and make the creative more attractive as a human asset and therefore generate more future work (Fombrun, 1996). The reason as to why an informant might be disinterested in building a reputation was later given by INF38_M (see extract 28). The extract is not a general view shared by most informants in the study it. Nevertheless, it provides one strong perspective as to why reputation systems are negatively perceived: they often neglect offline experiences and successes, which due to the graphical user interface design constraints of the website, cannot be easily transferred to online settings.

Extract 28 Rebuilding a virtual reputation

> "...those things in the community really annoy me, it's a farce, I've done it...erm, I've done the work and handed it on time. I've already got quite a good reputation out there. I don't see why I have to start again?"...
>
> (INF38_M,28.04.14; L033-057)

7.4.3.2 Theme 2: weak-ties

The second general-theme is weak-ties. It refers to weak bonds that tie interpersonal relationships. It is composed of two sub-themes: informant's interpersonal relationship with other creatives (2.1) and the informant's interpersonal relationship with the institution (2.2). This theme reports on how informants perceive other creative practitioners in the community and provides a personal account of an informant's encounter with the institution.

Sub-theme 2.1: creatives viewed as competitors than co-operators

This sub-theme refers to the perception of creatives. In the lead informant group six are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group eight are aligned. In sum, new informants are more likely to perceive creatives as competitors than co-operators compared to lead informants. As INF24_M had suggested:

Extract 29 Perceived as competitors

> "...I don't do that...Erm..I mean I don't see the point of working with people I don't know that well...if I want to make friends then I'll use Facebook...they e-mailed me about a month back and asked me some questions...on collaboration and that. I just find it strange... we're all pitching for the same jobs..."
>
> (INF24_M,02.05.14; L089-116)

The contest–cooperation dilemma

The informant in the extract highlights a manifest phenomenon that was not implied by other informants. While like the others he acknowledges the competitive nature of creatives under context driven conditions, he also underlines a general reluctance to cooperate despite institutional encouragements to do so. What makes this informant insightful is that the he was contacted directly by the institution. In this case, the institution asked the informant a series of questions as to *'how best to bring other community creatives together to cooperate in projects'*. The fact that this has occurred confirms the contest–cooperative dilemma related to these types of communities.

Moreover, it also explains why no cooperative evidence was found from those users whom were followed in study two (see Chapter 6). New informants are thus less willing to cooperate with other creatives in the community because as stated, *"...I don't see the point of working with people I don't know that well..."* This unfamiliarity or *"...lack of presence..."* as stated by INF33_F emphasises the weak interpersonal ties that connect creatives. Cooperative reluctance is further accentuated by weak trust–warranting properties of creative practitioners. Incomplete profile data and symbolic signs, such as arbitrary awards (badges and certificates), provide insufficient data to assess the integrity and benevolence of a creative or their *internal consistency* (reliability, predictability, good judgement) (Schindler and Thomas 1993) of fulfilling creative briefs and projects (see extract 30).

Strengthening cooperation through interest groups

To strengthen cooperative relationships INF29_M suggested the advantages of *interest groups* in communities. In the literature review (see Chapter 2) groups have the potential to collectivize people who share similar interests (Kramer *et al*., 2001). As stated by the informant, *"...when you put people together, serendipity happens and you start to build trust with people..."*

Extract 30 Weak trust–warranting properties

> "...those badges don't mean anything to me...I think they just give them out to fill space....working with others?...Eh, its kind'a difficult to tell if they are going to be reliable or not...the only thing I can see is their portfolio..."
>
> (INF35_M,11.03.12; L128-137)

Of the two communities, only one had an embedded property in the graphical user interface, which enabled an informant to create and organise a group (of creatives), that is not necessarily affiliated to the fulfilment of briefs. However, given the opportunity to use the group function in the respective community only 5 of the 10 informants had joined a group. Moreover, of these 5 informants none had contributed (forum posting) to the community. As stated by INF27_F, *"I had recently joined the branding and identity group but there was no activity, so I ditched it..."* The lack of openness (Mishra, 1996) from community creatives, in terms of sharing relevant professional information, in this case has limited an informant's ability to assess relationships. In hindsight, it has been stated that those who are unwilling to be open often isolate themselves from the rest of the community (Kramer *et al*., 1996). In this setting, isolation has inhibited creatives and informants alike from sharing information between community members. It is this reason why inter–group activity remains stagnant within the community.

Assessing materials in online portfolios

As illustrated in extract 30 the only significant trust–warranting property of a creative is their online portfolio: which is either stored within the community or accessed through a web URL hyperlink to another website or web service, in the creatives profile section. As shown in study two (see Section 6.3.1.2) a portfolio can signal the expertise and ability of the creative. However, as indicated in extract 30, it cannot reveal their integrity or benevolence: both of which constitute the *formalities* that regulate professions (Brien, 1998). Independently a portfolio is a weak sign that communicates and thus requires additional trust–warranting properties to enable a more accurate assessment of trust.

Conversely, sometimes the authenticity of a creative's portfolio is even doubted, though this phenomenon is more common with lead than new informants. In this setting, if the professional identity of the creative cannot be validated from their profile then this casts doubt on the internal validity of the materials in the portfolio (see extract 31). In this case, weak trust–warranting properties have pushed the informant to search for information elsewhere that would validate the authenticity of portfolio materials. While validation of materials is sometimes conducted within the community itself: by triangulating data with publicly posted comments and forum discussions that are related to the materials,

informants are more likely to verify material authenticity through external sources outside the community, such as the creatives personal or professional websites.

Extract 31 Authenticity of portfolio

> "...Hmm, I'm sure about that...they can be anyone...I looked at some guys portfolio on their profile and I was sure that I'd seen the ad before somewhere...people can jus' upload anything...you jus' have to read the comments on their page or go to their webpage to check it out..they don't even check it properly."
>
> (INF27_F,02.03.14; L094-118)

Negative behaviour and variances in standards

Similarly, both lead and new informants are aware of dishonest and deceptive behaviour in the communities such as *free–riding* and *mimicry* (see extract 32). Free–riding is a form of dishonest behaviour which typically occurs when Person A, intentionally uses similar an idea that was originally created by Person B. In this instance, Person A, is free–riding on the creative work created by Person B. Contrarily, mimicry is a form of deceptive behaviour which typically occurs when Person A, intentionally pretends to be Person B.

Extract 32 Free–riding and mimicry

> "...last month we sent a pitch which used zombies...erm, it had taken days to shoot and cost me a little bundle. Then several days later, we saw pitches similar to ours...they used zombies too, but used a different style and take...You can tell they are not pros...they used an after-effects template that was downloaded, edited then uploaded"
>
> (INF33_F,14.04.14; L208-226)
>
> "...it's easy to register multiple accounts here and pretend that you know what you are doing...there's nothing much to it, just upload a few good images and write a few sentences and you're off... Some guy told me last week that people just create accounts and rate their own submissions...that's bad....Ehm, not long ago I saw a poorly made...low quality video with high ratings...that's jus' not on..."
>
> (INF28_M,15.03.14; L143-162)

In this instance Person A, may mimic a trustworthy person or in this particular case a creative expert. These negative behaviours can discourage informants from cooperating. To deter the practice of such behaviours institutions publish *codes of conduct* to prevent the abuse or exploitation of uploaded works which creatives are expected to adhere to. However, without the necessary

institutional support structures to enforce violations the codes are merely symbolic arbitrary gestures that have redundant outcomes (Cook *et al*., 2009).

Extract 33 Variance of professional standards

> "...some of the people here are amateurs, straight from film school... I think you can tell the ones who are here for a bit of fun and the ones who take it more seriously..."
>
> (INF34_F,21.02.12; L214-219)

For instance, creatives who exhibit dishonest and deceptive behaviour will continue to do so because there is no disciplinary framework to punish these negative behaviours. Allowance of such behaviours, intentional or otherwise, can cast doubt on the professionalism of creatives and of the institution as a whole. Extract 32–33 illustrate that there is a wide variance as to what is considered *professional*. In retrospect there is a lack of professional standards. Professional creatives who are established in the community and follow the formalities of their crafts intermingle with novices and amateurs whom are not as committed to these formalities as they are. These wide variances of professionalism in the community makes it that more difficult to assess cooperative relationships that are built on trust.

Sub–theme 2.2: Uncertainty of institutions ability to deliver services

This sub–theme refers to perceptions of the institution. In the lead informant group seven are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group six are aligned. In sum, both lead and new informants have experienced dissatisfaction with the institution, which have weakened relations and aroused suspicion of institution.

Delays in enacting institutional procedures

Delay of payment is a common issue experienced by lead informants. This is more prominent with lead informants in Zooppa (COM08) than Blur (COM05). In this setting, when an informant has formally won a contest there is a significant gap between the announcement of the winner/s and the payment of the monetary prize (see extract 34). A second common issue that undermines the professionalism of the institution is its technical infrastructure. This is experienced by lead and new informants in both communities. In this setting, when contest deadlines encroach and informants begin to upload and submit their creative works to be assessed by the institution, the technical systems that underpin the

community platform experiences a surge in bandwidth demand. Informants had concerns of '*upload lags*' and long *'lag times*' when uploading their pitch submissions (see extract 35). For instance, INF36_M stated how he had to wait an hour to upload his video submission which subsequently *'crashed'* (failed to upload) on his first attempt.

Extract 34 Institutional procedural delays

> "...I don't know what game they're playing. 'X' announced the winners weeks ago and I still haven't got paid...it's unreal...erm, this hasn't happened to me before...My clients usually pay me on time..."
>
> (INF35_M,11.03.12; L186-201)

> "...the brief deadline, like ended a month ago...they told everyone who the winners are...but nothing was done. I sent them an e-mail and they said they're working on it...Huh, I just received the payment not long ago. If I hadn't won the contest I'd be long gone..."
>
> (INF25_F,07.02.12; L248-262)

While the comments made by INF41_M in the above extract are not new and have been logged by both lead and new informants, what it does unearth is the adverse risks of being too dependent on the institution: particularly in terms of allowing these institutions to showcase and represent a creative's work. In hindsight, sometimes a creative's submission is not shown at its optimum quality. In this instance, the compression protocols used to convert the informant's video during the upload process had diminished the quality of the video. However, this diminished quality did not represent the superior original quality of the video before it was uploaded. In retrospect, if institutions are not able to maintain the online transference and quality of a creatives work when it is completely uploaded to the community platform then this can weaken an informant's relationship with the institution.

Extract 35 Institutional technical delays

> "...I uploaded the video to the site and it took ages...Like the lag dragged on forever...when it was on, I wasn't happy with the video that I had uploaded...the compression quality is way poor and makes my videos look really bad...eh, when I complained to them about the lag and quality they said it was an 'ongoing development issue'..."
>
> (INF41_M,22.02.14; L230-245)

7.4.3.3 Theme 3: briefing issues

The third general–theme is briefing issues. It refers to an informant's acquired experiences of reviewing and fulfilling creative briefs. It is composed of two sub–themes: information contained within briefs (3.1) and role of external client (3.2). This theme reports on the fulfilment complications of brief–related issues

Sub–theme 3.1: gaps in brief is a sign of unprofessionalism

This sub–theme refers to informant experiences of reviewing creative briefs. In the lead informant group seven of the ten are aligned to this theme; in the new informant seven are also aligned. In sum, both lead and new informants have encountered ambiguity of brief requirements which undermines the professionalism of the institution. As commented by INF24_M, *"...in the real world, there are tight deadlines...if I don't have all the info. how can I do my job?"* In the prior quote the keyword is *info*. Whether creative briefs are fulfilled online (in a contest setting) or offline (in a non–contest setting) informants are bound by temporal constraints (deadlines).

However compared to the offline domain, online settings present an unequal playing ground in which to fulfil creative briefs: this is mainly due to *insufficient information* supplied by institutions to fulfil creative briefs. As an outcome of this insufficiency, informants believe that they are being treated *"...unfairly..."* and the value propositions (equality, chance etc.) promoted by the institution are *"...simply not honoured..."* Two types of insufficiencies have been recorded by informants: 1) *incomplete* and 2) *incorrect* information contained in creative briefs. I report on the first type followed by the latter.

Implications of incomplete information

Incomplete information refers to relevant information than can be used to fulfil the needs and requirements of a brief but has been left absent by the institution either *unintentionally* or *intentionally*. I purposively outline the two mental acts because neither I nor the informants are able to conclude, with justifiable evidence, whether the information has been unintentionally (institution forgot to add information) or intentionally (institution has information but does not share) been left absent. Regardless of which mental act this may be, physical absence illustrates information is *asymmetric* between institution and informants.

Incomplete information can limit fulfilment potential of a brief. This potential cannot be fully realised because ambiguities can beset brief

requirements, which can lead to misinterpretation: particularly concerning the creation and development of concepts and ideas, relative to their needs and requirements. Consequentially, this can affect an informant's chance of succeeding in a contest. In sum, pivotal to the success of a contest is the correct conceptualisation of brief requirements, which is determined by the supply of sufficient and relevant information. When information is incomplete and requirements are misconstrued then an informant's conceptualisations can become misaligned with the external clients expectations (see extract 36).

Extract 36 Implications of incomplete information

> "...sometimes the briefs are a little scant. I mean, yeah, they tell us what the product is and...erm, a bit about the brand but the important part is the requirements...I mean its open to interpretation...I could be pitching for anything...It might be ok for a tiny two grand project but for bigger projects you want more info."
>
> (INF32_F,11.04.14; L267-281)

Implications of incorrect information

Incomplete information refers to the supply of relevant information than can be used to fulfil the needs and requirements of a brief but has been left absent by the institution either *unintentionally* or *intentionally*. Conversely, incorrect information refers to the unintentional or intentional presence of erroneous facts (errors) in briefs. Like incomplete information, incorrect information can yield similar affects on performance. It can limit fulfilment potential and result in incorrect conceptualisations of brief requirements. While incomplete information has been logged more frequently than incorrect information, informants view the latter as a more significant issue than the former.

This is because issues of incomplete information can be resolved by communicating to relevant parties (institution, external client) when possible to identify absent content and clarify any ambiguity. In contrast, incorrect information cannot be resolved as openly because informants are not unaware of the erroneous facts and operate in the pretence that the information contained in the brief is true. If in the circumstance the informant later becomes aware of this incorrection, during fulfilment of brief, then it could force the informant to reconceptualise outcomes. For instance, to create and develop concepts and ideas that are aligned to the requirements (see extract 37). At worst, the informant could

realise the incorrection at the very end of fulfilling the brief and deadline which would greatly diminish the chance of success.

Extract 37 Implications of incorrect information

> "...it's so bloody annoying and unprofessional when they get it wrong...I don't get it, how hard can it be to write down instructions. Ok, it was only a week or so into the contest before they told us and corrected the mistake, but by then I had already done a lot of work...for what? all for nothing."
>
> (INF43_M,15.05.14; L322–334)

In extract 37, incorrect information contained in the brief had caused dissatisfaction when the informant had to reconceptualise his concept and damaged interpersonal relations with the institution. In this setting, the delay and lack of communications to announce and clarify erroneous facts had acerbated the insufficiency issue and strained informant–institution relations. As INF43_M had later stated, *"...even the communication and all that kind'a stuff I mentioned earlier is jus' bad...if this project was done out there then any problems would of been dealt with quickly."* In this quote the keyword is *out there*, in which he makes a direct comparison with the offline domain.

Sub–theme 3.2: physical contact with external client is preferred

This sub–theme refers to work fulfilment preferences. In the lead informant group seven of the ten are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group six are aligned. In sum, both lead and new informants prefer to have physical contact with external clients to validate brief requirements and creative conceptualisations.

Alignment of interests and expectations

Physical contact with an external client is preferred to clarify brief requirements. Contact is essential to align common interests because each party practices their craft differently and have different expectations from the brief. For instance, whereas informants view briefs as a *workflow process*, external clients view briefs as *outputs*. As underlined by INF30_M, *"...clients just think about the outputs...I mean the final designs of the brief...but they forget that it's a process"*. The informant in question graduated from the RCA (Royal College of Art) in London and when questioned delved further into the nuances of the *creative process* (see Glossary).

In accordance with his practices, pivotal to the process is the close partnership creatives have with the external client where both parties come

together to, as the informant puts it, *"...discuss and flush out ideas..."*. This partnership is considered significant because it supports the alignment of interests and expectations between creatives and external clients despite differences in practice. These common interests are cemented through mutual understanding of creative concepts and ideas. For instance the creative could explain his conceptualisation and the latent meanings that are hidden underneath it in circumstances where the external client is not able to interpret these meanings.

Institutions as barriers to creative practice

While informants do work alongside external clients on briefs they only do so upon winning pitches and within the authoritative structure of the institution and online community. However, the problem arises during the pitching process when informants are not given access to external clients. This initial isolation has caused some dissatisfaction amongst informants who view institutions as *barriers*, which control and monitor than impartially mediates relationships.

Extract 38 Relationship with external clients

> "It's tough to work on briefs when you can't contact the client to check what they want...erm, it's really not that personal when you're kind 'a blocked from them...I kind 'a understand why they do it...I suppose we can't all contact them...but there must be some way they can sort this out..erm I mean keeping us out doesn't help, in that way the community is like a barrier...it's frustrating"
>
> (INF40_M,18.02.14; L297-310)

For informants, it is dehumanizing the creative workflow process (see extract 38). As INF28_M states,*"...in the real world, relationships with clients are a lot more personal...understanding their likes and dislikes is pretty important to secure a pitch..."* As discussed earlier, these close partnerships involve the external client throughout the spectrum of the workflow process and long–term mutual relationships are strengthened through frequent scheduled meetings and presentation of concepts and ideas.

