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12-2020

Communion, Agency, and Authenticity: How Gendered Expectations Influence Trust in Leaders

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How Gendered Expectations Influence Trust in Leaders

by
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A dissertation submitted to the School of Psychology
Florida Institute of Technology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Melbourne, Florida
December 2020

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How Gendered Expectations Influence Trust in Leaders,"
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Abstract

Communion, Agency, and Authenticity: How Gendered Expectations Influence Trust in Leaders

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While there are a great many benefits to increasing female numbers in leadership positions, organizations still struggle to find a place for women leaders. More research is required to examine leader skills and mechanisms through which they operate in order to facilitate women's empowerment. The purpose of the current study was to examine leadership skills (political skill), behaviors (impression management and emotion management) and their outcomes (authentic leadership and trust in leader) in the context of gender. This study examined interpersonal emotion management as an increasingly important construct for leadership and social influence, incorporating it as an outcome of political skill and as an equally important set of behaviors as impression management. I also examined the outcome of trust in leader, which is argued to be influenced by a leader's behaviors and the resulting follower perceptions. Finally, using role congruity theory, I argued that the relationship between leader behaviors and follower perceptions of authentic leadership was moderated by gender. This research presents several novel findings regarding leader-follower relationships. The hypothesis testing as well as supplementary SEM analyses offer support for positive relationships between

followers' perceptions of leader political skill, their perceptions of leader interpersonal emotion management behaviors, perceived authentic leadership, and trust in leader. In addition, there appears to be a moderating effect of leader gender on the relationship between interpersonal emotion management behaviors and perceived authentic leadership such that followers appear to hold certain expectations of female leaders regarding interpersonal emotion management behaviors: these results suggest that female leaders are viewed as authentic when IEM behaviors are high, no matter their selection of communal versus agentic; however, when female leaders engage in low levels of IEM behaviors, they are perceived as even less authentic than male leaders with the same level of IEM behaviors. The current study has several contributions, including the examination of understudied outcomes, the effects of specific leader behaviors, and followers as an important component of leadership theories. Lastly, this study hopes to answer recent calls for research on facilitators and barriers to female leadership empowerment (Lyness & Grotto, 2018).

Keywords: gender, leadership, authentic leadership, trust

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Acknowledgement

I would like to extend my utmost gratitude to my committee members: my committee chair Dr. Lisa Steelman, Dr. Jessica Wildman, Dr. Alice Che, and Dr. Meredith Carroll. Thank you all so much for your patience and flexibility throughout this process. You all have challenged me, encouraged me, guided me, and taught me, and I owe you each a great deal of thanks for helping me reach the achievement of a lifetime.

For the people in my community at Florida Tech and beyond: I could not have achieved this without the support of my wonderful friends, classmates, colleagues, and cheerleaders. Thank you all for the encouragement and enthusiasm.

Finally, to my family: thank you for your unconditional love and support. As I neared the end of this project, there were times when I was completely overwhelmed and ready to fall apart, but you all believed in me and lifted me up. Your kind words always helped me to refocus and remember why I chose this path. You all inspire me to do more and be more every day, and I love you so much.

Chapter 1: Introduction

In a broad summary of the research on women in the workplace, Lyness and Grotto (2018) point out that we still have had limited success in closing the leadership gender gap in the U.S. This can be partially attributed to our limited understanding of how facilitators of female leader empowerment operate at various organizational levels, have influence in different directions (top-down and bottom-up), and contend with societal and organizational barriers. Additionally, female leaders are often perceived as lacking authority, power, or legitimacy in comparison to male leaders; therefore, they lack empowerment needed for true gender parity in leadership (Lyness & Grotto, 2018).

In contrast, much of the existing research demonstrates the benefits of having female leaders in organizations and the benefits of "feminine styles" of leadership, which stems from theoretical and empirical evidence that men and women have qualitatively different approaches to leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Rosette & Tost, 2010; Valerio, 2009). For instance, Eagly et al.'s (2003) meta-analysis demonstrated that women are more likely than men to use transformational leadership behaviors, which are considered more effective than styles used by men, such as laissez-faire leadership (e.g., Judge & Piccolo 2004).

To improve our understanding of leadership differences between men and women, more research is needed to examine leader skills and mechanisms through which they operate. One such skill that may manifest itself differently between men and women in the workplace is political skill. Though some research has shown that

men and women do not differ in political skill at its dimensional level (Treadway et al., 2013), there are many questions about political skill and gender that remain unanswered. For instance, research has shown that men and women engage in impression management tactics differently, which is an outcome of political skill (Bolino, Long, & Turnley, 2016). Understanding the mechanisms and the outcomes of these differences will move us closer to closing the gender leadership gap.

The purpose of this study is threefold. First, I seek to examine the impact of political skill, impression management, and emotion management on follower perceptions of leader authenticity and follower feelings of trust toward their leader. This study will answer calls for more clarification on the predictors of trust in such a hierarchical relationship. Second, I seek to examine the effects of gender on the manifestation of these social influence constructs. There are natural and learned differences between men and women in terms of social influence behaviors, which means that political skill, impression management, and interpersonal emotion management may be distinct along communal and agentic lines. These social influence constructs can impact how a leader is perceived by his or her followers. Therefore, the relationship between impression and emotion management tactics and trust in leader may differ for men and women leaders. A better understanding of social influence processes could lead to empowerment of female leaders, giving them the psychological resources to shatter through glass ceilings and escalators, navigate the labyrinth, and dissolve the double bind. Finally, I seek to understand how authenticity from two perspectives--the leader's felt authenticity and follower's

perceptions of a leader's authenticity--affects the relationships between political skill

and impression management and emotion management behaviors as well as the

relationship between the leader behaviors and a follower's feelings of trust.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The Complex Concept of Leadership

Bass and Bass (2008) claimed that, "Leadership makes the difference" (pg. 1). It is an inescapable truth that leadership permeates daily life and shapes human history and culture. Great leaders are the subjects of mythology, art, literature, history, and scientific inquiry. Leadership is a universal phenomenon (Bass & Bass, 2008), and as such, socio-psychological research on leadership has proliferated in the last century (Lord et al., 2017). The following section addresses several topics. First, I discuss the concept of leadership and the importance of distinguishing it from its outcomes. Second, I describe theories of leadership, taking a historical view on the progression of leadership research from Trait Theories to Behavioral Theories to Leadership Styles. Third, I discuss newer follower-centric theories of leadership.

Leadership is a difficult construct to define. There has been no true agreement on a universal definition of leadership, but at the individual level it can be defined as effective, goal-directed guidance of a group of people to achieve organizational goals (Day et al., 2014; Lacey & Groves, 2014; Lussier & Achua, 2013). Generally speaking, a leader is an individual who influences and directs the actions of others (Valerio, 2009). Leaders are expected to possess, and are often selected based upon, certain characteristics, skills, and abilities. For instance, cognitive ability and problem-solving ability are often connected to job performance success at varying levels of the organization. In addition to these traits, leadership requires skills such as interpersonal skills, decision-making skills, communication skills, and technical

skills (Lussier & Achua, 2013; Valerio, 2009; Zacarro, 2007). In a recent article in Harvard Business Review, Giles (2016) discussed leadership competencies (sets of skills and abilities) that were connected to leader effectiveness in a study of 195 leaders. Leaders must demonstrate strong ethics, provide a sense of safety, communicate expectations clearly, foster a sense of connection and belonging, be open to new ideas and opinions, and nurture growth in others.

In examining the literature on leadership, there are many terms that describe various components of the phenomenon. Leadership emergence describes when leadership is attempted and when this attempt is recognized by others (Amagoh, 2009; Bass, 2008). Emergence is dependent upon whether individuals become leaders by either occupying formal leadership roles or informally arising as a leader through categorization processes of those around them (Meindl, 1995; Melwani et al., 2012; Offerman et al., 1994). Leadership emergence is important to evaluate in the absence of an assigned leader. Informal leader emergence occurs "through a complex process of role taking and peer perceptual processes that determine who becomes leaders" (Neubert & Taggar, 2004, p. 176).

While leader emergence is an important phenomenon worthy of close examination, this study focuses more on leadership effectiveness as I am interested in formally recognized leaders. Leader effectiveness is the degree to which an individual can influence the behaviors of others or whether they achieve the desired outcomes (Lewis, 2000; Meindl, 1995). This centers on a leader's success in influencing people to achieve the goals of the organization and is highly related to

the leader's job performance. According to Bass (2008), all leaders attempt to change others' behaviors, but effective leadership is when a leader actually causes a change in others' behaviors. Research on leadership effectiveness demonstrates important implications at the individual (e.g., subordinate), team, and organizational levels (Popa, 2012). For example, at the individual level, effective leadership through mentoring, coaching, and feedback may influence individual job performance. Effective leadership often requires conflict resolution and guidance on tasks, and is therefore positively related to productivity at both the unit and organizational levels (Amagoh, 2009; Bass, 2008; Popa, 2012; Silzer & Dowell, 2010; Valerio, 2009).

Theories of Leadership Effectiveness

Theories of leadership effectiveness are largely focused on predicting a leaders' success, with antecedents such as traits, skills, attitudes about leaders, behavioral tendencies, leadership style, or context (Valerio, 2009). In the section that follows, I will discuss the progressive development of leadership theory in several waves, highlighting early trait theories, behavioral theories, contingency theories, leadership "styles", social exchange, and follower-centric theories.

Trait and Behavioral Theories

When we talk about predictors of leadership, we are typically referring to trait theories, which focus on individual differences as predictors of leadership emergence and effectiveness (Zaccaro, 2007). This body of literature lay the foundation for leadership research and continues to make strides today to understand what it takes to become a leader (Bass & Bass, 2008; Lord et al., 2017). Stemming from intelligence testing for the Army during the World Wars, trait theories focus on

personality and intelligence as key predictors of leadership. As a foundation for these trait theories, there is some evidence to suggest that leadership role occupancy is predicted by genetics (Arvey et al., 2007). In fact, Arvey et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis demonstrated that leadership could be described as about 30% heritable, leaving 70% to be predicted by environmental factors. Related to this is research on intelligence as a predictor of leadership. Intelligence is largely a heritable and stable individual difference. It has been shown to predict leadership effectiveness and leadership emergence (Judge et al., 2004). According to Ones, Dilchert, and Viswesvaran (2012), cognitive ability is linked to leadership in two ways. First, individuals in leadership positions who are higher on cognitive ability might be more likely to perform behaviors associated with effective leadership. Second, intelligent individuals may simply appear more leader-like due to perceptions that intelligence is an exemplary characteristic of leaders.

There has also been a lot of research dedicated to understanding what personality characteristics contribute to leader emergence. Personality is discussed as one of the heritable traits that determines leadership, and it has been shown to be relatively stable over time (Roberts et al., 2006). Meta-analytic results suggest that leadership has a high correlation with the Five-Factor Model of personality ($r = .48$; Judge et al., 2002). More specifically, traits such as conscientiousness and extraversion are correlated with leadership at about $r = .20$ to .30, while agreeableness has a much weaker relationship with leadership, with $r = .08$. Newer research in predictors of leadership goes beyond the Five-Factor model of

personality, examining additional traits that predict leadership emergence and effectiveness, such as core self-evaluations, self-efficacy, and integrity (Bono, Shen, & Yoon, 2014; Judge, 2000).

In the 1940s, the traditional trait approach to understanding leadership began to see some resistance - many started to speculate that leadership was bound to the situation (Lord et al., 2017). This indicated a shift from trait to behavioral approaches. Behavioral theories are distinct from the trait theories in that they posit specific behaviors are drivers of emergence and effectiveness in leadership. Contingency theories take into account the role of the situation and sometimes the characteristics of the followers in determining leadership behaviors that are appropriate (Vroom & Jago, 2007).

At the outset of this wave of leadership theories, advancements in methodologies for studying leadership included observational studies - watching a group execute a task, identifying specific leadership behaviors, and judging their effectiveness. The observation of leadership behaviors led to the development of leader behavior scales (Lord et al., 2017). Research during the latter half of the 20th century also focused on leadership behavior and follower attitudes.

DeRue et al. (2011) synthesized the two perspectives of trait and behavioral theories of leadership. In their integrative trait-behavioral theory, they posited that individual differences or traits enacted leadership emergence through the occurrence of certain behaviors. In other words, individual differences determine behaviors, which then impact perceptions of leadership emergence. Their meta-analysis

revealed that an integrative approach to the trait and behavioral theories explained about 30% in the variance of leader emergence. More recently, however, Bono et al. (2014) called for the advancement of the trait approaches through more exploration of curvilinear relationships and latent profiles of leadership.

Leadership Styles

From the behavioral theories of leadership emerged another trend in leadership research: leadership styles. Research on leadership styles attempts to build on the behavioral theories by exploring patterns of leadership behaviors, which are driven by personality, values, observations of other leaders, organizational values and goals, and the given context (Valerio, 2009). Leadership style research has been criticized as "pop" psychology. Its popularity and wide use in management settings has outpaced empirical and theoretical development. Certain conceptualizations and operationalizations of leadership style constructs are also criticized because of significant overlap or redundancy between them (Salicru, 2018).

Leadership styles have become quite popular in practical settings, which has led to the labeling of many different styles of leadership, such as directive, participative, visionary, affiliative, pacesetting, and coaching leadership, which leaders use to motivate, reward, direct, and develop others (Spreier, Fontaine, & Malloy, 2006; Valerio, 2009). Other leadership styles have also been studied, such as charismatic leadership, servant leadership, ethical leadership, laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership (Jex & Britt, 2008; Kendrick, 2011; Lussier & Achua, 2013; Valerio, 2009). A person's particular leadership style is posited to affect the decisions leaders make every day (Heim,

Hughes, & Golant, 2015). Furthermore, particular leadership styles have been shown to be effective in improving performance at the individual, team, and organizational levels (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). This section discusses several leadership styles that have been proposed: transactional, transformational, charismatic, ethical, servant, and authentic leadership. From all of this nomenclature it is clear that successful leaders can demonstrate a wide variety of leadership behaviors and most leaders utilize a combination of these styles to influence those around them.

Transactional leadership is often likened to the "traditional" approach to leadership. This style focuses on the exchange of resources between leaders and followers. First proposed in the late 1980s, three dimensions have been proposed for transactional leadership. In *contingent reward leadership*, the leader clarifies expectations and establishes rewards for meeting them. ; Leaders who demonstrate *management by exception-active* may monitor follower behavior, anticipate problems, and correct behaviors before real difficulties arise; on the other hand, leaders who prefer *management by exception-passive* may wait until behaviors have created problems before taking action to correct them (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

The most popular and most heavily-researched style of leadership is transformational leadership (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017; Yukl, 2012). Transformational leadership is a leadership construct that describes how leaders influence and inspire others to make sacrifices, commit to difficult objectives, and increase performance levels (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017). It is characterized by

the "four I's": idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration. Transformational leaders are able to communicate a vision to work toward, inspire followers to look at things from a different perspective, put group needs before individual needs, and facilitate meaningful change in organizations (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Jex & Britt, 2008). Interestingly, transactional and transformational leadership have often been compared in terms of their effectiveness. Some have even gone so far as to place them on opposite ends of a single continuum. However, more recent theories suggest that transformational leadership adds to the effect of transactional leadership and that transformational leadership must be derived from transactional (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Charismatic leadership is a style of leadership in which leaders influence through inspirational and dynamic communication (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). It is often characterized in terms of its outcomes: charismatic leadership can cause followers to feel enthusiastic and positive emotions, trust and confidence in leader, a common identity with leader, and commitment to leader's goals (Erez et al., 2008; Fuller et al., 1996; Haslam & Platow, 2002). But charisma itself is defined as the ability to exercise diffuse and intense influence over the beliefs, values, behaviors, and performance of others through his or her own behavior, beliefs, and personal example (Fuller et al., 1996). Inspirational motivation is also discussed in parallel with charisma, thus charisma is considered by some to be one aspect of the transformational leadership style (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Other research has examined ethical and servant leadership. Ethical leadership is a leadership style demonstrating an ethical model, treating people fairly, and actively managing morality (Mayer et al. 2012). Servant leadership is when a leader is focused on providing tangible and emotional support to followers and assisting followers in reaching their goals (Liden et al., 2014). While these leadership constructs have received less attention, they, too, signal a shift in interest from transactional, task-focused forms of leadership to more person- and relationship-focused forms.

Authentic Leadership

The final construct from leadership "style" research is authentic leadership. Research on authentic leadership emerged in the early 2000s. Authenticity, a construct rooted in social psychology, is defined as "owning one's personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, preferences, or beliefs, processes captured by the injunction to know one-self" and behaving in accordance with the true self (Harter, 2002, p. 382). Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliousis, and Joseph (2008) described authenticity as a stable personality dimension consisting of three sub-dimensions: authentic living, self-alienation, and accepting external influences. Self-alienation is the subjective experience of not knowing who one is. Authentic living is the degree to which individuals are true to themselves in most situations and live in accordance with their own values and beliefs. Accepting external influence is the extent to which an individual accepts the influence of others and the belief that one has to conform to the expectations of others. Van den Bosch and Taris (2014) argued that examining authenticity as a state, rather than a stable personality trait, might

prove to be more accurate, as feelings of authenticity (especially self-alienation and external influence) might be greatly influenced by the social environment. The work by these authors also allows for a deeper understanding of individual authenticity in the workplace.

Avolio, Gardner, and Walumbwa (e.g., Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008) based their authentic leadership construct on the traditional definition of authenticity, that "individuals who are 'in tune' with their basic nature and clearly and accurately see themselves and their lives" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). They later obtained empirical support for four dimensions: self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009). Authentic leaders are self-aware in that they work to understand their own strengths and weaknesses. Relational transparency means that an authentic leader presents his or her true self to others and displays high levels of openness, self-disclosure, and trust. Authentic leaders also have an internalized moral perspective, which means that they are able to self-regulate according to internal values and standards. Finally, authentic leaders have balanced processing, or the ability to make accurate self-assessments and social comparisons. According to Salicru (2018), this approach to leadership poses that a leader's legitimacy is based on ethics and honest relationships with others. By mitigating the effects of leader mental depletion, authentic leadership reduces leaders' stress and increases their work engagement (Weiss, Razinskas, Backmann, & Hoegl, 2018).

Follower-Centric Theories of Leadership

Previous research on leadership has only focused on one half of the equation. According to Meindl (1995), much of the existing research on leadership neglects the role of followers. The author's discussion on the "romance of leadership" seeks to address the lack of empirical and theoretical work in this area. Social constructionist approaches to leadership posit that the relationship between leaders and followers is constructed from and heavily influenced by inter-follower factors and relationships; the behavioral linkages between the leader and follower are seen as a derivative of the constructions made by followers (Meindl, 1995). In other words, it is important to consider followers because without them leadership would not exist, that they allow themselves to be led, and that leader influence is largely based on the social information that is exchanged among leaders and followers (Vugt et al., 2008). More recent research has attempted to address this gap. There are two theories relevant to the current study that address the role of followers in leadership theories: implicit leadership theories and leader-member exchange theory.

Implicit Leadership Theories

Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) describe the notion that individuals have internal or implicit ideas of what leaders, good or effective leaders, and non-leaders are like. This is reflected in the categorization processes that occur when individual organizational members observe and evaluate the behaviors and characteristics of other individuals. We categorize others as leaders or non-leaders based on their similarity to our prototypical or schematic construction of a leader. Implicit

leadership theories of emergence place the followers as a central component of the leadership phenomenon known as emergence (Melwani et al., 2012; Offerman et al., 1994). For instance, subordinates may have a prototype of a leader in their schemas who is intelligent and socially astute or outgoing. When they encounter a person who fits this prototype, they are likely to categorize this person as a leader. The notion of implicit leadership theories has informed much of our research today, especially in the measurement of leadership. More specifically, this approach has informed the typical leadership study in which leaders are often assessed by measuring subordinate perceptions (Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2007).

Implicit leadership theories have been empirically supported by research. Offerman et al. (1994) attempted to capture this idea of emergence through implicit leadership theories. In his study, participants were asked to list characteristics or traits of three categories of leaders (manager, leader, effective leader), which were later on sorted into 8 dimensions. This research revealed that many people have pre-existing cognitive categories of what leadership looks like, which influences whether or not the target is seen as a leader or an effective leader. For example, expression of emotions can be a signal as to who is a leader and who is not (Melwani et al., 2012). Finally, leader emergence has been shown to occur in teams that do not have a formally identified leader, where individuals begin to interact and some display characteristics or behaviors that are more closely in line with others' cognitive prototype of a leader. Thus, an individual within a leaderless group can become a leader via implicit theories and emergence (Bedwell et al., 2010).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Another theory that emphasizes the role of followers is called leader-member exchange theory. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory posits that a leader develops a unique relationship with each of his or her followers. Those who study LMX theory discuss the relationships between leaders and followers in terms of their quality—the dyadic relationships between a leader and his or her followers can range from high-quality relationships that include some level of socio-emotional support to low-quality relationships that are more transactional and simply based on an exchange of job-related resources (Wayne, Liden, & Raymond, 1994). This theory is derived from the broader area of role theories, which describe roles as socially constructed and based on the expectations of other individuals. In an LMX leader-follower dyad, both the leader and the follower communicate information about their expectations of the other person.

There is growing evidence that supports LMX theory. Wayne et al. (1994) took a social exchange perspective approach; they demonstrated a relationship between perceived organizational support and LMX quality. Additionally, Murphy and Ensher (1999) demonstrated that LMX quality can result from similarity or dissimilarity between leader and follower—they found that subordinates and leaders who were more similar in terms of personal characteristics were more likely to have high-quality, socio-emotional relationships. More recently, LMX theory has been extended to explore the agreement between the leader and the follower on the quality of the relationship rather than the quality of the relationship alone (Matta et al., 2015).

In fact, Matta et al. (2015) recently demonstrated that this agreement impacts work engagement and OCBs. When the agreement between the leader and the follower on the quality of LMX was high, this led to higher work engagement and more citizenship behaviors, but when this agreement was low (e.g., the leader perceived high quality LMX, while the follower perceived it as low quality), this negatively impacted employee engagement and citizenship behaviors.

Further, Gottfredson and Aguinis (2017) found that leader-member exchange is a mediating mechanism between leadership behaviors and follower performance. Using a blended inductive-deductive research design, Gottfredson and Aguinis discuss the theoretical linkages between leadership behaviors, such as consideration and transformational leadership, LMX, and follower performance outcomes.

Outcomes of Leadership

Leadership is critical to organizational success (Bass & Bass, 2008). The selection and development of leaders or future leaders is critical to organizations' efficiency and survival (Amagoh, 2009). Empirical research shows that managers influence individual-level, group-level, and organizational outcomes. At the individual level, a leader can provide social or emotional support and mentoring or development, which in turn leads to improvements in employee attitudes and job performance. Leaders of groups and teams must engage in conflict management and resolution, which would otherwise inhibit team cohesion and performance. (Bass, 2008). Finally, there is a demonstrated positive relationship between leadership

effectiveness and organizational productivity (Amagoh, 2009; Bass, 2008; Popa, 2012; Silzer & Dowell, 2010; Valerio, 2009).

Generally, a leader's effectiveness is measured objectively using a variety of metrics, such as unit profit, profit margin, sales, market share, return on investments, unit productivity, and cost of production, just to name a few (Bass & Bass, 2008). Bass and Bass (2008) name other measures of leadership effectiveness: safety records, absenteeism, turnover, complaints, and instances of workplace deviance. Objective outcomes such as unit productivity may not necessarily reflect the effectiveness of a leader's actual behaviors. Appraising leader performance based on such objective outcomes is much the same as objective outcomes for individual contributors - these outcomes do not take into account outside influences and things that are beyond the employee's control. Thus, the distinction between leadership and its outcomes is crucial to leadership research and practice.

Trust in Leader

While examining objective outcomes helps to hold leaders accountable for quotas, growth, and deadlines, other outcomes of leadership have increased in importance in the last several decades. With a shift toward more person- and relationship-focused leadership, trust in a leader is an important outcome that deserves closer examination. This section defines trust and discusses trust development between two entities.

Many theories and definitions of trust have been proposed in the literature. The definitions of trust found within the extant literature can be generally grouped into three perspectives: vulnerability, expectations of positive outcomes, and a

combination of these two. Exemplary of the first perspective, Mayer and colleagues (1995) proposed what has become the most widely accepted and cited definition of trust: trust is the "willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that party" (p. 712). Those who prefer the second perspective conceptualize trust as the expectation of positive outcomes based on the actions of another party in an interaction (Bhattacharya et al., 1998). Both perspectives suggest that trust leads to risk-taking behaviors, but one approach conceptualizes trust as an expectation and the other as an intention or willingness. Lastly, other models have combined the previous two perspectives, defining trust as a "psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Cramerer, 1998, p. 395).

For the purposes of this research, it is also important to discuss the development of trust between two entities. Specifically, I wish to examine trust in a leader experienced by a subordinate, focusing on a dyad rather than organizational leadership (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Mayer et al. (1995) proposed what has become the most highly cited and widely supported model of trust development, which posits that feelings of trust are predicted based on perceptions of a trustee's ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability can be described as the skills, competencies, and characteristics of the trustee that enable the party to have an influence within some specific domain. Benevolence is the perception that the trustee wants to do well by

the trustor. Finally, integrity describes an individual's perception that the other party adheres to a set of acceptable principles. Meta-analytic evidence supports the Mayer et al. (1995) model (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007) - ability, benevolence, and integrity all strongly predicted trust levels.

Other antecedents to interpersonal trust include values, which are general standards or principles that are considered intrinsically desirable ends (Jones & George, 1998). In addition to some overlap with the Mayer et al. (1995) predictors (integrity and competence) of trust, the values discussed in Jones and George's (1998) research include loyalty, helpfulness, fairness, predictability, reliability, honesty, responsibility, consistency, and openness. The authors discuss the role of values in not only guiding an individual's own behavior but also the interpretation of their experiences (e.g., others' behaviors). A person's values dictate what behaviors, events, situations, and even people are desirable or undesirable. In relation to trust, shared values help to create relationships that are characterized by trust; therefore, an individual who values loyalty and honesty would likely trust someone who demonstrated those same values.

Liking has also been examined as a determinant of trust; in fact, Nicholson et al., (2001) posited that many cognitive antecedents of trust actually operate through liking. Liking can be defined as the "global affective attachment" toward another entity, or "an emotional connection that one feels for another that can be viewed as fondness or affection--a feeling that goes beyond the mere acceptance of a competent business partner" with a "desire to be around the other out of choice, even if business

ties were to terminate" (pg. 5). Jones and George (1998) also described liking as a link between positive moods or emotions and trust: positive moods will increase liking for others, causing more positive beliefs about human nature, resulting in heightened experience of trust in another person.

In many organizational contexts, there are differences in formal power dynamics. Trust, therefore, plays a vital role in leader-follower relationships as it affects important outcomes such as leaders' abilities to exert influence and follower performance. In this study, we specifically refer to trust between a supervisor and subordinate, which can impact a variety of important outcomes. For instance, a recent study by Skiba and Wildman (2018) demonstrated that trust between supervisors and subordinates significantly impacted employee outcomes such as turnover intentions and engagement through reduction in workplace uncertainty and a deepening of the social exchange relationship. Research has also linked leadership effectiveness to trust (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012).

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) propose a comprehensive model demonstrating the antecedents, processes, and outcomes of trust in leaders. First, antecedents of trust in leader include the leader's actions and practices, follower attributes, and relationship attributes. More specifically, leader actions and practices including certain leadership styles (e.g., transformational and transactional), justice and fairness, providing support, and participative decision making, positively predict trust in leadership. These factors lead subordinates to draw inferences about the basis of their relationship with the leader and about the character of the leader (Dirks & Ferrin,

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2002). Then, trust in leader may lead to the follower's reciprocation of care and concern in the relationship as well as a feeling of confidence in the character of the leader. More distal outcomes of trust in leadership follow these processes, including behavioral and performance outcomes (organizational citizenship behaviors and task performance), attitudes and intentions (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to quit, goal commitment, belief in information), and other correlates (satisfaction with leader, leader-member exchange).

Given that the definition of trust is founded on an individual's perception of vulnerability and risk, it is important to understand the process subordinates go through in evaluating a leader's trustworthiness. Skiba and Wildman (2018) provide a thorough review and synthesis of these processes using uncertainty management, social exchange, and self-determination theories. In cooperating with a leader, subordinates hope to maximize their opportunities for rewards; at the same time, this cooperation increases the opportunities for the supervisor to exploit them (Skiba & Wildman, 2018). Subordinates determine to what extent they trust their leaders in making judgements about their behaviors and motivations. When there is a high level of trust on the part of the employee, they will experience positive outcomes because of a reduction in uncertainty (Skiba & Wildman, 2018). Subordinates may also evaluate their level of trust in a leader based on social exchange principles - trust may emerge from reciprocity in a relationship. Finally, followers may evaluate their trust in a leader in judging the extent to which they feel a secure attachment or relationship to the leader. Skiba and Wildman (2018) use self-determination theory

to further explain this: as a result of social exchange, interpersonal attachment will form between a leader and a follower. If followers have a sense of a secure relationship with their leader, they may have psychological needs fulfilled, which will give value to the leaders' desired outcomes and motivate followers to achieve them.

Moving Forward with Trust Research

Recent trust research has highlighted the need to specify the referent "to improve construct and theoretical clarity and to allow comparison across studies" (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012, p. 1172). Specifically, trust can be felt toward different referents: leaders, teams, and organizations. Overall, we need a better understanding of what contributes to the development and loss of trust in collaborative working relationships, specifically leader-subordinate dyads. First, individuals hold certain expectations of others in collaborative relationships, and those expectations may differ depending on the hierarchical nature of the relationship. Second, a leader's abilities, skills, and behaviors are important determinants of whether the leader can meet a follower's expectations. Third, follower perceptions offer further understanding of the linkage between leader behaviors and trust in that leader. While it is now widely understood that trust is critical to successful leader-follower relationships, there is a limited body of previous research that has explored trust among supervisors and subordinates from both perspectives simultaneously. Additionally, there are few studies of holistic models that capture leader skills, behaviors, and the trust outcomes.

Social Influence

Interpersonal influence theory includes a large body of work that is dedicated to describing the nature of interpersonal influence tactics, their antecedents and consequences, as well as their boundary conditions (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003). The application of this theory in organizational settings has been frequent in the last 20 years, with a specific focus on employee influence on job performance evaluations or candidate influence on selection outcomes. In the context of the current study, we are interested in leadership as a process of interpersonal influence. Before conducting a thorough review of the literature on interpersonal influence, it is critical to define the key terms associated with it and establish a nomological network.

First, social or interpersonal influence is when one individual causes a change in another's behavior or attitudes. Influence tactics are described by Yukl and Falbe (1990) as categories of influence behaviors. These influence tactics often overlap with impression management behaviors, which will be explored later on in this discussion (Bolino, Long, & Turnley, 2016; Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Second, interpersonal power is another construct that is closely associated with influence. Power is defined as the potential influence that one individual has over another (Treadway et al., 2013). Further, power can be acquired informally but can also be influenced to an extent by formal status, position, or hierarchical level.

This potential to influence, influence attempts, and the success of such attempts are often explored in terms of their antecedents. There is research that links

political skill to interpersonal power and influence. I argue that leaders who possess certain skills (i.e., political skill) can use certain behaviors (i.e., impression management) in order to elicit changes in others' behavior, intentionally or unintentionally. In addition, it is important to note that holding a leadership or managerial position in an organization confers a certain degree of power to an individual (Treadway et al., 2013). For instance, the effectiveness and success of influence tactics can be linked to a person's position in a social network (Bolino et al., 2016).

Political Skill

Political skill is defined as "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris et al., 2005). Four dimensions of political skill have been identified: networking ability, interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, and social astuteness (Ferris et al., 2007). Networking ability is the capacity to identify and develop diverse networks of relationships. Interpersonal influence is the ability to exert influence on others by adapting and adjusting one's behavior to different and changing circumstances. Apparent sincerity includes perceptions of an individual's genuineness, honesty, and sincerity. Social astuteness is the ability to accurately observe and interpret the behavior of others.

Research on political skill has demonstrated it predicts a variety of individual personal and organizational goals, such as selection, job performance, and promotion. The impact of political skill on such outcomes can likely be explained via intrapsychic processes. Ferris et al. (2007) explain that political skill acts as a

pool of personal resources from which individuals can draw to effectively navigate the workplace and enact their influence on others. Political skill has been correlated to emotional intelligence and self-monitoring (Ferris et al., 2007) and outcomes such as reduced physiological strain (Munyon et al., 2015) and reduced impacts of job stressors (Perrewé & Nelson, 2004). Furthermore, politically skilled individuals receive positive feedback over time, which further builds their pool of personal resources and capabilities to understand and navigate their socio-political workplace environment and achieve their objectives (Ferris et al., 2007).

In terms of job performance, multidimensional measures of political skill have been shown to explain more variance in outcomes such as task and contextual performance (Blickle et al., 2008). There is a wealth of support for politically skilled individuals having greater career success and upward mobility. Blickle, Oerder, and Summers (2010) found that in the case of upward elections, where individuals can be elected to represent employees in German companies, those with political skill were more successful in such elections. Furthermore, politically skilled individuals have more career success and promotions (Bedi & Skowronski, 2014; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Wei, Chiang, & Wu, 2012; Liu, Liu, & Wu, 2010).

Recent research demonstrates that political skill as an individual difference predicts social influence and leadership. Political skill is a predictor of workplace success, acquisition of power, movement to central positions of influence, and thus leadership emergence (Treadway et al., 2013). Extraverted individuals with social skills are more likely to emerge as a leader (Ensari, Riggio, Christian, & Carslaw,

2011). This presents parallels to individuals with political skill, which is correlated to extraversion (Bedi & Skowronski, 2014; Blickle et al., 2008) and social effectiveness (Treadway et al., 2013). Shaughnessy, Treadway, Breland, and Perrewé (2017) found that political skill moderated the relationship between informal leadership emergence and individual performance. Interestingly, individuals who have high political skill but are not recognized as the informal leader suffer in their performance ratings (Shaughnessy et al., 2017). Moving from leader emergence to leader effectiveness, political skill has been identified as a predictor of leadership evaluations (Gentry et al., 2013) and team performance (Yang & Zhang, 2014).

Impression Management

Impression management can be defined as behaviors that individuals use to shape how they are perceived by others, including creating a new desired image or protecting or maintaining a current image (Bolino et al., 2016). Impression management has been distinguished from influence tactics, which is a broader set of behaviors, as well as self-presentation, which is narrower and also concerned with self-image or self-concept (Bolino et al., 2016). At times, individuals may be fully conscious of these behaviors in that they purposefully engage in behavior that cultivate a particular image, but at other times impression management may be unconscious or habitual.

Research has identified several impression management behavior categories: self-promotion, intimidation, ingratiation, supplication, and exemplification. These five categories were tied to specific desired images by Jones and Pittman (1982). The desired image linked to ingratiation is likeability. When individuals wish to convey

how likeable they are, they might use ingratiation behaviors, which include acting in a manner that is consistent with the preferences of a target (opinion conformity), flattery and praise of target, and doing favors. Next, self-promotion intends to convey that the actor is competent and includes behaviors like highlighting one's own accomplishments (boasting), taking credit for positive outcomes, "name dropping" important others, and downplaying the severity of negative events to which they are connected. Individuals may use exemplification behaviors, such as staying late at work, appearing busy, to be seen as dedicated. Intimidation behaviors like making threats and yelling can be used to be seen as menacing. When "playing dumb" or asking for help when it is not really needed, individuals are using supplication behaviors to be seen as needy (Bolino et al., 2016).

Bolino et al. (2016) discussed that for a clear understanding of impression management, it is important to look not only at specific behaviors but also the drivers of those behaviors. According to Leary and Kowalski (1990), individuals are motivated to manage impressions in three ways. First, individuals often have certain goals that are dependent upon someone else who controls valued outcomes; for example, during job interviews or promotion opportunities, individuals may use impression management with an interviewer or supervisor who is in charge of selection. Second, the value of the desired goals drives motivation to manage impressions. In the case of a job interview, many individuals would place great value on getting a new job and would therefore be more motivated to employ impression management strategies that may help in attaining this goal. Third, individuals can

detect discrepancies between the desired and current images and may therefore be more motivated to change the current images. For example, when an individual feels that others do not see them as competent, they may be motivated to engage in self-promotion behaviors.

