

Employee Authenticity's Influence on Engagement, Coworker Interactions, and
Perceived Effectiveness

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Approved July 2014 by the
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ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

August 2014

ABSTRACT

I develop and test theoretical hypotheses for how authenticity at work influences employees' motivational, relational, and effectiveness outcomes. These hypotheses are grounded in the idea that when individuals feel they display their true selves at work, they can more fully employ their physical, cognitive and emotional energies in their work roles, which in turn leads to higher levels of employee effectiveness (e.g., task performance, perceived value to the organization, and promotability). In addition to this personal motivational process, individuals who are more authentic also develop high-quality relationships with their coworkers, thereby receiving more instrumental support and minimizing the antagonistic encounters they have with their colleagues. Both types of coworker interactions should, in turn, also influence the focal individual's effectiveness at work. Finally, I hypothesize that the relationships between authenticity and these relational and effectiveness outcomes are moderated by certain personality traits, such that when an individual is highly narcissistic, has very low self-esteem, or has values or beliefs generally perceived to be negative, the relationships change: authenticity's positive influence on coworker instrumental support becomes less positive, and authenticity's negative influence on coworker incivility becomes less negative. These moderation effects are expected for employee effectiveness as well. The sample used to test these hypotheses consisted of 102 employees and their 16 supervisors from two private companies headquartered in the Southwest United States. Authenticity was found to be positively associated with employee engagement, coworker instrumental support, and employee effectiveness, and negatively associated with coworker incivility. Once other factors were controlled for, significant relationships remained with employee

engagement and coworker support. Contrary to expectations, neither engagement nor coworker interactions mediated the authenticity-employee effectiveness relationship. A dark side of authenticity was found for two of the three personality traits: self-esteem moderated the relationship between authenticity and coworker instrumental support, such that when self-esteem was low, the relationship between authenticity and coworker support was significantly weaker. Additionally, narcissism moderated the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness such that when narcissism was low, the relationship between authenticity and effectiveness was positive, but when narcissism was high, the relationship became negative.

DEDICATION

To my parents, who have taught me so much about the importance of
authenticity and kindness

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I want to thank my advisor, Jeff LePine, for supporting me as I developed my own research identity, and always challenging me to ask interesting research questions. His advice, collaboration, and genuine encouragement have been invaluable throughout these past five years. I am also grateful to Suzanne Peterson for her willingness to help me in any way she could, particularly when it came to developing relationships with organizations and pushing me to think through the practical implications of my work. Third, I thank Zhen Zhang, who, regardless of where he was in the world, provided valuable insight and timely feedback to every draft of this manuscript. I am extremely fortunate to have a committee of such thoughtful, attentive, and skilled academics. I am also beyond grateful to my academic family of fellow PhD students, which already spans well beyond Florida and Arizona. To those ahead of me, thank you for being such fantastic role models for how to make it through these crazy five years with grace and persistence. To my cohort-mates and those with a few years to go, thank you for your friendship, unwavering support, and shared wisdom and advice. Having colleagues like you is one of the best perks of this job. Finally, I thank my non-academic family and friends, the ones that always knew I could do it, even though they didn't really know what "it" was. Every form of encouragement sent my way helped inch me closer to the finish line. I couldn't have done *this* without you all!

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

*Be who you are and say what you feel because those who mind
don't matter and those who matter don't mind ~ Anonymous*

Being authentic, or knowing oneself and acting in a way that is consistent with those internal thoughts, feelings, beliefs and values, is considered by many scholars to be the only way one can achieve true self-fulfillment (Guignon, 2004; Harter, 2002). Psychologists view the internal drive or desire to be authentic as a basic psychological need that motivates individuals to maintain, enhance, and display their true selves (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Erickson, 1995; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1951). Given this perspective, much of the authenticity research conducted to date has focused on its benefits, specifically its positive associations with both subjective and psychological well-being (e.g., Roberts, Cha, Hewlin, & Settles, 2009; Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliouisis, & Joseph, 2008). More recently, the benefits of being authentic *at work* has begun to receive attention from management scholars, with research finding that authenticity positively associates with job attitudes, job performance, customer satisfaction, and retention, as well as reduces levels of depression, exhaustion and anxiety (e.g., Cable, Gino, & Staats, 2013; Grandey, Foo, Groth, & Goodwin, 2012; Hannah, Walumbwa, & Fry, 2011; Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, & Sels, in press). These findings support the more general perspective embraced by the positive organizational scholarship movement (e.g., Cameron, Dutton, Quinn & Wrzesniewski, 2003), that authenticity – considered to be one of the primary characteristics of positive identities (Kreiner & Sheep, 2009; Sheldon, 2004) – should be

encouraged at work as a means of enhancing the organizational experience for all employees.

However, the actual impact of promoting and encouraging authenticity in the workplace has yet to be fully explored. Being your true authentic self at work, with little or no concern for how such actions impact others (as conveyed in the quote at the beginning of this chapter), may be highly problematic in certain work settings (Leary & Allen, 2011; Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2013). Although scholars have alluded to the fact that being authentic involves costs, particularly when doing so conflicts with normative demands, social obligations, or others' values and beliefs (Ashforth, 2009; Guignon, 2004; Roberts, et al., 2009), an explicit examination of what these costs are, the circumstances under which these costs arise, and how they affect the full spectrum of work-relevant outcomes has yet to be conducted.

Furthermore, the benefits of authenticity studied to date have been almost exclusively personal in nature (e.g., enhanced subjective well-being, Wood et al., 2008). We know much less about the social implications of being authentic - that is, how it influences the interactions and relationships one develops and maintains at work. Admittedly, scholars have begun to consider how authenticity influences the leader-follower relationship (e.g. Hannah et al., 2011; Leroy et al., in press) as well as interactions between client service employees and customers (e.g., Grandey et al., 2012; Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2013), but there is little empirical research that considers how authenticity impacts the lateral interactions or relationships one has with their coworkers. This is particularly surprising given the fact that over 90% of workers are likely to interact with others on a daily basis for both task and social

reasons (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). As such, in this dissertation, I aim to fill this gap in knowledge by developing and testing hypotheses that consider how being authentic at work can influence one's interactions with coworkers, and how these interactions transmit the influence of authenticity to more distal outcomes indicative of employee effectiveness. Furthermore, I suggest that for individuals with certain negative or socially undesirable traits, being authentic may not have the same positive influence on the quality, type, and frequency of coworker interactions they experience, as well as their supervisor's perception of their own effectiveness. This dissertation is a first step in determining whether being authentic is costly for some people, both in terms of the types of interactions they have with coworkers, as well as their effectiveness on the job. Specifically, I attempt to achieve the following three purposes.

First, in contributing to the more established line of research regarding the personal motivational benefits of authenticity (e.g., Ryan & Deci, 2000), I test one of the central tenants in Kahn's (1990, 1992) theory of personal engagement, defined as the degree to which persons express and employ their full personal selves in their work roles. The immediate antecedent to this behavioral investment of one's energies is an experiential state of psychological presence, which Kahn (1992) describes as being "fully there", where one's own thoughts, feelings and beliefs are completely accessible for role performance. As part of this theory, he suggests that "the more people draw on their personal selves to perform their [work] roles within those boundaries, the more stirring are their performances" (1990, p. 692). I posit that my conceptualization of authenticity is a key indicator of psychological presence; and although these relationships have been given a significant amount of theoretical attention, the process through which authenticity

influences employee effectiveness by way of employee engagement, has yet to be directly examined. This is an important contribution given the increased attention the concept of employee engagement has received from academics and practitioners alike (Crawford, Rich, Buckman & Bergeron, 2013). Additionally, by accounting for this personally-focused, motivational process, I can more effectively investigate a second relational process, driven by the social implications of being authentic at work.

The second key contribution of my dissertation is increase the scope of authenticity's outcomes studied to date. I specifically aim to develop an understanding of how authenticity influences the interactions one has with their coworkers, as this is one of its often touted benefits that has yet to receive significant empirical attention (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Kahn, 1992; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). In order to unpack this relationship, I will apply arguments from self-verification theory and identity confirmation (Milton, 2009; Milton & Westphal, 2005; Swann, 1983, 1990, 2012) to suggest that being authentic at work enhances the support and reduces the antagonism that one receives from their colleagues. In general, individuals who are able to be their true, authentic selves at work are more likely to have their authentic identity verified and valued by their coworkers. As a result, individuals feel positively about and attracted to colleagues who are able to see and accept them for who they really are, and are more inclined to develop relationships of trust and intimacy. These high quality relationships lead to increased sharing of information, more received helping, and reduced levels antagonism and general incivility (Gouldner, 1960; Isen & Baron, 1991; Milton & Westphal, 2005; Nemeth, 1972). Both

types of coworker interactions are also expected to transmit authenticity's influence on employee effectiveness (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008).

The third contribution of this dissertation is to consider circumstances under which being authentic at work could be costly for an individual, by damaging the positive interactions they have with their coworkers, increasing the frequency and magnitude of negative coworker encounters, and in turn, hurting their own work effectiveness. I develop theory to suggest that displaying one's true colors could be particularly costly when those true colors aren't appealing to the colleagues one must rely on for help in accomplishing job responsibilities. This is true for traits that indicate an individual has an overly inflated sense of self (e.g., narcissistic), holds inappropriately low or negative self-views (e.g., low self-esteem), or is likely to be difficult or incompatible in a highly interdependent and cooperative work environment (e.g., has a strong social dominance orientation). For individuals with these socially undesirable traits, it is important to recognize that the current cultural trends encouraging everyone to be their "true selves" (see quote above), do not necessarily intend to provide blanket permission for everyone to behave in any manner that "feels natural". Instead, the intention of this dissertation is to test the notion that not all authentic self-expression is treated equally; and for some individuals in particular, it can be quite costly in the workplace. Figure 1 provides a summary of the hypotheses developed in the following chapters.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a growing consensus in the literature that being authentic is important for healthy human functioning in all aspects of our lives (van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). The concept of authenticity can be traced back to ancient Greek philosophy (Guignon, 2004) and more recently to counseling psychology (e.g., Harter, 2002). The positive-psychology movement has recently reignited an interest in better understanding the beneficial outcomes of authentic self-behavior in general, everyday contexts (Linley, Joseph, Harrington & Wood, 2006; Roberts et al., 2009). At the most basic level, authenticity can be thought of as the degree to which a person's external presence (e.g., primarily their words and actions) mirrors their inner thoughts and feelings. Although both academics and laymen agree with this definition, there has been a significant amount of confusion and disagreement with regards to how authenticity should be conceptualized and measured in scholarly research (Harter, 2002). Thanks in part to positive psychology's renewed interest in the concept, scholars have begun the necessary theoretical and empirical work of clarifying how the construct of authenticity should be conceptualized and measured (Roberts et al., 2009). In the following section, I review the dominant perspectives present in the literature, and provide justification for the conceptualization that will be used for this dissertation. Then, I will review the current state of the literature, with particular attention focused on what we know regarding the outcomes of authenticity, as well as the processes through which authenticity influences these outcomes.

Dominant Perspectives on Authenticity

The vast majority of scholarly research on authenticity finds its roots in counseling psychology and Rogers' (1963) concept of the "fully functioning person," a term meant to describe a person reaching their full potential. He suggested that a fully functioning individual is completely aware and non-defensive about their true internal experiences. As a result of reaching this level of functionality, this type of individual can do whatever "feels right" in the moment, trusting and utilizing their internal thoughts and feelings as a reliable guide for behaving and reacting to others (Rogers, 1963). It is important to note that Rogers developed this concept as part of a psychotherapy framework. Thus, such a fully functioning person is the final product of a successful therapy program, conducted over an extensive period of time with a (hopefully) well-trained therapist. Given this historical background, it is of little surprise that authenticity scholars have focused almost exclusively on the positive, beneficial outcomes gained from reaching this state of full functionality. In fact, there are two theory-based conceptualizations and measures of authenticity grounded in Rogers' work, which have been applied in the study of authenticity to date (Kernis & Goldman 2006; Wood, et al., 2008). I describe each below.

Kernis and Goldman (2006) defined their concept of authenticity as "the unobstructed operation of one's true or core self in one's daily enterprise." They were heavily influenced by Rogers as described above, as well as self-determination theory, with an emphasis on an autonomous, self-driven way of living (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In order to study the benefits of authenticity, they developed a multidimensional construct with four distinct, yet related, components: self-awareness, unbiased processing,

behavioral authenticity, and relational orientation, which they describe in detail in Kernis and Goldman (2006). The self-awareness component refers to an individual's ability to understand or interpret how one is feeling internally. Their theory specifies that one must have this sense of awareness as a prerequisite to determining if one is being true to that self. The second component, unbiased processing, is the ability to accurately accept both positive and negative feedback about oneself. The third behavioral component measures the degree to which an individual feels they are acting in a way that is consistent with their internal values and ideas. Finally, the fourth component, relational orientation, attempts to identify the degree to which an individual is able to develop open, honest, and trusting personal relationships. Kernis and Goldman (2006) operationalized this multidimensional conceptualization of authenticity with a 45-item scale called the Authenticity Inventory (AI-3). Twelve items measure self-awareness (e.g. "For better or for worse I am aware of who I truly am"), ten items measure unbiased processing (e.g., "I am very uncomfortable objectively considering my limitations and shortcomings"), eleven items measure the behavioral sub-dimension (e.g., "I've often used my silence or head-nodding to convey agreement with someone else's statement or position even though I really disagree"), and twelve items measure relational orientation (e.g., "It is important for me to understand the needs and desires of people who are close to me"). Although this is likely the most well-known measure of authenticity, much of the research conducted with this scale remains unpublished in peer-reviewed journals (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Recently, White (2011), submitted data from 576 undergraduate students to an exploratory factor analysis in an attempt to replicate and support the structure theorized and reported by Kernis and Goldman (2006). The analyses did not

indicate a clear number of factors. Furthermore, the four-factor solution only accounted for 34% of the total variance and included significant cross-loadings, unclear factors, and nine items failed to load onto any factor. White concluded that these results “call into question what the scale is actually measuring. There was little replication of the factor structure obtained previously by Kernis and Goldman (2006). Clearly, the measure did not assess the same dimensions in a similar manner in this sample” (2011, p. 46). I discuss these shortcomings further when comparing this conceptualization to the one that will be utilized in this dissertation in the sections that follow.

More recently, Wood and colleagues (2008) developed and validated a new measure of authenticity also influenced by Rogers’ (1963) work. This particular measure emerged from person-centered counseling psychology (Wood et al., 2008; Wyatt, 2001), with its conceptualization based explicitly in Barrett-Lennard’s work that suggests a three factor construct involving “consistency between (a) a person’s primary experience, (b) their symbolized awareness, and (c) their outward behavior and communication” (1998, p. 82). Wood and colleagues (2008) described the first dimension, self-alienation, as a sense of feeling disconnected from one’s true self, which occurs when there is a significant discrepancy between the actual emotions one is feeling and their awareness of those emotions (e.g., “I don’t know how I really feel inside”). The second dimension, authentic living, captures the extent to which people’s outwardly expressed words and behavior match their internal cognitions, emotions, beliefs, and values (e.g., “I live in accordance with my values and beliefs”). The third factor, accepting external influence, measures the extent to which individuals are guided by and conform to the influence of others (e.g., “I always feel I need to do what others expect me to do”). White (2011) also

submitted this 12-item scale (4 items per dimension) to an exploratory factor analysis and found strong empirical support for the measure. A three-factor solution was suggested across numerous analyses and accounted for 66% of the total variance. All items loaded onto their appropriate factor, and there were no significant cross-loadings. van den Bosch and Taris (2014) recently developed and validated a modified version of this scale intended to explicitly measure authenticity in the work context (the Individual Authenticity Measure at Work, IAM WORK scale). Although this measure's factor structure has received empirical support, I believe its multi-dimensional conceptualization is also problematic for studying authenticity in the workplace. These issues are discussed further in the following section.

