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Narrative Leadership:
Exploring the Concept of Time in Leader Storytelling
Helen H. Chung, M.A., M.T.S.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
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Abstract

This dissertation explores leader storytelling and the use of temporality in leader enactment. Although narrative leadership is broadly described in previous theory as leading with storytelling, a formal theory of narrative leadership has not yet been developed. Recently, researchers have identified the narrator's ability to locate a story within a meaningful time continuum of past, present, and future as potentially important. Using a grounded theory approach, the question that guided the research was: How does the use of time in narrative impact the enactment of leadership during a strategic change?

With the goal of developing a theory that emerges from the ground up, a three-pronged approach was utilized. A review of the literature on narrative, leader sensegiving and sensemaking, and current conceptualizations of temporality (including cosmic versus phenomenological time; chronos, kairos, and chaos; monochronic, polychronic, and cyclical orientation; and near-distant-deep time) was conducted. Then, seven leaders identified as exemplars in the use of storytelling for organizational change were interviewed. These interviews were coded and analyzed for emergent concepts to build a theoretical model of story and time. The model was assessed with the reflections of employees of a sub-set of the original leaders and researchers' reflexive journals.

The process model of time-based narrative leadership that culminated from these steps includes three critical components: action, identity, and meaning. Action refers to the new or changed cognition or behavior that the leader's story prompts; identity is the centrality of the leader's past experience for facilitating listener engagement and visualizing a landscape for future action; and meaning is the leader's sensemaking for understanding and learning at personal or collective levels.

Furthermore, it is proposed that the theory of sensegiving provides the best framing for the observed stories, and that the study's culminating model contributes important directions for future research. In the leaders' stories, giving sense to others in the organization pivots on the leaders' own personal experience as landscape for the unknown future. Implications of the culminating model and directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: narrative leadership, strategic leadership, narrative, sensegiving, sensemaking, time perspective, cosmic-phenomenological time, chronos-kairos-chaos, monochronic-polychronic-cyclical time, near-distant-deep time

Chapter I: Introduction

The purpose of this research study is to explore leaders' narratives. Using a grounded theory approach, the exploratory question that will guide the research is: How does the use of time in narrative impact the enactment of leadership during a strategic change? In recent years, the study of organizations has taken a narrative turn. The amount of research in storytelling at the individual and organizational levels is robust as researchers and practitioners have sought to explore and understand how narrative influences and shapes the experience of work (Austin & Bartunek, 2013; Boje, 1991; Gabriel, 2000; Snowden, 2000, 2001). Narrative discourse and narrative texts in the form of stories, reports, arguments, and dialogical exchanges are analyzed for their performative qualities as well as their symbolic meanings (Gabriel, 2000). Narrative is understood to have multiple uses inside of organizations. For example, narrative facilitates several processes including career identity, where individuals develop a sense of their working selves (Ibarra & Barbalescu, 2010), sensemaking or the ability to understand ambiguous or dynamic circumstances (Brown, Stacey, & Nandhakumar, 2008; Humphreys, Ucbasaran, & Lockett, 2011; Weick, 2011; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005), and sensegiving or the ability to help others understand dynamic changes (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Gabriel, 1991; Humphreys et al, 2011). Narrative can also support change at a collective level by providing strategic frameworks (Boal & Schultz, 2007) for transformation in the organization (Austin & Bartunek, 2013; Bartunek, 1984).

In organizational theory and research, scholars continue to focus on narrative as both an artifact of meaning and a tool for making meaning. However, narrative leadership remains underexplored, as no formal theory of narrative leadership itself has been developed. By exploring the constellations of narrative *and* leadership—the ways in which leaders lead with

story in an organizational context—an integrated understanding of narrative embedded in the person and practice of the leader becomes possible. In a broad sense, narrative leadership has been described as leading with storytelling (Fleming, 2001). Beyond this generality, however, the specific properties of narrative leadership and their related outcomes are yet to be defined.

Researchers have recently identified a time-based element, the invoking of the past, present or future, as critical to a leader's ability to motivate others (Karniol & Ross, 1996). This could enable a leader to frame isolated change initiatives within a broader organizational vision (Boal & Schultz, 2007; Kolb, 2003) and to capture dynamic changes and interrelationships over time (Yost, Yoder, Chung, & Voetmann, 2015). A focus on the concept of time within narrative sufficiently narrows the scope of the research without eliminating the possibility of discovering a range of meanings that are salient for leaders and listeners, whose experiences in a contextualized process are of primary interest (Kempster & Parry, 2010).

In any exploration of narrative, precision in the use and application of terms is helpful. The word *narrative* can have a range of definitions and implied meanings (Ryan, 2005). Broadly speaking, narrative refers to spoken or written accounts that represent events, while narrative discourse is a mediator of such stories (Herman & Vanvaeck, 2005; Prince, 2003). Also, stories feature events or a plot animated by entities (human or non-human characters; Abbott, 2008). In the context of organizations, narratives can include a wide spectrum of fully developed stories that have characters and discernible plots to segments of dialogue or written communication (e.g., reports, company mission statements; Gabriel, 2000). With these distinctions in mind, narrative can include a range of stories from discrete episodes with linear plots or more diffuse stories that invite ambiguity. In the same way, narrative leadership can encompass a wide array

of possible narratives, from terse dialogue to traditional stories, shared in the context of organizational life.

For the scope of this research study, the stories that narrative leaders tell with respect to time will comprise the unit of analysis that will be explored. More specifically, this research focuses on stories that reflect authorial intent, rather than on dialogic discourse shared in situ (Gabriel, 2000). A grounded theory approach is fitting for the exploration of narrative and time for several reasons. First, grounded theory is particularly valuable in investigating new topics where theory is sparse or non-existent (Creswell, Hanson, Clark Plano, & Morales, 2007), which is true of narrative leadership. Second, the research methodology is also congruent with the goal of this study, which is to build theory from the emergent data through an iterative and reflexive research process (Fassinger, 2005). Third, grounded theorists employ a rigorous practice of coding the data such that the resultant theory captures participants' experiences in their own words (Henwood & Pidgeon, 1994) and in theoretical terms (Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2012).

The review of narrative theory and prior research will be conducted as part of the study. Within a grounded theory paradigm, I acknowledge that such a review sensitizes the inquiry to pre-existing models (Gilgun, 2015) and cognitive schemas (Gioia & Poole, 1984). Consultation with existing literature prior to data collection and analysis can influence how the researcher frames or understands constructs in a theoretical sense and phenomena in an experiential sense. There is a range of approaches among researchers, varying from an attempt to altogether avoid sensitization to the argument that this is impossible, since all individuals come to a topic with some pre-existing frames. For example, some scientists (Fassinger, 2005; Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2012) discourage engagement with existing literature, at least until after data collection, while others encourage it but warn against hypothesis testing (Glaser & Strauss;

Suddaby, 2006). These approaches represent differing ends of the spectrum, indicating a tension that qualitative researchers may often experience.

Along with the challenges, consulting with prior research on narrative and time concepts has some benefits. First, grounded theory researchers need some knowledge of the literature to identify whether a construct of interest is underexplored in the first place. Second, the primary research question guides the interview process (Gioia et al., 2012), with concepts from the literature providing helpful frames for exploring that question. A transparent accounting of the literature can expose assumptions that inevitably influence the research process. As Suddaby (2006, p. 635) notes, the grounded theory researcher both attends to existing theory and remains humble, acknowledging that “you are only human and what you observe is a function of both who you are what you hope to see.” Third, the culminating theory is multivocal, which is congruent with grounded theory as a constructivist endeavor: (1) informant data in the foreground; (2) the emergent, shared, and socially constructed thoughts of the social scientist community and practicing leaders; (3) and my reflexive engagement with these perspectives. Grounded theory is a contextualized research process that highlights the experience of the informants in their own words (Gioia et al., 2012). But, this observation is done with the preexisting frames of the researcher, who is involved in a creative, interpretative process to produce an accounting that weaves together the characteristics and nuances of participants’ own experiences (Henwood & Pidgeon, 1994).

In the following sections, I review theory and research related to leadership, narrative, and time. I then discuss the use of grounded theory as a preferred research methodology to study the topic. In the final section, I will discuss the use of reflexive processes to integrate, build, and refine the emergent model.

Chapter II: Literature Review

As bricoleurs who utilize the available tools and methods to weave a tapestry that tells the story of the data (Lincoln, 2000), researchers begin with their own pre-existing frames and experiences. They cannot enter a new topic *tabula rasa*; in this respect, a review of previous theory, research, and narrative critique offers an avenue to expand the frames beyond the investigator's own default framework (Kempster & Parry, 2010; Suddaby, 2006).

Previous research on the topic of narrative leadership is reviewed in the following pages to provide a foundation for the current study. First, I review theory and research on the role of narrative in organizations. Second, I review strategic leadership and the processes of sensegiving, where leaders act as organizational sensegivers, and sensemaking, where both leaders and employees attempt to navigate and understand dynamic situations, often taking cues from others or the environment. Third, I discuss the literature on the concept of time, providing a broad context and then specific examples for how time has been constructed and/or leveraged in narrative discourse.

Narrative in Organizations

In today's organizations, narrative serves multiple purposes—making meaning, giving meaning, and preserving meaning. At its core, story is potent because it communicates complex ideas in memorable form (Snowden, 2001). Stories are especially useful for meaning making because they are “emotionally and symbolically charged narratives” (Gabriel, 2000, p. 135), capable of prompting people to think and feel in ways where other modes of communication fall short. Indeed, organizational stories showcase a quintessential human activity—the conversion of facts into narratives (Gabriel, 1991). Some stories, in fact, become organizational myths that are recited repeatedly over time (Gabriel, 1991), facilitating people's ability to make sense of

complex scenarios and becoming part of the cultural fabric of the organization (Bathurst & Monin, 2010).

In an organizational world dominated by flux (Weick, 2011), narrative can be especially useful for navigating change and ambiguity. Together, the processes of sensemaking and sensegiving are constitutive of the ways in which people make and give sense about what has been, what is, and what could be, which is especially salient in times of change (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Weick, 1995). The initiation and management of change occurs when people alter their minds through cognitive shifts (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991), where leader sensegiving can play a pivotal role. For example, provisional stories can help people think in new ways and consider larger systems (Ibarra & Linebeck, 2005), facilitating future decision-making (Colville, Brown, & Pye, 2011). While narrative is not unique to managers or leaders in the organization, the strategic use of story may be more prevalent with leaders who seek to inspire or prompt members of the organization to act.

Strategic Leadership. A leader's capacity to exert influence over others can emerge in multiple ways, which is perhaps part of the reason why so many leadership taxonomies are available. The broad definition of leadership used for this study is the process of influencing others to understand what needs to be done and facilitating the collective achievement of shared goals (Yukl, 2013). To be more specific, strategic leadership is the process by which leaders who hold broad responsibility (Goldman & Casey, 2010) steer their organizations, teams, or units toward a shared goal, demonstrating a capacity to learn, change, and apply managerial wisdom (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001). According to Bartunek and Necochea (2000), such wisdom requires discernment, the ability to pick up on variations in the environment, and Kairos time, the ability

to do the right thing at the right moment. Strategic leaders can employ a variety of styles, from transactional to more transformational or authentic styles (Carter & Greer, 2013).

Strategic leaders manage and navigate shifts in the organizational landscape. From a narrative perspective of managing change, language can play a key role in meaning making, particularly in how strategy can directly shape the choices and actions that are taken (Barry & Elmes, 1997). When change prompts feelings of uncertainty and anxiety, the search for meaning becomes especially relevant. Such a narrative-based approach to building future strategies can show up in several forms; according to Fenton and Langley (2011): narrative as praxis (spontaneous stories), narrative as practice (institutionalized stories), narrative as text (strategy stories), and narrative as infrastructure (layers of story that help shape an organization's direction). The idea that strategy is helped (or hindered) by the telling of certain stories, whether told spontaneously or with premeditation, runs across all four modes.

In a broad sense, any organizational member can perform a story as a vehicle for making sense of and giving sense to organizational events (Boje, 1991). Individuals tell and retell stories to themselves and others as part of their working lives (Yost et al., 2015). But some stories, especially those recited over time by many members of an organization, potentially serve as vessels of meaning and can often be leveraged by people in positions of leadership and management (Bathurst & Monin, 2010). Leaders' positions of power within an organization can enhance the relative importance attributed to their stories. In this way, storytelling leaders can become narrative leaders. The interplay between their stories and employees' interpretations and recitations, especially as related to sensegiving and sensemaking, is part of the focus of this study.

Sensemaking and Sensegiving

Because leaders often hold positions of authority in their organizations, they are “institutionally empowered” for sensegiving, influencing the sensemaking process by giving sense to others (Brown & Humphreys, 2003, p. 123) about what has been, what is, and what could be. While all organizational members engage in sensemaking at individual and collective levels, leaders have unique opportunities to offer directional cues about how others should think about an event or process. In the context of strategic or organizational change, specifically, leaders act as both sensemakers and sensegivers, facilitating organizational action by providing cognitive schemas that frame members’ thinking and decision-making (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Kraft, Sparr, & Peus, 2016).

Sensemaking. Sensemaking is a layered process. Narrative is constitutive of the sensemaking process from childhood, where oral language, literacy, and concept development begin and are all facilitated by stories (Stadler & Cuming Ward, 2005). As leaders provide narrative frames, they and their organizational members are making sense of what is happening. The organization itself is a collective storytelling system, performing stories that become central to how people make sense of what is happening as well as to add to the organizational “memory” with their own “memories” (Boje, 1991, p. 106). Relevant to this study is Weick’s (1995) original framework that delineates seven major properties of sensemaking.

Grounded in identity construction. Sensemaking starts with the person who is doing the sensemaking, so the process is a discursive one in which an individual is actively constructing their sense of self (Weick, 1995). The implication is that making sense of events is less about the events themselves and more about what the events say about who the self is becoming in relation to them.

Retrospective. Sensemaking looks back and attributes meaning to past events. It is, therefore, a reflective act, which differs markedly from forecasting or strategic planning (Weick, 1995). Because we encounter the present in a state of flow, we cannot make sense of the present until it is past perfect.

Enactive of sensible environments. Weick (1995) assumes that people are both an integral and active part of their environment. As people make sense of things, they take actions that influence and shape their environment.

Social. Sensemaking is a social process that includes the self and other people, as a person's cognitive processes depend on others (Weick, 1995).

Ongoing. Sensemaking does not have discrete beginning and end points. Instead, sensemaking denotes process, or a perpetual state of being in the middle of things.

Focused on and extracted by cues. When individuals engage in sensemaking, they do not perceive things comprehensively. Instead, they extract or select certain elements and then focus on them as salient. According to Weick (1995), this extraction depends on context and personal disposition.

Driven by plausibility. One of the outcomes of sensemaking is plausibility, not accuracy. For this property, story plays a potentially important role in enabling people to identify what is possible and from there, what is plausible. An effective story, according to Weick (1995), contributes in several ways—the story threads isolated elements together in such a way as to energize action, help people make sense of what is going on, and prompt collective sensemaking.

Sensegiving. At its essence, sensegiving involves a process of “disseminating” a new understanding to others so that they can then make sense of an experience for themselves (Foldy, Goldman, & Ospina, 2008, p. 515). As sensegivers, leaders provide a frame—an interpretative

scheme or knowledge structure—to help people process information and make decisions (Bartunek, 1984). Sometimes leaders do this unwittingly. But in the context of strategic change, where the desired outcome is a cognitive shift in the attitudes and behaviors of their listeners, leaders utilize specific tactics (Kraft et al., 2016). These can take multiple forms, such as framing the problem and solutions in ways that facilitate decisions and actions as well as altering how certain constituencies see themselves (Foldy et al., 2008). According to Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991), who conducted an ethnographic study of a new college president’s sensegiving process, leaders involved in strategic change engage in a reciprocal process of sensemaking and sensegiving marked by four stages.

The four stages of leader sensegiving (and sensemaking). Gioia and Chittipeddi’s (1991) four stages include *envisioning*, *signaling*, *re-visioning*, and *energizing*. During the *envisioning* phase, cognition is the focus; the leader gathers information to inform an understanding of the situation and begins to formulate “an embryonic strategic vision” (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991, p. 439). Next, during the *signaling* phase, the leader attempts to influence action by communicating the strategic effort. Such an announcement is a kind of “ambiguity-by-design” (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991, p. 439), disrupting the status quo. Implicit in this disruption is a proposed need for change, and part of sensegiving is to identify a specific concern, emphasize its importance, and broaden its scope (Foldy et al., 2008). For example, U.S. presidential elections often hinge on a candidate’s ability to successfully frame the need for a change to improve the status quo for the broadest number of constituents. Here, leader sensegiving is both discursive, in that it takes place in formal or informal discourse, and symbolic, suggesting that listeners attach meaning to and beyond these very actions (Kraft et al., 2016). According to Humphreys et al. (2011), leader sensegiving can be both prescriptive and

directive. Leaders attempt to influence others' sensemaking "toward a preferred redefinition of organizational reality" (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991, p. 442).

The next two phases also reflect reciprocal sensemaking and sensegiving. During the *re-visioning* stage, the focus is once again on cognition, but this time involves modifying the original vision as organizational or environmental barriers are encountered. The fourth and final phase, *energizing*, involves influencing the action of a broader net of people or stakeholders. As Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991, p. 441) conclude, "the resulting consultation process began with the smallest and highest level groups and progressively expanded to include larger, more lower level audiences."

Gioia and Chittipeddi's (1991) enduring framework is germane to this study of narrative leadership for two reasons. First, leaders often tell stories as part of organizing and decision-making. These stories facilitate the process of identifying plausible stories among a range of possibilities (Barry & Elmes, 1997). In this way, leaders propose or legitimize new perspectives over others, giving sense to what is and directing people toward what could be. Second, stories as symbols provide a rich language that can emotionally energize and mobilize people toward adopting specific actions or beliefs (Humphreys et al., 2011).

Time and Narrative. Following Weick's (1995) line of thought on plausibility, time and story are implicit in the act of sensemaking. To illustrate, sensemaking occurs in the present as an activity that is both retrospective, understanding the immediate past, and prospective, considering the future (Boje, 2014; Weick et al., 2005). Next, the activity of making sense of things is similar to bringing order to chaos. The temporal frames of past, present, and future are embedded in the process of sensemaking, which is at the heart of individuals making sense of their ambiguous experiences and putting this sense back into their environment in order to

structure or organize it (Weick et al., 2005). In this way, time represents a tool to manage, control, or navigate the vast and disorderly space of chaos. Also, sensemaking includes acts of storytelling, and storytelling reflects acts of sensemaking (Colville et al., 2011). Human beings both navigate their lived experience and enact their environment. In other words, people make sense of the world by constructing, telling, and retelling narratives, and the stories themselves shape their very understanding of that world.

Analogous to the mechanism of a clock that measures time intervals, narrative enables human beings to “create the order of time” with language and the use of events (Abbott, 2008, p. 3). Chatman (1990) notes that narrative offers a dual chrono-logic: external time (the time duration needed to present or experience the story) and internal time (the duration of the events of the plot itself). Recalling what was noted earlier about narrative representing events, story as the event or sequence of events, and narrative discourse as the mediator of story (Herman & Vervaeck, 2005; Prince, 2003), story/narrative is constitutive of the act of sensemaking. In short, human beings aim to make sense of the world in both space and time, and it is precisely narrative which offers the structural elements of time (Abbott, 2008) to facilitate this meaning making process. For example, Boje and colleagues (2016) suggest that alternative narratives, which emerge to contest mainstream or dominant stories, are especially useful for storytelling in space, time, and strategic context. Sensemakers adopt in part or whole the cognitive schemas provided by others. But sometimes, they reject or alter these schemas by proposing antenarratives that become plausible and credible narratives in their own right (Boje, 1991; Humphreys et al., 2011).