With the understanding of leadership as influence or guidance of a group of people to achieve organizational goals, impression management is an important piece of the leadership puzzle. Individuals may use impression management to become leaders or be seen as effective leaders. For example, individuals may engage in tactics such as self-promotion and intimidation to be seen as a leader; in addition, leaders can be seen as effective when ingratiation is subtle or sincere (Bolino et al., 2016).

Research has linked political skill to impression management - individuals with a high level of political skill may be better at using impression management than those with a low level of this characteristic. Specifically, high political skill should enable an individual to select the most appropriate impression management strategy for the given situation and hide any ulterior or self-serving motives by enhancing their ability to read the social environment (Bolino et al., 2016). Researchers have described the "self-promoter's paradox", which occurs when individuals overemphasize their credentials such that they actually appear self-interested and less competent (Berman et al., 2014; Bolino et al., 2016; Jones & Pittman, 1982). Political skill would enable an individual to avoid this paradox by granting them a better understanding of the appropriate level of self-promotion. Harris, Kacmar, Zivuska, and Shaw (2007) found that politically skilled individuals

achieved more desirable supervisor ratings, no matter their choice of influence tactics. As discussed by Perrewé et al. (2000) low levels of political skill lead to the use of intimidation tactics and frustration.

Communal and Agentic Social Influence

Communal and agentic social influence tactics are frequently discussed in the research on female leadership with women being more associated with communal tactics and men more associated with agentic tactics (Eagly, 2007). Blasberg, Rogers, and Paulhus (2014) outline the foundation of the agency-communion distinction. Agency refers to achievement striving and differentiating oneself from others, while communion refers to an integration with and concern for others. Agency and communion can be distinguished using their associated values; for example, Blasberg et al. (2014) discusses the distinction of competence versus warmth as well as intellectual versus social goodness. These constructs aid in orienting other concept domains (e.g., personality, self-presentation, and interpersonal behavior). For the purposes of this study, I apply the agency-communion distinction to social influence constructs: political skill, an individual difference, and impression management, interpersonal behaviors and self-presentation.

For political skill, social astuteness and apparent sincerity have communal characteristics. Snell, Tonnidandel, Braddy, and Fleenor (2014) posed apparent sincerity as communal given that communal behaviors (e.g., being unselfish, having genuine concern for others, and being emotionally expressive) most closely align themselves with apparent sincerity dimension. A focus on others is a key component in being able to accurately observe and interpret the behavior of others (social

astuteness) and conveying genuineness, honesty, and sincerity (apparent sincerity). On the other hand, networking ability and interpersonal influence have agentic characteristics. The focus on the self, individuality, independence, and action is a discernible trait connected to identifying beneficial relationships (networking ability) and exerting influence on others (interpersonal influence). For impression management, self-promotion and intimidation behaviors are clearly linked to agency in that they highlight achievement and differentiating oneself from others. Ingratiation, supplication, and exemplification have a clear focus on target-centered outcomes and are therefore communal behaviors. Ingratiation aims at a target's liking of the actor, while supplication aims at the target's feelings of competence. Smith et al. (2013) conducted a sub-study to examine whether others perceived influence tactics as agentic, communal, or neutral. They asked 52 business and social science graduate students and professors from a number of universities to categorize influence tactics into agentic, communal, and neutral categories; their results support the categorization of agentic versus communal dimensions of impression management as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Communion-agency distinction for social influence variables.

Variable Name	Agentic Dimensions	Communal Dimensions
Political Skill	Networking Ability Interpersonal Influence	Apparent Sincerity Social Astuteness
Impression Management	Self-Promotion Intimidation	Ingratiation Supplication Exemplification

Research Gaps in Social Influence

Bolino et al. (2016) discuss several gaps in the literature related to impression management. First, impression management behaviors are not often examined for leaders; most research on impression management occurs in the context of a job interview or promotion seeking or that of individual contributor performance evaluations. Next, while some research has characterized certain impression management tactics as "deceptive", their implications for authenticity have scarcely been examined (Bolino et al., 2016). Leaders can effectively use impression management and hide ulterior motives, especially with high levels of political skill (Bolino et al., 2016). However, it is important to note that not all impression management is deceptive. Further, Brouer et al. (2015) demonstrated those with political skill were more likely to choose positive IM tactics (ingratiation, exemplification, and self-promotion) rather than negative IM tactics (intimidation and supplication).

Emotions and Leadership

Recently, leadership scholars have begun to examine emotions and affect and their role in leadership. Specifically, recent leadership research has focused on emotional intelligence, emotion regulation and management of others' emotions, and emotional labor. Overall, research on emotions in the workplace has demonstrated that leaders impact individuals' affective experiences (Kaplan et al., 2014). According to Leavitt and Bahrami (1988), "managing one's own emotions, and those of employees, is as much a critical managerial function as managing markets or

finances" (as cited in Kaplan et al., 2014, pg. 563). Emotions are a key part of social influence and must therefore be considered along with leadership theories.

This section examines leadership through the emotions lens. The discussion begins with a review of relevant but traditional emotions theories in which it has become very important to include leadership. Next, I discuss emotional intelligence and its implications for leadership. Then, I synthesize research on several constructs that have been explored in the area of regulatory behaviors - emotion regulation, emotion management, emotional labor, and leader emotion management. Following this is a discussion of leaders' emotional expressions, which are a direct consequence of regulatory behaviors and result in other processes (e.g., emotional contagion) and outcomes. Finally, I discuss leadership styles associated with emotions and emotional behavior - transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, and authentic leadership.

Leadership in the Context of Emotions Theories

In understanding the linkage between leadership and subordinates' emotions, it is necessary to explore two highly influential theories in emotions research: affective events theory (AET) and the emotions as social information (EASI) theory. First, affective events theory posits that although individuals have typical emotional tones or baselines, events in the workplace can affect their emotions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1995). In the context of this theory, there are two main ways that leaders can influence affective events and thus employees' emotions and moods. First, leaders can be the original source of the affective event in that their behaviors directed at employees can have a direct impact on employees' emotions (Humphrey

et al., 2008). For example, a leader can choose to act in a self-sacrificing or a selfish way, which would be emotionally processed by an employee. Second, leaders can affect employees' ability to respond to or cope with negative workplace events. Leaders can explain or reframe events to help employees understand and instill confidence in employees in the face of potential threats to performance (Humphrey et al., 2008). One example would be a leader intervening on an employee's behalf with a difficult customer.

The "emotions as social information" (EASI) theory is based on the idea that people use others' emotional expressions as information to determine their own attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors (Van Kleef, van den Berg, & Heerdink, 2015). This theory is key in the exploration of emotional displays as a tool for social influence. Overall, the theory posits that a person who observes the emotional expressions of another will develop emotions, attitudes, cognitions, behaviors, etc., that are "congruent with the evaluative information inherent in the source's emotional expression" (Van Kleef et al., 2015, pg. 1126). In other words, if an individual expresses positive emotions toward a particular target, then an observer of these emotions will also likely develop positive emotions toward the target. Van Kleef et al.'s (2015) experimental research demonstrated this general psychological principle - participants observed sad emotional expressions about an innocuous target, removing bobsleighing from the Olympic games. This resulted in more positive attitudes toward bobsleighing. Similarly, when participants observed happy expressions about introducing kite surfing into the Olympic games, they reported

more positive attitudes toward kite surfing. This principle could be applied to leadership: a manager can have great influence on follower emotions, attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors by displaying either positive or negative emotions toward various targets and events, such as daily task or relationship conflict, changes to organizational structure, downsizing, or mergers and acquisitions (Kaplan et al., 2014).

Emotion-Related Traits and Leadership

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a person's ability to monitor his or her own feelings and emotions as well as those of another person (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). There are two main approaches to emotional intelligence (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011). Some believe that emotional intelligence as an individual difference is an ability—these are the "ability" models of emotional intelligence. Others believe that emotional intelligence is a broad set of skills and competencies, but not an innate ability—these are called "mixed" models of emotional intelligence (Walter et al., 2011). One of the major criticisms of emotional intelligence is that there appears to be some conceptual and empirical overlap with cognitive ability and personality (Mayer & Salovey, 1993).

Dimensionality of Emotional Intelligence

Theories of emotional intelligence have also specified its dimensionality. Joseph and Newman's (2010) meta-analysis examined three dimensions of emotional intelligence: emotion perception, understanding, and regulation. Further, the authors proposed a cascading model that demonstrated the relationship between

the three processes that occur in people with high levels of emotional intelligence. This model is essentially multiple mediations, beginning with emotion perception. This accuracy in perceiving emotions in oneself and in others predicts emotion understanding, which in turn predicts emotion regulation.

Emotion understanding is often discussed along with sympathy and empathy. Sympathy is the ability to understand and support others with compassion or sensitivity (Gentry, Weber, & Sadri, 2007). Empathy is the ability to comprehend and relate to another's feelings and then to experience those feelings oneself (Humphrey et al., 2008). In recent years, both sympathy and empathy have come to hold a critical role in leadership effectiveness. Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that empathy has a central role in emotionally intelligent behavior. For leaders, empathy can help to establish an emotional connection to create a common identity (Humphrey et al., 2008). A recent study by the Center for Creative Leadership demonstrated that empathy toward subordinates predicted leaders' job performance (Gentry, Weber, & Sadri, 2007).

Emotion regulation is the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions. Specific emotion regulation behaviors will be further discussed in the subsequent section, but in terms of emotional intelligence it usually refers to a trait-based construct. In other words, emotional intelligence research describes emotion regulation or emotion management ability as a combination of the ability to regulate one's own emotions as well as the emotions of others. Therefore, emotional

intelligence also allows a person to differentiate between others' emotional states and use that information to guide his or her own actions (Barsade & Gibson, 2007).

Affective Presence

A newer construct has been discussed recently: leader affective presence, which is defined as the tendency to invoke either positive or negative feelings in others in a consistent and stable manner (i.e., across persons and time; Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010). Thus, a leader's traits may also impact the extent to which followers feel certain emotions (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010; Madrid et al., 2016a; Madrid et al., 2016b). When controlling for emotional labor, Eisenkraft and Elfenbein (2010) found that the variance in emotions the target feels can be explained by trait affective presence of the agent (10% of positive affect and 23% of negative affect).

Emotion Management and Leadership

Leadership behaviors have an indirect effect on employee performance through the effects on employee morale and work-related attitudes (Bass & Bass, 2008). Before discussing emotion management in a leadership context, it is important to define emotion regulation more generally. Emotion regulation is the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions. It includes suppressing or inducing desired emotions using different emotional labor strategies (e.g., surface and deep acting). Suppressing emotion is the inhibition of emotion expression and is generally thought to have negative consequences, while emotion induction is the creation of an emotional expression. Additionally, much of the organizational research on emotion

regulation examines suppression of negative emotions and the induction of positive emotions, as positive affective states are beneficial for job performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010).

As the focus of the current study is leadership and social influence, a key concept is interpersonal emotional strategies of emotion management. The terms interpersonal emotion management and interpersonal affect regulation are sometimes used interchangeably, referring to influencing the internal feeling state(s) of another person (Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2009). However, Niven et al. (2009) specify that interpersonal emotion management is a broader process that uses a range of behaviors, including interpersonal affect regulation, in a strategic manner to accomplish goals within a relationship.

Emotional Labor

Emotional labor was first described in the early 1980s by Hoschild. As the US Economy became much more dependent on service industries, organizations began to seek control over the emotions displayed by employees in order to elicit certain responses from customers (Gardner, Fisher, & Hunt, 2009). Emotional labor is defined as the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Emotional labor is seen as a process of emotion regulation, which Groth et al. (2009) define as an individual influencing which emotions he/she has, as well as when and how they experience and express these emotions. We refer to this construct as "labor" because of the resources that are required of individuals to outwardly express an emotion that they may not necessarily be feeling (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). This new construct was later

broken out into and studied as three components: emotional requirements, emotion regulation, and emotion performance.

Individuals must engage in emotional labor when they are required to induce or suppress feelings in order to portray a particular emotion to others as part of their work role (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Gabriel et al., 2015). Emotional requirements, also called "display rules", are widely understood to be implicitly or explicitly stated norms or standards of behavior that indicate which emotions or feelings are appropriate to display in the workplace and when (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Groth et al., 2009). These display rules essentially impose emotion regulation on the employee.

There are two widely recognized strategies subsumed under emotional labor which employees can use in order to comply with the organization's display rules: deep acting and surface acting. Deep acting is an individual employee's attempt to change his or her internal feelings to match the organizational display rules for a particular situation, while surface acting is when an individual must suppress his or her actual felt emotions (Gabriel et al., 2015). Gardner, Fischer, and Hunt (2009) described surface acting and deep acting as two out of three categories of leader emotional displays, with genuine emotions as the third.

Emotion regulation results in emotion performance, observable expressions that are congruent with requirements (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Some jobs require more emotional labor than others; for example, much of the research on emotional labor focuses on customer service jobs. In these jobs, employees must comply with

certain display rules such as "service with a smile", and portray happiness when interacting with a customer or client (Barger & Grandey, 2006; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Hulsheger et al., 2015). Displaying the "appropriate" emotions is linked to positive outcomes for customers, employees, and organizations. Barger and Grandey (2006) showed that customers were more satisfied with the service encounter when the employee was smiling at them. Further, deep acting, rather than surface acting, has a stronger effect. For instance, Hulsheger et al. (2015) demonstrated that when workers used deep acting as an emotional labor strategy, they received more tips from their customers. Emotional labor is also studied in organizational leaders. In order to achieve organizational goals, leaders must direct their emotional displays toward members of the organization, such as subordinates, peers, and superiors. Therefore, there is an extensive set of emotional display rules that are associated with leadership roles (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009). For example, in the case of a negative performance review: this workplace event may elicit a negative emotional response from both the leader and the subordinate; however, a leader is expected to maintain a positive, upbeat attitude.

Overall, individuals experience emotional dissonance when there is a conflict between genuinely felt emotions and organizationally or perceived situationally required emotions (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Emotional dissonance can have a negative impact on employees in general. In fact, much of the research on emotional labor and display rules highlights the negative impact these have on employee well-being, particularly surface acting strategies. For instance, Goldberg and Grandey

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(2007) conducted a call center simulation in which participants were assigned to the display rule condition (i.e. service with a smile) or the control condition with no display rules. The participants under display rule conditions reported more exhaustion and had more errors on their tasks (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007). Additionally, the latent profile analysis done by Gabriel et al. (2015) highlighted that people who tended to use surface acting in jobs with high emotional labor requirements had significantly lower scores on measures of well-being. Emotional labor requires the use of self-regulatory resources. When emotional labor happens frequently, this may lead to depletion of self-regulatory resources. In turn, this leads to emotional exhaustion. This research indicates that display rules and emotional labor could potentially harm the wellbeing of employees and lead to other negative workplace outcomes.

The Evolution of Emotion Management

In the late 1990s, emotion regulation research was a booming field. Gross published two papers in 1998 that proved to be foundational to current trends in emotion management research. First, Gross's (1998a) process model of emotion generation offered a distillation of major points of convergence across many of the key emotion researchers of the mid to late 20th century. Second, Gross's (1998b) discussion of this process model included that emotion may be regulated at five points in the emotion generative process: (a) selection of the situation, (b) modification of the situation, (c) deployment of attention, (d) change of cognitions, and (e) modulation of responses.

With these as a strong foundation, other research has also offered even more clarity to this construct of emotion management behaviors. While research has defined emotion regulation as the manipulation in *self* or *other* of emotional antecedents or components of the emotional response (Gross & Levenson, 1993), the majority of empirical studies that investigate emotion regulation have focused on managing one's own undesired negative emotions (e.g., Gross, 1998a and b). One's *ability* to manage others' emotions has been investigated (e.g., Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004; Tett, Fox, & Wang, 2005), but this leaves a large gap in the specific, observable behaviors targeted at managing followers' negative emotions (Little et al., 2016; Little et al., 2012; Williams, 2007).

As an answer to this, Williams (2007) presented a theoretical framework of specific behavioral strategies used to manage the negative emotions of others from Gross's (1998b) original theory. These strategies are aimed at addressing others' negative emotions by reducing negative emotions and increasing positive emotions. These four strategies are:

1. Situation Modification (SM): removing or altering a problem to reduce the emotional impact; modifying or changing the situation by removing some or all of the emotion provoking elements. For example, a leader dealing with anger and frustration felt by an employee by securing a transfer out from under a difficult supervisor.

2. Cognitive Change (CC): reappraising a situation as more positive; selecting which of many possible meanings will be attached to the situation,

reappraising or reinterpreting the situation as having less potential for harm to goals, concerns, and well-being. For example, a supervisor might point out to employees that although the CEO appears cold and heartless, their skills are necessary to the success of the organization.

3. Attentional Deployment (AD): directing the target's attention to something more pleasant; selecting which aspects of the situation to focus on by distracting attention away from the elements of a situation that are harmful to goals, concerns, or well-being, or by moving away from the situation entirely. For example, using humor or other means as ways of distracting targets to improve their emotions.

4. Modulating the Emotional Response (MER): Suppressing emotional responses by directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioral responding. For example, a supervisor may attempt to calm an upset employee by saying something like "relax" or "it's not that big of a deal" or "calm down".

Later, Little, Kluemper, Nelson, and Gooty (2011) developed and validated the Interpersonal Emotion Management (IEM) Scale, which demonstrated that the four IEM strategies are distinct from conceptually related constructs and predictive of subordinates' trust in their supervisor. In addition, Little, Gooty, and Williams (2016) described situation modification (SM) and cognitive change (CC) as "problem-focused" IEM behaviors, and attentional deployment (AD) and modulating the emotional response (MER) as "emotion-focused" IEM behaviors. With this added

layer of categorization, Little et al. (2016) demonstrated the different relationships certain IEM strategies have with outcomes such as LMX: problem-focused IEM strategies had positive relationships with LMX, whereas emotion-focused IEM strategies had negative (MER) or weak, statistically insignificant (AD) relationships with LMX.

Niven (2016) presented the interpersonal emotion regulation motivation (IERM) theory, which identifies the major types of motives that underlie attempts to shape other people's emotions at work. This theory proposes hierarchical needs and motives for interpersonal emotion regulation. Specifically, the need for autonomy, need for relatedness, and the need for competence influence eight (8) distinct motives. Several of these motives can be clearly linked to leadership and social influence constructs that were previously mentioned. Their theoretical discussion outlines how motives influence which strategies are employed and their effectiveness. While this theoretical discussion examines the "path" or strategy selection as deep acting versus surface acting, their prosocial motives could also be applied to the Williams (2007) taxonomy. The prosocial motives are:

1. Conformity motives, in which the higher order goal is to promote the smooth running of social situations.

2. Emotional labor motives, in which the higher order goal is to promote organizational performance.

3. Coaching motives, in which the higher-order goal is to promote others' performance.

4. Compassion motives, in which the higher-order goal is to promote others' well-being.

Any one of these motives could impact the selection and effectiveness of situation modification (SM), cognitive change (CC), attentional deployment (AD), or modulating the emotional response (MER).

Rafaeli and Worline (2001) stated that "management's job has become the management of emotion" (pg. 107). Following the trend of emotions research in the workplace and an understanding that leaders have a significant impact on employees' emotions in the workplace, leadership research is now keenly focused on leader emotion management behaviors, or LEM. Leader emotion management was defined by Kaplan et al. (2014) as "the processes and behaviors involved in assisting employees in regulating their emotional experiences so as to facilitate the attainment of organizational objectives" (pg. 566). Specifically, this construct of emotion management is focused on a leaders' attempts to manage others' emotions rather than their own. Kaplan and colleagues' (2014) comprehensive, theory-based model of leader emotion management achieved two things. First, it clarified the nature of emotion management and its role in leadership. Second, the model delineated the antecedents (knowledge and skill) and consequences (follower and organizational outcomes). In their proposed model, Kaplan et al. (2014) included a list of specific behavioral categories as leader emotion management behaviors, such as interacting and communicating in an interpersonally tactful manner and demonstrating consideration and support for employees.

Communal Versus Agentic Interpersonal Emotion Management

As described previously, agency refers to achievement striving and differentiating oneself from others, while communion refers to an integration with and concern for others (Blasberg et al., 2014). Agency is associated with the values of competence or intellectual goodness, while communion is associated with warmth and social goodness. Another consideration for communal versus agentic constructs would be the nature of the relationship. Communal relationships are characterized by concern for others' welfare, whereas exchange relationships tend to be predominantly transactional in nature (Reeck, Ames, & Ochsner, 2016). Agentic characteristics and exchange or transactional relationships would enact certain kinds of behaviors; agentic characteristics would likely drive transactional relationships. Again, this is tied to individuality and differentiating oneself. These constructs aid in orienting other concept domains (e.g., personality, self-presentation, and interpersonal behavior). Therefore, similar to the social influence constructs (political skill and impression management), I apply the agency-communion distinction to interpersonal emotion management as well.

Overall, IEM could be conceptualized as highly relational or communal, as the goals of IEM are to increase positive emotions and decrease negative emotions in others. However, the behaviors themselves align well with either communion or agency. The definition of cognitive change (CC) behaviors (reappraising a situation as more positive; selecting which of many possible meanings will be attached to the situation, reappraising or reinterpreting the situation as having less potential for harm to goals, concerns, and well-being) falls closely in line with communion. These

behaviors may include, for example, a supervisor pointing out to employees that although the CEO appears cold and heartless, their skills are necessary to the success of the organization. Such actions highlight the thoughts and feelings of the target.

The definition of situation modification (SM) behaviors (removing or altering a problem to reduce the emotional impact; modifying or changing the situation by removing some or all of the emotion provoking elements) falls closely in line with agency. These behaviors may include, for example, a leader dealing with anger and frustration felt by an employee by securing a transfer out from under a difficult supervisor. Such actions from an individual mostly highlight competence, action, and autonomy of the actor. These actions do not specifically address dealing with or acknowledging others' emotions.

Depending on its effectiveness or level of success, attentional deployment may be difficult to interpret on the part of the follower (Little et al., 2012). The definition of attentional deployment (AD) behaviors (directing the target's attention to something more pleasant; selecting which aspects of the situation to focus on by distracting attention away from the elements of a situation that are harmful to goals, concerns, or well-being, or by moving away from the situation entirely) fall more closely in line with communion. For example, using humor or other means as ways of distracting targets to improve their emotions. If an actor is successful, the target will become distracted and have an improved affective state. The target would therefore be likely to have positive perceptions of the actor's concern for his or her well-being.

Emotion expression is more likely in communal relationships (Reeck, Ames, & Ochsner, 2016). In addition, MER may portray that the actor does not care about the target's feelings, thereby negatively impacting the target's perceptions of the actor. Therefore, modulating the emotional response (MER; suppressing emotional responses by directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioral responding) falls more in line with agency.

Table 2: Communion-Agency distinction for interpersonal emotion management (IEM).

	Agentic Dimensions	Communal Dimensions
Problem-Focused Behaviors	Situation Modification (SM)	Cognitive Change (CC)
Emotion-Focused Behaviors	Modulating the Emotional Response (MER)	Attentional Deployment (AD)

Outcomes of Leader Emotion Management

Overall, this section attempts to describe the linkages between leader emotion management and leader outcomes, follower outcomes, and more distal outcomes such as performance at varying levels of analysis. This can be explained through the affective events theory - work events trigger affective reactions, which then drive work attitudes and affect and/or judgement-driven behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The most direct result of a leader's emotion management is the leader's own emotional expressions and behaviors, which become the work event that drives affective responses from followers. Then, overall affective responses from followers

lead to additional cognitions and appraisals. Leadership behaviors have an indirect effect on employee performance through the effects on employee morale and work-related attitudes (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Follower Affective Reactions

Leaders' emotional expressions act as work events that trigger affective reactions in employees. This is said to occur through a process called emotional contagion, which consists of processes that allow the sharing or transferring of emotions from one individual to other group members. The primitive contagion theory posits that emotional contagion takes place in two steps (Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005). First, we have the tendency to mimic the nonverbal behavior of others, to synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with others, which is called the mimicry process. Second, we converge emotionally or begin to actually feel the emotion from the cues of their own expression of that emotion (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Thus, followers are likely to "contract" leader-expressed emotions through emotional contagion. For example, Lewis (2000) examined followers' responses to leader expressions of sadness and anger. Leaders' expressions of negative emotions resulted in negative affect in followers.

On the positive emotions side, many researchers have examined leaders' expressions of positive emotions and specific leadership styles, such as charismatic, transformational, and authentic. For instance, several studies have shown that charismatic leaders can use emotion to influence followers (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Erez et a., 2008). The emotions of leaders that are expressed to subordinates are likely to also manifest in the subordinates through emotional contagion. Taken all together,

these findings imply that leaders need to be careful about their emotion regulation and express the emotions that will further organizational goals to achieve effectiveness.

Leader Performance

Measures of emotional intelligence predict desirable outcomes for organizations (Bell, 2007). At the individual level, emotional intelligence predicts job performance in customer service jobs, which are seen as requiring high amounts of emotional labor (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Byron, Terranova, & Nowicki, 2007). Emotionally intelligent individuals are able to deal with stress, overcome obstacles, and manage conflict. Their heightened self-awareness and social skills allow them to recognize the impact of their own feelings and moods and nimbly navigate interpersonal dynamics. Perhaps most importantly, emotionally intelligent individuals demonstrate basic empathy for others, they understand people's needs in order to meet them. Emotion regulation or emotion management ability significantly relates to objective measures of performance, such as the number of cars sold or an individual's salary (Byron et al., 2007). Interestingly, Kluemper et al. (2013) were able to demonstrate that emotion management ability predicts task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and workplace deviance better than cognitive ability and the Big Five personality measures.

In addition, a review by Walter et al. (2011) discussed the impact of emotional intelligence on leader effectiveness, or a leader's performance in influencing and guiding the members of his or her unit. Effective leadership requires interpersonal skills, decision-making skills, and communication skills (Lussier &

Achua, 2013; Valerio, 2009; Zacarro, 2007). Therefore, it is not surprising that when emotional intelligence emerged as a construct, researchers found it to be a strong predictor of leadership effectiveness (Walter et al., 2011). Emotionally intelligent leaders use their skills to build stronger teams and inspire others to work toward collective goals.

Emotional intelligence has been shown to predict leadership effectiveness (Chappell, 2011; Follesdal & Hagtvet, 2013; Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015), and leadership emergence (Cote, Lopez, Salovey, & Miners, 2010). As previously discussed, "implicit theories" of leadership posit that a leader is only effective to the extent that he or she is perceived by others to be (Judge et al., 2002). According to these theories, individuals may believe that a leader should be extraverted because interpersonal skills are a key part of leadership (Judge et al., 2002); similarly, emotional intelligence may be thought of as an interpersonal ability, which many believe to be an important part of being a leader. Research largely supports the notion that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to emerge as leaders (Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011).

Emotional expressions must be considered along with leadership emergence. For one, leader expressions of sadness and anger were related to poor evaluations of leadership effectiveness (Lewis, 2000). Further, the socio-functional approach to emotions posits that emotions convey info about expresser's role and position-based characteristics. Melwani et al. (2012) proposed that when social perceivers categorize targets as leaders, they look to the social info conveyed by emotion and

not merely emotion valence. Using the socio-functional approach to emotions, the authors explained that the expression of discrete emotions (contempt and compassion) signal important information to followers about who is a leader and who is not. Individuals compare the behaviors of the target with their own leadership prototypes. Melwani et al. (2012) found that individuals' perceptions of those emotional expressions contributed to their cognitive categorizations. Emotions signal aspects of an expresser's social position, task-related skills, and ability to form relationships. Therefore, it is likely that they also signal leadership abilities (Melwani et al., 2012).

Research Gaps in Emotions and Leadership

The current study takes particular interest in and hopes to expand upon several aspects of this body of research. One interesting gap in emotions research is a lack of integration with other social influence processes. Specifically, impression management and workplace emotions research have not often been integrated. This is surprising considering that impression management, as a component of social influence, inherently includes emotional expressions. According to Johnson, Griffith, and Buckle (2015), emotional expressions can be nonverbal communication mechanisms that operate within impression management processes. Using the "cybernetic model of emotions as social information theory", they argue that impression management includes verbal and nonverbal emotional information. They further suggest that specific impression management types are paired with certain emotional displays. For example, they state that ingratiation can be paired with

happiness, while supplication can be paired with sadness. These emotions then communicate information that is interpreted by the target (follower). Displays of happiness that accompany ingratiation, such as smiling and nodding, not only increase a target's liking of the actor, but they also offer a sense of appeasement, reassurance, and positive expectations. On the other hand, displays of sadness that may accompany supplication, such as frowning or even crying, help the actor to demonstrate weakness or vulnerability while also communicating a need of support. While very little research has examined impression management and emotions together, Johnson, Griffith, and Buckle (2015) offer a key contribution to the literature in connecting these phenomena.

Kaplan and colleagues (2014) discuss knowledge and skill as antecedents of leader emotion management. Their framework does specify some emotion-related knowledge and skills. For instance, the model includes knowledge of emotions and their consequences, knowledge of emotion-evoking events, and knowledge of the importance of emotions and emotion management. In addition, the model includes skills such as emotion recognition, perspective-taking, presentation, and communication. However, it does not incorporate political skill, which consists of understanding others at work and using that knowledge to influence others (Ferris et al., 2005). Influencing or changing another person's emotions requires an understanding of what behaviors can be used to do so and which situations are appropriate for those behaviors. Specifically, the ability to accurately observe and interpret the behavior of others (social astuteness), the ability to exert influence on

others by adapting and adjusting one's behavior to different and changing circumstances (interpersonal influence), and presenting oneself as genuine, honest, and sincere (apparent sincerity) would drive the success of someone wishing to change another's emotions. Therefore, political skill may be an important predictor of attempts to manage others' emotions.

Gender and Workplace Issues

In the last century, American social norms surrounding gender have become more egalitarian. From the late 1970s to the 1990s, women entered the workplace in droves and began to advance into fields and high-level positions that were previously male-dominated (Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; Lyness & Grotto, 2018; Zheng, Sugevil, & Kark, 2018). It became apparent that women still face many obstacles in attaining leadership positions and in their performance as leaders. Applied research responded in kind. According to Lord et al. (2017), 20th-century research on women in leadership concentrated on four key topics.

First, there is much research that examines the emergence of male and female leaders in leaderless groups, with findings suggesting that men emerge as leaders more often than women. Another category of research examines the leadership styles of men and women and whether there are differences between them. This research has demonstrated female leaders' preference for transformational, democratic, or participative approaches to leadership. The third category of research in this area relates to gender bias in leader evaluations. This stream of research has a long history of mixed results. Finally, another category of research compares the effectiveness of male versus female leaders. These last two categories of research have complex

contextual effects that are important foundations to the role congruity theory, which is key for the current study.

This section begins with a discussion of the differences between men and women as a background for research in gender and leadership. I then move to a discussion of role congruity theory and describe how issues of congruity between the leader role and the gender role are in conflict for women. Next, I describe the double bind issue and contextualize the popular phrase in terms of relevant psychological research. Finally, I examine the importance of these factors in determining well-being for women leaders.

Men and Women: What's the Difference?

As previously discussed, leadership is commonly associated with abilities, intelligence, and personality. Evidence shows that men and women differ very little in their leadership abilities, leadership effectiveness, and general intelligence. In examining the leadership-related dimensions of Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Conscientiousness, men and women appear to be balanced (Valerio, 2009). In addition, when testing for a main effect of leader gender on ratings of supervisors, most studies showed null results (Colella, Hebl, & King, 2017). However, there is a substantial amount of research that identifies and describes affective, cognitive, and behavioral differences between men and women. These differences between adult men and women can be traced back to a nature-nurture issue.

First, there are biological differences that predispose men and women to particular behaviors and motivations (Heim, Hughes, & Golant, 2015). For instance, there is evidence that certain hormones such as oxytocin in both humans and animals drive females to communal or caring responses, while testosterone drives males to fight-or-flight and competitiveness. In personality research, women exhibit more in the warmth, sociability, and positive emotions components of Extraversion, while men exhibit more assertiveness and excitement seeking (Valerio, 2009). Second, men and women are socialized differently from a very young age and learn that certain behaviors are considered more masculine while other behaviors are more feminine, which results in differing approaches to interpersonal interactions later on (Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000). In social psychology, sex role development studies have revealed that girls are taught to behave cooperatively and be nurturing, while boys are taught to be assertive, aggressive, and unemotional (Heim, Hughes, & Golant, 2015). In interpersonal emotion management, behavioral norms are learned for men and women; for example, females may perceive stronger norms to elicit positive emotions in others compared to males (Niven, 2016). Thus, women more frequently engage in communal behaviors, while men engage in agentic behaviors (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003).

These biological and learned factors impact adult life in both domestic and organizational contexts. According to research on leadership styles, women tend to adopt a more democratic or participative style, while men are more autocratic or directive (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Valerio, 2009). Women are also more likely to be

transformational leaders compared to men, who typically demonstrate a more transactional leadership style (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Valerio, 2009). However, much of the recent research on leadership emphasizes how effective leaders must behave in ways that demonstrate care and consideration for individual employees. These are the very behaviors that many expect to come from women, and interestingly a few studies have demonstrated that women are more effective leaders compared to men (Eagly, 2007; Rosette & Tost, 2010). For instance, transformational leadership, which is more closely associated with female leaders, was found to be more effective than transactional leadership. Further, research has demonstrated positive perceptions of leadership that demonstrates ethics, morality, and integrity, which are more closely associated with feminine characteristics (Eagly & Carli, 2007). In moving forward, it is important to consider whether these differences in behavior are driven by true preferences and individual difference variables or by external forces, such as the perceived need to behave in certain ways which can in turn impact impression management behaviors.

Gender and Social Influence

As discussed previously, the agency-communion distinction is a key component of the current study - I seek to apply this concept to political skill, impression management, and IEM as illustrated in Table 1. In this section, I discuss the agency-communion distinction of these variables in relation to gender.

Political skill might manifest itself differently between men and women. Workplace politics are seen as "aggressive, competitive and compatible with

masculine behaviors" (Doldor, 2011, pg. 258). The four dimensions of political skill have been characterized as either agentic/stereotypically masculine or communal/stereotypically feminine. Specifically, networking ability and interpersonal influence can be more closely tied to agentic behaviors in that they are masculine and are concerned with influencing others and social dominance, while social astuteness and apparent sincerity are more closely related to communal behaviors and therefore may be used more frequently by females (Snell et al., 2013).

Similarly, an individual's selection of impression management tactic is influenced by personal preferences, skills, and perceptions of what will be effective given the context, but it is also important to consider gender as a factor (Patel & Biswas, 2016). Research has demonstrated that there are certain tactics that are used more frequently by men and others by women. For example, men use more impression management and wider range of impression management tactics (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007). There is also a difference between genders in terms of the motivation or goals of impression management. Typically, men want to stand out or get ahead, while women want to strike a balance for all involved (Tannen, 1994). Furthermore, according to Singh, Kumra, and Vinnicombe (2002), women feel less inclined to use impression management at all and feel that just doing a good job should be sufficient.

Finally, interpersonal emotion management (IEM) behaviors may be subject to the same inherent and socialized preferences and skills and the perceptions of the context. Dealing with or managing employee emotions might be thought of as more

feminine or communal: IEM strategies are relational behaviors that (1) seek to influence others' internal feelings, (2) are undertaken for the benefit of others, and (3) require sensitivity to and care for others (Niven et al., 2009; Post et al., 2019). As previously stated, women may be more inclined to attempt to elicit positive emotions in others (Niven, 2016). Therefore, IEM may have group variance between men and women.