Authenticity Defined

With authenticity's strong historical grounding in the counseling psychology literature, a number of implicit assumptions are built into the above conceptualizations that don't necessarily align with how authenticity is thought of in the context of typical, everyday experiences and interpersonal interactions (Guignon, 2004; Liedtka, 2008). Organizational scholars have recognized this and as a result, have introduced a narrower definition and measure of authenticity that more closely aligns with how the concept is conceptualized outside of counseling psychology. For this dissertation, I will utilize Roberts and colleagues' definition of authenticity: "the subjective experience of alignment between one's internal experiences and external expressions" (2009, p. 151). They specify internal experiences to include thoughts and beliefs, emotions and feelings, strongly held values, and more general preferences, whereas external expressions can be spoken words, audible sounds, nonverbal behaviors (e.g., nodding your head, smiling

warmly, furrowing your brow, turning your back, slamming a door), and other outward expressions of one's self (e.g., clothing, accessories, tattoos, picture frames on your desk, etc.) (Harter, 2002; Roberts, 2007; Roberts et al., 2009). When compared to the previously discussed conceptualizations, this definition of authenticity closely aligns with one dimension in each measure. It shares the same conceptual space as the *behavioral component* of Kernis and Goldman's (2006) measure, as well as the *authentic living* dimension of the Wood et al. (2008) conceptualization. It is also more in line with how we more generally speak about the authenticity in today's "self-help" obsessed society (Guignon, 2004), as well as how other management scholars have recently begun to measure it in organizational contexts (e.g., "In this job, I feel authentic" and "In this job, I don't feel I need to hide who I really am") (Bettencourt & Sheldon, 2001; Cable et al., 2013; Kifer, Heller, Perunovic & Galinsky, 2013; Sheldon et al., 1997).

Roberts and colleagues (2009) also provide three core assumptions as part of this more narrow definition. First, this conceptualization takes the perspective that people, in general, are capable of determining the degree to which their internal thoughts, feelings, and beliefs align with their external words and behaviors (Erickson, 1995). When you ask someone if they feel authentic at work, they determine their answer by reflecting on their internal thoughts and feelings and comparing those to how they have acted and spoken outwardly. As a result of this internal affective-cognitive process, they develop an overall feeling regarding the degree to which they have genuinely expressed their internal experiences (Liedtka, 2008; Roberts et al., 2009). There are a few important implications to this assumption. First, because it is assumed that individuals, in general, conduct this internal process of reflection in order to respond regarding how authentic or inauthentic

they feel, this degree of awareness could more appropriately be conceptualized as an antecedent to authenticity, rather than as part of its own content. This stands in contrast to the other two conceptualizations of authenticity described above, which both integrate this process of self-knowing into the actual measure itself (e.g. *self-awareness*, Kernis & Goldman, 2006; *self-alienation*, Wood et al., 2008). Additionally, by adopting the perspective that authenticity is the result of an internal affective-cognitive process of the focal individual, Roberts and colleagues (2009) align with Erickson (1995) in suggesting that the most appropriate means of capturing this concept is a self-report assessment. Although this is undoubtedly true for understanding relationships between authenticity and its personal benefits such as psychological and subjective well-being, other informants' perceptions of one's authenticity may also be important when considering the full spectrum of its social implications (Long, 2013). In this dissertation, I have specifically chosen to focus on an individual's own feelings of authenticity at work, and whether self-reported authenticity can be damaging or costly for certain individuals.

The second assumption of the definition adopted herein states that authenticity is an internal state as opposed to the trait-based conceptualizations described above. This assumption allows for the idea that authenticity can be influenced by contextual factors such as job demands, leadership, workplace culture, and social norms (van den Bosch & Taris, 2014; Roberts et al., 2009). A growing body of empirical evidence supports the notion that these types of contextual factors play important roles in influencing the degree to which a person feels authentic at work (Cable et al., 2013; Grandey et al., 2012; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). Interestingly, Wood and colleagues (2008) included an *accepting of external influences* dimension in their conceptualization of authenticity.

When considered in light of the more narrow definition applied herein, this dimension is better positioned as a moderator of the relationship between the contextual factors noted above and authenticity. Thus, the narrower, one-dimensional conceptualization of authenticity utilized here allows for a more nuanced examination of the relationships among many of these related, but conceptually distinct constructs.

This state-based conceptualization also allows for the notion that people vary in terms of their authenticity on a day-to-day, or even moment-to-moment basis. Nonetheless, more consistent or prolonged between-person variance is also expected. Certain types of individuals will tend to be more authentic (e.g., low self-monitors) or less authentic (e.g., Machiavellians) depending on their natural inclinations to openly express what they are thinking and feeling, though there is little empirical evidence to support that all high self-monitors or Machiavellians would report that they feel inauthentic when asked (Leary & Allen, 2011). In addition to personality, work contexts will also create more persistent generalized feelings of authenticity. In an organizational setting, cultural norms, job tasks, and consistent day-to-day expectations will lead individuals to develop a set of routines. The types of tasks one is asked to do become repetitive and predictable. An informative or helpful colleague becomes a standard go-to for assistance. Even the lunch break becomes a daily ritual of “same time, same place” with the same colleagues. Thus, although an individual’s authenticity at work will ebb and flow based on a variety of factors, these more consistent interactions and day-to-day routines will result in a general, persistent feeling of authenticity at work (van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). It is this more enduring feeling of authenticity that I also have chosen to focus on in this dissertation.

The third and final assumption set forth by Roberts and colleagues (2009) is that the content of one's authentic self is undetermined. This means that no moral component or positive valences are assigned to the specific character, virtues or skills that represent the "authentic self" (e.g., Ashforth, 2009; Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Sheldon, 2004; Sparrowe, 2005). Again, this is a departure from Kernis and Goldman's (2006) conceptualization, which assumes that high levels of authenticity indicate a well-adjusted, fully functioning individual. In fact, two of the four dimensions in AI-3 scale explicitly integrate this notion of well-adjustment and positivity. The *unbiased processing* dimension suggests that in order to be truly authentic one has to be open and accepting of critical feedback, whereas the *relational orientation* dimension captures the degree to which individuals develop open, honest, and trusting relationships. Once the assumption that authenticity is a good or moral aspect of one's self is removed, these two dimensions no longer seem to necessarily belong in the construct's conceptual space. Thus, by adopting Roberts and colleagues' (2009) more narrow definition, one's authentic self can be "abusive, unethical, willfully ignorant or otherwise destructive" (Ashforth, 2009, p. 184). This position is critically important given the specific research question being asked in this dissertation: are there certain types of individuals for whom being authentic is potentially costly? With authenticity's definition and core assumptions now established, I next move on to describe the current state of the literature.

State of the Literature

Two streams of research provide helpful insight for what we currently know about both the costs and benefits of authenticity. First, a fairly new but growing stream of work focuses primarily on examining the benefits of authenticity. As noted earlier, the majority

of this research (primarily using the counseling psychology conceptualizations of authenticity) has found significant positive correlations between authenticity and various indicators of both subjective and psychological well-being. For example, Sheldon and colleagues (1997) examined levels of authenticity experienced by study participants across various life roles (e.g. student, friend, romantic partner), and found negative correlations between felt authenticity and anxiety, depression, perceived stress, and symptomatology. Taking this stream of work one step further, Bettencourt and Sheldon (2001), in a collection of 5 studies, concluded that authentically expressing one's self within a group context was positively related to various measures of subjective well-being including positive mood, life satisfaction, felt meaning of life, and group connectedness. Similarly, Wood et al.'s (2008) collection of validation studies revealed that higher levels of trait authenticity were positively correlated with well-being indicators such as life satisfaction, positive affect, self-esteem, autonomy, and happiness. These findings were replicated more recently by Kifer and colleagues (2013), who found generalized authenticity predicted overall life satisfaction.

Most recently, scholars have extended this stream of research to consider outcomes of authenticity in the work context (e.g., van den Bosch & Taris, 2014), as well as in relation to leadership (e.g., Leroy et al., in press; Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010) and teams (e.g., Hannah et al., 2011). As part of their study used to validate the IAM WORK measure, Van den Bosch and Taris (2014) found authenticity at work to be negatively correlated with job demands, negative affect and stress, and positively correlated to autonomy, job satisfaction, work engagement, and in-role performance. Similarly, Kifer and colleagues (2013) also found work role authenticity to positively influence job

satisfaction. And finally, Cable and colleagues (2013) found authentic self-expression to be positively related to socialization tactics that emphasized personal (as opposed to organizational) identities, work engagement, job satisfaction, job performance, and retention. Given the historical underpinnings of the authenticity construct, it is of little surprise that authenticity is looked at in a very positive light. However, any conclusions gleaned from this stream of research are tentative at best given that it is mostly correlational in nature. In total, these studies lack any strong evidence of causality, and have yet to identify or examine the mechanisms through which authenticity influences these personal positive outcomes.

A second, more established stream of research has been built around examining the costs of feeling or behaving inauthentically at work. The general idea of behaving in a way that was inconsistent with how you really feel was originally termed “emotional labor” by Hochschild (1983). Authenticity, as defined herein, most closely aligns with the narrower concept of surface-acting emotional regulation, or suppressing, amplifying, or faking the required or expected emotions at work, typically in a service industry encounter (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011). Recently, two meta-analyses summarized over 30 years of work that have investigated the impact that surface-acting has on employees. In general, both sets of analyses found surface-acting to be positively related to numerous indicators of employee ill-being (e.g., emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, psychological strain, and psychosomatic complaints) and negatively related to positive employee attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational attachment) as well as performance-related consequences (e.g., task performance, emotional performance and customer satisfaction) (Hülshager & Schewe, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013).

Interestingly, in both of these meta-analyses, surface-acting was positioned as a key mediating mechanism, transmitting the effects of various environmental factors (e.g., display rules) onto the full spectrum of individual and work-related outcomes. Thus, we know much less about the processes through which surface-acting actually influences these work-related outcomes, just as we know little about the processes through which authenticity influences these outcomes.

In summary, the conclusion to be drawn from both streams of work described above seems to be fairly clear: authenticity appears to have both personal benefits (e.g., enhanced psychological and subjective well-being), as well as work-specific benefits (e.g., enhanced job attitudes, work motivation, and job performance). Additionally, environmental pressures that demand inauthenticity seem to result in costs for the individual (e.g., increased ill-being) and the organization (e.g., decreased job satisfaction, attachment, and performance). However, there are a number of reasons why this picture of authenticity and its work-related outcomes is too simplistic and incomplete.

First, the relationship between authenticity and relevant work outcomes has received much less scholarly attention when compared to the amount of research that has examined the relationship between emotional labor and work outcomes. This is an important distinction because authenticity, as defined in the previous section, is much broader in scope than just the expression of hot, temporary emotions. Feeling truly authentic at work involves being able to reveal one's whole self (van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). This includes feelings, as well as thoughts, values, beliefs, political leanings, weekend hobbies, and even clothing preferences (Harter, 2002; Roberts et al., 2009). Furthermore, without more rigorous empirical studies to understand *why* authenticity

influences employee effectiveness, any practical guidance regarding if and how to use authenticity initiatives to improve the bottom line will be incomplete and potentially misguided. Similarly, scholars have yet to explicitly consider the more immediate, relational consequences of being authentic at work. Although numerous theories of authenticity suggests that being authentic will help an individual develop open, trustworthy relationships (Ilies et al., 2005; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Wood et al, 2008), empirical testing of this component of the theory lags significantly behind the examination of authenticity's personal benefits.

Second, organizational norms or expectations that constrain authentic behavior or demand inauthentic behavior often exist for valid reasons. Many in organizations believe such constraints are necessary for the organization as a whole to perform effectively (Goffman, 1959). In other words, emotional labor may result in certain costs for the employees, but the alternative of no display rules could prove to be more costly for the organization. This is particularly true in service industries, which typically dictate emotional display rules that include the need to fake positive emotions as well as suppress or hide negative emotions (Hochschild, 1983). Furthermore, all organizations have their own cultures and informal social norms that guide general behavioral tendencies and dictate appropriate interpersonal interactions. Eliminating such guidelines for the benefit of allowing employees to be their true authentic selves could have seriously detrimental effects on organizational performance as well as its culture and climate (Leary & Allen, 2011). When considered from this perspective, the line between encouraging authenticity and creating a climate that allows for aggression and incivility becomes much more blurred. Related to this point, most studies that have found

significant relationships between authenticity and an array of positive outcomes, both within and outside the work context, have assumed that individuals are expressing their “best” or “aspirational” selves when they are being authentic, thereby focusing primarily on their positive attributes and strengths (e.g., Cable et al., 2013). Again, what has yet to be considered is whether the authentic expression of weaknesses or less favorable characteristics will have the same positive impacts as described in the first stream of research above (Roberts et al., 2009).

These remaining questions allude to the fact that encouraging employees be truly authentic in the workplace may have some significant costs that yet to be considered (see Yagil & Medler-Liraz, 2013 for an exception). In fact, Roberts and colleagues (2009) introduced the term “bounded authenticity” in suggesting that full disclosure of one’s authentic self may not always be beneficial. Harter (2002) made a similar observation when she asked the question: can one be too authentic? In reviewing findings from the counseling psychology, she cites Lerner (1993), who distinguishes between *honesty*, which can sometimes represent uncensored expressions of negative thoughts, and *truth*, which requires thought, timing, tact, and empathy. Thus, even the clinical literature offers a potential caveat on the degree to which someone should be completely authentic: “Honesty ... is often *not* the best policy if it does not contain the elements of truth-telling that will facilitate rather than jeopardize relationships” (Harter, 2002, p. 391). Finally, Leary and Allen (2011) state

compulsive efforts to present one’s self authentically and consistently at all times are misguided, unrealistic and maladaptive. People who disclose information about their characteristics, attitudes and experiences at places and times that are

socially inappropriate in order to be “authentic” will disrupt social encounters, evoke negative reactions from other people, and bring themselves a host of negative social, professional, and legal consequences. (2011, p. 900).

Thus, it is quite likely that the benefits of authenticity studied to date are influenced (i.e. moderated) by numerous factors, both external and internal to the individual that is displaying their “authentic” self. Interestingly, all of the scholars cited above specifically refer to the social costs of being authentic. Thus it seems that authenticity’s influence on relational outcomes (e.g. relationship quality, group connectedness, cooperation) could be more complex than what has been theorized and studied to date (Ilies et al., 2005; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Lopez & Rice, 2006). Specific to the work context, empirical research is needed to better understand how the authentic expression of weaknesses, socially undesirable traits, or attributes that represent a departure from social norms impact the ability to develop high-quality relationships with coworkers, as well as remain effective in the eyes of one’s supervisor. The purpose of this dissertation is to develop and test hypotheses that begin to answer these questions.

Chapter 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

In this chapter I develop theory and hypotheses regarding the relationships between authenticity and employee engagement, positive and negative coworker interactions, and employee effectiveness. Furthermore, the intention of this dissertation is to unpack the “black box” of the authenticity-employee effectiveness relationship by positioning employee engagement and coworker interactions as important transmitters of authenticity’s influence. Finally, I develop theory to suggest that authenticity can be costly for certain individuals. I hypothesize that authenticity’s relationships with both coworker interactions and employee effectiveness change in the presence of socially undesirable traits that reveal the authentic individual to have an overly inflated self-concept, an inappropriately low self-concept, or extreme beliefs that would make it difficult to collaborate effectively in a highly interdependent work environment. I begin with the motivational outcome of employee engagement.

Engagement: A Motivational Explanation

In 1990, Kahn set out to explicitly investigate the processes through which people occupy their work roles. The basic observation that inspired his investigation was his belief that

[p]eople can use varying degrees of their selves...in the [work] roles they perform, even as they maintain the integrity of the boundaries between who they are and the roles they occupy. Presumably, the more people draw on their selves to perform their roles within those boundaries, the more stirring are their

performances and the more content they are with the fit of the costumes they don.

(Kahn, 1990, p. 692)

His 1990 in-depth, ethnographic investigation introduced the terms “personal engagement” and “personal disengagement,” which were intended to represent the behaviors by which people invest or withdraw their personal selves during work role performance. He explicitly defined personal engagement as “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performance” (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). The key to this conceptualization is to recognize that it is explicitly motivational in nature, an allocation of personal energies — physical, cognitive, and emotional — simultaneously in the completion of work tasks (Kanfer, 1990). In other words, an employee can be said to be engaged in their work role “when they become physically involved in tasks, whether alone or with others; is cognitively vigilant, focused and attentive; and is emotionally connected to their work and to others in the service of their work (Kahn, 1990)” (Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010, p. 618).