Time. “Time talks. It speaks more plainly than words. The message it conveys comes through loud and clear. Because it is manipulated less consciously, it is subject to less distortion than the spoken language. It can shout the truth where words lie” (Hall, 1959, p. 23). Hall points

to the implicit and embedded nature of time within verbal communication and social interaction. Such a time perspective is psychological in nature, foundational to more visible concepts such as goal setting and other motivational behaviors (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). For example, an orientation toward a specific temporal frame (past, present, or future) can inform people's values (Kluckhohn, 1950; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961) and their cognitive and decision-making processes (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999).

Further, time as a concept is paradoxical. The counting of time is relatively straightforward and mathematical, especially with standardized measurement tools. On the other hand, the meaning of time is complex, since it is always understood through the lens of the individual's culture (Frank, 1939). Time can represent a variety of concepts to many different people and, as one would expect, time emerges across the literature as a multifaceted concept. A Western iteration of time, for example, considers the movement of past to present to future in a linear way, while an Eastern iteration of time considers the present in context of the past and future (Ornstein, 1975). To identify these differences is not to dichotomize time into discrete, mutually exclusive categories (Koltko-Rivera, 2004). Instead, a time perspective can be understood as a broad continuum by which human beings across cultures make meaning of time. Hofstede and colleagues (2010, p. 6) note that culture is the "collective programming of the mind" that begins with the family and continues within the neighborhood, workplace, and broader community.

Going forward, I acknowledge that time perspectives are learned and culturally informed. This is critical because by describing streams of thinking about time that exist in the literature, I run the risk of elevating certain expressions, when these variants simply emerge out of the cultural patterns embedded in selected texts or data. To mitigate the danger of spotlighting some

perspectives over others, I survey several broad time concepts existing in the literature. Additionally, I interview a demographically diverse group of leaders so that multiple time concepts and perspectives can potentially emerge.

In this study, the temporal element or frame in narrators' stories is of special interest. What is the leader's time perspective and how does it shape the story? How is time represented and conceptualized for the listener? In the following section, I will describe several time concepts that are at play in literature and narrative discourse and may be present in leaders' stories. This description is not comprehensive but suggests possible concepts that could emerge, thus serving as useful schemas for exploring the relationship between time and narrative leadership. These frames are cosmic and phenomenological time; a Greek understanding of *chronos*, *kairos*, and *chaos*; monochronic, polychronic, and cyclical time; and finally, near, distant, and deep time.

Cosmic vs. phenomenological time. Time is fundamental to our understanding of the world, both in concrete, linear terms and in abstract, theoretical terms. Ricoeur's understanding of time as either cosmic, the time of the world, or phenomenological, the time of our lives (Vaara & Reff Pederson, 2013), is a helpful overarching framework. The idea that time functions outside or apart from the individual *and* exists within or as part of the individual is circular. Ricoeur (1984) theorizes that human experience is temporal, with cosmological time becoming human or phenomenological time when organized in narrative form. In contrast, a phenomenological approach focuses on individuals' direct experience with time. For example, time can speed up or slow down. Time can be monetized – a person can buy time or waste time, and one can give someone his or her time. The shift from the abstract to the personal and

concrete can be seen in the narrative mode, where narrative expresses human experience in temporal terms (Vaara & Reff Pederson, 2013). Time is brought close and personalized.

In narrative discourse, time is almost always in play, serving as object (e.g., managing time), subject (e.g., time is on our side), or both. The unique and possibly multi-faceted meaning that leaders in organizations make or construct is what this study investigates. If, as Ricoeur (1984, p. 70) writes, “temporality is...the articulated unity of coming-towards, having-been, and making-present, which are thereby given to be thought of together,” leaders’ narrative discourse is in some ways an implicit and/or explicit attempt to provide frameworks for making sense of time-based reality for the sake of future work.

In recent years, researchers have suggested that the narrator’s agile interaction with time through story is one essential element of narrative leading (Boal & Schultz, 2007; Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2009). Through storytelling, leaders can relate a change initiative as consistent with the past and critical to the future, allowing the organization to make order out of chaos (Boal & Schultz, 2007). In phenomenological time, the past and future are social cognitive constructs that provide a motivational push and pull for listeners (Karniol & Ross, 1996). Whether narrative leaders regard the past, present, or future as time frames or construct these time periods to represent more than simply chronological or plotting devices in support of their stories remains to be seen.

Chronos, kairos, and chaos. The ancient Greeks considered time as quasi-mystical concepts, calling them chronos, kairos, and chaos. *Chronos* is the progression of linear time, kairos is the opportune moment in time, and chaos is a formless void between order and disorder (Roberts, 2003). Together, chronos, kairos, and chaos are essential elements of human experience.

Time as *chronos* is a chronological and linear dimension that moves objectively forward (Roberts, 2003) and over which individuals do not necessarily have control. A primary source for this conceptualization is Greek mythology, where the notion of *chronos* as time and Kronos (also spelled Cronus), the Titan god who devoured his offspring for fear that one would overtake him (Hamilton, 1942), became conflated. Although it is not clear whether the association was intended, one implication has been that Western culture, particularly from the Renaissance, has tended to personify time as an ominous and aged male figure who holds a harvest scythe (i.e., Father Time), thus wielding a destructive, consuming power. In this way, time is perceived as a force to be resisted or overcome.

In biblical or Hebrew thought, the world of being is what is reckoned with. In other words, time matters for people because God's will can be known within it, making it possible for human beings to experience the eternal in their bounded space of reality (Rust, 1953). This leads to the second facet of time as *kairos*, which represents a timeliness or propitious moment that invites meaning and human agency (Roberts, 2003). In contrast to chronological time, *kairos* is the right time.

Here is the real crux of the Hebrew time-consciousness. The Hebrew did not think of time abstractly as a flowing stream nor was he concerned with psychological time. He knew of "times" rather than time, and such times were times of opportunity, moments that possessed human significance because of what a man met in them and of the response which he made. Thus the time to do a thing may come, but it gains importance only when its opportunity is seized, and it is filled with decision and action. (Rust, 1953, p. 332)

As a rhetorical device, *kairos* can be used to motivate people toward action, risk management, and, to some degree, approach of the unknowable future with courage (Scott, 2006). The question of whether *kairos* is merely rhetorical or also ontologically real is in play, and a tension of human agency attempting to manage, control, or create something new within time emerges.

The notion of *chaos* is both primordial and current. According to Greek mythology, chaos originates first, before gods and men (Hamilton, 1942). In creation myths, chaos is characterized as a shapeless and formless source from which the world comes into being. Additionally, in chaos theory, chaos is a state of disequilibrium, or the opposite of stasis (Solansky, Beck, & Travis, 2014). Currently, researchers are turning their attention to exploring the work of organizing in relation to chaos theory, temporality, and spatial ordering. For example, Granqvist and Gustafsson (2016) propose that temporal institutional work has sequences—windows of opportunity, synchronicity, irreversibility (a determined belief that outcomes will be achieved). Further, Kolb (2003) suggests that managing change depends on navigating the tension between continuity and discontinuity. Time is also a spatial landscape or continuum where individuals use the past, present, and future to create boundaries for events and stories (Karniol & Ross, 1996). In this regard, some have explored time-space configurations to study units of text or discourse for the purpose of understanding orientations to both space and time (Baynham, 2003; Boje, Haley, & Saylor, 2016). Rämö's work (2004), for example, offers a framework for understanding how time and space work together.

Monochronic, polychronic, and cyclical time. In addition to notions of *chronos*, *kairos*, and chaos, time is conceptualized as monochronic or linear, polychronic or flexible, and cyclical non-linear (Hall 1959; Reynolds, 2017). This temporal framework is common to discussions of cultural orientations toward the past, present, and future (Reynolds & Valentine, 2004). In the Greek understanding of *chronos*, time moves linearly in one direction from past to present to future, is measured incrementally, and is regarded as a factor to be managed and shaped by human agency. The U.S and Western European countries (e.g., Germany) are characterized as monochronic, focusing on the future over and above the past or present as well as attending to

one task at a time (Brislin & Kim, 2003). In contrast, a polychronic understanding of time is multilinear and flexible, emphasizing relationships, focusing on the present, and hesitating to quantify or measure its passing. People from countries in Southern Europe, the Mediterranean, and South America tend to exhibit this flexible orientation. One major contrast between monochronicity and polychronicity is that the latter tends to exhibit more openness to engaging in multiple tasks at once (Brislin & Kim, 2003). A cyclical perception of time, predominant in Asian and African cultures, is characterized by an emphasis on the past, forging human relationships, understanding connections, and adjusting to rather than controlling time (Brislin & Kim, 2003).

The differences in time orientation can often go unnoticed (Hall, 1959); that is, until we pay attention to how people think and behave in accordance with their cognitive orientation. The way people orient themselves toward the past, present, and future is related to how they process information. In a review of the temporal orientation between North Americans and East Asians, for example, Gao (2016) finds that the first group's analytic style focuses on explaining or categorizing the focal object, whereas East Asians' holistic style attends to the relationship between the focal object and its context. By extension, North Americans tend to focus more on the present, while East Asians focus on the past and the future to explain or contextualize the present.

Near, distant, and deep time. Somewhat more novel to the study of time is the framework of near, distant, and deep time, which Satterwhite, Sheridan, and Miller (2016) propose is critical to leadership studies. Traditionally, people tend to think in terms of the short- and long-term. Satterwhite and colleagues reframe traditional thinking about temporality into deep time (multigenerational and the most abstract to hold in our minds), distant time (one

lifetime or about 80 years), near time (5 years before or after the current period), and the present, adding that most people think and live within a 5-year time frame. While Satterwhite et al's (2016) use of deep time is multigenerational in scale, the original notion goes back to James Hutton, a Scottish geologist, who in 1788 proposed that the earth is older than 6000 years based on his observations of Siccar Point in Scotland. Hutton observed a unique nonconformity of the land, which he believed pointed to cycles of sedimentation and erosion occurring in timescales beyond those based on biblical writings (Baxter, 2003; Farrier, 2016). In this way, deep time denotes geologic timescales of thousands, millions, even billions of years. The sheer abstractness of deep time is daunting, for how do human beings conceive of it? The sheer cognitive challenge is bound to have some implications on how human beings might think about themselves in the context of the vastness of time.

Applied to the practice of leadership, Satterwhite and colleagues (2016) propose that the ability to cross multiple boundaries, think eco-critically, cope with dualities, learn from deep history, and co-create the near, distant and deep future is crucial. The notion of deep time (whether 6000 years long or more in geologic timescales) both amplifies the influential role that humanity plays on the earth's ecological and biological systems and narrows it to a point of insignificance in the context of billions of years of history (Farrier, 2016). Some theories of leadership help us wrestle with the idea of time in longer time scales (beyond the 5-year term). For example, in sustainable leadership, leaders strive to adopt both a proximal and distal focus for organizational systems and practices, considering multiple stakeholders including people and the environment and success outcomes beyond short-term financial gains (Neubert & Dyck, 2014).

An individual leader's orientation to a time continuum of past, present, and future could be a window not only into the person's relationship to time but also their perceptual contextualization of an event or strategy. How does the event in mind relate to the organization's history and future? Why is it important for current employees to get on board with the strategy in their present time? These questions are as much about time as they are about identity. Where did I come from? Who am I today? And what will become of me in the future? At individual, group, or societal levels, these questions remain salient. I propose that investigating the stories of leaders and the time element they contain will provide directional clues. The time question acts as a portal into how people make sense of their place in the world of their organization and how leaders strive to give sense to their listeners.

In this literature review, I have defined several concepts foundational to narrative leadership – the use of narrative in organizations, strategic leadership and the processes of sensemaking and sensegiving, and time. Developing a comprehensive theory of narrative leadership is beyond the scope of this study. The primary goal, taking a cue from researchers pointing to the potentially fertile relationship between story and a temporal continuum, is to explore the role and meaning of time within leaders' narratives. In this way, proposing a theory of narrative leadership can better define the construct and facilitate future research.

Chapter III: Method

Research Design Rationale

The purpose of the study is to begin to build a theory of narrative leadership by exploring the role that time plays within leaders' narratives. The focus of this research is on concept development, or identifying the properties that represent or explain the phenomenon of focal interest (Gioia et al., 2012). Here, that phenomenon is the presence, use, and significance of temporality in organizational leaders' stories. Studying temporality in leader narratives facilitates the development of a theory that describes and explains one dimension of narrative leadership, which is a multi-faceted concept. In this way, the theory will be grounded in the data rather than created a priori with emergent data used to confirm or disconfirm it (Creswell et al., 2007).

Theorizing from the data involves building a model that both integrates emergent concepts and illustrates how these concepts are related, thereby including but also going beyond rich description (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Grounded theory (GT) is particularly useful in research contexts where no formal explanatory models exist for phenomena of interest. As an inductive approach, GT operates out of a constructive-interpretivist paradigm (Fassinger, 2005), emphasizing the interpretive processes of individuals within their social contexts. In practice, researchers from a range of epistemological paradigms (post-positivist, interpretive/constructivist, and post-structural) have adopted grounded theory as a fruitful methodological approach (Ponterotto, 2005). In the following sections, the research design, study participants, and data coding and analysis, including the built-in checks applied throughout the research process, will be discussed.

Research Design

With the goal of building theory from the data in mind, I utilized a three-pronged approach: 1) conducted a literature review of related concepts and interviews of storytelling leaders to build an initial taxonomy of themes and processes that might be at play; 2) conducted additional interviews with the employees of a subset of the original leaders to validate the theoretical model; and 3) trimmed and integrated the final model. The three-step process culminated in a theory that describes and explains the relationships among identified categories within narrative leadership and time. In the following section, I describe the study participants and the purpose and process of each of the methodological steps outlined above.

Participants and Sampling Methods

In grounded theory, participants are chosen because of their relevance to a phenomenon of interest and for the eventual goal of theory generation (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The intent of inductive studies in general and grounded theory in particular is to explore data at a deep level (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Theoretical sampling is used to include the minimum number of participants needed to achieve saturation of the data, at which point coded concepts or themes become redundant. In contrast to statistical sampling, a fixed number of participants is not necessarily established but can evolve throughout the research process. A matter of some debate among grounded theory researchers is how soon to apply the rule of theoretical sampling and saturation, as utilizing it too early in the research process could prematurely cut short data collection (Fassinger, 2005). To mitigate, I chose to interview a minimum of 6 leaders before assessing for saturation, consistent with Strauss and Corbin's protocol (1998). Using theoretical sampling as a guide also involves returning to the original participants or the raw data for

clarification and elaboration (Fassinger, 2005). Practically speaking, this involves revisiting previous data in iterative ways.

As individual participants are the critical access points for the events that reflect the theoretical concepts of interest (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), the leader's narrative is the unit of interest for this study. Purposive sampling was utilized to identify leaders who use story as a leadership practice. Participants were recruited via a snowballing technique. Study investigators (principle investigator and co-investigators) reached out to individuals in their networks, asking for nominations of leaders known to utilize narrative. Individual nominees across various industries were contacted by email and phone. Those leaders who chose to participate were also asked to nominate several employees, who were then contacted by email by the primary investigator. In summary, participant data includes the stories told by leaders and the reflections provided by some of their employees, collected in face-to-face or phone interviews. To protect confidentiality, pseudonyms for leaders and employees were used as a way to indicate that the interview data belongs to individuals who are communicating personal and contextual information.

In this study, I followed several methodological steps: building the initial model, validating the model, and integrating and finalizing the model. The complete process, along with the process checks that were utilized at various points, is outlined in Appendix A (Narrative Leadership and Time – Process Model). Next, I will describe each of the steps in detail.

Building the initial taxonomy of narrative themes

In the first phase of the research process, I conducted a literature review and face-to-face interviews to explore the themes and categories at play in narrative leadership and the idea of time. These concepts informed the development of a culminating theoretical model.

Literature review. To initially guide the process framed by the broad research question, I reviewed emerging theory and research in narrative, leadership, sensemaking, sensegiving, and time. Themes from this review informed the development of the initial domains to be explored and boundaries for the investigation. Such a consultation with literature, prior to data collection, is considered appropriate and useful in grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) and has also been found valuable during interviews to expand the voices being heard and decrease overreliance on limited sources. While referencing existing literature can potentially influence researchers as they start the inquiry process (Gilgun, 2015), this will be mitigated by maintaining a balance between objectivity and sensitivity (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Absolute objectivity is neither the goal nor a possibility for this study or for grounded theory in general. As such, it is important for researchers to account for their own streams of subjective thinking—the personal biases and assumptions brought to the research question—by naming them (Suddaby, 2006). One practical way to account for these assumptions is to record them while conducting the literature review and interviews, and then discussing them with others throughout the research process (Hill, Thompson, & Nutt Williams, 1997). This is similar to the practice of bracketing, which is commonly utilized in phenomenological research where the researcher delineates personal experiences related to the phenomenon of study prior to focusing on participants' experiences (Creswell et al., 2007).

My co-investigators and I bracketed our prior biases in conversation, particularly in the process of coding speeches and stories, and captured observations and field notes in open journals (Gioia et al., 2012). Further, we endeavored to be reflexive and transparent throughout the process of data collection and analysis (Suddaby, 2006) in order to develop the kind of sensitivity that Strauss and Corbin (1998, pp. 46-47) describe as an “interplay with the data,”

where researchers alternate between drawing comparisons, engaging in inquiry, and collecting data. My co-investigators assisted with coding all interview data and auditing codes and the developing taxonomy, thereby providing an additional lens with which the data was explored. For this research, I chose to code the data as a trio to mitigate biases and capture nuances in the data (Hill et al., 1997). We independently read the transcript, coded the stories, recorded our observations and reflections, and then collectively discussed our findings. We made decisions about emerging themes, categories, and their interrelationships by consensus, using a structure that fits the data and is defensible (Hill et al., 1997) within the context of the participants' own words.

Using multiple judges for the coding process is characteristic of consensual qualitative research (CQR); however, grounded theory is the preferred method over CQR for this study since the goal is to develop innovative theory from the data. In order to increase inter-rater reliability, we used the consensus aspects of CQR in our data analysis but did not adopt the protocol as a whole. Judges coded the data independently, came together to discuss themes, and finalized codes via discussion.

Two steps were critical in our coding process. First, we drew comparisons between our own understanding of the data with observations of the properties or dimensions of the data itself. This allowed us as analysts to utilize personal experiences without seeking to fit the data into predetermined frameworks (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Second, we privileged the perceptions of the research participants, using them as our guide to understand the data. In recording observations and working hypotheses throughout the process, my co-investigators and I maintained reflexive journals to capture observations, interpretations, and coding decisions. Two specific questions guided our reflection: 1) What are the unique properties or dimensions that

emerge from the data? 2) Where do we see our personal frames or experience of narrative, leadership, and/or time influencing or shaping an understanding of the data? We periodically discussed these questions in our team meetings and collected our journal entries in a central folder that could be accessed and reviewed by all team members.