Role Congruity Theory

Women have been found to emerge as leaders in socially-complex interactions and focus on socially facilitative behaviors, whereas men focus on the group's tasks (Eagly & Karau, 1991). While this may be due to preferences and biological determinants, external forces, specifically gender stereotypes and gender roles, may negatively impact women leaders. Gender stereotypes are oversimplified images or ideas of men and women, impacting which personality traits, behaviors, occupations, and physical attributes are "acceptable" for males and females. Gender stereotypes produce *descriptive* expectations about what women are like and *prescriptive* expectations about what women should be like (Heilmann, 2001). These expectations can be thought of as sex or gender roles, and are more formally defined as a certain range of emotions, attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions that are associated more with one sex than with the other (Levesque, 2011).

Gendered expectations are quite different for men and women, but beyond that, the conceptions of men and women are often seen as oppositional, meaning members of one sex are seen as "lacking what is thought to be most prevalent in

members of the other sex" (Heilmann, 2001, pg. 658). Thus, gender roles are also oppositional and prescribe not only how individuals *should* behave but also how they *should not* behave. Men must display independence, assertiveness, and dominance. Women should be *dependent, passive,* and *submissive*, but they must not be *independent*, *assertive*, or *dominant*. Men should not be *emotional*, while women must display *expressive* behaviors and traits that reflect *sensitivity* to others and communality (Bem, 1974; Eagly et al., 2000). Overall, gender stereotypes appear to create more negative views of women.

Many of the gender and workplace issues stem from the idea of role congruity. Eagly first described role congruity theory, which proposed that a person would be positively evaluated when his or her characteristics are aligned with the typical social role associated with that person (Eagly & Diekman, 2005). For example, stereotypical male characteristics are more associated with a leadership role than are stereotypical female characteristics, therefore male leaders should be more positively evaluated than female leaders. Prejudice toward female leaders occurs because of inconsistencies between their gender role and the leadership role (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Zheng, Kark, & Meister, 2018). This is due to the fact that "typical" leadership characteristics fall in line with those of the male gender role, including agentic behaviors and independence, assertiveness, and dominance. The leader and male gender role characteristics, motivations, and behaviors conflict and even compete with female gender role prescriptions (Zheng, Surgevil, & Kark, 2018). Leaders (and men) are expected to be agentic, which conflicts with communal

characteristics and behaviors that are expected of women. This creates what has been termed the "think leader, think male" phenomenon. In support of this, research has demonstrated that this affects women who are seeking to move up to leadership positions by producing biased evaluations, and women who already occupy such positions, women leaders, are perceived in a less positive manner when compared to their male counterparts. In other words, role congruity theory predicts that the perceived incongruence between female gender role and the leader role lead to a female leader disadvantage (Rosette & Tost, 2010). Stereotypes and gender roles influence the perceptions of women and subsequent evaluations, which hinders their advancement (Heilmann, 2001).

Gender has also been studied as a moderator for the relationships between social influence variables and leadership effectiveness or success. For instance, Braun, Peus, and Frey (2018) demonstrated different cognitive processing dynamics influence leadership perceptions: when female leader behavior aligned with communal (authentic) leadership, there were positive outcomes; but when female leader behavior aligned with agentic (autocratic and initiating structure) leadership styles, this inhibited followers' cognitive processing of female leader prototypes. For political skill, Snell et al.'s (2013) relative weight analysis revealed an interaction between gender and apparent sincerity, such that women are viewed as more effective managers than men when they have high apparent sincerity. For impression management and IEM, Shaughnessy, Treadway, Breland, Williams, and Brouers' (2011) study found that women whose behavior is consistent with social expectations

may be more positively evaluated. Impression management behaviors can be used to bring behaviors in line with social expectations and thus be seen as an effective leader. However, women are at a disadvantage when using such tactics as self-promotion or intimidation because these behaviors are more agentic and fall outside of gender expectations (Bolino et al., 2016). Finally, followers reported higher trust in female leaders compared to males when they displayed high-IEM behaviors; however, trust ratings were lower for female leaders (compared to males) when they displayed low-IEM behaviors (Latu & Belkin, 2019). This research supports the idea that certain social influence variables are more congruent with stereotypes about women than with stereotypes about men.

The Double Bind

Many barriers to female leader empowerment can be characterized as double-bind issues, which have been given much attention in recent research (Lyness & Grotto, 2018). In a general sense, a double bind is when contradictory demands are made of an individual such that no matter which alternative is chosen, it will be construed as incorrect (Catalyst, 2007). This phrase has come to hold deeper meaning in research on women in the workplace. The following discussion seeks to synthesize the main double-bind issues that women face in the workplace as discussed in the literature.

Much of the research on the double bind for women leaders holds that gender stereotypes or sex roles create this dilemma. Budworth and Mann (2010) describe a double bind, specifically with the stereotype of feminine modesty limiting access to

leadership in two ways. First, women are expected to behave in a certain way (e.g., modest and quiet), but when they engage in such behaviors, they are not likely to be seen as leaders. If they choose to enact more feminine behaviors, they might not be taken seriously, because prototypical leaders are independent, assertive, and dominant. Second, if and when they choose to engage in these behaviors (i.e., they are not modest and are not quiet, engaging in stereotypically masculine behaviors), then they may be seen in a negative light because they are behaving in a manner that is inconsistent with their gender role prescriptions. If they choose to enact agentic leadership behaviors, they will be criticized for stepping outside of their femininity.

Women are often subject to extreme perceptions. They are considered either too "soft" or too tough, either competent or likeable, but rarely both. Women leaders must choose between going against the norms of leadership or going against the norms of femininity. Zheng, Kark, and Meister (2018) expand on the role congruity theory by describing the tension women experience between agency and communion. In other words, women in leadership often feel forced to choose between more masculine or "leader-like" behaviors and maintaining a feminine image. Impression management research highlights that women do not typically engage in self-promotion because they fear backlash, as this type of behavior is not in line with gender roles (Moss-Racusin & Rudman, 2010; Rudman, 1998). Women also tend toward modesty, which may influence the extent to which they engage in self-promoting behaviors (Budworth & Mann, 2010). With other counter-normative impression management tactics, such as intimidation, Bolino et al. (2013)

demonstrated that these negatively impacted females' likeability but positively impacted performance ratings.

This research indicates that the female "double bind" applies here - women are often forced to choose between being liked by others and being viewed as effective leaders. This double bind, in which women are evaluated negatively no matter their choice of behavior, may perpetuate the dearth of female executives (Budworth & Mann, 2010). Gender roles and gender stereotypes can result in unequal or unfair treatment (Heilmann, 2001).

Authentic Women Leaders

Research demonstrates that women may hurt their likeability with masculine behaviors and their performance appraisals with feminine behaviors, but there are other issues created by the tension between agency and communion. First, women may be affected by stereotype threat, or the fear of confirming a negative stereotype about one's group through one's own behavior (Steele & Aronson, 1995). For instance, feminine behaviors stereotypically convey incompetence (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). When women experience stereotype threat, they may fear that they confirm their gender's supposed incompetence, which causes them to perform poorly anyway because of the strain on cognitive functioning or attentional resources (Kalokerinos, von Hippel, & Zacher, 2014). Second, women may internalize these ideas and devalue their own leadership capabilities, known as impostor syndrome (Colella, Hebl, & King, 2017). A recent white paper from the Center for Creative Leadership suggests that female professionals often suppress their true selves,

underestimate their own abilities, and feel self-doubt (Ruderman & Rogolsky, 2013). Third, the double bind can cause women to be distracted by this inner conflict, diminishing the personal resources needed to address the situation at hand (Ruderman & Rogolsky, 2013).

Finally, the double bind can cause women to feel inauthentic. Women are aware of the labyrinth that lies before them, and in an attempt to navigate it, they often feel like they must behave in ways that go against their values and attitudes (Heim, Hughes, & Golant, 2015). Women frequently report suppressing their personal style in the workplace in favor of fitting in with the male-oriented organizations or fitting in with others' expectations (Ruderman & Rogolsky, 2013). Some argue that women are more socially conditioned to suppress emotions and are required to self-regulate more than men, which would mean that women experience more emotional labor (Brescoll, 2016).

Avolio and Gardner (2005) proposed positive psychological capital was closely related to authentic leadership. Positive psychological capital includes capacities such as confidence, optimism, hope, and resilience that can act as personal resources, which contribute to leader emotion regulation or self-regulation. Each threat discussed here requires a heavy use of one's own resources, leaving no energy for work and actual performance. Further, Weiss, Razinskas, Backmann, and Hoegl (2018) used ego-depletion and authentic leadership theories to examine whether authentic leadership predicts leaders' mental well-being, finding that inauthentic leaders experience higher ego-depletion. Finally, van den Bosch and Taris (2014)

summarize authenticity constructs as related to depression, anxiety, and stress, including negative relations between authenticity and anxiety, depression, perceived stress, and symptomatology. They also argue that lower levels of authenticity may experience a loss of energy will result in higher levels of stress and negative affect. Therefore, in addition to being passed over for promotions, women are at risk of harming their own well-being when plotting their course in a Catch-22. Women must find acceptable leadership styles and behaviors to avoid backlash.

There are several existing recommendations for women in the form of strategies for managing incongruity and the double bind (Heim et al., 2015; Ruderman & Rogolsky, 2013; Zheng et al., 2018). For one, women can conform to agentic behaviors. In fact, some women are able to use impression management and set themselves apart, rising through the ranks by demonstrating how they are "not like other women". This is often seen in male-dominated fields and can result in successful navigation to the top (Derks et al., 2011). Next, women can choose to reject agentic behaviors in favor of communal ones. However, there are issues and consequences to each of these approaches. The approaches that blend agency and communion may be the best bet (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Heim, Hughes, & Golant, 2015; Mavin & Grandy, 2012). Through interviews with 64 senior women leaders, Zheng et al. (2018) identified what they termed four "balancing acts" for women leaders: demanding yet caring, authoritative yet participative, advocating for selves yet serving others, and maintaining distance yet being approachable. Mavin and Grandy (2012) pose a theoretical discussion of simultaneous, multiple enactments of

femininity and masculinity. For example, a female leader may "care" as a leader, which demonstrates her femininity; while simultaneously demonstrating masculinity by taking risks and spotting opportunities. Individuals who perform exaggerated expressions of femininity (or masculinity) while simultaneously performing alternative expressions of femininity or masculinity might ultimately be successful leaders. Leadership training should provide women with tools and mechanisms for overcoming these issues and bringing agency and communion into coexistence.

Research Gaps in Gender and Leadership

In a recent review of the leadership gender gap, Lyness and Grotto (2018) discuss the BAFFLE Female Leadership Model, which describes Barriers and Facilitators of Female Leader Empowerment. Overall, they suggest that much of the literature surrounding gender and the workplace focuses too narrowly on either barriers or facilitators to female leaders' empowerment, when in reality these factors coexist. Thus, more research must be dedicated to understanding the interactions between barriers and facilitators to female empowerment. At the individual employee level, barriers to empowerment of female leaders include both interpersonal and intrapersonal processes.

While research has begun to examine the relationship between impression management and gender, there remain many unexplored avenues of research in this area. Prior to Bolino et al. (2016), studies on gender and impression management were scattered, not often researched. Their synthesis of previous research falls in line with role theory - impression management behaviors are labeled as "masculine" or

"feminine", or agentic versus communal. Gendered expectations influence the types of tactics that are seen as acceptable, as well as the extent to which individuals engage in certain types of impression management behaviors. Therefore, impression management tactics such as self-promotion and intimidation, which are more aggressive and self-serving, may be seen as more agentic or masculine and are used more often by men. On the other hand, supplication and ingratiation are other-focused, and therefore considered more communal and are more often used by women.

Research generally supports the notion that impression management must fit gender role prescriptions in order to be successful (Bolino et al., 2016). Currently, there is little research dedicated to examining the effects of counternormative impression management for women versus men.

Chapter 3: Current Research

This study has three goals: (1) to examine the role of political skill on leader behaviors; (2) to examine the effects of impression management and emotion management on follower perceptions of leader authenticity and trust in leader; and (3) to examine leader gender as a moderator of the relationships between leader behaviors and the outcomes of authenticity and trust. The first set of hypotheses examines the constructs overall as specified in the model depicted by Figure 1. I hypothesized that political skill is positively related to impression management and emotion management. For impression management behaviors, I explore self-promotion, ingratiation, and exemplification, as these strategies have been shown to be effective; intimidation and supplication are typically less effective and therefore likely to be selected by those with high levels of political skill (Brouer et al., 2015). For interpersonal emotion management (IEM) behaviors, I explore followers' perceptions of such behaviors using the "problem-focused" category described by Little et al. (2016): situation modification and cognitive change. In turn, impression management and emotion management are hypothesized to relate to trust in a leader.

The second set of hypotheses predicts the alignment of communal and agentic aspects as well as mediation and moderation of these relationships, which is specified in the model depicted by Figure 2. First, I discuss how the subdimensions of political skill, impression management, and emotion management are further delineated into agentic and communal qualities. I also explore the alignment between communal political skill (sincerity and social astuteness) and communal impression

management strategies (ingratiation) as well as between agentic political skill (networking and interpersonal influence) and agentic impression management strategies (self-promotion). I posit that communal political skill should align with cognitive change IEM strategies, while agentic political skill should align with situation modification IEM strategies.

Next, I predict that these follower perceptions of impression management and IEM impact followers' trust in a leader based on research and theory exploring the nature of trust in a supervisor-subordinate dyad.

Finally, I discuss leader gender and leader self-reported authenticity as contextual factors. Based on theories of role congruity, I propose that leader gender moderates the relationship between impression management behaviors and followers' perceptions of authentic leadership as well as the relationship between IEM behaviors and followers' perceptions of authentic leadership. I also discuss emotional labor strategies and situation-emotion matching to support the hypothesis that leader self-reported authenticity moderates the relationship between impression management behaviors and follower perceptions. This highlights that politically skilled people may be inauthentic to themselves (leader-felt authenticity) or to their gender (gender role/stereotype incongruity) and how that may negatively impact trust.

Hypotheses for Overall Model

Political Skill and Impression Management

I first posit that political skill is related to impression management. Politically skilled individuals are better able to select impression management tactics and image

enhancing behaviors that are appropriate to the given situation (Bolino et al., 2016; Munyon et al., 2015). Further, they have greater behavioral repertoires because they are able to leverage their past accomplishments while simultaneously avoiding the appearance that they are arrogant (Harris et al., 2007). For instance, research shows that political skill enables actors to hide their ulterior motives when enacting impression management (Bolino et al., 2016), and overall those with political skill were more likely to choose positive IM tactics (ingratiation and self-promotion) rather than those that might be ineffective or promote poor perceptions in targets (Brouer et al., 2015). Munyon and colleagues' (2015) meta-analysis argued for the relationship between political skill and personal reputation, hypothesizing that politically skilled individuals are able to leverage their networking ability to build social capital, which leads to a favorable reputation among colleagues. This reputation acts as positive feedback, influencing the likelihood that they will repeat the successful image-enhancing behaviors of the past (Ferris et al., 2005). Individuals who have high levels of networking ability are likely to informally emerge as leaders and obtain leadership positions. Therefore, politically skilled individuals may have a greater potential reach and effectiveness in impression management behaviors. This draws a clear link from political skill to impression management behaviors such that more politically skilled individuals would engage in higher levels of impression management behaviors.

Hypothesis 1a: Political skill is positively related to impression management behaviors.

Political Skill and Interpersonal Emotion Management

I also posit that political skill is an important antecedent to the management of others' emotions. Attitudes and behaviors can be shaped by emotion (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1995), and social influence, by nature, is an emotion-laden process. Political skill enables leaders to read the situation and emotionally behave in ways that are likely to alter or assist employees in regulating their own emotions. Similar to its effects on impression management, political skill should enable a leader to read the situation and follower emotion, and this will influence their selection of IEM behaviors.

First, political skill covaries and conceptually overlaps with the dimensions of emotional intelligence (Ferris et al., 2005; Ferris et al., 2007; Munyon et al., 2015). Specifically, the political skill dimension of social astuteness and the emotional intelligence components of emotion perception and emotion understanding both allow individuals to accurately observe and interpret the behavior (or emotions) of others. Social astuteness would allow a leader to detect any discrepancy between the follower's current emotional state and the desired emotional state. More specifically, there may be certain emotional requirements or display rules in a given situation or a particular workplace (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Groth et al., 2009), a leader may detect distress in an employee and want to change it and a leader may recognize that a certain emotion will not help

them achieve a certain goal. For example, a leader who recognizes an employee is experiencing negative emotion would want to change the emotional state when that employee is required to interact with a customer because "service with a smile" has been shown to be more successful in achieving the organizational goal (e.g., making a sale; Barger & Grandey, 2006). Therefore, the politically skilled leader would recognize the current emotions, how such emotion might (negatively) impact the other person as well as their goals, and thus be motivated to remove them.

Additionally, there is a conceptual overlap between political skill's dimension of interpersonal influence and emotion regulation from emotional intelligence. Interpersonal influence enables a leader to exert influence on others. According to Munyon et al. (2015), appraisal of a situation or social environment includes a determination of behavioral responses. Social-cognitive theories (e.g., Bandura, 1991) suggest that individuals determine socially appropriate behaviors based on cues from their surroundings, such as the behaviors and emotions of others. Thus, interpersonal influence would enable a leader to select behaviors to try and regulate the emotions of the target through IEM behaviors.

Hypothesis 2a: Political skill is positively related to interpersonal emotion management.

Predicting Trust in Leader

Evaluations of trust are often based on perceptions of an individual's ability, integrity, and benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995), values (Jones & George, 1998), and

liking (Nicholson et al., 2001). Impression management strategies (ingratiation, exemplification, and self-promotion) may impact an individual's perception of these trust predictors. First, the desired image linked to ingratiation is likeability. When individuals wish to convey how likeable they are, they might use ingratiation behaviors, which include acting in a manner that is consistent with the preferences of a target (opinion conformity), flattery and praise of the target, and doing favors. Targets of such behaviors may experience positive moods, leading the target to like the actor and to feel trust toward the actor (Jones & George, 1998; Nicholson et al., 2001).

Second, individuals may use exemplification behaviors, such as staying late at work, appearing busy, to be seen as dedicated or loyal. Dedication and loyalty can be considered values in line with many of the personal values held by many individuals. A target who observes such behaviors would determine that the actor is in line with his or her values. This sense of shared values would foster the target's feelings of trust toward the actor (Jones & George, 1998).

Third, self-promotion intends to convey that the actor is competent and includes behaviors like highlighting one's own accomplishments (boasting), taking credit for positive outcomes, "name dropping" important others, and downplaying the severity of negative events to which they are connected. Competence is a key predictor of trust according to Mayer et al. (1995). A target who observes behaviors that align with competence would be likely to trust the target. Therefore, impression management should be related to trust.

Hypothesis 3a: Impression management is positively related to trust in leader.

Second, problem-focused IEM may also lead to trust in leader based on its impact on an individual's perception of a leader's ability, integrity, and benevolence. A leader who engages in problem-focused IEM attempts to remove or alter a problem to reduce the emotional impact (situation modification) or reappraise a situation as more positive (cognitive change). Such behaviors, in targeting the problem, help to convey the leader's ability to solve such problems and to understand the concerns of the employee (benevolence).

Overall, such behaviors might be perceived as empathy and consideration. Individuals who express empathy with others might be perceived as benevolent because they understand the experience of others and may therefore be helpful. Individuals who are able to express certain emotions and empathize with their subordinates are also able to create a common identity and demonstrate shared values (Humphrey et al., 2008; Jones & George, 1998). Consideration behaviors, including showing concern and respect for followers, looking out for their welfare, and expressing appreciation and support, may indicate to the followers that a leader is trustworthy (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017). Little et al. (2012) demonstrated that when supervisors used SM and CC, subordinates were more willing to make themselves vulnerable to them. Taken together, this indicates that interpersonal

emotion management behaviors would impact perceptions of benevolence and shared values, thereby impacting trust.

Hypothesis 4a: Problem-focused IEM behaviors (situation modification and cognitive change) are positively related to trust in leader.
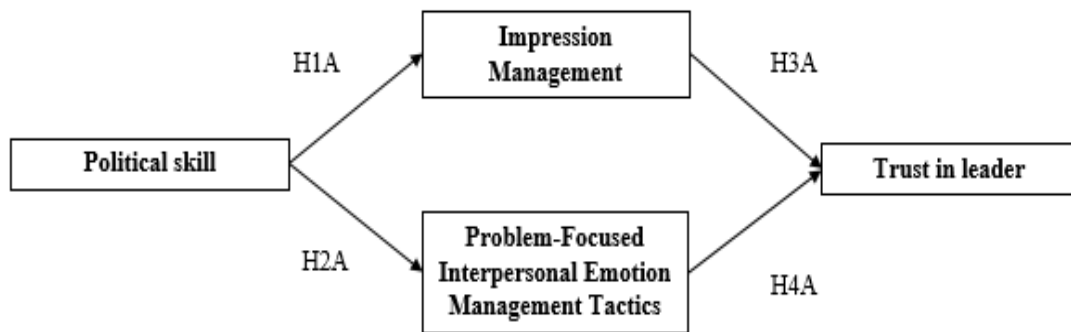
Figure 1: Hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, and 4a.

Table 3: Summary of Hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, and 4a.

Hypothesis	Description
H1a	Political skill is positively related to impression management.
H2a	Political skill is positively related to interpersonal emotion management.
H3a	Impression management is positively related to trust in leader.
H4a	Problem-focused interpersonal emotion management is related to trust in leader.

Hypotheses for Communal and Agentic Components

As discussed in Chapter 2, the various dimensions of political skill, impression management, and interpersonal emotion management have been identified as distinct factors both theoretically and empirically (Brouer et al.,2015). Therefore, I chose to examine two separate models (a communal model and an agentic model). Overall, I hypothesized that the communal aspects of PS would relate to the communal aspects of IM and IEM, while the agentic aspects of PS would relate to the agentic aspects of IM and IEM.

Communal Alignments

Communal components of political skill, sincerity and social astuteness, can be further aligned with ingratiation and exemplification, the communal impression management tactics. Political skill enables individuals to engage in behaviors they deem appropriate to the situation and to the objectives they wish to achieve (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Communal predispositions would enact social astuteness and apparent sincerity components of political skill, which in turn would enact communal behaviors of ingratiation and exemplification. Ingratiation tactics, used to convey likeability, are driven by communally-focused motives. Ingratiation behaviors include opinion conformity, flattery and praise of target, and doing favors; exemplification behaviors include staying at work late, trying to appear busy, arriving at work early, and coming to the office at night or on weekends to show that you are dedicated. All of these behaviors are all focused outside the self (Bolino et al., 2016). Therefore, ingratiation and exemplification behaviors demonstrate integration with and concern for others, which are communal qualities.

Hypothesis 1b: Communal political skill (apparent sincerity and social astuteness) is positively related to communal impression management (ingratiation and exemplification).

Communal skills aim at integration with and concern for others, which is reflected by social astuteness and apparent sincerity components of political skill. These behaviors are likely to evoke communal behaviors such as guiding a target to reappraise or reinterpret the situation (cognitive change).

Hypothesis 2b: Communal political skill (apparent sincerity and social astuteness) is positively related to communal IEM behaviors of cognitive change.

Agentic Alignments

Similarly, the agentic components of political skill, networking and interpersonal influence, can be aligned with the agentic components of impression management, self-promotion. Agentic predispositions would enact networking and interpersonal influence components of political skill, which in turn would enact agentic behaviors of self-promotion. Self-promotion includes behaviors such as highlighting one's own accomplishments (boasting), taking credit for positive outcomes, "name dropping" important others, and downplaying the severity of negative events to which they are connected. Such behaviors are motivated by achievement striving and differentiating oneself from others, which are agentic

qualities that are exemplified in agentic political skill behaviors (Blasberg, Rogers, & Paulhus, 2014).

Hypothesis 1c: Agentic political skill (networking ability and interpersonal influence) is positively related to agentic impression management (self-promotion).

Agentic skills aim at achievement striving and differentiating oneself from others (Blasberg, Rogers, & Paulhus, 2014; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003), which is reflected by networking ability and interpersonal influence components of political skill. These behaviors are likely to evoke agentic behaviors such as removing or altering a problem to reduce the emotional impact (situation modification).

Hypothesis 2c: Agentic political skill (networking ability and interpersonal influence) is positively related to agentic IEM behaviors of situation modification.

Political skill has historically been examined as a single construct with four dimensions. However, recent studies have begun to examine the dimensions' distinctiveness. For example, Brouer et alt. (2015) hypothesized each dimension separately and subsequently found support for a four-factor model using confirmatory factor analysis, as well as support for their grouping of IM behaviors into positive versus negative tactics. These results support the differentiation of the dimensions of political skill, IM and IEM, and specifically the examination of the

communal and agentic components of these constructs as construed in the current study. To further contribute to this literature, I will also examine whether the communal sub-dimensions of PS are more positively related to the communal IM and IEM while the agentic PS sub-dimensions are more positively related to agentic IM and IEM. I hypothesize that the communal components of political skill will enact cognitive change IEM behaviors (communal), while agentic components of political skill will enact situation modification IEM behaviors (agentic).

Hypothesis 1d: Communal components of political skill will have more relative importance to the prediction of communal IM and IEM than agentic IM and IEM.

Hypothesis 2d: Agentic components of political skill will have more relative importance to the prediction of agentic IM and IEM than communal IM and IEM.

Authentic Leadership

Impression Management and Perceptions of Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership is characterized by strong self-awareness, fostering open relationships and open-mindedness, and behaving in accordance with personal values (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans et al., 2005; Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008). The next two hypotheses are concerned with impression management and authentic leadership.

Generally, behavioral leadership theories posit that leader behaviors are related to follower perceptions. Ingratiation, exemplification, and self-promotion have been shown to be aligned with desired outcomes. For instance, Rozell and Gundersen (2003) found that leader IM behaviors were linked to group outcomes

(e.g., cohesion). In Gardner and Cleavenger (1998), communal IM behaviors (ingratiation and exemplification) were positively related to transformational leadership, leadership effectiveness, and follower satisfaction, while agentic IM behaviors (self-promotion) were negatively related to these constructs. Further, research on authentic leadership indicates a clear link to influence processes of leadership. Literature links authentic leadership to important employee outcomes. However, there is less literature directed toward understanding antecedents of employee perceptions of authentic leadership.

Impression management may convey likeability and competence that may align with perceptions of balanced processing, authentic behavior, and authentic relational orientation (Ilies et al., 2005). Communal IM strategies (ingratiation and exemplification) can be linked to the relational component of authenticity (Eagly, 2005). Theories of authentic leadership highlight its dimension of relational transparency, which is the idea that an authentic leader presents his or her true self to others and displays high levels of openness, self-disclosure, and trust (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009). Authentic leaders, therefore, have a propensity for the communal or concern for and with others. According to Bolino et al. (2016), truly likeable, competent, and dedicated employees may engage in ingratiation and exemplification. Self-promotion (agentic IM) on the other hand may be perceived as self-focused and less about relationship building. Therefore, I believe that communal IM behaviors are positively related to authentic leadership and agentic IM behaviors are negatively related to authentic leadership.

Hypothesis 3b: Communal impression management behaviors (ingratiation and exemplification) are positively related to perceptions of authentic leadership.

Hypothesis 3c: Agentic impression management behaviors (self-promotion) are negatively related to perceptions of authentic leadership.

Interpersonal Emotion Management and Perceived Authentic Leadership

Next, I posit that problem-focused interpersonal emotion management will be related to followers' perceptions of leader authenticity. Little et al. (2016) found that problem-focused IEM behaviors were related to leader-member exchange (LMX), arguing that behaviors such as providing additional support (situational modification (SM)) and offering a reappraisal of the event (cognitive change (CC)) address the problems employees face. In doing so, leaders are able to meet role expectations and demonstrate that negative emotions are acceptable. Therefore, meeting role expectations and allowing for the expression of naturally felt emotions, the relationship between the problem-focused IEM behaviors and leader authenticity would be positive.

Similar to its relationship with impression management, I posit that the relational component of authentic leadership can be linked to IEM. The dimension of relational transparency frames authentic leadership as concerned with the thoughts and feelings of others (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009). More specifically, problem-focused IEM behaviors of cognitive change and situation modification can influence

a follower's personal identification with the leader, positive behaviors due to social learning, and feelings of support for their own self-determination, which are influence mechanisms identified in Ilies et al.'s (2005) authentic leadership theory. Therefore, I believe that problem-focused IEM behaviors will have a positive relationship with perceived authentic leadership.

Hypothesis 4b: Problem-focused IEM behaviors of situation modification are positively related to perceptions of authentic leadership.

Hypothesis 4c: Problem-focused IEM behaviors of cognitive change are positively related to perceptions of authentic leadership.

Previous research has demonstrated that emotion-focused IEM behaviors (attentional deployment and modulating the emotional response) had weak, non-significant relationships with both trust in supervisor (Little et al., 2012) as well as LMX (Little et al., 2016). Attentional deployment (AD; a communal strategy) and moderation of emotional response (MER; an agentic strategy) behaviors do not alleviate sources of negative emotions in the environment. Leaders who respond to workplace events using such emotion-focused IEM may harm perceptions of relational transparency, a key component of authentic leadership that involves presenting the true self and displaying high levels of openness, self-disclosure, and trust (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009). Further, MER includes suppression of emotional response, which may convey that a leader does not care to invest time and resources in alleviating the causes of negative emotions and is in direct opposition to

the concept of authenticity. Such inauthenticity and ulterior motives (or at the very least, unmet expectations) can be detected by targets, therefore emotion-focused IEM behaviors are likely ineffective and are not included in the theoretical model.

Perceptions of Authentic Leadership as a Mediator

The final hypothesis surrounding followers' perceptions of leader authenticity is that impression management and interpersonal emotion management are related to trust in a leader through perceptions of authentic leadership. Because trust comes from perceptions of ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995), perceptions of authentic leadership may play a key role in the relationship between impression and emotion management and trust. First, it is important to describe how a follower's perception of leader authenticity would impact their trust in the leader. Walumbwa et al. (2008) describe the four components of authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. These components conceptually overlap with ability, integrity, and benevolence. If a follower perceives that his or her leader is self-aware, relationally transparent, moral, and capable of balanced processing, then the follower is likely to trust the leader. Therefore:

Hypothesis 5a: Authentic leadership is positively related to trust in leader.

Impression management and problem-focused IEM behaviors lead to perceptions of authentic leadership, and authentic leadership leads to trust. Both impression management and problem-focused IEM behaviors have been linked to

the relational component of authentic leadership. In turn, authentic leadership can be linked to trust through its conceptual overlap with ability, benevolence, and integrity. Therefore, I hypothesize that perceptions of authentic leadership mediate the relationships between these constructs and trust in leader.

Hypothesis 5b: Impression management is positively related to trust in leader through authentic leadership.

Hypothesis 5c: Interpersonal emotion management is positively related to trust in leader through authentic leadership.

Gender as a Moderator

Based on the role congruity theory, double standards, and stereotype concept research, I suggest that impression management and emotion management will differentially predict authenticity for men and women. Research has shown that perceptions of leadership effectiveness, likeability, and even job performance suffer when individuals engage in behaviors that are incongruent with their gender. Eagly (2005) explains that role incongruity is a source of relational inauthenticity and that this is especially pronounced in evaluations of females. Generally, leadership and leadership behaviors are considered masculine. People are unaccustomed to female leadership and have negative (prejudicial or biased) reactions to it; women are "outsider[s] to the social group from which leaders traditionally have been selected" (Eagly, 2005; pg. 465). Overall, there is evidence to suggest that gender stereotypes lead to biased evaluations of female leaders (Brescoll, 2016). Role congruity

generates more favorable evaluations (Post, Latu, & Belkin, 2019). In addition to role incongruity, behavioral expectations set women up for failure as leaders and add another chance for incongruity and relational inauthenticity. Women are at an advantage with certain types of leadership behaviors that are considered more communal. However, women are also more harshly punished in followers' ratings when they behave in a manner that is gender-role incongruent. Snell et al. (2014) stated "a male and female manager with identical objective performances and identical levels of communal and agentic behaviors may be rated differently as a result of the different baseline levels of communal and agentic traits in the stereotypical male or female" (pg. 919). Being an outsider of the leader pool as well as displaying behaviors that are inconsistent with gender expectations make achieving authenticity very difficult for women (Eagly, 2005).

Impression management behaviors of ingratiation are seen as communal and better align with female gender roles, while impression management behaviors in the form of self-promotion are seen as agentic or masculine. As there is evidence linking communal behaviors and perceptions of women's leadership effectiveness (e.g., Braun et al., 2018), it is expected that communal behaviors in alignment with gender expectations might confer a positive relationship between such behaviors and perceptions of the leader's authenticity.   Therefore, the relationship between impression management and authentic leadership will be moderated by gender.

In a similar vein, I expect gender to moderate the relationship between IEM and authentic leadership. Post, Latu, and Belkin (2019) argued that overall, high IEM

is more gender-congruent with stereotypes about women than it is with stereotypes about men. In support of this, they found that IEM behaviors (overall) conferred an advantage to female leaders in gaining trust; women who displayed low-IEM were at a trust disadvantage. This implies that when women do not meet expectations (or are incongruent with gender role/stereotype) they are more harshly rated than their male counterparts. I posit that female leaders will receive lower authentic leadership when they exhibit low levels of cognitive change and higher levels of situation modification compared to males who exhibit low levels of cognitive change and high levels of situation modification.

For female leaders, high levels of communal behaviors (IM: ingratiation and exemplification; IEM: cognitive change) and low levels of agentic behaviors (IM: self-promotion; IEM: situation modification) will result in high perceptions of authentic leadership. However, for female leaders with low levels of communal behaviors and high levels of agentic behaviors, perceived authentic leadership ratings will be low. As discussed above, gender stereotype incongruity is oftentimes not punitive toward men. Men are seen as effective leaders when they are strong, but do not need to be seen as sensitive (Johnson et al., 2008). In Braun et al. (2018), leadership profiles described as low in relational transparency (i.e., leaders concealing their true thoughts and feelings) were associated with male leaders. This conceptually overlaps with authentic leadership, meaning that male leaders will likely not have high authentic leadership ratings no matter their selection of communal or agentic tactics (Braun et al., 2018). Therefore, there will be a weak

relationship between impression management and authenticity for men. However, this should not hold for women because the female leader prototype may necessitate IEM and contradicts high IM.

Hypothesis 6a: Gender moderates the relationship between impression management and authentic leadership such that such that the relationship between impression management and authentic leadership is stronger for women than for men.