On reflection, it is the physical interaction of symbolic practices and exchange of rich sensory signs that galvanises the relationship between informant and external client. At worst, if the external client is dissatisfied with a concept or idea, the informant has the advantage of observing and identifying any negative behaviour (manifested as body language, gesture) and has the opportunity to correct or adjust conceptual issues that may be disagreeable with the external

client. These physical interactions can help confirm the validity of requirements and align interest and expectations from both parties but as shown in extract 39 is denied from informants in the online domain.

Extract 39 Informant–client misalignment

> "...I can present an idea to the client, and if they don't like it, I can see what they don't like about it, erm then I can ask them why or what I can do to make it better...or if I should come up with something else...but I can't do that here."
>
> (INF42_F,06.05.14; L381–394)

7.4.3.4 Theme 4: community disengagement

The fourth general–theme is community disengagement. It refers to the lack of engagement with the community. It is composed of two sub–themes: willingness to cooperate with other creatives (4.1) and willingness to contribute to the community (4.2). This theme report on an informant's likelihood of cooperating and contributing in the community.

Sub–theme 4.1: prefer to cooperate offline than online

This sub–theme refers to cooperative preferences. In the lead informant group six of the ten are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group seven are aligned. In sum, both lead and new informants are more likely to initiate and foster cooperative relationships in the offline domain, then cement these physical relationships in the online communitarian domain

Cooperation with unfamiliar creatives

As a result of weak trust–warranting properties (see sub–theme 2.1) informants are less likely to cooperate within unfamiliar creatives in the online community. As emphasised by INF36_M, *"...I prefer to work with people I know out there...I think it helps if they are not know–it–all's and that you can get along with them..."* While interview findings suggest that in general cooperation with unfamiliar creatives do occur: they are usually initiated in the offline domain and in close proximity to the informant's place of residency (same town, city). Under these localised settings informants are more willing to interact in order to *"...get to know the person and their habits..."* face–to–face to accumulate social capital before they are confident enough to cement relationships online (see extract 40). This behavioural pattern

of practice is representative of the initial–to–early trust stages in an interpersonal relationship (see Section 2.4.4.2).

Extract 40 Cooperation with unfamiliar creatives

> "...There's a lot of value as being in the same room as somebody, you get to know the person and their habits...erm, that's the main thing. Now, I've done a lot of work on erm, collaborating with people and stuff like that, but that's not connected to the Internet actually..."
>
> (INF36_M,24.03.12; L423–436)
>
> "Erm, I would like to meet people as much as possible,...if it's at all possible that person lives in my same city, then you know, then I would collaborate online...like I was talking to someone about co–working places in London recently and they're really good at erm kind 'a selling the profile of the people...You know, they do videos about them and they talk about what the people are doing."
>
> (INF31_F,16.01.14; L477–492)

Cooperation with familiar creatives

In contrast, in the case of familiarity, informants will not actively search and cooperate with creatives in the community whom they may be familiar with. Instead, they prefer to foster cooperative relationships in the offline domain using an established network of contacts.

Extract 41 Cooperation with familiar creatives

> "...I probably wouldn't go and try and find somebody in the community...erm, to work with me on a particular project that I don't already know, I already have a network of people...erm, that I know that can do the various things that I can't and rely on."
>
> (INF37_M,28.04.14; L445–453)
>
> "...the thing is I've never had success with it and I rather work with somebody I know, but I mean it seems to work for some people... But trying to get people who are creative in the first place, to work together peacefully isn't always easy."
>
> (INF33_F,14.04.14; L496–502)

These contacts are localised within the geographical proximity of the informant. Cooperative parties will physically come together to initially discuss requirements and concepts from which communication will then mediate to the online domain (see extract 41). Communication may not necessary be held within the structures of the community where the contest is held but through external communication

media (Skype, e–mail, IRC). The insistence to cooperate with familiar agents indicates that familiarity can breed trust (Gulati, 1995). For instance, the two informants in extract 41 prefer to cooperate with creatives whom they already have an acquaintance with. Here, the keyword is *know* which conveys relevant history has already been acquired from the creative: particularly in terms of their reputation (Bromley, 1993) and ability (Barber, 1983; Downie, 1990) to fulfil the creative brief.

Cooperation based on limited knowledge and 'ability'

Knowledge can be used to assess trustworthiness. In professionals this knowledge is encapsulated through their expertise (Barber, 1983) and governed by the practice of formalities of culture and conduct (Brien, 1998). While these institutional structures (culture and conduct) are strong and enforceable in the offline physical domain (see Chapter 1), they are weak and difficult to enforce in the online domain (see Chapter 2). It is one of the reasons why the majority of informants prefer to cooperate with other creatives offline where institutional structures are manifest and provide the secure conditions to enable cooperative activity.

Extract 42 Role of ability, integrity and benevolence

> "...obviously your profile and their erm, the amount of briefs they have been successful on, their referrals...you know, all those sort of things, and the quality of their work as well is probably the most important, and looking at their portfolio and stuff like that..."
>
> (INF34_F,21.02.14; L461–473)
>
> "Well, I don't think that a biological connection is necessary, when you are...when you are working on art, I'm really just concerned with your skills, and your talent and your creativity, online you don't even have to like the person."
>
> (INF39_M,03.02.14; L516–522)

In the minority setting, where informants prefer to cooperate with creatives online, the findings suggests that the properties of ability and integrity take precedence over benevolence (see extract 42). As reviewed in the literature review the three main properties that warrants trust (of the trustee) are ability, integrity and benevolence. In this context, ability refers to the talents and skills of a creative; integrity is the expectation that the creative will act accordingly (honestly, truthfully); benevolence is the expectation that the creative will look out for the

welfare (show care, concern) of the informant (Butler, 1991; Schindler and Thomas 1993). While ability and integrity are viewed as core trust–warranting properties, benevolence on the other hand does not.

Negligible payoff for benevolent acts

In this setting, the symbolic abstraction of virtual space has removed the emotive and intimate encounters that are inherent in physical workplace settings (see Chapter 5). Without affective physical institutional structures to motivate and induce benevolent acts that encourage helpfulness and support between creative practitioners, online contest–driven communities will continue to remain fragmented and weak compared to their offline counterparts (see sub–theme 2.1).

In this setting, informants are not able to rationalise performing benevolent acts where there is no perceived payoff. This perspective is encapsulated by INF40_M, whom stated the following *"…why should I care…erm who's going to look out for me?"* This attitude is in contrast to the cooperative behaviour and the emotional network: where workers support one another, advocated by Buskens and Raub (2002). In sum, the lack of altruistic behaviour and non–reciprocal actions is a cost to these communities since research has shown that benevolence can foster long–term mutually beneficial relationships in the workplace (Barnett and Schubert, 2002).

Sub–theme 4.2: will read and view materials but less likely to contribute

This sub–theme refers to willingness to contribute to the community. In the lead informant group seven of the ten are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group eight are aligned. In sum, lead and new informants are more likely to view materials, such as review briefs and submitted pitches, than contribute to the welfare of the community.

Advantages of contributing to community

Contributing to the community is considered significant because it can help build social capital between creative practitioners and generate collective knowledge. Sharing knowledge that can be support the fulfilment of common gaols can facilitate trust–based relationships (Wako and Faraj, 2005). The keyword in Extract 43, which has been logged frequently is *visibility*. When informants use the term visibility they refer to the active *digital footprint* of the creative. That is the shared personal data of the creative (Girardin *et al*., 2008). This footprint is manifested as blog/forum submissions, comment and feedback postings in the

community. These perceptual signs can be used to assess *"...the calibre of the person..."* and allow informants to *"...learn more about that person".* In retrospect, the lack of community contributions may partially explain why informants have weak–ties with other creative practitioners (see general–theme 2).

Extract 43 Advantages of contributing

> "Ah, I suppose it's to be able to have lots of visibility what they have done before...so you can have a really good idea of, erm the calibre of the person they are....I guess, you know, do they, do they blog regularly, because you can tell a lot I think about the way somebody writes, what they are actually really passionate about."
>
> (INF29_M,07.01.14; L480–492)
>
> "...you know looking at comments or feedback or something like that tells me like, this person is quite good...you know, something like you begin to learn more about that person."
>
> (INF30_M,08.01.14; L557–563)

As shown in Extract 44, informants will observe and adopt information from forum posting to support the brief fulfilment process but are less willing to contribute to the welfare of the community. For INF32_F the reason for not contributing was fear of mimicry. The informant states that *"...if I write a blog or something about my pitch and share my ideas with others, then it can start a cascade..."*

Extract 44 Contributing to community welfare

> "No, I haven't erm...I have been more sort of an observer of erm, reading posts and gaining information from it, but I think if I needed eh... I feel that the forum is probably not big enough for me to do that there are other places online where I would go first erm, to get that information..."
>
> (INF26_F,13.02.14; L507–522)
>
> "I don't do that, I get kind 'a annoyed about sites that want users to answer other people questions...I like, I prefer to have erm, good customer service...I think it's annoying when you know you have people in forums and you have a question and you have a deadline."
>
> (INF41_M,22.02.14; L560–571)

In this instance, the keyword *cascade* refers to a simultaneous occurrence of an event: where other creatives in the community are likely to free–ride or create derivatives of her idea or concept. To maintain her competitive advantage this

particular informant was cautious of the type of information she is willing to contribute and share to the community.

Information–seeking practices

In situations, where informants require information not connected to creative briefs, such as creative or personal development skills (web design), then informants are more likely to use specialised external communities (online or offline) to seek those information. Moreover, informants who use public forums also periodically view the portfolios of other creatives or view pitch submissions. They do so not necessarily to assess trust, as reported in sub–theme 2.1, but as INF31_M puts it, to *find inspiration* or *'get a feel of the competitive environment'*. While the latter statement is self–explanatory the former is not. The keywords *finding inspiration* can signal one of two meanings.

Connotatively (manifest) the statement can literally mean the informant has been inspired by the materials contained in the portfolio or pitch submissions, which have led to them to create subsequent *original works* based on those source materials. Denotatively (latent) it can also mean that the informant has been inspired by those material, which have led them to create *derivatives* of those source materials. If the creative practitioner intentionally enacts the second meaning, then this is an issue of mimicry (see sub–theme 2.1).

Forum usage practices and artificial contributions

On reflection, study two has already shown that lead creatives are more likely to use forums than new creatives but did not fully explain *how* they are used. In this setting, the interview findings have shed light on this facet, particularly the informant's willingness to contribute (through forum or blog posting) to the welfare of the community. Generally, 30% of lead informants and 20% of new informants, have made forum and/or blog submissions to the community. Lead informants typically make forum submissions. The nature of these submissions are typically related to creative brief, where they make enquiries to define and calrify their requirements.

Contrarily, new informants make a combination of forum and blog submissions. The nature of these submissions are the same as lead informants, where they enquire about brief–related information. However, anomalous insight was gained from INF39_M that deviated from the average pattern. This particular informant made blog submissions to the community, but the submissions were not

intrinsically motivated. In essence, he did not voluntarily contribute materials to the community: this would signal his benevolence. Instead, he was extrinsically motivated and incentivized by the institution. In this setting, he was actively paid by the community to create artificial blogs, whom other creative practitioners were not aware of (see Extract 45).

Extract 45 Incentivised to submit blogs

> "...well I write blogs for the community on a number of subjects and things...erm, I don't normally write blogs, but it's different in here, I get paid for doing it...why they do it? I don't know, may be to put some life into the place!"
>
> (INF39_M,03.02.14; L539-548)

Given the general reluctance of creative practitioners of contributing to the community, incentivized artificial contributions as cited by the above informant can *"...put some life into the place!"* and give the perception of community buzz and activity. However, generating involuntary artificial contents can cast doubt on the integrity (honesty, truthfulness) of the community and jeopardize interpersonal relationships (when others are made aware of this act), while also undermine community professionalism (see general–theme 2–3).

7.4.3.5 Theme 5: unfulfilled expectations

The fifth general–theme is unfulfilled expectations. It refers to pre and post experiences of utilizing the community. It is composed of two sub–themes: accrued experiences of using community (5.1) and desired community properties (5.2). This theme reports on the alignment between accrued experiences and expectations and desired community properties.

Sub–theme 5.1: expectations do not meet experiences

This sub–theme refers to the alignment of experiences and expectations. In the lead informant group five of the ten are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group eight are aligned. In sum, expectations are misaligned with accrued experiences and initial motivations. This misalignment is more prominent with new than lead informants. The reason may be due to the fact that new informants have yet to win a contest and receive a monetary reward, whereas lead informants are established users whom have succeeded in a contest.

Prior, present and post perceptions

An informant's perception of the institution and community can be broken down into three temporal stages: 1) before using the community, 2) during the first month of using the community and 3) several months after using the community.

First temporal stage: prior perceptions

Prior to usage an informant's perception of the institution and community is associated with properties of democratisation (inclusiveness, equality). In this sense, online advertising communities have *democratised* the creative workflow process, namely components 3–4. I use democratisation broadly to convey a transition to a more inclusive and equal system of practice. As previously stated ad–agencies in the offline domain have three prominent barriers. One, they can be difficult to enter, in terms of becoming an active practitioner in an ad–agency (Cleveland, 2014). Two, they can be secretive, in terms of how institutions foster long–term relationships with their external clients (Fam and Waller, 2008). Thirdly, they can be protective, in terms of guarding their creative concepts, ideas and those who create them (White, 2000). However, informants have constructed the perception, prior to using the communities that the institution is able to offer *"...a level playing field..."* with traditional brick–and–mortar ad–agencies, in terms of giving informants equal access to high profile external clients and familiar brands (see Extract 46).

Extract 46 Equality perceptions prior use

> "...oh sure, yeah, I think communities like these are good for people like me, just starting out...I think that what they do is they flatten things out a bit, you know, they create a level playing field with the bigger agencies."
>
> (INF24_M,05.02.12; L564–569)

Second temporal stage: present perceptions

The first month of using the institution and community can be conceived as the honeymoon period. Informants accommodate themselves with the communities graphical user interface, personal dashboard and actively learn the creative workflow process (review brief, create and submit pitch). During this initial pedagogic cycle informants compete in contests and accrue their first experiences.

Over the honeymoon period, both lead and new informants, acknowledge that significant emotional investment (work, time) is required to fulfil briefs that

can yield *low returns* (see Extract 47). In this setting, low returns can mean one of two outcomes. One, it can mean the informant has submitted the pitch but has not won the contest. Two, it can mean the informant has won the contest but the monetary amount did not reflect the emotional investment used to prepare and fulfil the brief.

Extract 47 Investment perceptions during use

> "...it's a lot, I mean a lot of work goes into a pitch. Most people, like clients don't see that hard work. I mean, I remember spending days working on my first pitch and I got squat...erm, it's quite hard to swallow...I mean the time I had put in my first pitch could of been used to work on other projects...yeah, I would of been paid way less...but at least I would be paid."
>
> (INF35_M,11.03.14; L526-542)

Of these two outcomes the former is more likely to occur than the latter. INF35_M in Extract 47 had experienced this outcome. In this instance, he was critical of the length of time it had taken to fulfil the brief which yielded no financial returns. In this setting the *opportunity cost* (of losing out in potential offline briefs) was greater than fulfilment of briefs in the online domain. In other words, fulfilling similar briefs and projects in the offline domain was more productive and profitable than those in the online domain. Regardless of whether informants are from the lead or new group, their first brief fulfilment and pitch consistently do not succeed. This is understandable since informants have to align themselves to the working practices prescribed by the institution. In short, this emotional investment issue of brief fulfilment was previously observed in study two and are consistent with the background data of those creatives who were followed: where 6 out of the 10 lead informants who had won a contest, had to submit a mean average of 31 pitches.

Third temporal stage: post perceptions

After using the community for several months lead and new informants have fulfilled at least one brief and submitted one pitch. At this stage informants have accrued significant experience of following the workflow process and are familiar with the community's graphical user interface to access core functions (check email, review briefs). The perception of the institution and community is one of unfulfilment. Having acquired practical experience of using the community to fulfil creative briefs, informants feel that their initial expectations, prior to using the

community have not been fulfilled. This view is more common in new than lead informants (see Extract 48).

Extract 48 Unfulfilled perceptions after use

> "...someone recommended this place to me and I'd thought, yeah give it a go, but it's more competitive than I thought, cause people are pitching from everywhere...I think that I'm a bit wary of these communities than I was before when I first started...don't get me wrong they're a great way of working with big brands and stuff, but it's not the same as working for a design agency where you are appreciated more..."
>
> (INF27_F,02.03.14; L581-595)

This non-fulfilment returns the informant to the first stage (see sub-theme 1.1) and reminds them of the initial motivations (chance, opportunity) of participating in such communities where they reflect upon the credulity of the value propositions presented by the institution. Though it may be true, online institution have established *"...a level playing field..."* with traditional brick-and-mortar ad-agencies: from which creative practitioners are able to access a secretive trade which was privileged to only a few, as the notion that competition for creative briefs and projects in the online domain is less intense than the offline domain is a fallacy. In sum, the perceived chance of success which was formed prior to joining the community remains unfulfilled due to the intense competition with other creatives. In essence, the value propositions presented by the institution that motivate such behaviours and had constructed these perceptions are not fulfilled. As emphasised by INF27_F, *"...but its not the same as working for a design agency where you are appreciated more..."*

Sub-theme 5.2: desire for greater openness and fairness

This sub-theme refers to desired institutional structures. In the lead informant group eight of the ten are aligned to this theme; in the new informant group nine are aligned. In sum, unfulfilled expectations reported in the previous sub-theme have led to dissatisfaction. However, both lead and new informants agree that dissatisfaction can be diminished through greater institutional openness and fairness.