Sharing Leader interviews. It is an assumption that time and stories are embedded in the cultural perspective of the storyteller, the audience for whom the story is intended, and the larger purpose of the narrative. Therefore, in this study, I interviewed leaders about their storytelling, eliciting stories they have shared in the past with their organizational members. As part of the interview, I asked about the contextual factors that framed and informed their stories. A demographically diverse group of leaders were recruited for interviews, with the total number guided by GT concepts of theoretical sampling and saturation (Fassinger, 2005; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

The principle investigator (PI) conducted face-to-face interviews with leaders (eliciting their stories and personal reflections about them) using a semi-structured interview script with open-ended questions. (See Appendix B for interview protocol: Interview Guide #1.) Interviews ran 60 – 90 minutes and were audio-recorded with the participants' consent. As the principal investigator, I transcribed all leader interviews so as to familiarize myself with the content, and my co-investigators reviewed all transcripts. Together, we coded the stories embedded in the transcribed interviews for time-related themes and categories for the purpose of building an initial model that identifies and describes the salient concepts of narrative leadership and time, along with their inter-relationships.

As previously noted, GT is guided by theoretical sampling and saturation. The constant comparison method was utilized to determine if saturation was reached and interviewing of

leaders could be considered complete. Constant comparison requires the researcher to compare data across individuals, within individuals' data, across incidents, and across categories to assess whether new categories continue to emerge (Charmaz, 2000). In theory, saturation of the data means that no new categories emerge when compared to significant or unique categories that have previously been identified. Practically speaking, saturation is tested by iteratively comparing new data to previously identified categories. This is done concurrent with data collection until a substantive theory is built and new data fails to add what is already there (Fassinger, 2005). This iterative process was conducted by the principal and co-investigators, who discussed emerging themes to assess saturation in emergent categories.

Data Coding and Analysis. Data collection and analysis was conducted concurrently, which is consistent with grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Once theoretical saturation was met, data collection was concluded, and the constant comparative method was applied to make sense of the data and relate it to concepts in the coding process (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The investigator and co-investigators engaged in three levels of coding informed by protocols from Strauss and Corbin (1998) and Gioia, Corley, and Hamilton (2012). While the outlining of coding steps in writing may paint a linear picture, the process in reality was circular and iterative, with some of the steps co-occurring.

As the primary investigator, I recruited two doctoral students in organizational psychology to review the interview data to enable greater reflexive analysis. The overall inductive analysis is improved when multiple coders, with individual perspectives and awareness, can challenge the assumptions and biases brought to the data (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). One of the coders had academic training in qualitative coding. To increase the reflexive capacity of all coders, before coding was begun, I provided instructional guidelines and practice

rounds with archival data for the purpose of familiarizing ourselves with the process and develop practices that increased the reflexive skills of the team. Working as a trio facilitated triangulation, enabling coders to identify biases and assumptions that were brought to the data and move toward convergence of coding using our adopted method.

Open coding. At the first level of theory building, we identified discrete time themes that emerged from the leader interviews. Themes are key ideas or events in the data, and they constitute the building blocks of the emergent theory, defining the properties and dimensions. Here, the intent is to identify all of the ideas present in the data, refraining at this stage from interpreting the possible relationships between the emerging categories. Further, as these categories accumulated, they were grouped into related categories and sub-categories, representing a level of abstraction above themes.

Axial coding. At the second level of theory building, categories were systematically related to specific sub-categories. The basic steps for axial coding, delineated by Strauss and Corbin (1998), include the following: 1) expand the properties of a category and their dimensions [a continuation of open coding], 2) identify the possible conditions related to the phenomenon, 3) relate a category to a sub-category, and 4) search for indicators in the data that point to how major categories are related. In this way, the sub-categories are related to broader, parent categories.

Selective coding. In this third step, categories were integrated and refined, leading to the development of a central category that sufficiently captures variation in the data and the overarching relationship across all categories. A central or core category is the unifying explanation of the data as it is perceived by the researcher. While all subsequent researchers or readers may not agree with the central category, they should be able to follow the analyst's

method and logic and thereby understand the conclusion. Criteria for a robust central category include the following: 1) all major categories are related to the central category, 2) the category appears in the data with frequency, 3) the explanation is consistent with the data, rather than being forced upon it, 4) the name or phrase that identifies the central category is sufficiently abstract, 5) the concept can be further refined and integrated, and 6) the concept is able to explain variation in the data. In the case of poorly developed categories, the researcher seeks to fill them in by conducting a thorough review of the raw data and researcher memos. Finally, the theory is trimmed and validated for fit.

In addition to Strauss and Corbin's (1998) protocol for the coding process, I also consulted with Gioia, Corley, and Hamilton's (2012) protocol for levels of analysis described below.

First- and second-level analyses. In grounded theory, there are two voices in the research process that inform the theory building—the participants, or informants, and the study investigators, or analysts. (In reality, there are more than two voices, if we fully account for the multi-vocal nature of this research that includes study investigators/analysts, informants, other leaders, storytelling figures, other researchers, and cultural influences.) In line with these voices are two levels of analysis. The first-level of analysis, occurring during the open coding process, is informant-centric (Gioia et al., 2012), with the participants' terms and perspectives informing the codes. The second-level of analysis, occurring during axial and selective coding, is researcher-centric, where researchers attempt to make sense of the data, draw relationships, and analyze them at a higher level of abstraction.

Integral to the coding and theory development process is researcher reflexivity, facilitated by field notes (descriptive accounts of what is seen or experienced), observer comments (the

researchers' subjective and analytic responses to descriptions), and memos (analytic statements that build upon descriptions and observer comments). Memo-writing, which is a repository for the researchers' own hunches, insights, feelings, and interpretive choices regarding observations about the data, is especially valuable for researcher reflexivity and transparency (Fassinger, 2005). Also, the use of diagrams that represent relationships among concepts is a valuable tool (Gilgun, 2015). Considering the process as a whole, GT analysis is systematic, reflexive, and grounded in informant data.

Auditing. In addition to memo-writing, the GT researcher utilizes auditing as a built-in process check. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), auditing can occur at the level of peer debriefing, which examines the coding process, and inquiry review, which looks at the overall work and resulting theory (Fassinger, 2005). I modeled the auditing process after Fassinger (2005), who includes the following activities for building a trustworthy study: articulation of research expectations and assumptions, peer coding and auditing of data, team review of the ongoing work, and utilization of review by colleagues during the research process. These colleagues include members of my dissertation committee, who have reviewed the research process and provided input for the initial taxonomy and culminating theoretical model.

Procedure: Validating the initial model

Once the initial model was built, a validation process ensued, including a second round of interviews with a sub-set of the original leaders' employees. Validating the initial model is not the same as testing it in a quantitative sense. Rather, it requires that the model be measured for its capacity to integrate the emergent concepts of the raw data. For example, Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggest one validation technique where researchers narrate the theory back to the original informants and check for resonance rather than perfect convergence. Because this study focuses

on the contextual process of storytelling, validating the theory is more about looking at internal rather than external validity (Kempster & Parry, 2010).

The following were used to determine validation of the initial theory: 1) congruence between leader sensegiving through narrative and listener sensemaking, evaluated by interviewing employees of a subset of the original leaders, and 2) a review of researchers' reflexive journals.

Interviews with leaders' employees. After the initial round of interviews was transcribed, coded, and integrated into an initial theoretical model, a second round of interviews was conducted with four employees of a subset of the original leaders. The purpose was to determine the extent to which the model captures the themes of the stories, as reflected upon by participants. Additionally, these interviews allow for further exploration of how individuals make sense of leaders' stories and how temporality influences their interpretations. (See Appendix C for the Interview Protocol: Storytelling Interview Guide #2). These employees were nominated by their leaders; however, once nominated, the individuals were emailed directly by the principle investigator. In order to protect employees from coercion, content from employee interviews was not shared with leaders, and notification was not given to the leaders as to whether nominees participated in the study.

Employees were interviewed face-to-face and via telephone. These interviews ran 30 – 45 minutes in length. Summaries of leader stories were shared, and if the content was familiar, employees were asked to reflect on the story's message, the leader's intent in sharing, and the element of time in the story. Employees were also given the opportunity to volunteer an additional story, different from the original narratives shared by their leaders.

Review of researchers' reflexive journals. Throughout the study, researchers recorded impressions of the process, our own perspectives of time and story, and emerging insights or observations of the interview data. Gilgun (2015) suggests that researcher reflexivity can enrich the theorizing process and increase researcher awareness of nuances in the data as well as methods used for collecting and analyzing the data. In our study, researchers engaged in reflexive dialogue at team meetings and recorded impressions of the process and data in open journals accessible to all team members online. Reflexivity aided in conceptualizing of the data on the individual and team level, supporting more sophisticated theorizing than might have occurred had the researchers simply made observations of the data during open, axial, and selective coding. To be clear, the reflexive notes were utilized in the validation process to capture nuances in informant data while heightening our own awareness of the personal biases that often come into play.

Team auditing. Throughout the study, the team audited the research process during coding meetings using peer debriefing during and inquiry auditing (see Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In peer debriefing, we checked each other's coding and categorizing of data. In inquiry auditing, we reviewed whether we were following coding guidelines in a consistent manner and went back through the data to check that data was coded according to the iterative taxonomies.

Additionally, as principal researcher, I audited the work of the other coders.

Integrating the theoretical model

After validating and refining the theory through an iterative process that included several rounds of coding the raw data, interviews with leaders' employees, and a review of analyst memos, I conceptualized a final model using Strauss and Corbin's (1998) guidelines that the

theory be dense, parsimonious, and refined such that the broader concepts apply to participant cases, even if not at every level of detail (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

The fit of the culminating model was judged against a set of criteria defined by Strauss and Corbin (1998) related to two key areas: the research process itself and the empirical grounding of a study (see Appendix D for the complete list). The following outlines a set of criteria that includes several critical questions to serve as additional audits to support the previous process checks embedded in the research design:

1. When hypotheses do not explain all parts of the data, how are these gaps reconciled?
2. How does the core integrative category emerge? What analytic decisions are being made to determine that category?
3. Are the concepts systematically related to one another? Do these categories hold conceptual density (multiple properties and dimensions)?
4. Does the theory account for variation in the data? Are the conditions for variation accounted for by the study?
5. Does the theory account for process (stages or phases)?

The model was evaluated against these questions to determine whether the theory sufficiently explains the data in its complexity and variation.

Chapter IV: Results

Study Population

Participants were nominated by individuals in the primary investigator's network. Specifically, individuals in educational and business industries were asked to suggest the names of leaders whose stories they had personally heard and received as compelling or leaders who were known by reputation to use story as part of their leadership practice. Once nominated, the principal investigator reached out to prospective participants by email and then conducted in-person interviews from June to August of 2017. All interviews were transcribed and reviewed by the primary investigator and then coded by at least two team members. Saturation was assessed and met after the sixth leader interview had been coded.

In total, eight leaders were interviewed. One case was not included for coding as this particular interviewee did not respond in a way that addressed the primary research question posed ($N = 7$), which was to retell strategic stories told to other members of their organization. In the dropped case, the leader did not offer specific stories but instead provided only contextual details about events occurring at the time of the strategic initiatives. All leaders held an executive role in organizations that represented public institutions of higher education or for-profit business firms in the greater Seattle area. Five of the seven leaders were women, three were Caucasian, two were African American, and two were Asian American. The age of leaders ranged from 49 to 64.

As part of the leader interviews, participants were asked to nominate one or two employees who were part of the intended audience at the time of the story. These employees were contacted directly by the primary investigator. Neither the employee's decision to participate in the study nor the results of the interview were shared with the leader.

Tables 1 and 2 outline participant data for both leaders and their employees.

Table 1

Leader Participant Data

Leader	Title, Industry	Number of people in organization	Years of management experience	Race/Ethnicity	Gender
Cassandra (1)	President, higher education	949	25	African American	F
David (2)	CEO, real estate	3,800	30	Caucasian	M
Alex (3)	General Manager, technology	30,000	20	Black	M
Lydia (4)	Senior Director, technology	30,000	21	Caucasian	F
John (5)	President, construction	1,000	25	Caucasian	M
Diana (6)	President, higher education	486	35	Mixed Asian	F
Sharon (7)	Executive Director, higher education	200	25	Japanese heritage	F

Note: The table contains pseudonyms to protect interviewee confidentiality.

Table 2

Employee Participant Data

Employee	Title	Years in current organization	Race/Ethnicity	Gender
Angela (1)	Director	2	Caucasian	F
Peter (2)	Director	13	Caucasian	M
Lisa (3)	Designer	6	Caucasian	F
Judith (4)	Officer	29	Asian American	F

Note: The table contains pseudonyms to protect interviewee confidentiality.

Review of Data Analysis

Per grounded theory methodology, the research question (*How does the use of time in narrative impact the enactment of leadership during a strategic change?*) frames and guides the research (Creswell et al, 2007; Gioia et al., 2012), informing the types of questions asked of participants. Specifically, leaders were asked to share stories they had told their employees during a strategic change or initiative. As is always the case, stories are contextual, and the events told and reflected upon are connected to and shaped by the characteristics of the storyteller, the story listener, and setting (Abbot, 2008; Fleming, 2001; Snowden, 2001); Further, narratives are often a shared dialectic between storyteller and listener (Boje, 1991), which can be the audience at the time of the original story as well as the audience during the interview.

Table 3

Summary of Leader Stories

Case	Story Summary	Story Outcomes	Time in Story	Time and Leader
Cassandra (1A): Seeing around corners	The leader's past experience at a prior organization is leveraged as a warning for what could emerge in the future of her current institution.	Lit a fire under leaders, increasing a collective sense of responsibility for taking action as well as considering implications for student stakeholders.	Other media news about sexual assaults on college campuses served as a backdrop for current challenges. Failing to meet deadlines can result in negative consequences for the institution.	Failure to take action can inform an undesirable future outcome.
Cassandra (1B): Sharing self with others	The leader's personal struggle in college is shared to illustrate the importance of helping students navigate the educational system.	The leader's willingness to be transparent about her struggle humanized her to others and demonstrated the leader's personal commitment to the organization's mission.	Leaders who share themselves articulate the why behind the mission; the pressures associated with being president include engaging in present struggles and moving the organization forward for better student outcomes.	Leaders must be able to see around corners.
David (2A): Sitting in his grandfather's chair	The story celebrates the continuity of the past with the present. As a young boy, the leader had the opportunity to sit in his grandfather's chair at the organization's first headquarters and see the importance of putting out one's hand in friendship.	Listeners gain an understanding of the company's identity, origins, and core mission.	Time sets the foundation for the conversation that enables people to reflect upon their own childhood and recognize that the company and leadership have "substance."	The leader grows with the company, and the company is a reflection of the leader's life. The story is a "touchstone of the memories...and growth within the company."
David (2B): Choosing between leading and making the fire	The leader shared a boyhood experience of acting as troop leader at a scouting event and having to decide whether he should start the morning fire, even though it was not his job. This story illustrates that effective and efficient team work requires knowing one's role, allowing others to fulfill their roles, and delegating tasks.	Members of a team have different roles to play. Respecting these roles and the spirit of the "freedom of leadership" allows for forward movement and "collaboration."	Leaders' time must be "freed up," if they are to be more effective.	Leadership is about the conversation you are driving and the frequency of focus on the vital few priority items. The focus of leadership is the future outcome, not the situation itself, and discerning what to do based on the present.
Alex (3A): History will repeat itself	The leader shared three personal stories of discrimination to emphasize the organization's mission as education (for the purpose of mitigating populist ideals).	Listeners can potentially reframe the purpose behind their work.	The leader points to his choice of vivid and specific details of the stories to paint a particular place in time in the listener's mind. History repeats itself; therefore, the future can be predicted based on patterns of events.	The leader uses time and duration of storytelling to capture the audience. "You're sort of um opening yourself to vision, to sight...So when I joined this team, I told a story about why I joined this team....I finished, and the team was like, ah wow, that's how you got to come here to this organization."

Case	Story Summary	Story Outcomes	Time in Story	Time and Leader
Alex (3B): Juxtaposing the past and the present	Leader told a story about a parade he and his family had attended in Illinois, which reminded him of a bygone era. "But it all feels that this is a very small version of what it once was. And it feels kind of sad. This community's obviously on a sharp decline."	The team is galvanized behind the mission of education. "And so it helped them reframe why they come to work, what they come to work for, and just lift their perspective over what do we have to do."	Past and present are juxtaposed. "I'm also trying to compare this time in much of America right now with an America and Germany and other places around the world in the 1920s and 1930s and draw an allegory to say there is a time now and there was a time then, and the situations are identical in terms of what caused them and how people feel."	The leader pays attention to the timing of the story (when it is shared) and the time needed to tell it (storytelling duration). "So there's a time impact of that's the story I chose to tell, the first thing."
Lydia (4A): Learning from failure	Leader shared about a failure to qualify for the Boston marathon. "We have been talking over the past couple of days about these prototypes not necessarily all being winners and we have to embrace that some of these prototypes that we're creating will fail, and what will we learn from them, and how will we move forward with failure, and how will we accept failure and learn from it."	The audience empathized with the leader. "When I told the anecdote about so in fact I actually missed qualifying by 16 seconds, the room went ugh like...they were feeling my pain, that in fact it wasn't a minute and 16 seconds or 15 seconds, it was 16 seconds. They were so brought into the story that they were feeling my pain in that moment." "You can learn and move forward with learnings from any situation and apply them for a better outcome overall. And that someone else's success does not tarnish your success.."	Time is conceptualized as different types of resources (the time to train or prepare; the time to race; the time invested in one's goa; the time invested in facilitating another's success; and the time to recover). Audience learned and applied the story. "Let's go be Lydia and support...if your success is embodied by other people's success, okay my thing didn't work out, but what did I learn and can I apply elsewhere, that became like let's be like Lydia."	Time is a valuable commodity. "Time is precious...Use it wisely. And also be benevolent with your time...I'm spending time with you today in the hopes that people will do the same with me. Be benevolent with your time."
Lydia (4B): Building a team	Leader told of a team building exercise where members took turns suggesting fun activities during weekly calls. "[W]e started doing silly things to surprise each other on Monday mornings at 7 a.m. And so the next week was the start of the Olympics, so someone said, when we flip the cameras on... why don't we all wear something that represents our country of birth?"	Audience applied the story by trying things in their own teams and allowing others to lead. "We had so much fun with it. We're still doing it... I'm supporting it but I'm not leading. I'm letting it happen organically."	Time is conceptualized in several ways: differentiated time zones in the story, the time of the meeting, the duration of the meeting, the duration of the activity, time for fun, and time for preparation.	The core concept of time is investment.
John (5A): Gaining the first mover advantage	The leader shared a story of his grandfather's unique business approach to illustrate a lesson in collaboration, which secured a "strategic sort of first mover advantage by embracing the delivery model early, getting some early reps, building a portfolio similar to what we did back in the 70s and 80s." The past experiences helped "position us as a market	Members of the organization began to think past the near-term and toward the possible future. "I think it helped people see past the near term perceived risks of this new thing and put it in the context of hey you know as we're trying to position ourselves as a leader here where are the places we can get strategic advantage either as first mover or something that	The essence of time in the story is consideration of the long-term. "Time shows up...with my team today, are we more focused on the near term like tomorrow's risk and tomorrow's reward versus risk and reward out into the future." "And certainly the looking back historically where that question was true in the late	The long-term view is valued, and the leader's job is to look into the future. "And a lot of our leadership and management team are much more tactical, very short-term focused, and so my job is often the one to be helping people see a

