

The Perceived Authenticity of Fairness at Work

Kathryn S. Roloff

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
under the Executive Committee
of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

2015

© 2015
Kathryn S. Roloff
All rights reserved

ABSTRACT

The Perceived Authenticity of Fairness at Work

Kathryn S. Roloff

The purpose of this study is to understand how individuals form perceptions of authenticity about their leaders and the subsequent organizational outcomes associated with these perceptions. To date, studies on leader authenticity have primarily focused on how a leader can become more authentic by first getting in touch with his or her internal values and then by choosing behaviors to enact these values. As such, the literature has clarified leader authenticity on an individual level, but does not explain how *others* come to perceive a leader as authentic. To this end, an experiment will be completed to investigate leader authenticity from the point-of-view of the “recipients” of a leader’s behavior. In particular, the focus will be on individuals’ perceptions of a leader’s enactment of procedural fairness by inviting voice during a promotion decision. A new model of perceived authenticity will be tested by determining how two types of interpersonal perceptions—volitionality and intentionality—influence perceptions of authenticity and related outcomes.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
LIST OF TABLES.....	iii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v-vii
DEDICATION.....	viii
CHAPTER I: PROBLEM AND PURPOSE.....	1
CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES.....	10
Overview.....	10
Literature Review on Authenticity.....	13
How do people form a perception of authenticity?.....	17
Authentic Values and Relational Outcomes.....	21
Summary of Study Hypotheses.....	27
CHAPTER III: METHOD.....	28
Overview.....	28
Participants & Design.....	29
Procedure.....	29
Experimental Manipulation.....	30
Independent Variable Measures.....	32
Dependent Variable Measures.....	33
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS.....	36
Overview.....	36
Experimental Manipulations.....	36

Preliminary Analyses.....	37
Main Analyses: Perceived Authenticity.....	37
Dependent Variable Analyses: Impressions and Subjective Values.....	38
Mediation Analyses: Perceived Authenticity as a Mediator.....	39
CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION.....	44
Overview & Theoretical Implications.....	44
Practical Implications.....	47
Limitations.....	48
Suggestions for Future Research.....	50
Conclusion.....	52
REFERENCES.....	53
APPENDICES	
Appendix A: Institutional Review Board Approval.....	75
Appendix B: Stimulus Materials.....	76
Appendix C: Questionnaire.....	85

LIST OF TABLES

		PAGE
TABLE	DESCRIPTION	
TABLE 1	Interaction Between Volitionality and Intentionality on Authenticity.....	61
TABLE 2	Study Demographics.....	62
TABLE 3	Means and Standard Deviations for the Manipulation Check.....	63
TABLE 4	Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Variables.....	64
TABLE 5	Means and Standard Deviations for Manager Impressions by Study Condition.	65
TABLE 6	Means and Standard Deviations for Subjective Values by Study Condition.....	66
TABLE 7	MANOVA: Volitionality and Intentionality on Dependent Variables.....	67
TABLE 8	ANOVA: Volitionality and Intentionality on Perceived Authenticity.....	68
TABLE 9	REGRESSION: Volitionality X Intentionality on Perceived Authenticity.....	69
TABLE 10	REGRESSION: Dependent Variables Regressed on Perceived Authenticity....	70
TABLE 11	ANOVA: Mediation Analyses.....	71
TABLE 12	Bootstrap Test Results.....	72

LIST OF FIGURES

		PAGE
FIGURE	DESCRIPTION	
FIGURE 1	Proposed Theoretical Model of Perceived Authenticity.....	73
FIGURE 2	GRAPH: Scatter plot of Interaction Effect.....	74

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I never could have imagined the journey that would be traveled over the course of this dissertation work. As Lewin noted, “learning is more effective when it is an active rather than a passive process.” There is no doubt that this was a very active learning process. The journey began in a classroom in Uris Hall at Columbia Business School where Professor Joel Brockner was artfully expounding upon the endless merits of fair processes at work – in short: the process matters. At one point, on the board there was listed a number of important fair practices and their “downstream” associated benefits. I imagined that an executive with decision-making control could consider this list to be a golden goose of sorts, which, if dutifully employed, could become an incredibly inexpensive strategy for achieving desired employee outcomes. However, it struck me that employing fair processes for the sake of what it could get you would constitute for “sham” fairness and therefore render obsolete the ethicality—and perhaps the outcomes—of the act. Thus, as my final task in the course, I wrote a research proposal for investigating the effects of sham process fairness that led to many years of interesting conversations across many states (both geographic and emotional) to the ultimate completion of this work.

Therefore, first and foremost I would like to thank Joel Brockner for inspiring me with your tremendously accomplished and enthusiastic devotion to organizational justice scholarship. I have learned more than I can say about how to design a successful experiment, the art of creating an effective manipulation, careful methods for performing analyses to test hypotheses, as well as endless lessons on grammar, speech, and finding the appropriate euphemism for all occasions. And, of course, it will always be memorable how meetings were spent pouring over SPSS output on perceived authenticity, all while drinking “Honest Tea.” While on the topic, I can be sure I will always be “in the know” on the most advanced and delicious cup of Nespresso.

Thank you also to Batia Wiesenfeld for spending the same countless hours in meetings and discussions on this work. Your insight and wisdom expanded my understanding of the topics of trust and fairness—as well as methodological rigor—and was always delivered in the most sincerely cheerful way possible. Your genuine concern for both how to improve the research and theory as well as how to enhance my development as a scholar was without exception. You are patient and kind beyond and I am so grateful to have you as a mentor and a role model during this time.