Structures to support fulfilment but not cooperation

These institutional structures (processes, procedures, embedded GUI properties) are either weakly enforced or absent in the community. Though it should be noted

that annexing these structures does not necessarily invalidate disappointment: since it has already occurred, but will restore some confidence of the institution with informants. Despite some of the prominent thematic issues raised by informants in the report: such as weak–ties (see general–theme 2) and community disengagement (see general–theme 4), informants are less interested in proposing structures that could repair weak interpersonal relationships or induce wider cooperation between creative practitioners.

Instead they are more inclined to propose structures that will enable them to maximise the utility of the community (see general–theme 1): specifically in terms of how briefs are broadcasted and informed to the community (see general–theme 3). In such cases, lead and new informants consistently desire greater *openness* and *fairness* from the institution. On reflection, these desirabilities are common properties that can repair trust in a contractual setting (Burchell and Wilkinson, 1997).

Desirability of institutional openness

Openness (Mishra, 1996) as previously reviewed in the literature review refers to the institution's willingness to openly communicate and share relevant information. Informants desire two types of openness. The first type concerns the interpersonal relationship between informant, institution and external clients. The second type the relationship between the informant, community of practice and external client.

Extract 49 Openness of institutional practices

> "...If I have problems I rather get user-support from the community directly. They could like put a deployment button...this button could open a window onscreen where you could talk to the rep...you know like IRC chat...or if I had a question, erm...I should be able to get an e-mail and get a reply back right away"
>
> (Inf32_F,11.04.14; L574-592)

> "I mean if there was an open way to communicate to the client, so that you can just check what they want that would be great...Cause at the moment it feels like the community is getting in the way sometimes of getting things done..."
>
> (INF25_M,07.02.14; L520-528)

As for the former, informants desire to establish direct communications with institutions and external clients. This directness better informs creative practitioners, in terms of accessing relevant brief–related information. As for the

latter, informants desire to have direct communication with creative practitioners within the community and external clients, during contests and before submission of pitches.

Extract 50 Openness to share information

> "It's important that you have the right details...like the audience the campaign is targeted to and all that, because it makes a difference knowing how you are selling to...If the details are wrong, then that really messes things up for me."
>
> (INF43_M,15.05.14; L609-620)

> "...still it wasn't obvious to me how the actual process of managing a big project works. So perhaps some case studies of other projects that have happened before, things that other people have done for clients...actually if you can see the client or have a video of the client and the designer and then they talk about how they had done it."
>
> (INF36_M,24.03.12; L634-651)

This form of directness would clarify and validate briefing issues identified in general–theme 3 (see Extract 49). Moreover, openness can also refer to the transparency and honesty of creative practitioners in the community, in terms of their willingness to share information with other creatives. In this context, the information that is to be publicly distributed and shared must preferably be *complete* and *correct* from errors and facilitate the brief fulfilment process. In one particular instance, INF40_M had proposed that profiles of past contest winners can be used as case studies to inform new creative practitioners in the community (see Extract 50).

Desirability of institutional fairness

Fairness refers to the institutions willingness to treat its members equally in a manner that does not discriminate its creative practitioners (Gartner *et al*., 1999; Cole and Zieky, 2001). Fairness, particularly *procedural fairness*: an institutions ability to apply internal procedures fairly, has been investigated alongside trust in recent years (Van den Bos *et al*., 1998; Cremer and Tyler, 2007). In this context, when the trustworthiness of an institution is weak or cannot be ascertained, which is the case in this study, then practitioners can use fairness as a substitute indicator to assess the outcomes of decisions (Van den Bos *et al*., 1998).

Consequent positive actions can therefore infer the trustworthiness of the institution. In relation to the study this could mean whether institutions have

applied fair or unfair procedures to treat creative practitioners in the community. Fairness is thus considered significant because it ensures the safety of creatives and that bad things will unlikely happen (Van den Bos *et al*., 1998): this is reflective of the security and protection properties associated with institutional trust (Zucker, 1986; Shapiro, 1987).

Three desirabilities of fairness

Informants have outlined three desirabilities of fairness: 1) they would like to be treated fairly in the community, 2) they would like the process used to assess creative briefs and pitches be fairer, 3) they would like institutions to acknowledge and respect their offline professional activities in the online communitarian domain. First, informants desire to be treated fairly by the institution, particularly when they compete in contests but were unsuccessful.

As previously reported in sub–theme 5.1 significant emotional investment (work, time) is required to fulfil a creative brief. However, upon submission of the final pitch informants feel they *'have been left out'* and *'disappear into the ether'* with no or little acknowledgement of the significant effort invested on the brief from the institution. One proposition advocated by informants, which others agree, is that institutions should give informants personal feedback on pitches, to explain why their pitch submissions were unsuccessful (see Extract 51).

Extract 51 Fairness through feedback

> "Erm, some feedback on the pitches that you have sent, even if you didn't get them. That would be quite good because you know if you don't win one, it just sort of disappears into the ether and you spent two days working on it...erm you don't get anything back from that, so that would help."
>
> (Inf40_M,18.02.14; L616-624)
>
> "I don't feel I have a voice...erm that I'm being heard. I suppose feedback on what I've done is useful. You know to show me that they actually care about what I do...not like a mass-email with an automated message erm, I need to know what went wrong..."
>
> (Inf38_M,28.04.14; L673-686)

In this instance, feedback acknowledges the presence of the informant. This gives them the perception that their *'voice' is being 'heard'* and that the institution appreciates their submissions and therefore *cares* about them. Secondly, informants desire a fairer process: in terms of how contest submissions are assessed by the institution. In both communities, pitch submissions are either

selected by operatives within the institution or the external client but the internal procedures used to assess pitch submissions are opaque. These procedures do not fully explain how successful pitches are selected or outline assessment criteria's of submissions. Consequentially, this lack of clarity as to *what is* or *what is not* required diminishes the confidence of informants (see Extract 52).

Extract 52 Fairness through transparency

> "...I'm very sceptical of how they judge submissions...erm, they don't really show how they measure success...I mean, what points are used to judge them. It's a bit of a mystery don't you think?...with me it's frightening...at least when you are working with a client you know what they like."
>
> (INF42_F,06.05.14; L633-649)

Thirdly, informants desire professional acknowledgement of their offline activities. This fairness desirability is more prominent with lead than new informants: whom have already established a professional reputation offline. In this context, lead informants believe their online profiles in the community are unfairly represented and do not reflect their offline professional history and activities. Moreover, they believe institutions are not able to offer adequate structures (procedures, functions) through the community's graphical user interface that would facilitate the transfer of their professional history and activities from the offline domain.

Extract 53 Fairness through acknowledgement

> "I guess I'd like to see a way where I can take what I've done outside into the community...Erm, like when I have done projects outside and I don't know...somehow transfer them into the community...something that could reinforce what I've done...I mean, I've been in this business for a couple of years now and some people out there know what I can do, but there is no way I can show that here...I'm not one of those noobs, I don't need to start from scratch."
>
> (INF28_M,15.03.14; L605-627)

Consequentially, this inability to transfer offline properties (ability, integrity, benevolence) to the online domain that could otherwise be used to validate the professional identity of creatives has led to inconsistent variant levels of professionalism within the community (see sub–theme 2.1). In Extract 53 the keyword is *reinforce*. The latent meaning of this word conveys the need of embedding institutional structures that bridges and transfers offline professional

properties to the online domain, from which a creative's activities are reinforced in virtual workplace settings. In this instance, the informant clearly states that he is not a *noob* (inexperienced practitioner) in the community and having acquired several years of design experience offline domain, he is unfairly treated as one.

7.5 Situational map

Similar to study one I have drawn a situational map that connects the reported themes with trusting behaviours and perceptions, signs and workflow (see Table 73). The overview offers an opportunity to identify prominent and significant themes from which narrative accounts can be constructed.

Table 73 Study three: mapping themes with trust, signs and workflow

Themes		Trusting behav'urs	Signs	Modality	Work implications
1.	1.1	– Extrinsic motivations of chance and opportunism	– Association with familiar corporate brands – Referrals from other creatives	– Symbolic – Index	– Familiar brands is an influential trigger feature – Attracts certain type of creatives
	1.2	– Monetary award more important than reputation building	– Intrinsic signs embedded in user interface – Website proprietors able to offer monetary awards	– Symbolic – Index	– Online work experiences weakly represented online – Lack of commitment to community
2.	2.1	– Community members perceived as competitors	– Weak intrinsic signs from community members – Incomplete information – Unable to authenticate portfolio	– Symbolic – Iconic	– Reluctance to share or cooperate information with members – Issues of free–riding and mimicry
	2.2	–Dissatisfied and has low confidence of service delivery	– Delay of prize payment – Unable to upload creative works	– Index – Iconic	– Undermines professionalism of website proprietors – Negative user experiences
3	3.1	–Dissatisfied with information in creative briefs	– Incomplete or incorrect information in creative briefs	– Symbolic – Index	– Delays completion of creative brief – Undermines professionalism of website proprietors
	3.2	– Unable to contact and establish relations with external client	– Website proprietors act as barriers – Physical contact with external client more personal	– Index – Iconic	– Misinterpretation or misconceptualisation of creative brief – Misalignment of concepts with client expectations
4.	4.1	– Prefer to cooperate offline than online	– Locality and familiarity of cooperative members – Intrinsic properties of ability and integrity important than benevolence	– Index – Iconic	– Geographical proximity and familiarity determines cooperative action – Lack of benevolent acts weaken relational–ties
	4.2	– More likely to use resources than contribute to community	– Fear of mimicry, free–riding and misuse of contributed information –View community portfolios to find inspiration	– Index – Iconic	– To reduce downside risks users are less likely to contribute – Support information is insufficient or inadequate
5.	5.1	– Expectations are not aligned with experiences	– High investment, low return – Highly competitive, which favors lead users	– Index – Iconic	– Expectations prior to using community is misaligned with users acquired experiences
	5.2	– Desire greater openness and fairness	– Direct forms of communications –Transparency and honesty – Procedural fairness	– Index – Iconic	– Dissatisfaction of community can be diminished through greater openness and fairness

7.6 Micro–narratives

Micro–narratives are extensions of a specific general theme. As discussed in the methodology chapter they are based on Labov's (1995) structured narratives, from which Part B of the study (main interview) was used as a data source to construct the narrative. The narrative accounts are based on two informant's who had used the Blur (COM05) community. I selected INF28_M, to represent the lead informant group and INF30_M, to represent the new informant group. I selected these two informants because they reflected the *keyness* of the general theme.

General–theme 3 (briefing issues) will be explored in the micro–narrative. I select this theme for two reasons. First, it was a thematic issue that was consistently raised by new and lead informants. Secondly, compared to the offline workflow process it highlights the misalignment of trust and workflow in the online domain. The general–theme is related to the *brief fulfilment processes and experience* Occurrence type (see Table 67). In this Occurrence I investigated how informants fulfilled creative briefs in the online advertising communities, where there was a focus in mapping their offline and online working practices.

Micro–narrative of INF28_M

INF28_M represents the lead informant group from Blur (COM05). The study was conducted on the 15th March, 2014. A general review has identified the informant as male, from Mexico City, Mexico, with a professional background in digital animations. Originally a product designer he moved into the service design sector, where he has attained 3 years' experience in the marketing and advertising industry. As a lead user, he has used the online advertising community for approximately one year and two months.

Orientation and dilemma

The narrative starts when I probed the informant about the creative brief he was working on week when the study was conducted. The creative brief involved developing an *infomercial pitch* (video advertisement) for an established North American dairy product. At the time, the informant worked on the brief independently and was not part of any spontaneous group. In the narrative (see Table 77) the informant illustrates his dissatisfaction with the creative workflow process.

Table 74 Study three: micro–narrative of INF28_M

Abstract	Orientation	Dilemma	Options	Selection	Assessment
(INF_28_M,15.03.14; L227)	(INF_28_M,15.03.14; L283)	(INF_28_M, 15.03.14; L347)	(INF_28_M,15.03.14; L368)	(INF_28_M, 15.03.14; L390)	(INF_28_M,15.03.14; L434)
"…making a pitch is tricky and it's down to the brief…"	"Doing it online I mean, I can't talk to the client"	"I don't quite understand what they want…I mean gimme more info."	"…I can do nothing or erm…I can I email them…if I get to talk to them in person, then I might get somewhere…"	"With no proper info. I jus' have to guess what they want!"	"It's not the normal way I do things. It's a risk you kind'a take."

Option, selection and assessment

The dilemma occurs when I questioned the informant on matters concerning the fulfilment of the creative brief. This question led to further probes that explored the quantity and quality of information contained in the creative brief. In this setting, the requirements of the creative brief were supplied by external clients, which were then edited by the institution. They were then publicly broadcasted to the general community from which creative practitioners then downloaded and fulfilled creative briefs. In the narrative the informant suggested that the creative brief he was working on had contained *incomplete* and *ambiguous* information.

This irregularity has been recorded from 14 other informants in the thematic report. Moreover, he stressed that these two issues can result in the development of a misinformed pitch, which does not fulfil the external clients' needs and requirements client. In this setting, the institution: as custodians of information, had absolute control of the ebb and flow of information between the external client and creative practitioners in the community. However, in this case the latter had incomplete information of the former.

This created an information imbalance in the marketplace, resulting in the asymmetry of information between the practitioner *offering the creative service* (informant) and the external client who has *specific service needs*. While the informant had contacted the institution via e–mail to clarify the requirements of the creative brief (copy, marketing message) he believed the response given by the institution was insufficient to clarify the briefs ambiguity. With an inadequate response the informant acknowledged that it would have been more practical to bypass the institution and contact the external client directly,

With no access to the external client the informant had used his intuition to interpret the requirements of the brief. This choice entailed an element of risk since there was the chance that the informant's subjective interpretation of the creative brief was misaligned with the needs of the external client. While the informant had agreed that it is not the normative procedure to fulfil a creative brief, compared to the offline domain, he suggested this problem has become an *accepted risk* in the online domain, where you do not have direct access with the external client.

In short, in the virtual workplace setting institutions wield significant power and control over the community of practice. From the perspective of the informant, the inability to influence (cause change in relationship) and the lack of indexical signs: which otherwise could of clarified issues of incomplete information, created a chasm whereby the creative service offered by the informant is misaligned with the service requirements and needs of the external client.

Micro–narrative of INF30_M

INF30_M represents the new informant group from Blur (COM05). The study was conducted on the 11th February 2014. A general review identified the informant as male, from London, UK with a background in fine art and digital graphic design and who had recently graduated from art school. As a new user, he had used the online advertising community for approximately 3–4 months.

Orientation and dilemma

The narrative starts when I prompted the informant to provide more information on what he referred to as the *creative process*. As a cautionary note this creative process should not be confused with the *creative workflow process*. Whereas the former is internal to the informant and is concerned with the exploration and development of creative spaces (ideas) (Boden, 1994), the latter is external and refers to the sequence of activities employed to fulfil the creative brief (Aalst and Hee, 2004). The creative process is therefore one such sequential activity which is represented in the fourth component of the creative workflow process (see Figure 15, 18).

Table 75 Study three: micro–narrative of INF30_M

Abstract	Orientation	Dilemma	Options	Selection	Assessment
(INF_30_M,08.01.14; L297)	(INF_28_M,08.01.14; L346)	(INF_28_M, 08.01.14; L380)	(INF_28_M,08.01.14; L393)	(INF_28_M, 08.01.14; L462)	(INF_28_M,08.01.14; L505)
"…clients think about outputs, but design is all about process…"	"When I'm doing project work here and flushing out ideas, I use a process my tutors taught me."	"…never thought of that before… the differences that is."	"…you really caught me there! Doing it online or offline?"	"…you can see thing better offline I think…you get a better feel…"	"…it's still done in the real world. I submit briefs virtually but still create them in the real world."

Option, selection and assessment

The dilemma occurred when I unearthed a perspective of the creative process the informant had not considered before. When I had asked him *"If there was any difference to the creative process offline to those online"* the informant paused for 1–2 minutes before an answer was given. However, the response given was short and did not offer the insight that was expected so I further probed this line of inquiry by asking the informant to describe the creative process offline and whether this process could be found in the online domain. In the narrative the informant remained uncertain whether the creative process could be executed in the online domain: specifically through the online advertising community.

Instead, the subsequent answer referred to the creative process offline where he had elaborated on the *Double Design Diamond* that creative practitioners often use to produce creative works. Promoted by the U.K. Design council the double design diamond divides the creative process into four phases: 1) discover, 2) define, 3) develop and 4) deliver (see DesignCouncil.org.uk). He states that while the four phases provide a general rule of thumb to the creative process most creatives often use a derivative of the diamond design. As the informant stated, *"I usually make it up as I go along…I use my experience really."* This is because the creative process encompasses both divergence (initial brainstorming) and convergence (refining ideas) and is therefore rather fluid. As he further states, *"…at school my tutors are always talking about divergent and convergent thinking…they came up with their own design diamond"*.

The informant proceeded to describe the nuances of divergent and convergent thinking. Practices, such as brainstorming via mind maps and mood charts and gaining first–hand experience of the promoted goods, were all

conducted in the offline domain. In this context the three keywords: 1) *feel/feeling*, 2) *visualise* and 3) *real world* were used consistently and related back to the creative process. While the informant had acknowledged that the submission of the final pitch was submitted virtually to the institution, most of the creative process was still fulfilled offline and *"…in the real world…"* In sum, the creative process, which as stated is represented as the fourth component of the *creative workflow process* was absent in the online domain. Unlike the former narrative the strong presence of physical indexical signs in this setting had given confidence to the informant to fulfil the four phases of the creative process (not creative workflow process) in the offline domain.