Case	Story Summary	Story Outcomes	Time in Story	Time and Leader
	leader as we think about...the evolution of today."	really differentiates us from the competition...."	70s. We solved it well. We got first mover advantage and for 30 plus years it's really paid dividends for us as a company."	little bit further into the future and imagine where we're going and what we could become."
John (5B): Sharing ownership	The leader's grandfather (company founder) shifted the ownership model. "The story we tell is really back to those early days and what the ownership model has created...as both an incentive and a reward for the people who are making, providing the biggest amount of value at the company. So that they see that the fruits of their labor are more than potentially just their paycheck."	This ownership structure created sustainability for the company.	The story goes back in time and looks forward in time, with a focus on the long view. "...we're drawing people back to the early days of the company where the founders decided to change the ownership model to a more shared ownership model...and we go back in time and talk about why they did it then and why we still think it's valuable today...our ownership model is one that is very focused on the long-term, right."	Focus is on sustaining the organization 70 plus years into the future: "[W]e all talk about the future being 30, 40, 50, 70 years. We're 74 years old right now. And we talk a lot about building this thing to be successful 74 years from now you know. And so the decision we make today...they're just little steps along the way."
Diana (6A): Continuously improving processes	The leader sought to improve the organization's hiring process. Typically, only those candidates meeting minimum qualifications are considered for hire. "So...talking about the fact that you know I started working on my PhD, I didn't finish in a timely manner because of circumstances...my moving to another state, my having two children got in the way of really progressing. So I'd say you know it's okay if you see a gap in someone's employment history."	As part of the process change, this leader interviews every candidate for hire, using the conversation as an opportunity to talk about the values of the organization. "And in order to be then to instill that value of relationship-building I need to set an example, and this is one way that I can do it, in talking about the hiring process and how I go about it, having conversations with people that I interview."	The choice of timing about when to insert the self and tell a personal story is critical. "I have to be very careful about when I talk about myself and my personal experiences, in providing examples, for example, in telling a story. And timing is so very important. You know is this the appropriate situation...what am I trying to accomplish? Is this the appropriate audience, right?"	Focus is on continuous process improvement.
Diana (6B): Recognizing and empowering others	Leader shared her own heritage with the volunteers of the Japanese Garden group at her institution and, in so doing, built a deeper connection with them. "And so relating this story about how I grew up in Hawaii...empowered this group of volunteers...their work became a story about cultural diversity and of the value of diversity, particularly with Asian Americans."	Personal story led to building community with others. "And so I use this story to talk about my value about community building, which also brings in the sort of cultural influences that come with me in my personal story."	(Leader did not make an explicit comment.)	(Leader did not make an explicit comment.)
Sharon (7A): Leveraging position authority to empower others	At her association conference dinner as incoming executive director, the leader had to decide whether to sit at the head table or an open table with a guest she had invited. "So in my own mind I have a	Leader's vulnerability in sharing a personal story about position authority allowed others to be more open about their own struggles and offer support. "So the fact that I talked about that gave them	Leader ponders how she can "intentionally use [a] position to support people of color and women in the future."	(Leader did not make an explicit comment.)

Case	Story Summary	Story Outcomes	Time in Story	Time and Leader
	question mark about...how am I gonna handle it the next time, when I am the exec director, and now I know I'm supposed to sit at the head table. So how do I lend credibility in my position authority the next time to people who are responsible for engaging in a difficult conversation...."	license to share their own feelings about what it had been like for them... That my willingness to be open about things that I worry about gives other people license to say, yeah, I don't... have to pretend that they don't have worries and anxieties in their jobs too."		
Sharon (7B): Learning the lessons of experience	Leader shared a story about the process of applying for her current role and the number of people who supported, advocated, and acted as a resource for her.	The leader learned from others and found that she, too, had lessons to share. "Cause in some ways I always think, well I'm not smarter than anyone else, and other people have probably figured this out a long time ago. And that's actually not a correct assumption, that we learn a tremendous amount from each other, and that it's part of how we support each other, is that we share what we've learned, and when you shared what you've learned, you're not telling them what to do, you're giving them ideas...."	There was ample time to engage in the process. "And so that the time part I guess is that it was a significant decision on my part, and I had a lot of time to collect new information and views and reexamine, reevaluate my approach, and then collect other information, reevaluate, reexamine my approach, and so I was really grateful that I had long of a chunk of time to really think about how to do this to make adjustments and to keep collecting input...."	She has an eye on the future. "So I'm not a past dweller. I only think about the past from the point of view of how does it inform my current and future actions. So I would say that I'm kind of in between the represent and the future...and so I'm kind of a long-term, long-haul person."

During open coding, two types of analyses were conducted on the interview data using line by line coding. First, we identified descriptive themes, or the explicit time-related words present in phrases or sentences. We chose to code individual words or phrases in order to capture all of the discrete expressions of time used by leaders in the telling of their stories (e.g., when, first, never, always). In this way, we could identify the many ways that time emerged as a concrete or abstract theme, without privileging certain words over others.

Second, we identified functional themes, or the implicit effect or impact of the time-related words within the context of the sentence. We chose to code the functional theme at the sentence-level in order to identify as many discrete dimensions as possible. This decision was a result of two passes through the interview data where the team experienced that coding larger chunks of data (e.g., clusters of sentences or larger sections of text) presented multiple

challenges. Specifically, we noticed greater levels of ambiguity in theme generation and inferential information as well as the need for multiple codes. Line-by-line coding was appropriate for the overarching goal of open coding, which is to generate as many discrete dimensions as the data makes available using a consistent and defensible process.

Two taxonomies, grounded in the rich description of the participants' stories, were developed. Descriptive and functional categories provide the scaffolding for participants' conceptualization of time, relative to their stories and strategic leadership. The following taxonomy lists the descriptive themes, along with their definitions.

Table 4

Taxonomy of Descriptive Themes

Open Code	Definition
Age	Reference to a particular age of a person, group, thing, place
Alignment of timelines	Aligning independent timelines
Always	Invariably; at all times
Calendar time	Reference to a day, month, week, year, or specific dates
Clock time	Exact time within a time zone
Collective awareness	A collective understanding or awareness of something
Collective time	An action, event, or time period shared by a group
Comparing time to other constructs	Comparing time to other objects (animate or inanimate)
Comparison of past and future	Comparing others, actions, or events across timeframes (past and future)
Comparison of past and present	Comparing others, actions, or events across timeframes (past and present)
Comparison of present and future	Comparing others, actions, or events across timeframes (present and future)
Cyclical	Occurring in cycles
Deadline	A date or time before which something must be done
Describing something or someone as dynamic, changing	Marked by usually continuous and productive activity or change
Duration of event or action	Time during which something exists or lasts
Emotionally charged event or action	An event or action that is emotionally resonant
Frequency	Frequency of an action or event
Future	Occurring over or involving a relatively long yet undefined period of time
Future distant	6 - 75 years forward
Future forecasting	To calculate or predict
Future immediate	Up to 1 year forward
Future near	1 - 5 years forward
Future potential	Existing in possibility
Future preparation	Taking action in service of the future

Open Code	Definition
Heritage	Something transmitted by or acquired from a predecessor
Imperative	Something that is of vital importance or necessity
Locating a story in a particular timeframe	Placing a story in the general or specific past, present, or future
Locating self, group, organization in a particular time or place	Placing the self, group, organization in a specific time frame or location
Movement in time	The act or process of moving in or through time
Never	At no time in the past or future; on no occasion; not ever.
Novelty	Something new or unusual
Organizational past	The organization's past
Paradox in time	Oppositional or contrary events or forces that exist or occur at the same tin
Past dismissed	Diminishing something of the past
Past distant	6 - 74 years in the past
Past foundational	Past as a starting point, a beginning
Past historic event or time	An event or action that is known or established in the past
Past irreversible	Something that has already occurred which cannot be altered
Past near	1 - 5 years back
Past personal	Personal or biographical information about the past
Personal generation, family	Reference to one's family or generation(s)
Present	of, relating to, or constituting a verb tense that is expressive of present time or the time of speaking
Present existential	A statement reflecting a state of being in the present
Present historic event or time	An event or action that bears historic significance in the present
Present immediate	Today, now
Present ongoing	Something that continues to occur in the present
Repetition	The recurrence of an action or event
Sequence or order	A particular order in which related events, movements, or things follow each other
Shared mission	Common mission or purpose shared by a group
Speed	Rate of motion
Temporal indicator of a past event	Time-related words that indicate when an event is occurring (e.g., when, at that time)

Open Code	Definition
Time as context	Interrelated conditions in which something exists or occurs
Time as investment	To give (time or effort) in order to do or gain something or make something better
Time as resource	Time as a resource or valuable commodity; having agency over time
Time constraint	The sense of limitation on time
Time period	Period or span of time
Timing	The choice, judgment, or control of when something should be done
Trend	A prevailing tendency or inclination
Urgency	A force or impulse that impels or constrains
Waiting	A pause, interval, or delay

Axial Categories for Descriptive Themes

Descriptive themes indicate the specific time-related words used in the sentence. They are the time fragments, or the building blocks of the emergent theory. Because their function or outcome in a sentence can vary depending on context of the story being told, descriptive themes simply identify the mechanics of the time-related words, answering the question – what is the time word present in the line? Eight clusters of categories emerged: future; past; present; comparison of future, past, or present timeframes; discrete time; duration, order, pattern; movement or rate of motion; and time as a tangible commodity or force. The following table shows the axial categories and the sub-concepts that belong to them, listed in order of frequency; the number of instances are noted in parentheses and example phrases from the stories are provided.

Table 5

Axial Categories for Descriptive Themes

Axial Category	Theme
Future (relating to, or constituting a verb tense expressive of time yet to come)	Future forecasting (26) “Let’s look forward into the future”
	Future potential (20) “where things are potentially going”
	Future (undefined) (13) “for a long time”
	Future near (12) “near term”
	Future distant (10) “upcoming generations”
	Future preparation (8) “I tried to get them to think beyond”
	Future immediate (6) “upcoming”, “yet”
Past (having existed or taken place in a period before the present)	Past personal (28) “my family grew up in Hawaii”
	Organizational past (17) “early days of the company”
	Past distant (10) “back in the 70s”
	Past historic event or time (7) “first Industrial revolution”
	Past near (7) “5 years ago”
	Personal generation, family (6) “founded by my grandfather”
	Past foundational (5) “employment history”
	Heritage (3) “tradition in this institution”
	Past dismissed (2) “so whatever happened just happened and is no longer”

Axial Category	Theme
	Past irreversible (1) “We couldn’t go back.”
Present (of, relating to, or constituting a verb tense that is expressive of present time or the time of speaking)	Present immediate (30) “now,” “today”
	Present ongoing (19) “still going on”
	Present existential (15) “who we are”
	Present historic event or time (2) “85 th anniversary”
Comparison of future, past, or present timeframes (examining distinct timeframes in relation to each other)	Comparison of past and present (13) “from now we can look back”
	Paradox in time (6) “And that every time we make a decision about adding a new shareholder, we're making a decision about diluting our own interests.”
	Comparison of present and future (1) “near term...versus longer term”
	Comparison of past and future (1) “That that particular situation isn't gonna occur again”
Discrete Time (specific dates or time boundaries)	Locating self, group, organization in particular time or place (22) “where we are now”
	Clock time (17) “15 seconds”
	Calendar time (14) “Monday,” “end of May”
	Time as context (14) “tough times”
	Age (12) “74 years old”
	Time period (12)

Axial Category	Theme
	“London at that time”
	Collective time (11) “powerful piece of time for him and I”
	Locating story in a particular timeframe (5) “it was a rainy day”
Duration, order, pattern (time-related structures that specify when, how often, and how long events or actions occur)	Duration of event or action (31) “during,” “over”
	Repetition (22) “again,” “another”
	Frequency (20) “every time,” “daily”
	Trend (15) “started a trend”
	Always (14) “always”
	Cyclical (12) “monthly basis”
	Never (9) “never”
Movement, rate of motion (related to speed or movement in time; describing something or someone as dynamic or changing, urgency, and waiting)	Speed (14) “nanosecond,” “move quickly,” “timely”
	Movement in time (11) “journey,” “travel in time”
	Describing something or someone as dynamic or changing (9) “learn and move forward”
	Urgency (5) “in the forefront”
	Waiting (5) “waiting for 20 days”
Time as a tangible commodity or force (a resource to be leveraged or a force that is emotionally resonant)	Imperative (48) “it has to be done”

Axial Category	Theme
	Time as investment (14) “time is an investment”
	Time as resource (12) “time for preparation”
	Deadline (9) “just missed it”
	Comparing time to other constructs (6) “horizon”
	Time constraint (5) “too busy”

Future. The leader words and phrases that were coded into the future category includes concepts of future forecasting, future potential, future undefined, future near, future distant, future preparation, and future immediate. Throughout leader stories, the future is conceptualized as having positive or negative potential, with an emphasis on what organizational members can or will do to influence the outcome. Future forecasting, defined in the taxonomy as “to calculate or predict,” and future potential, defined as “existing in possibility,” is especially indicative of an emphasis on what could be. For example, John (Leader 5) highlighted a contrast between short- and long-term thinking: “And a lot of our leadership and management team are much more tactical, very short-term focused, and so my job is often the one to be helping people *see a little bit further into the future and imagine where we're going and what we could become.*” The concept of the future is also leveraged as a warning to listeners. Cassandra (Leader 1) shared a story to influence other leaders to consider a specific pathway of action so as to avoid a potentially negative outcome. “So I think as the point of telling the story is *here's what could happen to us if we don't act now.*”

Past. The leader words and phrases that were categorized into the axial category of the past includes ten themes: past personal, organizational past, past distant, past historic event or

time, past near, personal generation or family, past foundational, heritage, past dismissed, and past irreversible. Leaders often used experiences or events from their own lives to draw their listeners in, to share something personal about themselves or the identity of the organization, or to shape listeners' sensemaking about a particular topic. For example, Cassandra (Leader 1) discussed that sharing a personal story enables her organizational stakeholders to relate to her: "And so I think *it made me more human and real* to a lot of the staff, and I had staff come up and were just really appreciative that I was willing to share my story...."

David (Leader 2) alluded to the past as a pathway for his employees to gain insight about the foundation and credibility of their organization:

It sets that *foundation* of being able to relate to maybe reflect upon, everybody can reflect upon their own childhood, their own paths, that I'm sure subconsciously comes in, that there is substance behind the company, behind the leadership team, and...the relatedness increases through a personal story such as that.

Present. In contrast to the future and past timeframes, the leader words and phrases categorized into the present category include four concepts: present immediate, present ongoing, present existential, and present historic event or time. The present, unlike the future or the past, has a more ambiguous time duration, with non-specific beginning and end points. In their stories and reflections, leaders conceptualize the present as a current state of being or acting, often indicated by tense. For example, the immediate present was the most frequently occurring concept, indicated by words such as "right now," "just," and "today." David (Leader 2) related a sense of the organization's identity that is rooted in the past but continuing in the present. The theme of present existential is characterized by a statement of identity or being in the present tense. The following quote is an example of present existential: "And that has always lasted with

me about *who we are* as a company. *We're* part of the community. *We're in* friendship with everyone.”

Comparison of future, past, and present timeframes. The frames in which leaders discussed the past, present, and future are compared, contrasted, and contextualized in this category, illustrating how leaders think across time and consider the present or future in light of the past. Paralleling or contrasting the past with the present was the most frequent case in this category. For example, Alex (Leader 3) shared his reflection on seeing patterns of the past reoccurring in the present. In essence, he suggests that the future is predictable:

I'm also trying to compare this time in much of America right now with an America and Germany and other places around the world in the 1920s and 1930s and draw an allegory to say *there is time now and there was a time then*, and the situations are identical in terms of what caused them and how people feel.

Discrete time. The words and phrases that were categorized as discrete time encompass concepts around specific dates or time boundaries: location in a certain time or place, clock time, calendar time, time as context, age, time period, collective time. These concepts represent the mechanics of time used to place concrete boundaries around experience or events as well as to measure experience. Lydia (Leader 4) shared a story about running a marathon with a friend of hers and falling short of the race time that would have qualified her for the Boston marathon. The details of the race, the time of her race, and the number of seconds that determined a qualifying or non-qualifying run provide a structural landscape to her story about personal failure and the lessons she derived from the seemingly negative experience:

When I told the anecdote...that I actually missed qualifying by 16 seconds, the room went “ugh” like it was, they were feeling my pain, that in fact *it wasn't a minute and 16*

seconds or 15 seconds, it was 16 seconds. They were so brought into the story that they were feeling my pain in that moment, and they were also feeling the disappointment and the “oh my god how close,” right?

Duration, order, pattern. The leader words and phrases that were coded in this category includes seven themes: duration of event or action, repetition, frequency, trend, always, cyclical, and never. Similar to discrete time, this category further orders or structures experience, telling us when, how often, and how long events or actions occur, and structural patterns can emerge. The use of repetition, for example, can indicate a recurring action or result, as illustrated in Cassandra’s (Leader 1) story: “And I have seen it happen *over and over again* where a president makes an unpopular decision, it becomes that that president becomes demonized as somebody who doesn’t care or is separate from the rest of the campus.”

Movement, rate of motion. The movement of events or actions is represented by the concepts of speed, movement in time, describing something or someone as dynamic or changing, urgency, and waiting. The relative speed of things is often used to describe meeting or missing important deadlines or maximizing an opportunity versus missing it. Alex (Leader 3) described the speed of change: “So it’s the point of saying *culture changes in a nanosecond* because of the context and the situation, and so the point of who is we and who is they is a really fluid thing that moves around.” The lack of speedy action can be problematic, as illustrated by Cassandra (Leader 1): “We hadn’t investigated in a timely manner, the Dean didn’t have the right, proper training in terms of how to handle these things, and even once it sort of blew up, we didn’t have the right infrastructure in place to deal with it as an institution.”

Time as a tangible commodity or force. The words and phrases that were coded in this category were conceptualized as a resource to be leveraged or a force that is emotionally

resonant. The imperative tense, time as investment, time as resource, deadline, comparing time to other constructs, and time constraint belong to this cluster. For example, Diana (Leader 6) shared the challenge of being judicious in the sharing of personal stories: “*I have to be* very careful about when I talk about myself and my personal experiences, in providing examples, for example, in telling a story.” The effective use of time also comes into play, illustrated by David’s story (Leader 1) about role division and delegation in effective teamwork: “And that comes along in talking to our...associates, who are too busy, that if they are doing all the paperwork, they’re not being the top associate consultant personal representative for their clients, cause they’re down using the paperwork when they’re too busy.”

Axial Categories for Functional Themes

Functional themes were developed to elaborate on the descriptive themes by indicating the impact of the time word or phrase in the context of the sentence or cluster of related sentences. In this way, the functional codes enable a richer understanding of temporality in leader narratives, beyond simple mechanics. The following table is a taxonomy of the functional themes that emerged in the data.