To my sponsor, Warner Burke, I would like to express my profound gratitude for your guidance and support throughout the many phases of this work, especially during the “active” learning experiences. Your abiding mentorship has served as a sense of safety and structure during the periods of both turbulence and calm. In addition to the scholarly input, your many life lessons imparted with such wisdom and wit will serve me well for many years to come. Because of you, I will always take heed of my roots and remember to regularly genuflect toward the grave of Kurt Lewin, wherever it may be.

I would also like to thank my other committee members, Debra Noumair and Bill Pasmore. A chance meeting with Debra led to the beginning—and now the conclusion—of this journey. Thank you for opening my mind to a new way of looking at organizations and the importance of a different type of “process.” Thank you to Bill for providing insightful input along the way in addition to pushing the limits of my understanding of how to bridge the rigor versus relevance divide.

I am also especially grateful to Elissa Perry for providing mentorship and support during the early years of my graduate work. Your meticulous diligence and discipline has greatly influenced the practices and “good hygiene” I employed during the course of this work. Thank

you also to Caryn Block and Sarah Brazaitis for your invaluable mentorship, guidance, and friendship on matters both scholarly and personal.

Of course I must thank my fellow colleagues for providing friendship and support as we traversed this long road together: Adam Mitchinson, Frank Golom, Avina Gupta, Naira Musallam, Alice Mann, Yvonne Lee, Paul Hanvongse, Rob Morris, and Bernie Banks, to name a few. In addition, a special thank you to Lynda Hallmark, Ambar Urena and Angela Carrasco without whom this work really would not have been possible.

Above all, thank you to my family for your unwavering support: Dad, your sacrifices and commitment to my education have led me to this moment. Thank you for believing in me and instilling within me a belief in myself. I must express special recognition to my sister who has spent many more years than she would have liked listening to me expound upon topics in which she had little interest. Your support in all aspects of life means the world to me. Thank you to my children, Mason and Marcus, for providing me with a purpose and passion I had not known was possible. You have shown me what is truly important in life and I love you more than you will ever know! Thank you to my husband, Steve. You tirelessly shared this journey with me through all the ups and downs, across three states and back again, in two new homes, three new cities, and two beautiful children. I could not have asked for a better partner in this and in life. I am beyond lucky to have you.

Finally, I would like to thank all the members of the United States Military for their service and endless dedication to duty, honor, and country. In particular, I would like to thank Colonel Brian Reed and the members of the 1-25th SBCT for opening a door that provided me with an opportunity of a lifetime, full of invaluable “agile”—and undoubtedly active—learning experiences.

DEDICATION

*For my husband, Steven, who teaches me more about
authenticity than can be learned in these pages.*

CHAPTER 1: PROBLEM AND PURPOSE

Research on just and moral behavior in organizations has long noted the positive benefits of acting in accord with fair and ethical values (e.g., Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). A large body of work focused specifically on fair processes at work has shown that, compared to employees who do not receive fair treatment, employees who receive fair treatment have a greater degree of organizational commitment, support for their leaders and their leader's decisions, are more cooperative, and have a greater degree of trust in their supervisors (Brockner et al., 1994; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Tyler & Smith, 1997; Van den Bos, Wilke, & Lind, 1998). Given the proliferation of such work, leaders and managers have been well informed about how to implement fair principles and practices at work. However, recent theorizing on fairness in organizations has suggested that fair processes are not met with universally positive reactions (Brockner, Wiesenfeld, & Diekmann, 2009). One study showed that fair processes had a positive effect only when the leader enacting the processes was known to be trustworthy (De Cremer & Tyler, 2007). This suggests that attributions about the individuals that deliver fair processes can influence evaluations of and reactions to the fairness of the act itself. These subjective evaluations of perceived fairness can determine whether others will meet the act with highly positive, less positive, or indeed negative reactions.

Organizational justice scholars have provided evidence that people are interested in values such as fairness because such inferences tell them about the outcomes they can expect (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Thibault & Walker, 1975) and about their relational standing within the group (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). In addition, people may be interested in values because they reflect "oughts" of moral behavior. That is, behaving according to values is a desired social behavior that is consistent with duty or moral obligation and is good in its own

right (Folger, 1998). Furthermore, people use information about fairness and values as a proxy for judging the trustworthiness of the other party, especially during times of ambiguity or uncertainty (Van den Bos, Lind, Vermunt, & Wilke, 1997). As such, people make inferences about fairness to resolve what Lind (2001) calls the “fundamental social dilemma” whereby individuals decide between promoting their own short-term interests or subverting those interests to promote the goals of the group (p. 61). In sum, inferences about others’ values convey an array of valuable social information and ultimately lead to a number of important cooperative and relational outcomes.

However, people must first form an understanding about whether or not the way they are being treated can be considered to be *authentically* fair. Attribution theory states that people are “naïve scientists” who attempt to understand the cause and effect relationships underlying the actions of others (Heider, 1959). One dimension of interest when judging others’ behavior is an assessment of the sincerity of the values associated with the observed behavior. A study on reactions to voice in decision-making showed that the offer to provide input was seen as more fair when the contribution was seen as *truly* considered (Shapiro & Brett, 1993). Work on apologies has shown that they are more effective when they are seen as more sincere (Bies, 1987; De Cremer & Schouten, 2008; Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2004). However, despite this knowledge that moral behaviors are reacted to more positively when seen as genuine or sincere, justice scholars have not directly investigated people’s assessment of the authenticity of fair behaviors. In the absence of such an understanding, leaders and managers may be confused about why they do not receive the expected positive reaction—or, indeed, receive a highly negative reaction—when they attempt to enact fair practices at work.