7.7 Critical reflection

In this section, I reflect on three thematic issues that have arisen from field study three, which are not encapsulated in the conceptual framework.

Challenge of recruiting participants

The first prominent issue was the challenge of recruiting participants to the study. While an attempt was made to invite participants without an incentive (monetary payment) the *ratio of acceptance*: that is, informants responding to invitations of study was 1:32. When the incentive of US$25.00/EU$20.00 was offered the ratio decreased to 1:24. However, it should be noted that a *willingness to participate* did not necessary translate to actual participation. Of the 26 participants who had agreed to be involved in the study only 20 had become *informants*.

Design constraints of cognitive walkthrough

The second issue relates to Part A of the study (cognitive walkthrough). The problem was the means by which navigational behaviour of informants was tracked when they interacted with the websites graphical user interface. In this research setting, eye–tracking methods would be more accurate and therefore ideal to track this type of behaviour. However, due to resource and geographical constraints this was not applicable to the study. Alternatively, a more descriptive means was used, which was dependent on the verbal communication and response of the informant. Since I was not able to physically observe or access their online activities, it was pivotal to consistently prompt informants to describe the location and movement of the mouse cursor as it navigated around the community websites and subsequent webpages.

Latent conflicts between institution and creatives

The thematic report corresponds to the theories and practices of intergroup conflict (Deutsch *et al*., 2011) and the work of Deutsch (1958, 1962, 1973), the latter of which was discussed in the literature review. On reflection, the findings has unearthed a *latent conflict* between the institution (website proprietors) and creative practitioners in the community. This conflict is fuelled by: 1) the contest–cooperation dilemma (see sub–theme 2.1), 2) faulty information (see sub–theme 3.1), 3) emergent properties of distrust (suspicion, doubt) (see sub–theme 4.2) and 4) centralised institutional power (see sub–theme 3.2). All four outcomes are prominent characteristics that affect and give rise to conflict (Deutsch, Coleman and Marcus, 2011). Of the four, the contest–cooperation dilemma has been a strong recurring theme. This dilemma is aligned to the theory of cooperation and competition (Deutsch, 1973, 2011).

Deutsche states that a person's behaviour, interaction and performance in teams are determined by their adopted goals. He illustrates this distinction in cooperative and competitive settings. In cooperative conditions where shared beliefs and values permeate the workplace, then there are positive goal interdependent relationships between practitioners (concern, support, share knowledge). In contrast, in competitive conditions were beliefs and values are fragmented, then there are negative goal interdependent relationships (no concern, support or share knowledge). Practitioners in this setting are more likely retain valuable information and knowledge to gain competitive advantage.

Cooperation and competitive coexistence

In sum, there is wide–scale agreement that cooperative settings should be used when working practices require interdependence and competitive settings when work is practised individually (Stanne *et al*., 1999; Wagerman, 1995). However, the institution's deterministic approach to induce cooperation between creative practitioners in spontaneous teams are counterproductive to the individualistic goals and motives of practitioners. In essence competition can engender tensions in cooperative relationships which are spontaneously arranged.

Competition is often conceived as being *constructive* or *destructive* (Deutsch, 1973, 2011). Competition is constructive when it is fair and regulated, which can stimulate performance and innovation; it is destructive when it is unfair and unregulated, which can lead to self–interested goal adoption and behaviour (Beersma, 2003; Deutsch *et al*., 2011). The thematic findings indicate that

competition in this instance is more destructive as a result of negative perceptions of fairness (see sub–theme 5.2) and a reluctance to cooperate online with other creative practitioners (see general–theme 4).

7.8 Summary

This chapter presented the findings of study three and offer insights, in terms of how trust is operationalized in an online advertising community of practice, where there is a focus on the agents that influence trust and workflow. It has been divided into eight sections. Section two detailed the contextual setting and protocols. Section three, I reviewed Part A: the cognitive walkthrough, where I examine the observational logs and report and summarise findings. Section four, I presented Part B: the interview. In analysing the interview dataset I applied the same thematic–narrative procedure as I had done in the first study. Section five I presented the situational map which I strategically use as a nexus point to bridge the thematic and narrative components. Section six, expanded on two prominent general themes from the report which are presented as micro–narratives. Section seven provided a reflective account of the study. The following chapter presents the conclusion. It will provide an overview of the three studies. Relative to the findings, it will revisit the aims, objectives and contributions set forth in the introduction and the propositions in the conceptual framework. Finally, it will then discuss research limitations and directions for future works.

Chapter 8

Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusion and a summary of how trust and workflow is operationalized in the online and offline domain. It revisits the three studies and evaluates whether they have fulfilled the research goals and guidelines. The chapter is divided into six section. Section two re-examines the three studies, and using the conceptual framework established in Chapter 3, evaluates the degree by which the properties of trust are aligned to the components of workflow. I then outline what implications this will have for scholars and practitioners. Section three revisits the aims and objectives and the propositional map. Section four reviews the quality guidelines. Section five discusses the limitations of the research. Section six recommends directions for future studies.

8.2 Trust–workflow correlation

Using the conceptual framework and assessment criteria (see Table 5) as introspection points, I examine the correlation and alignment of trust and workflow: the degree by which the properties of trust are aligned to the four identified modular components of the creative workflow process. When assessing correlation I first provide a synopsis of the study, then present a brief overview of the findings. I then draw upon prominent reported themes, signs and where applicable narrative and reflective accounts, and assign them to each one of four workflow components.

8.2.1 Field study one

Study one investigated the correlation between trust and workflow in an offline ad–agency. I explored the following supporting research question, *"What properties of trust are aligned to the workflow process of agents in an offline ad–agency community?"* Using a participant observational data collection method, it focused on the agents that moderate trust in physical workplace settings. Through the study I was observing the actions and interactions of key stakeholders and job shadowed three informants, as they engaged in daily activities related to the fulfilment of creative briefs.

Findings and correlation overview

Findings have unearthed three general themes, seven sub–themes and two narrative accounts. In general, they illustrate that situational (Kramer, 1999; Riegelsberger, 2005) and trust–warranting (Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001) properties are strongly embedded in the community of practice, which enable the proficient and interdependent fulfilment of the creative brief. A review of the situational map (see Table 44) illustrates that symbolic and iconic signs are supported through the dyadic exchange of indexical signs. In sum, findings indicate a *positive correlation* value with the creative workflow process in the offline domain which is *strongly aligned* to the four modular workflow components.

Workflow alignment

Reflecting back upon the findings and conceptual framework I connect the situational and trust–warranting properties, relative to the four components (external client, institution, community, team) of the offline creative workflow process.

Component 1: external client

Perceptual signs of professionalism are entrenched in the physical ecology of the institution. These signs conveys the institutions creative expertise (barber, 1983) and signal confidence and familiarity (Walker and Erdman, 1984) to clients (sub–theme 1.1). Practitioners (accounts executive), with support from management, foster strong interpersonal ties with clients and are mindful of their needs. An open dialogue is actively engaged to build bridges, reduce miscommunication and address concerns. In this setting the accounts executive plays a pivotal role in mediating relationships between the external client and institutional management and the creative team (micro–narrative INF03_M).

Component 2: institution (ad–agency)

Institutions invest in the professional development of practitioners where *security* of employment and *assurances* to freely operate (Zucker, 1986; Shapiro, 1987) contribute to positive working experiences (sub–theme 2.2). Facets of control trust (Tan and Thoen, 2000) are evident in the ad–agency. These structural mechanisms are enforced by the latent power relationship lead practitioners wield over the community (Section 5.6) where professional formalities and rules of engagement are expected to be followed. Institutional philosophy and core values

are vertically percolated to converge beliefs and proceduralise working practices (Section 2.1). Enacted within the internal ambience of the ad–agency (general–theme 2) they constitute the distinct creative culture that moderates much of the interplay of trust and workflow.

Component 3: community of practice

Practitioners have positive expectations of the institution and operate in playful configured spaces that collectivize behaviour. Consequentially, this spatial arrangement induces inter–group cooperation and contribution (sub–theme 1.2). While some practitioners are exposed to more uncertainty than other in general they will seize opportunities to mitigate against the downside risks of their roles (sub–theme 3.1). Working in cohesive groups within the community, practitioners have strong–ties (Williams, 1988; Newton, 1997) with their colleagues, which are facilitated by shared beliefs, values (sub–theme 2.1) and informal activities (sub–theme 3.3). They will actively adopt goals which may not be representative of their departmental insofar as to fulfil collective needs. In this sense they have a collective identity that is reflective of particularised (Uslaner, 2002) or identification–based (Shapiro *et al*., 1992) trustors. These properties are representative of the mature steps of trust (section 2.4.4.2).

Component 4: creative team

In constructed teams practitioners are likely to possess pronounced characteristics (sub–theme 3.1) and are extrinsically motivated to fulfil their duties. Moreover, they may work prolonged hours than is contractually required particularly in time–bound settings (sub–theme 2.1). During these tense situations practitioners, whom are part of the creative team, work in close proximity with one another, use a common rhetoric and are encouraged to openly share and communicate relevant knowledge. Working as one close–knit unit practitioners have a mutual understanding of each party's intentions and interests, where each party is able to act on behalf of each other interests to fulfil common goals. The creative culture facilitates the exploration of creative ideas, which they express openly and freely through the exchange of rich sensory signs (micro–narrative INF01_M).

8.2.2 Field study two

Study two investigated the correlation between trust and workflow in online professional communities. I explored the following supporting research question, *"What structural properties moderate trust and working conditions in online advertising communities?"* Using a naturalistic observational data collection method, it focused on the embedded structural properties that moderate trust and workflow in online community websites. Through the study I conducted a comparative analysis of online professional communities to identify properties that are distinct to communities that are advertising based. I then broke down the creative workflow process of these communities and mapped how creative practitioners (users) utilized them.

Correlation overview

Findings have unearthed two general themes and eight sub–themes. They broadly shows that situational properties are weakly embedded in the community of practice, which enables the procedural and dependent fulfilment of the creative brief. A comparative analysis of motivations and signs (Section 6.3.1.2) indicates the strong presence of symbolic signs to compensate the deficiencies of indexical signs. In short, findings convey a *negative correlation* value with the creative workflow process in the online domain which is *mediumly misaligned* to the four modular workflow components.

Workflow alignment

I connected the embedded situational properties to the four components of the online creative workflow process.

Component 1: external client

The client–institution relationship operates in a similar manner compared to those in the offline domain though there are two prominent difference. First, from the perspective of the client, they are given a broader creative choice from which to select pitches that are sourced from a wider pool of creatives (section 6.3.2.1). Secondly, in the offline domain the accounts executive plays a pivotal role in mediating relationships and communications between clients and institution, community. However, in the online domain the virtual equivalence of this role is more spatially diffused and the link between client and community is loosely–coupled.

Component 2: institution (website proprietor)

The conceptualisation of advertising content is no longer bestowed to the privileged few in the creative department (study one). Institutions have democratised (Huntington, 1993) the creative workflow process: components three and four of the workflow process, by embracing the crowdsource business model to solicit contributions (Section 6.2). However, institutions exercise significant influence and authoritive power over the community through structural mechanisms embedded in the graphical user interface of websites (Section 6.3.2.1). This power relationship is more prominent and less productive than the offline domain and the direction of trust between institution and community is unidirectional than bidirectional or mutual (sub–theme 2.2). Moreover, institutions do not invest in the professional development of creatives: whom lack the security and assurances (Zucker, 1986; Shapiro, 1987) that are found in offline ad–agencies, and focus on implementing structures that exploits the collective human capital held within the community.

Component 3: community of practice

The community exhibits signs of information asymmetry both internally (with creatives) and externally (with institution). In the latter, forum discussions highlight patterns of enquires (for information) to supplement information insufficiencies in the creative brief (sub–theme 2.4). This suggests issues of incomplete information, a facet that was further explored in study three. As for the former, incomplete information contained in user profiles and the general lack of user openness (Section 6.3.1.2) are the main contributing reasons why creative practitioners are connected through weak–ties (Granovetter, 1973). In this setting, the assessment of trust is reduced to the ability property of the trustee (online portfolio). While symbolic abstractions, such as reputation rankings and awards are used to supplement the deficiencies of indexical signs, they are artificial and are not adequate triggers to establish the initial steps of trust in unfamiliar relationships (Section 6.3.1.2).

Component 4: creative or creative team

Creative practitioners are extrinsically motivated by monetary incentives (sub–theme 1.2). They follow prescribed workflow processes and are given a choice to work independently or arrange a temporary spontaneous team. An assessment of past contest winners indicates that creatives are more inclined to work

independently than the latter despite embedded structural properties in respective websites to induce cooperation (Section 6.3.2.1). Though creatives may involve others who they are familiar with in the offline domain, when fulfilling briefs creatives submit high volumes of submissions that yield low returns (Section 6.3.2.2). This emotional investment may be a significant opportunity cost, compared to similar briefs in the offline domain. In this setting, lead users have a competitive advantage over new users, who are likely to repeat a contest win. In their independent, isolated states trust is typically in-between the early and medium transitional steps (section 2.4.4.2).

8.2.3 Field study three

Study three investigated the correlation between trust and workflow from two distinct online advertising communities. I explored the following supporting research question, *"What properties of trust are aligned to the creative workflow process of agents in online advertising communities?"* Using a mix of participant observation and interview methods to collect data, it focused on the agents that moderate trust in virtual workplace settings. In the study I investigated how creative practitioners navigated around the graphical user interface of the respective websites, from which I then interviewed them to attain experiential insights in terms of how they utilized communities to fulfil creative briefs.

Correlation overview

Findings identified five general themes, ten sub–themes and two narrative accounts. They generally illustrate that situational and trust–warranting properties are weakly embedded in the community of practice, which enable the procedural and dependent fulfilment of the creative brief. A review of the situational map (see Table 73) show that creatives desire indexical signs which are either weakly presented or absent in the community. In sum, findings indicate a *negative correlation* value with the creative workflow process in the online domain which is *strongly misaligned* to the four modular workflow components.

Workflow alignment

I connected the situational and trust–warranting properties to the four components of the online creative workflow process.

Component 1: external client

Unlike the professional formalities (Barber1983; Brien, 1998) that are manifested in offline ad–agencies, professional standards in online communities can vary in depth. For instance, within the community experienced practitioners intermingle with amateurs and hobbyists (sub–theme 2.1). Moreover, to reduce barriers of entry and accumulate human capital resource, institutional procedures that are used to screen and filter creatives are less rigorous than those employed in the offline domain. In sum, while clients are given more creative choice: in terms of pitch submissions and creative conceptualisations compared to ad–agencies in the offline domain, this comes at the expense of diminished professional standards.

Component 2: institution (website proprietor)

The manner in which contest proceedings are operationalized have undermined the professionalism of the institution. Delays in enacting institutional procedures (delayed payments), technical infrastructure issues (upload problems) (sub–theme 2.2) and insufficient information contained in creative briefs (incomplete, incorrect information) (sub–theme 3.1) have weakened interpersonal relationships with creative practitioners. When these situations have occurred, creatives reassessed their relationship with the institution and remained uncertain of their ability to deliver structural assurances that would support the development of briefs (sub–theme 2.2). While this uncertainty was a downside risk of trust (Luhnman, 1979) it could lead to doubt (Deutsch 1958, 1962) and lay the seeds for distrust (Lewicki *et al*., 1998).

Component 3: community of practice

Creative practitioners have weak–ties (Granovetter, 1973) both internally (with creatives) and externally (with institution), due to unfamiliarity of creatives and uncertainty of institution. Trust assessment of other practitioners in the community is reduced to ability (expertise) which supersedes integrity or benevolence (sub–theme 4.1). The presence of negative behaviours (mimicry, freeriding) (sub–theme 2.1) and weak trust–warranting properties (incomplete profiles) dissuades creatives from cooperating or contributing where there are no perceived benefits (general–theme 4). Moreover, in contest monetary induced settings, fellow creatives are viewed as competitors rather than co-operators (sub–theme 2.1). This rivalrous behaviour isolates wider community engagement and action, where creatives retain information and knowledge for competitive

advantage. Within the community they engage in information–seeking practices to compliment incomplete or incorrect information (sub–theme 4.2). While creatives do cooperate in temporary arranged teams, this is with familiar agents and through their established network of professional contacts (sub–theme 4.1).

Component 4: creative or creative team

Creative practitioners are extrinsically motivated to fulfil their duties (sub–theme 1.1), where they focus on the utility (contest, brand association) of the community (general–theme 1) and are less concerned with reputation building (sub–theme 1.2). The walkthrough summary (section 7.3.2) indicate that most creatives invest their online time on verifying brief–related information: through their e–mail messages boxes, contest tabs and forums. They are less concerned with fostering community or cooperative relationships, though when prompted to do so a practitioner's online portfolio is weighted more significantly than their profiles. When developing pitches for contests briefing irregularities, such as incomplete information, can cause information imbalance and misalign expectations between the creative practitioner and client (micro–narrative of INF28_M).

Creatives thus prefer to have physical contact with clients to realign party interests because each side practise their craft distinctly and therefore have different expectations and outcomes (micro–narrative of INF30_M). Moreover, irregularity can undermine the professionalism of the institution and cause dissatisfaction amongst creatives (sub–theme 3.1). To diminish dissatisfaction creatives desire greater *openness* (Mishra, 1996) and *fairness* from the institution: 1) to be treated fairly, 2) procedural fairness, 3) acknowledgment of offline activities (sub–theme 5.2). In short, when comparing an informant's three temporal stages (prior, present, post), findings indicate that a creative's total acquired experiences of utilizing the community do not meet expectations. In this context, expectations prior to using the community are misaligned with experiential outcomes (sub–theme 5.1).