Hypothesis 6b: Gender moderates the relationship between IEM and authentic leadership such that the relationships between IEM and authentic leadership is stronger for women than for men.
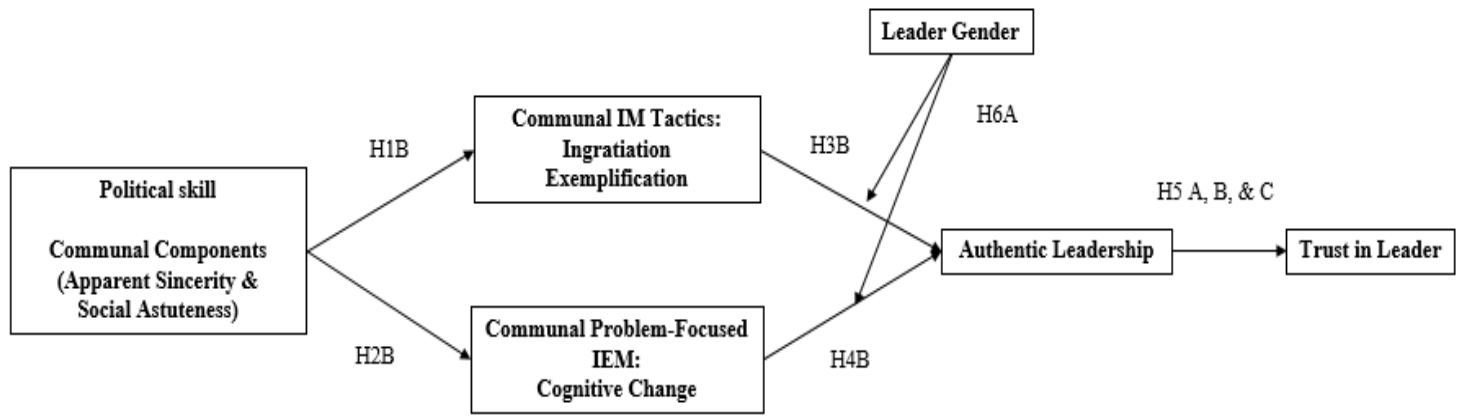
Figure 2: Hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, 5, and 6.
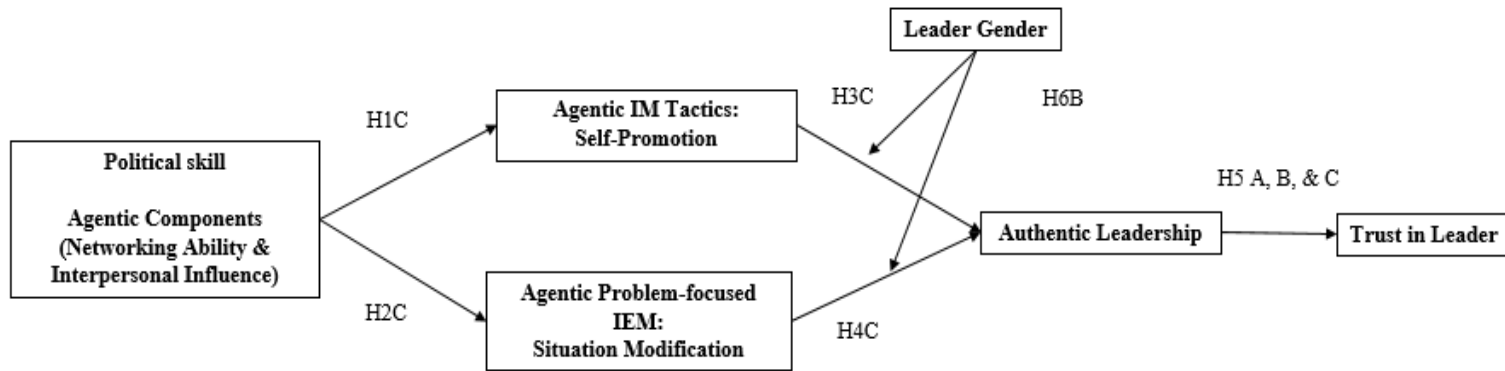
Figure 3: Hypotheses 1c, 2c, 3c, 4c, 5, and 6.

Table 4: Summary of Hypotheses 1bcd, 2bcd, 3bc, 4bc, 5, and 6.

Hypothesis	Description
H1b	Communal political skill (apparent sincerity and social astuteness) is positively related to communal impression management.
H1c	Agentic political skill (interpersonal influence and networking ability) is positively related to agentic impression management.
H1d	Communal components of political skill will be more positively related to communal IM and IEM than to agentic IM and IEM.
H2b	Communal political skill is positively related to cognitive change IEM behaviors.
H2c	Agentic political skill is positively related to situation modification IEM behaviors.
H2d	Agentic components of political skill will be more positively related to agentic IM and IEM than to communal IM and IEM.
H3b	Communal impression management behaviors (ingratiation) are positively related to perceptions of authentic leadership.
H3c	Agentic impression management behaviors (self-promotion) are negatively related to perceptions of authentic leadership.
H4b	Cognitive change IEM behaviors are positively related to authentic leadership.
H4c	Situation modification IEM behaviors are positively related to authentic leadership.
H5a	Authentic leadership is positively related to trust in a leader.
H5b	Authentic leadership mediates the relationship between leader impression management and trust in leader.
H5c	Authentic leadership mediates the relationship between IEM and trust in leader.
H6a	Leader gender moderates the relationship between impression management and perceived authentic leadership.
H6b	Leader gender moderates the relationship between IEM and perceived authentic leadership.

Exploratory Predictions

There are several sections of the proposed model that deserve more detailed attention but are beyond the scope of the current study.

Curvilinear Relationships

First, one area worth considering is whether there is an optimum level of certain leader behaviors. Other research discusses the various curvilinear relationships found in the relationships between leadership constructs and outcomes of interest (Ames, 2009; Ames & Flynn, 2007; Bono et al., 2014; Cho et al., 2017; Judge et al., 2009; Zacarro, 2007). For example, Judge et al. (2009) highlighted that although conscientiousness may be generally considered a "bright side" trait, there may be drawbacks to excessive levels, such as the appearance of rigidity and inflexibility. Moderation (or moderate levels of certain behaviors) might lead to greater success (Bono et al., 2014). Similarly, the overuse of certain IM tactics could have negative effects on follower perceptions. Agentic impression management strategies can be effective for individuals seeking to appear competent or powerful; however, these behaviors are sometimes risky. For self-promotion, an overemphasis on one's credentials can create an image of incompetence as well as self-interest (Berman et al., 2014; Bolino et al., 2016; Jones & Pittman, 1982). Individuals who use self-promotion too frequently may be seen as trying to overcompensate for a lack of competence or as highly self-involved by rarely discussing the successes of others.

When communal impression management tactics are used too frequently, this may signal negative attributions. Followers may believe that there are ulterior motives, thus they are likely to perceive the leader as inauthentic. According to

Bolino (1999), one key factor that determines the effectiveness of impression management is the target's perception of the actor's motives. When the target perceives that the actor has self-serving motives, the actor may be seen as inauthentic. Interpersonal emotion management might be subject to the same logic - too much of a "good" thing might convey inauthenticity or underlying ulterior motives. In the current study, this would be posed as a curvilinear relationship between behaviors (IM and IEM) and authentic leadership.

Leader-Felt Authenticity as a Moderator

I also wanted to explore the possibility that leader-felt authenticity could impact follower outcomes. Specifically, I sought to understand whether the relationships between IM/IEM and perceived authentic leadership would be impacted. Individuals who experience low levels of authenticity in the workplace may be behaving (or have behavioral requirements) that do not align with how they might behave naturally. I expect this is similar to the effects of surface acting in emotional labor research - individuals experience emotional dissonance when there is a conflict between genuinely felt emotions and organizationally or perceived situationally required emotions (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Therefore, behavioral or cognitive dissonance would arise from acting in ways that are not true to oneself. Such dissonance can have a negative impact on the actor as well as perceptions of others. For example, Van den Boschand Taris (2014) found that low authenticity was related to low engagement and low performance; internal dissonance has been linked to negative outcomes, such as mistakes and ineffective performance (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Weiss et al., 2018). Additionally, as research on emotional labor has

shown, a lack of authenticity can be detected by others (Grandey, 2003). As with surface acting in emotional labor research, being consciously inauthentic is likely ineffective in producing positive interactions (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Even worse, low intrapersonal authenticity may threaten relational transparency by denying targets' desires for or expectations of sincerity (Grandey, 2003). Further, detecting such inauthenticity may cause the target to perceive that the actor has or is attempting to hide ulterior motives. Leaders who feel authentic are more likely to succeed in performing IM and IEM effectively, which would positively impact follower perceptions of authenticity. Therefore, IM and IEM lead to higher perceived authentic leadership if the leader feels authentic. However, such behaviors could be perceived by followers as inauthenticity if the leader does not feel authentic themselves.

Next, I further explore the possibility of a three-way interaction between leader-felt authenticity, leader gender, and IM. The double bind presents women with a choice (Budworth & Mann, 2010). Option 1 is to act feminine and be seen as stupid or weak. Specifically, with IM, which is largely considered to be a masculine concept, research shows that women may not engage in such behaviors because they fear backlash, as certain types of behaviors are not in line with gender roles (Moss-Racusin & Rudman, 2010; Rudman, 1998). Overall, men use more IM and a wider range of IM tactics compared to women (Bolino & Turnley, 2003; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007). In addition, according to Singh et al. (2002), women feel less inclined to use IM at all and feel that just doing a good job should be sufficient.

Option 2 is to act masculine and be seen as bossy, rude, or snotty. Women may choose to engage in masculine behaviors in an attempt to match stereotypical expectations associated with male-typed jobs. They believe such behaviors will help them to be more effective in their roles as leaders, but in selecting these behaviors and forgoing feminine behaviors, they might be forced to downplay their authentic behaviors (Guillen, Mayo, & Karelaia, 2017). This may lead women to feel cognitive or emotional dissonance because of the conflict between what behavior might feel more natural and what behaviors they believe are effective given the situation. Women are more likely to feel inauthentic than men because of role incongruity and because of IM behaviors in conflict with how they would truly wish to act. Therefore, I explore the possibility of a three-way interaction effect with leader-felt authenticity, leader gender, and IM behaviors on authentic leadership.

Full Serial Mediation

Lastly, I included an exploratory analysis of the complete serial mediation to include political skill (PS, IM or IEM, and trust in leader). Individuals with higher levels of PS are more likely to use certain types of IM and IEM, and these individuals are also likely to have a higher level of success in achieving their goals when engaging in such behaviors. With successful IM or IEM, the actor also succeeds in conveying authenticity, which would lead to higher trust. This indicates a serial mediation beyond Hypotheses 5b and 5c.

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Chapter 4: Methodology

Sample

This study utilized multi-rater surveys to collect data from supervisors and their direct reports. They were recruited using two methods. First, participants were recruited through various online mechanisms (social media, discussion boards, email list servers, etc.). Participants from this group who completed the study received an exclusive results report and were entered to win one of four $50 Amazon gift cards. Second, participants were also recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk, in which requesters can create and distribute assignments to anonymous workers who receive compensation. Participants from this group were compensated at the conclusion of each survey and were offered bonuses if they recruited their supervisor or direct report. To further increase the sample size, each participant was also asked to recruit (1) either their supervisor or direct report and (2) another employed individual by providing contact information or forwarding the survey link, a commonly-used strategy known as snowballing (Little et al., 2016). Participants were provided with language to help in the recruiting process in order to increase participation. To achieve 5 to 10 cases per indicator, I aimed to recruit 100 dyads (Kline, 2011).

There were 67 followers who completed all three surveys (92% employed full-time, 83.6% females, 86% stated they did not identify as transgender, 73.1% White/Caucasian, 9% Black/African-American, 7.5% Hispanic/Latino, 4.5% Asian/Asian-American, 1.5% American Indian/Native American, and 1.5% Middle

Eastern). Of these followers, 65% indicated that they had a female leader (direct supervisor). There were 39 leaders who completed all three surveys (64.10% females, 5% identified as transgender, 74.4% White/Caucasian, 10.3% Black/African-American, 12.8% Hispanic/Latino, and 2.6% Asian/Asian-American). Next, there was a total of 28 matched employee–supervisor survey responses. Of these 28, 18 dyads matched, with 14 dyads being female-female (female leader, female follower) and 4 pairs being male-male. The remaining 10 included two female-male dyads (female leader, male follower) and 8 male-female dyads. The followers in this dataset were 71% Caucasian, 78% female, $M_{age} = 39.61$, $M_{tenure} = 4$ years, while the leaders in this dataset were 71 % Caucasian, 97 % female, $M_{age} = 48.14$, $M_{tenure} = 8$ years. While the sample size for the leader-follower matched dyad dataset is quite small, I felt it would still be useful to examine the study hypotheses using this dataset. The results reported using this dataset should be interpreted with caution.

Design

This study includes a time-lagged design in which participants were asked to respond to three surveys over the course of an eight- or six-week period. The current study assessed a total of 94 items.

Procedure

The surveys were housed on Qualtrics. Once consent was obtained, direct reports and supervisors completed a demographics and individual differences survey. This first survey distribution included the measures for demographics and individual

differences (i.e., political skill). The second and third sets of measures were deployed

such that there were three waves of participants (wave 1 = 8-week distribution, wave

2 = 6-week distribution, wave 3 = 6-week distribution). The second survey contained

IM and IEM measures for both direct reports (perception of leader behavior) and

supervisors (self-report of behaviors). The third set of measures included authenticity

and trust in leader measures for direct reports and leader-felt authenticity for

supervisors. The third follower survey also contained the measure for perceived

leader political skill, as this measure was added post-proposal to account for the great

number of followers who did not recruit a leader. Figure 3 below provides a visual

representation of the timeline for survey distribution.
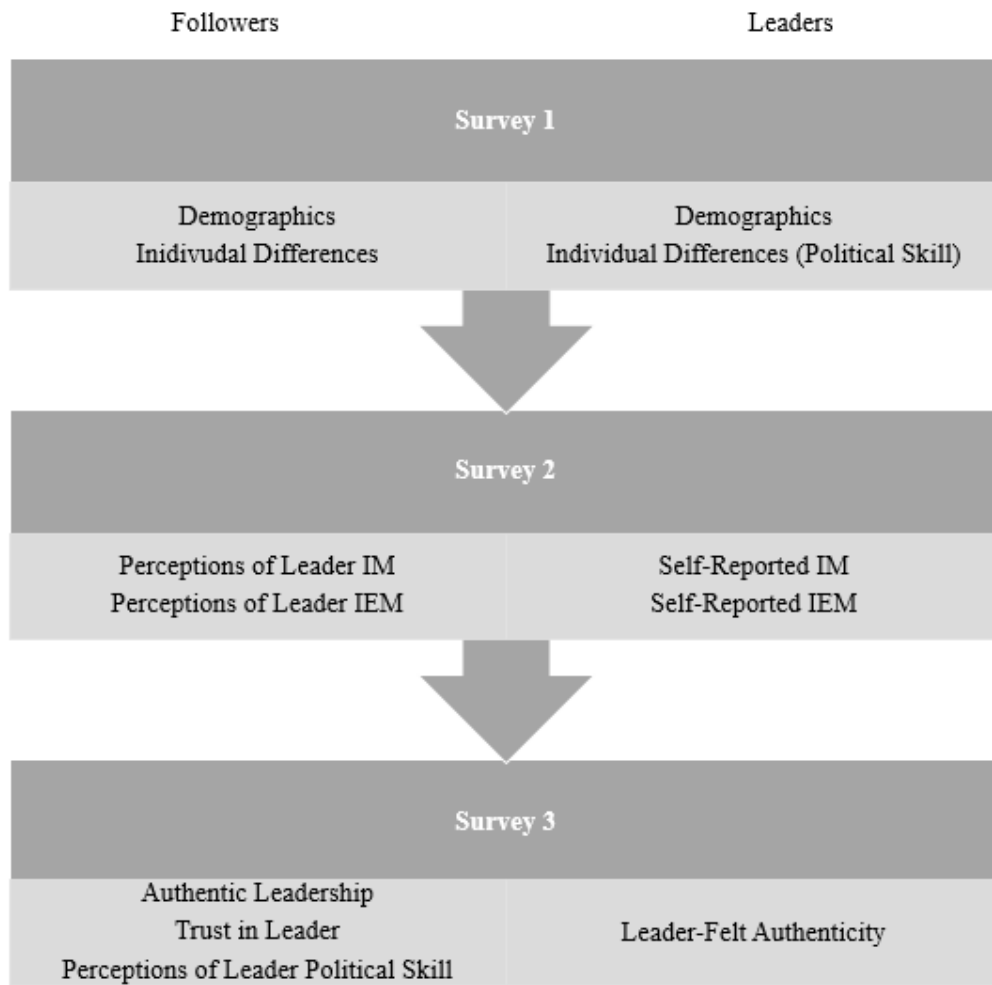
Figure 4: Visual representation of survey distribution.

Measures

Political Skill

A shortened version of the Political Skill Inventory (PSI; García-Chas, Neira-Fontela, Varela-Neira, & Curto-Rodríguez, 2019; Ferris et al., 2005) was used to measure political skill of the supervisor. This scale consists of 12 self-report 5-point Likert items on a scale of strongly disagree to strongly agree, with a high score indicating high political skill. This scale covers four dimensions of political skill:

networking ability, apparent sincerity, social astuteness, and interpersonal influence (Ferris et al., 2005); for purposes of study, networking ability and interpersonal influence was examined as agentic, while apparent sincerity and social astuteness was examined as communal. Example items include "I am good at building relationships with influential people at work", "I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others", "I pay close attention to people's facial expressions", and "When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do". Cronbach's alphas ranged from .71 to .88 in the original study (Ferris et a., 2005) and reached an overall Cronbach's alpha of .80 in Garcia-Chas et al. (2019).

Employees were also asked to complete information about their supervisor's political skill in the workplace. The Leaders' Political Skill Scale (Gill, Lapalme, & Séguin, 2014) assesses leaders' political skill across its four dimensions using 12 items adapted from the Ferris et al. (2005) scale. All items in scale were measured using a five-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for the overall measure was .95. Example items include "At work, my supervisor knows a lot of important people and is well connected". This measure was added to the third and final survey as a way to gather additional data for those followers who chose not to recruit a leader.

Impression Management

Bolino and Turnley's (1999) Impression Management (IM) in Organizations Scale was used to measure impression management tactics. This scale consists of 5-

point Likert items rated on a scale of 1 (never behave this way) to 5 (often behave this way), for which a high score indicates high use of the given tactic. The original scale included five impression management tactics, but this study focuses on the agentic (self-promotion) and communal (ingratiation and exemplification) tactics using 11 items. Cronbach's alphas ranged from .75 to .88 (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). The measures for IM were included on both the leader survey (e.g., "How often do you praise your colleagues for their accomplishments so they will consider you a nice person") and the follower survey (e.g., "My supervisor praises me for my accomplishments to show that he/she is a nice person") in order to conduct additional exploratory analyses using the agreement between the scores. Including the measure on both the supervisor and the employee survey would also help to account for any missing data, especially on the part of the supervisor.

Interpersonal Emotion Management

Interpersonal emotion management is conceptualized as specific behaviors directed at managing others' emotions. This study used both the original (Little et al., 2012) and modified (Little et al., 2016) versions of the interpersonal emotion management (IEM) strategies scale. This IEM measure includes four 5-item subsets measuring each of the four strategies on a 7-point Likert-type scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree). A sample item for the employee survey includes "My supervisor removes the negative aspects of situations that are negatively impacting me". A high score indicates the high use of the IEM strategy. As with the IM measures, the

measures for IEM were included on both the leader and the follower survey in order to conduct additional exploratory analyses using the agreement between the scores. Again, including the measures on both surveys would also help to account for any missing data, especially on the part of the supervisor.

Trust in Leader

The Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) scale was used for the main analyses, while the Wildman et al. (2009) measure was used for supplementary analyses. Subordinates' trust in their immediate supervisor was measured using the Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) scale. This is an expansion of the trust scale developed by Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (1996), which was shown to be strongly related to the three trustworthiness factors (e.g., ability, benevolence, and integrity). This 7-item scale uses 5-point Likert-type items with anchors of strongly agree to strongly disagree. This scale demonstrated sufficient internal consistency, with Cronbach's α = .84. An example item includes, "If I had my way, I wouldn't let my supervisor have any influence over decisions that are important to me."

In addition, trust in leader was measured using a modified version of the Wildman, Fiore, and Salas (2009) Trust/Distrust Scale, based on the Lewicki et al. (1998) conceptualization of trust and distrust. This measure is a 16-item scale, with items asking participants to indicate their feelings of trust and distrust toward their supervisor. It intends to capture the sub-dimensions of ability (e.g., "To what extent do you feel assured that your leader will make intelligent decisions?") and intent

(e.g., "To what extent do you feel nervous that your immediate supervisor will betray you?"). Responses range from 1 = Not at all to 6 = Very much so, with high scores indicating a high level of trust or distrust. The original study demonstrated sufficient internal consistency, with α = .92 for both trust and distrust.

Authenticity

For the purposes of this study, authenticity is conceptualized and operationalized as two different constructs: followers' perceptions of leader authenticity and leader-felt authenticity. For follower perceptions, I used the 14-item Authentic Leadership Inventory (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011). Respondents were asked to focus on their immediate supervisor at work and to rate their level of agreement with each statement (e.g., "My leader clearly states what he/she means.") using a 5-point scale (1 = *Disagree strongly* to 5 = *Agree strongly*). The reliability for each dimension (self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing) was also at acceptable levels, with the lowest coefficient alpha at .74, while the highest was .85. A high score indicates a high level of authenticity as perceived by the follower.

I assessed leader-felt authenticity using the Individual Authenticity Measure at Work (IAM Work; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014; Wood et al., 2008). This is a 12-item scale that measures a tripartite conception of authenticity, comprising self-alienation, authentic living, and accepting external influence. While Wood et al.'s (2008) original measure focuses on trait authenticity, the van den Bosch and Taris

(2014) measure was adapted to a work-referent or state: participants were asked to imagine how much each statement applied to them only at work (and not in other situations) "for the past 4 weeks". A 5-point Likert-type scale was used, ranging from 1 ("does not describe me") to 5 ("describes me extremely well"). One example item is, "I feel out of touch with the 'real me'". Internal consistency for each dimension was acceptable, with Cronbach's alphas ranging from 0.67 to 0.85 for the van den Bosch and Taris (2014) sample. A high score indicates the leader feels a high level of authenticity at work.

Demographics, Individual Differences, and Qualitative Items

Finally, the participants were also asked to complete additional demographics and individual differences measures. This includes gender and several work-related variables (e.g., current position, supervisory role or individual contributor, industry, age, gender, and tenure). In addition, followers were asked to describe their leader's gender. Finally, participants were asked to describe their relationship with either their supervisor or their employees in an open-ended question.

Analysis

Prior to hypothesis testing, I decided to further explore what my small sample size might mean for selecting the appropriate analyses. Specifically, I was concerned that SEM might not be appropriate given that many recommend that samples should consist of 5 to 10 cases per indicator for SEM techniques (e.g., Kline, 2011). I conducted a power analysis using pwrSEM, a Shiny app used to detect target effects

in structural equation models; this web application estimates power by conducting Monte Carlo simulations based on a model and specified sample size (Wang & Rhemtulla, in press). The Monte Carlo simulation for Model 1, with 40 indicators and four proposed relationships, was set for 100 samples, a sample size of 60, effect sizes of .15, and alpha set at .05. The results suggest power ranging from .12 to .16 to detect four .15 effect sizes. This level of power is considered insufficient by some, but I decided to move forward with the planned analyses and conduct supplementary analyses as needed.

A series of analyses were conducted to test each hypothesis and explore the overarching research questions using a combination of group comparison, multiple regression, and structural equation modeling techniques. Tables 4 and 5 provide a summary of the hypotheses/research questions, selected analyses, and the corresponding dataset.

Table 5: Summary of the hypotheses questions and selected analyses.

Hypothesis	Description	Analysis
H1a	PS is positively related to IM.	Correlation, SEM
H2a	PS is positively related to IEM.	Correlation, SEM
H3a	IM is related to TiL.	Correlation, SEM
H4a	IEM is related to TiL.	Correlation, SEM
H1b	Communal PS (AS, SA) is positively related communal IM (IN, EX)	Correlation, SEM
H1c	Agentic PS (II, NA) is positively related to agentic IM (SP).	Correlation, SEM
H1d	Communal PS will have more relative importance to communal IM and IEM than to agentic IM and IEM.	Relative Weight Analysis

H2b	Communal PS is positively related to problem-focused/communal IEM (CC).	Correlation, SEM
H2c	Agentic PS is positively related to problem-focused/agentic IEM (SM).	Correlation, SEM
H2d	Agentic PS will have more relative importance to agentic IM and IEM than to communal IM and IEM.	Relative Weight Analysis
H3b	Communal IM (IN) is positively related to PAL.	Correlation, SEM
H3c	Agentic IM (SP) is negatively related to PAL	Correlation, SEM
H4b	Communal IEM (CC) is positively related to PAL.	Correlation, SEM
H4c	Agentic IEM (SM) is positively related to PAL.	Correlation, SEM
H5a	PAL is positively related to TiL.	Correlation, SEM
H5b	PAL mediates the IM – TiL relationship.	Correlation, SEM
H5c	PAL mediates the IEM – TiL relationship.	Correlation, SEM
H6a	Leader gender moderates the IM - PAL relationship.	Moderated Multiple Regression
H6b	Leader gender moderates the IEM - PAL relationship.	Moderated Multiple Regression

Table 6: Exploratory Analyses and Corresponding Datasets.

Description	Analysis
Follower-Only Dataset	
Study Variables → Trust/Distrust	Correlation
Curvilinear relationship between IM behaviors and perceived authentic leadership	Non-Linear Hierarchical Multiple Regression
Curvilinear relationship between IEM behaviors and perceived authentic leadership	Non-Linear Hierarchical Multiple Regression
Complete serial mediation model: PS → Leader Behavior → Trust	SEM
Qualitative Results	Thematic Analysis

Matched Follower-Leader Dataset	
Hypothesized Relationships using agreement scores for PS, IM, IEM	Correlation
Moderating Effect of Leader-Felt Authenticity on the relationships between Leader Behavior and Perceived Authentic Lead.	Moderated Multiple Regression
Effect of a Three-Way Interaction between Leader-Felt Authenticity, Leader Gender, and Leader behavior on Perceived Authentic Lead.	Moderated Multiple Regression
Qualitative Results	Thematic Analysis
Leader-Only Dataset	
Political Skill and Behaviors	Correlation
Leader-Felt Authenticity relationships with other study variables	Correlation
Qualitative Results	Thematic Analysis

For hypotheses predicting direct effects between continuous variables, I used a correlation analysis. However, I expected a large number of positive correlations in this study's results, which would undermine the meaningfulness of the relationships between specific components. In order to strengthen the test of these hypotheses, I examined the direction of relationships using structural equation modeling.

In order to test the full models (Model 1, 2, and 3 in Chapter 3), I used structural equation modeling (SEM) in R Studio (RStudio Team, 2016). Structural equation modeling (SEM) has several benefits beyond traditional regression analyses that are rooted in its reduction of measurement error (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006; Nachtigall, Kroehne, Funke, & Steyer, 2003). First, this reduction of measurement error allows for unbiased estimates of relationships between variables. Second, this

allows for specification of complex theoretical structures beyond the capabilities of traditional regression analyses. There is also the potential with SEM for examining the agentic-communion distinction as well as the accuracy of the model (Figure 2). Bootstrap analyses generating additional samples and bias-corrected confidence intervals were used to assess the significance of the indirect effects for Hypothesis 5c (Little et al., 2016).

Considering Models 2 and 3 assumed a new factor structure for PS, IM, and IEM (the communal versus agentic distinctions), I also used factor analysis to support these groupings. Further, I conducted a relative weight analysis (RWA; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015) to determine whether the proposed "communal" aspects of PS would have higher relative importance than agentic aspects of PS in predicting communal behaviors and whether the proposed "agentic" aspects of PS would have higher relative importance than communal aspects of PS in predicting agentic behaviors (Hypotheses 1d and 2d).

To better isolate the hypothesized effects, I also conducted preliminary analyses to determine whether there were any potentially significant covariates including age, industry, and ethnicity. I analyzed the gender differences in each dimension of political skill, impression management, and interpersonal emotion management using group comparison tests in SPSS and then conducted moderated multiple regression analyses to determine whether there was evidence of a moderating effect of gender on the relationships between behaviors and outcomes (Hypotheses 6a and b).

For exploratory analyses, I first examined the Wildman et al. (2009) Trust/Distrust measure by examining its factor structure and then computing bivariate correlations with the remaining study variables to bolster the results seen in the hypothesis testing. Second, in order to test for curvilinear relationships between leader behaviors (IM and IEM) and perceived authentic leadership, I conducted a separate supplemental moderated non-linear regression analysis using quadratic terms (Keith, 2015). I also examined the possibility of the full serial mediation from political skill to leader behaviors to trust in leader by conducting additional SEM analyses. I also explored the idea of agreement scores for PS, IM, IEM (agreement between leaders and followers on leader skills and behaviors) and further tested the hypothesized relationships using these agreement scores with bivariate correlations. I further explored the relationships between leader-felt authenticity by computing correlations for the leader-only dataset. Then, to examine whether leader-felt authenticity has an effect on the relationships between leader behavior and perceived authentic leadership, I conducted another moderated multiple regression. Finally, for the qualitative results, I conducted a thematic analysis to examine the characteristics of relationships between the leaders and followers who were matched in this survey study.

Chapter 5: Results

In this chapter, I first discuss data management and cleaning procedures used to identify high-quality survey responses. Second, I summarize preliminary analyses conducted to evaluate the accuracy of theoretical assumptions (e.g., gender differences) as well as to identify potential covariates. The second section also includes factor analyses that are necessary to support the use of the measures as proposed in the previous chapter. The third section includes hypothesis testing via correlations, relative weight analysis, structural equation modeling to test the full models as well as mediation hypotheses, and moderated multiple regression. Finally, the fourth section includes additional exploratory analyses.

Data Management

There were originally 321 total participants for Survey 1. For Survey 2, 96 followers and 57 leaders participated. For Survey 3, 79 followers and 45 leaders participated. Following the completion of the data collection period, I conducted a screening and cleaning process. These checks were used in order to ensure high quality responses; therefore, respondents who failed such checks were excluded from further analysis. I first screened for complete responses in each of the three surveys. Thus, survey completion was the initial criteria for inclusion. Second, I excluded respondents who did not complete all three surveys. Third, I identified uniform and careless responders. Uniform responders were identified based on a lack of discrimination between positively and negatively worded items (e.g., Little et al. IEM strategies scale, Schoorman and Ballinger trust scale, Wildman et al. Trust

versus Distrust items). Following the data cleaning, I merged data for individual respondents across surveys to create one follower-only dataset and one leader-only dataset. Then, I created a merged dataset for any matching leader-subordinate dyads such that leaders and followers were matched in 1-to-1 pairs.

After cleaning, screening, and merging the data as needed, I determined that there were few respondents who completed all parts of the study (39 leaders and 67 followers). Therefore, I decided to conduct a series of analyses using three datasets: the first dataset consisting of only leaders ($N = 39$), the second dataset consisting of leader-follower matched dyads ($N = 28$), and the third dataset consisting of only followers ($N = 67$).

Then, in the hypothesis testing section (correlations), I use the leader-only dataset, the leader-follower matched dataset, and the follower dataset, in that order. The leader-follower matched dataset used leader self-reported variables (PS, IM, and IEM) as predictors of perceived authentic leadership and trust in leader, while for the follower-only dataset I used the *perceptions* of leader PS, IM, and IEM as predictors of the follower outcomes. Due to sample size issues, the follower-only dataset was used to conduct SEM analyses.

Preliminary Analyses

In the preliminary analyses, I only use the leader-only and the follower-only datasets. This section includes descriptive statistics, tests of control variables (group comparisons), and factor analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

Leader Dataset

For the leader survey, political skill was measured using the shortened Political Skill (PS) Inventory (García-Chas et al., 2019), impression management was measured using Bolino and Turnley's (1999) Impression Management (IM) in Organizations Scale, interpersonal emotion management was measured using the interpersonal emotion management (IEM) strategies scale (Little et al., 2016), and leader-felt authenticity was measured using the Authentic Leadership Inventory (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011). These scales were all self-report and aimed to assess leaders' perceptions of their own skills, behaviors, and attitudes (e.g., for PS networking ability, "At work, I know a lot of important people and am well-connected"). Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics for the main variables.

Table 7: Descriptives for leader-only dataset.

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Skew SE	Kurtosis	Kurtosis SE
Networking Ability	4.05	0.68	0.47	-0.88	0.38	0.88
Interpersonal Influence	4.52	0.50	0.25	-1.07	0.38	1.02
Apparent Sincerity	4.77	0.39	0.15	-2.09	0.38	4.68
Social Astuteness	4.11	0.51	0.26	-0.47	0.38	-0.15
Self-Promotion	2.49	1.10	1.20	0.66	0.38	-0.15
Ingratiation	2.71	1.19	1.42	0.30	0.38	-0.91
Exemplification	1.91	1.10	1.20	1.33	0.38	1.14
Situation	3.88	0.65	0.43	-1.58	0.38	4.47

Modification						
Cognitive Change	3.76	0.59	0.34	-1.43	0.38	1.44
Authentic Living	4.07	0.85	0.73	-1.81	0.38	3.97
ExtInf	2.26	0.90	0.54	0.37	0.24	0.73
Self-Alienation	0.81	4.10	-5.96	0.37	0.37	0.73

$N = 39$; ExInf = accepting external influence

The descriptive statistics revealed fairly high means for PS, low-to-moderate means for IM, moderate means for IEM, and the means for the leader-felt authenticity dimensions indicate this sample of leaders feels highly authentic. There were no skewness or kurtosis values that were abnormally high or low.

Follower Dataset

For the follower survey, perceived political skill was measured using the shortened Political Skill (PS) Inventory (García-Chas et al., 2019), which was administered in the third survey. Then, perceived impression management was measured using Bolino and Turnley's (1999) Impression Management (IM) in Organizations Scale, and perceived interpersonal emotion management was measured using the interpersonal emotion management (IEM) strategies scale (Little et al., 2016). For the main analyses, trust in leader was measured using Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) scale, but exploratory analyses included the use of the Wildman et al. (2009) Trust/Distrust measure. Each of these measures aimed to assess followers' perceptions of their leader. As such, the original scales for PS, IM, and IEM were modified from self-report to others' perception (e.g., for perceived PS

networking ability, "At work, my supervisor knows a lot of important people and is well connected"). Table 8 shows the descriptive statistics for the main variables.

Table 8: Descriptives for follower-only dataset.

	M	SD	Skewness	Skew SE	Kurtosis	Kurtosis SE
Networking Ability	4.13	0.81	-0.88	0.29	0.72	0.58
Interpersonal Influence	4.45	0.80	-2.14	0.29	4.79	0.58
Apparent Sincerity	4.55	0.60	-1.48	0.30	1.50	0.58
Social Astuteness	4.21	0.81	-1.29	0.29	1.85	0.58
Self-Promotion	3.28	1.24	-0.40	0.29	-0.97	0.58
Ingratiation	2.85	1.20	0.37	0.29	-0.91	0.58
Exemplification	3.55	1.09	-0.27	0.30	-1.11	0.59
Situation Modification	4.06	0.80	-1.41	0.29	3.07	0.58
Cognitive Change	3.79	0.88	-0.81	0.29	0.79	0.58
Perceived Auth. Lead.	4.16	0.71	-1.04	0.30	0.86	0.58
Trust (1)	4.08	0.70	-1.00	0.29	0.88	0.58
Trust (2)	4.30	0.91	-1.43	0.29	1.20	0.58
Distrust	1.41	0.68	2.73	0.29	9.07	0.58

$N = 67$; Trust (1) = Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) scale; Trust (2) = Wildman et al. (2009) trust items; Distrust = Wildman et al. (2009) distrust items

A closer look at the descriptive statistics reveals that the data are not necessarily normally distributed. Specifically, although there were no skewness or kurtosis values that were abnormally high, the histograms and stem-and-leaf plots showed that most variables derived from follower perceptions were negatively skewed. Thus, the results of the remaining parametric tests (which generally employ estimators that assume normality and may not be robust to non-normal distributions) should be interpreted with caution.

Group Comparisons

Certain demographic variables have been theoretically and empirically linked to political skill (e.g., Blass et al. 2007; Brouer et al., 2015; Shaughnessy et al. 2011; Snell et al. 2013) and IM (e.g., Bolino et al., 2016; Bolino & Turnley, 2003). In addition, certain industries are known to have gendered expectations (Cabrera, Sauer, & Thomas-Hunt, 2009). Therefore, I explored the possibility of demographics as control variables.

Leader Dataset

For the leader dataset, I examined the frequencies of the demographics and determined that there were no high percentages in any of the demographic variables. Frequencies for the demographics of the leader dataset are reported in Tables 9 and 10.

Table 9: Leader demographic variables.

	N	%
Employment		
Full-Time	38	92.70%
Part-Time	1	2.40%
Self-Employed	2	4.90%
What is your race or ethnic background?		
White/Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic	29	74.40%
Black/African American	4	10.30%
Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American	5	12.80%
Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese	1	2.60%
What was your biological sex assigned at birth?		
Assigned male	15	38.5
Assigned female	21	53.8

Missing		3	7.7

Do you identify as transgender?

Yes		2	5.1
No		34	87.2
Missing		3	7.7

Total $N = 39$

Table 10: Frequencies for industries – leader dataset.