Empirical work on authenticity in organizations is relatively new. Given the recent ethical transgressions by business leaders (e.g., Bernie Madoff), there has been a renewed interest in understanding the role of positive constructs such as authenticity. Thus far, researchers across many domains have noted the positive benefits of authenticity. Within studies on leadership, research on constructs such as authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2006) and moral leadership (Hannah, Lester & Vogelgesang, 2005) have shown that enhanced perceptions of authenticity, ethicality, and trustworthiness are related to satisfaction with the leader (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson, 2008), identification with the leader (Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010), and leader trust (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009). Within social psychology, meanwhile, theories such as authentic functioning (Kernis & Goldman, 2006) and authentic happiness (Seligman, 2002) have outlined how using increased self-knowledge to guide behaviors enhances self-esteem, interpersonal relationships, and goal achievement. However, both of these perspectives consider self-perceptions of authenticity and do not explain how individuals come to form perceptions of others' authenticity. Yet, without such an understanding, we are left with an inadequate analysis that creates the condition for leaders and others to believe that it is sufficient to achieve self-perceptions of authenticity in order to be seen as authentic by others.

There are two components of a leader's behaviors that inform a perception of authenticity: things leaders *do* and things leaders *say*. In regard to things leaders *say*, research on behavioral integrity has explored how followers form perceptions about the consistency between a leader's words and deeds (Simons, 2002). This work suggests that when a leader is able to achieve an alignment between what is said and what is done (i.e., "walking the talk"), then followers form a perception that a leader is high in behavioral integrity. Behavioral integrity has

been associated with positive outcomes such as trust (Simons, Friedman, Liu, & McLean Parks, 2007; Simons, Tomlinson, & Leroy, 2012), intention to enact organizational citizenship behaviors (Dineen, Lewicki & Tomlinson, 2006), and psychological safety on teams (Leroy et al., 2012). Behavioral integrity, however, specifically focuses on the relationship between what a leader says and what a leader does. It is less clear, however, how a follower intuits a leader's values based on information other than direct communication, such as what he or she *does*. For example, a follower may see a leader as holding a strong belief in fairness, not because it is directly said, but because the leader is seen to perform a fair act out of his or her own free will instead of being made to do so. Another difference between behavioral integrity and perceived authenticity is that the concept of behavioral integrity involves a general trait impression of a leader rather than a judgment of the congruence between a particular act and its underlying value, which is the nature of perceived authenticity.

In regard to making inferences associated with the values behind what leaders *do*, attribution theory suggests that people do not take behavior at face value, but rather they engage a sense-making process to form a judgment about why a person acts in a particular way (DeCharms, 1968; Heider, 1959; Kelley, 1967; Wiener, 1985). Thus, for leaders and others wishing to enact positive values, it is not as simple as selecting a behavior from a "menu" of values-based behaviors such as procedural fairness (e.g., inviting participation in decision-making) in order to come across as fair. Leaders must take into account how others perceive them. As Greenberg (1988) notes, "even the best-intentioned, most fair-minded manager may fail to win the approval of subordinates who are not convinced of his or her fairness" (p. 155). In response, Greenberg (1990) explored a number of impression management tactics that leaders and manager can use to create an impression of fairness. Ultimately, according to Greenberg,

impression management tactics can be implemented with two separate goals in mind. One, people may wish to achieve an impression of fairness motivated by a true underlying concern for justice or two, people may desire to act under the “vener of justice” (Greenberg, 1990, p. 119) in order to achieve other instrumental goals such as subordinate motivation and performance. As such, it is likely that acts seen to operate under the “vener of fairness” may be seen to reflect inauthentic or “sham” fairness and thus may be reacted to less positively, indeed negatively, by others. Alternatively, behaviors that are seen as authentic to an underlying value of fairness will elicit the greatest degree of positive reactions from others. Research has not yet explained how and when individuals form a perception of authenticity or inauthenticity about others’ values. Thus, this research will explore the information people use to create a perception of authentic (or inauthentic) values by leaders and others within organizations.

It is important to note that the fair behaviors discussed here are not unfair behaviors that are masked in a cloak of fairness, but rather, behaviors that are considered to be patently fair. As such, the goal of this work is to consider how and when fair acts and other values-based behaviors receive more or less positive reactions from others. The research problem addressed by this work is to gain a greater understanding of how recipients of values-based behaviors form a perception that the behaviors are authentic to the actor’s values. Further, the work will explore how and when these perceptions are associated with relational outcomes such as satisfaction, trust, and commitment. By drawing on research on attribution and person perception theory, this study will address the following research questions:

- What information do individuals use to form a perception of authenticity about another person’s values?
- Does perceived authenticity lead to enhanced relational outcomes between parties?

The data for this research will be collected via an online research participant data pool. This sample was selected for convenience and ease of data collection. Convenience samples are appropriate for experimental studies because extraneous variables are carefully measured and controlled with additional studies performed to replicate and generalize results. The research study will employ a factorial experimental design whereby participants will be randomized to one of nine study conditions that includes two manipulated independent variables each with two levels and a control. An experimental research design was selected so as to have the greatest degree of control over the independent variables and the order in which the variables are presented to participants. This is important for this research because there is a need to clarify the antecedents and outcomes of perceptions about authenticity, and, in order to do so these components require precision and control in order to determine which perception precedes the other. Further, a crossed design was selected to determine whether and how the two independent variables interact in their effect on the dependent variables, particularly on perceived authenticity. This study will be performed at a single point in time and will be used to test the model outlined in Figure 1.