8.2.4 Correlation summary

The first study indicates a positive correlation: trust is strongly aligned to workflow, inferred by strongly embedded situational and trust–warranting properties. The second study indicates a negative correlation: trust is mediumly misaligned to workflow, inferred by weakly embedded situational properties. Finally, the third study indicates negative correlation: trust is strongly misaligned

to workflow, inferred by weakly embedded situational and trust–warranting properties. In summary, advertising communities and spontaneously arranged teams in the online domain have a negative trust–workflow correlation, compared to constructed communities and teams in the offline domain, and as a consequence do not perform to the same professional standard.

Critical reflections

At the very start of the doctoral programme I recall conversing with a practitioner on the phone whom represented the IPA (Institute of Practitioners in Advertising). In the discussion we talked about the disruptive emergence of online advertising communities: that are crowdsource based and prize induced. We both saw them as something disruptive that could potentially change the advertising landscape forever. However, several years on they have not made the impact as much as we had originally thought. *"Why is this?"*

In this investigation I unearth empirical evidence as to why online advertising communities have not substituted traditional brick–and–mortar ad–agencies. I highlight *agent* and *structural* discrepancies inherent in these communities that have misaligned trust with workflow that have limited their growth and development. Through the three observational studies, I have come to an understanding that advertising is not about creative workflow process but the very people who practise and fulfil them. By recruiting and investing in creative talent and establishing the creative conditions and workflow procedures (culture, beliefs, values) to foster lateral thinking, shared beliefs and a collective identity *serendipitous things* can happen (as indicated by INF29_M).

Implications to institutions

While there is evidence of a growing number of success stories associated to online crowdsource advertising communities (Hall 2009; Rapkin, 2014), most of the best and award winning advertisements are still being conceptualised in traditional brick–and–mortar ad–agencies (Nudd, 2015; Davidi, 2015) as showcased in the D&AD website (see dandd.org). However, crowdsouring as a business model for idea generation still has great potential in online advertising and broader creative communities; but in its current state has growth limitations and therefore in the short–run is very unlikely to replace ad–agencies. There are prominent structural discrepancies that have to be addressed. As for the ad–agencies in the offline domain, in the not so distant future it is highly probable that they will utilize a

variation of the crowdsource community, not necessarily to outsource and solicit contributions but as a human resource pool to identify and recruit creative talents.

Four thematic discrepancies

I briefly highlight four thematic discrepancies ascertained from the findings: 1) weak trust–enabling properties, 2) lack of temporary systems, 3) negative power structure and relationships and 4) counterproductive incentives, and suggest directions for improvement. This section may be of interest to practitioners, such as User Experience (UX) designers or platform developers, to support the socio–technical development of trust systems.

Discrepancy 1: weak trust–enabling properties

Patterns of weakly embedded *situational* (temporal, social, institutional embeddedness) and *trust–warranting* (ability, integrity, benevolence, openness) properties have been found in the studies. First, online institutions will have to re-examine their offline counterparts and offer similar virtual creative conditions or a mashup of both (offline–online activities) to galvanise collective and inter–group behaviour and foster creative outputs. Secondly, online assessment of the trustee must progress beyond the factor of ability (Mayer *et al*., 1995) to include integrity (Corritore *et al.*, 2003), benevolence (Mayer and Davis, 1999) and openness (Mishra, 1996). These additional factors can strengthen–ties (Granovetter, 1973) and transitions the interpersonal relationship from the initial to mature steps of trust (section 2.4.4.2).

Discrepancy 2: lack of temporary systems

If institutions continue to encourage creatives within the community to work in a cooperative manner: through a temporary spontaneous team, then they must invest in socio–technical *temporary systems* (Meyerson *et. al*., 1996; Jarvenpaa *et al*., 1998) to formalise workflow procedures and practices. Without sufficient leadership (within the team), institutional guidance and rules of engagement to monitor progress and moderate internal relationships, cooperation and the arrangement of temporary spontaneous teams are unlikely to yield mutual beneficial outcomes for involved parties.

Discrepancy 3: negative power structure and relationships

A comparative examination of the *institution* and *community* components of the creative workflow process in the offline and online domains, reveal a common

power dimension that is representative of *control trust* (Tan and Thoen, 2000). These structural mechanisms are enforced vertically and are perceived positively in the offline domain but negatively in the online domain: where power is concentrated at the centre and the direction of trust is unidirectional. Since democratization (Huntingdon, 1993) of workflow is a transitionary process (and continues to be), power should be further relinquished from the centre to the community: in such a way that empowers creatives and gives them the assurance (Zucker, 1986) and confidence (Luhman, 1980) required to practise their craft openly and freely. In essence, power should be utilized not to withhold and extract human capital, but as a means to empower practitioners and unlock unforeseen creative potential.

Discrepancy 4: counterproductive incentives

The incentive structures of online advertising communities can determine a creative's motivation and rationale for utilizing such communities (sub–theme 1.2). Further investigation of incentives and motivations, unearth latent conflicts between institution and creative practitioners. On reflection online advertising communities, that are centred on the crowdsource contest model and is monetary induced, is exposed to the *contest–cooperation dilemma* (sub–theme 2.1). This social dilemma is present because creative practitioners are extrinsically motivated and perceive others in the community as competitors rather than co-operators. These findings are in line with the work of Stanne *et al*., (1999) and Wagerman (1995), whom suggests contests can be counterproductive to cooperative development. Moreover, they can be *destructive* (Deutsch, 1973, 2011) to the community if the procedures are perceived as being unfair. In sum, to unlock creative potential and encourage greater interdependency between practitioners alternative mixed–incentive structures should be explored, which are principally not based on monetary rewards.

8.3 Revisit research goals

I revisit the research goals set forth at the beginning of the thesis to examine whether they have been fulfilled. First, I reflect upon aim and contribution discussed (see Chapter 1). Secondly, I then re-examine the propositions which were embedded in the conceptual framework (see Chapter 3).

8.3.1 Revisit aim and contributions

The aim of the thesis was to investigate how trust is operationlised in virtual workplaces settings. I studied this phenomenon as a decision and as an act (Castelfranchi and Falcone, 2010) at the granular level. While there is a focus in online advertising communities, I equally include an ad–agency in the offline domain to act as a comparative introspection point. The thesis was directed by the main research question: *"How is trust correlated to workflow in offline and online advertising communities?"* In exploring the correlation between trust and workflow I essentially mapped the degree by which the principles and properties of trust are aligned to the components of workflow.

This main question was fulfilled through four objectives. The first objective entailed developing a conceptual framework that correlated and aligned trust to workflow (see Chapter 3). The second objective formed the basis of the first study and examined how trust is operationlised in an offline ad–agency (see Chapter 5). The third objective formed the basis of the second study and examined the structures that facilitate trust and workflow in online advertising communities. The fourth objective formed the basis of the third study and provided experiential insights in terms how online advertising communities are utilized and perceived from the stakeholder of the creative practitioner.

Contributions

This thesis makes 1) *theoretical*, 2) *analytical* and 3) *empirical* contributions, and is targeted towards a general business management audience. Using methods and techniques from Human–Computer Interaction (HCI) and Information Systems (IS), it advances the study of trust in virtual workplace settings and establishes an interpretative foundation from which to investigate trust and workflow in the offline and online domains. It will be of interest to scholars who have research interests in Organisational Studies (OS) or Science and Technology Studies (STS).

Contribution 1: theoretical

I illustrate three shortfalls in trust and workflow: 1) alignment, 2) formalities and 3) transience (see Fig. 17) and position the thesis at the midpoint between the offline and online domains. Previous studies assume that trust is actively required in work (Mayer *et al*., 1995; Kramer and Tyler, 1995; Dirks and Ferrin, 2001) but do not provide insight in terms of how it is aligned to its modular components. Extending the works of Meyerson *et al*., (1996) and Jarvenpaa *et al*., (1998), from

which they examine the practice of trust in temporary spontaneous workgroups, I show that trust is an active determinant of workflow: trust consists a mix of trust–warranting and situational properties and its presence is stronger in some modular components than in others, particularly when comparing constructed (offline) and spontaneous (online) creative teams. Relative to this general theory, I highlight formative properties that are inherent in professional relationships and distinguish them from social relationships and showcase the transient nature of trust as working practices are exercised to and fro the offline and online domains.

Contribution 2: analytical

I introduce and proceduralise a novel *thematic–narraitive* method of analysis to explore the correlation between trust and workflow. The rationale to develop such a method is to caputure multiple stakeholder perspectives and the denotation (manifest meaning) connotation (latent, hidden meaning) of signs. By mediating between *descriptive* (wide perspectives) and *focused* (narrow) observations (Angrosino and dePerez, 2000; DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002) I can enrich findings and add an extra layer of synthesis to data analysis. First, I use Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis method to generate a wide lens, from which to unearth patterned interactions and critical occurrences (Boyatzis, 1998). Within this method I extend the systematic use of categories to induce theory from the dataset. Secondly, I then apply Labov's (1972) narrative analysis to cast a narrower lens, in which, I amplify the keyness of a theme and identify decisions and acts of trust, which are embedded within the structure of the narrative.

Contribution 3: empirical

From three sequential field studies I offer empirical evidence and practical insights that underline the fragility of trust in online advertising communities. These contributions are sourced from small–scale observations and are shaped by mutiple stakehoplder perspectives. The first study was conducted in an offline ad–agency where I had job shadowed influential stakeholders. The correlation summary (see Section 8.4.2) indidates that trust has a positive correlation with workflow and is stongly aligned to workflow components. The second study was conducted in the online domain and is observation based. In this study I comparatively examined two types of professional communities (non–creative and creative), where I then focused on the latter to dissiminate the workflow process and logged navigational patterns. The correlation summary indicates that

trust has a negative correlation with workiflow and is mediumly misaligned to workflow components. The third study was also conducted online and encompassed a mix of observation and interview methods. In this study I gained experiential insights in terms of how trust is practised in virtual workplace settings. The correlation summary indicates that trust has a negative correlation with workflow and is strongly misaligned to workflow components.

8.3.2 Revisit propositional statements

I revisit the four *propositional statements* in Chapter 3 and make relevant adjustments in light of the research findings. The propositions are inferred from the thematic categories and groups in Chapter 2, and support the exploration of the research questions. Each propositional statement encompasses a distinct category, group(s) and layer(s) of trust, which were then aligned the basic conceptual framework (Fig. 20).

Propositional statement one

"Workflow consists of institutional and interpersonal objects, where fulfilment of brief is dependent on dyadic and group structures in the community."

The first proposition represents the *analytical perspective* category and denotes the breadth of relationships. Within this category the object and structure groups were selected. In the object group the interpersonal and institutional layers were selected; in the structure group the dyad and group layers were selected. All three findings indicate that institutional objects are required to moderate interpersonal behaviours of trust. However, while brief fulfilment in study one is dependent on dyadic and group structures, this is not the case in the online domain. In this setting dyadic relations are principally between institution and the creative practitioner in the community and groups structures are underrepresented.

Propositional statement two

"Workflow is characterized by professional relationships. Offline, it is rational, emotive and connected by strong–ties while online it is rational and connected by weak–ties."

The second proposition represents the *relationship state* category and denotes the depth of relationships. Within this category the character, attitude and degree groups were selected. In the character group the professional layer was selected;

in the attitude group the rational and emotional layers were selected; in the degree groups the strong–tie and weak–tie layers were selected. All three studies reflect properties that are characterized in professional relationships. However, whereas activities in study one require a degree of interdependence, the latter two studies are more independent. Moreover, in the offline domain emotive relationships contribute to strong–ties that are consistent with identification–based trust (Shapiro *et al*., 1992), whereas in the online domain the individualistic rational calculation of costs and benefits contribute to weak–ties and are consistent with calculus–based trust (Lewicki and Bunker, 1996).

Propositional statement three

"Offline workflow is mutual, where ability, integrity, benevolence and openness warrants trust. Online workflow is bidirectional, where ability and integrity warrants trust".

The third proposition represents the *mediated exchange* category and denotes the ebb and flow of trust. Within this category the direction and factors groups were selected. In the direction group the bidirectional and mutual layers were selected; in the factors group the ability, integrity, benevolence and openness layers were selected. In the offline domain, trust flows mutually between two parties and properties of ability, integrity, benevolence and openness warrant trust of the trustee. However, in the online domain the flow of trust is not necessarily bidirectional but is more unidirectional, which emanates from the institution to the community. Moreover, ability supersedes integrity and benevolence, which is placed in lower standing than the former.

Propositional statement four

"Situational properties can determine the degree of structural alignment. Whereas offline trust is operationalized in the medium to mature steps, online trust is operationalized in the unaware to medium steps."

The fourth proposition represents the *temporal transference* category and denotes the transitory nature of trust as it flows through the passage of time. Within this category the dynamic and step groups were selected. In the dynamic group the dispositional and situational groups were selected; in the steps group the unaware, aware, initial, early, medium, mature layers were selected. A comparative review of offline (study one) and online trust and workflow (study two, three) indicate the

influence of situational properties (temporal, social, institutional embeddedness) in modulating interpersonal trust. When these properties are strongly embedded in the institution, as showcased in study one, then trust can be positioned in the medium steps. However, contrary to the above statement, when it is weakly embedded, as showcased in studies two and three, then trust can be positioned in–between the unaware to early steps in the online domain.

8.4 Fulfilment of quality guidelines

Quality in interpretive research is conceptualised from two dimensions: 1) it resides in the types of choices a researcher makes (Reason, 2006) but 2) also refers to the insight of the reader in understanding the context of the study (Rolf, 2006). I reflect upon the four quality guidelines set forth in Chapter 4 and discuss their procedural fulfilment.

Guideline 1: internal validity

Internal validity is composed of two components: 1) *descriptive* (Maxwell, 1992) and 2) *interpretive validity* (Maxwell, 1992; McTaggart, 1997). First, descriptive validity refers to the accuracy of the recorded observations and reflective experiences. This form of validity is more applicable in the first two studies where observations were logged manually. In study one, observations were dated and time stamped. If an observation was considered important but the Occurrence was not completely logged, then I would *park* the Occurrence and return and investigate at a later time: where a walkthrough of the Occurrence will be requested from the relevant stakeholder. In study two, observations were static and were limited to what can be observed onscreen through the respective community websites.

When tallying the frequency of a phenomenon, counts were conducted twice to ensure accuracy. Where applicable reflective experiences were written on *memos* and kept separately from the observational logs, insofar as to separate objective reality (what was observed) from subjective reality (researcher's interpretive meanings). Secondly, interpretive validity refers to the accuracy of the interpreted data. This type of validity was supported by adopting different stakeholder perspectives of the phenomenon to unearth common interpretive patterns. Moreover, in Part B of study three, interpretive validity was also considered. To ensure that semantic meanings reflected the opinions of the informants, learned actions were summarised and reiterated back to the

informant at the end of the interview so that errors and misinterpretations could be identified and corrected.

Guideline 2: external validity

External validity is composed of two components: 1) *generalisability* (Maxwell, 1992; Melrose 2001) and 2) *evaluative validity* (Maxwell, 1992). First, generalisability is used broadly and refers to the ability to apply the findings to a wider group, community or situation. In this research setting the collective findings from the thesis have *limited generalisability*. The small–scale substantive theory and empirical insights acquired in the thesis are applicable to online advertising communities: based on the crowdsource and contest business model that offer monetary prize inducements, and is not applicable to all online creative communities. However, if these online creative communities have the internal function and ability to arrange spontaneous temporary teams, then this thesis may be of some relevant use.

In sum, the crowdsource and contest (monetary induced) facets are two common factors that distinguish these advertising communities from other broader online creative communities. Secondly, evaluative validity refers to the applicability of the research framework to other projects. In this setting, the conceptual framework is situational specific: it was conceptualised to investigate the transient correlation and alignment of trust and the creative workflow process, as it mediates to and from the offline and online domains. In this setting, the creative workflow process in both domains were broken down and aligned to distinct categories and groups of trust. It therefore may not be applicable to workflow processes practised in other creative disciplines that are not related to advertising.

Guideline 3: construct validity

Construct validity is composed of two components: 1) *theoretical* and (Maxwell, 1992; Melrose, 2001) and 2) *method validity*. First, theoretical validity refers to the accuracy of the attained knowledge. To ensure theoretical validity data, theory and methodological triangulation (see Table 10) were employed to ensure consistency of findings and saturation of theory. At the analytical–level *a priori* deductive codes were used to connect keywords from the thematic categories and groups to identified Occurrences within the datasets.

These deductive codes were contextualised in broader sentences, from which semantic meanings were induced to form first–order and second–order categories. The development of these systematic categories were further supplanted by reflective accounts. Secondly, method validity refers to the relevancy of the methods employed. In this context, the methods chosen (observations, interviews) are typical of the interpretive paradigm and modes of naturalistic inquiry (Guba, 1978). Furthermore, different types of collecting data were explored before the decision was made to select an appropriate method.

Guideline 4: trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is composed of three components: 1) *trustworthiness* of the researcher (Mays and Pope, 2000), 2) *audit trail* (Sandelowski, 1986) and 3) *research report* (Denzin, 2009). First, trustworthiness of the researcher refers to the self–declaration of personal and intellectual biases. These declarations, which were presented in the methodology chapter, underpinned the philosophical assumptions of the research (ontology, epistemology, methodology, axiology). In these discussions I stated my allegiance to the interpretive school of thought from which I then adhered to a particular variant of interpretivism: which encompasses the socio–economic perspective (as ontological stance) and semiotics (as mode of analysis).