Kahn (1992) more explicitly considered the link between authenticity and engagement in a follow-up study that focused on the experiential state of psychological presence, or “where one’s true thoughts, feelings, and beliefs are accessible within the context of role performance” (p. 322). He suggested that psychological presence precedes the behavioral investment of energies in personal engagement. Using a case study at an architecture firm of a project manager interacting with her subordinate draftsman, he illustrated the concept of psychological presence to include a manager being open to the thoughts and feelings she was experiencing internally, and utilizing those internal

thoughts and feelings to inform how she behaved outwardly towards her direct report (Kahn, 1992). Thus, this notion of psychological presence can be directly linked to the conceptualization of authenticity, as it's been previously defined: the subjective experience of alignment between one's internal experiences and external expressions (Roberts et al., 2009). Kahn (1990, 1992) explicitly suggested that an individual's degree of engagement in work-related tasks is a direct function of whether they feel as though they can be their true authentic self at work. By being able to draw on a more complete set of their personal resources, an employee can apply that larger reservoir of energies directly towards task-related accomplishment.

These arguments are also consistent with a number of related research streams. The literature on emotional labor has theorized and found support for the notion that behaving inauthentically at work – by suppressing negative emotions or faking positive emotions – requires the use of emotional and cognitive energies that should be focused on accomplishing work tasks (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey, 2003). Furthermore, research utilizing self-determination theory (SDT) has suggested that when employees are authentic at work, they are more likely to attribute their behavior to internal drivers, and as a result, report higher levels of autonomous motivation (Leroy et al., in press). Finally, a handful of studies have found positive associations between various measures of authenticity and employee engagement (Cable et al., 2013; Leroy, Anseel, Dimitrova, & Sels, 2013; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Employee authenticity is positively related to employee engagement.

The preceding section focused on the personal, motivational benefits of being one's true full self at work. What has yet to be considered is how being authentic in an environment that necessitates consistent interaction with others influences the relationships one develops with their colleagues. These considerations are discussed more fully in the section that follows.

Coworker Interactions: A Relational Explanation

One of the most often touted benefits of authenticity is enhanced relationship quality (Ilies et al., 2005; Lopez & Rice, 2006). The underlying argument of this relationship suggests that authentic individuals foster healthy relationships by disclosing aspects of themselves that reflect who they really are, both good and bad. Thus when authenticity is high, meaningful and honest self-disclosures occur, which, in turn, facilitates intimacy between the relationship participants (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Self-verification theory (e.g., Swann, 1983, 2012) supports these basic theoretical arguments, and provides a helpful lens in which to more clearly understand the process through which authenticity will influence the interactions and quality of relationships one develops with their coworkers.

Self-verification theory begins with the assumption that almost all individuals hold fairly consistent views of themselves (i.e., self-views), and we each have a strong interest to receive confirmation of and maintain these self-views. As a result, individuals prefer to interact and develop relationships with those that verify or confirm their true authentic selves. According to this theory, this act of self-verification striving occurs regardless of the content of those self-views – people with positive self-views seek out positive confirmation whereas individuals with negative self-views (e.g., low self-esteem)

seek out confirmation of these negative views. The theory goes on to argue that this process of self-verification, regardless of content, positively influences relationship quality for one primary reason — predictability: “self-verifiers act in predictable, consistent ways to communicate a stable self-view to others, causing their partners to consistently confirm the self-views in question. The result is mutual predictability, which simplifies and facilitates social relations” (North & Swann, 2009, p. 134). The predictable social interactions that result, in turn, leads to high-quality relationships that consist of intimacy, honesty, trust, and “feeling understood” (Cassidy, 2001; North & Swann, 2009; Reiss & Shaver, 1988).

The basic tenants of this theory have received significant support across a variety of settings and relationships, with the vast majority of work conducted in laboratories and in references to personal relationships, such as college roommates and romantic partnerships (e.g., Ritts & Stein, 1995; Schafer, Wickrama, & Keith, 1996; Swann, De La Ronde, & Hixon, 1994; Swann & Pelham, 2002). Nonetheless, a small stream of work has begun to consider how this self-verification process unfolds in various work group contexts. In two different studies of MBA student groups (Polzer, Milton & Swann, 2002; Swann, Milton & Polzer, 2000;) researchers found that when members of small groups (4-6 students) were able to align their team members’ perceptions with their own self-views (via self-verification effects), they reported heightened feelings of connection to their group (i.e. more identification and social integration, and less emotional conflict). Similarly, Milton and Westphal (2005) studied how the process of self-verification influenced the interactions individuals had with their colleagues in an interdependent work context, and how those interactions influenced individual-level performance. They

found that employees feel positively about and attracted towards colleagues who verified or confirmed their own “felt” identities, and that these positive feelings and attraction, in turn, led to a mutually cooperative relationship that consisted of enhanced communication, sharing of information, and other helping behaviors. These team member interactions were also found to mediate the positive relationship between identity confirmation and individual-level performance.

In summary, self-verification theory, and the empirical work that supports its central claims, provides a valuable foundation in which to understand how being authentic influences the lateral relationships and interactions one encounters at work. In general, the more authentic an individual is, the more likely their coworkers will be able to accurately verify or confirm those identities. As a result, a predictable pattern of interactions between colleagues emerges to include cooperative or supporting behaviors. That said, up to this point, the authenticity literature not yet been fully integrated with the self-verification research. It is important to investigate the degree to which one’s subjective feeling of being authentic at work, as conceptualized in the previous chapter, is likely to lead to similar relational processes of those that have been examined by self-verification scholars. Additionally, in order to better examine the relationships between authenticity and coworker interactions, I explicitly adopt the typology presented by Chiaburu and Harrison (2008), who distinguished positive coworker interactions, termed coworker support, from negative coworker interactions, labeled as coworker antagonism. By including both coworker support and antagonism in this process model, a more complete and nuanced understanding of authenticity’s relational outcomes can be gleaned. I develop independent hypotheses for these relational outcomes below.

Coworker support. Given that the central focus of this dissertation is to understand the processes through which authenticity influences employee effectiveness, I specifically focus on instrumental coworker support, which Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) conceptualize as positive coworker interaction that carries an intent to assist in task completion. They suggest that such cooperation is typically conveyed via information sharing or behavioral support (e.g., helping someone who is temporarily overburdened with work, or providing tacit knowledge about how to more effectively carry out an assignment) (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Given the theoretical arguments and empirical evidence presented above, there is strong support for a positive relationship between authenticity and instrumental coworker support. Specifically when individuals are their authentic selves at work, they are more likely to have their authentic identities verified and valued by their coworkers. As a result, these individuals feel positively about and attracted to colleagues who are able to see and accept them for who they really are, and are more inclined to develop relationships of trust and intimacy (Isen & Baron, 1991). The behavioral interactions that align with such high-quality relationships include enhanced communication, sharing of information, and helping behavior (Gouldner, 1960; Milton & Westphal, 2005; Nemeth, 1972). Thus, I formally propose:

Hypothesis 2: Employee authenticity is positively related to instrumental coworker support.

Coworker antagonism. On the other end of the coworker interactions spectrum, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) defined coworker antagonism as “the enactment of unwelcome, undesirable, or disdained behaviors toward a focal employee, such as incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), social undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon,

2002), and interpersonal conflict (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006)” (2008, p. 1084). In this dissertation, I focus on incivility, one of the less severe forms of coworker antagonism, because evidence suggests that these less severe forms of negative coworker interactions are more prevalent in today’s work environments. The higher rate of occurrence will allow for its relationships to authenticity and employee effectiveness to be more accurately examined. Andersson and Pearson defined workplace incivility as “low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, with violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviors are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others” (1999, p. 457). Examples of coworker incivility include using sarcastic or disparaging tones, shooting a hostile stare at a colleague, or even employing the “silent treatment.” (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008).

Although the focus of both the theoretical and empirical work summarized above has been on the positive social interactions that result from having one’s authentic self verified by coworkers, similar arguments can be made for why authenticity at work will be negatively related to coworker incivility. Specifically, the more authentic one is at work, the more predictable the interactions become between that individual and their colleagues, which fosters smooth social interaction, regardless of the content of one’s self-identities (Swann, 2012). That predictability among coworker interactions provides a solid foundation on which to develop open, trustworthy and accepting relationships. Interactions that make up such relationships would be at odds with the rude, discourteous, and argumentative behaviors that are conceptualized as uncivil. As such, I formally hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: Employee authenticity is negatively related to coworker incivility.

With these more proximate motivational and relational outcomes of authenticity hypothesized, I now move on to the distal outcome of employee effectiveness.

Authenticity and Employee Effectiveness

I define employee effectiveness broadly as the degree to which an employee aides the organization in achieving its goals (Campbell, 1990). For this dissertation, I explicitly measure three indicators of this effectiveness: task performance, perceived value to organization, and promotability. This conceptualization of employee effectiveness is broader than what is typically considered in organizational scholarship to allow for more nuanced insight to be drawn, specifically in terms of how being authentic could prove to be costly in terms of a direct supervisor's own perception. These specific dimensions were chosen for three primary reasons. Most importantly, I selected these dimensions because I believe them to be central to the question of when authenticity may be detrimental for in the work context. Task performance is very behaviorally-focused and specific in terms of assessing the degree to which an employee adequately completes the tasks that they were hired do. (i.e., "the employee is successfully completing their work role responsibilities"). Perceived value to the organization is a more generalized feeling that a supervisor will have about an employee based on more than just whether an employee gets their assigned task done. It is possible that certain individuals will be seen as being effective at getting their assigned tasks completed, but less valuable to the overall organization because of conflicts they create, shortcuts they are perceived to be taking, or possibly if they come across more self-focused as opposed to being a committed, team-player (Spain, Harms, & LeBreton, 2014). Finally, promotability is future-focused by assessing the degree to which supervisors believe their direct report has

the potential to continue to advancing forward within the organization. Again, it's possible that an individual performs their assigned tasks to an adequate level, and is even seen as an all-around positive contributor to the organization, but is doing something that leads their supervisor to question their ability to move up in the organization (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). Perhaps the individual doesn't display an adequate level of self-confidence, or seems timid in situations that require strong initiative and leadership. Thus, I have included a specific, behaviorally-focused dimension of employee effectiveness, a dimension that is more generalized to assess an overall perception of value and contribution, as well as a future-oriented dimension. All three are key to an individual's long-term career success, and thus, it is important to determine whether outcomes such as these are impacted by how authentic one is at work.

Additionally, because authenticity has only recently been integrated into the realm of organizational research, a contribution of this dissertation is to expand the outcomes examined to date. I am unaware of any empirical studies that have examined authenticity's influence on either perceived value or promotability. Finally, it was important to include task performance in order to replicate past findings (e.g., Cable et al., 2013; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014), while also theorizing and testing a more detailed process model with newly identified mediating mechanisms. Nonetheless, I do consider these three constructs to be indicators of a shared, higher-order employee effectiveness construct, and as such, will develop hypotheses at this higher level of theory.

As suggested in the previous chapter, theory and empirical evidence support the basic hypothesis that authenticity is positively related to employee effectiveness. From the streams of work that have considered authenticity explicitly, as well as more

indirectly through the research on emotional labor, authenticity is negatively related to emotional exhaustion and related symptoms (Grandey et al., 2012), which has been found to negatively influence performance outcomes (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013).

Furthermore, feeling as though one is behaving authentically and in a self-directed manner is likely to enhance one's own sense of autonomy and intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), which again, has been found to enhance employee effectiveness (Leroy et al., in press). Finally, behaving authentically is likely to lead to individuals feeling as though their colleagues and supervisor at work see them for "who they really are"

(Swann, 2012). Research has found that when individuals believe others see them accurately, they are more likely to perform more effectively (Milton & Westphal, 2005; Swann et al., 2000). The processes described above in relation to coworkers are also likely to unfold for the employee-supervisor dyad. The more authentic individuals are at work, the more likely it is that they develop high-quality relationships with their direct supervisor (e.g., leader-member exchange; Graen, 1976; Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Similar to the research on coworker interactions, meta-analytic findings on LMX suggest that the quality of this relationship positively predicts various indicators of employee effectiveness (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012). Thus, I formally hypothesize the overall main effect:

Hypothesis 4: Employee authenticity is positively related to employee effectiveness.

Next, I establish the theoretical arguments for why both employee engagement and coworker interactions are expected to act as key transmitters for the authenticity—employee effectiveness relationship.

Mediation of Engagement

Kahn (1990) believed that the more an individual could draw on their personal set of resources, the more “stirring” that employee’s performance would be. Thus, it is the intention of this dissertation to examine the degree to which engagement, positioned as a motivational construct, plays a role in transmitting the influence of authenticity on employee effectiveness. The relationship between engagement and employee effectiveness has received a significant amount of attention recently, both theoretically and empirically (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010). Given that engagement is positioned as a motivational construct that consists of simultaneously investing one’s physical, cognitive, and emotional energies directly into assigned work roles, its influences an employee’s effectiveness is the likely the result of enhanced effort, greater intensity, extended persistence, and increased heedfulness (Brown & Leigh, 1996; Christian et al., 2011; Kanfer, 1990; Rich et al., 2010; Weick & Roberts 1993). Additionally, Kahn (1992) suggested that individuals who fully invest their physical, cognitive, and emotional energies in their work roles, have the ability to not only involve themselves in assigned tasks, but also to recognize when it is time or necessary to change those roles. As such, individuals that are highly engaged in their work roles are able to be “role innovators” as opposed to “role custodians” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Such role innovators are likely to be perceived as adding value to the organization above and beyond just accomplishing basic work assignments. Engaged employees who show personal initiative and an ability to read a situation and adjust as necessary will also be more likely to be perceived as having the skills needed for future promotions. Given these arguments, the following is formally hypothesized:

Hypothesis 5: Employee engagement mediates the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness.

Mediation of Coworker Interactions

Turning to the second portion of the process model depicted in Figure 1, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) found meta-analytic evidence to support the hypotheses that both coworker instrumental support (positively) and antagonism (negatively) influenced individual performance, by directly impacting the behavioral resources that enhance or detract from individual productivity or quality (Duffy et al., 2002). Specifically, coworkers can “lighten the load” of an individual’s work demands by providing both informational and behavioral assistance. Thus,

Hypothesis 6: Instrumental coworker support mediates the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness, such that there is a positive indirect effect via coworker support.

Alternatively, being on the receiving end of antagonistic or uncivil behavior is likely to diminish one’s own productivity, as a result of some valuable resources (both informational and behavioral) being withheld, or by creating additional obstacles in order to get the work done. Because I have proposed a negative effect from authenticity to coworker incivility, and expect a negative effect between incivility and employee effectiveness, the overall indirect effect via incivility will be positive. As such, I formally make the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Coworker incivility mediates the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness, such that there is a positive indirect effect via coworker antagonism.

The above arguments paint a fairly clear picture of what the “bright” side of authenticity at work entails, by highlighting both personal *and* relational benefits of being authentic. In general, when one is able to display their true self at work, they can draw more fully from their internal set of resources and simultaneously invest their physical, cognitive and emotional energies in the completion of their work roles. Additionally, by being authentic, one is more likely to develop high-quality, intimate and trustworthy relationships with their colleagues, evidenced by both the receipt of instrumental support and the avoidance or reduction of experienced incivility. In turn, these two distinct processes are expected to be responsible for a significant portion of the positive, more distal relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness. What has yet to be addressed is the degree to which the above processes unfold, irrespective of the content of one’s authentic self. In the following section, I develop arguments to suggest that there are at least three situations in which the relationships with authenticity could turn out to be drastically different and “dark.”

Authenticity’s Dark Side: The Impact of Socially Undesirable Personality Traits

‘Just be yourself’ is about the worst advice you can give some people

~ Anonymous

When considered in light of self-verification theory, I propose three circumstances under which authenticity may negatively impact both the relational processes described above, and cost an individual in terms of their effectiveness at work:

- 1) when individuals have an overly (inappropriate) positive self-view (e.g., narcissism);
- 2) when individuals have an overly (inappropriate) negative self-view (e.g., low self-esteem); and
- 3) when individuals hold self-views that makes them particularly

unappealing in terms of being a collaborative work colleague (e.g., high social dominance orientation). I describe each in turn below.

Overly positive self-view. For individuals with overly positive self-views, I suggest that the magnitude of the proposed relationships with the relational outcomes will weaken, such that the influence of authenticity on instrumental coworker support becomes less positive, whereas its influence on coworker incivility becomes less negative. In order to develop theory for these changes, I specifically consider narcissism. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 2000) defines narcissism as a grandiose sense of self-importance. There is mounting empirical evidence to suggest that narcissists see themselves much more positively (likeability, intelligence, leadership ability) as compared to how others perceive them (Judge, LePine & Rich, 2006). For example, although others often perceive such individuals as socially aversive, narcissists see themselves as good leaders (Furtner, Rauthmann, & Sachse, 2011) and high in emotional intelligence (Petrides, Vernon, Schermer, & Veselka, 2011).