This research will contribute to theories in the following ways. First, contributions will be made to the work on justice in organizations in that it will consider how and when people react positively to fairness. Organizational justice research has not directly manipulated or measured perceived authenticity of the values of the actors of fair behaviors, thus results that link fair acts with positive outcomes may be “washed out” by mixed reactions to perceived authenticity and inauthenticity. That is, whereas some people may perceive a fair act to be authentic, others may view the same act to be patently fair, but inauthentic to the actor’s true values. In the case of the latter, the expected positive reactions to fairness may be somewhat attenuated by averaging

across positive reactions to perceived authentic fairness and less positive or negative reactions to perceived inauthentic fairness. This work will separate these two perceptions to determine the unique contribution of each to outcomes associated with fairness, further clarifying when fair behaviors are most likely to lead to positive outcomes and when these outcomes are attenuated. Second, this work will contribute to the growing body of work on authenticity in organizations, such as work in the fields of positive organizational scholarship (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) and positive organizational behavior (Luthans, 2002). In particular, this research proposes a model of how and when individuals are most likely to be seen as authentic by others, in which currently such an understanding is lacking. Third, this work contributes to leadership theories in two ways. One, this research considers how subordinates create impressions of leaders' authenticity, which complements the work on how leaders create a self-impression of authenticity. Two, this research applies a social-cognitive approach to leader-subordinate interactions, but one which considers how people form impressions about leaders generally, adding to a growing body of work on social-cognitive schemas of leadership more specifically (Lord & Brown, 2001; Lord, Brown & Frieberg, 1999; Lord & Maher, 1991). While current social cognitive models explicate the followers' schemas of the role of "leader" (i.e., the expected characteristics and behaviors of leaders) this work will more broadly address how followers create a perception of a person who is in the role of leader beyond a perception of a match between that person and an objective schema of leadership. Thus, it will contribute to an understanding of people who hold leadership positions apart from perceptions about the position itself. Finally, this work contributes to a broader understanding of the relational outcomes at work that are usually associated with interpersonal processes such as justice and leadership.

This work addresses a practical problem because leaders and others who seek information on how to be more authentic at work may only find out how to achieve a self-perception of authenticity and not an “other” perception of authenticity. While consistency theorists have long noted the many *intrapersonal* benefits to achieving a self-perception of authenticity (Festinger, 1962; Swann, 1983), it is relatively unclear how social validation of these perceptions benefits *interpersonal* outcomes. Further, leaders who wish to act based on espoused values may not be met with universally positive reactions because others do not see their behaviors as authentic to the desired value. As the euphemism famously notes, “the path to hell is paved with good intentions” and indeed while people may intend to act fairly, they might not be perceived in such a way by others. Alternatively, people may nefariously use information about how to use values-based behaviors to devise “strategies” for persuasion, coercion, or manipulation in order to “get what they need” from others. For example, Brockner & Wiesenfeld (1996) noted that there is an interaction between process fairness and outcome fairness such that people are willing to accept poorer outcomes if these outcomes are delivered in a way that is seen as procedurally fair. Indeed, one study found that local employees were willing to accept a lower wage than their expatriate colleagues if the wages were assigned in a way that was perceived to be a fair process (Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002). Thus, individuals may attempt to come off as procedurally “fair” in order to promote satisfaction with poorer outcomes. Over time, however, employees may sense the inauthenticity of the fairness and react negatively. The study by Chen et al. (2002) did not assess longitudinal reactions, but there is support from early research on equity theory to suggest that when people infer over time that a desirable treatment that has been offered is inauthentic (or unearned), initially positive reactions take a sharp reversal toward highly negative reactions

(Greenberg & Ornstein, 1983). Thus, it is important to investigate reactions to behaviors that are seen as low in authenticity (i.e., inauthentic).

In Chapter Two, the current state of knowledge on authenticity across fields of inquiry will be outlined. Next to be considered will be social-cognitive theories of person perception and attribution as a way of understanding how people form a perception of authenticity about an individual's behavior, followed by a discussion of the connection between fairness and authenticity and how these values are associated with relational outcomes at work. The final part of the chapter will cover how the relationship between the antecedents and outcomes of perceived authentic fairness. A summary of the study hypotheses will conclude the chapter.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Thought leaders have debated the notion of authenticity for thousands of years such as by Socrates who claimed that a goal of humanity is to “Know Thyself” and by William Shakespeare’s Polonius who claimed, “To thine ownself be true.” Although the concept of authenticity has been philosophized for centuries, it is just now beginning to be studied empirically. Scholars from many different fields of psychology and management have attempted to clarify how authenticity is defined. Harter (2002), a developmental psychologist, defined authenticity as “the extent to which one acts in accord with the true self, and it involves owning one’s personal experiences, thoughts, emotions, needs, wants, preferences, or beliefs”(p. 382). In the context of constructing professional images, authenticity has been defined as “the degree of congruence between internal values and external expressions” (Roberts, 2005, p. 699). Leadership scholars defined authenticity as “being transparent in linking inner desires, expectations, and values in interactions” (May, Chan, Hodges, & Avolio, 2003, p. 248). Harvey, Martinko and Gardner (2006) describe authentic leaders as those “who possess self-awareness of, and act in accordance with, their values, thoughts, emotions, and beliefs...and understand the moral implications of their actions” (p. 1). Indeed, the idea of being true to oneself, that is, acting in accordance with one’s internal workings, is considered to be a highly valued personality trait, particularly in individualistic cultures (Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Seligman, 2002).