Secondly, the audit trail is concerned with making past decisions and actions transparent. This trail was presented through the research tools and techniques which includes: 1) the *a priori* keyword codebook (see Appendix 1), 2) criteria's used to select institutions (see Appendix 2), 3) correspondents (see Appendix 3), 4) consensus forms (see Appendix 4), 5) study guides (see Appendix 5), 6) interview templates (see Appendix 6), 7) hand codes (see Appendix 7). Thirdly, the research report refers to the findings, interpretive claims and informants involved, which is presented through the themes or thematic reports from the respective three studies.

8.5 Limitations of research

Like most interpretive research this thesis has a relatively small sample size, where there is a focus on capturing the nuances of human behaviour and workflow processes. As a result it has small–scale substantive impact on theory and has *limited generalizability*. I briefly discuss three limitations: 1) institutional, 2) creative and 3) theoretical. First, in study one only two weeks was granted to

conduct the participant observational study and job shadow informants in the institution. A longer sustained period (a month+) and multiple visits to different institutions would have added to the immersive experience of the study and enrichment of the dataset (Atkinson and Hammerlsey, 1994).

However, this may not be possible due to the formidable constraints of accessing and operating in a commercially active institution where institutions are more likely to decline permission. This is understandable since institutions have limited resources and are constrained by time–bound working practices. Nevertheless, this can be a significant barrier of entry to those who are unfamiliar with the industry. In this context, long–term planning, persistence and the building up of internal professional contacts are three main factors that can determine the success of study placement within the institution. While, this will not guarantee placement, it will increases the chance of success, particularly if future researchers communicate and emphasise the benefits of the study to the institution/s in question.

Secondly, the creative setting from which the studies are based are associated with facets of advertising, where there is an emphasis on the creative workflow process employed to fulfil briefs. Consequently, they do not necessarily reflect the plethora of other external online creative communities, particularly those that are not related to advertising or require the fulfilment of such briefs. Though in hindsight these external communities may share similar workflow modular components (institution, creative team) with the conceptual framework. Moreover, I use the term *creative practitioner* in the context of advertising and identify characteristics and creative properties that are distinct to these types of practitioners (see Section 3.3.3). It should be noted that they do not necessarily represent general creative practices nor creative practitioners from external niche online creative communities: whom may possess characteristics and trust–warranting properties that are different from those outlined in this thesis.

Thirdly, this thesis focused on a specific relational type of trust (professional) relative to workflow (practices, procedures) in distinct situational contexts (advertising, offline–online domain). Through the theory I demonstrate that trust is an active determinant of workflow, where I highlight the distinct properties inherent in professional relationships and the transient nature of trust as practices mediate to and fro the offline and online domains. This general theory is strongly related to trust in professional relationships (Barber, 1983) and to practitioners who perform in workplace teams (Meyerson *et al*., 1996; Jarvenpaa

et al., 1998). While it does not raise the theory to a generalised theoretical level (generalised trust), due to the multifaceted nature of trust, it nevertheless contributes to a growing body of work that one day may account for a generalised theory.

8.6 Directions for future work

This thesis has established the interpretive foundations to further investigate the correlation and alignment of trust and workflow. While the situational context of this study is related to the advertising industry, there is scope to expand the work to broader online *creative* or *professional* communities of practice. In general, future works can dovetail in two directions.

Direction 1: modify and extend conceptual framework

The opportunity exists to modify the conceptual framework to examine working practices that are not necessarily tied to the creative industries or require spontaneous teams. For instance, the framework can be transferred to explore the interplay of trust and workflow in other industrial sectors: such as healthcare, hospitality or engineering, especially in constructed workplace settings where interdependent actions are required to fulfil collective goals and needs. Examining trust at this anthropic granular level can unearth logistical insights into the working practices of institutions in these industrial sectors that can either refine present working procedures or redefine the institution–employee relationship.

Though the thesis becomes more relevant if the institution has a strong virtual workplace presence (online domain) and the employee has the choice to conduct their tasks offline/online or a mix of both. If this is the case then I recommend two basic maxims for researchers. First, a thorough dissemination of the workflow process is required. This dissemination should preferably divide the workflow process into distinct modular components (input, process, outputs) where their situational and trust–warranting properties are identified and aligned to the workflow components. Secondly, offline working practices are equally as important and should be considered as a default introspection point from which to identify and study variances (similarities and differences) of trust and workflow. In a sense, the offline and online praxis becomes more critical when employees are dependant on both domains to fulfil their tasks and mediates between the said domains frequently.

Direction 2: explore alternative methods and techniques

While a number of online studies have employed the logical positivist paradigm to investigate the value and utility of trust (Golbeck, 2005; Riegelsberger, 2005), the interpretive paradigm has been kept in the shadows. This occurrence remains a mystery despite frequently cited studies from the like of, Lewis and Weigert (1985), McAllister (1995) and Meyerson *et al*., (1996), all of whom advocate the use of softer methodological approaches to unearth practical insights. Denying interpretivism from studies of online trust can stifle discourse and delay the understanding of phenomena that can advance the academic progression of trust and workflow in virtual workplace settings.

With the support from the thematic categories and groups (see Section 2.4), I have established the interpretive foundations to study trust and workflow, in a manner that does not dilute the complexity of the construct. Within this foundation the possibility exists to reconfigure the research design or explore data collection and analysis methods and techniques that were not used in the thesis. For instance, I have lightly employed quantitative methods to tally and tabulate phenomena in study two but future researchers can reconfigure the research design to further develop this research facet. From the data collection front, focus groups can be considered to enrich qualitative findings. Finally, in terms of data analysis, I have proceduralised a thematic–narrative mode of analysis that encompasses semiotics. Future works can modify, extend or refine this method and procedure to study phenomena that are not necessarily related to trust and workflow.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 A priori keyword codebook overview

Nos.	Keyword	Code	Group	Code	Category
01	Interpersonal	Ot	Objects of trust	Ap	*Analytical perspective*
02	Institutional				
03	Artifact				
04	Implicit	Mt	Manifestations of trust		
05	Explicit				
06	Dyad, triad	St	Structures of trust		
07	Groups				
08	Community, Network				
01	Social	Ct	Character of trust	Rs	*Relationship state*
02	Professional				
03	Emotional	At	Attitudes of trust		
04	Rational				
05	Strong–ties	De	Degrees of trust		
06	Weak–ties				
07	Latent–ties				
01	Unidirectional	Dt	Directions of trust	Me	*Mediated exchange*
02	Bidirectional				
03	Mutual				
04	Ability	Ft	Factors of trust		
05	Integrity				
06	Benevolence				
01	Dispositional	Dy	Dynamics of trust	Tt	*Temporal transference*
02	Situational				
03	Unaware	Tr	Steps of trust		
04	Aware				
05	Initial				
06	Early				
07	Medium				
08	Mature				
09	Extreme				

Appendix 1.1 Semantic meaning of keywords (Ap Category)

Category: analytical perspective (Ap)		
Group: Objects of trust		
Nos. of Forms: 3 **Identified Forms:** Interpersonal, institutional, artefacts (technological)		
Interpersonal	**Institutional**	**Artifacts (Technological)**
Embedded in Social Networks	Embedded in Internal and External Networks of Trust	Embedded in Computational Networks
Group: Manifestations of Trust		
Nos. of Forms: 2 **Identified Forms:** Implicit, explicit		
Implicit	**Explicit**	
Cognitive Construct Not Physically Observable Intention to trust and belief formed but no act Influenced by Propensity, Institutional and Cycle of Trust antecedents	Behavioral Construct Physically Observable Psychological Behavior, an Observable Decision and Behavioral Act	
Group: Structures of trust		
Nos. of Forms: 4 **Identified Forms:** Dyad, triad, group, network		
Dyad, Triad	**Group**	**Network**
Basic Three-Part Relation	Collective Cooperative Action Group Goal Adoption Membership Protection Increase Performance	Transivity of trust create ties with new unfamiliar Actors[1] Trust Statements and Reputation cement new ties Ties travel beyond immediate social circle

Appendix 1.1.1 Semantic meaning of keywords (Rs Category)

Category: relationship state (Rs)	
Group: Characters of trust	
Nos. of Forms: 2 **Identified Forms:** Social, professional	
Social	**Professional**
General social properties Based on circumstances of similarity and social goal adoption Participation is voluntary and direct Function to social organize and build informal relationship Minimum regulation and enforcement	Specific professional properties Based on Expertise and Professional Formalities Participation is contractual Expertise screen and self-regulate relationships Reputation an intangible asset Damaged reputation more prolonged to repair

Group: Attitudes of trust	
Nos. of Forms: 2 **Identified Forms:** Rational, emotional	
Rational	**Emotional**
Also referred to as Cognitive Trust Found in professional relationships Extrinsic Motivations Competence and Reliability of trustee Rational Choice Strong Rational Belief leads to Trust and Strong Rational Disbelieve leads to Distrust	Also referred to as Affective/Relational Trust Found in intimate/romantic relationships Intrinsic Motivations Physical Perception and Positive Personal History with trustee Emotional Attachment If Trust broken, so will Emotional properties that bond the relationship

Group: Degrees of trust		
Nos. of Forms: 3 **Identified Forms:** Strong–ties, weak–ties, latent–ties		
Strong–ties	**Weak–ties**	**Latent–ties**
Also referred to as Thick Trust Strength influenced by Time, Attitude, Character Trustor participates Inside Social Circle Familiarity breeds trust Stable and Secure Relationships Reluctance to interact with actors[2] outside social circle Collectively known as Particularized Trusters Predicated on societal norms	Also Referred to as Thin Trust Strength influenced by Time, Attitude, Character Trustor participate Outside Social Circle Reputation breed trust Risk and uncertainty in Relationships More willing to interact with wider society. Collectively known as, Generalized Trusters Predicated on societal norms	Latency of Trust/Latent Trust Strength influenced by Time, Attitude, Character, *Social Structure* Trustor participate Outside Social Circle Reputation breeds trust Dormant but could add depth to a relationship Awareness of trustee, but tie is yet to be activated. Ties are weak when activated Reflective of Transivity of Trust

Appendix 1.1.2 Semantic meaning of keywords (Me Category)

Category: mediated exchange (Me)		
Group: Directions of trust		
Nos. of Forms: 3 **Identified Forms:** Unidirectional, bidirectional, mutual		
Unidirectional	**Bidirectional**	**Mutual**
Adam trusts Betty **ONLY**	Adam trusts Betty **AND** Betty trusts Adam **ALSO** Adam Believes Betty trusts Adam **THEN** Betty is likely to Reciprocate to Adam	Adam trusts Betty **AND** Betty trusts Adam **ALSO** Adam believes Betty trusts Adam, and Betty believes Adam trusts Betty **THEN** Betty is likely to Reciprocate to Adam, and Adam is likely to Reciprocate to Betty

Group: Factors of trust		
Nos. of Forms: 3 **Identified Forms:** Ability, integrity, benevolence		
Ability	**Integrity**	**Benevolence**
Trustee's Property of Perceived Trust Intrinsic Property that Warrants Trust Can represent Competency or Sphere of Influence Expertise of Specific Craft or Specialized Knowledge	Trustee's Property of Perceived Trust Intrinsic Property that Warrants Trust Act within Expected Principles and Norms Can represent, Credibility, Dependability, Honesty, Reliability	Trustee's Property of Perceived Trust Intrinsic Property that Warrants Trust Result of long-term repeated actions Care and Concern of Trustor Intrinsically Motivated and Acts of Altruism

Appendix 1.1.3 Semantic meaning of keywords (Tt Category)

Category: temporal transference (Tt)	
Group: Dynamics of trust	
Nos. of Forms: 2 **Identified Forms:** Dispositional dynamics, situational dynamics	
Dispositional dynamics	**Situational dynamics**
Persons changing experience is Property Change is volatile to feeling and vulnerable to mood, emotional fluctuations Social Uncertainty and Hazards of Opportunism contribute to Volatility Implicit from Trustors direct experience Explicit from Trustee, Group or Network	Temporal, Social and Institutional Embeddedness are Property Change is stable, repetitive exchanges Can induce cooperative or trustworthy Behavior Temporal Embeddedness transcends time Social Embeddedness can be leveraged and induce cooperative behavior Institutional Embeddedness are control mechanisms that provides stability and security

Appendix 1.1.4 Semantic meaning of keywords (Groups, Steps of trust)

Group: steps of trust						
Nos. of Forms: 7 **Identified Forms:** Unaware, aware, initial, early, medium, mature, extreme						
Unaware	**Aware**	**Initial**	**Early**	**Medium**	**Mature**	**Extreme**
Can be part of transformative relationship or be static Represent Absent Trust and Latent Property Transitions Non-existent, but Potential relationship To be Self-Realized by Trustor	Can be part of transformative relationship or be static Represent Absent Trust and Latent Property Transitions Aware of potential Attraction to relationship To be Self-Actualized by Trustor Developmental Types: Latent Characterized by dormant relational ties	Can be part of transformative relationship or be static Represent Build Trust and Intrinsic Properties Transitions Point of First Contact Developmental Types: Swift Characterized by fragile, swift and temporal acts	Can be part of transformative relationship or be static Represent Build Trust and Intrinsic Properties Transitions Fragile to vulnerabilities of trust Developmental Types: Basic/Guarded, Calculus-Based, Deterrence-Based Characterized by Calculative behavior and guarded by contracts and sanctions	Can be part of transformative relationship or be static Represent Validate Trust and Intrinsic/ Extrinsic Transitions Reliant on exchange of knowledge Developmental Types: Knowledge-Based Information-Based Characterized by validation of trust, determined by outcomes	Can be part of transformative relationship or be static Represent Manage Trust and Intrinsic Transitions Ability and integrity galvanizes trust Developmental Types: Identification-Based Transference-Based Extended Slow Characterized by mutual understanding, shared goals and conflict resolution	Can be part of transformative relationship or be static Represent Blind Trust Intrinsic/ Transitions Blind faith could make trustor act irrationally Developmental Types: Absolute, Super Characterized By over reliance that may not be controlled

Appendix 1.2 A priori codes and referential units (Ap Category)

Analytical perspective (Ap)	
Code Ap-Ot-01	
Keyword	*Interpersonal*
Definition	*relating to relationships or communication between people*[*1]
Referential Units	*inter (+) personal, between people, between persons*
Code Ap-Ot-02	
Keyword	*Institutional*
Definition	*of, in, or like an institution or institutions*[*1]
Referential Units	*company, organization, corporate*[*3], *government*[*3]
Code Ap-Ot-03	
Keyword	*Artifact*
Definition	*an object made by a human being, one of a technological nature*[*1]
Referential Units	*object, item, thing, something, gadget, substance*[*2]
Code Ap-Mt-04	
Keyword	*Implicit*
Definition	*not physically observable*
Referential Units	*mind, implied, unspoken, cognitive*[*2]
Code Ap-Mt-05	
Keyword	*Explicit*
Definition	*psychological and observable behavior*
Referential Units	*behavior, decision, act, action*
Code Ap-St-06	
Keyword	*Dyad, Triad*
Definition	*relationship consisting of two or three persons*
Referential Units	*two persons, duo, three persons, trio, twosome, threesome, team*[*2]
Code Ap-St-07	
Keyword	*Groups*
Definition	*a number of people or things that are located, gathered, or classed together*[*1]
Referential Units	*party, band, gang, faction, crowd, club, class*[*2]
Code Ap-St-08	
Keyword	*Community*
Definition	*a group of people living in the same place or having a particular characteristic in common*[*1]
Referential Units	*association, collective, centre*[*2]

Appendix 1.2.1 A priori codes and referential units (Rs Category)

Relationship state (Rs)	
Code Rs-Ct-01	
Keyword	*Social*
Definition	*relating to society or its organization*[*1]
Referential Units	*communal, civil, socialize*[*2]
Code Rs-Ct-02	
Keyword	*Professional*
Definition	*relating to or belonging to a profession*[*1]
Referential Units	*pro, expert*[*3], *experienced, licensed, qualified*[*2]
Code Rs-At-03	
Keyword	*Emotional*
Definition	*relating to a person's emotions*[*1]
Referential Units	*affect*[*3], *sensitive, passion*[*3], *nervous, sentimental, exciting, moving, touching*[*2]
Code Rs-At-04	
Keyword	*Rational*
Definition	*based on or in accordance with reason or logic*[*1]
Referential Units	*logic*[*3], *wise, thoughtful, reasonable, intelligent, levelheaded, analytical* [*2]
Code Rs-De-05	
Keyword	*Strong-Ties*
Definition	*relationships predicated by strong relational bonds*
Referential Units	*strong, thick (+) bonds, familiarity in relationship*
Code Rs-De-06	
Keyword	*Weak-Ties*
Definition	*relationships predicated by weak relational bonds*
Referential Units	*weak, thin (+) bonds, risk or uncertainty in relationship*
Code Rs-De-07	
Keyword	*Latent-Ties*
Definition	*awareness of relationship but bond is not activated*
Referential Units	*dormant (+) bonds*

Appendix 1.2.2 A priori codes and referential units (Me Category)

Mediated exchange (Me)	
Code Me-Dt-01	
Keyword	Unidirectional
Definition	*moving or operating in a single direction*[*1]
Referential Units	*dictate, one direction, one way*
Code Me-Dt-02	
Keyword	Bidirectional
Definition	*functioning in two directions*[*1]

Referential Units	*both directions, both ways, two ways, feedback*
Code Me-Dt-03	
Keyword	*Mutual*
Definition	*of a feeling or action) experienced or done by each of two or more parties towards the other or others*[*1]
Referential Units	*Reciprocal*
Code Me-Ft-04	
Keyword	*Ability*
Definition	*possession of the means or skill to do something*[*1]
Referential Units	*capable*[*3],competence, skill, talent*[*2]
Code Me-Ft-05	
Keyword	*Integrity*
Definition	*the quality of being honest and having strong moral principles*[*1]
Referential Units	*honesty, principle, sincere, virtue*[*2]
Code Me-Ft-06	
Keyword	*Benevolence*
Definition	*the quality of being well meaning*[*1]
Referential Units	*kind*[*3], generosity*[*2]

Appendix 1.2.3 A priori codes and referential units (Tt Category)

Temporal transference (Tt)	
Code Tt-Dy-01	
Keyword	Dispositional dynamics
Definition	*a parties changing feelings and experiences can affect the relationship*
Referential Units	*emotional (+) volatility, fluctuations, vulnerability*
Code Tt-Dy-02	
Keyword	Situational dynamics
Definition	*the context of the situation can affect the relationship*
Referential Units	*embeddedness (+) temporal, social, institutional*
Code Tt-Tr-03	
Keyword	*Unaware*
Definition	*unaware step in relationship development*
Referential Units	*relationship, development (+) non-existent*
Code Tt-Tr-04	
Keyword	*Aware*
Definition	*aware step of relationship development*
Referential Units	*relationship, development (+) dormant*
Code Tt-Tr-05	
Keyword	*Initial*
Definition	*initial step of relationship development*
Referential Units	*relationship, development (+) fragile, swift, temporal acts*

Code Tt-Tr-06	
Keyword	*Early*
Definition	*early step of relationship development*
Referential Units	*relationship, development (+) calculative behavior*
Code Tt-Tr-07	
Keyword	*Medium*
Definition	*medium step of relationship development*
Referential Units	*relationship, development (+) validated by outcomes*
Code Tt-Tr-08	
Keyword	*Mature*
Definition	*mature step of relationship development*
Referential Units	*relationship, development (+) mutual understanding, shared goals*
Code Tt-Tr-09	
Keyword	*Extreme*
Definition	*extreme step of relationship development*
Referential Units	*relationship, development (+) over reliance*

NB: *1 Some definitions provided by www.oxforddictionaries.com which have been modified. . *2 *Referential Units* refer to the likeness (similarity) of words and have been provided by www.thesaurus.com which have been modified. *3 Located in referential unit class, beside words of similar likeness refers to truncation of word.