Table 6

Taxonomy of Functional Themes

Open Code	Definition
A time to consider, to be prospective	To think carefully about something, especially as it is related to the future
Absence of action	Non-action; sometimes cued by the word "never"
Aligning multiple timelines	An arrangement of timelines in relation to one another
Assumed collective identification	Assuming that an individual or group identifies themselves with another group
Call to action	To make a strong request or demand; sometimes cued by the imperative (e.g., ought to, should, direct commands)

Open Code	Definition
Call to action, collective	To make a strong request or demand of a collective group (e.g., ought to, should, direct commands)
Catalyst for action	Provoking or speeding significant change or action (adapted from Merriam-Webster)
Cause and effect	A relationship between events or things, where one is the result of the other or others
Collective experience	An experience that is shared by a collective or members of a group
Collective identification	Identification with a collective
Continuity of past and present	Uninterrupted duration or continuation without essential change from past to present
Creating structures that help build shared mental models	Describing or establishing cognitive frameworks for the purpose of building a shared understanding
Delay as a barrier to effectiveness	The failure to act or the failure to act swiftly impedes an ideal or effective outcome
Describing or establishing a temporal duration	Describing something to have a certain overall time span
Describing or establishing a temporal order	Arranging events in time
Describing the conclusion or outcome of an event	The ending or the result
Describing the setting or context of story	Providing details that make the setting or context of the story more concrete
Effective use of time	Deciding what tasks are most important and focusing on these
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality	Highlighting an important or desirable leadership trait in oneself or others
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: authenticity	Being true to one's own personality, spirit, or character
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: building trust	Assured reliance on the character, ability, strength, or truth of someone or something
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: empowering others	Promoting the self-actualization or influence of someone or a group of people
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: intuition	The power or faculty of attaining to direct knowledge or cognition without evident rational thought and inference

Open Code	Definition
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: investing in others	To give time or effort to others in service a future benefit or reward
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: multiple perspectives	A capacity to view things in their true relation or relative importance; a capacity to view things from other points of view
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: perception	A capacity for comprehension
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: strategic thinking	A capacity to think about, assess, view, and create the future for themselves and others
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: systemic thinking	A capacity to understand how components within a system link and interact
Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: timing	A capacity to choose, judge, or control when something should be done
Emphasizing or reinforcing an idea, action, event	Highlighting the significance of an idea, action, event
Establishing an organization's origins, credibility	Describing an organization's historical roots; establishing an organization's trustworthiness, integrity
Finality of the past	A fact or impression of the past being irreversible
Focusing on the future	Turning one's attention to the future
Galvanizing people around a mission	Stimulating others to get behind or support a mission
Helping the organization prepare for the future	Getting the organization ready for the future
Highlighting incongruence	Demonstrating a lack of agreement or harmony between one or more actions, events, or persons
Historical context	Providing circumstantial details about the setting for an event, action, idea
Holding the long-term in mind	Occurring over or relating to a long period of time
Imagining or anticipating the future	Forming a mental image of something or someone not yet present
Immediate work at hand	Emphasizing the tasks that need to be done in the immediate present
Importance of making a decision	Emphasizing the significance of a decision or implications of a decision

Open Code	Definition
Juxtaposition of different time frames	Placing different time frames side by side or close together to highlight a contrast
Leader identification with others	A capacity to identify with other people or organizational stakeholders
Leader identification with the larger mission, vision, or purpose	A capacity to identify with the mission, vision, or purpose of the organization
Learning from past	Identifying or applying lessons from past events or actions
Learning within a space of time	Identifying or applying lessons from events or actions
Legacy	Something transmitted by or received from an ancestor or predecessor or from the past
Leveraging personal experience	Using one's personal experience to advantage
Marking a salient moment	Highlighting a significant moment
Marking a salient moment in the present	Highlighting a significant moment in the present
Marking the emergence of something new	Highlighting the beginning or birth of something
Meeting a deadline	Importance of completing an act before a specific date or time
Need for change	Highlighting that something or someone must undergo a shift or transformation
Organizational period of time	A time period that is particular to the organization; for example, 3-year succession plan
Pace of time or event	The perceived or conceptualized speed of movement of time or event
Parallelism of different time frames	Connecting different time frames to show a relationship or correspondence
Past nostalgic	Regarding the past with a wistful, excessively sentimental yearning for or return to the past
Planning ahead	An orderly or methodical conception or proposal for accomplishing an objective
Reflecting on a larger event or trend	To think carefully about an event or trend
Repeated cycle of ongoing present	A repeating event or action that continues in the present
Sense of urgency	The need or importance of taking swift action

Open Code	Definition
Specific dateline	Providing a particular date for when an event or action occurred (or will occur)
Statement of being or identity	Asserting a fact of being or essential characteristic
Time as abstraction	Characterizing time as having an abstract quality beyond objective reality or what can be perceived.
Time as location	Time denotes a physical location; for example, a time zone can indicate where one is or where an event takes place
Time is related to identity	An element of time suggests something about the identity of someone or something
Timeliness of action	An action or event that occurs or is done at the right time or occasion
Warning about the future	Utilizing an action or event as an indicator of a potential future

Since the focal point of the exploratory research question is the relationship of time in storytelling to the enactment of leadership, the functional categories serve as the conceptual building blocks of the theory. Whereas descriptive themes address the explicit time words and phrases, functional themes represent the import of the time-related words in the context of the stories. As a coding team, we sought to identify the primary function of the leader's words within the sentence. The following taxonomy lists the functional themes that emerged in the data.

In the following section, I describe the emergent functional categories captured by the coding team, which were used to inform the resulting theory. Words and phrases in the leaders' stories were coded into 67 themes that were then grouped into nine axial categories. The following table lists the axial categories and their respective themes. Following the table, each category of functional time along with their clustered theme is described with illustrative quotes from leader interviews. Frequency of each theme is indicated in parentheses.

Table 7

Axial Categories for Functional Themes

Axial Category	Themes (Frequency Count)
Creating order or structure with time (describing when, in what order, how long, and where events or actions occur)	Describing the setting or context of story (66)
	Describing or establishing a temporal order (32)
	Describing the conclusion or outcome of an event (17)
	Marking the emergence of something new (11)
	Specific dateline (11)
	Time as location (11)
	Describing or establishing temporal duration (10)
	Organizational period of time (4)
	Pace of time or event (4)
Comparing, joining, or contrasting time frames (comparing, contrasting or pairing the past, present, or future time frames)	Juxtaposition of different time frames (15)
	Highlighting incongruence (15)
	Continuity of past and present (13)
	Aligning multiple timelines (4)
	Parallelism of different time frames (4)
Constructing leadership identity (highlighting a specific leadership trait or action)	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: authenticity (19)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: perception (13)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: investing in others (10)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: timing (10)

Axial Category	Themes (Frequency Count)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: empowering others (9)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: intuition (8)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: multiple perspectives (5)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: systemic thinking (3)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality (3)
	Emphasizing or reinforcing a leadership quality: building trust (1)
	Leader identification with the larger mission, vision, or purpose (5)
	Leader identification with others (5)
Constructing collective identity or understanding (related to the identity of a group or a shared understanding of action or event)	Leveraging personal experience (27)
	Collective experience (19)
	Creating structures that help build shared mental models (18)
	Galvanizing people around a mission (11)
	Collective identification (6)
	Assumed collective identification (3)
Time and identity (establishing an organization's origins or credibility in a relevant industry)	Time is related to identity (18)
	Establishing an organization's origins, credibility (10)
	Statement of being or identity (9)

Axial Category	Themes (Frequency Count)
Learning in time (learning in a space of time or learning from an event or time period)	Historical context (16)
	Learning within a space of time (14)
	Learning from past (13)
	Reflecting on a larger event or trend (11)
	Time as abstraction (8)
	Finality of the past (2)
Creating significance in time (reinforcing an idea, action, or event)	Emphasizing or reinforcing an idea, action, event (38)
	Marking a salient moment (21)
	Legacy (11)
	Repeated cycle of ongoing present (8)
	Past nostalgic (7)
	Marking a salient moment in the present (6)
Attending to the future (considering the future, holding the future in mind)	Imagining or anticipating the future (26)
	Helping the organization prepare for the future (9)
	Warning about the future (9)
	Planning ahead (8)
	A time to consider, to be prospective (7)
	Holding the long-term in mind (7)
	Focusing on the future (6)
Inviting action (inviting others to take action)	Call to action, collective (36)
	Timeliness of action (25)
	Meeting a deadline (16)
	Effective use of time (14)
	Cause and effect (12)
	Need for change (9)
	Absence of action (8)
	Call to action (7)
	Catalyst for action (5)
	Immediate work at hand (5)
	Importance of making a decision (4)

Axial Category	Themes (Frequency Count)
	Sense of urgency (4)
	Delay as a barrier to effectiveness (2)

Time as structure. Time is a mechanism that enables individuals to structure human experience. In the Greek philosophy of time, *chronos* (clock time) puts boundaries around and within chaos (random disorder). Across leader's stories, patterns of structuring and categorizing experience emerged in two main axial categories: (1) creating order or structure with time and (2) comparing, joining or contrasting timeframes.

Creating order or structure with time. For this axial category, temporal expressions facilitate a sense of order. In leaders' narratives, time is frequently used to describe when, in what order, how long, and where events or actions occur. More specifically, the words and phrases of the leader were coded as the following concepts: to describe the setting or context of story, to establish a temporal order or duration, to describe the outcome of an event, to mark the emergence of something new, to provide a specific dateline, to locate the story at a particular place in time, to describe an organizational period of time, or to highlight the pace of time or an event.

For example, John (Leader 5) shared a story about the origins of his three-generation company, where the mention of a calendar year provides context for the story: "Back in the oh *late 1970s* when my dad...the company was founded by my grandfather in 1944. My dad came and worked here originally in kind of a marketing capacity in the mid 70s and right about that time the market was shifting from a delivery model...." In a different example, Alex (Leader 3) shared a story about a childhood experience, establishing the scene with vivid details: "I've just come to the UK, having grown up in South America for a bit, and it's cold, *it's a winter's night*

in London, it's raining." The contextual details of time provide markers and parameters for the event described.

Comparing, joining, or contrasting timeframes. Leaders often compared and contrasted or paired the past, present, or future time frames. Because they place multiple time frames together, the leaders prompt listeners to consider one in the context of the other. The words and phrases of the leaders were coded as follows: juxtaposition of different time frames, continuity of past and present, alignment of multiple timeframes, and parallelism of different time frames.

For example, Cassandra (Leader 1) juxtaposes the past and the present, suggesting that past news of sexual harassment cases on college campuses provided a sense of urgency for the current situation. "So I think if I told the story just in *the context of even now*, the sense of urgency is not as heightened as it was *back then*, because there was all this stuff swirling in the newspaper." In a different interview, Alex (Leader 3) shared a story about his own experience with discrimination: "If I follow the narrative of what is supposed to be, yes, um the white taxi driver shouldn't have sympathy for me but he does." Here, the element of incongruence or surprise is central to the narrative. In a third story, John (Leader 5) connects the past, present, and future together, demonstrating a continuity across time frames. "And so it's in some ways been nice to be able to tie this 30, 40, year ago historical thing that has a very close connection to my family and to where are we today and where are we going 30, 40 years from now." These examples demonstrate how leaders highlight difference and similarity across the past, present, and future, indicating disruption, alignment, or continuity beyond mere moments in time.

Identity. All 14 of the leaders' stories were personal. They recounted personal events and experiences for the purpose of sharing a particular message. Implicit in the story is the identity of the individual leader, a group of people, or the organization. Time aspects are related

to how the leader tells their own story and is perceived by listeners. For example, leaders might share past experiences to build trust with their team members, to demonstrate transparency and authenticity to the people in the organization, or to model or endorse a particular course of action. These and other instances of time-related storytelling (e.g., sharing one's past) not only establish narrative plot, they also construct identity. This category includes constructing leadership identity, constructing collective identity or understanding, and time and identity.

Constructing leadership identity. The effect of time in leaders' stories can result in highlighting a specific leadership trait or action. The most common theme in this category included the leadership quality of authenticity. Perception, investing in others, timing, empowering others, and intuition follow. As an example, Sharon (Leader 7) shared a story about her openness with others about the sense of worry experienced during a transition to a different role: "That my willingness to be open about things that I worry about gives other people license to say, 'yeah, I don't...have to pretend that they don't have worries and anxieties in their jobs too.'" Alex (Leader 3) remarked about the choice of story to match the listener: "Um, you pick different stories at different times depending on the audience so there's something about *the timing* of that...."

Constructing collective identity or understanding. Part of identity construction or development in leaders' stories also related to the collective identity of a group or a shared understanding of an action or event. Cassandra (Leader 1) leveraged her personal experience to prompt other leaders to develop a sense of collective responsibility for organizational outcomes:

There was something that when I was at [name of academic institution], we called it first among equals, meaning I'm in this position of leading, but I expect everybody else to lead with me. And while I may occupy the chair, I don't think that being in that chair means

anything special other than I'm tasked with bringing together everybody else so we can do this work.

By sharing her own anxiety, Sharon (Leader 7) opened the possibility of recognizing a collective experience of navigating transitions and the nuanced experience of pressure:

It got people talking about *transitions*, like when they had moved from one level into another level in their organization, and how they felt about it, how you know they were nervous and they felt a lot of pressure not to show that, that they were nervous and uncertain, because they wanted to succeed, and they wanted to show confidence right off the bat.

Additionally, John (Leader 5) shared how the stories he tells have become part of the memory of the organization. The stories are embedded in the collective experience to the extent that they are told and retold by others members: “But the stories are alive and well and *we've grown up with them* and you know so we all know them and we share them and so *they're very tribal in a sense.*”

Time and identity. In leaders' stories, time is explicitly tied to the concept of identity or is leveraged to establish an organization's origins or credibility in a relevant industry. Embedded within the present time frame are what might be called “I am” or “We are” statements. Here, the speaker in the story makes a statement of identity or being in an existential sense. In the following examples, each leader's use of time is centered in identity.

For example, Cassandra shared:

And we have students with a lot of high needs, so not just *first generation low-income students* like me, but we have a lot of formerly incarcerated students, we have students

who are alumni of foster care here, we have a lot of students who are parents, and we have students who have mental health and drug addiction issues.

John (Leader 5) described the past as the starting place of his organization: “I think there’s pride of knowing who we are, where we started from, what the core of our being as a company [is], our founder, [and] of where the lessons have come from.”

Alexander (Leader 3) told a story about racial discrimination on the part of a taxi driver who describes a certain group of people in a dehumanizing way to point his listeners toward the organization’s mission to dismantle discrimination through education: “So it’s the streets in London. And the taxi drivers’ like, ‘Look at these people, you know, they’re bombers, they’re terrorists, need to get them out of the country, f-ing Muslims,’ on and on and on.”

Meaning making in and of time. Leaders make meaning of actions, events, and experiences within the boundaries of particular time frames. They also make meaning of time-related events, purposefully considering, reflecting, or adding significance to their perceptions or experiences. For example, leaders reflect on lessons learned from particular moments or events and, in the process, the import or meaning of these moments dynamically changes, is amplified, or extended.

Learning in time. Personal and collective learning is embedded in leader words and phrases, reflected in the themes of historical context, learning within a space of time, learning from the past, reflecting on a larger event or trend, time as abstraction, and finality of the past. Leaders often provide a historical context for a current situation or challenge. For example, when asked about how time emerges in one of his stories to his team, Alex (Leader 3) shared that a time period connected to a specific place provides a setting or context for the narrative:

There's a time because, a couple things pop to mind. One is about the time of *London at a particular period*; it captures and describes a time of London. It talks to London probably between the 70s to 2005, something like that. It's a time period. It captures a period of life in that period.

In his other story, the same leader (Alex) alluded to the industrial revolution, giving his message an increased emotional charge: “And we know where that leads, because the last time we had a rise in populism was a result of the first industrial revolution, where people left farms, came to cities, mass unemployment, we had two world wars.”

Learning for these leaders also occurs within a space of time. Sharon (Leader 7) described her self-development: “It was really hard for me to do that, and so I think *something in the last 5 years has shifted for me about my view of myself*, that allowed me, and then not only my view of myself but my understanding of my relationships with people that let me ask people for support.” Learning also involves an intentional learning from the past. In David’s business (Leader 2), a recursive review of past data points is critical to being effective in the future:

We also look at statistical reports on a monthly basis and we get our reports the first day of the month, of what just happened last month, I'm not waiting 20 days, so I believe in real time information to be able to, a touchstone so *I can see what happened*, what we think's gonna happen so we can anticipate a couple months out or a year out, but it's the frequency of focus of set data appointments that keep the conversation alive.

Creating significance in time. Leader words and phrases also show attempts to create significance by emphasizing or reinforcing an idea, action or event with the use of adverbs such as *often, every day, always, and again*. In the English language, words that indicate repetition or frequency or even the absence of these potentially highlight actions to which we might pay

greater attention. Additionally, the following themes were coded within this category: marking a salient moment, legacy, repeated cycle of the ongoing present, and past nostalgic, and marking a salient moment in the present.

David (Leader 2) described moments when others experience surprise at his willingness to allow them to come up with their own solutions: “And *every once in a while*, I'll get someone that asks me a question and I'll say well I really don't know that answer. And they look in amazement, well why don't you know the answer, you're the CEO.”

Diana (Leader 6) marked a salient moment in her own career as well as the history of one of her past employers:

And I think I told stories there as a means of them trying to get to know who I was because I was the *first woman president* at this institution, I was the *first person of color*, and I was the *first person that they've hired that was not a native Minnesotan*. So I came in, and they didn't know who I was.

Moving the organization forward in time. Across all leaders, the future is a focal point. It represents a destination, a line of sight, and a time horizon. While the distance of the future may differ for each leader, the notion of foresight and imagination for potential reality is consistent. Leaders often spoke of desired future outcomes as drivers for actions they are taking in the present or actions they are prompting others in their organizations to adopt. They attend to the future for the purpose of imagining what is possible and then invite action to move the organization forward and improve upon efficiencies and effectiveness.

Attending to the future. The leader words and phrases were coded into the following themes: imagining or anticipating the future, helping the organization prepare for the future, warning about the future, planning ahead, a time to consider or be prospective, holding the long-

term in mind, and focusing on the future. Cassandra (Leader 1) shared, “I do tend to think there is stuff that I have to do on a daily basis but *really thinking out toward the horizon, always*, and where's the region going, where's our city going, and how are we gonna position the institution to be there in service to that new reality.”

David described his vision for helping the organization prepare for the future:

For me as a leader of the company and our leadership team, we talk about this, we're teaching generations, upcoming generations, *we're helping them move forward by a decade or two*, conscious of contribution in life and purpose in life by experientially doing and the conversation we have and experiencing the practicing of this on a day to day basis.

Inviting individuals and the organization to action. The invitation to adopt a new action was observed in leaders' stories about themselves, groups of individuals, and the organization as a whole. The content coded in this category included the following themes: call to action (collective), timeliness of action, meeting a deadline, effective use of time, cause and effect, need for change, and the absence of action. The range of themes suggests that the right action executed at the right time is critical. For example, Cassandra (Leader 1) often used the imperative tense to create a sense of urgency in taking collective action:

And so as a college *we really have got to figure out* how we can't afford trio-like services for all of our students...we've got to figure out how we can organize ourselves better to make it easier for students to navigate, and we also have got to raise more money for student scholarship and student support.

Diana (Leader 6) described her choice of timing for sharing a particular story: “And in the appropriate time, I will share that story about how I came about giving it to, not just an

individual, but a group of people who may not have given monetarily but who have given their heart and soul and their passion to something.”