Philosophers and psychologists alike extol the many positive benefits of experiencing authenticity in one’s life (Schlegel, Hicks, Arndt, & King, 2009). Modern philosophers such as Kierkegaard and Heidegger suggested that in order to achieve fulfillment in life, one must be free to achieve one’s greatest potential unencumbered by outside influences (Golomb, 1995). Developmental psychologists have noted an association between authenticity and positive

characteristics such as self-esteem, positive affect, and hope for the future (Harter et al., 1996). Clinical psychologists perform interventions to alleviate psychological distress by assisting people in creating a realistic understanding of their thoughts and behaviors. More recently, psychologists have made some claims that in addition to positive *intrapersonal* outcomes, authenticity also enhances *interpersonal* outcomes such as satisfaction with romantic relationships (Harter, 2002; Kernis & Goldman, 2005; Lopez & Rice, 2006). For example, Kernis and Goldman (2005) suggested that when members of a couple are behaving authentically, there is less game playing, manipulateness, and idealization of the relationship, as well as a higher degree of intimacy among the partners.

In organizational scholarship, researchers have indirectly noted the benefits of authenticity at work. For example, one study showed that individuals preferred mentors who were seen to be mentoring because they *truly* cared about the benefits of mentorship, rather than because they were enrolled in an organizational mentoring program (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). In terms of workgroups, Ely and Thomas (2001) determined that demographically diverse teams were most successful when the team holds a sincere belief that diversity is beneficial for learning and performance versus a belief that having diversity on teams is “the right thing to do” or a belief that team diversity should match the diversity of the customers. A recent study on feedback-seeking behavior among subordinates and leaders showed that the quality of the leader-member exchange relationship was higher when the leader interpreted the subordinate’s feedback-seeking efforts to be motivated by a genuine interest in performance improvement rather than as an impression management tactic (Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007). In sum, research on many different aspects of organizational phenomena show a general trend that people react

more positively to perceived authenticity and these positive reactions translate into beneficial relational and performance outcomes for organizations.

The vast majority of the work on authenticity in the field of organizational behavior is on the construct of authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Different from previous conceptualizations of authenticity, authentic leadership pertains to the authenticity of enacting a role of “leader” which encompasses a broader definition of being authentic to internal attitudes, beliefs, or characteristics. Authentic leadership can be considered to be “true leadership” whereby people genuinely enact behaviors that are reflective of what leaders do. According to Avolio, Luthans, and Walumbwa (2004), authentic leaders are “those individuals who know who they are, what they think, and behave and are *perceived by others* as being aware of their own and others’ values/moral perspective, knowledge and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate, and who are confident, hopeful, resilient, and of high moral character” (p. 4, as cited in Avolio et al., 2004, p. 802-803). This definition includes many components, a few of which have been evaluated empirically. For example, authentic leadership was related to psychological capital dimensions such as hope, resilience, and confidence (Luthans, Avey, Avolio & Norman, 2007; Luthans & Youssef, 2004), and to increased self-awareness, self-knowledge, and self-regulation (Walumbwa et al., 2008). However, less attention has been paid to how individuals are “perceived by others” to be authentic leaders.

One theoretical paper applied Kenny’s (1991) weighted average model of person perception to generate propositions on how leaders influence follower’s perceptions of them; however, this model has not been tested empirically (Fields, 2007). A more recent study explored the positive link between authentic leadership and follower behaviors such as organizational citizenship and work engagement (Walumbwa et al., 2010), but it did not

investigate how followers form perceptions of leaders that, in turn, lead to follower behaviors. In addition, Martinko, Harvey and Douglass (2007) reviewed how attribution theory has been applied to leadership more broadly, however, most of the research they discussed focused on leaders' self-attributions or leaders' attributions about followers. As such, there is little empirical work that has explored how followers form perceptions about leaders more generally, much less how followers specifically form a perception of leader authenticity. What follows is coverage of research on authentic leadership followed by an exploration of how person perception and attribution theory informs how individuals form an impression of authenticity about others.

Literature Review on Authenticity

As mentioned earlier, many diverse fields have explored the construct of authenticity, however, within the management literature the work on authentic leadership has taken the most direct approach to studying authenticity as both an independent and dependent variable. As noted above, the work on authentic leadership largely approaches authenticity from the perspective of the leader, as in, a leader's self-exploration of and connection to personal values and beliefs. This expression of self-awareness is connected to a number of important aspects of leadership. Indeed, leader authenticity and authentic leadership, while distinct concepts, are used interchangeably in the literature (c.f., Gardner et al., 2011). Authentic leadership is a construct that is primarily approached from the positive organizational behavior and positive organizational scholarship framework. In these frameworks, authentic leadership carries a positive connotation and is an expression of moral and ethical leadership wherein leaders are “truly” leading—that is, leaders are enacting the behaviors expected of leaders. Leader authenticity, I would argue, is a construct whereby authenticity functions as an adjective rather than a verb. In this case, authenticity does not necessarily carry a positive connotation but simply

implies a description of the consistency between beliefs/values and actions. Such a consistency can be between a negative belief and a nefarious action and does not necessarily assume a positive valence as in authentic leadership, yet is also often considered as such.