	Job Function		Organization Function	
Administrative Support	8	11.0%	0	0
Consulting	7	9.6%	4	8.9%
Customer Service	10	13.7%	4	8.9%
Engineering	2	2.7%	3	6.7%
Finance/Accounting	4	5.5%	2	4.4%
Human Resources/Testing	5	6.8%	1	2.2%
Marketing/Comm./Advertising/PR	5	6.8%	1	2.2%
Professional (Law, Medical, etc.)	6	8.2%	5	11.1%
Research and Development	8	11.0%	2	4.4%
Sales	3	4.1%	2	4.4%
Technical (IT/IS)	3	4.1%	2	4.4%
Education	6	15.4%	9	20.0%
Public/Government	1	2.6%	6	15.4%
Other	5	12.8%	4	10.3%

$N = 39$

Second, I conducted additional analyses to examine the effects of the demographic variables included in this study (age, tenure, ethnicity, and industry) on the remaining study variables (PS, IM, IEM, leader-felt authenticity), including correlations and group comparisons.

Correlations between age, tenure, and the study variables demonstrate no statistical significance, meaning that age and tenure have no effect on the study variables (see Table 11 below). Because these results were not statistically significant, I chose not to include age and tenure as control variables in any analyses.

Table 11: Descriptives and correlations for age, tenure, and study variables – leader-only dataset.

		M	SD	1	2
1	Age	46.15	9.86		
2	Tenure	7.50	5.49	0.15	
3	Networking Ability	4.05	0.68	-0.03	-0.41
4	Interpersonal Inf.	4.52	0.50	0.13	0.43
5	Apparent Sincerity	4.77	0.39	0.24	0.52
6	Social Astuteness	4.11	0.51	0.01	-0.13
7	Situation Mod.	3.88	0.65	-0.36	-0.11
8	Cognitive Change	3.76	0.59	0.07	-0.08
9	Self-Promotion	2.49	1.10	0.04	0.01
10	Ingratiation	2.71	1.19	-0.27	0.29
11	Exemplification	1.91	1.10	-0.39	-0.32
12	Authentic Living	4.07	0.85	-0.12	0.36
13	Accept. Ext. Influence	2.25	0.91	-0.23	-0.52
14	Self-Alienation	1.44	0.78	-0.16	-0.27

Note: displaying only correlations between age/tenure and study variables. $**p < .01$, $*p < .05$; 12,13,14 = leader-felt authenticity dimensions.

An initial MANOVA for the effect of ethnicity and industry (both job function and organization function) was conducted in SPSS. The results of the MANOVA showed no statistically significant differences between ethnicity groups or industries in the study variables. After excluding age, tenure, ethnicity, and

industry as nonsignificant in the preliminary analyses, another MANOVA was conducted to examine associations between the DVs (PS, IM, IEM, perceived authentic leadership, and trust in leader) and leader gender as the IV. Specifically, I expected female leaders to report higher means for communal aspects of PS, IM, and IEM, as well as lower means for leader-felt authenticity compared to males. For males, I expected higher means for agentic aspects of PS, IM, and IEM. This analysis revealed no statistically significant differences between genders (male or female) in any of the study variables, $F(12, 26) = .75$, $p = .70$; Wilk's $\Lambda = .74$, partial $\eta2 = .26$. There were two variables that differed as expected between male leaders and female leaders: male leaders provided a higher average rating for their self-promotion behaviors ($M = 2.36$) than female leaders ($M = 1.56$), as well as a higher average rating for leader-felt authenticity ($M = 4.14$) than female leaders ($M = 4.08$).

Follower Dataset

Following the steps used for the leader dataset, I conducted preliminary analyses to determine whether demographic variables would impact the study results. First, I examined the frequencies of the demographics and determined that there were no high percentages in any of the demographic variables except for ethnicity (73.10% of the sample was White/Caucasian). Frequencies for the demographics of this dataset are reported in Tables 12 and 13 below.

Table 12: Follower demographic variables.

	N	*%*
Employment		
Full-Time	60	92.30%
Part-Time	5	7.70%
What is your race or ethnic background?		
White/Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic	49	73.10%
Black/African American	6	9.00%
Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American	5	7.50%
Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese	3	4.50%
Native American/American Indian	1	1.50%
Middle Eastern, including Northern African, Arab, West Asian, others	1	1.50%
Other: Please Describe	2	3.00%
What was your biological sex assigned at birth?		
Assigned male	10	14.90%
Assigned female	49	73.10%
Missing	8	11.90%
Do you identify as transgender?		
No	58	86.60%
Missing	9	13.40%

Total *N* = 67

Table 13: Frequencies for industries – follower dataset.

	Job Function		Organization Function	
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*
Administrative Support	11	13.3%	5	5.3%
Consulting	7	8.4%	11	11.7%
Customer Service	8	9.6%	4	4.3%
Engineering	1	1.2%	1	1.1%
Finance/Accounting	0	0	2	2.1%
Human Resources/Testing	9	10.8%	5	5.3%
Manufacturing/Assembly Line	0	0	1	1.1%
Marketing/Comm/Advertising/PR	8	9.6%	3	3.2%
Professional (Law, Medical, etc.)	6	7.2%	19	20.2%
Research and Development	6	7.2%	4	4.3%
Sales	3	3.6%	5	5.3%
Service	1	1.2%	1	1.1%
Skills Trade	0	0	2	2.1%
Technical (IT/IS)	2	2.4%	1	1.1%
Education	7	1.2%	11	11.7%
Public/Government	6	7.2%	14	14.89%
Other	8	9.6%	5	5.32%

N = 67

Second, I conducted additional analyses to examine the effects of the demographic variables included in this study (age, tenure, ethnicity, and industry) on the remaining study variables (perceived PS, IM, IEM, perceived authentic leadership, and trust). This included correlations and group comparisons.

In the follower dataset, correlations between follower age, tenure, and the remaining study variables demonstrate no statistical significance, meaning that age and tenure have no effect on the study variables (see Table 14 below). Because these results were not statistically significant, I chose not to include follower age and tenure as control variables in any analyses.

**Table 14: Descriptives and correlations for age, tenure, study variables -
follower-only dataset.**

Variable	M	SD	1	2
1. Age	36.69	12.29		
2. Tenure	4.49	6.20	.545**	
3. Networking Ability	4.13	0.81	-0.18	-0.21
4. Interpersonal Influence	4.45	0.80	-0.02	-0.04
5. Apparent Sincerity	4.55	0.60	0.07	0.00
6. Social Astuteness	4.21	0.81	-0.06	-0.09
7. Self-Promotion	3.28	1.24	-0.11	-0.02
8. Ingratiation	2.85	1.20	-0.04	0.001
9. Exemplification	3.55	1.09	0.12	0.19
10. Situation Modification	4.06	0.80	-0.21	-0.01
11. Cognitive Change	3.79	0.88	-0.12	-0.08
12. Perceived Auth. Leadership	4.16	0.71	-0.12	-0.09
13. Trust in Leader	4.08	0.70	-0.2-	-0.20

$N = 67$; **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$; Trust = Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) scale.
Note: displaying only correlations between age/tenure and study variables.

An initial MANOVA for the effect of ethnicity and industry (both job function and organization function) was conducted in SPSS. The results of the MANOVA showed no statistically significant differences between ethnicity groups or industries in the study variables. After excluding age, tenure, ethnicity, and industry as nonsignificant in the preliminary analyses, another MANOVA was conducted to examine associations between the DVs (PS, IM, IEM, perceived authentic leadership, and trust in leader) and follower gender and leader gender as IVs.

There is some evidence to suggest that the target (i.e., follower) gender as well as the "gender match" between actor and target (e.g., male leader, male follower) may have an effect on certain outcomes (Patel & Biswas, 2016). Table 15 below shows the frequencies of leader-follower gender match groups.

Table 15: Frequency of leader-follower matches - reported from follower dataset.

	N	%
Female-female	37	55.22%
Female-male	6	8.96%
Male-female	17	25.37%
Male-male	5	7.46%

$N = 67$, Leader-follower

In conducting the MANOVA for gender, I included both follower gender and leader gender as IVs to account for this notion. Follower gender was a self-report item on Survey 1, and followers were also asked to describe their leader's gender. The MANOVA results revealed that on the combined dependent variables, there was not a statistically significant effect for male versus female followers ($F(15, 48) = .71$, $p = .75$, Pillai's Trace $= .67$, $p = .80$), male versus female leaders ($F(30, 98) = 1.08$, Pillai's Trace $= .50$, $p = .38$), and various groups of the leader/follower gender interaction ($F(15, 48) = .21$, Pillai's Trace $=.82$, $p = .64$). This does not support the notion of a main effect for leader or follower gender or their matched/unmatched groups on the study variables.

Although the MANOVA was not statistically significant, the estimated marginal means displayed a few general patterns of interest. First, followers appeared to provide higher ratings for male leaders on agentic PS and agentic behaviors and higher ratings for female leaders on communal PS and communal behaviors. For PS, male leaders had higher a higher average rating than females on networking ability ($M_{males} = 4.26$, $M_{females} = 4.05$) and interpersonal influence ($M_{males} = 4.81$, $M_{females} =$

4.40), while females had higher ratings for apparent sincerity ($M_{females}$ = 4.56 versus M_{males} = 3.73). For IM, males had higher self-promotion ratings (M = 3.52) than females (M = 3.18) and females had higher ingratiation ratings (M = 3.08) than males (M = 2.70). However, male leaders seemed to have higher ratings on both perceived authentic leadership and trust. Second, in 10 out of 13 variables, male followers provided higher average ratings than female followers.

Factor Analyses

Prior to testing model fit and the hypothesized communal and agentic pathways, I wanted to ensure the viability of the proposed structure of PS, IM, and IEM and to evaluate the groupings of these constructs as proposed in Models 1, 2, and 3. To my knowledge, there are no studies that have examined the groupings of communal versus agentic dimensions for PS, IM, and IEM. Therefore, I conducted individual exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) for each proposed latent variable (PS, IM, IEM) using dimension reduction in SPSS. For these analyses, I again used the leader-only and the follower-only datasets.

Leader Dataset
EFA for PS

I conducted an EFA for PS using the maximum likelihood estimator and promax rotation to make the indicators more oblique (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). With a cut-off of 1 for Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues (Field, 2009; Stevens, 1992), four factors were extracted. Examining the rotated matrix referring to a cut-off point of .40, there were multiple cross-loadings above .40 and two loadings (one apparent sincerity item, and one social astuteness item) that fell below .40. I conducted this

analysis again, this time specifying four factors. Table 16 displays the rotated matrix, which shows that there were no cross-loadings greater than .40, and the items clearly loading onto individual components to reflect their respective sub-dimensions.

Table 16: Four-Factor EFA results for Political Skill in the leader-only dataset.

		Factor			
		1	2	3	4
Networking Ability	1	-0.01	0.01	**0.46**	0.38
Networking Ability	2	0.37	-0.31	**0.78**	-0.07
Networking Ability	3	-0.21	0.37	**0.84**	-0.12
Interpersonal Influence	1	**0.48**	0.39	-0.04	0.02
Interpersonal Influence	2	**0.52**	0.01	0.17	0.00
Interpersonal Influence	3	**0.98**	0.05	0.00	0.01
Apparent Sincerity	1	0.22	**0.43**	0.00	-0.30
Apparent Sincerity	2	0.03	**0.65**	0.06	-0.06
Apparent Sincerity	3	0.05	**0.72**	-0.10	0.03
Social Astuteness	1	0.19	0.35	0.00	**0.41**
Social Astuteness	2	0.01	-0.12	-0.15	**0.50**
Social Astuteness	3	-0.02	-0.03	0.13	**0.86**
% Variance Explained		30.23	9.33	12.37	5.43

Significant loadings are shown in bold.
$N = 39$

EFA for IM

I conducted an EFA for IM, again using the maximum likelihood estimator and promax rotation. With a cut-off point of .40 for factor loadings and Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1, the results showed a three-factor model, with the indicators explaining 72.49% of the variance in the factors. This model had two loadings (both ingratiation item items) that fell below .40. I conducted this analysis again while specifying three factors to reflect the original sub-dimensions (self-

promotion, ingratiation, and exemplification). This factor analysis revealed that the items loaded cleanly on to individual components as can be seen in Table 17 below.

Table 17: Three-Factor EFA results for Impression Management in leader-only dataset.

		Factor		
		1	2	3
Self-Promotion	1	**0.80**	0.10	-0.21
Self-Promotion	2	**0.81**	0.02	0.11
Self-Promotion	3	**0.86**	0.00	0.08
Self-Promotion	4	**0.93**	-0.14	0.02
Ingratiation	1	0.25	**0.67**	0.06
Ingratiation	2	-0.06	**0.82**	0.21
Ingratiation	3	-0.11	**0.84**	0.02
Ingratiation	4	0.02	**0.91**	-0.20
Exemplification	1	-0.11	-0.04	**0.67**
Exemplification	2	0.12	0.00	**0.78**
Exemplification	3	-0.14	0.03	**0.87**
Exemplification	4	0.02	-0.04	**0.90**
% Variance Explained		44.84	16.40	11.25

Significant loadings are shown in bold.
N = 39

EFA for IEM

For IEM, I conducted an EFA, again using the maximum likelihood estimator and promax rotation. With a cut-off point of .40 for factor loadings and Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1, the results showed a four-factor model, with the indicators explaining 68.69% of the variance in the factors. One loading (cognitive change) fell below .40, and two items had cross-loadings above .40. I specified two factors for the next EFA to reflect the original sub-dimensions

(situation modification and cognitive change). The results indicated 42.86% of the variance in two factors was explained, with no cross-loadings above .40. However, there were two items from situation modification and one cognitive change item that had weak loadings (< .40), and Eigenvalues for the first four components were still greater than 1. The table below reports the two-factor EFA results.

Table 18: Two-Factor EFA results for Interpersonal Emotion Management in leader-only dataset.

		Factor	
		1	2
Situation Modification	1	0.36	0.12
Situation Modification	2	0.38	0.13
Situation Modification	3	**0.58**	0.22
Situation Modification	4	**0.87**	-0.28
Situation Modification	5	**0.89**	0.04
Cognitive Change	1	0.03	-0.07
Cognitive Change	2	0.03	**0.42**
Cognitive Change	3	0.05	**0.57**
Cognitive Change	4	0.09	**0.68**
Cognitive Change	5	0.03	**0.99**
% Variance Explained		23.34	19.52

Significant loadings are shown in bold.
$N = 39$

I also conducted separate CFAs for each of the three measures (political skill, impression management, interpersonal emotion management). For each measure, I conducted a one-factor CFA, a CFA reflecting the a priori dimensions for that measure, and a two-factor CFA reflecting the communal/agentic distinction, in which I specified which items were communal and which items were agentic. The results of these CFAs can be seen in Table 19 below.

CFA for PS

I examined a one-factor model where every indicator loaded onto one overall political skill latent variable. This model did not have adequate fit to the data (χ^2 (54) = 101.95, p < .001, CFI = .62, RMSEA = .15, SRMR = .13). I then tested a two-factor model with networking ability and interpersonal influence (agentic) on a single factor and apparent sincerity and social astuteness (communal) constrained to a single factor to reflect the agentic-communal groupings. However, this model failed to converge, which may be a symptom of the small sample size (Costello and Osborne, 2005). I tested a four-factor model to reflect the original subdimensions. While this model was significantly different from the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 37.86, p < .001), the model itself had poor fit indices and a non-significant chi-square, χ^2 = 64.09, p > .05.

CFA for IM

For IM CFAs, I compared three separate models: (1) a one-factor model where every indicator loaded onto one overall impression management latent variable; (2) a two-factor model with self-promotion (agentic) on a single factor and ingratiation and exemplification (communal) constrained to a single factor to reflect the agentic-communal groupings; and (3) a three-factor model where all items were loaded onto their respective subdimensions. The three-factor model was significantly different than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 55.32, p < .001), and had fit indices that

were nearing acceptable (CFI = .96, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .09), but the chi-square test was not statistically significant (χ^2 = 53.64, p > .05). The two-factor model fit the data significantly better than the single-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 63.30, p < .001), but the fit indices were not adequate (CFI = .77, RMSEA = .20, SRMR = .15).

CFA for IEM

I compared two separate models for IEM: (1) a one-factor model where every indicator loaded onto one overall interpersonal emotion management latent variable; and (2) a two-factor model with situation modification (agentic) on a single factor and cognitive change (communal) on a single factor, which also aligns with their respective subdimensions. The two-factor model fits the data significantly better than the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 43.14, p < .001). However, the fit indices for the two-factor model were not adequate (CFI = .62, RMSEA = .21, SRMR = .14).

Table 19: CFA fit indices for leader-only dataset.

Measurement Model	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	Δ df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI
Political Skill							
1-Factor Structure	101.95***	-	54	-	.15	.13	.62
4-Factor Structure	64.09	37.86***	48	6	.09	.15	.87
Impression Management							
1-Factor Structure	172.27***	-	44	-	.27	.19	.55
2-Factor Structure	108.97***	63.30***	43	1	.20	.15	.77
3-Factor Structure	53.64	55.32***	41	2	.09	.09	.96
Interpersonal Emotion Management							
1-Factor Structure	136.41***	-	35	-	.27	.25	.36
2-Factor Structure	93.27***	43.41***	34	1	.21	.14	.62

N = 39; *** p < .001; ** p < .01

Follower Dataset

Following the analytic approach used for the leader dataset EFAs, I also performed EFAs for PS, IM, and IEM using the follower dataset.

EFA for Perceived PS

I conducted an EFA for PS using the maximum likelihood estimator and promax rotation while referring to a cut-off point of .40 for factor loadings and Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1. This analysis revealed two factors with 63.13% of their variance explained. One loading (interpersonal influence) fell below .40; however, all other loadings were strong. I conducted the analysis again while specifying four factors to determine the data's reflection of the original four sub-dimensions. In this round, the analysis failed to converge. According to Costello and Osborne (2005), failure to converge may be an issue of sample size (over-extracting the number of factors). Another consideration would be scale characteristics - the Cronbach's alpha for apparent sincerity was .67, and one item's deletion would have improved the alpha to .77. The other three scales all had alphas greater than .80. As such, SPSS was unable to calculate the factor loadings. Table 20 below shows the rotated solution for the two-factor model. The networking ability items all loaded on to one component, but the remaining items all loaded on to the other component.

Table 20: Two-Factor EFA results for Perceived Political Skill in follower-only dataset.

		Factor	
		1	2
Networking Ability	1	-0.04	**0.84**
Networking Ability	2	-0.01	**0.92**
Networking Ability	3	0.07	**0.76**
Interpersonal Influence	1	0.21	0.22
Interpersonal Influence	2	**0.56**	0.12
Interpersonal Influence	3	**0.71**	0.22
Apparent Sincerity	1	**0.77**	0.14
Apparent Sincerity	2	**0.89**	-0.06
Apparent Sincerity	3	**0.56**	0.12
Social Astuteness	1	**0.86**	-0.01
Social Astuteness	2	**0.91**	-0.12
Social Astuteness	3	**0.95**	-0.07
% Variance Explained		53.066	10.65

Significant loadings are shown in bold.

$N = 67$

EFA for Perceived IM

I conducted an EFA for IM using the maximum likelihood estimator and promax rotation while referring to a cut-off point of .40 for factor loadings and Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1. This analysis revealed two factors with 63.70% of the variance explained. All self-promotion items and one ingratiation item loaded on to component 1, and all other items (ingratiation and exemplification) loaded on to component 2. I conducted this analysis again while specifying three factors to reflect the original sub-dimensions (self-promotion, ingratiation, and exemplification). This factor analysis revealed that the items loaded cleanly onto individual components except for one exemplification item. Table 21 below shows the EFA results for the three-factor model.

Table 21: Three-Factor EFA for Perceived Impression Management in follower-only dataset.

		Factor		
		1	2	3
Self-Promotion	1	0.24	**0.55**	0.02
Self-Promotion	2	-0.11	**0.87**	0.05
Self-Promotion	3	0.12	**0.88**	-0.18
Self-Promotion	4	-0.13	**0.98**	-0.02
Ingratiation	1	**0.71**	0.03	0.02
Ingratiation	2	**0.77**	0.20	-0.01
Ingratiation	3	**0.99**	-0.10	-0.04
Ingratiation	4	**0.99**	-0.09	-0.01
Exemplification	1	0.37	0.08	**0.49**
Exemplification	2	0.03	**0.56**	0.21
Exemplification	3	-0.11	-0.04	**0.67**
Exemplification	4	-0.04	-0.03	**1.02**
% Variance Explained		21.58	36.30	14.55

Significant loadings are shown in bold.

$N = 67$

EFA for Perceived IEM

For perceived IEM, I conducted an EFA for using the same methods described above. This analysis yielded a two-factor solution with two situation modification items and one cognitive change item with weak loadings ($< .40$). I specified two factors for the next EFA. The results indicated no cross-loadings. However, the items did not load cleanly onto their proposed dimensions, with two items from cognitive change loading on to factor 1. Table 22 below shows the EFA results for the two-factor model.

Table 22: Two-Factor EFA for Perceived Interpersonal Emotion Management in follower dataset.

		Factor 1	Factor 2
Situation Modification	1	**0.52**	0.07
Situation Modification	2	**0.52**	0.25
Situation Modification	3	**0.58**	0.02
Situation Modification	4	**0.70**	0.09
Situation Modification	5	**1.04**	-0.18
Cognitive Change	1	0.27	**0.49**
Cognitive Change	2	**0.57**	0.19
Cognitive Change	3	**0.63**	0.22
Cognitive Change	4	0.03	**0.88**
Cognitive Change	5	-0.07	**1.03**
% Variance Explained		46.22	14.17

Significant loadings are shown in bold.
$N = 67$

I again conducted separate CFAs for each of the three measures (PS, IM, IEM). For each measure, I conducted a one-factor CFA, a CFA reflecting the a priori dimensions for that measure, and a two-factor CFA reflecting the communal/agentic distinction, in which I specified which items were communal and which items were agentic. The results of these CFAs can be seen in Table 23 below.

CFA for Perceived PS

I compared three separate models: (1) a one-factor model where every indicator loaded onto one overall political skill latent variable; (2) a two-factor model with networking ability and interpersonal influence constrained to a single factor (agentic components) and apparent sincerity and social astuteness constrained to a single factor (communal components); and (3) a four-factor model where all items

were loaded onto their respective subdimensions. The four-factor model fits the data significantly better than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 92.31$, $p < .001$), and the two-factor model fit the data better than the single-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 1.62$, $p > .05$), but this difference was not statistically significant.

CFA for Perceived IM

I compared three separate models: (1) a one-factor model where every indicator loaded onto one overall impression management latent variable; (2) a two-factor model with self-promotion (agentic) on a single factor and ingratiation and exemplification (communal) constrained to a single factor to reflect the agentic-communal groupings; and (3) a three-factor model where all items were loaded onto their respective subdimensions. The three-factor model fit the data significantly better than the two-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 17.75$, $p < .001$), and the two-factor model fit the data better than the single-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 137.25$, $p < .001$).

CFA for Perceived IEM

I compared two separate models: (1) a one-factor model where every indicator loaded onto one overall interpersonal emotion management latent variable; and (2) a two-factor model with situation modification (agentic) on a single factor and cognitive change (communal) on a single factor, which also aligns with their respective subdimensions. The two-factor model fit the data significantly better than the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 41.35$, $p < .001$).

The results presented in Table 23 demonstrate that none of these models provide great fit to the data. The chi-squares were statistically significant, but the remaining indices did not demonstrate acceptable fit (CFIs < .90, RMSEAs > .08, SRMRs > .08; cutoffs recommended by Hooper et al., 2008; Kline, 2005). The models with indicators loaded on to their respective communal or agentic constructs did not have great fit indices (aside from a few CFIs reaching .8 or above .9 in some cases). These results indicate that for PS and IM, the models with the best fit were those that aligned with their subdimensions as proposed in the original studies. Overall, these results did not fully support the communal versus agentic construct groups. However, I proceeded to conduct the SEM as planned using the proposed communal and agentic groupings.

Table 23: CFA fit indices for follower dataset.

Measurement Model	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	Δ df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI
Perceived Leader Political Skill							
1-Factor Structure	174.03***	-	54	-	.18	.10	.80
2-Factor Structure	172.41***	1.62	53	1	.18	.10	.80
4-Factor Structure	80.10**	92.31***	48	5	.10	.05	.95
Perceived Leader IM							
1-Factor Structure	250.74***	-	44	-	.27	.19	.59
2-Factor Structure	113.49***	137.25	43	1	.16	.14	.86
3-Factor Structure	95.74***	17.75***	41	2	.14	.14	.89
Perceived Leader IEM							
1-Factor Structure	170.39***	-	35	-	.24	.10	.70
2-Factor Structure	129.04***	41.35***	34	1	.20	.12	.79

$N = 67$; *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$

Hypotheses A 1-4

Model 1 refers to the model containing Hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, and 4a as depicted below in Figure 5. This model posits that political skill (PS) will be positively related to impression management (IM) and well as interpersonal emotion management (IEM), and a positive relationship between IM and trust in leader and a positive relationship between IEM and trust in leader. I used the leader-only dataset, the leader-follower matched dataset, and the follower-only dataset, in that order, to calculate bivariate correlations as a test of the hypotheses.

Leader Dataset

Correlations

I computed descriptive statistics and correlations, including scores for the proposed variables in the leader dataset ($N = 39$). This serves as a test of Hypotheses H1a and 2a. Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all measures are presented in Table 24. All scales used in the present study displayed adequate levels of reliability ($\alpha > .60$).

Table 24: Descriptives and Correlations between overall variables for Leader Dataset.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3
1 Political Skill	4.35	0.39	*0.80*		
2 Impression Management	2.40	0.87	0.00	*0.89*	
3 Interpersonal Emotion Management	3.82	0.48	-.05	.54**	*0.74*

$N = 39$; Cronbach's alphas in the diagonal; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Hypotheses 1a and 2a stated that political skill (PS) would be positively related to impression management (IM) and interpersonal emotion management (IEM). Political skill did not have a statistically significant relationship with IM (r = 0.00, $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1a is not supported by the results of the bivariate correlations. In addition, PS did not have a statistically significant positive relationship with IEM ($r = -.05$, $p > .05$), which does not support Hypothesis 2a.

Leader-Follower Matched Dataset

Correlations

As an additional test of Hypotheses 1a, 2a, 3a, and 4a, I also computed descriptive statistics and correlations for the leader-follower matched dataset (N = 28). Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all measures are presented in Table 25. All scales used in the present study displayed adequate levels of reliability ($α > .60$).

Table 25: Descriptives and Correlations for overall study variables, Leader-Follower Dataset.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Political Skill	4.33	0.31	*0.86*			
2 Impression Management	2.32	0.86	0.20	*0.90*		
3 Interpersonal Emotion Mgmt.	3.74	0.52	0.03	.53**	*0.79*	
4 Trust in Leader	4.19	0.52	0.09	-0.14	0.01	*0.65*

N = 67; Cronbach's alphas in the diagonal; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Hypotheses 1a and 2a stated that political skill (PS) would be positively related to impression management (IM) and interpersonal emotion management (IEM). Again, political skill did not have a statistically significant relationship with

IM ($r = .20$, $p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1a is not supported by the results of the bivariate correlations. Political skill also did not have a statistically significant positive relationship with IEM ($r = 0.03$, $p > .05$), which does not support Hypothesis 2a. Next, Hypothesis 3a stated that IM would be positively related to trust in leader, which was not supported by the results of the bivariate correlations as IM had a negative relationship with Trust in Leader which was not statistically significant ($r = -0.14$, $p > .05$). This does not support Hypothesis 3a. Finally, Hypothesis 4a stated that IEM would also be related to trust in leader. This was also not supported, as the correlation between IEM and trust in leader was not statistically significant ($r = .01$, $p < .05$).

Follower Dataset

Correlations

I first computed descriptive statistics and correlations, including scores for the proposed variables in the follower dataset ($N = 67$) as a test of the hypotheses in Model 1 (H1a, 2a, 3a, 4a). Means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all measures are presented in Table 26. All scales used in the present study displayed adequate levels of reliability ($\alpha > .60$).

Table 26: Descriptives and correlations between overall variables for follower dataset.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1 Perceived Political Skill	3.97	0.58	*0.92*			

2 Perceived Impression Mgmt.	3.22	0.96	-0.10	*0.89*		
3 Perceived Interpers. Emotion Mgmt.	3.32	0.54	0.50**	-0.16	*0.85*	
4 Trust in Leader	4.08	0.70	0.50**	-0.06	0.24*	*0.78*

$N = 67$; Cronbach's alphas in the diagonal; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Hypotheses 1a and 2a stated that political skill (PS) would be positively related to impression management (IM) and interpersonal emotion management (IEM). Perceived political skill did not have a statistically significant relationship with IM ($r = -.10$, $p > .05$). Further, the observed relationship was negative, which is in the opposite direction of the proposed relationship. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a is not supported by the results of the bivariate correlations. However, PS did have a statistically significant positive relationship with IEM ($r = 0.50$, $p < .01$), which supported Hypothesis 2a. Next, Hypothesis 3a stated that IM would be positively related to trust in leader, which was not supported by the results of the bivariate correlations as IM had a negative relationship with Trust in Leader which was not statistically significant ($r = -0.06$, $p > .05$). This does not support Hypothesis 3a. Finally, Hypothesis 4a stated that IEM would also be related to trust in leader. This was supported, as the correlation between IEM and trust in leader was both positive and statistically significant ($r = .24$, $p < .05$).

Structural Equation Modeling

The full proposed model was then tested through structural equation modeling (SEM) in R using the lavaan package. This model contained one exogenous variable (perceived PS) and three endogenous variables (perceived IM,

perceived IEM, and trust in leader). In this model, I included paths from PS to IM and IEM, from IM to trust in leader, and from IEM and trust in leader. The goodness of fit of the model was not adequate. Although the chi-square value was significant, χ^2 (727) = 1311.26, $p < .001$, the other fit indices were not satisfactory: CFI = .72, SRMR = .13, and RMSEA = .11, 95% CI [.10,12].

Political skill negatively predicted IM (β = -.29, b = -.22, p = .13), but this was not statistically significant, therefore showing no support for Hypothesis 1a. Political skill positively predicted IEM (β = .73, b = .82 $p < .01$), showing support for Hypothesis 2a. Then, IM negatively predicted trust in leader (β = -.22, b = -.43, p = .15), which does not support Hypothesis 3a, but IEM positively predicted trust in leader (β = .63, b = .80, $p < .01$), which supports Hypothesis 4a. Political skill explains 9% of the variance in IM and 53% of the variance in IEM. Fifty-one percent of the variance in trust in leader is explained by IM and IEM.
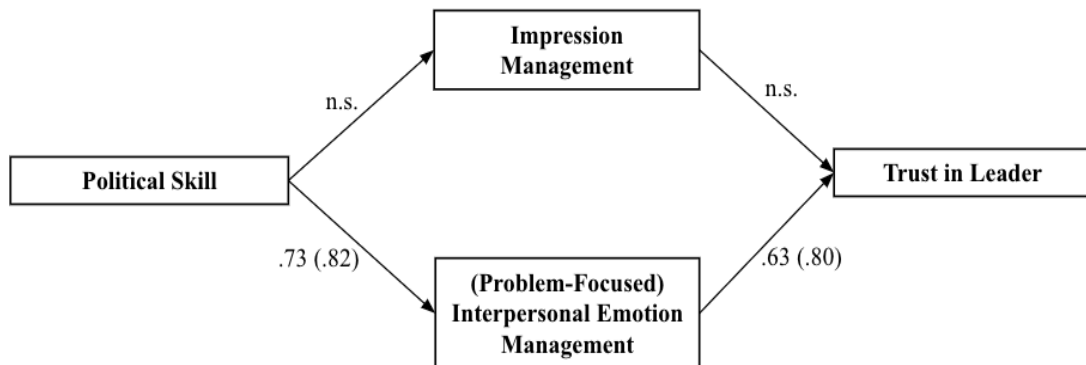
***$p < .001$, $p < .01$

Figure 5: Visualization of full SEM results for Hypotheses A 1-4.

Hypotheses B and C 1-4

The next section includes the results of the analyses for the communal and agentic components of the study variables (political skill, impression management, and interpersonal emotion management) and tests of the associated hypotheses.

Leader Dataset

To examine Hypotheses 1b, 2b, 1c, and 2c in the leader-only dataset, I computed bivariate correlations between the subdimensions of all study variables. The results can be seen in Table 27.

Hypotheses B 1 and 2

Neither apparent sincerity nor social astuteness had statistically significant relationships with communal IM (ingratiation and exemplification). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b, that communal political skill is positively related to communal IM, was not supported. Looking at communal PS and communal IEM, neither PS dimension had statistically significant relationships with cognitive change. This does not support Hypothesis 2b, that communal political skill is positively related to communal IEM behaviors.

Hypotheses C 1 and 2

Hypothesis 1c proposed a positive relationship between agentic political skill (interpersonal influence and networking ability) and agentic impression management. Neither interpersonal influence nor networking ability had statistically significant relationships with self-promotion. Therefore, Hypothesis 1c was not

supported. Hypothesis 2c stated that agentic political skill is positively related to situation modification IEM behaviors. Again, neither networking ability nor interpersonal influence had statistically significant relationships with situation modification, offering no support for Hypothesis 2c.

Table 27: Descriptives and correlations for leader-only dataset using variable sub-dimensions.

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	NA	4.05	.68	.81								
2	II	4.52	.50	.36*	.76							
3	AS	4.77	.39	.26	.53**	.63						
4	SA	4.11	.51	.37*	.42**	.29	.61					
5	SP	2.49	1.11	.10	-.15	-.14	.03	.90				
6	IN	2.71	1.19	.14	.03	-.06	.05	.36*	.89			
7	EX	1.91	1.10	.10	-.19	-.29	-.07	.46**	.40*	.88		
8	CC	3.76	.59	-.02	-.06	-.20	.13	.32	.01	.17	.72	
9	SM	3.88	.65	.06	-.15	-.23	-.01	.45**	.56**	.42**	.24	.78

$N = 39; **p < .01, *p < .05$; Cronbach's alphas in the diagonal. NA= networking ability, II = interpersonal influence; AS = apparent sincerity, SA = social astuteness, SP = self-promotion, IN = ingratiation, EX = exemplification, CC = cognitive change; SM = situation modification

Leader-Follower Matched Dyads Dataset

To examine the relationships proposed by Hypotheses B and C 1-4 at the sub-dimension level, I computed bivariate correlations between the subdimensions of all study variables using the leader-follower matched dyad dataset. With these hypotheses, PS, IM, and IEM are measured using the leader self-report versions of the scales and perceptions of authentic leadership is measured from the follower perspective. The results can be seen in Table 28.

Hypotheses B 1-4

Neither apparent sincerity nor social astuteness had statistically significant relationships with communal IM (ingratiation and exemplification). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b, that communal political skill is positively related to communal IM, was not supported. There was no support for Hypothesis 2b as neither apparent sincerity nor social astuteness had statistically significant relationships with cognitive change. Hypotheses 3b predicted a positive relationship between communal IM (ingratiation) and perceived authentic leadership. This was not supported as the correlation was not statistically significant. Hypothesis 4b stated that communal IEM (cognitive change) would be positively related to perceived authentic leadership, which was not supported as the correlation was not statistically significant.

Hypotheses C 1-4

Hypothesis 1c proposed a positive relationship between agentic political skill (interpersonal influence and networking ability) and agentic impression

management. Neither interpersonal influence nor networking ability had statistically significant relationships with self-promotion. Therefore, Hypothesis 1c was not supported. Hypothesis 2c stated that agentic political skill is positively related to situation modification (agentic) IEM behaviors, but neither networking ability nor interpersonal influence had statistically significant relationships with situation modification, offering no support for Hypothesis 2c. Hypothesis 3c predicted a negative relationship between agentic IM behaviors (self-promotion) and perceived authentic leadership. The relationship between agentic IM and perceived authentic leadership was negative, but it was not statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 3c was not supported. In addition, there were no statistically significant relationships between agentic IEM and perceived authentic leadership, which therefore means Hypothesis 4c was not supported. These correlations are reported in the table below.