This discrepancy between how they see themselves and how others see them may drive narcissists to escalate their relationally-destructive ways (e.g., bragging, claiming status and power), in an attempt to align their colleagues' perceptions with their own self-views (Carlson, Vazire, & Oltmanns, 2011). Eventually, these attempts fail, and narcissists withdrawal any attempts at developing a positive interpersonal relationship. Without the positive affective response from feeling understood by one's coworkers, the likelihood of developing positive reciprocal or cooperative relationship is significantly diminished. Furthermore, the frustration a narcissist experiences from not having one's

inflated self-view verified increases the likelihood that an authentic narcissist will retaliate using an aggressive or agitated interpersonal style (Carlson et al., 2011). In turn, a narcissist's colleagues are more likely to reciprocate with similarly uncivil behaviors. This pattern of behaviors and interactions is expected to hold with supervisors as well. Thus, there are both indirect (via coworker relationships), and direct (via supervisor relationships) reasons to expect the moderating effect to carry through to influence evaluations of employee effectiveness. Thus, I propose the following three hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8a: Narcissism negatively moderates the relationship between authenticity and instrumental coworker support such that the positive relationship becomes weaker when narcissism is high.

Hypothesis 8b: Narcissism moderates the relationship between authenticity and coworker incivility such that the negative relationship becomes weaker when narcissism is high.

Hypothesis 8c: Narcissism moderates the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness such that the positive relationship becomes weaker when narcissism is high.

Overly negative self-view. Behaving authentically when one has an overly negative self-view can also be particularly damaging from a relational perspective, but for reasons quite different than those mentioned above. Individuals with negative self-views actively seek negative feedback in order to gain confirmation of their negative self-views. As a result, these types of individuals will actually choose to interact with others who view them, and treat them, more negatively than those that see them in a positive light (North & Swann, 2009). I focus specifically on low self-esteem as an indicator of

negative self-views. Wiesenfeld, Swann, Brockner, and Bartel (2007) examined a similar set of propositions, also in a work context. They found that individuals with low self-esteem felt more self-verified when organizations treat them unfairly as opposed to fairly. Additionally, this same type of employee was found to be particularly insensitive to unfair treatment by the organization, in that the employees' level of organizational commitment were not impacted (non-significant relationship) by fair or unfair treatment.

In addition to seeking out relationships that confirm the negative self-view, low self-worth individuals' existing relationships are not expected to endure in the long-term. Some evidence suggests that these types of relationships fall apart because the relationship partner eventually rejects the self-verifier due to their continued desire for unfavorable feedback. Additionally, individuals with these negative self-views will withdrawal from relationships that fail to provide the desired confirmation. Thus, "self-verification strivings not only lead people with negative self-views to provoke rejection, it may also cause them to flee from people who fail to reject them" (North & Swann, 2009, p. 138). I argue that receiving instrumental support from coworkers could be perceived by someone with low self-esteem as a signal that their colleagues like and value them, and that they are deserving of extra help or information. Since such cues are incompatible with such an individual's own negative self-views, if they are behaving in ways that feel truly authentic to them, they will increasingly avoid interactions with individuals that seem them in a more positive light. Furthermore, the treatments indicative of coworker incivility is much more likely to provide the negative feedback and confirmation of low self-worth that such individuals will be looking for. As such, individuals with low self-esteem will be much more likely to seek out individuals that

treat them in this antagonistic way. This pattern of behaviors and interactions is expected to hold with supervisors as well. Thus, there are both indirect (via coworker relationships), and direct (via supervisor relationships) reasons to expect the moderating effect to carry through to influence evaluations of employee effectiveness. As such, I propose the following three hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9a: Self-esteem positively moderates the relationship between authenticity and instrumental coworker support such that the positive relationship becomes weaker when self-esteem is low.

Hypothesis 9b: Self-esteem positively moderates the relationship between authenticity and coworker incivility such that the negative relationship becomes stronger when self-esteem is low.

Hypothesis 9c: Self-esteem positively moderates the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness such that the positive relationship becomes weaker when self-esteem is low.

Unappealing self-views for the interdependent work context. The vast majority of the research utilizing self-verification theory in the work contexts focuses exclusively on positive identities or traits (Polzer et al., 2002; Swann et al., 2000; Swann, Kwan, Polzer & Milton, 2003; Milton & Westphal 2005). This is despite the fact that the theory suggests the positive relational outcomes will hold, regardless of whether positive or negative identities are considered. Additionally, even though many of the previously studies cited above included a “positivity check” to ensure that the beneficial outcomes of the alignment between self-views and others’ perceptions were not just a function of a convergence around only positive identities, there have been calls for future research to

consider how these types of relational processes unfold in the context of explicitly negative or deviant identities (Milton & Westphal, 2005; Roberts et al., 2009). As such, I next consider how the relationships between authenticity and both coworker interactions and employee effectiveness would theoretically change for individuals who are high on the personal value of social dominance orientation (SDO).

I consider SDO to be a deviant identity in the context of a highly interdependent work context, in that SDO is characterized as being extremely self-interested and lacking empathy for others (Altemeyr, 1998). However, there are a number of reasons why someone high on SDO could create problems for themselves, if they were truly authentic in a typical work context. SDO is conceptualized as a personality trait that captures the degree to which an individual desires the domination of “inferior” groups by “superior” groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). The determination of what group is superior and what group is inferior depends on “whatever groups are salient within a given social context, and may involve sexes, genders, races, social classes, nationalities, religions, sports teams or any of an essentially infinite number of distinctions between groups of human beings” (Sidanius & Pratt, 1999, p. 45). SDO has been found to positively correlate with authoritarianism, racism, nationalism, sexism, homophobia, ethnocentrism, and the propensity for cruelty. Additionally, it has been found to negatively correlate with measures of empathy, perspective taking, communality, tolerance, and altruism (e.g. Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth & Malle, 1994; see Sidanius & Pratto, 1999 for a review of this literature). Thus, with respect to being truly authentic at work, being high on SDO is likely to result in costly relational and effectiveness outcomes.

In considering a truly deviant identity, I suggest that the self-verification process unfolds, to a certain extent, as originally proposed: in general, individuals high on this trait still desire to be accurately understood, and as a result, those that they interact with gain an accurate understanding of this individual's self-view. But, by gaining this "darker" understanding of who their colleague or direct report truly is, they choose to not develop as strong of a relationship. They reduce the amount of helping or support that they provide to this individual, and given the extreme nature of some of their strongly held personal views, the number of uncivil encounters are likely to increase. As support for this reasoning, Shao, Resick and Hargis (2011) found SDO to positively relate to interpersonal deviance and negatively relate to citizenship behaviors. Based on norms of reciprocity, these arguments can be extended to suggest that being truly authentic with a high SDO will likely result in receiving increased levels of uncivil behavior and decreased levels of helping and support. Again, this pattern of behaviors and interactions is expected to hold with both colleagues and supervisors, so there are both indirect (via coworker relationships), and direct (via supervisor relationships) reasons to expect the moderating effect to carry through to influence evaluations of employee effectiveness. Thus, I propose the following three hypotheses:

Hypothesis 10a: Social dominance orientation negatively moderates the relationship between authenticity and instrumental coworker support such that the positive relationship becomes weaker when SDO is high.

Hypothesis 10b: Social dominance orientation negatively moderates the relationship between authenticity and coworker incivility such that the negative relationship becomes weaker when SDO is high.

Hypothesis 10c: Social dominance orientation negatively moderates the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness such that the positive relationship becomes weaker when SDO is high.

In the following chapter, I describe the empirical methods used to test these ten hypotheses.

Chapter 4

METHODS

Sample

In order to test this hypothesized model, participants were recruited from two private organizations. The first organization (Company 1 or Co. 1) is family-run business that sells, rents, and services generators, engines, pumps and related outdoor power and commercial equipment. They employ approximately 127 individuals across five states in the Southwest United States. Roles at this organization primarily include positions in finance and accounting, product sales, and product service. The second organization (Company 2 or Co. 2) is a doctor-owned, for-profit hospital located in a major metropolitan area of the Southwest United States. The hospital employs approximately 106 individuals across a wide spectrum of positions, including both patient-focused roles (e.g., surgical nurse, lab technician) and administrative roles (e.g., financial analyst, materials manager, and medical records). These two distinct contexts were selected in order to allow for the possibility that the effects of authenticity on engagement, coworker interactions and employee effectiveness may vary as a function of industry, task type, or organizational culture. This is discussed further in the methods and analyses sections that follow.

The final sample consisted of 102 employees (Co. 1 = 86, Co. 2 = 16) nested within 16 supervisors (Co. 1 = 12, Co. 2 = 4). A comparison of demographics across the two companies revealed only two significant differences — gender and age. Of the 102 employees, 74% (Co. 1: 68, 79%, Co. 2: 7, 44%) were male, and averaged 41.4 years of age ($SD = 12.06$) (Co. 1: 39.5, $SD = 11.8$, Co. 2: 51.6, $SD = 7.8$). Within the combined

sample, the average employee had been with their organization for 4.3 years ($SD = 6.4$). Approximately half of all employees had earned at least an associate's degree (49%, Co. 1 = 48%, Co. 2 = 56%), and the ethnicity of employees distributed as follows: 65% Caucasian, 24% Hispanic or Latino, 4% African American, and 8% of other heritage.

Procedure

An overview meeting was set up with my key contact at each company — the President at Company 1, and the head of Human Resources at Company 2. Together, we drafted an email communication that was distributed to all company employees describing the nature of the study and encouraging participation. Within this communication, it was explained that the study was going to occur in three stages, the first two of which included all employees, and the third that only required supervisor participation. This was done to reduce numerous forms of method bias. All employees were assured that their survey responses would be kept confidential, and no company personnel would have access to any individual survey responses. It was also explained that, in return for agreeing to participate in this study, the organization's top management team would receive back from me a high-level, summarized set of results regarding overall employee attitudes and outcomes. Employees were encouraged to participate in order to provide the top management team an accurate, honest assessment of what the work experience is like at the organization. At both locations, a timeline for the 3 waves of surveys was constructed, with a two-week lag between the Time 1 and Time 2 surveys as well as the Time 2 and Time 3 surveys. All surveys were conducted with an online survey provider (www.qualtrics.com), with the links being sent directly from my Arizona State University email address to each employee's work email address. At Company 2,

my key contact observed that a number of employees (i.e. nurses, maintenance staff) did not have individual computers in order to access to their personal email. This was addressed in two ways. First, a shortcut link to the online survey was placed on the desktop screen of all shared computers so that an individual would not have to access their email in order to take the actual survey. Additionally, paper versions of the Time 1 and Time 2 surveys, with a business return envelope directly attached to ensure confidentiality, were distributed directly to all employee mailboxes.

At Time 1, employees received a link that directed them to the online survey containing an informed consent form, as well as measures of authenticity, narcissism, self-esteem, social dominance orientation, authentic leadership, as well as a number of demographic variables. This survey also asked that employees provide an email address to allow me the ability to match Time 1 responses to both Time 2 and Time 3 surveys. Employees were given a one-week window in which to take this survey. 149 employees (Co. 1 = 103, Co. 2 = 46) completed this first survey. Two weeks after the Time 1 survey window had closed, employees were emailed a link to the Time 2 survey, and were again given a one-week window to complete it. This survey included measures of employee engagement, coworker instrumental support, and coworker incivility. Of the 149 employees who completed the first survey, 116 (Co. 1 = 93, Co. 2 = 23) completed the Time 2 survey, for a response rate of 79%.

Finally, two weeks after the Time 2 survey closed, the Time 3 survey link was emailed directly to all supervisors (22 total, Co. 1 = 14, Co. 2 = 8). Each supervisor was provided a unique password that, when entered into the online survey system, created a list of their direct reports. These supervisor-specific lists were based on employee

rosters provided by my key contacts. Supervisors were then asked to closely review the list, make changes (i.e. remove employees that no longer reported to them, add other employees that not been included, etc.), and confirm each employee did, in fact, report to them by checking the box next to each person's name. Once the list of direct reports was confirmed, those names were populated into the remaining screens of the survey.

Specifically, supervisors were asked to rate each of their employees on measures of task performance, perceived value to the organization, and promotability. In total, 16 (Co. 1 = 12, Co. 2 = 4) supervisors completed the Time 3 survey, and evaluated the effectiveness of an average of 10 employees (SD = 5.7, ranging from 1 to 20 direct reports). Overall, I received employee effectiveness evaluations for 161 employees (Co. 1 = 123, Co. 2 = 38), 102 of which I was able to match back to completed Time 1 and Time 2 surveys.

This equates to a 68% completion rate across the two organizations. Finally, a comparison between Time 1 and Time 3 did not reveal any statistically significant differences in participant demographic variables for either company. Additionally, the 59 evaluations that had to be excluded due to missing Time 1 and Time 2 survey responses were not statistically different from those that were included in the final analysis.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, responses were collected using a Likert response scale in which 1 indicates “strongly disagree” and 7 indicates “strongly agree”. A complete list of items included in each survey is available in Appendix A.

Authenticity. As discussed in Chapter 2 of this dissertation, authenticity was measured as a one-dimensional construct with 6 items from the scale used by Cable et al. (2013). Employees were asked to assess the degree to which they agreed with each

statement (e.g., “At work, I feel free to express myself to others”, and “In this job, I feel authentic”), by explicitly considering how they have felt at their job, in general, for the past four weeks. This instruction was meant to capture employees more generalized, persistent feelings of authenticity at work, as opposed to any momentary ebbs and flows the employee was experiencing on the day, or at the time they were taking the survey. The coefficient alpha for this six-item measure was .93.

Narcissism was measured with the nine-item SD3 scale recently developed by Jones and Paulhus’ (2014), which targets the grandiose variant (as opposed to implicit insecurity) of narcissistic tendencies (e.g., “I know that I am special because everyone keeps telling me so”). I chose this scale for its focus on grandiose content, brief length, as well as its designed response format (A “strongly disagree”-“strongly agree” Likert scale), which mirrored the other measures included in the survey. This scale was developed in an effort to provide researchers a construct valid alternative to the longer, more widely used measures of three popular “dark” personality traits (i.e. narcissism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism). In their published set of validation studies (Jones & Paulus, 2014), this measure demonstrated an acceptable levels of construct validity, including adequate levels of reliability (alpha’s ranged from .68 to .78 across 4 validation studies), and a strong positive correlation ($r = .70$) with the most widely used measure of narcissism (e.g., the NPI, a 40-item forced choice measure from Raskin & Hall, 1979). Even when the NPI was separated into its two primary facets--Exploitative/Entitlement and Leadership/Authority—correlations with the SD3 were strong and similar in size ($r = .60$ and $r = .56$, respectively). In demonstrating the construct validity of this self-report measure through corroboration by close informants (McCrae & Weiss, 2007), the

correlation between self- and other-ratings was found to be positive and significant ($r = .34$, $r = .52$ when corrected for unreliability). In total, this set of validation studies suggest that the SD3 scale meets acceptable psychometric standards and captures the classic conceptions of trait narcissism. For this sample, the coefficient alpha for the nine-item measure was .70.

Global self-esteem was measured with the ten-item scale from Rosenberg (1965) (e.g., “At times I think that I am no good at all.”) This is one of the most often used measures when studying the relationship between self-esteem and conceptualizations of authenticity (e.g. Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Wood et al., 2008), and therefore provides a useful convergent validity test of the one-dimensional authenticity measure described above. Additionally, it was important to include a global measure, as opposed to one that is context specific, due to the fact that self-verification theory (North & Swann, 2009) directly speaks to the detrimental interpersonal effects of having general sense of low self-worth. The coefficient alpha for this 10-item scale was .82.

Social dominance orientation was measured with eight items from Sidanius & Pratto (1999) SDO₆ scale. The original 16-item scale included 8 negatively framed items (e.g., “To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups”) and eight positively framed items (e.g. “It would be good if all groups could be equal”). The positively framed items are then typically reverse-coded to create one overall scale score. In an effort to maintain a reasonable overall survey length, as well as focus on capturing the most socially undesirable end of the construct’s conceptual space, I included only the eight negatively framed items. This also reduced the possibility of obtained two separate dimensions within the data (a negative or “dominant” dimension as well as a positive

“equality” dimension), which has typically occurred in samples that included all 16 items (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Even with this adjustment to the scale, the reliability ($\alpha = .82$), mean ($M=2.70$), and standard deviation ($SD=1.09$) are in line with the reliability ($\alpha = .89$) and descriptive statistics (M range: 1.51-3.27, SD range: .41-1.09) reported for the full 16-item SDO_6 scale across 14 samples (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999, p. 70, Table 3.3).