Decoding instructions for Appendix 1.2–1.2.3

Decoding instructions
All a priori keywords and referential units are represented as a six alphanumeric code: which are coupled and separated by a hyphen. First two letters denotes categories (Ap, Rs, Me, Tt), second two letters denotes group (Ot, Mt, St, Ct, At, De, Dt, Ft, Dy, Tr) and the last two digits denote specific keyword number. Refer to Appendix A.

Appendix 1.3 Field study subject codes (Study one)

Field study one subject codes	
Subject	**Codes**
Community	AGE01
Informants	INF01_M, INF02_M, INF03_M

Appendix 1.3.1 Field study subject codes (Study two)

Field study two subject codes			
Category A communities	**Category B communities**	**User in Crowdspring (COM06)**	**Users in Poptent (COM07)**
COM01 COM02 COM03 COM04	COM05 COM06 COM07 COM08	USR04_M, USR 05_M, USR 06_M, USR 07_F, USR 08_M, USR 09_F, USR 10_F, USR 11_F, USR 12_M, USR 13_M	USR 14_F, USR 15_M, USR 16_M, USR 17_F, USR 18_M, USR 19_M, USR 20_F, USR 21_M, USR 22_F, USR 23_M

Appendix 1.3.2 Field study subject codes (Study three)

Field study three subject codes		
Subject	**Codes**	
Community	Blur (COM5)	Zooppa (COM8)
Informants	INF24_M, INF25_F, INF26_F, INF27_F, INF28_M, INF29_M, INF30_M, INF31_F, INF32_F, INF33_F	INF34_F, INF35_M, INF36_M, INF37_M, INF38_M, INF39_M, INF40_M, INF41_M, INF42_F, INF43_M

Decoding instructions for Appendix 1.3

Code	Description
AGE	Represents offline brick–and–mortar ad–agency community of practice
COM	Represents online web–based community of practice
INFO	Represents informant (active agent) in offline or online community
USR	Represents general user (passive agent) in online community

Decoding instructions

1. All community subjects are designated with a five alphanumeric code. First three letters refers to either *ad–agency* (AGE) or *community* (COM), following two sequential digits which refer to the number of subjects.

2. All human field subjects are designated with a six alphanumeric code. First three letters refers to either informant (INF) or user (USR), following two sequential digits which refer to the number of subjects. Last letter denote sex as either being *male* (_M) or *female* (_F).

Appendix 1.4 Field study Occurrence codes (Study one)

Field study one Occurrence codes		
Occurrences	**Description**	**Code**
Physical and Human settings	General description of physical or human setting inside of agency.	Ph-Ge-01
	General description of physical or human setting, outside of agency.	Ph-Ge-02
Work flow process or practice	General description of work flow process or practice	Wf-Ge-03
	Focused description of significant work flow process or practice	Wf-Fo-04
Events or Actions	General description of events or actions	Ea-Ge-05

	Focused description of significant events or actions	Ea-Fo-06
Informant/s	General description of informant/s	In-Ge-07
	Focused description of significant informant/s	In-Fo-08
Informants interacting with others	General description of two or more informants interacting	Hi-Ge-09
	Focused description of two or more significant informant interacting	Hi-Fo-10

Appendix 1.4.1 Field study Occurrence codes (Study two)

Field study three Occurrence codes		
Occurrences	**Description**	**Code**
Motivations and utility	General question as to what motivated the informant to join the community.	Mu-Ge-01
	Focused probe motivational factors and utility of the community.	Mu-Fp-02
Trusting experiences and perceived trust-warranting signs	General question whether informant has experienced any issues with using these communities.	Te-Ge-03
	Focused probe types of trust relationships informant has experienced in community and how informant assess these relationships.	Te-Fp-04
Brief fulfilment processes and experiences	General question as to how an informant fulfils creative brief in community.	Bf-Ge-05
	Focused probe to evaluate differences in Online and Offline workflow processes to fulfil a creative brief.	Bf-Fp-06
Willingness to collaborate and contribute	General question to determine whether informant has collaborated or contributed in community.	Cc-Ge-07
	Focused probe to reveal an informants personal thoughts of collaborating and contributing to the community.	Cc-Fp-08
Perceived expectations and desired attributes	General question to determine informant's thoughts of using creative communities to fulfil creative briefs.	Ea-Ge-09
	Focused probe to identify informant's expectations and desired attributes of the community.	Ea-Fp-10

Decoding instructions for Appendix 1.4

Decoding instructions
All contextual codes are represented as a six alphanumeric code: which are coupled and separated by a hyphen. First two letters denote Occurrence type, second two letters denote whether observation is molar and therefore *general* (Ge) or is molecular and therefore *focused* (Fo). Last two digits denote sequential numbering of Occurrence type.

Appendix 2 Institution selection criteria (Study one)

Field study one: offline ad–agency selection criteria	
Nos.	**Description**
1.	Ad–agency must be an operating brick–and–mortar business in the U.K. with external clients. It can either offer full house or specialist advertising services.
2.	Ad–agency must meet structural requirements (see Fig. 1). It must at least have sections that represents: A) accounts management and B) the creative department
3.	Ad–agency must meet workflow requirements (see Fig. 2). It must follow a similar creative workflow process outlined in Section 1.3.2.

Appendix 2.1 Institution selection criteria (Study two)

Field study two: online professional community selection criteria		
Nos.	**Category A non–advertising**	**Category B Advertising**
1.	Website is established and popular with professional users.	Website is established and popular with creative users.
2.	Community has a general business context and attracts professionals.	Community has an advertising focus and meets workflow requirements (see Fig. 2)
3.	Professionals in community meet prof. requirements (see Section 2.4.2.1)	Creatives in community meet prof. requirements (see Section 2.4.2.1)

Appendix 2.2 Institution selection criteria (Study three)

Field study three: online advertising community selection criteria	
Nos.	**Description**
1.	Website institution must be an operating business with external clients that offers creative services of an advertising nature.
2.	Website institution must meet structural requirements (see Fig. 1). It must at least have sections that represents: A) accounts management and B) the creative department
3.	Website institution must meet workflow requirements (see Fig. 2). It must follow a similar creative workflow process outlined in Section 1.3.2.

Appendix 3 Correspondence (Study one)

Field study one: role and remit for observations (document)

Summary role and remit for project agency

1. Introduction

Following our e–mail correspondents and recent telephone conversation I have drafted a brief outline of the role and remit of the study which is to be confirmed during our next meeting. Project *agency* is a doctoral research study that is part of a wider research project that investigates web–based advertising communities. The study is sponsored by Horizon Centre for Doctoral training (EP/G037574/1) RCUK which is part of the Business School, at the University of Nottingham.

2. Project aim

The aim of project is to conduct an observational study to investigate the relationship between working practices and trust in a physical brick–and–mortar ad–agency. Within the study I will be logging observational data affiliated with the agency which may include but not limited to descriptions of the following objects: institutional setting, internal community, actions and interactions of practitioners, external post–work activities. Moreover, upon further agreement I will also be job shadowing three willing field subjects to observe and map their working practices as they perform their craft.

3. Requirements

Materials required for the project include: 1) temporary hot desk with internet access. If no desk is available then alternative arrangements can be made.

4. Timeframe

The project will be conducted over a continuous two week period on a time to be agreed upon. The two weeks include full working days and hours that are expected to be adhered by employees in the agency. If practitioners work overtime, then if permitted to do so I will also be more than obliged to extend my observation period.

5. Method

In the field study I will be using a *participant observation* method. This type of data collection method is typically employed in qualitative research to observe and document emergent phenomena's in the field. When logging observations and shadowing field subjects I will be adopting the role of *participant as observer*. This means that I will become an overt member of the workplace setting with a focus on observing than participating in working practices.

6. Report and outputs

The observational logs will culminate in a short report that will offer an introspective account of your institution. It offer invaluable practical insights in terms of how trust is operationalized within the ad–agency structure and through the PhD research will have socio–technical implications to the design and development of online web–based advertising communities.

7. Data protection and user confidentiality

Addressing your concern of confidentiality I understand that I will have to complete a non–disclosure agreement. In addition, I have drafted a preliminary consensus form that ensures data protection and confidentiality. In addition to the consensus granted by the agency, individual consensus will also be granted from field subjects who are to be shadowed.

All data elicited will be confidential, anonymised and managed by the principle researcher *Jimmy Chim*. This includes anonymity of the institution, its employees, its clients and sensitive information held in meetings, project or in creative briefs (i.e. ad–campaigns, related products, budgets, strategies, creative briefs and concepts). Data will be used for analysis and evaluation only. Data will be held in secure servers and processed in accordance to the UK Data Protection Act of 1998. Field subjects will be free to withdraw all, or any part of, the activity at any time and all data will be erased from our records. There are no known risks in the study.

NB: Role and remit was discussed in prior correspondents (e–mail, telephone). It was printed out as a document and confirmed at a later meeting with agency stakeholders.

Appendix 3.1 Correspondence (Study three–part 1)

Field study three: call to participate in study (1st e–mail)

Call to participate in user experience study

Dear _____,

My name is Jimmy Chim and I am conducting research in online creative communities at the Horizon institute, in the University of Nottingham.

I would like to invite you to participate in a user experience study that examines how creatives use online web–based advertising communities. On completion of the study you will be submitted EU$20.00/US$25.00/UK£15.00 (delete) for your time.

As an established/new (delete) member of the _____community your insights will be invaluable and your contributions will advance the design and development of online creative communities.

In the next couple of days I will contact you to discuss the matter. In the meanwhile, should you require more information about the study then please feel free to e–mail me on psxjclc@nottingham.ac.uk. This study is sponsored by Horizon Centre for Doctoral training (EP/G037574/1) RCUK which is part of the Business School, at the University of Nottingham.

Best Regards,
Jimmy Chim,
University of Nottingham

Appendix 3.2 Correspondence (Study three–part 2)

Field study three: call to participate in study (2nd e–mail)

User experience study of web–based advertising communities

Dear _____,

Thank–you for your interest to participate in the user experience study on web-based advertising communities. I have enclosed an 'Information Sheet': that details the study and a 'Consent Form' that must be completed and returned to me if you decide to participate in the study.

Requirements
The majority of the study will be conducted via Skype so you will require a computer terminal with an Internet connection. This means will need Skype installed on your computer terminal. If you do not have Skype then you can download the application from http://www.skype.com. Once installed you can search for the researcher's username and save it in your contact list. His Skype username is 'jimmy.cl.chim'.

What do I do next?

1. Sign, date and return the 'Consent Form'
2. Select date and time for study (i.e. see available date and times below)

I will be available on the _____ at _____

3. My Skype username is _____
4. My landline number or mobile number is _____ (optional)

Date and Times
All times are in accordance to your time zone (PST) so there is no adjustments on your behalf. If above times are not suitable then we can arrange a time of your convenience

Mon. 13th Feb.	9.00am,	10.00am	12.00pm	2.00pm	3.00pm	6.00pm
	7.00pm	8.00pm				

Tue. 14th Feb.	9.00am	10.00am	12.00pm	2.00pm	3.00pm	6.00pm
	7.00pm	8.00pm				
Wed. 15th Feb.	9.00am	10.00am	12.00pm	2.00pm	3.00pm	6.00pm
	7.00pm	8.00pm				
Thu. 16th Feb.	9.00am	10.00am	12.00pm	2.00pm	3.00pm	6.00pm
	7.00pm	8.00pm				
Fri. 17th Feb.	9.00am	10.00am	12.00pm	2.00pm	3.00pm	6.00pm
	7.00pm	8.00pm				
Sat. 18th Feb	9.00am	10.00am	12.00pm	2.00pm	3.00pm	6.00pm
	7.00pm	8.00pm				
Sun. 19th Feb	9.00am	10.00am	12.00pm	2.00pm	3.00pm	6.00pm
	7.00pm	8.00pm				

Date & time of study
You will be sent a reminder e-mail 24 hours before the start of the study. On the date and time of the study the researcher will contact you via Skype, so please ensure your computer terminal is operational at this point. If any issues arise before the study, please email the researcher A.S.A.P. On completion of the study your payment will be sent within the next 7 days to this email address using the PayPal escrow service.

Best Regards,
Jimmy Chim,
University of Nottingham

Appendix 3.3 Correspondence (Study three–part 3)

Field study three: call to participate in study (3rd e–mail)

Notification to participate in user experience study

Dear _____,

This is to gentle reminder that you will be conducting a user experience study on web–based advertising communities on _____ at _____. If you are not available please contact me to make alternative arrangements. I appreciate your contributions and look forward to our virtual meeting tomorrow.

Best Regards,
Jimmy Chim,
University of Nottingham

Appendix 4 Consensual agreement forms (Study one)

Field study one: consensus forms for informants (job shadowed)

Practitioner consensual agreement

Project agency: observing practitioners

Section (I): purpose of observing practitioners

This observational study, where you are observed and followed, is part of a wider research doctoral programme that investigate online trust. The subsequent output of this study will provide insights: in terms of how working practices are operationalized in offline ad–agency settings, which will support the design and development of online web–based creative communities.

Section (II): the observation process

On times to be agreed by _____ the study will commence on the _____ and terminate on the _____. When immersed in the field the researcher will adopt the role of *participant as observer*. In this role the researcher become an overt member of your workplace setting, where there will be a focus on observing how you practice your daily routine than participating in them. When you are being followed and observed the researcher will act with due diligence and minimize noise and disruption.

If however you find that these disruptions are negatively impacting your normative routine or working performance then this matter should be communicated to the researcher immediately, from which he will suspend the study immediately and assess the context of the disruption. When logging observations the researcher may periodically prompt you, in appropriate times, to request information to explain certain workflow activities that may be unfamiliar to the researcher, the purpose of which is to provide insight into such practices.

Section (III): confidentiality, privacy, opt–out & risks

All data elicited will be confidential, anonymised and managed by the principle researcher, Jimmy Chim. The observational data will convey your general working practices and how you interact with others in your workplace setting. At any point you can request a copy of the observational logs to examine. Extracts from the collated data may be used as quotes in the research, but will be anonymised and not be tracked back to you. Data will be used for research and analysis only and will be held in secure servers and processed in accordance to the UK Data Protection Act of 1998. There are no known risks to you in this study. You are free to withdraw from the study at any point at which point all data collected from you up to that point will be erased from our records.

Section (VI): consent confirmation

I agree to take part in the observational field study where I am followed and observed, as described in 'Section (II)' and acknowledge that I am over 16 years of age or over. I understand that the study will be recorded, kept confidential: that the data collected about me will be used anonymously, unless I give further specific consent to use data such as quotes that can be linked to me, and that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving any explanation, and that all data collected about me will be erased, as described in 'Section (III)'

Section (V): help & additional information

The study is sponsored by Horizon Centre for Doctoral training (EP/G037574/1) RCUK which is part of the Business School, at the University of Nottingham. For more information about project agency, please E-mail the principle researcher, Jimmy Chim, at the University of Nottingham, at psxjclc@nottingham.ac.uk OR call 079 3303 8100. The researchers Institution address is as follows: *Jimmy Chim, Horizon Digital Economy Research, University of Nottingham Innovation Park, Triumph Road, Nottingham, NG7 2TU*

Type full name _____ Date _____

Appendix 4.1 Consensual agreement forms (Study three)

Field study three: consensus forms for informants (user experience)

User consensual agreement

User experience study of web–based advertising communities

Section (I): purpose of study

This field study will examine how creatives use web–based advertising communities. It is part of a wider research doctoral programme that investigate online trust. The subsequent output of this study will provide insights: in terms of how working practices are operationalized in online community settings, which will support the design and development of online web–based creative communities.