Table 28: Descriptives and correlations for leader-follower matched dyads (sub-dimensions).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 NA	4.08	0.67	*0.78*										
2 II	4.63	0.38	0.26	*0.69*									
3 AS	4.87	0.25	0.12	0.13	*0.15*								
4 SA	4.19	0.44	0.20	0.30	-0.03	*0.59*							
5 SP	2.27	0.98	0.07	-0.23	-0.03	0.16	*0.9*						
6 IN	2.82	1.30	0.24	-0.08	-0.04	0.13	.47*	*0.94*					
7 EX	1.74	0.92	0.23	0.10	-0.05	0.14	0.37	.46*	*0.84*				
8 CC	3.78	0.73	0.03	-0.17	-0.27	-0.03	.42*	.65**	.45*	*0.83*			
9 SM	3.70	0.63	0.11	0.12	0.04	0.24	0.32	-0.06	0.06	0.18	*0.82*		
10 PAL	3.97	1.40	-.01	-0.07	-0.03	0.09	-0.15	0.05	-0.28	-0.13	-0.21	*0.92*	
11 Trust	4.19	0.52	0.04	-0.01	-0.01	0.16	-0.26	-0.07	0.03	-0.02	0.03	0.25	*0.65*

$N = 28$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$; Cronbach's alphas in the diagonal. NA = networking ability; II = interpersonal influence; AS = apparent sincerity, SA = social astuteness; SP = self-promotion; IN = ingratiation; EX = exemplification; CC = cognitive change; SM = situation modification; PAL = Perceived Authentic Leadership; Trust = Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) scale

Follower Dataset

To examine the relationships proposed by Hypotheses B and C 1-4 at the sub-dimension level, I computed bivariate correlations between the subdimensions of all study variables. With these hypotheses, PS, IM, IEM, and authentic leadership are measured using the versions of the scales that measure follower perceptions of their leader. The results can be seen in Table 29.

Hypotheses B 1-4

Neither apparent sincerity nor social astuteness had statistically significant relationships with communal IM (ingratiation and exemplification). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b, that communal political skill is positively related to communal IM, was not supported. Apparent sincerity ($r = .48$) and social astuteness ($r = .54$) were both positively related to cognitive change. This supported Hypothesis 2b, that communal political skill is positively related to communal IEM behaviors. Hypotheses 3b predicted a positive relationship between communal IM (ingratiation) and perceived authentic leadership. This was not supported as the correlation was not statistically significant. Hypothesis 4b stated that communal IEM (cognitive change) would be positively related to perceived authentic leadership, which was supported ($r = .50$).

Hypotheses C 1-4

Hypothesis 1c proposed a positive relationship between agentic political skill (interpersonal influence and networking ability) and agentic impression

management. Interpersonal influence had a statistically significant relationship with self-promotion ($r = .29$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1c was partially supported. Hypothesis 2c stated that agentic political skill is positively related to situation modification IEM behaviors. Networking ability ($r = .42$) and interpersonal influence ($r = .52$) were both positively related to situation modification, offering support for Hypothesis 2c. Hypothesis 3c predicted a negative relationship between agentic IM behaviors (self-promotion) and perceived authentic leadership. This was not supported, as the correlation between self-promotion and perceived authentic leadership was not statistically significant ($r = .14$, $p > .05$). Situation modification IEM behaviors were positively related to perceived authentic leadership ($r = .68$, $p < .05$), which supports Hypothesis 4c.

Table 29: Descriptives and correlations for follower-only dataset using variable subdimensions.

	Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	NA	4.13	.81	*.87*										
2	II	4.45	.80	**.48**	*.84*									
3	AS	4.55	.60	**.57**	**.73**	*.68*								
4	SA	4.21	.81	**.53**	**.80**	**.67**	*.90*							
5	SP	3.28	1.24	-.03	.29*	.16	.19	*.89*						
6	IN	2.85	1.20	-.19	-.20	-.18	-.22	**.40**	*.91*					
7	EX	3.55	1.09	-.13	-.01	-.10	-.16	**.42**	**.65**	*.66*				
8	CC	3.79	.88	**.41**	**.47**	**.48**	**.54**	.07	-.11	-.04	*.89*			
9	SM	4.06	.80	**.42**	**.52**	**.50**	**.56**	.26*	-.17	-.17	**.72**	*.89*		
10	PAL	4.16	0.71	**.47**	**.74**	**.67**	**.69**	.14	-.37	.17	**.50**	**.68**	*.94*	
11	Trust	4.08	0.70	.31*	**.53**	**.40**	**.49**	.17	-.28*	-0.03	**.35**	**.49**	**.78**	*.78*

N = 67; ***p*** < .01; **p* < .05; Cronbach's alphas in the diagonal. NA = networking ability; II = interpersonal influence; AS = apparent sincerity, SA = social astuteness; SP = self-promotion; IN = ingratiation; EX = exemplification; CC = cognitive change; SM = situation modification; PAL = Perceived Authentic Leadership; Trust = Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) scale

Hypotheses D 1 and 2

This section examines tests of Hypotheses 1d and 2d, that the communal components of PS will have higher relative importance in the prediction of communal leader behaviors than agentic leader behaviors and the agentic components of PS have higher relative importance in the prediction of agentic leader behaviors than communal leader behaviors. This would also offer further support for the communal-agentic distinction I have proposed in Models 2 and 3. For this analysis, the follower dataset was determined to be most appropriate due to sample size concerns.

I conducted a relative weight analysis (Johnson, 2000) using code obtained from RWA-Web (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2014) to determine whether the communal aspects of PS (apparent sincerity and social astuteness) were more important in predicting the communal aspects of leader behavior (IM: ingratiation and exemplification; IEM: cognitive change) and whether the agentic aspects of PS (networking ability and interpersonal influence) were more important in predicting the agentic aspects of leader behavior (IM: self-promotion; IEM: situation modification).

Confidence intervals for the individual relative weights (Johnson, 2004) and all corresponding significance tests were based on bootstrapping with 10,000 replications (Tonidandel et al., 2009). In all cases, 95% CIs were used (corresponding to a significance testing alpha level of 0.05). These results indicate that a weighted linear combination of the four PS dimensions variables explained 12% of the

variance in cognitive change ($R^2 = 0.12$) and 6% of the variance in the situation modification ($R^2 = 0.06$).

A closer look at the relative weights reveals that interpersonal influence (RW = 0.07), apparent sincerity (RW = 0.08), and social astuteness (RW = 0.12) explained a statistically significant amount of variance in cognitive change, as none of the 95% CIs for the tests of significance contained zero. Social astuteness and apparent sincerity (both communal dimensions of PS) were therefore the strongest predictors of cognitive change (communal IEM). The RWA results reveal that the majority of the explained/predicted variance of cognitive change can be attributed to social astuteness (36% of model R^2) and self-promotion (23% of model R^2). In support of the communal-agentic alignment between the study variables, communal PS explained more variance in communal IEM than agentic PS. However, support for the communal-agentic distinction ends there. The remaining results either lack statistical significance or contradict the communal-agentic alignment. For example, none of the relative weights for the PS-IM relationships were statistically significant, and the most important predictors of agentic IEM (situation modification) were social astuteness, apparent sincerity, and networking ability, in that order. This offers partial support for Hypothesis 1d, that communal PS will have more relative importance in predicting communal IM/IEM than agentic PS. However, there is no support for Hypothesis 2d, that agentic PS will have more relative importance in predicting agentic IM and IEM than communal IM and IEM.

I also conducted multiple regression analyses (results also summarized in the table below as "Estimate"). These tests revealed slightly different results from the relative weight analyses. Specifically, in the traditional regression analyses, none of the PS dimensions provided statistically significant incremental effects in the prediction of leader behaviors except for cognitive change (interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, and social astuteness were significant predictors). According to Tonidandel et al. (2009) and Tonidandel and LeBreton (2014), such differences are not uncommon and simply reflect that these two statistics are addressing different research questions. Taken together, these results suggest that the PS dimensions are explaining non-trivial variance in leader behavior variables, but the correlations they share with one another (and the other predictor variables) results in them explaining little unique, incremental variance (Tonidandel et al., 2009; Tonidandel & LeBreton 2011; Tonidandel and LeBreton, 2014). Table 30 provides a summary of these results.

Table 30: Relative weight analyses for PS to IM/IEM relationships in follower-only dataset.

Predictor	Estimate	RW	CI-L	CI-U	RS-RW (%)
Criterion = Self-Promotion (IM) ($R^2 = 0.12$, $F[4,61] = 2.16$, $p = 0.08$)					
Intercept	1.97				
Networking Ability	-0.27	0.02	-0.20	0.02	14.79
Interpers. Influence	0.66	0.06	-0.17	0.13	**53.59**
Apparent Sincerity[a]	-0.09	0.02	-0.22	0.04	13.93
Social Astuteness	-0.01	0.02	-0.21	0.05	**17.68**
Criterion = Ingratiation (IM) ($R^2 = 0.06$, $F[4,61] = 0.79$, $p = 0.53$)					
Intercept	4.55***				
Networking Ability	-0.12	0.02	-0.14	0.04	29.13
Interpers. Influence	-0.09	0.01	-0.16	0.05	24.16
Apparent Sincerity[a]	-0.04	0.01	-0.17	0.02	14.35
Social Astuteness	-0.15	0.02	-0.15	0.05	32.36
Criterion = Exemplification (IM) ($R^2 = 0.07$, $F[4,59] = 1.16$, $p = 0.34$)					
Intercept	4.36***				
Networking Ability	-0.04	0.01	-0.05	0.10	15.96
Interpers. Influence	0.57	0.02	-0.04	0.11	27.28
Apparent Sincerity[a]	-0.25	0.01	-0.07	0.06	13.25
Social Astuteness	-0.48	0.03	-0.04	0.15	43.51
Criterion = Cognitive Change (IEM) ($R^2 = 0.12$, $F[4,61] = 7.01$, $p < .001$)					
Intercept	0.48				
Networking Ability	0.13	0.06	-0.02	0.19	19.54
Interpers. Influence	-0.01	0.07*	0.001	0.20	20.35
Apparent Sincerity[a]	0.26	0.08*	0.01	0.17	23.62
Social Astuteness	0.38	0.12*	0.02	0.27	36.49
Criterion = Situation Modification (IEM) ($R^2 = 0.06$; $F[4,61] = 8.00$, $p < .001$)					
Intercept	0.93				
Networking Ability	0.11	0.06	0.002	0.15	17.23
Interpers. Influence	0.12	0.09	-0.01	0.21	25.63
Apparent Sincerity[a]	0.21	0.08	0.01	0.17	23.57
Social Astuteness	0.28	0.12	0.02	0.23	33.56

$N = 67$; ***$p < .001$, **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$; RW = relative weight, RS-RW = relative weight rescaled as a percentage of predicted variance in the criterion variable attributed to each predictor (within rounding error rescaled weights sum to 100 %); [a]Statistically significant differences were found for this raw relative weight as a function of employee gender; use caution when interpreting this raw weight, as it represents a weighted average of these two values.

Finally, I tested whether there were differences in the magnitude of the relative weights as a function of leader gender. Results indicated there were statistically significant differences as a function of gender for the relationship between apparent sincerity and each of the criterion variables—these confidence intervals for the male–female comparison were the only ones to exclude zero. The table below shows that for male leaders, the majority of the explained/predicted variance in self-promotion (76% of the model R^2) and situation modification (38% of the model R^2) is attributed to apparent sincerity. For female leaders, the majority of the explained/predicted variance in ingratiation (19% of the model R^2), exemplification (53% of the model R^2), and cognitive change (23% of the model R^2) is attributed to apparent sincerity. In a traditional multiple regression, this can be conceptualized as a moderation effect of gender.

Statistically significant differences were found for the raw relative weight of self-promotion as a function of employee gender. In the case of self-promotion and situation modification, both "agentic" behaviors, the weights were higher for male (self-promotion RW = 0.29, RS-RW = 76% of the model R^2, situation modification RW = 0.08, RS-RW = 38% of the model R^2) than for female leaders (self-promotion RW = 0.03, RS-RW = 15% of the model R^2, situation modification RW = 0.08, RS-RW = 18% of the model R^2).

On the other hand, apparent sincerity had higher relative importance in predicting the communal behaviors for female leaders compared to male leaders: for female leaders the weights for ingratiation (RW = 0.01, RS-RW = 19% of the model

R^2), exemplification (RW = 0.01, RS-RW = 53% of the model R^2), and cognitive change (RW = 0.08, RS-RW = 23% of the model R^2) were higher than the weights for male leaders (ingratiation RW = 0.003, RS-RW = 4% of the model R^2; exemplification RW = 0.01, RS-RW = 3% of the model R^2; cognitive change RW = 0.09, RS-RW = 21% of the model R^2). Because statistically significant differences were found for the raw relative weights of self-promotion on each of the five criterion variables, caution must be used when interpreting the original raw weight in the previous table, as it represents a weighted average of these two values. Therefore, similar to moderated multiple regression, these results suggest that leader gender impacts the relative importance of the predictors. These results are summarized in Table 31. For male leaders, the relative importance of apparent sincerity is higher for agentic behaviors, but for female leaders the relative importance of apparent sincerity is higher for communal behaviors.

Table 31: Relative weight of Apparent Sincerity as a function of leader gender (follower-only dataset).

	CI-L	CI-U	Leader Gender	RW	RS-RW (%)
			Impression Management		
Self-Promotion	0.04	0.24	Male	0.29	**76.86**
			Female	0.03	15.98
Ingratiation	0.04	0.24	Male	0.003	4.49
			Female	0.01	**19.14**
Exemplification	0.04	0.24	Male	0.01	3.95
			Interpersonal Emotion Management		
			Female	0.01	**53.60**
Cognitive Change	0.04	0.24	Male	0.08	21.66
			Female	0.08	**23.93**
Situation Mod.	0.04	0.24	Male	0.08	**38.95**
			Female	0.08	18.16

N = 67

Hypotheses 5a, b, and c

Hypothesis 5a proposed a positive relationship between perceived authentic leadership and trust. This section includes tests of this hypothesis as well as the correlations between all the study variables and perceived authentic leadership and trust in leader. In the leader-follower matched dataset, perceived authentic leadership did not have any statistically significant relationships with either measure of trust in leader. However, in the follower-only dataset, perceived authentic leadership had a positive relationship with trust in leader (Schoorman & Ballinger, $r = .78$; Wildman et al., $r = .84$) and a negative relationship with distrust (Wildman et al., $r = -.71$, $p < .01$). This supported Hypothesis 5a. Table 32 shows a summary of the relationships between perceived authentic leadership and the study variables in each dataset.

Table 32: Descriptives and correlations between perceived authentic leadership and trust in leader.

Leader-Follower Dyads	M	SD	1	2	3
Perceived Authentic Lead.	3.97	1.40			
Trust (1)	4.19	0.52	0.25		
Trust (2)	4.42	0.88	0.18	.57**	
Distrust	1.24	0.39	-0.16	-.56**	-.56**
Follower-Only	M	SD	1	2	3
Perceived Authentic Lead.	4.16	0.71			
Trust (1)	4.08	0.70	.78**		
Trust (2)	4.30	0.91	.84**	.74**	
Distrust	1.41	0.68	-.71**	-.72**	-.74**

Displaying only correlations between perceived authentic leadership and trust variables. $N_{Leader} = 39$, $N_{Follower} = 67$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$; Trust (1) = Schoorman and Ballinger's (2006) scale; Trust (2) and Distrust = Wildman et al. (2009)

For the sake of completeness, I also calculated the correlations between all the study variables and perceived authentic leadership and trust in leader. The table below shows some interesting correlations. For the leader-follower matched dataset, trust (Wildman et al., 2009) had a positive relationship with leader-felt authenticity ($r = .40$, $p < .05$), while distrust had a positive relationship with self-promotion ($r = .38$, $p < .05$). No other correlations were statistically significant for this dataset. For the follower-only dataset, perceived authentic leadership and trust were positively related to each dimension of PS, and distrust was negatively related to each dimension of PS. Similarly, perceived authentic leadership and trust were positively related to situation modification and cognitive change, with distrust also negatively related to these dimensions of IEM. Ingratiation showed a positive correlation with distrust ($r = .25$, $p < .05$) and negative correlations with perceived authentic leadership and trust. Self-promotion also showed a negative correlation with distrust ($r = -.34$, $p < .01$).

Table 33: Correlations between study variables, perceived authentic leadership, and trust in leader.

Leader-Follower Dyads	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Perceived Auth. Lead.	3.97	1.40				
2. Trust (1)	4.19	0.52	0.25			
3. Trust (2)	4.42	0.88	0.18	.57**		
4. Distrust	1.24	0.39	-0.16	-.56**	-.56**	
5. Networking Ability	4.08	0.67	-0.01	0.03	0.05	0.03
6. Interpersonal Influence	4.63	0.38	-0.07	-0.01	0.12	0.13
7. Apparent Sincerity	4.87	0.25	-0.03	-0.01	0.07	-0.26
8. Social Astuteness	4.19	0.44	0.09	0.16	-0.04	0.15
9. Self-Promotion	2.27	0.98	-0.15	-0.26	-0.36	0.38*
10. Ingratiation	2.82	1.30	0.05	-0.07	0.03	-0.20
11. Exemplification	1.74	0.92	-0.28	0.03	0.04	-0.07
12. Situation Modification	3.78	0.73	-0.13	-0.02	-0.16	-0.03
13. Cognitive Change	3.70	0.63	-0.21	0.03	-0.20	0.34
14. Authenticity	4.17	0.71	0.14	0.08	0.40*	-0.24
Follower-Only	**M**	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Perceived Auth. Lead.	4.16	0.71				
2. Trust (1)	4.08	0.70	.78**			
3. Trust (2)	4.30	0.91	.84**	.74**		
4. Distrust	1.41	0.68	-.71**	-.72**	-.74**	
5. Networking Ability	4.13	0.81	.47**	.31*	.42**	-0.23
6. Interpersonal Influence	4.45	0.80	.74**	.53**	.68**	-.61**
7. Apparent Sincerity	4.55	0.60	.67**	.40**	.65**	-.50**
8. Social Astuteness	4.21	0.81	.69**	.49**	.66**	-.66**
9. Self-Promotion	3.28	1.24	0.14	0.17	0.20	-.34**
10. Ingratiation	2.85	1.20	-.37**	-.28*	-.39**	0.25*
11. Exemplification	3.55	1.09	-0.17	-0.03	-0.20	-0.04
12. Situation Modification	4.06	0.80	.68**	.48**	.58**	-.58**
13. Cognitive Change	3.79	0.88	.50**	.35**	.46**	-.46**

$N_{Leader} = 39$, $N_{Follower} = 67$; **$p < 0.01$; * $p < .05$

The Communal Pathway

       I then conducted SEM to examine the communal model, which specifies the relationships among the communal components of the constructs. This model contained one exogenous latent variable and five endogenous latent variables. In this model, we included the following paths, which are also clarified in the figure below:

1. Communal PS (apparent sincerity and social astuteness) to communal IM (ingratiation and exemplification)

2. Communal PS to communal IEM (cognitive change)

3. Communal IM to perceived authentic leadership

4. Communal IEM to perceived authentic leadership (PAL)

5. Perceived authentic leadership to trust in leader
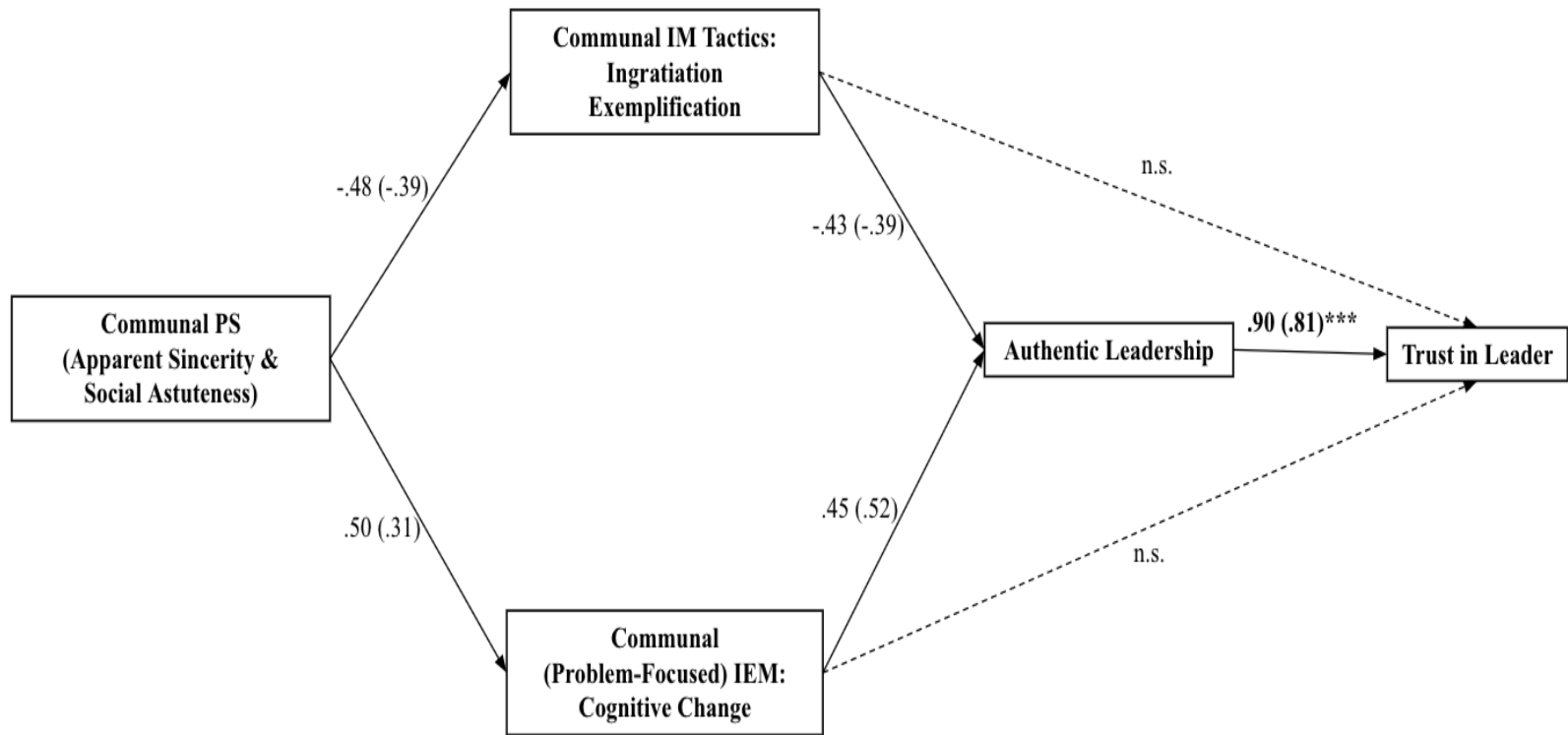
Figure 6: Communal pathway structural model including standardized and unstandardized effects.

***p < .001, p < .01

Although the chi-square value for the model was significant, χ^2 (812) = 1720.21, $p < .001$, the other fit indices were not satisfactory: CFI = .63, SRMR = .16, and RMSEA = .13, 95% CI [.12, .14]. Taken together, these indicate the model was a poor fit to the data. Looking at the estimates for the proposed pathways, communal PS negatively predicted communal IM (β = -.48, b = -.39, $p < .01$). In turn, IM negatively predicted perceived authentic leadership (β = -.43, b = -.39, $p < .01$). Communal PS positively predicted communal IEM (β = .50, b = .31, $p < .001$). In turn, communal IEM predicted perceived authentic leadership (β = .45, b = .52, $p < .001$). Then, perceived authentic leadership positively predicted trust in leader (β = .90, b = .81, $p < .001$). Communal PS explained 23% of the variance in IM and 25% of the variance in IEM. Communal IM and communal IEM explained 49% of the variance in perceived authentic leadership; communal IM, communal IEM, and perceived authentic leadership explained 83% of the variance in trust in leader.

Indirect effects were investigated to further test (1) the mediating role of perceived authentic leadership between communal IM (ingratiation and exemplification) and trust in leadership; and (2) the mediating role of perceived authentic leadership between communal/problem-focused IEM (cognitive change) and trust in leadership. The indirect effect of communal IM on trust in leader through perceived authentic leadership was statistically significant (β = -.39 b = -.32, $p > .01$, 95% CI [-0.54, -0.10]). With the direct effect so close to zero and lacking statistical significance (β = -.03 b = -.02, p = .80, 95% CI [-0.21, 0.16]), Hypothesis 5b was supported. The indirect effect of communal IEM on trust in leader through perceived

authentic leadership was statistically significant (β = .40 b = .42, p > .01, 95% CI [0.14, 0.70]). With the direct effect close to zero and lacking statistical significance (β = -.01 b = -.01, p =.92, 95% CI [-0.22, 0.20]), Hypothesis 5c was supported.

The Agentic Pathway

I then conducted SEM to examine the agentic model, which specifies the agentic components of the constructs and the relationships between them. The agentic model contained one exogenous latent variable and five endogenous latent variables. In this model, we included the following paths, which is also clarified in the figure below:

1. Agentic PS (networking ability and interpersonal influence) to agentic IM (self-promotion)

2. Agentic PS to agentic IEM (situation modification)

3. Agentic IM to perceived authentic leadership (PAL)

4. Agentic IEM to perceived authentic leadership

5. perceived authentic leadership to trust in leader
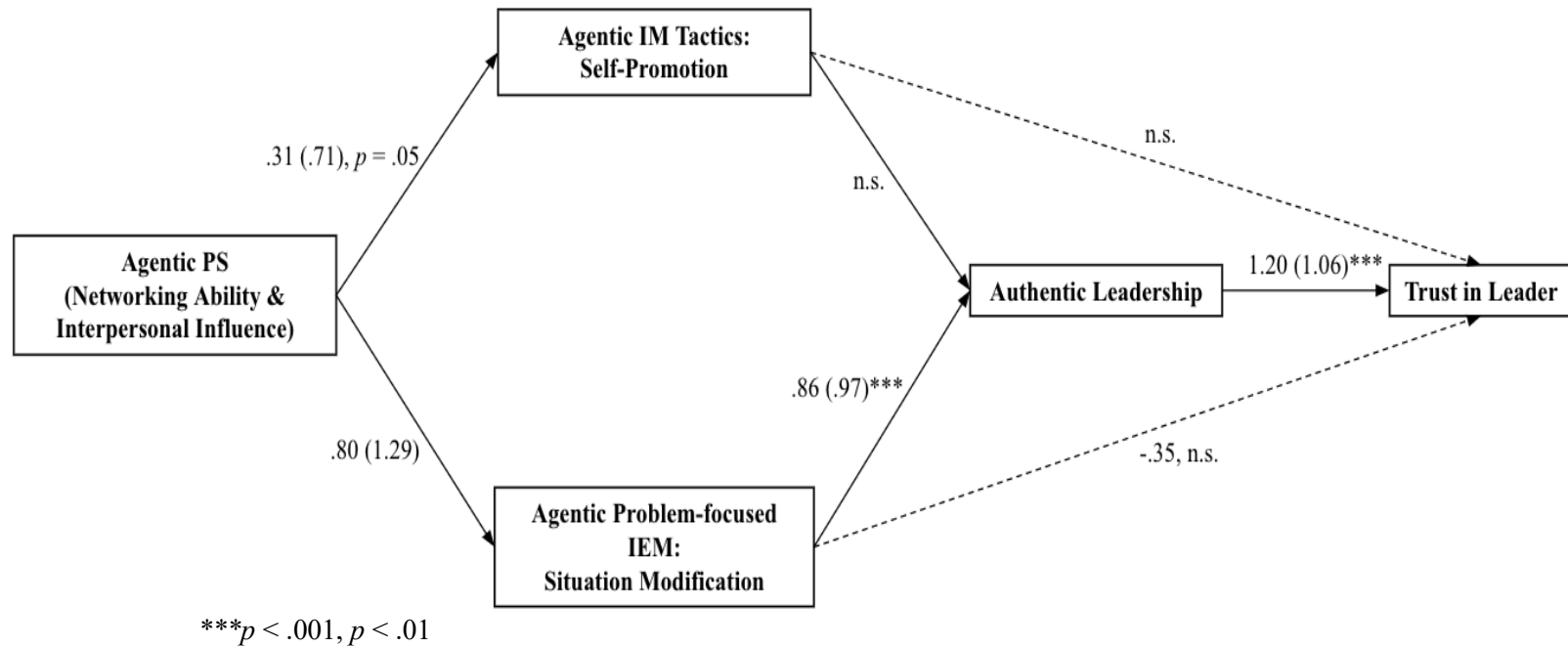
Figure 7: Agentic pathway structural model including standardized and unstandardized effects.

Although the chi-square value for the model was statistically significant, χ^2 (587) = 1175.64, $p < .001$, the other fit indices were not satisfactory: CFI = .68, SRMR = .10, and RMSEA = .12, 95% CI [.11, .13]. Again, these indicate the model was a poor fit to the data. In examining the proposed pathways, agentic PS positively predicted self-promotion ($\beta = .71$, $b = .31$, $p = .05$) and situation modification ($\beta = .80$, $b = 1.29$, $p < .05$). Impression management positively predicted perceived authentic leadership ($\beta = .02$, $b = .02$, $p > .05$), but this was not statistically significant; in addition, agentic IEM (situation modification) positively predicted perceived authentic leadership ($\beta = .86$, $b = .97$, $p < .05$). Perceived authentic leadership also positively predicted trust in leader ($\beta = 1.18$, $b = 1.05$, $p < .001$). Agentic PS explained 9% of the variance in self-promotion and 57% of situation modification. Then, 75% of the variance in perceived authentic leadership was explained by agentic IM and agentic IEM, and 85% of the variance in trust in leader was explained by agentic IM, agentic IEM, and perceived authentic leadership.

Indirect effects were investigated to test (1) the mediating role of perceived authentic leadership between self-promotion (agentic IM) and trust in leadership; and (2) the mediating role of perceived authentic leadership between situation modification (agentic/problem-focused IEM) and trust in leadership. The indirect effect of agentic IM on trust in leader through perceived authentic leadership was not statistically significant ($\beta = .03$, $b = .02$ $p = .73$, 95% CI [-0.11, 0.16]); therefore, Hypothesis 5b was not supported. The indirect effect of agentic IEM on trust in leader through perceived authentic leadership was statistically significant ($\beta = 1.03$ $b =$

1.03, $p > .001$, 95% CI [0.40, 1.67]). However, the total effect was statistically significant ($\beta = .68$ $b = .68$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.30, 1.07]), and the direct effect was a non-zero value in the opposite direction of the indirect effect and the direct effect of perceived authentic leadership on trust, $\beta = -.35$ $b = -.35$, $p = .14$, 95% CI [-0.81, 0.11] (Kenny, 2018). Therefore, Hypothesis 5c was not supported.

Hypotheses 6a and 6b

Leader-Follower Matched Dataset

To test Hypotheses 6a and 6b using the leader-follower matched dataset, I examined the effect of the interaction between gender and the IM and IEM behaviors on perceived authentic leadership using a series of hierarchical multiple regressions in SPSS, in which the leader self-reported behaviors (IM and IEM dimensions) and gender were added in Step 1 and the interaction terms of gender and the behaviors were added in Step 2. The interaction between leader behaviors (self-reported) and leader gender explained no additional variance above and over that accounted for by their linear terms. These results offer no support for Hypotheses 6a and 6b, that gender would moderate the relationship between IM/IEM and perceived authentic leadership.

Follower Dataset

To test Hypotheses 6a and 6b, I examined the effect of the interaction between gender and the IM and IEM behaviors on perceived authentic leadership using a series of hierarchical multiple regressions in SPSS, with the followers' perceptions of behaviors (IM and IEM dimensions) and gender added in Step 1 and the interaction terms of gender and the behaviors were added in Step 2. Statistically

significant results are summarized in Table 34. The interaction between IM behaviors and gender explained no additional variance above and over that accounted for by their linear terms. However, there were significant results for IEM behaviors: the interaction between cognitive change and gender explained an additional 5.1% of the variance ($p < .05$) in perceived authentic leadership, and the interaction between situation modification and gender explained an additional 4.7% of the variance ($p < .05$) in perceived authentic leadership.

Table 34: Regression results for Hypothesis 6b – DV = Perceived Authentic Leadership.

	R	R^2	ΔR^2	F	SE	β	t
Cognitive Change							
Model 1	0.55	0.30	0.05	13.43**	0.58		
Cognitive Change						-0.24	-2.26*
Gender						0.49	4.60***
Model 2	0.59	0.35	0.05	11.09*	0.56		
Cognitive Change						-1.18	-2.66*
Gender						-0.25	-0.71
Interaction Term						1.21	2.19*
Situation Modification							
Model 1	0.69	0.48	0.05	28.32**	0.50		
Situation Mod.						-0.23	-2.54*
Gender						0.64	7.01***
Model 2	0.72	0.53	0.04	22.45**	0.48		
Situation Mod.						-1.36	-2.92**
Gender						-0.06	-0.19
Interaction						1.33	2.47*

N = 67; ***p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05

I also examined the slopes of the regression lines for each gender group using the Legacy Dialogs function in SPSS. While the relationships for male and female leaders are both significant, the relationship is stronger for female leaders (cognitive change simple slope = .51, situation modification simple slope = .74) than for male leaders (cognitive change simple slope = .16, situation modification simple slope = .34). The figure below offers a visual representation of this interaction. For female leaders, there is a stronger relationship between follower perceptions of IEM behaviors, both communal and agentic, and perceived authentic leadership. This means that female leaders are viewed as authentic when IEM behaviors are high, no matter their selection of communal versus agentic; however, when female leaders engage in low levels of IEM behaviors, they are perceived as even less authentic than male leaders.

These results offer no support for Hypothesis 6a, that gender would moderate the relationship between IM and perceived authentic leadership. However, the results do show support for Hypothesis 6b, that gender would moderate the relationship between IEM and perceived authentic leadership.
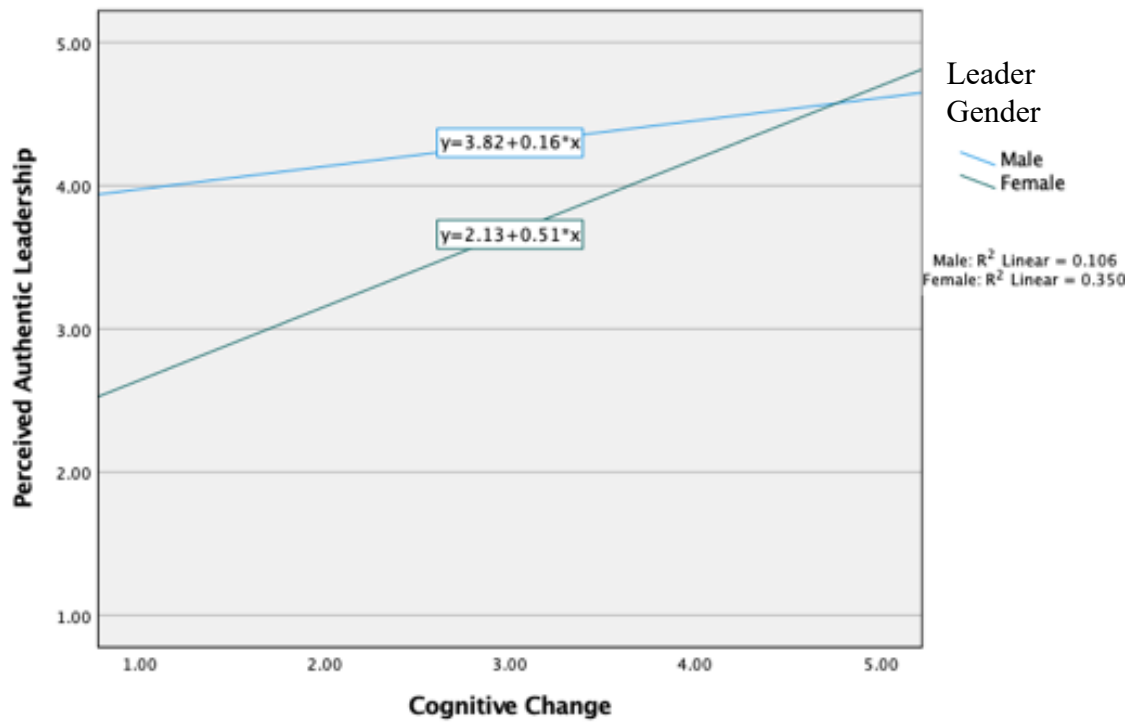
Figure 8: Graphed interactions between leader gender and Cognitive Change (IEM) behaviors.