Authentic Leadership Although not the subject of any formal hypothesis, employee ratings of their supervisor’s authentic leadership was included as a control in the hypothesized model. This was done for a number of reasons. First, it is an effective control of contextual or environmental factors that have been shown to influence employee engagement (Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck & Avolio, 2010), coworker interactions (Hannah et al., 2011) and employee effectiveness (Leroy et al., in press; Walumbwa et al., 2010). Additionally, the concept of authenticity has already been introduced into organizational research as an important leadership variable (Gardner et al., 2005). Thus, in order to demonstrate that employee authenticity is a unique and useful construct beyond its association with authentic leadership, it is necessary to control for authentic leadership’s effects. Finally, authentic leadership theory suggests that one of the primary means through which leaders influence follower outcomes is by encouraging followers to be authentic themselves. By measuring authentic leadership and including it as a control variable, it will be possible to examine the degree to which that theory holds. The measure included in the Time 1 survey was made up of 10 items from the authentic leadership questionnaire (ALQ, Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson, 2008), with four items from the relational transparency dimension, three items from the

self-awareness dimension, and 1 item each from the internal moral perspective and balanced processing dimensions. The coefficient alpha for this 10-item measure was .95.

Employee engagement was measured in the Time 2 survey, and included 9 items from a modified version of the Job Engagement Scale (Rich et al., 2010). The shortened scale was specifically designed to measure Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement, a general factor that reflects the commonality of three types of energy that people may invest in their roles (3 items for physical, emotional, and cognitive engagement). Crawford, LePine, and Buckman (2013) validated this 9-item measure by demonstrating that it maintains the structure and meaning of the long-form scale. The best-fitting, and theoretically supported model suggests three first-order factors of physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement. Those three first-order latent factors were then loaded onto a second-order overall job general engagement factor. This structure was also replicated in the current data set. Using confirmatory factor analysis, the correlated three-factor solution provided a good fit to the data: $\chi^2 (df = 24, N = 102) = 84.168, p < .01$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .94; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .05. Additionally, the loadings of the items onto their respective latent variables were statistically significant and strong (average estimate/standard error = 15.11; average loading = .91) and the three latent factors correlated significantly (average $r = .71$). A second model (statistically equivalent to the first), in which the three first-order engagement dimensions were loaded onto a second-order overall employee engagement construct, produced strong, positive, and statistically significant factor loadings (1.02, .65, and .88, respectively). The coefficient alpha for the 9-item employee engagement scale was .93.

Coworker instrumental support was measured with McAllister's (1995) nine-item measure of interpersonal cooperation (e.g., "passed along new information to me when they thought it would be useful" and "helped me with difficult assignments, even when I didn't ask for help.") This scale was chosen specifically because of the instrumental nature of the items. Participants were asked to assess the frequency with which their coworkers had engaged in each of the nine helpful behaviors over the past two week period. Responses were provided on a 0 to 6 scale, with 0 being "Never" and 6 being "More than once a day". The coefficient alpha for this 9-item measure was .95.

Coworker incivility was measured with Cortina, Magley, Williams, and Langhout's (2001) nine-item incivility scale. Again, participants were asked to rate the frequency with which their coworkers had directed antagonistic behaviors specifically towards them over the previous two weeks (e.g., "In the past two weeks, how often did your coworkers ... "put you down or act condescending towards you" and "ignored or excluded you from social interactions or job-related matters"). Coefficient alpha for the nine-item measure was .95.

The final outcome variable in this dissertation included three indicators of the supervisor's perceived effectiveness of each direct report. Again, full items can be reviewed in Appendix A.

Task Performance was measured with four items from Williams and Anderson's (1991) measure of in-role performance (e.g., "Adequately completes assigned duties"). The coefficient alpha was .96.

Perceived value to organization was measured using five items from the Perceived Value scale created by Long, Baer, and Colquitt (2013). Specifically,

supervisors were asked, “when thinking of this associate, rate your level of agreement with the following items. This associate:” “adds value to the company,” “is very useful to the company,” “makes the company more collaborative,” “is very important to the company,” “is held in high regard in the company,” and “is a ‘go to’ employee for many things.” I shortened the measure from the original 9-item scale created by Long et al., (2013) primarily in an effort to keep the survey to a reasonable length, given that supervisors were completing the survey for each of their direct reports. Additionally, items that specifically referenced performance or individual contribution (e.g., “helps the company achieve high performance” and “makes a strong contribution to the company”) were excluded due to their potential to overlap significantly with the task performance items. The coefficient alpha for the 5-item scale was .94.

Promotability was measured with the three items suggested by Thacker and Wayne (1995) (e.g., “I believe that this employee will have a successful career at this organization). A fourth item was added to ensure a more complete assessment of future potential was captured in the measure: “In my opinion, this employee has the ability to continue to advance in their chosen career path.” The coefficient alpha for this four-item measure was .91, with the added item enhancing the reliability of the measure (alpha with the added item excluded would have been .87).

In order to support the higher-order employee effectiveness construct theorized in the previous chapter, I assessed the factor structure of task performance, perceived value, and promotability using a confirmatory factor analysis in Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). The three dimensions were treated like latent factors with item-level indicators. Items were only allowed to load onto its intended latent factor, such that task

performance had four item indicators, perceived value had five item indicators, and promotability had four item indicators. Using this structure, the three factor model provided a good fit to the data: $\chi^2 (df = 62, N = 102) = 122.94, p < .01$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .96; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .098; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .04. Additionally, the loadings of the items onto their respective latent variables were statistically significant and strong (average estimate/standard error = 14.06; average loading = .90) and the three latent factors correlated significantly (average $r = .90$). A second model (statistically equivalent to the first), in which the three first-order dimensions of task performance, perceived value, and promotability were loaded onto a second-order effectiveness dimension, produced strong, positive, and statistically significant factor loadings (.88, 1.03, and .89, respectively). Overall, these results support treating the three dimensions as indicators of a higher-order effectiveness construct. To illustrate the internal consistency of these three scale scores, the higher-order composite formed from the three indicators has a coefficient alpha of .96 at the item level and .91 at the scale level.

Control variables. Finally, I included a number of demographic variables as controls. Gender was included as a control (0 = female, 1 = male) given the significant male-female differences have been found in measures of narcissism (Jones & Paulhus, 2014) and social dominance orientation (Sidanus & Pratto, 1999). Organizational tenure (in months) and level of education (0 = less than an associate's degree; 1 = an associate's degree or more) were included as controls due to their established effects on employee effectiveness (Duarte, Goodson, & Klich, 1994). Finally, I included a company indicator

(0=Co. 1, 1 = Co. 2), to ensure that any differences between the two organizations that participated in this study were accounted for.

Chapter 5

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics, internal consistency reliabilities, and zero-order correlations among study and control variables. As revealed in the alpha column, each variable had a satisfactory degree of internal consistency reliability. The pattern of zero-order correlations was also reviewed. As expected, authenticity correlated positively with employee engagement ($r = .53, p < .05$), coworker instrumental support ($r = .58, p < .05$), and employee effectiveness ($r = .24, p < .05$), and negatively with coworker incivility ($r = -.27, p < .05$). The associations between authenticity and the three personality traits were also in line with general expectations and prior empirical evidence. The correlation between authenticity and global self-esteem ($r = .47, p < .05$) aligns with a significant body of existing work (Kernis & Goldman, 2006: r 's range from .37 to .60; Sheldon et al., 1997: r 's range from .37 to .48; Wood et al. 2008, r 's range from .24 to .36). Authenticity's association with social dominance orientation ($r = -.29$) also aligns with one other study identified as having included both constructs (e.g. Hall, 2008, $r = -.32$). And narcissism's association with authenticity ($r = .26$) is fairly consistent with the one other study that appears to include both constructs (Tracy, Cheng, Robins & Trzesniewski, 2009, $r = .10$ once the shared variance of self-esteem and narcissism was removed). Additionally, the correlations among the three socially undesirable traits are also consistent with both expectations and existing research: Narcissism and self-esteem had a moderate positive correlation ($r = .33$ vs. $r = .32$, Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, & Caspi, 2005; $r = .37$, Raskin, Novacek & Hogan, 1991), self-esteem and social

dominance orientation had a non-significant correlation ($r = -.16$, n.s. vs. average $r = -.08$, n.s. across 9 samples, Pratto et al., 1994), and narcissism and SDO had a small positive correlation ($r = .15$ vs. $r = .23$, Hodson, Hogg & MacInnis, 2009)

The large positive association between authenticity and authentic leadership ($r=.68$) is stronger than expected when compared to the few other studies that have included both leader and follower authenticity (Hannah et al., 2011, $r = .34$; Leroy et al., in press, $r = .37$), whereas the association between employee engagement and coworker support ($r = .39$, $p < .05$) is consistent with existing meta-analytic engagement research (Christian et al., 2011: social support: $\rho = .32$, $p < .05$), and the correlation between engagement and coworker incivility ($r = .12$, n.s.) is slightly weaker than expected when considered in light of meta-analytic work with a similar construct (Buckman, Crawford, Chamberlin & LePine, 2014, interpersonal conflict: $\rho = -.16$, $p < .05$).

Most surprisingly was a lack of associations between the three variables positioned as mediators in the model—engagement, coworker instrumental support, and coworker incivility—and employee effectiveness. These results differ significantly from existing meta-analytic evidence that has found significant relationships between task performance and employee engagement (Christian et al., 2011, $\rho = .43$, $p < .05$, $k = 14$, $N = 4,562$), coworker instrumental support (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008, $\rho = .37$, $p < .05$, $k = 11$, $N = 3,132$), and coworker antagonism (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008, $\rho = -.11$, $p < .05$, $k = 2$, $N = 501$). Although associations between the other two effectiveness dimensions and these mediation variables have yet to receive the same amount of empirical attention, the CFA analyses described above suggest that it is reasonable to expect similar associations as with task performance.

After centering both the authenticity and socially undesirable trait variables and creating interaction terms by multiplying these centered variables together, I used hierarchical linear regression techniques to test the direct effects and moderation hypotheses (Hayes, 2012; Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007). For each outcome of interest (i.e., employee engagement, coworker instrumental support, coworker incivility, and employee effectiveness), the dependent variable was regressed onto at least three sets of predictor variables. Demographic controls and authentic leadership were entered as a first step in the hierarchical regression analysis. In the second step, the three personality traits were entered. Next, authenticity was entered alone in the third step in order to test the direct effect hypothesis for each outcome. For the moderation hypotheses, the interaction term between authenticity and each socially undesirable personality trait was entered as a fourth step. All regression estimates in the tables are from the final step of the regression, with the change in R^2 for each step provided at the bottom of the respective column.

Authenticity and Employee Engagement

Table 2 summarizes the test of Hypothesis 1 that predicted authenticity would positively predict employee engagement. Model 3 reveals that authenticity was positively and significantly related to employee engagement ($\beta = .42, p < .05$), even after controlling demographics, authentic leadership, and the three socially undesirable personality traits. The inclusion of authenticity increased the total amount of variance in employee engagement by 8%, resulting in a total variance explained of 34%. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was fully supported.

Additionally, Table 3 provides a post-hoc analysis of authenticity's influence on the dimensions of engagement, revealing that authenticity significantly predicted all three

dimensions: physical engagement ($\beta = .27, p < .05$), cognitive engagement ($\beta = .29, p < .05$) and emotional engagement ($\beta = .44, p < .05$). Although these results may lead one to think that authenticity played a more central role in influencing levels of emotional engagement, a comparison of the 95% confidence intervals across dimensions revealed overlap, indicative of non-significant differences in magnitude (PE 95% CI: [.04, .37], CE 95% CI: [.05, .33], EE 95% CI: [.27, .73]).

Though not formally hypothesized as part of this study, the results in Table 2 also suggest that authenticity may act as a mediator of authentic leadership's influence on employee engagement. Specifically, Model 0 reveals that authentic leadership is a strong predictor of authenticity ($\beta = .50, p < .05$), and authentic leadership's significant influence on engagement in Model 2 ($\beta = .40, p < .05$) becomes non-significant once authenticity is regressed on engagement in Model 3 ($\beta = .17, p > .10$). These findings are discussed further in the following chapter.

Authenticity and Instrumental Coworker Support

Table 4 summarizes the test of Hypothesis 2 that predicted authenticity would positively influence instrumental coworker support. This was found to be the case ($\beta = .60, p < .05$), even after controlling demographics, authentic leadership, and the three socially undesirable personality traits. The inclusion of authenticity increased the total amount of explained variance by 17%, resulting in a total variance explained of 35%. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was fully supported.

Table 4 also summarizes results for Hypotheses 8a, 9a, and 10a, which predicted the three socially undesirable personality traits would negatively moderate the relationship between authenticity and instrumental coworker support. Model 1 reveals

that narcissism did not moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = .09, p > .10$), failing to support Hypothesis 8a. Similarly, Model 3 reveals that social dominance orientation did not moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = .03, p > .10$), failing to support Hypothesis 10a. Models 2 and 4 show that self-esteem did significantly moderate the relationship between authenticity and coworker support, both when entered alone as the sole moderator of the relationship (Model 2: $\beta = .23, p < .05$) and when entered together with the narcissism and social dominance orientation interaction terms (Model 4: $\beta = .32, p < .05$). Self-esteem's moderating effect uniquely explained 4% of coworker support's variance, resulting in 39% total variance explained. In order to accurately interpret this interaction, I first plotted the effects of authenticity on coworker support at low (i.e. 1SD below the mean) and high levels of self-esteem (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) (see Figure 2). The pattern of the simple slopes is in line with Hypothesis 9a such that at low levels of self-esteem, the relationship between authenticity and coworker support is weakened. Next, following the recommendations of Preacher, Curran, and Bauer (2006), I examined the regions of significance using the Neyman-Johnson technique. This procedure identifies the points within the moderating variable's range where the slope of the predictor (authenticity) transition from being significant to non-significant, and possibly, back to being significant (but of opposite sign). This technique revealed that slopes for the authenticity – coworker support relationship became non-significant when the self-esteem score was lower than 5.09 (on a 7-pt scale) ($\beta = .29, p = .05$). At no point in the range of self-esteem scores did the slope become significantly negative. Nonetheless, based on the totality of these findings, Hypothesis 9a was fully supported.

Authenticity and Coworker Incivility

Table 5 summarizes the test of Hypothesis 3 that predicted authenticity would negatively predict coworker incivility. Once demographics, authentic leadership, and the three socially undesirable personality traits were controlled for, authenticity was no longer significantly related to coworker incivility ($\beta = -.11, p > .10$). An inspection of the parameter estimates revealed that reports of received coworker incivility were most influenced by gender (0=female, 1=male: $\beta = -.22, p < .05$) and self-esteem ($\beta = -.21, p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Due to the fact that this lack of a significant main effect may be a result of existing, unmeasured moderators, I next tested the relevant moderation hypotheses.

Table 5 summarizes results for Hypotheses 8b, 9b, and 10b, which predicted the three socially undesirable personality traits would negatively moderate the relationship between authenticity and coworker incivility, such that the relationship would become less negative in the presence of the aversive traits. Model 1 reveals that narcissism did not moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = -.17, p > .10$), failing to support Hypothesis 8b. Model 2 reveals that self-esteem did not moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = -.16, p > .10$), failing to support Hypothesis 9b. Model 3 reveals that social dominance orientation did not moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = .12, p > .10$), failing to support Hypothesis 10c. In an omnibus test of all three moderating effects (Model 4) these results were replicated, such that no interaction term was found to be significant.

Authenticity and Employee Effectiveness

Table 6 summarizes the test of Hypothesis 4 that predicted authenticity would positively predict employee effectiveness. Given that the 102 employees were nested in

16 supervisors, it was necessary to examine the data for evidence of clustering. The ICC (1) value for employee effectiveness was .22 ($p < .01$), which does suggest that there was a significant supervisor effect (Bliese, 2000). In order to control for the supervisor effect, I utilized the fixed effects approach to clustering (Cohen, Cohen, Aiken & West, 2003, p. 539-544). This is a reasonable approach when the number of cluster units is small (less than 20), and one is willing to assume fixed effects of the variable in the model (Hayes, 2012). Both of these are the case herein. As such, I created 15 dummy variables to represent the 16 clusters of employees nested within supervisors, and entered those as part of the first step in all regression analyses.