As an independent variable, much of the work on authentic leadership has been influenced by the development of the 16-item authentic leadership questionnaire (Walumbwa et al., 2008). In this questionnaire, authentic leadership is operationalized as having four dimensions: balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, and self-awareness. Balanced processing referred to an objective processing of information that includes all relevant data and also involves a solicitation of input that challenges current beliefs. Internalized moral perspective referred to a process of self-regulation that is based on a set of culturally derived moral standards. Relational transparency was the processes of presenting the authentic self by openly sharing one's true thoughts and beliefs in an appropriate manner. Self-awareness referred to a state of self-knowledge that is dynamic and accurate. This conceptualization of authentic leadership was determined to represent a higher order construct rather than a simple sum of the parts.

In a study of supervisor ratings in China, Walumbwa and colleagues (2010) found that authentic leadership was significantly related to organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and employee work engagement. This relationship was mediated by employee identification with the supervisor and the extent to which they felt psychologically empowered. Authentic leadership was measured using the ALQ (Walumbwa et al., 2008) and included the dimensions of balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency, and self-awareness. They suggested that positive organizational outcomes such as OCBs and work engagement are related to authentic leadership because employees are more likely to identify with authentic leaders and

also because authentic leaders behave in a way that makes employees feel more empowered in their role.

The relationship between (and discriminant validity of) authentic leadership and behavioral integrity has begun to be explored as well. In one study of 25 service organizations in Belgium, the relationship between authentic leadership and work performance was mediated by both behavioral integrity and affective organizational commitment (Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012). In this study, employees were asked to rate their team leader on authentic leadership using the ALQ and behavioral integrity along with a self-rated measure of affective organizational commitment. Team leaders assessed employee work performance one month later. They found that the positive relationship between authentic leadership and affective commitment was mediated by ratings of behavioral integrity, and, that affective commitment mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and behavioral integrity with work performance.

More recently, authenticity has been shown to positively affect work performance at the team level of analysis. Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey (2009), found that authentic leadership was related to both leader trust and performance among employees of a department store. In particular, trust mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and sales performance over time. In other research, Hannah and colleagues (2011) performed a longitudinal study on action teams in the Army to test whether team leader authenticity would influence a more general state of team authenticity. They found that team leader authenticity was positively related to average levels of authenticity among team members, and further, that higher authenticity was related to higher quality teamwork and productivity (as measured by the team leader over time). This notion was also supported by a multi-level study where ratings of the authentic leadership of a team leader were aggregated across team members (Leroy, Anseel,

Garnder, & Sels, 2012). In this study of 30 leaders and 252 followers in service organizations, it was found that the positive relationship between follower ratings of authentic leadership and work performance was moderated by aggregated ratings of team leader authentic leadership (there was a stronger association when authentic leadership was high). This interaction was mediated by follower basic need satisfaction, demonstrating that the mechanism by which authentic leadership leads to work performance is through enhanced follower psychological states such as autonomy and engagement.

Taken together, these studies show that authentic leaders have a positive effect on followers through a process of follower identification and idealization of the authentic leader. Interactions between authentic leaders and their followers enter a virtuous cycle of reciprocal positive behaviors. This relationship leads to a number of organizational outcomes both transactional (e.g., performance and productivity) and transformational (engagement, need satisfaction, and OCB) for individuals and teams. Despite these findings, there still exists an imbalance between the theoretical development of the construct of authentic leadership and the empirical tests to support it. In particular, many of the current studies rely on the ALQ to assess leader authenticity. And while this instrument has found support for its psychometric properties, other operationalizations of authentic leadership are yet to be explored to enhance the validity of the construct.

Finally, it is important to note that the mechanism for how followers form perceptions about authentic leaders is still in an early stage. While the ALQ outlines observable leader behaviors to be rated by followers, it does not clarify how followers come to see leaders as demonstrating authentic leadership. This study on perceived fairness authenticity makes an attempt to complement the work on authentic leadership by making a determination about the

types of perceptions individuals use when forming an impression of authenticity. Next, the social cognitive process of forming such impressions will be explored.

How do people form a perception of authenticity about others' values?

According to needs-based theories of motivation (e.g., Maslow, 1943), after basic physiological needs are met, individuals seek to fulfill safety and security needs. Safety and security needs encompass the need for structure, predictability, consistency, and control. If these needs are met, individuals feel as though they have an understanding of the world around them, a sense of what will happen in the future, and an ability to feel a sense of agency over the world. If these needs are not met, individuals are unable to organize their thoughts and behaviors in a way that helps them to achieve their goals or plan for the future. If the world lacks structure and security, it causes individuals to have a great deal of anxiety and fear.

It is for this reason that Fritz Heider (1959) noted that humans are motivated to make sense of the world such that it can become a predictable, understandable place. To that end, people engage in what Heider called “naïve psychology” whereby they seek to understand the causes and motivations behind their own and others’ actions as a way of predicting future behavior and to make plans for how to interact with others. In doing so, individuals use the information at hand to make certain assumptions about explanations of a person’s behavior. Jones and Davis (1965) summarized Heider’s claims and suggested that it is a perceiver’s goal to “find sufficient reason why the person acted and why the act took a particular form” (p. 220). In answering this query, individuals can make predictions about others’ behavior in order to formulate a strategy for how to interact with them. Jones and Davis (1965) summarized three steps that are involved in the process of forming an attribution about a person’s actions: 1)

establishing sufficient reason, 2) understanding why the person acted, and 3) determining why the person acted in the particular way observed.