Figure 9 region:

- Y-axis: Perceived Authentic Leadership (1.00 to 5.00)
- X-axis: Situation Modification (1.00 to 5.00)
- Legend: Leader Gender — Male, Female
- $y=3.02+0.34*x$
- $y=1.08+0.74*x$
- Male: R^2 Linear = 0.389
- Female: R^2 Linear = 0.513
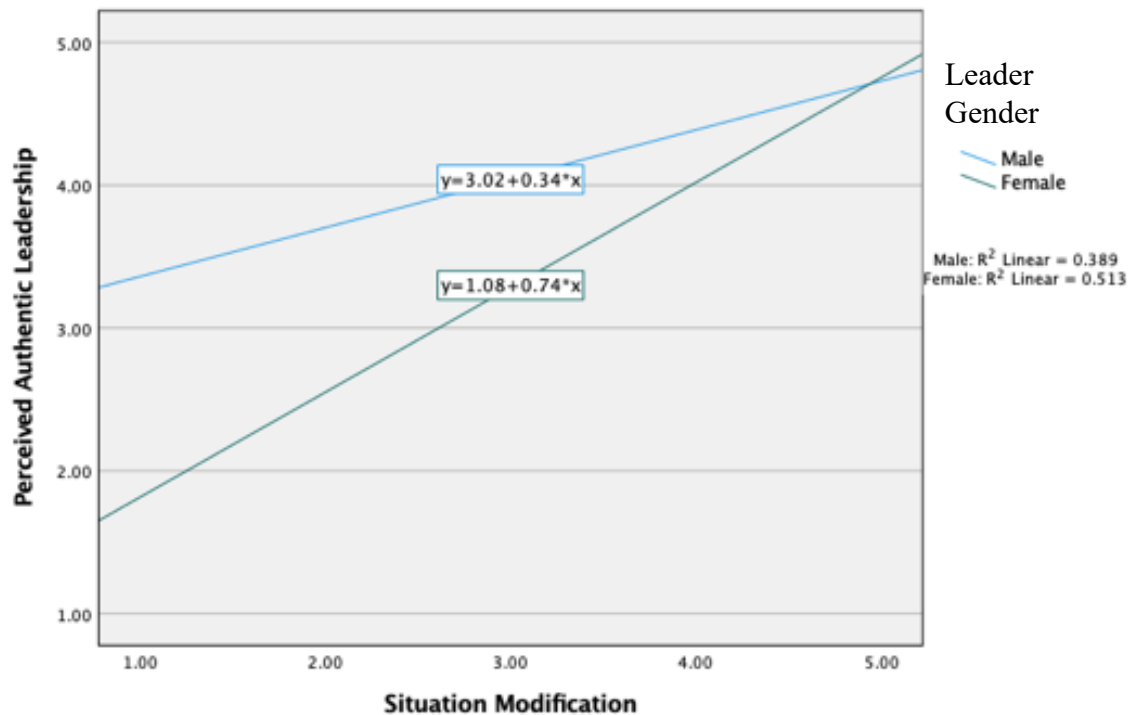
Figure 9: Graphed interactions between leader gender and Situation Modification (IEM) behaviors.

Exploratory Analyses Results

Factor Structure of Additional Trust Measures

EFA for Trust/Distrust

Using the same methods described in the previous EFAs and CFAs, I conducted both an EFA in SPSS and CFAs in R to examine factor structure for the additional measures of trust in leader and distrust (Wildman et al., 2009). These analyses were conducted only for the follower-only dataset. Again, I used the maximum likelihood estimator and promax rotation, referring to a cut-off point of .40 for factor loadings and Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1 (Field,

2009; Stevens, 1992). Three factors were extracted, with several items having multiple cross-loadings above .40. I conducted the analysis again specifying two factors. The factor analysis revealed that most items loaded as expected. The 8 trust items all clearly loaded onto component 1 and 4 distrust items loaded on to component 2. Of the remaining distrust items, two had negative loadings on component 1 and two had weak (<.40) loadings on component 2. These results show additional dimensionality (ability versus intent; Wildman et al., 2009). The distrust items that loaded negatively on to component 1 were the "intent" items, while the trust items that loaded on to component 1 with loadings greater than .80 were also "intent" items. Distrust items that loaded on to component 2 were the "ability" items, while the trust items that loaded on to component 1 with loadings smaller than .80 were also "ability" items. Table 35 shows the rotated matrix for the two-factor model.

Table 35: Two-Factor EFA results for Wildman et al. (2009) Trust/Distrust in follower dataset.

		Factor	
		1	2
Trust	1	**0.63**	-0.34
Trust	2	**0.68**	-0.32
Trust	3	**0.71**	-0.24
Trust	4	**0.73**	-0.26
Trust	5	**0.81**	-0.12
Trust	6	**0.82**	-0.04
Trust	7	**1.09**	0.30
Trust	8	**1.04**	0.22
Distrust	1	0.14	**0.69**
Distrust	2	0.02	**0.86**
Distrust	3	0.03	**0.93**
Distrust	4	0.05	**1.00**
Distrust	5	-0.23	0.39
Distrust	6	**-0.29**	0.33
Distrust	7	**-0.40**	0.37
Distrust	8	**-0.44**	0.31
% Variance Explained		60.71	7.92

Significant loadings are shown in bold.
N = 67

CFA for Trust/Distrust

I then conducted a CFA for the new trust/distrust measure. I compared two separate models: (1) one-factor structure where every indicator loaded onto one overall latent variable; and (2) a two-factor structure with trust items loading onto a single factor and distrust items loading onto a single factor. The two-factor model fit the data significantly better than the one-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 95.50$, $p < .001$). The chi-square was statistically significant for the one-factor model ($\chi^2(104) = 415.79$, $p < .001$), but the remaining fit indices did not demonstrate acceptable fit (CFI = .74, RMSEA = .21, SRMR = .10; Hooper et al., 2008; Kline, 2005). The two-factor model

had a significant chi-square ($\chi^2(103) = 320.21$, $p < .001$), and the CFI (.82) and the

SRMR (.08) were closer to acceptable values. The results are reported in Table 36.

Table 36: CFA fit indices for Trust/Distrust (Wildman et al., 2009).

Measurement Model	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	Δ df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI
1-Factor Structure	415.79*	-	104	-	0.21	0.10	0.74
2-Factor Structure	320.21*	95.50*	103	1	0.18	0.08	0.82

$N = 67$; * $p < .001$

Full Serial Mediation

From previous sections, it was fairly clear that there was a strong relationship between political skill and trust in leader. Using the follower only dataset, I conducted supplemental SEM analysis to assess the possibility of a complete serial mediation model to include an indirect effect on trust from PS. This model contained one exogenous latent variable (PS) and three endogenous latent variables (IM, IEM, trust in leader). Looking at the estimates for the proposed pathways, PS positively predicted trust in leader ($b = .43$), and PS, IM, and IEM explained 51% of the variance in trust in leader. Although the chi-square value was significant, $\chi^2 (726) = 1308.08$, $p < .001$, the other fit indices were not satisfactory: CFI = .72, SRMR = .13, and RMSEA = .11, 95% CI [.12, .14]. These results indicate the model was a poor fit to the data. Indirect effects were investigated to further test (1) the mediating role of IM between PS and trust in leadership; and (2) the mediating role of IEM between PS and trust in leadership. The results did not support the mediating role of IM or

IEM. While PS still predicted IEM, PS did not predict IM and the indirect effects were not statistically significant.

Test of Curvilinear Relationships

I wanted to also explore the possibility of a curvilinear relationship between leader behaviors and perceived authentic leadership as well as between leader behaviors and trust in leader. Therefore, using the follower-only dataset, a series of two-step hierarchical multiple regressions was conducted with the independent variable entered on the first step and the quadratic term entered on the second step and perceived authentic leadership as the dependent variable or trust in leader as the dependent variable.

In their respective hierarchical multiple regressions, ingratiation ($F(1,65) = 10.05$, $p< .01$), cognitive change ($F(1,65) = 21.61$, $p< .001$), and situation modification ($F(1,65) = 55.15$, $p< .001$) contributed significantly to the variance in perceived authentic leadership when entered in Step 1. However, the statistically significant findings end there. Self-promotion ($F (1,65) = 1.27$, $p = .26$) and exemplification ($F(1,65) = 1.80$, $p = .18$) did not contribute significantly to the variance in perceived authentic leadership when entered in Step 1 in their respective hierarchical multiple regressions. Then, the quadratic terms for self-promotion ($F(2,64) = 0.68$), ingratiation ($F(2,64) = 2.28$), exemplification ($F(2,64) = 11.46$), cognitive change ($F(2,64) = 11.46$), and situation modification ($F(2,64) = 28.88$) did not significantly contribute to the model when entered in Step 2 of the hierarchical multiple regressions (all p values were greater than .05).

For trust in leader as the dependent variable, I observed similar results. Again, in their respective hierarchical multiple regressions, ingratiation ($F(1,65) = 5.06$, $p< .05$), cognitive change ($F(1,65) = 9.09$, $p< .01$), and situation modification ($F(1,65) = 19.24$, $p< .001$) contributed significantly to the variance in trust in leader when entered in Step 1, but self-promotion ($F (1,65) = 2.04$, $p = .16$) and exemplification ($F(1,65) = 0.56$, $p = .81$) did not contribute significantly to the variance in perceived authentic leadership when entered in Step 1 in their respective hierarchical multiple regressions. Again, the quadratic terms for self-promotion ($F(2,64) = 1.57$), ingratiation ($F(2,64) = 2.77$), exemplification ($F(2,64) = .56$), cognitive change ($F(2,64) = 5.29$), and situation modification ($F(2,64) = 9.98$) did not significantly contribute to the model.

The hierarchical multiple regressions revealed that while ingratiation, cognitive change, and situation modification were statistically significant predictors of perceived authentic leadership and trust in leader, there were no statistically significant changes in R^2 using the quadratic terms as predictors in Step 2. Therefore, there is no support for a curvilinear relationship between the behavior variables and perceived authentic leadership or trust in leader.

Leader-Follower Matched Dataset

Agreement between Leaders and Followers

To examine agreement between leaders and followers on political skill and leader behaviors (IM and IEM), I used difference scores. Larger scores indicate low levels of agreement, while smaller scores indicate high levels of agreement. Once the scores were computed, I calculated descriptive statistics, which can be seen in Table

37. From the descriptive statistics, it is interesting to note that the means appeared to stay below 1, indicating fairly good agreement between leaders and followers on leader characteristics and behaviors. The largest means were seen for the IM behaviors, self-promotion, ingratiation, and exemplification, which indicates that there is a low level of agreement between leaders and followers on the leader's use of IM tactics.

Table 37: Descriptives for subdimensions as agreement scores – leader-follower dyad dataset.

	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Networking Ability	0.63	0.56	1.87	3.80
Interpersonal Influence	0.57	0.74	2.57	7.22
Apparent Sincerity	0.37	0.48	1.85	3.87
Social Astuteness	0.69	0.44	1.04	1.00
Self-Promotion	1.71	1.08	-0.33	-1.16
Exemplification	2.06	1.07	-0.12	-0.79
Ingratiation	1.19	0.70	0.01	-1.03
Situation Modification	0.79	0.84	1.14	0.21
Cognitive Change	0.86	0.62	1.18	1.27
Authenticity	0.75	1.28	4.14	1.19

$N = 28$; Skewness SE = .44, Kurtosis SE = .86

I then conducted a correlation analysis for the agreement variables and the study DVs (perceived authentic leadership, measures of trust). Agreement on networking ability ($r = -.44$) and interpersonal influence ($r = -.39$) had statistically significant relationships with agentic IM (self-promotion). The PS sub-dimensions generally demonstrated correlations with one another, and situation modification and

cognitive change (IEM) were also correlated with one another ($r = .53$). Beyond this point, this analysis offered no further support of the agreement variables as significant to the original study models. Neither the IM behaviors nor the IEM behaviors had any statistically significant relationships with any of the outcome variables (e.g., agreement on authenticity, perceived authenticity, measures of trust).

While the agreement scores for leader behaviors do not appear to lend support to the study hypotheses, there are other interesting statistically significant correlations. For example, the correlations between the PS sub-dimensions and the trust outcomes show that agreement on networking ability ($r = -.51$), interpersonal influence ($r = -.58$), and apparent sincerity ($r = -.70$) had negative relationships with the Wildman et al. (2009) measure of trust; and social astuteness had a negative relationship with the Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) measure of trust ($r = -.47$). In addition, interpersonal influence ($r = .40$), apparent sincerity ($r = .61$) and social astuteness ($r = .39$) had positive relationships with the Wildman et al. (2009) measure of distrust. These results suggest that there will be lower trust in leader when there is a greater disagreement between leaders and followers on the leader's political skill. Table 38 provides a summary of the correlations.

Table 38: Correlations for agreement (1-10) and study variables in leader-follower dataset.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 NA													
2 II	0.72^{**}												
3 AS	0.59^{**}	0.59^{**}											
4 SA	0.36	0.45^{*}	0.38^{*}										
5 SP	-0.44^{*}	-0.39^{*}	-0.23	-0.08									
6 EX	0.13	-0.02	0.23	0.26	0.00								
7 IN	0.20	-0.12	0.28	0.04	0.11	0.05							
8 SM	-0.04	0.09	-0.04	0.36	0.23	-0.04	0.03						
9 CC	-0.08	-0.10	-0.14	0.33	0.27	-0.10	0.18	0.53^{**}					
10 Auth	0.17	0.19	0.04	0.31	-0.09	0.36	0.01	0.08	-0.08				
11 PAL	-0.10	-0.20	-0.14	-0.27	0.11	-0.32	0.03	-0.07	0.06	-0.91^{**}			
12 T(1)	-0.13	-0.35	-0.27	-0.47^{*}	-0.06	0.02	0.14	-0.02	-0.22	-0.05	0.25		
13 T (2)	$-.51^{**}$	-0.58^{**}	-0.70^{**}	-0.33	0.35	0.07	-0.11	0.03	0.02	-0.04	0.18	0.57^{**}	
14 Dist.	0.32	0.40^{*}	0.61^{**}	0.39^{*}	-0.35	0.23	-0.14	0.09	-0.14	0.06	-0.16	-0.56^{**}	-0.56^{**}

$N = 28$, $**p < .01$, $*p < .05$; NA= networking ability, II = interpersonal influence; AS = apparent sincerity, SA = social astuteness, SP = self-promotion, IN = ingratiation, EX = exemplification, CC = cognitive change; SM = situation modification, Auth = perceived authentic leadership, T(1) = Schoorman trust measure, T(2) = Wildman trust measure, Dist = Wildman distrust

Leader-Felt Authenticity

Another set of exploratory analyses was conducted to examine the effect of leader-felt authenticity. First, I examined leader-felt authenticity as a moderator of the relationship between leader behaviors and perceived authentic leadership using a moderated hierarchical regression analysis. The behaviors (IM and IEM) and leader-felt authenticity were added in Step 1, and the interaction terms of leader-felt authenticity and the behaviors were added in Step 2. Perceived authentic leadership was used as the dependent variable. Neither the interaction between IM behaviors and leader-felt authenticity nor the interaction between IEM behaviors and leader-felt authenticity explained additional unique variance.

I then examined leader-felt authenticity as a moderator of the relationship between leader behaviors and trust in leader using a moderated hierarchical regression analysis. The behaviors (IM and IEM) and leader-felt authenticity were added in Step 1, and the interaction terms of leader-felt authenticity and the behaviors were added in Step 2. Trust in leader was used as the dependent variable. Again, neither the interaction between IM behaviors and leader-felt authenticity nor the interaction between IEM behaviors and leader-felt authenticity explained additional variance in trust in leader.

Second, I examined the possibility of a three-way interaction between leader-felt authenticity, leader gender, and leader behaviors in the prediction of perceived authentic leadership. Overall, this test aimed to assess whether agentic tactics lead to more authenticity for men versus communal tactics lead to more authenticity for

women. I conducted regression analyses to test whether these three variables interact to affect the leader outcomes. I computed a three-way interaction term to be entered on the third step of the regression analysis. These exploratory analyses did not yield any statistically significant results. I also examined the possibility of a three-way interaction between leader-felt authenticity, leader gender, and leader behaviors in the prediction of trust in leadership. These exploratory analyses did not yield any statistically significant results. Therefore, there is no evidence in the current study to suggest that leader gender, leader-felt authenticity, and leader behaviors interact to affect perceived authentic leadership or trust in leader.

Leader-Only Dataset

While the sample size for the leader-only dataset is small ($N = 39$), I felt it would be useful to look at additional relationships between the variables contained within it. The bivariate correlations did reveal some interesting relationships: there was a positive relationship between situation modification and leader-felt authenticity ($r = .42$, $p < .01$). There were positive correlations between situation modification and the IM behaviors (self-promotion $r = .45$, ingratiation $r = .56$, and exemplification $r = .42$, $p < .01$). There was also a negative relationship between the "accepting external influence" dimension of authenticity and self-promotion ($r = -.36$, $p < .05$) and a positive relationship between accepting external influence and exemplification ($r = .41$, $p < .01$). A summary of these statistics can be seen in Table 39 below.

Table 39: Descriptives and correlations for leader-only dataset.

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	NA	4.05	.68	.81											
2	II	4.52	.50	.36*	.76										
3	AS	4.77	.39	.26	.53**	.63									
4	SA	4.11	.51	.37*	.42**	.29	.61								
5	SP	2.49	1.11	.10	-.15	-.14	.03	.90							
6	IN	2.71	1.19	.14	.03	-.06	.05	.36*	.89						
7	EX	1.91	1.10	.10	-.19	-.29	-.07	.46**	.40*	.88					
8	CC	3.76	.59	-.02	-.06	-.20	.13	.32	.01	.17	.72				
9	SM	3.88	.65	.06	-.15	-.23	-.01	.45**	.56**	.42**	.24	.78			
10	Auth	4.07	.85	.11	.12	.17	.05	-.09	.26	.13	-.15	.42**	.92		
11	EXINF	2.25	.91	-.31	-.20	-.36*	-.15	-.18	.13	.41**	.00	-.11	.04	.91	
12	ALIEN	1.44	.78	.03	-.28	-.31	-.26	-.19	.09	.16	-.22	.18	-.06	.12	.86

$N = 39$; $N_{males} = 14$, $N_{females} = 25$. **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$; Cronbach's alphas in the diagonal. NA= networking ability, II = interpersonal influence; AS = apparent sincerity, SA = social astuteness, SP = self-promotion, IN = ingratiation, EX = exemplification, CC = cognitive change; SM = situation modification; 10, 11,12 = leader-felt authenticity sub-dimensions (Auth = authentic living, EXINF = accepting external influence, ALIEN = self-alienation)

Qualitative Results

Survey 3 included one open-ended question that may give insight into the perceptions of followers and leaders ("How would you describe your relationship with your direct report/supervisor?"). These open-ended questions were examined using a thematic analysis. The process of developing the thematic structures was somewhat cyclical, falling in line with the description of qualitative analysis in Leong and Austin (2006). I read the comments several times, established a coding scheme, and once I had established several themes I found that even then I needed to add more categories or further specify other ones.

Out of 39 participants who completed the leader survey, there were 37 who answered the open-ended question. Comments for this section were broken down into positive (n = 34), negative (n = 1), and neutral (n = 3). There were 34 coded segments, and 4 main themes: openness/transparency (n = 6), friendly (n = 6), communication (n = 6), and respect (n = 5).

Out of 67 participants who completed the follower survey, there were 65 who answered the open-ended question. Comments for this section were broken down into positive (n = 59), negative (n = 7), and neutral (n = 4). There were 101 coded segments, and 4 main themes: friendly (n = 17), trust (n = 14), openness/transparency (n = 13), and professional (n = 10). While the comments were mostly positive (90%), there were a few interesting trends identified with the negative comments. I first examined the followers who were not matched to a leader to determine if they had a large number of negative/neutral comments; however, there were only three total

negative/neutral comments from this group. I further broke out the results by leader gender ($n_{female} = 43$, $n_{male} = 22$), I noticed that all comments about male leaders were coded as positive (n = 22, 100%) and none were coded as negative or neutral, while 37 comments (86%) about female leaders were coded as positive, and other comments about female leaders were coded as negative (n = 7) and neutral (n = 4). Further, female followers seemed to be harsher critics overall, with 9 negative or neutral comments from female followers compared to no negative or neutral comments from male followers; female followers had no negative or neutral comments about male leaders, while male followers only had 2 total negative or neutral comments about male leaders. This is outlined in the table below.

Table 40: Frequencies of comments from follower-only dataset.

	n	# Positive Comments	# Negative Comments	# Neutral Comments
Female-female	37	32	6	3
Female-male	6	5	1	1
Male-female	17	17	0	0
Male-male	5	5	0	0

Total N = 67, Leader-follower

For the 28 leader-follower matched dyads, there were 27 who had both the follower and the leader open-ended question completed. I first examined whether the comment sentiments were matching. Out of 27 dyads, 4 had responses to the open-ended question that did not appear to match in terms of sentiment: for two of these cases, the leader was the one to indicate the relationship was positive while the

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follower indicated a negative or neutral attitude; for the other two cases, it was the opposite, with the follower indicating a positive attitude towards the relationship and the leader indicating a negative or neutral attitude. I then examined how the leader-follower gender match might affect the match between comment sentiments. From the 4 mismatching comment sentiments previously observed, three out of the four dyads were female-female matched (female leader, female follower) and one dyad was male-male. The table below provides frequencies and example quotes.

Table 41: Follower-only dataset qualitative analysis (main themes).

Categories	# Coded Segments	Example quote
Positive Themes	59	
Friendly	17	"Friendly, hospitable, we get along great"; "Informal, fun"
Trust	14	"Good, trusting"
Openness/Transparency	13	"Open, loyal, and friendly"
Professional	10	"Professional, friendly, essential"
Respect	9	"We respect each other"
Mentor/Teach/Develop	9	"Mentorship, accountability, frequent communication"
Honesty	8	"Open and honest. Effective."
Support/Help	5	"Wonderful and supportive";
Collaborative	4	"Collaborative"; "Collaboration"
Negative Themes	7	"Babysitting the parent"; "Walking on eggshells"; "Cautious"; "Lack of Trust"
Neutral Themes	4	"Neutral, professional, and uncomfortable"

Table 42: Leader-only dataset qualitative analysis (main themes).

Categories	# Coded Segments	Example quote
Positive Themes	34	
Respect	6	"I feel respected."
Friendly	6	"More like coworkers most of the time. Only as a supervisor when needed to be."
Openness/Transparency	6	"Good; open communication"
Communication	4	"Stable. We communicate regularly."
Trust	3	"Positive, relational, and built on trust"
Understanding/Caring	3	"I believe they trust that I care about them and try to make decisions while considering what would be best for them."
Authentic	2	"Authentic and real. A balanced relationship."
Support/Help	2	"I try to make sure they can be themselves and feel comfortable coming to me for advice, help, or anything really."
Negative Themes	1	"Path of least resistance"
Neutral Themes	3	"Consistent"; "Fair"

Chapter 6: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine political skill, impression management, and emotion management and how these constructs impact follower perceptions of leader authenticity and of trust. In addition, I aimed to explore the effects of gender on the manifestation of these social influence constructs to gain a better understanding of facilitators of female leader empowerment. As differences between men and women have been previously studied and in these constructs, I expected the relationship between impression and emotion management tactics and trust in leader to differ for men and women leaders. Finally, this study aimed to improve understanding authenticity from two perspectives: a leader's felt authenticity and follower's perceptions of a leader's authenticity are both potentially important components to facilitating followers' feelings of trust.

Summary of Findings

The study hypotheses were not supported by the analyses of the leader-only and the leader-follower matched datasets with no statistically sig76nificant results. Therefore, this summary section will cover findings from the analyses for the follower-only dataset in the most detail.

The results of the analyses for the follower-only dataset provide support for some, though not all, of the hypotheses. Additionally, some of the primary and supplemental analyses provided partial support, while other non-significant or unexpected findings might have implications for future research. This summary includes an overview of the results in logical order: starting with (1) relationships

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between IM and other study variables, then (2) relationships between IEM and other study variables, (3) relative weight hypotheses between communal and agentic components, (4) relationships between perceived authentic leadership and other study variables, (5) gender as a moderator, and (6) the exploratory analyses. Accompanying each section is a discussion of possible explanations for the observed effects and statistical relationships. Table 40 provides an overview of the hypotheses that were tested using the follower-only dataset.

Table 43: Summary of hypotheses tested and whether they were supported by study analyses.

Hypothesis	Description	Result
	Impression Management Relationships	
H1a	PS is positively related to IM.	Not Supported
H3a	IM is positively related to trust in leader.	Not Supported
H1b	Communal PS (apparent sincerity and social astuteness) is positively related to communal IM.	Not Supported
H3b	Communal IM (ingratiation) is positively related to perceived authentic leadership.	Not Supported
H1c	Agentic PS (interpersonal influence and networking ability) is positively related to agentic IM.	Partially Supported
H3c	Agentic IM (self-promotion) is negatively related to perceived authentic leadership.	Not Supported
	Interpersonal Emotion Management Relationships	
H2a	PS is positively related to IEM.	Supported
H4a	IEM is positively related to trust in leader.	Supported
H2b	Communal PS is positively related to communal IEM (cognitive change).	Supported
H4b	Communal IEM (cognitive change) is positively related to perceived authentic leadership.	Supported
H2c	Agentic PS is positively related to agentic IEM (situation modification).	Supported
H4c	Agentic IEM (situation modification) is positively related to perceived authentic leadership.	Supported
	Communal and Agentic Alignments	
H1d	Communal PS will have more relative weight in predicting communal IM/IEM than agentic PS.	Partially Supported
H2d	Agentic PS will have more relative weight in predicting agentic IM/IEM than communal PS.	Not Supported
	Perceived Authentic Leadership	
H5a	Perceived authentic leadership is positively related to trust in leader.	Supported
H5b	Perceived authentic leadership mediates the relationship between IM and trust in leader.	Partially Supported
H5c	Perceived authentic leadership mediates the relationship between IEM and trust in leader.	Partially Supported
	Leader Gender as a Moderator	
H6a	Leader gender moderates the relationship between IM and perceived authentic leadership.	Not Supported
H6b	Leader gender moderates the relationship between IEM and perceived authentic leadership.	Supported

Impression Management

Political Skill and IM

The present study attempted to confirm findings that link political skill and impression management (Brouer et al., 2015; Harris et al., 2007). The correlations demonstrated that there was not a statistically significant relationship between PS and IM (Hypothesis 1a). In addition, SEM revealed a negative effect of PS on IM, which was opposite the proposed direction. There was no support for Hypothesis 1b for a positive relationship between communal PS and communal IM (Hypothesis 1b). Further, the SEM results revealed that while the structural model did not fit the data particularly well, communal PS had a negative and statistically significant effect in predicting communal IM, which was opposite the proposed direction. Hypothesis 1c was partially supported, as agentic PS was positively related to self-promotion, and SEM revealed a near-significant positive effect of agentic PS on agentic IM.

Overall, the results of this study indicate that leader political skill was not related to impression management in the predicted directions. One possible explanation for the negative/non-significant results for the PS-IM relationships could be the small sample sizes. Each of the three datasets was very small compared to studies with a similar number of variables and hypothesized effects. For correlations, an appropriate sample size for Pearson's r as well as multiple regression varies among authors (Bonett & Wright, 2000). For SEM analyses, Kline (2011) has recommended 5 to 10 cases per indicator appears to be the most widely accepted cutoff in social sciences research, which was not achieved in the current study. Furthermore, the parametric tests used in this study may not be robust to small sample sizes. However,

given the fact that these analyses produced several statistically significant results for the IEM predictions, this is not likely to be the cause of weak relationships for IM.

Going beyond the limitations of the sample characteristics, previous research on political skill and impression management has often strongly supported a connection between the two. The non-significant relationships between political skill and impression management may be explained simply by the fact that they are not as strongly related as was previously thought. This shows that more research is required to examine the dimensions separately and as both predictors of impression management and contextual variables (e.g., Brouer et al., 2015).

The non-significant results for most of the IM hypotheses could also be attributed to the characteristics of the scale used. Bolino et al. (2016) briefly discuss measurement of IM and who or what source would provide the most accurate measures of impression management behavior. For the leader survey, with IM as a self-report measure, there are the issues of social desirability and unconscious impression management that may still come into play. If the survey taker perceived the items as indicative of ulterior motives, they may not have wanted to rate such items very highly; on the other hand, leaders may not even be aware of their impression management attempts as such behaviors may be habitual or unconscious.

For the follower survey, to my knowledge, the modified Bolino measure used in this study has not been used previously to capture target perceptions rather than actor self-report data. In most studies, impression management behaviors are self-reported by employees, which is appropriate given that "employees themselves

should be most aware of such behavior and because when an employee manages impressions successfully, others should be less aware that the individual is, in fact, managing impressions" (pg. 397, Bolino et al., 2016). In using this scale as an other-report measure, there is the issue of targets being unwitting to the motivations or "desired images" of the actors. The impression management scale itself may trigger negative connotations for such behaviors with their aligned motives, and followers who have highly positive opinions of their leader would be unlikely to rate such items very highly. Other scales for perceptions of impression management have been developed (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998), but these scales have not been widely used and do not necessarily align with the Jones and Pittman (1982) IM taxonomy as it was intended to be measured in the current study. Future research should continue to refine measures that capture more nuance to examine perceived behaviors, perceived motives, and perceived images separately (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998).

Impression Management Outcomes

Hypothesis 3a predicted a positive relationship between IM and trust in leader. This hypothesis was not supported, as the correlations demonstrated there was not a statistically significant relationship between IM and trust in leader. The observed relationship was actually negative, which is opposite the proposed direction. In addition, SEM showed a negative, but non-significant, effect of IM on trust in leader. Therefore, IM was not positively correlated with trust in leader.

Hypothesis 3b predicted that communal IM would be positively related to perceived authentic leadership, while Hypothesis 3c predicted that agentic IM would be negatively related to perceptions of authentic leadership. These hypotheses were not supported by the correlations between communal IM (including combined and individual dimensions) and perceived authentic leadership and between agentic IM (self-promotion) and perceived authentic leadership. None of these correlations were statistically significant, and several of them were opposite to the proposed direction. The SEM analyses did reveal a negative effect of communal IM on perceived authentic leadership, as well as a positive but non-significant effect of agentic IM on perceived authentic leadership--these are both opposite the predicted direction. Therefore, follower perceptions of IM did not relate to perceived authentic leadership as expected.

The positive correlation between agentic IM (self-promotion) and the Wildman measure of distrust for the leader-follower matched dataset indicates that people distrust leaders who use self-promotion; however, the positive correlation between the follower-reported self-promotion and trust indicates the relationship may be spurious. One possible explanation for these results is that perhaps the construct of IM as it is measured contradicts trust in leader and authenticity. Again, the IM scale items could be interpreted in a negative light, meaning that those followers who have positive opinions of their leaders would not rate such behaviors very highly. For those leaders who are successfully engaging in high levels of impression management behaviors, followers would be "less aware that the

individual is, in fact, managing impressions" (pg. 397, Bolino et al., 2016), as awareness of such behavior might undermine its level of success.

Interpersonal Emotion Management

The tests of IEM relationships mostly demonstrate support for the study hypotheses.

Political skill and IEM

Hypothesis 2a predicted a positive relationship between PS and IEM. The correlation for PS and IEM in the follower-only dataset was positive and statistically significant, showing support for Hypothesis 2a. Further, the SEM results revealed that while the structural model did not fit the data particularly well, PS had a positive and statistically significant effect in predicting IEM. Hypothesis 2b was also supported - apparent sincerity and social astuteness were both positively related to cognitive change, and SEM showed a positive effect of communal PS on communal IEM. Hypothesis 2c predicted that agentic IEM (situation modification) would be positively related to situation modification IEM behaviors. This hypothesis was supported with the bivariate correlation and bolstered by a significant effect in the SEM analysis.

The findings of this study suggest that a follower's perceptions of their leader's political skill greatly impacts their perceptions of the leader's interpersonal emotion management. Affective events theory states that attitudes and behaviors can be shaped by emotion (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1995), while the "emotions as social information" (EASI) theory states that people use others' emotional expressions as

information to determine their own attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors (Van Kleef, van den Berg, & Heerdink, 2015). Both of these foundational theories help to drive the notion that social influence (i.e., use of political skill) can be, by nature, an emotion-laden process. The dimensions of political skill have demonstrated covariance and conceptual overlap with various emotion-related constructs (e.g., emotional intelligence; Ferris et al., 2005; Ferris et al., 2007; Munyon et al., 2015). High political skill (e.g., social astuteness) would enable a leader to recognize others' emotions as well as how such emotion might (negatively) impact the other person as well as their goals.

IEM and Outcomes

Hypothesis 4a, that IEM would be positively related to trust in leader, was supported by a positive and statistically significant correlation for the follower-only dataset. In addition, while the SEM did not have great fit to the data, the relationship between IEM and trust in leader were reflective of the correlations - IEM positively predicted trust in leader. These results are in line with previous research that demonstrated such behaviors are predictors of trust in leader and perceptions of trustworthiness (Gottfredson & Aguinis, 2017). Problem-focused IEM related positively to trust in leader based on its impact on an individual's perception of a leader's ability, integrity, and benevolence. A leader who engages in problem-focused IEM attempts to remove or alter a problem to reduce the emotional impact (situation modification) or reappraise a situation as more positive (cognitive change). Such behaviors, in targeting the problem, help to convey the leader's ability to solve

such problems and to understand the concerns of the employee (benevolence). Little et al. (2012) demonstrated that when supervisors used SM and CC, subordinates were more willing to make themselves vulnerable to them. Vulnerability is a key component of many conceptualizations of trust (Mayer et al., 1995). Taken together, this indicates that interpersonal emotion management behaviors would impact feelings of trust.

Hypothesis 4b predicted that communal IEM (cognitive change) would be positively related to perceived authentic leadership, which was supported by a positive, statistically significant correlation between the individual sub-dimensions and perceived authentic leadership. Hypothesis 4c predicted a positive relationship between situation modification (agentic) IEM behaviors and perceived authentic leadership. This was also supported by a positive, statistically significant correlation between the IEM and perceived authentic leadership and a positive direct effect. This study's findings overlap with previous findings indicate that IEM is related to constructs that have conceptual overlap with perceived authentic leadership, such as leader-member exchange (LMX; Little et al., 2016). Behaviors that provide additional support (situational modification (SM)) and offer a reappraisal of the event (cognitive change (CC)) address the problems employees face, which allows leaders to meet followers' expectations. It is for this reason that the current study's results suggest that IEM, both agentic and communal, are related to perceived authentic leadership.

Communal and Agentic Distinction

The relative weight analysis was designed to further test the relationships for the communal-agentic distinctions. Specifically, Hypotheses 1d and 2d predicted that the communal components of PS have higher relative importance in the prediction of communal leader behaviors than agentic leader behaviors and the agentic components of PS have higher relative importance in the prediction of agentic leader behaviors than communal leader behaviors. Hypothesis 1d received partial support: although none of the relative weights for the PS-IM relationships were statistically significant, for communal IEM, the most important predictors were social astuteness and apparent sincerity, both communal dimensions. However, there was no support for Hypothesis 2d, that agentic PS has more relative importance in predicting agentic IM and IEM than communal IM and IEM, as none of the relative weights proved to be statistically significant. The dimensions of PS, IM, and IEM have been studied both together and separately as well as in groupings (e.g., positive and negative IM tactics; Brouer et al., 2015).

While the current study does not offer support for the grouping of the sub-dimensions into communal versus agentic categories, another interesting finding from the relative weight analysis deserves closer attention. A closer look at the male versus female relative weights indicates that apparent sincerity was more important for agentic behaviors of male leaders but it was more important for communal behaviors for female leaders. Therefore, similar to moderated multiple regression, these results suggest that relative importance of apparent sincerity differs as a function of leader gender. Apparent sincerity was weighted more strongly for men

than women in the prediction of agentic behaviors, while apparent sincerity was weighted more strongly in the prediction of communal behaviors for women than men.