Once clustering effects, demographics, authentic leadership, and the three socially undesirable personality traits were controlled for, authenticity was no longer significantly related to employee effectiveness ($\beta = .08, p > .10$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. An inspection of the parameter estimates revealed that employee effectiveness was significantly influenced by the follower's perception of their supervisor's authentic leadership ($\beta = .23, p < .05$). Due to the fact that the lack of a significant main effect may be the result of an unmeasured moderator, I next tested the moderation hypotheses.

Table 6 summarizes results for Hypotheses 8c, 9c, and 10c, which predicted the three socially undesirable personality traits would negatively moderate the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness. Model 1 reveals that narcissism did moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$). This finding was replicated when all three interaction effects were entered together (Model 4: $\beta = -.24, p < .05$). Narcissism's moderating effect uniquely explained 3% employee effectiveness's variance, resulting in 52% total variance explained. In order to accurately interpret this

interaction, I plotted the effects of authenticity on employee effectiveness at low (i.e. 1 SD below the mean) and high levels of narcissism (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) (see Figure 3). The pattern of relationships illustrated by this plot is in line with Hypothesis 8c, such that at low levels of narcissism, the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness is positive, and at high levels of narcissism, the relationship becomes negative. Next, I examined this interaction's regions of significance using the Neyman-Johnson technique (Preacher et al., 2006). This revealed that slopes for the authenticity – employee effectiveness relationship were significantly positive for individuals that had a narcissism score less than or equal to 2.89 ($\beta = .29, p < .05$). For individuals that scored higher than 2.89 on narcissism, the slope between authenticity and effectiveness became non-significant. Based on the totality of these findings, Hypothesis 8c was supported.

Table 7 provides a post-hoc analysis to better assess the degree to which the Authenticity x Narcissism interaction holds across the three dimensions of employee effectiveness. It reveals that the hypothesized interaction effect is significant for task performance (Model 1: $\beta = -.22, p < .05$) and perceived value (Model 2: $\beta = -.25, p < .05$), but not for promotability (Model 3: $\beta = -.14, p > .10$). The plots for both the significant interactions are depicted in Figure 4. Additionally, the regions of significance were assessed with the Neyman-Johnson technique (Preacher et al., 2006). The relationship between authenticity and task performance was significantly positive for individuals with narcissism scores equal to or less than 2.56 ($\beta = .28, p < .05$), and significantly negative for individuals with scores at or above 5.94 ($\beta = -.34, p < .05$). Similarly, the slope for the authenticity—perceived value relationship was significantly

positive for individuals with narcissism scores equal to or less than 2.97 ($\beta = .33, p < .05$), and significantly negative for those scoring at or above 6.16 ($\beta = -.50, p < .05$).

Returning to Table 6 and the interactive effects with the other two socially undesirable traits, Model 2 reveals that self-esteem did not moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = -.08, p > .10$), failing to support Hypothesis 9c, and Model 3 reveals that social dominance orientation did not moderate the hypothesized relationship ($\beta = .00, p > .10$), failing to support Hypothesis 10c.

Mediational Hypotheses

Table 8 summarizes the results for Hypotheses 5 through 7. Specifically, Model 1 reveals that the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness was not mediated by employee engagement, in part because employee engagement did not predict employee effectiveness ($\beta = -.10, p > .10$). Similarly, neither type of coworker interaction mediated the authenticity – employee effectiveness relationship, because both coworker instrumental support ($\beta = -.02, p > .10$), and coworker incivility ($\beta = .15, p > .10$) failed to significantly predict employee effectiveness. Thus, Hypotheses 5, 6, and 7 were all unsupported. The implications of these findings are discussed in the chapter that follows.

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION

To date, researchers interested in the notion of authenticity have primarily focused on understanding its numerous personal benefits, both generally (e.g. psychological and subjective well-being) and in the work context (e.g., job satisfaction, engagement, retention, and job performance). This has been at the exclusion of empirically investigating its social implications, despite much theorizing around the relational benefits of being authentic (Ilies et al., 2005; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). The research to date has also failed to examine the processes through which authenticity influences more distal outcomes like employee effectiveness. It is important to understand these processes in order to help managers identify the means through which authenticity initiatives should and could be designed. Finally, very little theoretical and empirical work has been done in regards to the dark side of authenticity. Although scholars have alluded to the “costs” of authenticity, no empirical test has specifically considering circumstances where being authentic at work may be damaging for the individual. This dissertation attempted to address these three gaps in order to enhance the field’s understanding of how authenticity at work impacts both employees and organizations.

Summary of Results

First, I hypothesized that authenticity at work would positively predict employee engagement and coworker instrumental support, and negatively predict coworker incivility. Two of these three hypotheses were supported, as authenticity was positively linked to both employee engagement and coworker instrumental support, even after controlling for demographic and authentic leadership effects. And although authenticity

had a significant negative zero-order correlation with coworker incivility, once gender and self-esteem were controlled for, the association between authenticity and incivility became non-significant. In total, these results support the notion that authenticity does, influence both personal, as well as relational outcomes. Finally, despite these positive main effects, there appears to be a dark side to authenticity's relationship with coworker instrumental support. The analyses revealed that when an individual had low self-esteem, the relationship between authenticity and coworker support weakened to the point of becoming non-significant. Thus it seems not all individuals reap the same relational benefits by being their authentic selves at work. These results are consistent with self-verification theory's prediction (North & Swann, 2009), and discussed further below.

In addition to these proximate motivational and relational outcomes, I hypothesized authenticity would positively influence the more distal outcome of employee effectiveness. And again, although the correlation was significant, once demographics and authentic leadership were controlled for, the association became non-significant. On average, it seemed that authenticity did not significantly predict employee effectiveness. However, this conclusion does not reveal the full story. Tests of the moderation hypotheses revealed that the direction and magnitude of authenticity's influence on employee effectiveness was contingent on the employee's level of narcissism. Employees that scored low on narcissism experienced the expected positive relationship between authenticity and effectiveness, whereas highly narcissistic employees were found to have a significant negative relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness. Furthermore, these results held in the post-hoc analysis for both task performance and perceived value. This pattern of results demonstrates a true dark side to authenticity, such

that, for narcissists, being their true authentic selves at work resulted in supervisors perceiving them as less effective.

Finally, the hypotheses that positioned employee engagement and coworker interactions as key mediators of the authenticity - employee effectiveness relationship were not supported, primarily as a result of failing to find any significant associations between both engagement and coworker interactions and employee effectiveness. The theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed next.

Theoretical Implications

Engagement Theory. The findings from this dissertation contribute significantly to the theory of personal engagement (Kahn, 1990, 1992) in a number of ways. First, the fact that authenticity was found to positively predict employee engagement provides strong support for one of the central tenants of the theory, and also replicates the findings of other studies that had previously considered this association (Cable et al., 2013; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). This is an extension of those studies because in this study, authenticity and employee engagement were measured two weeks apart, providing stronger evidence that authenticity, does in fact lead to enhanced levels of engagement. Additionally, engagement is typically conceptualized as a higher-order construct, indicated by the simultaneous investment of physical, cognitive, and emotional energies in work role performance. And although that is how it was conceptualized here, a post-hoc analysis was also conducted to examine the possibility that authenticity differentially influenced each dimension. The findings suggest that authenticity is a central driver to all three dimensions, with the magnitude of its influence not differing significantly across dimensions. Nonetheless, it is still possible that unmeasured moderators exist, such that

the relationship between authenticity and only one engagement dimension is impacted. For example, given that emotional engagement appeared to have the strongest association with authenticity, personality traits that capture a tendency to be emotional or moody (e.g., neuroticism) may magnify the authenticity-emotional engagement relationship, but not significantly influence its relationship with either physical or cognitive engagement. Continuing to consider engagement as both a higher-order construct, as well as its unique underlying dimensions, may prove fruitful in unpacking its potentially complex relationship with authenticity, as well as other previously identified antecedents.

Finally, though not a central focus of this dissertation, the findings of this dissertation support the notion that authenticity is an effective transmitter of authentic leadership's effect on both employee engagement and coworker instrumental support. Typically, studies of authentic leadership describe the process through which leaders influence their followers by suggesting that the leader acts as a role model for how to be one's authentic true self (Ilies et al., 2005). This is also consistent with Kahn's theory (1990), which suggests that leaders play an important role in instilling a sense of psychological safety in their followers, and that followers will only be able to feel truly authentic and behaviorally engage in their work role if they feel psychologically safe to do so. Despite this theorizing, the studies that have included both authentic leadership and employee engagement had not yet explicitly measured follower's level of authenticity. Thus this dissertation offers strong empirical evidence that authentic leadership's influence on engagement is explained by followers' mirroring what they see in their leader's own behavior. That being said, much more work is needed to understand a full array of antecedents to authenticity at work. A potential place to start this

investigation would be to consider the list of antecedents that have been found to influence employee engagement (see Christian et al., 2011), and begin to investigate authenticity's mediating role in those relationships. According to Kahn's process model of engagement (1992), authenticity would likely be the primary transmitter of almost all of engagement's environmental antecedents, given that he positions an internal feeling of authenticity as a critical precursor to the external behavioral investment of one's energies. Thus, investigating authenticity's antecedents is an important future direction that will directly contribute to engagement theory as well.

Self-Verification Theory. This dissertation also makes several significant contributions to the self-verification theory literature. First, although many have suggested that authenticity's relational benefits emerge as a result of an individual self-disclosing all aspects of themselves, both good and bad, the integration of self-verification theory into the authenticity literature had not yet been explicitly made. This dissertation demonstrates that self-verification theory provides a solid theoretical foundation upon which to further build more complex process models to best understand authenticity's impact on a full array of relational outcomes. Additionally, this dissertation is the first study to explicitly measure the relationship between authenticity at work and received coworker instrumental support, as well as received coworker incivility. With the hypotheses supported for coworker support, it can be stated that, on average, being authentic at work enhances the degree to which individuals receives both sharing of information and helping from coworkers.

And while the theoretical explanation for this relationship would suggest that the coworker's verification or confirmation of the focal individual's identity results in these

supportive interactions, future research is needed to explicitly study this process. For example, it would be beneficial to ask employees whether they felt their coworkers “see them for who they really are” (e.g., Cable & Kay, 2102), and examine the degree to which perceived self-verification mediates the relationship between authenticity and coworker interactions or relationship quality. This mediational process would be particularly enlightening in terms of better understanding why those with low self-esteem experienced a weaker relationship with authenticity. According to self-verification theory, individuals low on self-esteem will choose to interact with individuals that they feel *do* see them in an accurate light, and as a result get treated more poorly than others are treated (a second-stage moderation). Alternatively, it could be that individuals low on self-esteem feel their coworkers fail to see them in an accurate way, and as a result actively avoid those types of supportive interactions (a first-stage moderation) (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Additional research is needed to tease these competing predictions apart. Finally, given the differential impact with narcissism (moderator for employee effectiveness), low self-esteem (moderator for coworker instrumental support), and social dominance orientation (no evidence of moderating effect), it is clear that different dark traits work through unique processes to affect both proximate relational outcomes and more distal effectiveness outcomes.

The lack of significant moderation effects on the authenticity-coworker support relationship for both narcissism and social dominance orientation further support self-verification theory’s position that even the verification of *negative* or *deviant* self-views result in high-quality relationships. However, until the perceptions of others are more fully integrated into these process models, I strongly caution such a conclusion. This is

especially true for narcissism, which was found to have costly effects on the relationship between authenticity and employee effectiveness. Given that narcissists, by definition, have an inflated self-view, they may similarly have an inaccurate perception of their relationships or interactions with coworkers (Judge et al., 2006). Future research can address this concern by measuring coworker perceptions as well. With regards to SDO, the lack of significant findings may be more related to range restriction. Having included the eight negatively framed items of the SDO₆ scale, it is possible that I reduced the amount of variance needed in order to find an interactive effect. Specifically, it's possible there was not a large enough subset of the population that felt they were authentic at work *and* high on eight most extreme SDO items. Additional research with the full SDO₆ scale, across more organizations would likely increase the variance of this construct.

Limitations

This dissertation is subject to a number of limitations that should be considered in relation to the above contributions. First, the sample size is small for this research, particularly when considering the use of interaction tests. The sample size was unfortunately limited by the size of the two organizations that agreed to participate in the study, as well as the continued willingness of the employees within those organizations to complete the multiple waves of surveys. Also, as reported by several employees to my key contact at Company 2, due to the somewhat sensitive nature of the questions regarding socially undesirable personality traits and experiences of coworker incivility, some participants chose not to complete the questionnaires.

The majority of my sample also came from one company (87 of 102 responses), raising the possibility that unique features of the organization affect these findings,

though the control for company never resulted in a significant effect across outcomes. Future research is encouraged to replicate the results found in this dissertation, as well as further investigate the mediating roles of both employee engagement and coworker interactions for the authenticity—employee effectiveness relationship. Meta-analytic evidence strongly supports the existence of these relationships (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Christian et al., 2011), so the lack of relationships found in this dissertation are likely to be sample-specific. It could be that the contexts were not as highly interdependent as was initially portrayed by the key contact at each company. It is also possible that both organizations have strong climates that minimize the variability of both engagement and interpersonal interactions.

Additionally, it is possible that there are unmeasured moderators for the second stage of the theoretical model, as depicted in Figure 1. In regards to employee engagement, a subset of these employees may be highly engaged in their role, but lack the appropriate skills or abilities to actually perform at a high enough level to be perceived as effective by their supervisor. A similar pattern may be evident with coworker instrumental support. By receiving certain types of helping behavior, employees could be signaling to supervisors that they don't have the appropriate skills or abilities accomplish their job tasks independently. Finally, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) suggest that the intensity of negative coworker interactions play an important role when it comes to affecting employee performance. It may be the case that the uncivil behaviors measured in this study didn't occur at the intensity or frequency needed to significant impact employee performance, as evident in the descriptive statistics for this construct (Mean = .96, SD = 1.10, on a 0-6 frequency scale). These moderators should be

considered in future empirical studies that hope to find relationships between both engagement and coworker interactions and indicators of employee effectiveness.

Another study limitation is that although I was able to obtain evaluations of employee effectiveness from a different source (the supervisor), the independent variables, mediators, and controls were all obtained from the same source. Thus, the findings concerning the proximate outcomes of authenticity (i.e. its strong positive associations with employee engagement and coworker instrumental support), should be interpreted with caution. I attempted to reduce the likelihood of obtaining spurious or inflated relationship by measuring these variables at separate times, two weeks apart (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Future studies may consider surveying coworkers to obtain measures of “given” instrumental support and “given” incivility to integrate a third source of data into the model. Additionally, future studies could consider other indicators of coworker relationship quality (e.g., coworker trust or coworker exchange relationship) to account for the possibility that the frequency of received coworker behaviors was an imperfect proxy for a more construct valid coworker relationship quality construct (Colquitt, Baer, Long, Halvorsen-Ganepola, in press). It is possible that by obtaining an assessment of coworker relationship quality from a coworker, the results will more closely align with the employee effectiveness ratings provided by the supervisor. This is due to the fact that individuals high on socially undesirable traits, like narcissism, may be inclined to report that they have high-quality relationships with their coworkers, when in reality, coworkers actually avoid, or exclude those individuals from daily work tasks. It would also be theoretically relevant to obtain other-reports of the independent variables included in this study. Given that the most

costly effect found in this study was based on perceptions of the supervisor, it could be that, at least for certain socially undesirable traits, this process occurs mostly in the eyes of another (Long, 2013). By measuring perceived authenticity and perceived narcissism, as well as the self-reported items included herein, it may be possible to gain a more nuanced understanding of how these damaging effects unfold.

Practical Implications

The key finding from this dissertation is that not all authentic self-expression is treated equally. Individuals with socially undesirable personality traits, like low self-esteem and narcissism, do not get the same benefits from expressing their “true selves”, as others in their organizations. And for narcissists in particular, being authentic appears to actually damage their supervisors’ evaluations of their effectiveness, both in terms of their task performance and their more general value to the company. Knowing this information could potentially deter certain types of individuals from always just defaulting to saying or doing whatever feels natural.

These findings also have implications for organizations more generally. Based on the findings described above, caution is strongly encouraged when attempting to implement department- or organization-wide authenticity initiatives. The positive and negative impact of encouraging everyone to “just be yourself” will undoubtedly vary as a function of the personalities contained within the group. Instead, it will be important to emphasize a balance between authentic self-expression and the desire to maintain an environment that respectfully deals with differences in opinions. People should never be permitted to use the excuse, “that is just who I am,” in justifying antagonistic, abusive, or otherwise destructive behaviors.