Section (II): online guide & interview

The study will start on a date and time agreed by you and in total should last no longer than 90 minutes. It will be conducted via Skype so you will need a computer terminal with an Internet connection. On completion of the study you will sent EU$20.00/US$25.00/UK£15.00 (delete) to the same e–mail address.

The study is composed of two parts. Part A. takes approximately 15 minutes. During this part the researcher will give you scenario–orientated tasks in which you will have to navigate around the graphical user interface of the community to fulfil the task. To conduct this part will need to logon to their community dashboard area and provide an onscreen step–by–step online guide to the researcher: in terms of how you fulfil the given tasks.

Part B. is interview based and should take no longer than 75 minutes. During this part the researcher will ask questions regarding your experiences of using the web–based advertising communities. Questions will also be inquired regarding how you fulfil creative briefs and practice your creative craft.

Section (III): confidentiality, privacy, opt–out & risks

All data elicited will be confidential, anonymised and managed by the principle researcher, Jimmy C.L. Chim. Part A and B. of the study will collate data, concerning your experience of online web-based advertising communities. Extracts from the collated data, such as quotes and screenshots, may be used in the research, but will be anonymised and not be tracked back to the participant. Data will be used for analysis and evaluation only and will be held in secure servers and processed in accordance to the UK Data Protection Act of 1998. There are no known risks to participants in this study. A participant is free to withdraw from the study at any point at which point all data collected about the participant up to that point will be erased from our records.

Section (VI): consent confirmation

I agree to take part in the user experience study of web-based advertising communities, as described in 'Section (II)' and acknowledge that I am over 16 Years of age or over. I understand that the study will be recorded, kept confidential; that that the data collected about me will be used anonymously, unless I give further specific consent to use data such as quotes that can be linked to me, and that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving any explanation, and that all data collected about me will be erased, as described in 'Section (III)'

Section (V): help & additional information

The study is sponsored by Horizon Centre for Doctoral training (EP/G037574/1) RCUK which is part of the Business School, at the University of Nottingham. For more information about project agency, please E-mail the principle researcher, Jimmy Chim, at the University of Nottingham, at psxjclc@nottingham.ac.uk OR call 079 3303 8100. The researchers Institution address is as follows: *Jimmy Chim, Horizon Digital Economy Research, University of Nottingham Innovation Park, Triumph Road, Nottingham, NG7 2TU.*

Type full Name _____ Date _____

Appendix 5 Guides (Study three)

Field study three: information sheet

Information sheet

User experience study of web–based advertising communities

This information sheet presents an overview of the user experience study. As agreed the study will be conducted on _____. If you are not able to attend the study please contact me on psxjclc@nottingham.ac.uk as soon as possible so we can reschedule another time slot.

The study examines how creatives use web–based advertising communities. It is part of a wider research doctoral programme that investigate online trust. As an established/new (delete) member of the _____community your insights will be invaluable and your contributions will advance the design and development of online creative communities.

The study should last no longer than 90 minutes. It will be conducted via Skype so you will need a computer terminal with an Internet connection.The study is composed of two parts: an online guide and main interview.

Part A (*online guide*) takes approximately 15 minutes. During this part the researcher will give you scenario–orientated tasks in which you will have to navigate around the graphical user interface of the community to fulfil the task. To conduct this part will need to logon to their community dashboard area and provide an onscreen step–by–step online guide to the researcher: in terms of how you fulfil the given tasks.

Part B (*interview*) should take no longer than 75 minutes. During this part the researcher will ask questions regarding your experiences of using the web–based advertising communities. Questions will also be inquired regarding how you fulfil creative briefs and practice your creative craft.

The *online guide* will be digitally captured: screenshots of the step–by–step online guide will be recorded from the researcher's desktop screen as he follows instructions provided by you. The main *interview* will also be recorded. After the study you may request a summaary of the data that was collated from you. You may contact the principle researcher, Jimmy Chim, at any time for more information about the research using the above e–mail or address below:

Jimmy Chim,
Horizon Digital Economy Research,
University of Nottingham Innovation Park,
Triumph Road,
Nottingham,
NG7 2TU

Your data will be stored in accordance with the Data Protection Act 1998, namely on a password protected drive in a secure facility and for the duration of the principle researchers doctoral programme. It will only be accessible by those directly involved in the research.

You may withdraw from the experiment at any time during or after the study for any reason without penalty by contacting me on the address above. In this event all data relating to you will be erased. All data will be anonymised before publication and will be made available through peer reviewed research publications and the Internet, to anyone who wishes to access it. The study is sponsored by Horizon Centre for Doctoral training (EP/G037574/1) RCUK which is part of the Business School, at the University of Nottingham.

Appendix 6 Construction of questions and probes

Field study three: initial construction of questions (inferred from thematic findings)			
Nos.	**General questions**	**Sub–themes**	
		S1*	**S2***
1.	What three factors attracted you to join and use this community?	1.1 2.1	1.1 1.2
2a.	Do you use any other similar creative communities?		
2b.	If so which ones?"		
3a.	Have you experienced any relationship issues with other members in the community?	1.1 3.1 3.2	1.3 2.2 2.4
3b.	If so please elaborate what these issues are		
4.	Would you work with a community member, with whom you had a negative relationship with, in the past?		
5.	Have you experienced any relationship issues with the website administrators?		
6.	If you were to work on a creative brief with an unfamiliar community member, what types of background checks do you perform?		
7.	Do you check the authenticity of a member's portfolio or the submitted projects? If so how what types of background checks do you perform?		
8.	Do you employ the same creative process to review and submit creative works, in the community, as you would do in an offline environment?	1.2 2.2	2.1 2.3
9.	If there are any process differences please elaborate what these differences are.		
10.	Say that you were to cooperate with another unfamiliar person to fulfil a creative brief. Would you prefer to work with that person online in a community-based environment, like this one OR in an offline environment (i.e. in a brick-and-mortar setting)?....please explain your choice		
11.	What are your thoughts of collaborating on a creative brief with other community members?	2.2 3.3	2.3 2.4
12.	What are thoughts of making contributions (blogs, forum posts etc.) to the community?		
13.	What are your personal thoughts of using these types of creative communities to review and fulfil creative briefs?	2.2 3.3	2.2 2.4
14a.	Have your perceptions about the community changed much since using the community?		
14b.	If so please elaborate these changes.		
15.	What types of changes would you like to see in these communities?		
16.	Is there anything you want to add that we have not covered, that may be of importance to the study?		

NB: *S1 and S2 denotes studies one and two. Subsequent enumerations shows sub–theme numbers the general questions are related to. See study findings respectively for meaning.

Appendix 6.1 Development of questions and probes

Field study three: development of questions and categories
Reasons for using community **Q.01** First of all, what are your thoughts of using web-based communities to review and complete creative briefs? Rationale: Identify initial perceptions. **Q.02** What three reasons attracted you to join this particular community? Rationale: Identify motivations.
Willingness to cooperate and contribute in community **Q.03** What are your thoughts of collaborating with other creatives, say to fulfil a creative brief in the community? Rationale: Identify willingness to cooperate. **Q.04** In this community are you *More likely* or *Less likely* to cooperate with another creative, whom in the past you did not particularly wish to work with?...please explain your choice. Rationale: Identify whether creative are more likely to engage in online cooperation than offline. **Q.05** What type of online conditions would encourage you to cooperate with another creative, especially with one whom you had not worked with in the past? Rationale: Identify conditions that support cooperation. **Q.06** What are your thoughts of making contributions (assisting another creative, creating a blog entry) to the community? Rationale: Identify willingness to contribute. **Q.07** What type of online conditions would encourage you to increase the level of contribution to the community? Rationale: Identify conditions that support contribution.
Trust–warranting properties in community **Q.08** If you were to cooperate with another creative in the community, whom you had not encountered before, how would you assess their trustworthiness? Rationale: Identify conditions and signs that support the assessment of trust. **Q.09** How do you assess the trustworthiness of the contents in the community? (submitted works from other creatives, knowledge contributions, portfolio) Rationale: Identify conditions and signs that support the trustworthiness of contents. **Q.10** Have you ever changed your mind concerning the trustworthiness of another creative in the community?…if so describe the situation and explain what triggered this change. Rationale: Identify whether online conditions can repair previous damaged relationships. **Q.11** Have you experienced situations of distrust or misplaced trust in the network…if so how did it affect you relationship with: A) other creatives in the community and B) the institution (website proprietors). Rationale: Identify experiences and effects of distrust and mistrust.
External influences and transient behaviour **Q.12** Do you use other web-based advertising communities?…if so how do these other communities differ from the one you are presently using? Rationale**:** Identify other similar communities and variance. **Q.13** Do you employ the same creative process to review and submit creative works in the community as you would do in an offline environment?...is so, please explain and elaborate what these differences are.

Rationale: Identify variances of creative practice in the online and offline domains.

Q.14 Do you use the same process to establish professional relationships in the community as you would do in an offline environment?...if so, please explain and elaborate what these processes are.

Rationale: Identify variances in relationship building in the online and offline domains.

Q.15 Say that you were to cooperate with another creative, whom you had not encountered before, to fulfil a creative brief. Would you prefer to work with that creative online within the community or offline in a physical setting?...please explain your choice

Rationale**:** Identify online and offline cooperation preference.

Q.16 Are you *More likely* or *Less likely* to change your mind concerning the untrustworthiness of a creative, in an web–based community setting, compared to that of an offline environment?…explain your choice.

Rationale: Identify likeliness of forgiving an untrustworthy agent in online setting compared to offline setting.

Openness, constraints and limitations of community

Q.17 Which one of the following communities would you prefer to work in: A) one that is self-regulated by creatives in the community, or B) one that is regulated by the website proprietors (owners of community)?…explain your choice.

Rationale: Identify regulation preference.

Q.18 Are there any aspects of the community that would deter you from increasing your level of cooperation or contribution?

Rationale: Identify cooperation and contribution constraints.

Q.19 What do you think are the limitations of the community (what does it have difficulty achieving)?

Rationale: Identify emergent issues and limitations.

Q.20 Have you encountered any social or systems issues when engaging in the community?...if so, can you please explain what these social and/or system issues are? ”

Rationale: Identify social–technical issues.

Desired properties of community

Q.21 What type of online conditions do you think would help foster stronger trust between you and other creatives in the community?

Rationale: Identify desirable community properties that would increase interpersonal trust.

Q.22 What type of online conditions do you think would help foster stronger trust between you and the website proprietors of the community?

Rationale: Identify desirable community properties that would increase institutional trust.

Concluding questions

Q.23 Is there anything you want to add that we have not covered but may be of importance to the study?

Rationale: Identify any overlooked community issues.

NB: General questions have been classed into thematic categories. These categories begin to collapse and merge with others.

Appendix 6.2 Refinement of questions and probes

Field study three: refinement of questions and categories
Motivations and utility **Q1.** What motivated you to join and use this community? **Focused probes:** **a.** What are your top three reasons of joining? **b.** How useful is the community to you? **c.** Do you use any other similar advertising communities?
Trusting experiences **Q2.** Have you experienced any issues with the community? **Focused probes:** **a.** Have you experienced any relationship issues with other members in the community? **b.** Would you work with a community member, with whom you had a negative relationship with, in the past? **c.** Have you experienced any relationship issues with the website proprietors? If so, please elaborate what these issues are. **d.** If you were to work on a creative brief with a community member whom you have not met before, would you check the identity of that member? If so, please elaborate what types of checks you would perform. **e.** Do you check the authenticity of a community member's portfolio or submitted project entry? If so how what types of background checks you would perform?
Workflow practices and processes **Q3.** Can you describe how you would typically complete a creative brief? **Focused probes:** **a.** Do you practice the same workflow process to review and submit creative works, in the community, as you would do in an offline setting? If so, please elaborate what these differences are. **b.** Say that you were to cooperate with another community member, whom you have not met before, to fulfil a creative brief. Would you prefer to work with that person online in a community setting, like this one OR in an offline physical setting? If so, please elaborate your choice.
Willingness to cooperation and contribute **Q4.** Have you cooperated on a creative brief or made a contribution to the community? **Focused probes:** **a.** What are your thoughts of cooperating on a creative brief with other community members? **b.** What are thoughts of making contributions (blogs, forum posts etc.) to the community?
Perceived expectations and desirability's **Q5.** What are your thoughts of using these communities to review and complete briefs? **Focused probes:** **a.** Have your perceptions about the community changed much since using the community? **b.** What types of changes would you like to see to these communities? **c.** Is there anything you want to add that we have not covered, that may be of importance to the study?

NB: Final interview format. Questions have become more targeted where there a focus on using probes to provide insight.

Appendix 7 Descriptions of signs and hand–codes

Appendix 7.1 Description of signs (In Table 51)

Field study two: motivations and signs–overview		
Term	**Sign modality**	**Description**
Mixed Incentives	n/a	A mixture of motives that encourages a user to utilize online community. Listed in ascending order of attractiveness.
Profile	Iconic	A sign that enables a user to display professional personal information.
Reputation	Symbolic	A sign that enables a user to be assigned an aggregate Reputation Score in the community.
Award	Symbolic	A sign that enables a user to be assigned a Badge/Certificate, based on the completion of an activity, in the community.
Circle	Index	A sign that enables a user to build a circle of dyadic contacts and connections, in the community.
Follow	Index	A sign that enables a user to follow other members in the community.

Appendix 7.2 Description of hand–codes (In Table 52)

Field study two: motivations and signs–detailed view	
Mixed incentives	
Code	**Description**
Mm	Incentivized by Monetary rewards.
Mc	Incentivized to acquire Contacts and make Connections.
Mr	Incentivized to acquire and build Reputation.
Mk	Incentivized to acquire Knowledge.
Ms	Incentivized to acquire professional Support (*mentor*).
Profile	
Po	Orthonym: true name is used is used to signal informant's username in profile.
Pp	Alphanumeric Identifier or Pseudonym is used to signal informant's username in profile.
Pi	General Introduction /Biography/Personal Summary is embedded in profile.
Pe	Educational History/Qualifications is embedded in profile.
Ph	Employment History/Experience/Skills is embedded in profile.
Pa	Activity and Viewing History is embedded in profile.
Pw	Previous Projects/Works or an external link showcasing them, is embedded in profile.
Pr	Endorsements/References/Recommendations/Testimonials from and to other informants is embedded in profile.
Px	Extracurricular social/voluntary activities, that may not be related to the profession, is embedded in profile.
Reputation, Badge, Circle, Follow	
Code	**Description**
Ys	YES

No	NO

Appendix 7.3 Description of pragmatic signs (In Table 61)

Field study three: time invested in webpages		
Pragmatic sign	**Sign modality**	**Description**
Home(also main page	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants are automatically directed to when logging into community. It presents the latest community news, events and contests.
Inbox (E–Mail page)	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants can send and receive correspondents to and from other community members.
Profile (also port. page)	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants can view and edit their public profile and online portfolio.
Com/forum page	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants can view user generated contents from other community informants (i.e. blogs, forum submissions). Also where they can contribute to the community.
Contest page	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants can view and browse through the list of publicly announced contests (i.e. projects) and read the creative briefs in the community.
Entry (also review page)	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants can review previous publicly announced projects, including their associated entries and winning entries.
'Other pages' **(see below)**	Symbolic	Other sections and community properties where the informant had spent less than one minute or had unintentionally clicked.

Appendix 7.4 Description of 'other pages' (In Table 61)

Field study three: Other pages			
Nos.	**Other pages**	**Sign modality**	**Description**
1.	Community profiles	Symbolic	Various sections of the community where informant could view the profiles and portfolios of other community members.
2.	Community news	Symbolic	Sections of the community were informants can read communities related news and activities. These contents are created by the website proprietors.
3.	Creative resources	Symbolic	Sections of the community were informants can read how to fulfil creative briefs and submit pitches for a project Composed of general information and external hyperlinks to other creative websites.
4.	Upload brief	Symbolic	Sections of the community were informants can submit and upload their pitches to a particular contest.
5.	Community settings	Symbolic	Sections of the community were informants are able to edit their communities account settings (i.e. notifications).
6.	Search bar	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants are able to search for community related information.
7.	FAQ's	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants can read frequently asked questions.
8	Policies	Symbolic	Section of the community where informants can read contractual agreements (i.e. terms of use, privacy policy, submission agreements).

9.	About us	Symbolic	Sections of the community where informants can read about the website proprietors (i.e. those who administer and manage the creative community)

Appendix 7.5 Description of hand–codes (In Fig. 33)

Field study three: annotated screenshot of Blur (COM05)									
A.	Link to community settings page*	**E.**	Contest tab*	**I.**	Community profiles tab*	**M.**	Featured creative briefs	**Q.**	Link to view all briefs
B.	Link to inbox/email page*	**F.**	Entry/ review tab*	**J.**	Policies tab*	**N.**	Link to view all briefs		
C.	Homepage tab*	**G.**	Creative resources tab*	**K.**	Search bar*	**O.**	Link to view my briefs		
D.	Profile/portfolio tab*	**H.**	Com/forum tab*	**L.**	Link to community news page*	**P.**	Sort all briefs		

Appendix 7.6 Description of hand–codes (In Fig. 34)

Field study three: annotated screenshot Zooppa (COM08)									
A.	Homepage tab*	**D.**	Contest tab*	**G.**	Search bar*	**J.**	Link to entry/review page*	**M.**	Nos. of entries in contest
B.	Profile/portfolio tab*	**E.**	Entry/review* tab	**H.**	Link to contest page*	**K.**	Read creative brief		
C.	Com/forum tab*	**F.**	Forum postings	**I.**	Link to community profiles*	**L.**	Upload pitch		

NB: * For descriptions of tabs see Appendix 7.3