These differences can likely be understood in the context of gendered expectations. These findings raise the possibility that males with high apparent sincerity are more likely to exhibit the agentic behaviors compared with their female counterparts, while females with high apparent sincerity are more likely to exhibit the communal behaviors compared with their male counterparts. Perhaps when female leaders wish to come across as sincere, they attempt to match stereotypical expectations by choosing not to engage in agentic behaviors. On the other hand, for men, certain agentic behaviors used in excess (e.g., impression management; Berman et al., 2014; Bolino et al., 2016; Jones & Pittman, 1982) may actually negatively impact followers' perceptions; therefore, followers' perceptions of apparent sincerity would be important if male leaders were engaging in high levels of agentic behaviors. Another possible explanation is reverse causality, which may need to be considered carefully as followers' perceptions of political skill were measured at the final timepoint after the behaviors rather than the initial timepoint ahead of behaviors. Interpreting the results of the relative weight analysis in reverse suggests that perhaps female leaders appear more sincere when they engage in communal behaviors, but male leaders appear more sincere when they engage in agentic behaviors. Such results may advance research in this field by going beyond detecting the mere

presence of mean gender differences. However, research must continue in this area to better our understanding of the drivers of these gender differences.

The Role of Perceived Authentic Leadership

The current study predicted that perceived authentic leadership would be related to trust in leader and even act as a mediator to explain the relationships between IM or IEM and trust in leader. Hypothesis 5a stated that perceived authentic leadership would be positively related to trust in leader, which was supported by the bivariate correlation, as well as strong effects on trust in leader in both the communal and agentic SEM analyses. This falls in line with the previous research on key predictors of trust. Trustworthiness factors (e.g., ability, benevolence, and integrity; Mayer et al., 1995) overlap with authentic leadership. If a follower perceives that his or her leader is authentic, then the follower is likely to trust the leader. The correlations were very high (> .70), which indicates other possible explanations. First, common method bias is a potential concern, as perceived authentic leadership and trust were measured at the same timepoint. Second, a halo bias could be affecting measurement; followers may have overall positive perceptions of their leader that contaminate their perceptions of authentic leadership and feelings of trust. Third, a closer look at the items for the perceived authentic leadership and trust/distrust measure reveal very high conceptual or operational overlap with trust.

Hypothesis 5b predicted that perceived authentic leadership would mediate the relationship between IM and trust in leader. The SEM analysis revealed a negative, statistically significant path from communal IM to perceived authentic leadership and a statistically significant indirect effect. In addition, the indirect effect

of IM (self-promotion) on trust in leader was not statistically significant for the agentic model. These results demonstrate that perceived authentic leadership did not mediate the relationship between self-promotion and trust in leader as expected, therefore there was no support for Hypothesis 5b.

The results do not offer support for Hypothesis 5b, but they do fall in line with the previous finding that the correlation between communal IM and perceived authentic leadership was positive but not statistically significant (Hypothesis 3b), and agentic IM did not have a negative, statistically significant relationship with perceived authentic leadership (Hypothesis 3c). Follower perceptions of ingratiation and exemplification may be negative, which would be likely to negatively impact their perceptions of that leader's authenticity. Then, in turn, authentic leadership should positively relate to trust through its conceptual overlap with ability, benevolence, and integrity. The expected effect would resemble suppression or inconsistent mediation, whereby a direct and indirect effect have the potential to "cancel each other out" (Kenney, 2018). Such research questions should receive careful attention in future research.

Hypothesis 5c was partially supported with a statistically significant indirect effect shown by the SEM for the communal model. Combined with the positive relationship between communal IEM and perceived authentic leadership (Hypothesis 4b), these results indicate that perceived authentic leadership mediates the relationship between communal IEM (cognitive change) and trust in leader. When leaders engage in cognitive change and situation modification behaviors, this might

encourage followers to present their true authentic selves, openly share information, and express their true thoughts and feelings while trying to minimize displays of inappropriate emotions. Such actions may be interpreted as relational transparency, an important component of authentic leadership (Neider & Schriescheim, 2011). In turn, the leader would be perceived as transparent, honest, and trustworthy, and thereby earn the followers' trust.

For agentic IEM, the indirect effect on trust in leader was statistically significant, but the total effect was statistically significant and the direct effect was a non-zero value in the opposite direction of the indirect effect. This does not offer support for Hypothesis 5c. There are a number of possible explanations for the observed relationships: (1) collinearity between agentic IEM and perceived authentic leadership; (2) suppression or inconsistent mediation due to inclusion of perceived authentic leadership; and (3) perceived authentic leadership could simply be a third variable (Kenny, 2018). Agentic IEM is situation modification behaviors, which may be thought of by followers as simply a leader doing their job or fulfilling minimal expectations, which would therefore make its relationship to perceived authentic leadership less meaningful.

Gender as a Moderator

The final hypothesized relationships for this study included gender as a contextual variable. Hypotheses 6a and 6b proposed that gender would moderate the relationship between leader behaviors (IM and IEM) and perceived authentic leadership. The interaction between IM behaviors and gender explained no additional variance in perceived authentic leadership, which did not support Hypothesis 6a.

However, there were significant results for IEM behaviors, in support of Hypothesis 6b. Both the relationship between situation modification and perceived authentic leadership and the relationship between cognitive change and perceived authentic leadership were moderated by gender. The graphed interaction reveals that for female leaders, there is a stronger relationship between follower perceptions of IEM behaviors, both communal and agentic, and perceived authentic leadership. This is in line with previous theory and research regarding gendered expectations. For example, Post, Latu, and Belkin (2019) argued that overall, high IEM is more congruent with stereotypes about women than it is with stereotypes about men; therefore, a prototype of female leadership would include IEM behaviors. Thus, when women do not meet such expectations (high IEM behaviors), they are more harshly rated than their male counterparts. Overall, this can be taken to mean that female leaders are viewed as authentic when IEM behaviors are high, no matter their selection of communal versus agentic; however, when female leaders engage in low levels of IEM behaviors, they are perceived as even less authentic than male leaders.

Exploratory Analyses

Table 41 provides an overview of the results of the exploratory analyses. The overall goal was to provide complete analysis of the available data and answer potential research questions that came up throughout the hypothesis testing.

Table 44: Summary of exploratory analyses results.

Description	Analysis	Result
Follower-Only Dataset		
Study Variables → Trust/Distrust	Correlation	Bolstered results from main analyses
Curvilinear relationship between IM and perceived auth. leadership	Non-Linear Hierarchical Multiple Regression	Not Supported
Curvilinear relationship between IEM and perceived auth. leadership	Non-Linear Hierarchical Multiple Regression	Not Supported
Complete serial mediation: PS → IM/IEM → Trust	SEM	Not Supported; however, PS and Trust have a strong direct relationship
Matched Leader-Follower Dataset		
Hypothesized Relationships using agreement scores	Correlation	Hypothesized relationships not supported
Moderating Effect of Leader-Felt Auth. on relationships between Leader Behavior and Perceived Auth. Lead.	Moderated Multiple Regression	Not Supported
Three-Way Interaction between Leader-Felt Auth., Leader Gender, and IM/IEM on Perceived Auth. Lead.	Moderated Multiple Regression	Not Supported
Leader-Only Dataset		
Political Skill and Behaviors	Correlation	Bolstered results from main analyses; relationships between trust, PS, IEM
Leader-Felt Auth. relationships with other study variables	Correlation	Leader-felt auth. had a positive relationship with situation modification and a negative relationship with self-promotion
Qualitative Results	Thematic Analysis	Main takeaways: Female leaders received more negative/neutral comments than male leaders

Follower-Only Dataset

After examining the widely-used Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) measure of trust, I calculated correlations to examine the relationships between the study variables and the Wildman et al. (2009) Trust/Distrust measure. As expected, the trust component was positively related to the Schoorman and Ballinger measure of trust, while the distrust component had a negative relationship. Then, trust measures were also strongly correlated with other study variables, including positive relationships with both agentic and communal IEM and perceived authentic leadership. This offers further support of Hypothesis 4a and 5a. The distrust measure had negative relationships with agentic IM, both agentic and communal IEM, and perceived authentic leadership. While most of the observed relationships with distrust offer further support of the study hypotheses (H4a, H5a), there was also a positive relationship between distrust and communal IM, which contradicts the study hypotheses (H4a). There was also a negative relationship between trust and ingratiation. These results also revealed that trust had positive relationships with PS dimensions, while distrust had negative relationships with PS dimensions. This falls in line with previous research on predictors of trust, such as the followers' evaluations of a leader's ability and intent or benevolence and integrity (Wildman et al., 2009). Individuals with higher levels of PS are more likely to behave in ways that establish others' perceptions that they are sincere (apparent sincerity), competent (networking ability), etc.

Interestingly, the correlations for perceived authentic leadership also demonstrated positive, statistically significant relationships with each dimension of political skill. I then conducted a supplemental SEM analysis using the follower dataset to assess the possibility of a complete serial mediation model to include an indirect effect on trust from PS. The results demonstrated the model was a poor fit to the data and there was no support for the mediating role of IM or IEM as there were no statistically significant indirect effects. However, PS did have a significant effect on trust in leader. This indicates that PS likely has a direct effect on trust in leader.

I also wanted to explore the possibility of a curvilinear relationship between leader behaviors and perceived authentic leadership, and between leader behaviors and trust in leader. Previous research has provided theoretical and empirical support for "optimum levels" of certain leader behaviors (Ames, 2009; Ames & Flynn, 2007; Bono et al., 2014; Cho et al., 2017; Judge et al., 2009; Zacarro, 2007). Therefore, a series of two-step hierarchical multiple regressions was conducted. The results of these analyses do not provide empirical support for the existence of curvilinear relationships. The lack of statistical significance for these relationships may be, again, a symptom of the sample characteristics--curvilinear relationships would be difficult to detect given a highly skewed distribution. Further research is needed to more accurately assess the nature of these relationships.

Leader-Follower Matched Dataset

In collecting data for leader-subordinate dyads, this study does attempt to answer Bolino et al.'s (2016) call for comparing impression management ratings obtained from multiple sources, including peers, supervisors, subordinates, and independent observers. Using the leader-follower matched dataset, I calculated agreement scores for PS, IM, and IEM and used these variables to calculate correlations in line with the study hypotheses. The correlation analysis for the agreement variables and the remaining study variables revealed that agreement on networking ability and interpersonal influence had negative, statistically significant relationships with agentic IM (self-promotion). This indicates that the higher the agreement score (greater disagreement) between leaders and followers on leaders' political skill dimensions, the lower their agreement on perceptions of self-promotion. These results support the notion that self-promotion, interpreted as a negative IM behavior, may not be selected by those with high PS. Again, this demonstrates the importance of addressing the measurement of impression management in future research.

While the agreement scores for leader behaviors do not appear to lend support to the study hypotheses regarding leader behaviors (IM and IEM) and outcomes (perceived authentic leadership and trust in leader), there were other interesting statistically significant correlations. The correlations between the PS sub-dimensions and the trust outcomes show that agreement on networking ability, interpersonal influence, and apparent sincerity had negative relationships with the Wildman et al.

(2009) measure of trust and positive relationships with the distrust measure. Social astuteness had a negative relationship with the Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) measure of trust. This indicates there will be lower trust in leader when there is a greater disagreement between leaders and followers on the leader's political skill.

Another set of exploratory analyses was conducted to examine the effect of leader-felt authenticity in both a two-way and a three-way interaction with leader gender and leader behavior using moderated hierarchical regression analyses. These analyses did not produce statistically significant results; therefore, the study does not support leader-felt authenticity as a moderator. These results do not align with previous research regarding the negative effects of cognitive dissonance (e.g., surface acting, Grandey & Gabriel, 2015) on target perceptions, nor does it align with the notion that female leaders may feel more inauthentic than male leaders because of role congruity issues. This may be due to the inability of the target to actually perceive leader-felt authenticity.

Leader-Only Dataset

Using the leader-only dataset for exploratory analyses showed some interesting results. The bivariate correlations revealed a positive relationship between situation modification and leader-felt authenticity, which indicates that leader-felt authenticity is high when situation modification is high. There was also a significant negative relationship between the "accepting external influence" dimension of

authenticity and self-promotion. This indicates that those who engage in high levels of self-promotion do not feel authentic.

Impression management and interpersonal emotion management were positively correlated in the leader-only dataset (situation modification and each of the IM behaviors), the leader-follower matched dataset (overall IM and overall IEM), and the follower-only dataset (situation modification and each of the IM behaviors). Though this relationship was not hypothesized, it is not a surprising finding. Both impression management and IEM can be viewed as strategic behaviors aimed at accomplishing certain goals within a relationship (Niven, 2016; Niven et al., 2009). Further, Niven's (2016) interpersonal emotion regulation motivation theory poses impression management as a key motive of IEM behaviors. Finally, a follower's perceptions of a leader may be attributed to both impression management and IEM, thus explaining the relationship between these two constructs. For example, Little et al. (2016) found that certain IEM strategies had a negative impact on LMX. However, impression management and workplace emotions research have not often been integrated, and impression management research has been mostly concerned with image or identity creation, while IEM has not been linked to such motivations. Future research should continue to examine the emotional aspects of impression management and continue to integrate emotion management with social influence theories.

Finally, I analyzed leader and follower responses to Survey 3's open-ended question using a thematic analysis. In line with overall findings and the initial

descriptive statistics, the participants had generally positive perceptions of their relationship with their leader/follower. Across the datasets, poignant themes included openness/transparency, friendliness, communication, respect, professional relationships, and even trust. Though results with smaller samples should be interpreted with caution, the thematic analysis suggests that when there were negative or neutral comments about a leader, this leader was more likely to be female and the follower was more likely to be female as well. This result is interesting when taking into account previous findings that male and female employees do not differ in their stereotypical attributions toward "effective" (masculine) leaders (Patel & Biswas, 2016).

Theoretical Implications

The current study offers several theoretical contributions. First, this research examined specific explanatory mechanisms that account for a follower's trust in a leader, from a root of skills (i.e., political skill), to distinct behaviors (i.e., IM and IEM), to more proximal predictors such as employees' perceptions. The study aimed to strengthen our understanding of the connection between skills and behaviors and overall highlights the importance of tying leader behaviors to changes in affect, cognition, and eventually behavior of followers.

Second, this study helps us to understand more fully the key behaviors that political skill enables in leaders - impression management and interpersonal emotion management. In an attempt to answer calls for more research on impression management, this research examined this construct from both leader self-report and

follower (target) perceptions. Previous research has not often examined impression management behaviors for leaders, and Bolino et al. (2016) discussed a need for more research from the perspective of IM targets. While the results did not support the hypothesized relationships for impression management, this study does highlight the need for further research on this topic. We must continue to seek answers to the question: How can we better understand followers' perceptions of leader impression management? For interpersonal emotion management, to my knowledge there are no studies that link political skill to interpersonal emotion management behaviors. This research, therefore, provides a starting point of convergence for three previously separate streams of research - political skill and impression management and interpersonal emotion management.

Third, this study hopes to answer recent calls for research on barrier and facilitators to female leadership empowerment and success (Lyness & Grotto, 2018). In terms of barriers, this study's results identified symptoms of the double bind for women, as female leaders can be viewed as authentic when IEM behaviors are high, but may be considered even less authentic than males if they engage in low levels of IEM behaviors. In terms of facilitators, this study examined two potential facilitators (political skill and leader behaviors) in an attempt to strengthen our understanding of the mechanisms that explain the differences in behaviors as well as perceptions of those behaviors between men and women.

Women's empowerment may be hindered by the tension between agentic and communal behaviors. While the communal-agentic groupings of variables in this

study was not supported, this research still identified relative differences between men and women. Therefore, this study can help to improve our understanding of the mechanisms that explain the differences in behaviors as well as perceptions of those behaviors between men and women. The current study examined specific behaviors that are categorized as communal or feminine and agentic or masculine with the intention of determining the effect of such behaviors on follower outcomes.

Additionally, this study corroborates the importance of authenticity from two perspectives, leader and follower, which may act as a facilitator of women's leadership from both angles. Leader-felt authenticity would help to maintain a leader's personal resources, mitigating the effects of leader mental depletion, authentic leadership reduces leaders' stress and increases their work engagement (Weiss, Razinskas, Backmann, & Hoegl, 2018). Being perceived by followers as an authentic leader by engaging in problem-solving behaviors (e.g., situation modification) would help to foster honest relationships with others and develop trust (Salicru, 2018).

Practical Implications

This research has several practical implications for leaders and organizations in general. First, this research provides further insight on which skills or behaviors should be evaluated for selection or promotion and later on developed to advance organizational goals. Specifically, the results of this study show support for a relationship between political skill and interpersonal emotion management as well a relationship between these two constructs and the outcomes of perceived authentic

leadership and trust. Organizations should examine political skill and as an important indicator of a leaders' future success or job performance. In addition, affective constructs such as emotional expressiveness, charisma, empathy, and emotional intelligence or emotion regulation/management abilities may also be important factors in predicting leaders' job performance. For development, organizational leaders should seek out training on political skill and effective interpersonal emotion management behaviors. This research highlights how important a leader's demonstration of consideration/care for his or her employees, through certain behaviors, can help to improve employee perceptions of trustworthiness and authenticity.

Ultimately, all leaders are more likely to be successful in being perceived as authentic and earning followers' trust if they engage in problem-focused IEM behaviors (cognitive change and situation modification). With these behaviors, they can guide employees and redirect frustration into positivity as well as address and remove barriers to their employees' success, ultimately fulfilling employees' expectations of effective leadership. However, female leaders need to be aware that such behaviors matter more for them than their male counterparts--if women have low IEM, they might be perceived as inauthentic even more so than a male leader who has low IEM. Additionally, male leaders need to be aware of the trends in the workplace and dealing with personnel issues, as the results of this study also point out the importance of certain negatively perceived leadership behaviors (e.g., IM) in predicting perceptions of authenticity and trust in leader. Such behaviors may overlap

with masculine expectations; however, workers in the U.S. are becoming increasingly aware of the impact poor leadership has on them as individuals and are beginning to hold ability, benevolence, and integrity as well as authenticity, honesty, and ethics as basic requirements for their leaders. I believe Patel and Biswas (2016) said it best: "Although, the leadership research has repeatedly asserted the 'male advantage' in descriptions and experiences of male leaders, the 'female advantage' is slowly gaining momentum and will soon swan itself across the leadership terrain in the coming decades" (pg. 47).

Second, this research also provides useful information for organizations wishing to prevent unethical leadership. In light of the many high-profile scandals of the last 20 years, the importance of internal and external authenticity for today's leaders must prompt a discussion of the negative side of political skill and leadership (Mayer et al. 2012). By examining leader authenticity and impression management as perceived by followers, it may be possible to identify and course-correct unethical leadership and prevent its escalation in the workplace through climate surveys or other organization-level initiatives.

Third, this research emphasizes the fact that in leadership, men and women are not that different: women and men, no matter if they behave agentically or communally, are effective in eliciting certain responses from followers in pursuit of organizational goals. However, the present study also confirms other research on the existence of a double bind for women leaders that hinders their empowerment and perpetuates the gender gap in leadership. Ideally, the double bind would be

eliminated at the societal level, changing expectations for women leaders and leveling the playing field. Yet, progress in this area is slow due to the powerful and pervasive barriers within society and organizations (Lyness & Grotto, 2018). Therefore, it will be important to discuss how women can navigate the tension between agency and communion (Zheng, Surgevil, & Kark, 2018) and what organizations, men, and leaders can do to address this perpetrator of the gender leadership gap (Lyness & Grotto, 2018).

The practical implications for addressing the double bind confirmed by the present study can be loosely categorized into a framework similar to the recommendations for practice provided by Lyness and Grotto (2018). First, it will be important to increase women's representation in leadership positions. To achieve this, women should continue to demonstrate competence, maintain clear and effective communication, and seek out leadership opportunities (Catalyst). Other leaders and organizations should support and sponsor aspiring female leaders, help to improve their networks, share power, build a pipeline of women leaders with targets or quotas, and set goals for a balanced number of male and female leaders (Lyness & Grotto, 2018).

Second, biased values and beliefs need to be reshaped across all organizational levels. Lyness and Grotto (2018) discuss how women should reconsider their own gender and leader identity and find successful women leaders with whom to identify. Similarly, in Ibarra, Ely, and Kolb's (2013) article, they argue that leadership identity development and creating an awareness of the issues created

by gender bias will allow women to focus more on their leadership purpose and less on how they might be perceived by others. "Anchoring in purpose enables women to redirect their attention toward shared goals and to consider who they need to be and what they need to learn in order to achieve those goals" (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). In addition, women should learn to recognize and acknowledge gender bias as well as value unique leadership styles. Further, working toward a greater understanding of double bind issues and their consequences should be an overall organizational goal (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). Lyness and Grotto (2018) suggest that men and leaders should acknowledge their own biased beliefs and views, participate in gender equity workshops, work with successful women leaders, and commit to advancing diversity and inclusion, while organizations should challenge gender stereotypes by reshaping cultural values; provide training, education, and accountability for new values; and engage "male champions" as role models.

Third, organizational structures and practices need to be rebuilt. Leaders and men in organizations can help to rebuild organizational structures by advocating for practices supporting women. Individually, all organizational members must be conscious of biases when they evaluate women leaders and must praise successful female leaders. At the organizational level, changes can be made to create symmetrical power relations and ensure equitable opportunities for development, performance appraisal, and rewards and promotion. In addition, organizations must take care to remove gendered career pathing and provide work-family support and flexibility (Lyness & Grotto, 2018).

Finally, it will be important to develop women's human and social capital. Lyness and Grotto (2018) suggest that women can cultivate their own leadership competencies, seek organizations with equitable opportunities, ask for challenging developmental experiences, build self-efficacy with executive coaches, seek mentors/sponsors, and build their networks. Many others recommend improving women leaders' confidence (Guillen, Mayo, and Karelaia, 2017). For the foreseeable future, female leaders will experience the tension between agency and communion in the workplace, but how they choose to cope will determine their resilience and effectiveness as leaders (Zheng, Kark, & Meister, 2018). Zheng, Kark, and Meister (2018) described the process of adopting either a paradox mindset or a dilemma mindset. Their results suggest that women should adopt a "paradox mindset", which will allow them to internally accept these conflicting or competing sets of demands, granting them greater intrapersonal resources to address the situation at hand. Further, Zheng, Surgevil, and Kark (2018) identified five strategies to manage the tension between agency and communion: adapting to the situation (situation guiding behavior); choosing niceness first then toughness; looking for win-wins where niceness and toughness converge; tough on tasks and soft on people; and reframing so that niceness and toughness are positively associated. Reports from the Center for Creative Leadership and Catalyst have described similar strategies. Specifically, Center for Creative Leadership (2017) suggests increasing self-awareness and accepting the reality of choices and trade-offs in life. Catalyst describes strategies to minimize the issue, such as ignoring it and reframing the issue while exuding

confidence as well as challenging limiting beliefs that may be hindering empowerment. The Catalyst (2007) report also states that talking openly about the issue, seeking out mentoring and support.

Limitations

The current study is not without its limitations. One limitation lies in the design—a survey study has inherent limitations. For one, we cannot assume causality for any of the supported hypotheses. Another limitation of the study design lies in the fact that the constructs were measured through similar self-report scales. Self-report data is commonly discussed as being unreliable for a number of reasons (Leong & Austin, 2006). As such, their use does raise concerns regarding common method bias. Common method variance, or variance that is attributable to the measure or similarity in measurements (Conway & Lance, 2010; Spector, 2008), could explain the findings of the current study. Some argue that all self-report data will yield upwardly biased correlations simply because the methods are inherently the same. For one, across three timepoints, the data collected were all based on survey measures. This could perhaps explain the existence of a relationship between all the follower-reported variables but weak relationships between leader-follower variables. However, the time-lagged of the current study does help to mitigate some of the concern for common method bias. While another strength of this study was its attempt to gather data from both leaders and followers, future research should continue to gather data from multiple sources and, if possible, supplement survey

and self-report data with other sources (e.g., performance appraisals, organizational outcomes, customer satisfaction; Rogelberg et al., 2000).

Another limitation of this study is that it does not take different levels of analysis into account. While the 28 leader-follower dyads were 1-to-1 pairs, it may be inaccurate to assume that all participants operate independently of one another. There were likely many individuals from the same organizations who participated, meaning that some leaders who participated in this survey might actually be the direct supervisors of other participants, or there could be workgroup or organization-level variables that would impact participants' perceptions. Industry effects were accounted for in this study, but other organizational-level factors need to be considered, such as organization size, number of employees, etc., that could impact the style of leadership or the nature of the hierarchical relationships between leaders and followers. This would mean that the experiences of one participant may be linked to another participant. Many of the existing theoretical and empirical studies on leadership are based on the assumption that a leader's relationship with one follower is independent of his or her relationship with the other followers in the network (Hunter et al., 2007). LMX theories and social network approaches could be merged to account for the notion of interdependence and explore leadership as networks of influence rather than dyadic, hierarchical relationships (Carter et al., 2015). More complex multilevel analyses, with larger samples, are required to answer these research questions.

The results of this study should be interpreted with caution as there are two main sample characteristics that may substantially impact the generalizability of the findings. First, there were sample size concerns. I attempted to mitigate this by recruiting participants from multiple pools, using a snowballing technique (Little et al., 2016), and conducting a power analysis to determine what sample size I would need to achieve a certain level of power. However, due to large rates of attrition, the sample size ended up being quite small. This was a concern because SEM literature has suggested much higher sample sizes for the great number of indicators I had in my models (Kline, 2001).

Another obstacle this study faced was the non-normal distribution of the data. Specifically, most variables derived from follower perceptions were negatively skewed. This indicates a tendency toward positive opinions of their leaders. Overall, this reflects another issue: survey non-response – subordinates who dislike or have strained relationships with their supervisors are not likely to answer such surveys, and/or they may fear backlash if they believe their data could be linked back to them. Non-normal distribution may be one cause of the results seen in this study. For one, maximum likelihood is the default estimator across SEM packages, which assumes multivariate normality and, as such, calculates standard error using the covariance matrix. Other estimators use slightly different methods to calculate standard error which are more robust to non-normal distributions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Another limitation of the study was the effects of a much higher-order construct - the socio-political climate. The data collection for this study took place

from August 2020 to October 2020. During this time, the workplace and work relationships around the world have been greatly impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic. For instance, many organizations with white collar positions chose to implement remote work. This may have impacted, and in some cases may have drastically reduced the frequency of, interactions between leaders and followers. For organizations whose workers are able to communicate via virtual or phone conference, email, etc., this also might cause them to interpret these items in a different way. In addition, research has shown that electronic text communication (e.g., email) does not allow for the communication of rich nonverbal cues (e.g., body language, facial expressions; Byron, 2008). Therefore, it is important to acknowledge that the behaviors and skills of interest in this study might have been impacted overall by this pandemic and the restrictions on interpersonal, in-person interactions over the last 8 months.

Conclusion

As Lyness and Grotto (2018) pointed out, the U.S. seems to be lagging in its research and practical attempts to close the leadership gender gap. Thus, to answer calls for research on facilitators and barriers to female leadership empowerment (Lyness & Grotto, 2018). The current study aimed to examine leadership skills (political skill), behaviors (impression management and emotion management) and their outcomes (authentic leadership and trust in leader) in the context of gender. Using a time-lagged, multi-rater design (leader and follower surveys), the results suggest a moderating effect of leader gender on the relationship between interpersonal emotion management behaviors and perceived authentic leadership as well as positive relationships between followers' perceptions of leader political skill, their perceptions of leader interpersonal emotion management behaviors, perceived authentic leadership, and trust in leader.

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Appendix – Measures

Political Skill Measure

Political Skill Inventory: García-Chas et al., 2019; Gill et al., 2014; Ferris et al., 2005.

Leader Survey 1 Instructions: Please rate how much you agree with each statement.

Follower Survey 3 Instructions: Please rate how much you agree with the following statements about your supervisor.

Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Networking Ability (NA), Interpersonal Influence (II), Social Astuteness (SA), Apparent Sincerity (AS).

		Leader Survey	Follower Survey
1	NA	I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.	My supervisor is good at building relationships with influential people at work.
2	NA	At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected.	At work, my supervisor knows a lot of important people and is well connected.
3	NA	I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work.	My supervisor is good at using his/her connections and networks to make things happen at work.
4	II	I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.	My supervisor is able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around him/her.
5	II	I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.	My supervisor is able to communicate easily and effectively with others.
6	II	It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.	It is easy for my supervisor to develop good rapport with most people.

7	AS	When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do.	When communicating with others, my supervisor tries to be genuine in what he/she says and does.
8	AS	It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do.	It is important for my supervisor that people believe he/she is sincere in what he/she says and does.
9	AS	I try to show a genuine interest in other people.	My supervisor tries to show a genuine interest in other people.
10	SA	I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.	My supervisor is particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.
11	SA	I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others.	My supervisor has good intuition or savvy about how to present him/herself to others.
12	SA	I always seem to instinctively know the right things to say or do to influence others.	My supervisor always seems to instinctively know the right thing to say or do to influence others.

Impression Management Measure

From Impression Management Scale, Bolino et al. (1999).

Leader Survey Instructions: Respond to the following statements thinking about how often you behave this way. Scale: 1 (never behaves this way) to 5 (often behaves this way).

Follower Survey Instructions: Respond to the following statements thinking about how often your immediate supervisor behaves this way.

Scale: 1 (never behave this way) to 5 (often behave this way). Self-promotion (SP), Ingratiation (I), Exemplification (E).

		Leader Survey	Follower Survey
1	SP	Talk proudly about your experience or education.	Talks proudly about their experience or education.
2	SP	Make people aware of your talents or qualifications.	Makes people aware of their talents or qualifications.
3	SP	Let others know that you are valuable to the organization.	Lets others know that they are valuable to the organization.
4	SP	Make people aware of your accomplishments.	Makes people aware of their accomplishments.
5	I	Compliment your colleagues so they will see you as likeable.	Compliments colleagues so they will see them as likeable.
6	I	Take an interest in your colleagues' personal lives to show them that you are friendly.	Takes an interest in colleagues' personal lives to show that they is friendly.
7	I	Praise your colleagues for their accomplishments so they will consider you a nice person.	Praises colleagues for their accomplishments so they will consider them a nice person.

8	I	Do personal favors for your colleagues to show them that you are friendly.	Does personal favors for colleagues to show them that they are friendly.
9	E	Stay at work late so people will know you are hard working.	Stays at work late so people will know they are hard working.
10	E	Try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower.	Tries to appear busy, even at times when things are slower.
11	E	Arrive at work early to look dedicated.	Arrives at work early to look dedicated.
12	E	Come to the office at night or on weekends to show that you are dedicated.	Comes to the office at night or on weekends to show that they are dedicated.

Interpersonal Emotion Management (IEM) Strategies Scale

From IEM Strategies Scale Little et al. (2012).

Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Situation Modification (SM), Cognitive Change (CC).

Leader Survey: Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

Follower Survey: Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. My supervisor...

		Leader Survey	Follower Survey
1	SM	I modify the elements of the situation that are having an undesired impact on others.	Modifies the elements of the situation that are having an undesired impact on others.
2	SM	I work out plans to remove the negative aspects of situations.	Works out plans to remove the negative aspects of situations.
3	SM	I remove the negative aspects of the situation that are negatively impacting others.	Removes the negative aspects of the situation that are negatively impacting others.
4	SM	I change the situation to alter its emotional impact.	Changes situations to alter their emotional impact.
5	SM	I take actions to get rid of the problems others are having.	Takes action to get rid of the problems others are having.
6	CC	When I want others to feel more positive emotions (such as joy or amusement), I put their problems into perspective.	When my supervisor wants others to feel more positive emotions (such as joy or amusement), he/she puts their problems into perspective.
7	CC	I try to influence the emotions of others by changing how they think about the situation they are in.	Tries to influence the emotions of others by changing how they think about the situation they are in.

8	CC	When I want others to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), I change the meaning they are attaching to a situation.	When my supervisor wants others to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), he/she changes the meaning they are attaching to a situation.
9	CC	When I want others to feel more positive emotion (such as joy or amusement), I change the meaning they are attaching to the situation.	When my supervisor want others to feel more positive emotion (such as joy or amusement), he/she changes the meaning they are attaching to the situation.
10	CC	When I want others to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), I put their problems into perspective.	When my supervisor wants others to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), he/she put their problems into perspective.

Trust Measure

Trust Scale from Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis (2007).

Follower Survey Instructions: Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

1. My supervisor keeps my interests in mind when making decisions.
2. I would be willing to let my supervisor have complete control over my future in this company.
3. If my supervisor asked why a problem occurred, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.
4. I feel comfortable being creative because my supervisor understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work.
5. It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor.
6. Increasing my vulnerability to criticism by my supervisor would be a mistake.
7. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my supervisor have any influence over decisions that are important to me.

Trust and Distrust

Trust and Distrust Scale from Wildman, Fiore, and Salas (2009).

Response format: 1 ("Not at all") to 5 ("A great deal").

Sub-dimensions: Items 1-8 = Trust, Items 9-16 = Distrust; A = Ability, I = Intent

Follower Survey Instructions: During the past 4 weeks AT WORK, to what extent did you feel:

1. Assured that your supervisor would make intelligent decisions? (A)
2. Certain that your supervisor would perform well? (A)
3. Confident in your supervisor's ability to complete a task? (A)
4. Faith that your supervisor can do the tasks required of them? (A)
5. Positive that your supervisor will try and do what is best for the team? (I)
6. Convinced that you can rely on your supervisor to try their hardest? (I)
7. Confident that your supervisor will do as they say? (I)
8. Confident that your supervisor will try to do things that benefit the team? (I)
9. Compelled to keep tabs on your supervisor to be sure things get done? (A)
10. Afraid that your supervisor will make a mistake? (A)
11. Worried that your supervisor will do something wrong? (A)
12. Paranoid that your supervisor will fail? (A)
13. Afraid that your supervisor will purposefully do something that isn't helpful? (I)
14. Suspicious about your supervisor's reasons behind certain decisions? (I)
15. Cautious about your supervisor's intentions? (I)
16. Nervous that your supervisor will betray you? (I)

Perceived Authentic Leadership

From Authentic Leadership Inventory, Neider & Schriescheim (2011).

Follower Survey Instructions: Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements. Note that the term 'leader' means your immediate or direct supervisor.

Scale: 1 (Disagree strongly) to 5 (Agree strongly). S = Self-Awareness, R = Relational Transparency, M = Internalized Moral Perspective, and B = Balanced Processing.

1. My leader clearly states what he/she means. (R)
2. My leader shows consistency between his/her beliefs and actions. (M)
3. My leader asks for ideas that challenge his/her core beliefs. (B)
4. My leader describes accurately the way that others view his/her abilities. (S)
5. My leader uses his/her core beliefs to make decisions. (M)
6. My leader carefully listens to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion. (B)
7. My leader shows that he/she understands his/her strengths and weaknesses. (S)
8. My leader openly shares information with others. (R)
9. My leader resists pressures on him/her to do things contrary to his/her beliefs. (M)
10. My leader objectively analyzes relevant data before making a decision. (B)
11. My leader is clearly aware of the impact he/she has on others. (S)
12. My leader expresses his/her ideas and thoughts clearly to others. (R)
13. My leader is guided in his/her actions by internal moral standards. (M)
14. My leader encourages others to voice opposing points of view. (B)

Leader-Felt Authenticity

From Authenticity at Work Scale, van den Bosch and Taris (2014), Wood et al. (2008).

Leader Survey Instructions: Please indicate how well each of the following statements describes you AT WORK for the past 4 weeks. Scale: 1 (does not describe me) to 5 (describes me extremely well).

1. I feel as if I don't know myself very well.
2. I feel out of touch with the "real me."
3. I feel alienated from myself.
4. I don't know how I really feel inside.
5. I always stand by what I believe in.
6. I am true to myself in most situations.
7. I think it is better to be yourself, than to be popular.
8. I live in accordance with my values and beliefs.
9. I usually do what other people tell me to do.
10. Other people influence me greatly.
11. I am strongly influenced by the opinions of others.
12. I always feel I need to do what others expect me to do.