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APPENDIX A
SURVEY ITEMS AND INSTRUCTIONS

SURVEY 1

Authenticity

Below are several statements that may or may not describe you and how you have behaved and felt at work, **over the past 4 weeks**. Using the scale below, *please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statement*. (1– Strongly Disagree, 7 – Strongly Agree)

1. My daily behaviors at work reflect “the real me”
2. At work, I behave the way I genuinely feel
3. At work, I feel free to express myself to others
4. In this job, I feel authentic
5. In this job, I can be who I really am
6. In this job, I don't feel I need to hide who I really am

Below are several statements that may or may not describe yourself and what you believe. *Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statement*. (1– Strongly Disagree, 7 – Strongly Agree)

Narcissism

1. People see me as a natural leader
2. I hate being the center of attention
3. Many group activities tend to be dull without me
4. I know that I am special because everyone keeps telling me so
5. I like to get acquainted with important people
6. I feel embarrassed if someone compliments me
7. I have been compared to famous people
8. I am an average person
9. I insist on getting the respect I deserve

Self-esteem

1. On the whole I am satisfied with myself.
2. At times I think that I am no good at all.
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I certainly feel useless at times.
7. I feel that I am person of worth, at least on an equal basis of others.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Social Dominance Orientation

1. In life, some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups.
2. In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force over other groups.
3. It's OK if some groups of people have more of a chance in life than others.
4. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.
5. If certain social groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems.
6. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.
7. Inferior groups should stay in their place.
8. Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.

Authentic Leadership

The following questions ask about your direct supervisor or manager.

My direct supervisor ... (1– Strongly Disagree, 7 – Strongly Agree)

specific items excluded due to copyright

SURVEY 2 (distributed 2 weeks after the collection of the Survey 1 concluded)

Coworker Instrumental Support

The first section of this survey asks questions specifically about how you have interacted with your coworkers over approximately the past two weeks.

To answer these questions, you should think about those individuals that you interact with most often. When we say coworkers, we mean people that are of a similar level to you in the organization. Additionally, coworkers do not necessarily have to work in the same department as you. Your direct supervisor should NOT be considered a coworker.

In the last two weeks, how often did your coworkers (0-Never; 6-More than once a day)

1. Take time to listen to your problems and worries?
2. Help you, even if it cost them in terms of their own productivity?
3. Take a personal interest in you and your life?
4. Pass along on new work-related information to you when they thought it would be useful?
5. Do extra things that they wouldn't technically be rewarded for, but made the relationship between you better?
6. Try to take your needs into account when they made work-related decisions that could affect you?
7. Try to make your life easier by being particularly careful and conscientious in completing their own work task?
8. Help you with difficult assignments, even when you didn't directly ask for assistance?
9. Help you with heavy workloads even though that isn't technically part of their job?

Coworker Incivility

Next, in any typical job environment, not every interaction with coworkers is going to be so helpful or beneficial. Additionally, sometimes you have good relationships with some coworkers and more challenging relationships with others.

Keeping that in mind, please provide an assessment of any recent negative interactions you have had with your coworkers.

In the last two weeks, how often did your coworkers (0-Never; 6-More than once a day)

1. Put you down or act condescending towards you?
2. Pay little attention to what you had to say or showed little interest in your opinion?
3. Address you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?
4. Ignore or excluded you from social interactions or job-related matters?
5. Doubt your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility?
6. Make unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters?
7. Make demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?
8. Raise their voice at you?
9. In general, act rudely or unprofessional towards you?

Employee Engagement

Following are a number of statements regarding how motivated you have been at work during the past two weeks. Read each statement carefully and indicate your level of agreement.

During the past two weeks, while at work... (1– Strongly Disagree, 7 – Strongly Agree)

1. I have worked with high intensity. (PE)
2. I exerted my full effort. (PE)
3. I devoted a lot of my energy to my work tasks. (PE)
4. I have put my emotions into what I do. (EE)
5. I have been emotionally connected to my work role. (EE)
6. I have put my feelings into my job. (EE)
7. I have given my full attention to my job. (CE)
8. I have concentrated completely on my work tasks. (CE)
9. My mind has been very focused on the work that I do. (CE)

PE – Physical Engagement, EE – Emotional Engagement, CE – Cognitive Engagement

SURVEY 3 (distributed 2 weeks after the collection of the Survey 2 concluded)

Task Performance

This first set of questions is about how well each employee performs the tasks that are expected of them. Read each statement carefully. Then, indicate your level of agreement with each statement. (1– Strongly Disagree, 7 – Strongly Agree)

This employee

1. Adequately completes assigned duties.
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.
3. Effectively performs the tasks that are expected of him/her.
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.

Value to the Organization

The second set of items is about the **overall value** that each employee provides the company. Read each statement carefully. Read each statement carefully. Then, indicate your level of agreement with each statement. (1– Strongly Disagree, 7 – Strongly Agree)

This employee

1. Adds value to the company.
2. Is very useful to the company.
3. Makes the company more collaborative.
4. Is held in high regard in the company.
5. Is a “go to” employee for many things.

Promotability

This third set of questions focuses on **the future potential** of each employee. Read each statement carefully. Read each statement carefully. Then, indicate your level of agreement with each statement. (1– Strongly Disagree, 7 – Strongly Agree)

1. I believe that this employee will have a successful career.
2. If I had to select a successor for my position, it would be this subordinate.
3. I believe that this employee has high potential.
4. In my opinion, this employee has the ability to continue to advance in their chosen career path.

APPENDIX B
IRB APPROVAL

EXEMPTION GRANTED

Jeffery LePine
WPC - Management
480/965-8652
Jeff.LePine@asu.edu

Dear Jeffery LePine:

On 3/17/2014 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title:	The Bright and Dark Sides of Authenticity: Unpacking the Motivational and Relational Processes through which Authentic Self-expression Influences Employee Effectiveness
Investigator:	Jeffery LePine
IRB ID:	STUDY00000603
Funding:	None
Grant Title:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CONSENT FORMS.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • AuthenticityIRBonlineTemplate_REVISED.docx, Category: IRB Protocol; • IRB SCALES.docx, Category: IRB Protocol; • SURGICALHOSPITAL_approval.pdf, Category: Off-site authorizations (school permission, other IRB approvals, Tribal permission etc); • IRB responses.pdf, Category: Other (to reflect anything not captured above); • verbal-script[1].pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials;

The IRB determined that the protocol is considered exempt pursuant to Federal Regulations 45CFR46 (2) Tests, surveys, interviews, or observation on 3/17/2014.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator

cc: Brooke Buckman
Brooke Buckman

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Zero-Order Correlations

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>alpha</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Authenticity	5.42	1.26	.93	1.00							
2. Narcissism	4.30	.77	.70	.26**	1.00						
3. Self-esteem	6.14	.70	.82	.47**	.33**	1.00					
4. Social dominance orientation	2.70	1.09	.87	-.29**	.15	-.16	1.00				
5. Authentic leadership	5.07	1.36	.95	.68**	.25*	.35**	-.22*	1.00			
6. Employee engagement	6.05	.85	.93	.53**	.10	.21*	-.26**	.46**	1.00		
7. Physical engagement	6.27	.80	.92	.49**	.13	.21*	-.28**	.50**	.88**	1.00	
8. Cognitive engagement	6.17	.83	.91	.49**	.21*	.28**	-.24*	.45**	.87**	.82**	1.00
9. Emotional engagement	5.71	1.29	.96	.43**	-.02	.10	-.20*	.31**	.88**	.59**	.57**
10. Coworker instrumental support	3.20	1.13	.95	.58**	.21*	.25*	-.21*	.37**	.39**	.35**	.34**
11. Coworker incivility	.96	1.10	.95	-.27**	-.07	-.28**	.02	-.22*	-.12	-.08	-.11
12. Employee effectiveness	5.55	1.13	.91	.24*	.02	.17	.10	.30**	.06	.07	.11
13. Task performance	5.80	.96	.96	.20*	.04	.12	.02	.28**	-.01	.02	.05
14. Value to the organization	5.61	1.25	.94	.25*	.01	.20*	.08	.31**	.09	.07	.11
15. Promotability	5.24	1.40	.91	.22*	.02	.16	.16	.27**	.08	.10	.12
16. Gender	.74	.44	--	.00	.09	-.02	.08	.00	-.16	-.07	-.07
17. Education	.49	.50	--	.02	.20*	-.01	-.01	.03	.05	.13	.04
18. Organization tenure	51.29	76.94	--	-.08	-.21*	.15	-.04	.00	-.06	-.11	-.10
19. Company	1.16	.37	--	.20*	-.08	.17	-.20*	.17	.17	.14	.21*

Note: N = 102; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 1 continued

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
9. Emotional engagement	1.00									
10. Coworker instrumental support	.33 **	1.00								
11. Coworker incivility	-.11	-.42 **	1.00							
12. Employee effectiveness	.01	.04	.01	1.00						
13. Task performance	-.07	.08	.00	.91 **	1.00					
14. Value to the organization	.06	.06	-.03	.96 **	.85 **	1.00				
15. Promotability	.02	-.01	.05	.94 **	.75 **	.85 **	1.00			
16. Gender	-.22 *	-.06	-.20 *	.14	.14	.12	.14	1.00		
17. Education	.00	.05	.05	-.25 *	-.24 *	-.28 **	-.19	.09	1.00	
18. Organization tenure	.00	-.01	-.03	-.01	-.05	.10	-.08	-.05	-.32 **	1.00
19. Company	.11	.09	-.02	.09	.10	.10	.05	-.29 **	-.03	.20 *

Note: N = 102; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 2

Regression Analyses for Employee Engagement

Dependent Variable:	Authenticity			Employee Engagement			Employee Engagement			Employee Engagement		
	Model 0			Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β
Intercept	-0.33	(.39)		6.00	(.33)		6.07	(.34)		6.16	(.32)	
Step 1												
Company	.21	(.26)	.21	.10	(.22)	.04	.05	(.23)	.02	-.01	(.22)	.00
Gender	.17	(.21)	.17	-.26	(.18)	-.13	-.25	(.18)	-.13	-.30	(.17)	-.15
Education	-.11	(.18)	-.11	.16	(.16)	.09	.14	(.16)	.08	.17	(.15)	.10
Organization tenure	.00	(.00)	.00	.00	(.00)	.09	.00	(.00)	.06	.00	(.00)	.05
Authentic leadership	.50	(.07)	.50**	.27	(.06)	.44**	.25	(.06)	.40**	.10	(.07)	.17
Step 2												
Narcissism	.13	(.13)	.13				.03	(.11)	.03	.00	(.11)	.00
Self-esteem	.40	(.15)	.40**				.02	(.13)	.02	-.09	(.12)	-.08
Social dominance orientation	-.16	(.09)	-.16 ⁺				-.11	(.08)	-.14	-.06	(.07)	-.08
Step 3												
Authenticity										.29	(.08)	.42**
R²		.47**			.24**			.26**			.34**	
ΔR^2								.02			.08**	

Note: N = 102; ⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 3

Regression Analyses for Dimensions of Employee Engagement

	Employee Engagement (from Table 2)			Physical Engagement			Cognitive Engagement			Emotional Engagement		
	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β
Intercept	6.16	(.32)		6.25	(.30)		5.94	(.32)		6.30	(.52)	
Step 1 Control Variables												
Company	-.01	(.22)	.00	-.03	(.20)	-.01	.19	(.21)	.08	-.18	(.34)	-.05
Gender	-.30	(.17)	-.15	-.10	(.16)	-.06	-.07	(.17)	-.04	-.72	(.28)	-.25*
Education	.17	(.15)	.10	.26	(.14)	.16 ⁺	.16	(.15)	.09	.09	(.24)	.03
Organization tenure	.00	(.00)	.05	.00	(.00)	.00	.00	(.00)	-.01	.00	(.00)	.11
Authentic leadership	.10	(.07)	.17	.17	(.07)	.29*	.11	(.07)	.19	.03	(.12)	.03
Step 2 Personality Traits												
Narcissism	.00	(.11)	.00	.00	(.10)	.00	.10	(.11)	.09	-.11	(.17)	-.07
Self-esteem	-.09	(.12)	-.08	-.04	(.12)	-.04	.02	(.12)	.01	-.25	(.20)	-.14
Social dominance orientation	-.06	(.07)	-.08	-.09	(.07)	-.12	-.07	(.07)	-.10	-.03	(.12)	-.03
Step 3 Main Effect												
Authenticity	.29	(.08)	.42**	.17	(.08)	.27*	.19	(.08)	.29*	.50	(.14)	.48**
R² @ step 1 (controls)		.24*			.28**			.23**			.16	
ΔR² step 2 (traits)		.02			.02			.04			.01	
ΔR² step 3 (authenticity)		.08**			.03**			.04*			.11**	
R²@ step 3		.34**			.34**			.30**			.27**	

Note: N = 102; ⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 4

Moderated Regression Analyses for Coworker Instrumental Support

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β
Intercept	3.40	(.43)		3.28	(.42)		3.43	(.43)		3.24	(.43)	
Step 1 Control Variables												
Company	-.08	(.28)	-.02	-.09	(.28)	-.03	-.09	(.29)	-.03	-.07	(.28)	-.02
Gender	-.22	(.23)	-.09	-.18	(.22)	-.07	-.20	(.23)	-.08	-.15	(.23)	-.06
Education	.00	(.20)	.00	.06	(.19)	.03	.02	(.20)	.01	.08	(.20)	.03
Organization tenure	.00	(.00)	.04	.00	(.00)	.01	.00	(.00)	.03	.00	(.00)	.01
Authentic leadership	-.06	(.10)	-.07	-.09	(.09)	-.11	-.05	(.10)	-.07	-.10	(.10)	-.12
Step 2 Personality Traits												
Narcissism	.18	(.14)	.12	.17	(.14)	.12	.16	(.14)	.11	.17	(.14)	.12
Self-esteem	-.09	(.16)	-.05	.05	(.17)	.03	-.09	(.16)	-.06	.06	(.17)	.04
Social dominance orientation	-.05	(.10)	-.05	-.04	(.09)	-.04	-.06	(.10)	-.06	-.04	(.10)	-.03
Step 3 Main Effect												
Authenticity	.56	(.11)	.62**	.60	(.11)	.67**	.54	(.11)	.60**	.60	(.11)	.67**
Step 4 Interactions												
Authenticity X Narcissism	.09	(.08)	.09							-.02	(.10)	-.03
Authenticity X Self-esteem				.29	(.12)	.23*				.32	(.14)	.25*
Authenticity X Social dominance							.02	(.06)	.03	.04	(.06)	.06
R² @ step 1 (controls)		.14*			.14*			.14*			.14*	
ΔR^2 step 2 (traits)		.05			.05			.05			.05	
ΔR^2 step 3 (authenticity)		.17**			.17**			.17**			.17**	
ΔR^2 step 4 (interaction)		.01			.04**			.00			.04**	
R² @ step 4		.36**			.39**			.35**			.39**	

Note: N = 102; + $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 5

Moderated Regression Analyses for Coworker Incivility

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β
Intercept	1.40	(.47)		1.44	(.47)		1.26	(.47)		1.36	(.47)	
Step 1 Control Variables												
Company	-.09	(.31)	-.03	-.05	(.31)	-.02	.00	(.31)	.00	-.03	(.31)	-.01
Gender	-.54	(.25)	-.22*	-.57	(.25)	-.23*	-.52	(.25)	-.21*	-.49	(.25)	-.20 ⁺
Education	.22	(.22)	.10	.17	(.22)	.08	.22	(.22)	.10	.24	(.22)	.11
Organization tenure	.00	(.00)	-.02	.00	(.00)	.01	.00	(.00)	.01	.00	(.00)	-.01
Authentic leadership	-.08	(.10)	-.10	-.06	(.11)	-.07	-.09	(.11)	-.12	-.08	(.11)	-.10
Step 2 Personality Traits												
Narcissism	.08	(.16)	.05	.10	(.16)	.07	.13	(.16)	.09	.09	(.16)	.07
Self-esteem	-.35	(.18)	-.22 ⁺	-.43	(.19)	-.27*	-.33	(.18)	-.21 ⁺	-.37	(.19)	-.24 ⁺
Social dominance orientation	-.11	(.11)	-.11	-.09	(.11)	-.09	-.05	(.11)	-.05	-.09	(.11)	-.09
Step 3 Main Effect												
Authenticity	-.15	(.12)	-.17	-.15	(.13)	-.18	-.12	(.12)	-.13	-.17	(.13)	-.19
Step 4 Interactions												
Authenticity X Narcissism	-.15	(.09)	-.17							-.17	(.11)	-.18
Authenticity X Self-esteem				-.20	(.13)	-.16				-.07	(.15)	-.05
Authenticity X Social dominance							.07	(.06)	.12	.10	(.06)	.15
R² @ step 1 (controls)		.11*			.11*			.11*			.11*	
ΔR^2 step 2 (traits)		.05			.05			.05			.05	
ΔR^2 step 3 (authenticity)		.01			.01			.01			.01	
ΔR^2 step 4 (interaction)		.02			.02			.01			.05	
R² @ step 4		.19*			.18*			.18*			.22*	