Theory Building

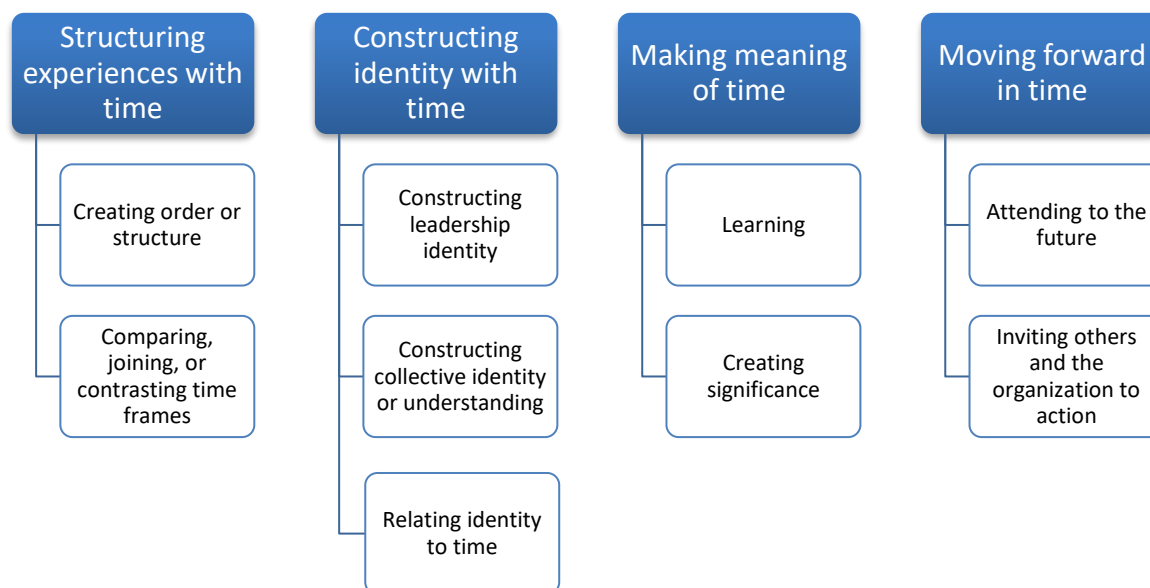
Once the process of coding was complete across all interviews of leaders and their employees, coders reflected on the overarching themes emerging from the data in their reflexive journals. These entries were discussed as a team and then reviewed by the principal investigator. At this point, I reviewed axial coding schemes at the descriptive and functional levels to build a conceptual model for a culminating theory of time and narrative leadership. This working model was then presented to the other coders for review and discussion. Together, we identified areas of overlap (instances where some themes fit more than one category), redundancies in themes (instances where one or two themes were naming the same phenomenon), and overall clarity of the working model. Decisions about deleting or locating certain themes in the best category of fit were made by consensus, at which time I further revised the model.

Based on the functional categories that emerged from the themes, the use of time in leader’s strategic narratives appears to influence the enactment of leadership in four primary ways. First, time is a resource or tool used to frame and structure events and experiences. Second, identity construction of self or group occurs in the present timeframe as the leader attempts to make sense of what happened (a past action) and leverages their own personal, embodied experience and/or the group’s experience to construct who they are or will become. Third, sensemaking is used as a retrospective activity that enables leaders to consider past experiences, learn from them, and add new dimensions of meaning. Fourth, sensemaking is interrelated with sensegiving, where the leader is looking forward to imagine a potential future for themselves and their organizations, pulling others in that direction.

Conceptual model. In summary, the four major aspects of time emerging from the data include structuring experiences with time (providing the landscape or boundaries of experience), constructing identity with time (developing the person or organization encountering the experience), making meaning in time (occurring in the present), and moving forward in time (pursuing what is desired and possible in the future). These major dimensions can be combined into a four-part model of temporality that serves as the basis for a theoretical model of leader storytelling and leadership enactment, which will be discussed in the next section. The following conceptual model summarizes the functional themes of time in leader stories.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model



The first part of the model, structuring experiences with time, points to temporal words and phrases functioning as markers. Ricoeur (1984) theorized that cosmic time, which is abstract and distant, is organized and personalized in concrete terms. As such, cosmic time becomes phenomenological. More specifically, Ricoeur (1984, p. 52) wrote, “time becomes human to the

extent that it is articulated through a narrative mode, and narrative achieves its full meaning when it becomes a condition of temporal existence.” In the stories told by leaders, experience is structured through temporal mechanics (e.g., words denoting sequence, order, or duration). In this way, time is both subject and object, because it is utilized to frame experience and also emerges as the subject of the experience itself.

The self is constructed narratively and is therefore bound in the elements of time, as reflected by the second emergent category in the model – identity construction. The leader leverages his or her personal experiences in the present time frame in order to influence the future. The self is the starting place of sensemaking, which Weick, Sutcliffe, and Obstfeld (2005) propose is grounded in identity construction. In other words, making sense of the experience of events and other people is not conducted in a vacuum but is, instead, always occurring within the identity of the one doing the sensemaking. This meaning making occurs across all four themes, but it is particularly active and salient for learning and attaching significance to specific time periods, time-bound events, or moments. As leaders tell their stories, they amplify or expound on certain aspects over others, thereby continuing to make or add meaning to what has occurred in the past.

As leaders make sense of what was and is, grounded in their own identity construction or that of the collective group, their reflections and behaviors culminate in sensegiving. In other words, they seek to move their listeners to adopt a new way of thinking or set of actions. For these leaders, the future may not be all there is, but the future is understood and approached as pliable. It can be created, bent, or shaped by human agency. In this way, the act of sensemaking moves to the background, as sensegiving moves to the foreground. These are not mutually exclusive. As noted before, they are reciprocal, often parallel processes. But once others are

prompted or invited to participate with action, sensegiving becomes dominant. In the next section, the theories of sensemaking and sensegiving will be further explored in a discussion of the culminating theoretical model of time in leader storytelling and strategic leadership.

Theoretical Model. The functional categories of time illustrated in the conceptual model indicate the impact of the time-related words and phrases in the context of the leaders' narratives. Structuring experiences with time, constructing identity in time, making meaning of time, and moving forward in time are the four broad categories. The central category of the model is that leaders move through a meaning-making process in telling personal stories about the past to drive future action. A theoretical model comprised of three primary stages was developed to explain how time emerges in leaders' strategic stories.

These primary stages include action, identity, and meaning. Based on the time-related words that were analyzed and coded, all three can reflect the past, present, or future and are therefore not fixed in a specific time frame. For example, the themes and categories comprising identity reflect events or experiences that have occurred in the past or may be occurring in the present. In fact, identity work demonstrated by leaders sharing their narratives and then reflecting on their meaning are doing so in the present. The same can be said of meaning, where leaders make sense of what has been in the here and now. The actions of telling the story, reflecting on it, and expanding the meaning of what happened are situated in the present exchange of the conversation between participant and interviewer. In this way, all other time frames are embedded in the present, for the reason that everything emerges in the present, which quickly becomes past. For the purposes of building a theoretical model in terms that sufficiently account for what emerges in the data as most salient, however, linkages to a specific time frame are offered.

As such, *action* is oriented to the future, *identity* is oriented to the past as well as the present (i.e., the leader's or organization's past as connected to the present), and *meaning* is oriented to the present. In the following figure, the elements of time-related nodes in strategic storytelling are depicted as a circular process, and there are several reasons for this. First, the process is not linear; narrators can move through them in various orders depending on context and situation. Second, the stages are reciprocal and sometimes embedded within each other. An individual could be engaged in reframing a past event in order to make sense of a present situation occurring in the organization. (In Cassandra's story about sexual harassment on college campuses, for example, the leader describes her past experience in a former job to provide insight into the challenges of the organizational context of her present position.)

Third, the model of time in leader storytelling reflects an eastern dialectic of harmonious tension. The principles of covariation and contradiction, which suggest that seemingly opposing arguments or factors can coexist or lead to a middle way (Peng & Nisbett, 1999), help facilitate an understanding of the model. The elements of collective action, identity, and meaning making are proposed not as isolated factors that require resolution or synthesis, which is characteristic of a traditionally western dialecticism. Instead, the concepts are covarying factors that interact to influence the outcomes of strategic storytelling (i.e., leaders as sensegivers who successfully drive and navigate change in their organizations).

Figure 2

Theoretical Model of Time in Leader Storytelling

Collective Action. Collective action is the leader’s invitation for listeners to take part and engage in ways that disrupt the status quo, such that a new reality is brought forth. This stage is oriented toward the future, as indicated by the preponderance of themes in the future-related categories. While action is typically the outcome of a story, it precedes identity and meaning because the leader who tells a strategic story imagines or predicts what should follow from hearing a particular narrative. Since the function of story is to prompt or influence future action, the leader often selects or crafts a narrative to suit the unique situation of the team or

organization. The telling of the story serves to inform, instruct, and ultimately give sense to listeners as to what is possible or plausible. As noted before, the process model is not necessarily linear. But *collective action* is described as the first stage because narrator intent to prompt or alter cognition, emotion, or action is key in strategic storytelling within organizational work.

Identity. Future action is grounded in personal experience, which is both past- and present-oriented. Across interviews, leaders shared personal, family, or organizational narratives of the past in several ways: to parallel the past and the present, to connect the past to the present for the sake of continuity, and to emphasize critical leader or organizational qualities in the present. All of the stories are grounded in the particularities of the individual or collective. In this way, identity serves as context for the meaning making that occurs and is constructed or expanded in the process. Further, this stage of identity in the process potentially lends credibility and authority to the storyteller, enabling listeners to better understand the leader and the presenting situation in the organization. As listeners have better access to the narrative, they may become more apt to adopt the future reality that is being proposed. In this way, the concept of identity grounds the future, serving as either a backdrop or preview for a reality that is not yet.

Meaning Making. Meaning making is oriented toward the present, relative to the past or the future. This stage represents the act of sensemaking about past events (distant or recent) experienced by the leader or members of a group. In the process of sensemaking, learning occurs for the leader or audience, and past events are reframed, reorganized, and thus expanded in meaning or significance in the present time. Within the stories themselves, leaders engage in their own sensemaking systems about what occurred. Again, the sensemaking occurs in a present stream, and this is the place where the present time frame tended to most frequently emerge in

the data. As leaders told their stories, they were making sense of events in the present time frame of telling the story and reflecting in having a conversation with me as the interviewer.

Comparison of Theories of Time, Narrative, Sensegiving, and Sensemaking

Up to this point, the exploration of leader storytelling has rendered a multi-faceted description of time in strategic narrative. Dimensions of time emerging from the data parallel and diverge from the time-related theories and concepts explored in the initial literature review. Specifically, four major frames were described: 1) cosmological-phenomenological time, 2) chronos-kairos-chaos, 3) monochronic-polychronic-cyclical time, and 4) near-distant-deep time. These frameworks were used as provisional guides for identifying initial concepts that might emerge during interviews. Data analysis suggests an expansion of previous theoretical frames. In the next section, I discuss how the data compares to and expands upon the theories and frameworks around time, narrative, sensegiving, and sensemaking. Specifically, I discuss how the data maps onto cosmic and phenomenological time; a Greek conceptualization of time; and near, distant, deep time.

Cosmic Versus Phenomenological Time. Ricoeur's (1984) framework of temporality suggests that cosmic time becomes phenomenological time, or that which is directly experienced. Across interviews, leaders' stories are bound in time in both explicit and implicit ways. When leaders are asked to retell narratives they have shared in the past with an organizational audience, they locate the stories in a particular time period or frame, sharing details of time that range from the mundane to the significant. These comprise the explicit patterns of temporality within leaders' stories. The implicit patterns are embedded and emerge when the storyteller is asked to consider how time shows up in the narrative, how it relates to the story, and how it connects to the leader. Some of the leaders were simply descriptive in their sense of time, and others

elaborated on their time orientations (e.g., a focus on the past, present, or future), describing a more global approach or relationship to time. Ricoeur's theory helps provide an overarching framework for how time is conceptualized and concretized in human terms. The temporal markers used by leaders across narratives indicate what is obvious—time is experienced phenomenologically through a language of time.

Chaos, Chronos, and Kairos. The Greek philosophy of time conceptualizes chronos as the chronological and linear tool with which randomness, or chaos, is ordered (Hamilton, 1942; Roberts, 2003). It is quantifiable. On the other hand, kairos refers to an opportune time for an event or action. Across leader interviews, the anticipation of the future, the right timing of an action, or using the right story at the right time are common themes. Additionally, the opportunity in the present time to invite a particular or desired future is salient. While chaos is not explicitly named by leaders, it is embedded in the approach that leaders often adopted for managing flux or challenge. Time management, the effective use of timelines, and the ability to focus on vital priorities are presenting themes that support the notion of individuals striving to put structure on disorder.

In summary, the concepts of chaos, chronos, and kairos emerge in leader narratives as disorder, order, and opportunity, respectively. Across leader narratives, time is a tangible force that impinges on or constrains human activity in organizational work. However, time is also pliable and potentially expansive, suggesting that leaders perceive their own agency over and within time. Here, the concept of kairos is especially resonant. As leaders seek to invoke a response or inspire an action in their listeners, they appeal to kairos, or the opportune time to do what is good, appropriate, or necessary. People have the ability to enact something that fits or even transcends the situation in a way that can yield positive outcomes. Time is not merely an

object that needs to be controlled or managed; instead, leaders invite participation from others or even of themselves with kairotic time, which is an invitational question.

Near, Distant, and Deep Time. In the interview data, a conceptualization of years into near, distant, and deep slices did emerge. Across all leaders, the presence of near and distant time (increments of 5 or 5-plus years, respectively) showed up, but deep time (76 years or more) emerged in only 3 of the 7 cases. As leaders further reflected in their storytelling, it became evident that longer-term thinking was also salient. While leaders framed their actions in the present to the near term, the long term horizon often contextualized their more immediate decisions. Two of the three leaders who alluded to deep time are executives or presidents in their family-owned businesses. The third leader who is not part of a multi-generational family business uses his knowledge of historical events as context for his stories and a backdrop for how history can repeat itself. In summary, the notion of deep time emerged in relation to multiple generations within a single organization or a sense of extended historic periods.

All together, Ricoeur's theory of time, the Greek notion of time, and the idea of near, distant, and deep time provide a general scaffolding and descriptive markers for understanding and measuring time. But these frames do not account for the processual aspects of being, development, and meaning in time that clearly emerge in the data. The stories told by leaders are strategic narratives with intent to move listeners to think, feel, or act in new ways. In this way, process theories of sensemaking and sensegiving are especially relevant.

Sensemaking. The interview data demonstrated multiple aspects of sensemaking. Sensemaking is grounded in identity construction (Weick et al., 2005), starting with the sensemaking subject. For this study, leaders are the sensemakers, and their narratives are discursive acts of communicating and constructing the self, evidenced by the category of identity

that emerged in the interview data. The process is also a retrospective one, whereby the leader looks back and attributes meaning to past events. Meaning making also evolves, as sensemaking is ongoing, such that what is made sense of once continues to be made sense of again and again; other aspects and new contexts will act as inputs to future meaning making of past events. Further, sensemaking is focused on and extracted by certain cues. In other words, the sensemaker chooses to elaborate on some but not all elements, rather than perceiving and reflecting comprehensively. In the study, leaders are prompted by the interview questions to tell their stories and then explain elements of intent and time.

Finally, sensemaking does not occur as an isolated event within the individual but rather as a social process where the context includes the sensemaker and others in their sphere. Here, the audience is central to the process, and leaders reflect on their cognizance of listeners as they choose what and how to share stories. An illustrious example of this awareness of audience as an influence on the process is the following excerpt from Alex's interview (Leader 3), in response to how time emerges in the narrative. He shares: "Um, I take a long time to tell the story. I told it to you in about 8 – 9 minutes. But it took longer, double that at least when I told the story. I remember that 'cause I wanted people to listen, to resonate, so I added more color." The storytelling at the time of the original narrative differs from the storytelling that occurs during the interview, and the qualitative aspects of sensemaking from one audience to another are dynamic and nuanced.

Sensegiving. In a strategic context for leaders, giving sense to others to provide direction for future action is key. Leaders strive to facilitate organizational action by providing cognitive schemas to frame listeners' thinking and decision-making. According to Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991), the four stages of strategic change include envisioning, signaling, re-visioning, and

energizing. These four phases can be understood as two couplets; the second set of couplets expands upon and continues the cognition started in the first set. Across leader stories in the study, all four phases do not necessarily emerge, in part because the interview guide focused on discrete stories rather than whole strategic events in which a series of sensemaking and sensegiving tend to occur.

For some leaders, envisioning and signaling are strongly present. For example, in the case of Sharon, a story about transitioning to a new position and the ambiguity it presents is shared. The leader's vulnerability in sharing the challenge of navigating new situations with greater position authority served as a catalyst for others to be more open about their own struggles. While the story does not facilitate organizational action per se, it did facilitate a conversation about career transitions among listeners, thereby serving as a signal for what may come. Explicit outcomes were not identified by the leader, suggesting continuing internal work in the minds of the individual listeners.

In other stories, envisioning/re-visioning and energizing emerge. For example, in the case of Cassandra, the leader's past experience at a prior organization is leveraged as a warning for what could emerge in the future of her current institution. Her narrative lit a fire under other leaders, increasing a collective sense of responsibility for taking swift action. Failure to take action serves as the energizing force. Whether the leader's understanding of the energizing idea or vision is crystallized at the time of the story is not clear, but what does emerge is a clear story outcome to which the story connects.

Alex (Leader 3) shared a framework for considering the predictability of the future based on similar events that have occurred in world history. "And the resulting, because of the time we're in, is potentially predictable, because we've seen this that...it's not like oh I wonder

what's gonna happen. It's kind of saying look when this happens and this happens, this happens, we know what comes next." In a different interview, Lydia (Leader 5) described the message that she wanted to deliver to her audience:

We have been talking over the past couple of days about these prototypes not necessarily all being winners and we have to embrace that some of these prototypes that we're creating will fail, and what will we learn from them, and how will we move forward with failure, and how will we accept failure and learn from it.

This message frames a learning-focused approach to prototypes to enable a more resilient navigation of future failures.

The sensegiving framework is also evident in the interview data where leaders use their own experience or knowledge of past events to provide plausible stories to their audience. For example, Cassandra (Leader 1) shared her experience of her past organization's failure to respond appropriately to a sexual harassment incident, thereby giving listeners in her current setting a possible future outcome to avoid. This type of story is potentially emotionally energizing and mobilizing.

Synthesis of Theory Analysis. After having reviewed the theories and frameworks surveyed in the initial literature review, sensemaking and sensegiving aspects most strongly emerge in the data. Leaders engage in retrospective sensemaking of past events or experiences for the purpose of giving sense to future action. While sensemaking and sensegiving can describe the processes taking place within the leader and between the leader and the listener, to a great extent they do account for the time-bound element of the experiential past and the potential future. Specifically, sensemaking includes an aspect of the past (retrospective meaning making), while sensegiving highlights an aspect of the future (shaping and informing future action). Both

of these processes occur in the present. For leaders, describing the texture of experience and shaping that experience for others is at play. The resulting analysis expands on the theories of sensemaking and sensegiving in several important ways.