In terms of sufficient reason for acting (Step 1), Heider made the claim that behaviors can be categorized as intentional or unintentional. If a person observes a behavior that appears to have occurred by accident, due to luck or misfortune, or other forces outside of the control of the individual, then the behavior is determined to be unintentional. Heider, and others, were not particularly interested in unintentional actions since such a behavior does not impart any interesting or useful knowledge about the person or about the world more generally. Intentional actions, on the other hand, are behaviors that are personally caused with an ability and effort toward some specific end (Heider, 1959). These actions inform a person's sense of cause and effect and thus impart useful information about how to interact with this particular person or in this particular environment. He termed this phenomenon "perceived locus of causality" or the extent to which a person's action is seen as controllable or not (Heider, 1958). Thus, to fulfill step one, a person has "sufficient reason" for an action if it is seen to be intentional, or the perceived locus of causality is deemed to be due to the person. Therefore, when determining an attribution for a behavior, analysis is limited to only those actions that are deemed to be intentional.

To understand how people determine why a person acted (Step 2), Richard De Charms (1968) extended Heider's theory on locus of causality by specifically focusing on instances of intentional behavior. De Charms' noted that intentional behavior could also be attributed as caused by the individual or out of the control of the individual. Individuals who are seen to be in control of intentional behaviors were termed "origins" whereas individuals who were seen to operate under the force of outside pressures were termed "pawns." For example, a manager may

work late hours because he is required to do so by his boss or he may work late hours because he finds the work to be engaging and meaningful. In either case, the behavior of working late is intentional and not forced, but the manager is either acting out of his or her own free will (origin) or due to pressure from the boss (pawn).

Thus, Heider and De Charms' theories predict that individuals form perceptions of *volitionality* about a behavior, that is, whether the cause of an intentional action is due to the volition of an individual or not. Judgments of volitionality determine whether the impetus for an actor's behavior was driven by an *internal* motivation of the actor or due to pressures from *external* sources. These evaluations simply make the judgment as to whether or not the behavior was motivated by the actor. However, when individuals are making judgments about the *source* of a behavior (internal or external) they are also likely to make a judgment about the *reason* for the behavior. Thus, perceivers seek to determine why the actor chose to act in the way he or she did (Step 3). Impressions about the reason why a person selected a particular action involve an understanding of the actor's perceived goals or outcomes that he or she is seeking to achieve. That is, people attempt to intuit the cause and effect relationship between actors' behaviors and their goals. Malle and Knobe (1997) define this type of behavior made by actors as an *intentional* action. Intentional actions are enacted due to the desire for a particular outcome and a belief that the behavior will lead to the desired outcome. Therefore, in Step 3, perceivers attempt to determine the intentionality behind a particular behavior. In the example given above, an employee that observes a manager to be working late may infer that the manager is trying to achieve a promotion or salary raise by putting in more hours, or, perhaps, the manager is demonstrating organizational citizenship behavior by going above and beyond what is expected of him or her.

Thus, according to the model of perceived authenticity outlined above, there are two general categories of impressions that people form about actors. One, people form impressions about the perceived volitionality of the behavior (a judgment about the source of the motivation for the action) and two, people form impressions about the perceived intentionality of the behavior (a judgment of the desired goals of the actor). The distinction between these perceptions is important since they convey different types of information to perceivers. When a behavior is deemed to be in control of the actor, people determine whether or not they acted on their own accord (volitionality) and to what end did they act (intentionality). Therefore, to create a perception of authenticity, a person forms the impression that an actor's behavior is highly volitional (the actor performs a behavior due to free will) and highly intentional (the actor's goals are congruent with goals associated with the particular value).

These two concepts of intentionality and volitionality are consistent with frameworks on procedural justice. In their four-component model, Blader and Tyler (2003) identified two dimensions of concerns people use to evaluate the fairness of procedures. Procedural function refers to the aspects of procedures that indicate the quality of the decision-making process. Blader and Tyler stated that inferences about procedural function assist people in understanding the outcomes of the procedures. This notion is similar to the idea of perceived intentionality. That is, people evaluate the behaviors of others to determine how the action is intended to cause one outcome or another. The second set of information concerns inferences about the source of the behavior. Blader and Tyler suggested that people differentiate between two types of sources, individual group members or the group as a whole. Procedural source is similar to the notion of volitionality in that people make judgments about the agent in control of the procedure or

behavior. Thus, taken together, both attribution theory and justice frameworks provide support for the two perceptual components of authenticity.

Authentic Values and Relational Outcomes

Attribution and person perception research tends to focus on judgments about others' dispositions, knowledge, personality, traits, or emotions (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). As such, it is important to note here that much of the attribution work to date is concerned with general impressions about the traits and dispositions of others (e.g., Jones & Davis, 1965; Ross, 1977). Less attention has been paid to how people form impressions about other people's values, attitudes, or beliefs. However, research on Malle's framework of intentionality has shown evidence that individuals tend to make inferences about the mental states of actors in addition to inferences about their dispositions (Malle, Knob, & Nelson, 2007).

Justice theories are particularly focused on the enactment of moral values, such as fairness and ethicality (Levanthal, Karunza & Fry, 1980). This work combines these two perspectives to consider attributions about other's values. In addition, the model presented here considers values as they are enacted through specific behaviors, rather than as evidence of stable and enduring trait judgments about a person. While momentary inferences about behavior are likely to be related and/or inform judgments about a person's character (perhaps, inextricably so), this focus on values as they relate to specific behaviors is meant to clarify how the things people *do* rather than the things they *say* or *espouse* is related to judgments made about them. Furthermore, it allows for the idea that people can hold many, sometimes conflicting values that can fluctuate over time. And thus, by connecting values to the expression of values through behavior allows for a more detailed assessment of the complexity of human behavior.