Note: N = 102; ⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 6

Moderated Regression Analyses for Employee Effectiveness

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β
Intercept	6.30	(.45)		6.26	(.47)		6.23	(.47)		6.27	(.46)	
Step 1 Control Variables												
Supervisor ^a	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Gender	.49	(.26)	.19 ⁺	.49	(.27)	.19 ⁺	.50	(.27)	.20 ⁺	.50	(.27)	.20 ⁺
Education	.07	(.22)	.03	-.03	(.22)	-.01	-.01	(.22)	-.01	.08	(.23)	.04
Organization tenure	.00	(.00)	.05	.00	(.00)	.07	.00	(.00)	.06	.00	(.00)	.05
Authentic leadership	.19	(.09)	.23 [*]	.21	(.10)	.25 [*]	.19	(.10)	.23 ⁺	.18	(.10)	.22 ⁺
Step 2 Personality Traits												
Narcissism	-.08	(.15)	-.06	-.07	(.15)	-.05	-.07	(.15)	-.05	-.08	(.15)	-.06
Self-esteem	.07	(.16)	.04	.03	(.17)	.02	.08	(.16)	.05	.10	(.17)	.06
Social dominance orientation	.11	(.10)	.10	.14	(.11)	.13	.15	(.11)	.14	.11	(.11)	.11
Step 3 Main Effect												
Authenticity	.01	(.12)	.01	.06	(.12)	.06	.07	(.12)	.08	.01	(.12)	.02
Step 4 Interactions												
Authenticity X Narcissism	-.20	(.09)	-.21[*]							-.22	(.10)	-.24[*]
Authenticity X Self-esteem				-.10	(.12)	-.08				.05	(.14)	.04
Authenticity X Social dominance							.00	(.06)	.00	.02	(.06)	.04
R² @ step 1 (controls)		.47 ^{**}			.47 ^{**}			.47 ^{**}			.47 ^{**}	
ΔR^2 step 2 (traits)		.01			.01			.01			.01	
ΔR^2 step 3 (authenticity)		.00			.00			.00			.00	
ΔR^2 step 4 (interaction)		.03 [*]			.00			.00			.04	
R² @ step 4		.52 ^{**}			.49 ^{**}			.49 ^{**}			.52 ^{**}	

Note: N = 102; ⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

^a 15 dummy variables (for 16 supervisors) were entered to control for non-independence of supervisor ratings of employee effectiveness.

Table 7

Moderated Regression Analyses for Dimensions of Employee Effectiveness

	Employee Effectiveness (from Table 6)			Task Performance			Perceived Value to the Organization			Promotability		
	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β
Intercept	6.30	(.45)		6.21	(.37)		6.41	(.52)		6.26	(.57)	
Step 1 Control Variables												
Supervisor ^a	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Gender	.49	(.26)	.19 ⁺	.48	(.22)	.22 [*]	.52	(.30)	.18 ⁺	.47	(.34)	.15
Education	.07	(.22)	.03	.08	(.18)	.04	-.12	(.25)	-.05	.24	(.28)	.09
Organization tenure	.00	(.00)	.05	.00	(.00)	.11	.00	(.00)	.12	.00	(.00)	-.05
Authentic leadership	.19	(.09)	.23 [*]	.14	(.08)	.20 ⁺	.23	(.11)	.26 [*]	.20	(.12)	.19
Step 2 Personality Traits												
Narcissism	-.08	(.15)	-.06	-.01	(.12)	.00	-.12	(.17)	-.07	-.12	(.19)	-.07
Self-esteem	.07	(.16)	.04	-.04	(.13)	-.03	.11	(.18)	.06	.14	(.20)	.07
Social dominance orientation	.11	(.10)	.10	.01	(.09)	.01	.12	(.12)	.11	.18	(.13)	.14
Step 3 Main Effect												
Authenticity	.01	(.12)	.01	-.04	(.10)	-.05	-.02	(.13)	-.02	.09	(.15)	.08
Step 4 Interactions												
Authenticity X Narcissism	-.20	(.09)	-.21[*]	-.18	(.07)	-.22[*]	-.26	(.10)	-.25[*]	-.16	(.11)	-.14
R² @ step 1 (controls)			.47 ^{**}			.51 ^{**}			.42 ^{**}			.45 ^{**}
ΔR^2 step 2 (traits)			.01			.00			.02			.02
ΔR^2 step 3 (authenticity)			.00			.00			.00			.01
ΔR^2 step 4 (interaction)			.03 [*]			.04 [*]			.05 [*]			.01
R² @ step 4			.52 ^{**}			.55 ^{**}			.49 ^{**}			.49 ^{**}

Note: N = 102; ⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

^a15 dummy variables (for 16 supervisors) were entered to control for non-independence of supervisor ratings of employee effectiveness.

Table 8

Mediation Regression Analyses for Employee Effectiveness

	Employee Effectiveness Model 1			Employee Effectiveness Model 2		
	B	(SE)	β	B	(SE)	β
Intercept	6.23	(.46)		6.97	(1.11)	
Step 1 Control Variables						
Supervisor ^a	--	--	--	--	--	--
Gender	.50	(.27)	.20 ⁺	.52	(.28)	.20 ⁺
Education	-.01	(.22)	-.01	.01	(.22)	.00
Organization Tenure	.00	(.00)	.06	.00	(.00)	.08
Authentic leadership	.19	(.10)	.23 [*]	.23	(.10)	.28 [*]
Step 2 Personality Traits						
Narcissism	-.07	(.15)	-.05	-.08	(.15)	-.06
Self-esteem	.08	(.16)	.05	.12	(.17)	.07
Social dominance orientation	.15	(.10)	.14	.16	(.11)	.15
Step 3 Main Effect						
Authenticity	.07	(.12)	.08	.13	(.13)	.14
Step 4 Mediators						
Employee engagement				-.13	(.14)	-.10
Coworker instrumental support				-.02	(.12)	-.02
Coworker incivility				.16	(.11)	.15
R² @ step 1 (controls)		.47 ^{**}			.47 ^{**}	
ΔR^2 step 2 (traits)		.01			.01	
ΔR^2 step 3 (authenticity)		.00			.00	
ΔR^2 step 4 (mediators)					.03	
R² @ step 4		.49 ^{**}			.51 ^{**}	

Note: N = 102; ⁺ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

^a15 dummy variables (for 16 supervisors) were entered to control for non-independence of supervisor ratings of employee effectiveness.

Figure 1

A Summary of Hypotheses

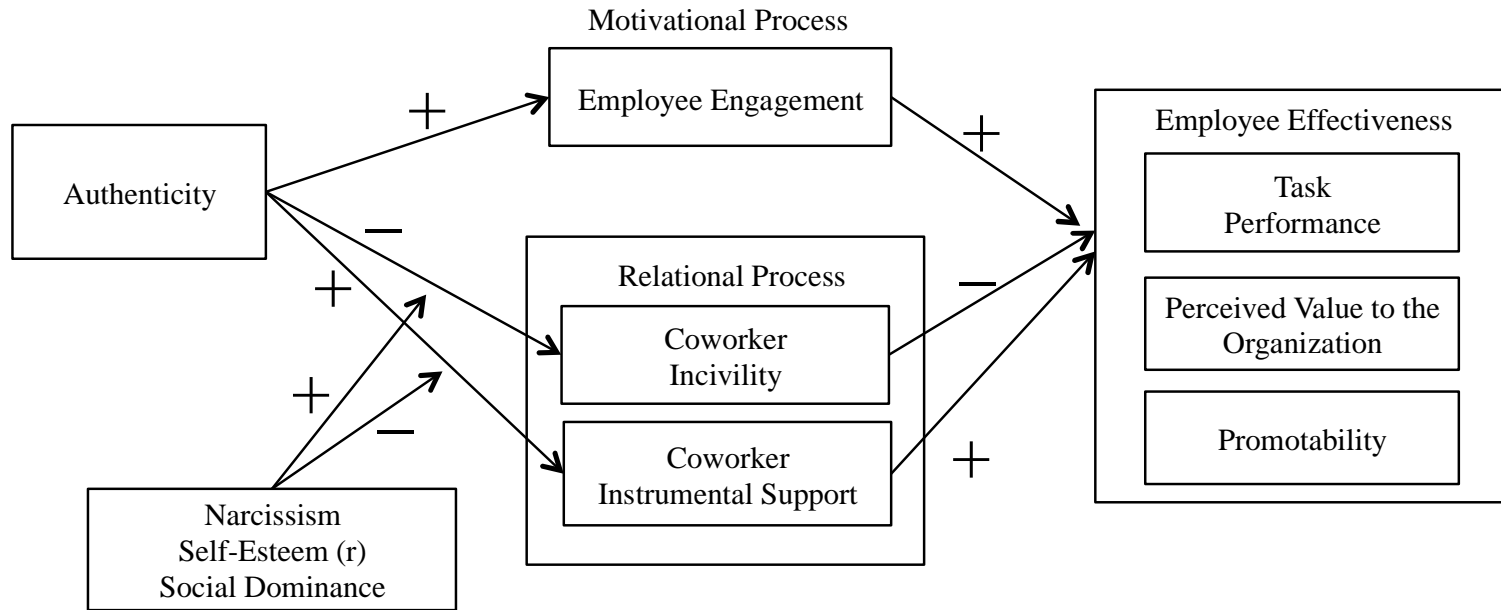


Figure 2

Authenticity x Self-Esteem Interaction on Coworker Instrumental Support

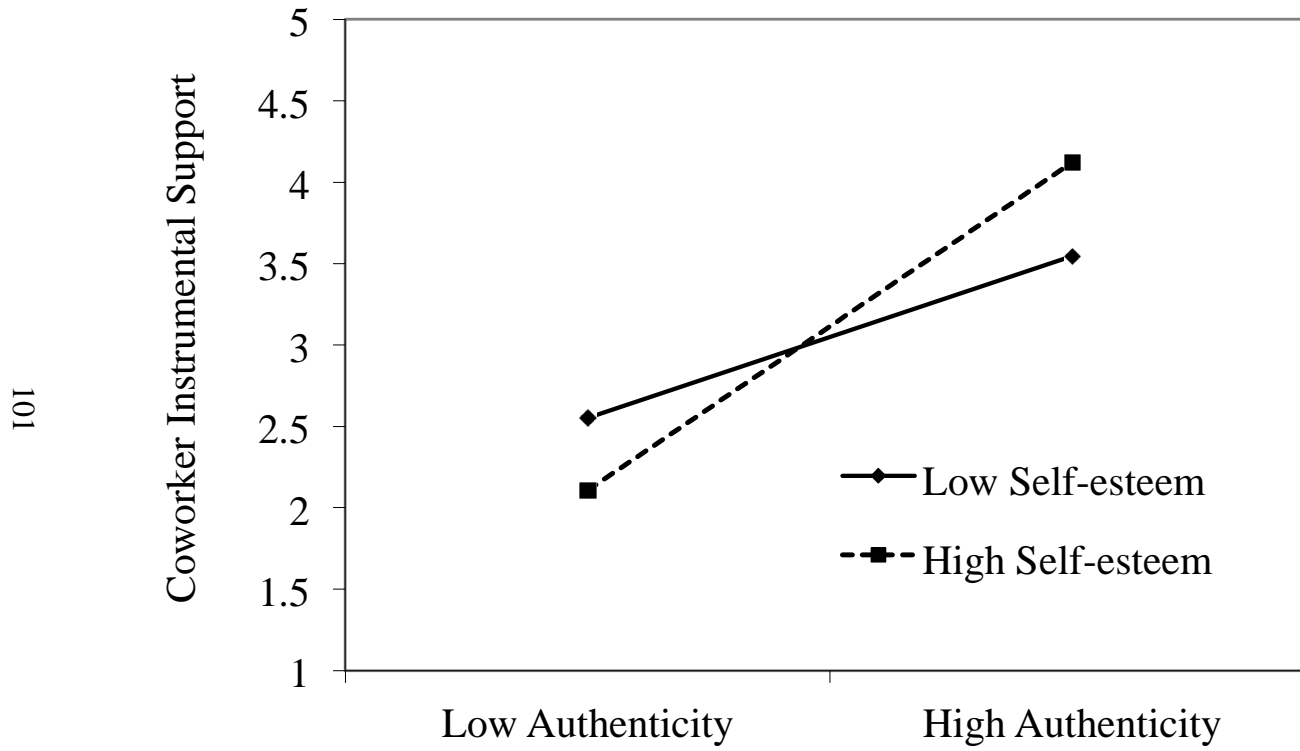


Figure 3

Authenticity x Narcissism Interaction on Employee Effectiveness

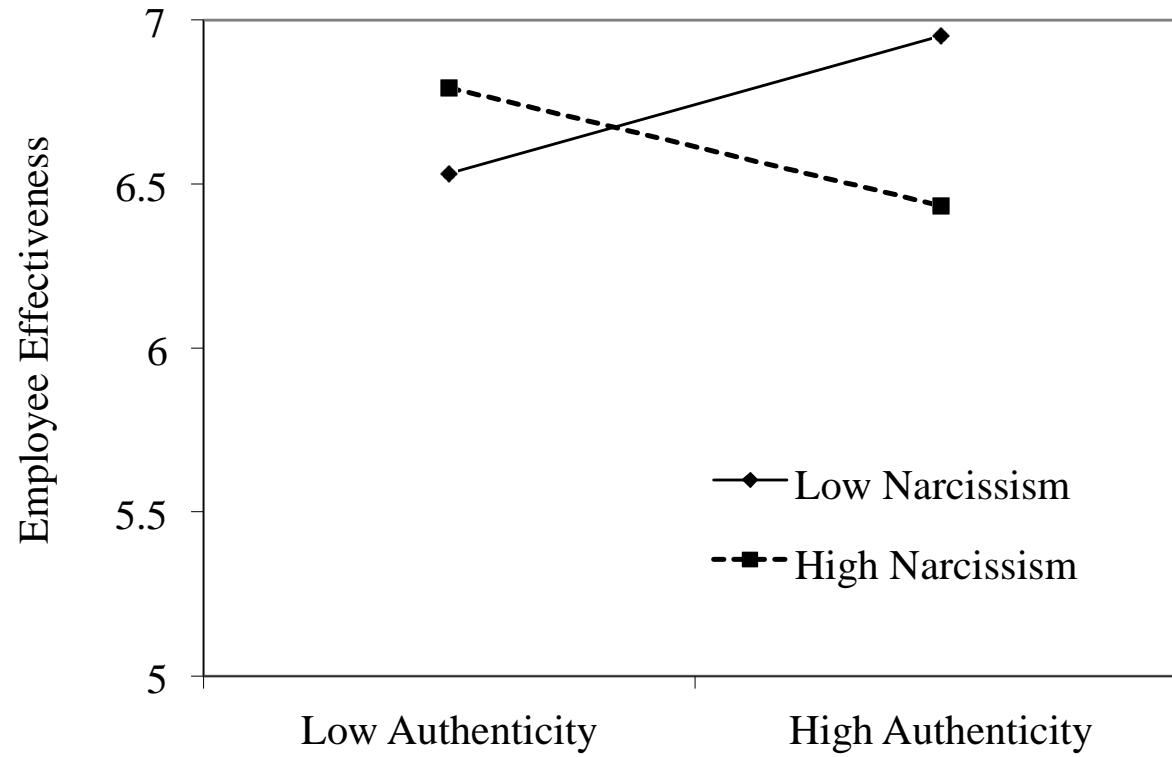


Figure 4

Authenticity x Narcissism Interactions on Dimensions of Employee Effectiveness