New Themes Emerging from the Data. The core aspect of the data that is new or different from the reviewed theories is the centrality of leader storytelling about the personal past within the landscape of organized action. The reciprocal processes of sensemaking and sensegiving are at play and are embedded in the identity and cognition of the storyteller. The storytelling is always subjective, one in identity development and integration and the other in catalytic power. To be more specific, sensemaking is grounded in identity construction. A leader's capacity to make sense of what has occurred in the past yields two outcomes. First, the leader grounds the narrative in the self, asserting that the subjective "I" is a substantial presence with whom the listener is invited to engage. Second, the leader's personal experience provides a launching platform by which a narrative gives sense to the unknown future. The particularities of the leader's own experiences provide a working landscape that serve to reassure or prompt listeners to participate.

Personal Past. Personal storytelling can provide a concrete landscape for future action. The leveraging of personal experience appeared 27 times across leader narratives, collective experience appeared 19 times, and creating structures that help build shared mental models appeared 18 times. As the future can feel abstract and non-specific, the time elements anchor the narratives with historical or biographical detail, presenting a way to enter in or think about what is not yet. The element of time plays a key role in differentiating stories from the micro to the macro level. For example, Alex (Leader 3) highlights the importance of the "nanosecond," when

culture influences racial bias in the individual, along with the cyclical pattern of history repeating itself in rising populism around the globe.

Personal Storytelling as a Vehicle for Vulnerability. Personal storytelling is a medium for vulnerability and connection between leader and listener, as well as between the organization and listener. When leaders share their own life and work experiences with their listeners, leadership vulnerability, relatability, and trustworthiness potentially emerge. Employees emphasize a sense of connection to their leaders when personal examples are shared. Constructing leadership identity includes multiple themes around emphasizing or reinforcing a specific leadership quality. The most frequent leadership quality that emerged across leader interviews was authenticity (19 occasions), suggesting that leaders want to convey themselves as being truthful and transparent.

Personal Storytelling as a Way of Being and Future Acting. For the leaders themselves, storytelling is conducted in the present to make sense of what was. The sensemaking influences the sensegiving that ensues, always in service of entering or creating the future. The future is unknown, but leader and organizational members have agency over how that future is created, molded, or influenced. The descriptive act of telling a story about oneself or one's organization not only alludes to identity (who am I as a leader or who are we as an organization?) but also hints at future actions. Attending to the future requires an imagining or anticipation of the future (appeared 26 times), calling others to action (appeared 36 times), and emphasizing the timeliness of taking action (appeared 25 times).

Validating the Theory

The emergent theory was tested against listener interpretations. Did the listeners receive the stories in the ways that the leaders intended? What themes converge between leaders and

listeners, and what do listeners add to the stories they have heard? To answer these questions, a comparison of leader story intentions with listener perceptions will be discussed. Further, the extent to which listeners' understanding of the stories match the theoretical model will be reviewed so as to understand how the employees make sense of the stories in terms of action, identity, and meaning.

Comparison of Leader Story Intentions with Listener Perceptions. Investigating how listeners interpret these stories with respect to temporality enables a clearer understanding of leader sensegiving on follower sensemaking, particularly in the context of strategic change. In the second prong of the research process, employees were interviewed to better understand how the stories of their leaders influenced or resonated with them (see Appendix D: Interview Guide #2). Based on a comparison of leader and employee interviews, the following congruencies were observed:

Main themes. The main themes in coded leader stories corresponded to the salient themes identified by listeners. In some cases, listeners heard the main theme intended by the leader and also expanded beyond it to share additional themes. Themes held in common by leaders and listeners include: past experience is leveraged to structure institutional systems, past experience illustrates the why behind a proposed action, a personal story illustrates the importance of building personal relationships within the community, focusing on one's role and responsibility within a team adds to collaboration, and building a mission to mitigate populism through education.

Leader qualities. The demonstration of leader qualities emerged across interviews. Both leaders and listeners reflected on certain leader behaviors such as authenticity, empowering others, and timeliness. Leaders stressed qualities of authenticity, perception, investing in others,

timing, empowering others, intuition, and taking perspectives. Listeners emphasized that when leaders share personal stories, the leaders themselves become more humanized and vulnerable, and listeners are better able to make an emotional connection.

Parallel of past and present. Leaders tend to parallel their perception of the past and their own experiences in the past with present situations or challenges. Lisa (Employee 3) shared that the story resonated for her because it illustrates a continuity of past and present:

The first thing it makes me think of is the fact that, I mean I don't know this for certain, but my perception would be that the same way that [David] probably felt and saw his grandfather you know way back when he was 9 or 10; I have a suspicion that this is the same thing that would happen now if [David] was go to walk down the street or to walk through Bellevue. I would think that it's repeating itself.

Contrast between Leader Story Intentions and Listener Perceptions. Incongruencies between leader and listener reflections also emerged across interviews in two primary ways. For listeners, the leader as person is in the foreground, with strategy in the not-so-distant background. Also, listeners' understanding of time in the story is relative to their own conceptualizations of time, demonstrating that time is understood in nuanced ways.

Story outcomes. Leaders' stories were not explicitly tied to strategic initiative. Across the four listener interviews, story outcomes varied in response to the question, "How did the story affect you as a listener?"

For example, in her two stories, Cassandra shared that her past experience serves as a warning for future action or an illustration of how students can navigate the educational system. The listener indicated that as a result of hearing these same stories, she felt affirmed by the leader and developed a greater belief in the leader. David's story about his grandfather provided one

employee context, allowing him to understand David as a young, impressionable person who did not simply inherit a position of leadership but developed it over time. These outcomes differ from the leaders' own understanding. Leaders tend to focus on the message, while the listeners may hear this but focus on the bearer of the message. The person telling the story matters in ways that may not immediately come to mind for the leaders.

Time and story. When comparing the reflections of how time shows up in the story, leaders and their employees differed somewhat. In Cassandra's story (Leader 1), the leader indicated that the past serves as a warning for the future and that failure to take a particular course of action could prove potentially disastrous. In contrast, when the employee, Angela (Employee 1), reflected on the story, she emphasized the ability to see herself embedded in the leader's narrative:

Well to me as a listener, I mean the time element...encapsulates me, I mean so being a victim of sexual harassment and sexual assault, not having a Title 9 when I was in college, fast forwarding to now and having a daughter who's in college and [at] parent orientation saying, 'Well I'm gonna go to the Title 9' one, 'cause I gotta make sure that the person doing Title 9 really knows their stuff....So one encapsulates that scope of personal time, but it's also the examples of colleagues, the examples of friends throughout the years just around this one arena. So that's where time has tremendous relevance. We pull, and we can only make sure that it is in fact, the only way that we can convey—not the only way, I take that back—one of the ways that we can powerfully convey need. And advocacy is when we can connect it not only to ourselves, but we can make sure that others connect it to themselves no matter how they identify.

This example illustrates the leader's concern with the function of time—the past contextualizing a current organizational challenge and the possible, undesirable future driving the need for change. In the employee's perspective, a personal connection to the broader story holds greater resonance.

In the case of David's narratives (Leader 2), two employees (Peter and Lisa) were familiar with the story about the leader's grandfather having lunch with his grandson. Peter (Employee 2) reflected on the nostalgic quality of the story, pointing to this experience as a rare occurrence in current society.

The feeling of time for me is, there's a nostalgia to it I think. I think that the period is nostalgic. I think too a grandfather during his work day spending time with his grandson is nostalgic because I don't know how often that happens today. So I think there's something powerful, not just in the *Leave It to Beaver* or white picket fence you know black and white version of television if we were to have filmed this, but more importantly the decision that was made to greet your grandson at work and take the time to go have lunch with him. That unfortunately feels like that's a past. So it's very emotional. It's very poignant. I think it's very easy to lose that in the story. Oh [David] went to have lunch with his grandfather. Well, who makes the time to do that today? It'd be a massive event if someone came and had lunch with, I don't know, [Michael], a grandchild. It's a time that I don't know if it's forgotten or doesn't exist anymore, but it strikes me as not just because it happened back in the 50s. It just doesn't happen today, or very rarely, or in my perception.

Finally, in the case of Alex (Leader 3), his reflection of time in the story centers around history repeating itself. Additionally, he locates the story in a particular timeframe and highlights

aspects of storytelling. While Judith (Employee 4) reflected on the predictability of the future based on the past, she also identified how the sharing of the story at a particular point in time reflected the leader's comfort level with the team. In other words, she perceived the leader as being ready to divulge personal information in the story.

I think first to the point at which he decided to share that story was interesting and probably very intentional that again it wasn't, I feel as though he shared it with the team once there was...some level of trust, psychological safety, and to me that also...signaled that he...felt more comfortable with the team, more comfortable to divulge a little bit more of his private life and his family, and so that sort of signaled a shared something, I guess more personal to him. And that was again a couple months in I believe to him joining the team. As far as the time element within the story, let me think for a second, you know he usually does bring a lot of historical context to his stories and predictions about the future. This one really didn't have that as much. This one was much more a replay, a retelling of what actually happened.

In each of the three examples of time in the story, employee descriptions reflect a personalization of the narratives. More specifically, the strategic elements of the leaders' stories are context for what is revealed about the storyteller and/or listener.

In summary, comparison of leaders' reflections with those of their employees points to congruencies across story themes, leader qualities, and the parallel of the past and the present. Divergences also emerged across story outcomes and the element of time in the stories. These differences do not contradict what was told by the leaders; instead, they point to expansive ways in which the listeners heard and expounded upon the stories. Relative to the theoretical model that includes action, identity, and meaning, listeners' reflections confirm that these are indeed at

play. Listeners recognize and identify the intended outcome of the stories (what they should do as a result of hearing them), connect to the leaders' narratives of personal experience, and then make sense of these experiences relative to themselves.

Chapter V: Discussion

Analyzing the extent to which a temporal element factors into leader storytelling expands a nascent understanding of narrative leadership. The resulting theoretical model renders a descriptive and unifying framework of the data, yielding potential propositions for future research. In this section, I discuss the process used to reach the culminating theoretical model in light of key research findings and then explore implications, study limitations, and future research pathways.

Finalizing the Theoretical Model

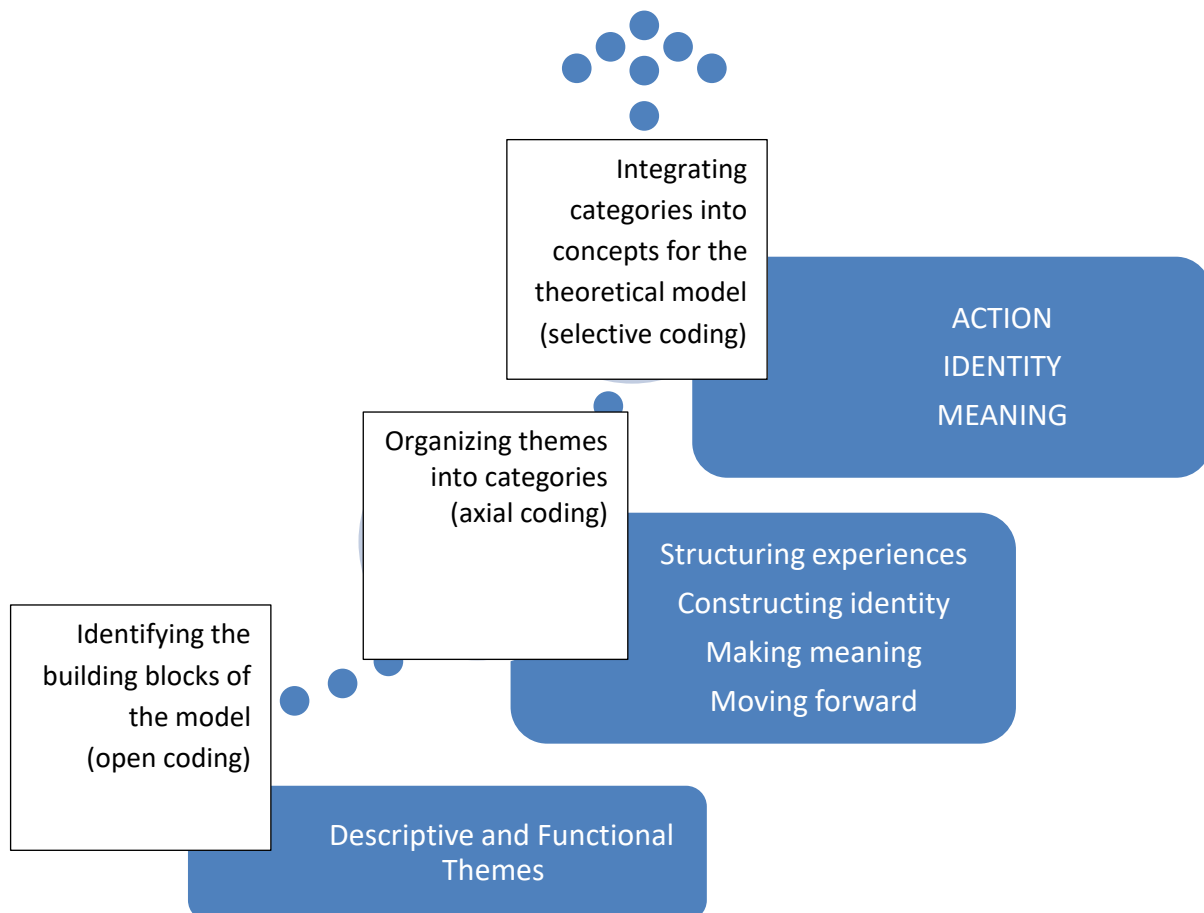
Two models of time in leader storytelling have been presented—an initial model representing the larger categories present in the data and a culminating model that highlights a core concept of the data. Whereas the initial model is descriptive, the culminating model is integrative, synthesizing the elements of the working model into a central idea (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The process by which we reached the final model was iterative and reflexive, starting with descriptive codes and then moving to functional codes. The coding team discussed the benefits and possible challenges of using both sets of codes as building blocks for the initial model. We made the decision to use the functional codes, which are derived from the descriptive themes, as these demonstrate how time dynamically drives the stories, beyond merely being present. Doing so enabled us to build a model that goes beyond the descriptive level, illuminating the role of time in leader storytelling.

Next, the initial model with four categories (structuring experiences with time, constructing identity with time, making meaning of time, and moving forward in time) represent the overarching themes of time that emerged in the data. The following figure visually

summarizes the movement from axial coding of descriptive and functional themes to the initial model and, finally, to the culminating theoretical model.

Figure 3

Building the Theoretical Model in Stages



Conceptualizing these categories into a core theme was achieved through a reflexive discussion among coders, a review of memos in the data analysis, and a review of reflexive journal entries. The overarching narrative that emerged from the initial model was the critical importance of the personal past of the leader or the leader's organization as a way of making meaning of current events and creating a more concrete picture of the future. This theme was present in the data and also resonated with all members of the coding team, evidenced in our conversation as well as the reflexive journals. Additionally, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) criteria for a robust central theory was applied to test the strengths of the culminating model (e.g., the concepts generated are systematically related and have conceptual density, the theory has some variation that are accounted for, and the process for developing the theory is explicated). One criterion demands that the theoretical findings are judged on significance (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). While the theory of this study does not necessarily elucidate new concepts of time in storytelling, it does provide a three-way interactive model that suggests how leaders may leverage time in their stories to produce desired outcomes in their organizations. The significance may, therefore, lie in its application.

Further, the model expands the sensegiving framework. Earlier, sensegiving was presented as the best theoretical framework to capture how leaders use stories strategically. According to Gioia and Chittipeddi's (1991) model of sensegiving, leaders move through reciprocal stages of making and giving sense (i.e., envisioning, signaling, re-visioning, and energizing). The study's model expands on this by contextualizing these stages within the relationship of time and story. Specifically, the person of the leader and the orientation or conceptualization of time influences the sensemaking and sensegiving that occurs. As strategic storytelling is animated by the goal to move listeners toward new action, the story itself is

grounded in the leader's personal experiences and ways of seeing the world. Envisioning a plausible story could depend on what the leader has gone through before and how that experience is brought to bear on the organization's present situation.

Time and sensegiving. The sensegiving model is also expanded on with our primary research question, *how does the use of time in narrative impact the enactment of leadership during a strategic change?* This question is multi-layered, as time is a nested concept, embedded in story and the individual leader. The construct of time is embedded in the story of the leader and emerges in several ways—the time of the event or experience that the leader describes, the time of the storytelling (along with aspects of the storytelling such as timing or the length of time in which the story is told), and the leader's global orientation to time (a relationship to time that permeates but also goes beyond the single story). Another layer of complexity is introduced by the presence of the audience, who emerges in the story as part of the narrator's understanding and perception. Further, the audience is both past, the original story listeners, and present, the interviewer who is prompting this particular recounting of the story for the research study. Teasing out the elements of time within story, nested within the individual leader, is complicated because time permeates language in both explicit and implicit ways. In this study, the exploration of time in leader narratives points to several key ideas.

Figure 4

Time as a Nested Concept

Time is a multi-dimensional construct within the story. What emerges in the analysis are both descriptive and functional aspects of temporality in leaders' stories. Time is not a pure element that can be extracted from all other elements present. Instead, time is interrelated with other dimensions or constructs, such as the context in which the story is told, organizational culture, personal worldview, and the broader societal culture. As leaders navigate their individual contexts, the stories they choose to tell and the ways in which they are told become dynamic.

Time impacts the enactment of leadership during a strategic change by contextualizing the situation with the particular experience of the individual leader who is telling the story. The abstractness of the unknown future, possible change, or strategic initiative is reframed or situated within the embodied experience of the leader. Interestingly, the landscape of the future—the shape of things that are not yet—is populated by the leader's own descriptions and perceptions. Both sensemaking and sensegiving occur, often simultaneously, in the leader's artful process into which the leader invites others to participate. At the center of the data is the leader juxtaposing

the breadth of the possible future with the depth of an individual experience. The process starts with a panoramic angle, which then narrows to a moment in time that illuminates something new or different about the landscape previously in sight. To describe it another way, the horizon is no longer simply out there and unreachable but brought closer and personalized. This process reflects a pull-push movement in which the leader seeks to engage the listener, draw them into the story, and then use that story to prompt them toward a new cognition, emotion, or action.

Leader's past and strategic storytelling. In light of previous theory and research, the study results indicate the critical importance of the leader's personal past in strategic storytelling. As leaders strive to provide a vision to organizational members for future action, they leverage personal experience as a way of making sense of what is occurring in the organization. That same experience provides a scaffolding or landscaping for potential action. It is suggested that future research continue to use the sensegiving theoretical framework. This is consistent with previous research in narrative suggesting that story has the potential to communicate complex ideas in memorable form (Snowden, 2001) and is especially useful for navigating ambiguous circumstances, evidenced in acts of sensemaking and sensegiving (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Weick, 2011). The narratives of the leaders in this study represent provisional stories that help others think in new cognitive patterns (Ibarra & Linebeck, 2005). Bartunek and Necochea's (2000) research indicates that as leaders perceive environmental needs, they use wisdom to apply kairos time, or the ability to do the right thing at the right moment. Certainly the idea that strategy is helped or hindered by the telling of certain stories (Fenton & Langley, 2011) emerges in the study data. Stories can range from the spontaneous and organic to more premeditated forms.

In the theoretical model of storytelling and time, action drives the leader's intentions. As leaders seek to communicate a message fit for a particular situation, they consider a desirable future outcome. In other words, the question of what the listener should do as a result of hearing the story is critical. The choice of story is driven by the answer to this question. The telling of a personal story reveals the leader's own sensemaking of events that have already occurred, creates a point of connection with the listener, and provides a landscape for future action. The strategic use of time as a tool emerged for one leader, who indicated that he condenses or expands stories in the length of time taken to tell them based on what he perceives his audience needs to hear. But for others, time can be an interwoven thread of the story.

Implications for Theory and Practice

As the model was developed from the data, the timeframes of past, present, and future emerged as expected. The roles that these timeframes typically play in a western culture also emerged in the data. New phenomena observed that are outside of existing theories and research have implications for future work in this area. Three elements of the stories are particularly noteworthy: the importance of the leader's personal past as a lever for organizational change, the present as a movable frontier, and the future as distant horizon that is powerfully imagined for the purpose of inviting people into meaningful action.

The past as a lever for organizational change. Current theory and research in sensemaking and sensegiving do not fully account for the pivotal role of the past in future acting. Across leader's stories, the personal past strongly emerged as the bridge between storyteller and listener. The personal past of the individual is a proxy for leadership experience, lending the leader greater credibility. Interestingly, it also invites vulnerability, or the opportunity for the leader to demonstrate transparency. Listeners have a window into the person of the leader.

Because the personal past is not merely a telling of a story about a past event but layered with properties of leadership credibility, vulnerability, and authenticity, it becomes a potentially powerful lever for change. What we noticed in employee reflections about their leaders' stories is that narratives of the personal past help define the leader's identity, clarify their mission or values, and engage others to participate in a shared vision or proposed set of actions. The personal is the thread that pulls the listener closer. In a reflexive entry, one of the researchers noted that leaders tended to use personal lived experiences in their strategic change stories. "These personal experiences can either act as a warning for change or emphasize the success of a past action that should be continued" (Chighizola, B., Reflexive Note).

The relative absence of the present. Within descriptive codes across leader interviews, the present category had fewer themes than either the future category (7 discrete themes) or past category (10 discrete themes). At first view, this is not surprising, considering that the present can be perceived to occur in a shorter stretch of time than the past or the future. What is present can quickly become the past or future, and sensemaking is a present act of cognition about the retrospective past. The momentary nature of the present, therefore, might define how some approach time. Another possibility is that those individuals with a present-focused time orientation may privilege the current context, paying less attention to the past and future.

What is apparent in the data is that the present holds less definition than the past or future, as demonstrated by the number of themes coded. The present acts as a moveable frontier. As a space of confluence, the past and future impinge upon it. The boundaries of the present are ambiguous, fluid, and shifting. As Frank (1939) suggests, the past and future are organized and reorganized in the present moment. People stress the future or the past in the present and talk little about the present (at least in the stories), but this does not mean the present is absent or

unimportant. In fact, stories are always told in the here and now. As such, the present time frame is an integral part of narrative, even though it may not show up in as many discrete words and themes relative to the past and the future.

The coding team reflected on the absence of the presence in our reflexive journals. One coder was curious if this could be a function of the way the study was framed in strategic change. Change could be construed as “a relationship or a dynamism between past/present/future that implies that the present is temporary.” Because strategic change was part of the interview script, the leaders could have been primed to frame their responses in the way that they did. Her characterization of the past, present, and future: “The sand ahead is the future and a constantly in-rushing wave is the past, and we tend to run right on the edge of that constantly in-rushing wave, hardly being in that moment before it’s behind us and under the water” (McCarragher, S., Reflexive Note.)

The luminous future. The leveraging of past personal experience is critical in landscaping the future, which is abstract, challenging, and unfamiliar. With the exception of the two Asian American leaders interviewed, Diana and Sharon, the future is clearly the outcome of interest, weighing on present actions and coloring the way the past is interpreted and re-experienced. The sense of anticipating what is to come or journeying toward an unknown destination creates a sense of constant forward movement, encouraging actions such as imagining or visualizing what could be. The transformation of what could be into what will be seems implicit.

Implications for the practice of strategic storytelling. Strategic storytelling can be highly personal, meaning that the events shared are connected to the speaker in direct or indirect ways. Across leader interviews, all of the stories that were shared were personal and leveraged

for greater understanding between leader and listener. While strategy was present, it was not in the foreground of the narrative. Instead, the leader's vulnerability and relatability emerged, both in the telling of the story and in listener responses. What this means for strategic storytelling could be a lot, but it could also be a little, given that the population sample included 7 leaders and 4 of their employees.

Several implications for the practice of telling stories to move others toward new thinking or action are offered with the acknowledgment that further study is needed. First, storytelling is both a pull and push strategy. Leaders who seek to build their communication skills with story would benefit from curating a repertoire of narratives that include narratives of events from their personal past. While care should be taken with regard to choosing a story for a particular time, place, and audience, leaders who can leverage their own experiences share themselves with their listeners in ways that might nurture a sense of transparency, relatability, and, ultimately, trust. When the connection between leader and listener is established with this thread of trust, story can be used as a push strategy, potentially catalyzing the listener to think, feel, or do in new ways.

Second, when using story, the leader ought to consider how tangibly the abstract future is described, or landscaped. Toward what is the leader pushing the listener and ultimately inviting the listener to participate? If the future outcome is disconnected from the leader, the listener, and too ambiguous in nature, then it remains uncertain. It is incumbent on the leader to help others begin to imagine what could be, and as a sensegiver, to use the personal past as a plausible future story.

Study Limitations

The goal in grounded theory research is to develop a trustworthy theory based on a sound inquiry process (Fassinger, 2005). However, there are some limitations. In the following section, several will be discussed.

First, the study included a relatively small number of participants compared to larger sample sizes used by other studies, which can narrow the variety of concepts rendered. I used the rule of theoretical saturation to determine at what point data collection would be concluded; however, I made a decision up front to interview a minimum of six leaders before assessing saturation. Additionally, the notion of theoretical saturation can be murky and inconsistently applied across qualitative research. Breckenridge and Jones (2009) emphasize that theoretical saturation is less about redundancy of rendered themes across data and more about reaching a thickness of conceptual description in the analysis. In this study, the extent to which concepts repeated themselves and were sufficiently rich was evaluated.

Second, the stories told by the leaders were all retrospective, rather than being captured in real time. (A video recording was available for only one of the 14 stories collected.) This makes it difficult to correlate story elements (narrative intent, time in the story, time and the leader) to outcomes. For example, it is impossible to conclude that specific elements of time are related to follower behaviors. The theoretical model is limited to explaining the enactment of leadership as perceived by the leader and, in some cases, validated by their listeners. The understanding of the enactment of leadership is also contextual, bound within the leader's own understanding of story, time, and strategy as well as the listener's perception of storytelling, including the leader's intended message and perceived outcomes.

Third, the research question itself and the interview framework influences what researchers will find and the process that will be used to seek meaningful answers. For example, the overarching research question informs the development of the interview questions. Leaders were asked to provide stories they shared with their team or department for the purpose of helping others understand a strategic change event or transition and their reflections on time. These stories, which make up the unit of analysis for the study, are really reflections of the stories that were told once upon a time and have thus changed and evolved as the leaders have come to think of the events in expanded ways. These reflections are told in conversation between leader and interviewer, thereby possibly shading the way the stories are told or the emphases given to particular aspects of the events being recalled.

Time and culture. The embeddedness of time in culture presents a complexity to this research. As noted earlier, time is a nested concept, and an individual's orientation to time is contextually influenced by factors including world view, culture, and environment. Time orientations can vary across cultures, should be considered as emphases or approaches rather than cognitive absolutes (Kluckhohn, 1950), and play a critical role in an individual's motivation, thinking, feeling, and action (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999).

One of the challenges of doing a study on the relationship between time and strategic narrative is the possibility that the results will be strictly descriptive of the leaders' cultural conceptualizations of time. A case in point is a challenge that the coder experienced during the coding process, where we wrestled to come up with an approach that would enable us to perceive time themes outside of our personal or shared norms. Because a western, linear approach to time was clearly present in the data, we could have easily adopted the language of linear monochronicity to inform the coding of themes. The challenge of moving toward a single

concept that unifies the various themes within their respective categories is to articulate the presenting preoccupations and patterns in the data without forcing them into familiar or grooved molds. As a team, we had to pause, check our assumptions, and review the data for its emerging themes. Across leaders, we found that time is described by the participants as relatively linear, monochronic, and future-focused. Had a non-western population been sampled, different and varying time frameworks would likely have emerged.

In the participant sample, Caucasian and African American leaders told more linear, plot-driven stories. In contrast, Asian leaders provided more contextual detail about the stories themselves, sharing their own reflexive learning in the process of telling the story or experiencing an event. Further, they enunciated personal development that could be leveraged for others or their organizations. The fluidity of the situation, the contextual nature of the stories, and a preoccupation with sharing the right kind of story also emerged. This was especially true of one set of stories told by a third Asian American leader; her case was not included as part of the interview data since she did not recount narratives told to others during a strategic change.

Future Research

Three pathways in future research are particularly promising. First, an exploration of how listeners are impacted by time-related sensegiving could be studied. The literature review offered several time frameworks. These and others could be tested on audiences to explore whether stories told using certain frameworks relate to differing outcomes. For example, would a story framed in *kairos* (i.e., the opportunity to act at the right moment) prompt a more positive emotional response than one framed in *chronos* (e.g., the need to use time efficiently)? Or would a narrative reflecting deep time versus near or distant time prompt individuals to slow down and reflect in the midst of action?

Next, increasing the mindfulness with which leaders consider their personal temporal frameworks or, to put it another way, their relationship to time might enhance their strategic storytelling. If narratives have the potential to connect storytellers and listeners while promoting action that leads to positive benefits for individuals and their organizations, one goal of future research could be to equip leaders to engage in more mindful storytelling practices, with an eye toward the element of time. For example, if action, identity, and meaning emerge as the three primary process dimensions, leaders can contemplate the action that should be adopted by listeners. Essentially, they are beginning with the end in mind but also reflexively adapting to varying temporal frames. The stories they select can be personal, and in the sharing of the story, sensemaking of the current situation faced by members of the organization occurs. Zimbardo and Boyd (1999, p. 1285) propose a balanced time perspective that is flexible depending on the situation:

The future focus gives people wings to soar to new heights of achievement, the past (positive) focus establishes their roots with tradition and grounds their sense of personal identity, and the present (hedonistic) focus nourishes their daily lives with the playfulness of youth and the joys of sensuality. People need all of them harmoniously operating to realize their human potential.

The theoretical model of this study reflects the important interplay of all three time frames (past, present, and future), and leaders' stories indicate movement across them. Perhaps stories are more robust as they enable the teller and the listener to encounter time in and across many levels.

Across all leader interviews, the question of time required clarification. Leaders would frequently ask what was meant by time, and they often showed curious surprise when asked to reflect on their own relationship to time. As the conversation about time continued, leaders'

reflections were clearly personal. As time in leader storytelling is further explored and the outcomes for certain dimensions better understood, coaching leaders to consider organizational work in varying time phases could be beneficial.

A deeper understanding of the intersection of time and story, which are both multi-dimensional constructs, is needed. Time is embedded in story, so to extrapolate time from narrative is in some ways a deconstructive act conducted for the sake of learning. But time as an integral piece of storytelling, beyond the mechanics and plotlines, requires a broader and more diverse set of stories. Future research should expand on all of the contextualized elements including the effects of culture on storytelling to identify similarities and differences (e.g., explore the use of stories by leaders who are Native American or Arab). Similarly, the impact of audience could be studied. For example, what happens when time orientations converge or clash, particularly in global organizations or cross-cultural situations? How can the leader adapt to the needs of the audience and remain authentic in sharing his or her own personal narratives? Further, leaders could adopt new timeframes as they practice telling stories. For example, what would it mean to tell a present- or past-focused story? In the western notion of linear and monochronic time, stories tend to have clear and recognizable plotlines. How would the stories change in polychronic time and multivocality? Perhaps these kinds of emphases would open up new ways of thinking about organizational work.

Finally, future research needs to further explore the relationship and interaction between the storyteller and the listener. In this study, interviews with leaders and listeners were conducted separately. Observing the effects of the story receiver on the storyteller could potentially point to ways in which narratives are adapted for a particular audience, how the timing of a story (e.g., length of time in which a story is told) matters for listener engagement, or how the dialogue

between teller and receiver demonstrate the interplay of sensemaking and sensegiving. The current research includes the critical role of the listener in storytelling and begins to explore threads of resonance between teller and receiver, but it does not account for the interaction in its situational context. More broadly speaking, the challenge of capturing story exchanges in real time applies to the study of any dynamic dimension within narrative.

Exploring the dynamic of the relationship between teller and receiver is important to the study of narrative leadership, particularly in relation to the concept of time. Within the story, time is conceptualized by the agents involved in the story exchange (both teller and receiver), which is embedded in their respective culture, context, and time perspective. Attending to the interaction both complicates the study of narrative and enriches it, adding layers to what is ultimately observed and analyzed. Story is neither unidirectional nor unidimensional, and the presence of interaction between teller and receiver emphasizes this point.

The research pathways offered here assume that storytelling can be learned. Certainly, there are masterful storytellers throughout history who have captured the imagination of many listeners, suggesting that some may be born with a greater capacity for storytelling (traits that facilitate one's storytelling ability). However, storytelling is a learned, social activity that, like the concept of time, is embedded in culture. The narrative process of action, identity, and meaning derived from the stories told by organizational leaders in this study highlights practices and behaviors that can be learned for the purpose of activating new thoughts and actions in others.

Conclusion

In this study, I have set out to explore the relationship between time and leader storytelling, particularly with reference to strategy and action. The dimension of time emerges

both in mechanics and functionality, as evidenced by the descriptive and functional themes coded across interviews. The theoretical model developed from these codes is a process of action, identity, and meaning. Specifically, leaders in strategic roles tell narratives that serve as drivers for future action. The intended outcome leaders desire helps direct the selection or crafting of narratives, which are inherently personal, allowing leaders to leverage past experience for increased relatability, authenticity, and credibility with their audience.

As leaders leverage their own experiences, they make meaning of what is currently happening inside the organization, compelling others to participate in ongoing sensemaking. In this way, leader storytelling embodies action, identity, and meaning. This model can facilitate storytelling leaders to be reflective in their own strategic practices for sharing personal stories that resonate with the present problem and invite *kairos*, the right action at the opportune time.

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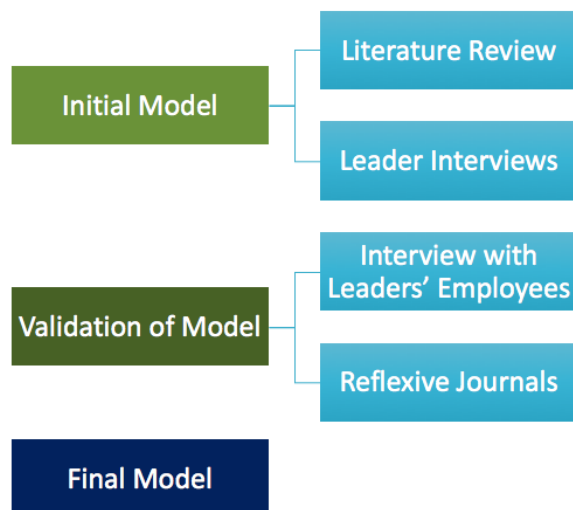
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Appendices

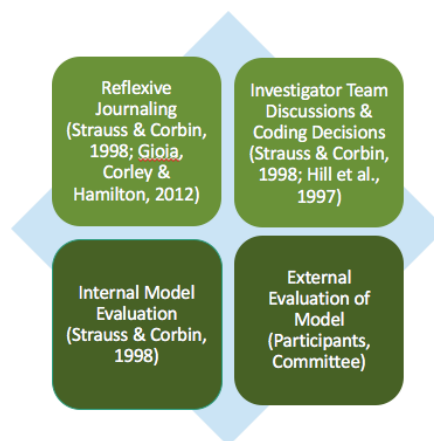
Appendix A: Narrative Leadership and Time – Process Model

Narrative Leadership and Time

Grounded Theory Process



Process Checks



Appendix B: Storytelling Interview Guide #1 (Leader Stories)

1. Tell me about a time when you shared a story with your team or department for the purpose of helping others understand a strategic change event or transition. As you tell me the story, I'd like to ask that you share it as if I was part of your original audience.

a. Before we begin, give me some context.

i. What was happening?

ii. Who was your audience?

b. Now, what was the story that you shared? Remember to tell me the story as if I was part of your original audience.

c. What happened as a result of your sharing the story?

[Potential further prompt: Why did you tell this particular story?]

2. As you think about the story, where does time show up? [When leader needs additional prompting, I can point to a word, phrase, or aspect of time that emerged in the narrative.]

a. How is this time aspect(s) relevant to your story?

b. How is the time aspect(s) relevant to your audience or to you as the storyteller/leader?

[If time permits, ask the leader to tell a second story.]

[At the conclusion of the interview, participant will be asked to provide demographic information.]

Demographics

Gender:

Age:

Race/Ethnicity:

Current job title and organization where you work:

Current number of people in your organization:

Years of management experience:

Job title at the time of the story:

Appendix C: Storytelling Interview Guide #2 (Leaders' Employees)

1. Your leader shared a story with me that he/she told others. I'll provide a brief summary of the story and will then ask you to respond to several questions.
 - a. Have you heard this story?
 - b. From your perspective, what is the message or theme of the story?
 - c. Why do you believe the leader shared it?
 - d. At the time you heard the story, how did it affect you as a listener?
2. Where does time show up in the story? [When interviewee needs additional prompting, I can point to a word, phrase, or aspect of time that emerged in the narrative.]
 - a. How is this time aspect(s) relevant to the story?
 - b. How is the time aspect(s) relevant to you as a listener of the story?

[If time permits, prompt for a second story. Tell me about another story the leader has shared with you, your team, or your department.]

[At the conclusion of the interview, participant will be asked to complete demographic information.]

Demographics

Gender:

Age:

Race/Ethnicity:

Current job title and organization where you work:

Job title at the time of the story:

Relationship to the leader who told the story:

Appendix D: Criteria for Evaluating the Empirical Grounding of a Study

(Strauss & Corbin, 1998, pp. 270-272)

Criterion 1: Are concepts generated?

Criterion 2: Are the concepts systematically related?

Criterion 3: Are there many conceptual linkages and are the categories well developed?

Do categories have conceptual density?

Criterion 4: Is variation built into the theory?

Criterion 5: Are the conditions under which variation can be found built into the study and explained?

Criterion 6: Has process been taken into account?

Criterion 7: Do the theoretical findings seem significant, and to what extent?

Criterion 8: Does the theory stand the test of time and become part of the discussions and ideas exchanged among relevant social and professional groups?

Appendix E: Participant Recruitment Email

To: [Potential Participant]

We are conducting a study to explore narrative leadership and the role of time. You will be invited to discuss two or three stories you have either told or heard in an organizational setting. We would like your help. To participate, you will take part in one or two 60 - 90 minute interview(s) focusing on stories and your reflections about them.

If you are interested in participating, read and sign the attached Informed Consent, and I will follow up to schedule a time to conduct the interview.

If you have any questions about the study, feel free to contact me directly or you can contact the principle researcher, Helen Chung at chungh5@spu.edu or by phone at 425-512-1269.

Best regards,

[Interviewer Name]

*This study has been reviewed and approved by the Seattle Pacific University Institutional Review Board (IRB #161702028, exp. 6/21/2018). If you have any questions about your rights as a participant you may contact the SPU IRB Chair Dr. Cara Wall-Scheffler at 206-281-2201 or irb@spu.edu