This idea is consistent with Heider's (1958, p. 54) statement that "behavior engulfs the field" which suggests that people tend to make judgments about others based on their immediate behavior rather than based on a full consideration of all of the contextual variables (Jones & Davis, 1965). According to the model above, people use observations of others' behaviors to make inferences about their values. In assessing the volitionality of a behavior, a person answers the question about who holds the value (the individual or some entity in the external context). In assessing intentionality of a behavior, a person answers the question about which value it is that is being enacted, by inferring the goal of the actor.

In consideration of what is known from the literature regarding leader authenticity the following hypotheses are proposed in an attempt to understand these concepts more fully.

Hypothesis 1: Behaviors that are high in volitionality will lead to higher ratings of perceived authenticity than behaviors that are low in volitionality.

Hypothesis 2: Behaviors that are high in intentionality will lead to higher ratings of perceived authenticity than behaviors that are low in intentionality.

In addition to the unique main effects of each of the antecedent perceptions, there is also likely to be an interaction between them. In particular, it is expected that intentionality matters more when volitionality is high. That is, an actor's intentions or goals for behaving in a certain way are magnified when the initial behavior is seen to be internally motivated. For example, in the case of the employee who stayed late at work to demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviors, the intention to go above and beyond what is asked is seen as more significant by others when the employee chooses to stay late, rather than is directed to do so (and, perhaps, would have stayed without such direction). This is because behaviors that are seen to be self-motivated are also seen as more diagnostic of a person's values or beliefs, whereas compliance with a request may be due to many other factors. Therefore, it is expected that the reaction to

intentionality will be greater when volitionality is determined to be internal rather than external.

See Table 1 for a depiction of the interaction hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: There will be an interaction between volitionality and intentionality such that intentionality will have a much greater effect on ratings perceived authenticity when volitionality is high than when volitionality is low.

Inferences about a person's values are important because they reveal whether a person is likely to be trustworthy. Trust is defined as the willingness of a trustor to be vulnerable to the actions of a trustee (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Indeed much of the work on justice in organizations is concerned with how perceptions about fairness lead to increased trust among parties (Tyler & Smith, 1997; Van den Bos, Wilke & Lind, 1998). Inferences about authenticity are important because perceived authenticity will not only enhance a perception of an actor's fairness, and thus increase a person's willingness to be vulnerable, but it also increases the predictability of the actor's behaviors. This predictability enables individuals to form expectations for how a person will act in the future, especially as it relates to outcomes that will affect them. In addition, fairness heuristic theory states that, in the absence of explicit information, people use fairness as a proxy for whether or not a person is trustworthy (Lind, 2001; Van den Bos, Wilke & Lind, 1998). Perceived authenticity, then, can magnify information about fairness by making the fair values of an actor patently clear thus leading to enhanced trust and perceived trustworthiness. Therefore, in the case of fair actors, perceived authenticity will enhance evaluations of trust and trustworthiness due to availability of clear information about intended fair treatment.

Low ratings of authenticity or, indeed, inauthenticity will be associated with low ratings of trust and trustworthiness, despite the fair processes. In this case, information about fair processes does not serve as a proxy for trustworthiness since the fair processes are delivered in

an inauthentic manner. The inauthenticity may be due to either a perception that the actor is not the impetus for the behavior (i.e., low volitionality) or that the reason for the fair process is to suit a goal of the actor that is not consistent with a fair outcome (i.e., low intentionality). Indeed, De Cremer and Tyler (2007) found that any positive effect associated with procedural fairness on cooperation was only present when there was information that the actor was trustworthy. Thus, one mechanism by which fair processes are associated with trust is when the fairness is deemed to be authentic, which, in turn, leads to positive outcomes. Said differently, the reason that fairness leads to trust and impressions of trustworthiness is because when it is determined to be genuine, the recipients makes judgments about the moral quality of the actor in addition to forming expectations about whether it is safe to be vulnerable to their actions.

Hypothesis 4: Actors who enact fair behaviors that are rated as high in authenticity will be rated as more trustworthy and trusted than actors who enact fair behaviors are rated as low in authenticity.

Fair process scholarship has focused on a number of dependent variables including support for decisions, decision-makers and organizations (Brockner, 2002). Indeed, perceived authenticity should enhance these outcomes related to fair behaviors since perceived authenticity could magnify the intensity of the perception of fairness. Fairness is by definition a social process. There are a number of social situations in which considerations for fairness are important in organizations. In this study, the focus is on the interpersonal reactions associated with decisions and decision-makers in a work setting. Fairness has also been considered in the negotiation literature (Bazerman, 2005; Diekmann, Soderberg & Tenbrunsel, 2013; Gelfand et al., 2002; Hollander-Blumoff, & Tyler, 2008; Lind, 1999). Indeed, Blader and Chen noted, “justice is a fundamental concern across all social encounters (Tyler, Boeckmann, Smith, & Hou,

1997), particularly when trust, uncertainty, and relationships matter (Tyler & Blader, 2004)” such as in the case of decision-making and negotiations (2012, p. 7).

As both the literature on decision-making and negotiations has emphasized the critical role of process fairness, inferences made in one field are likely to carry weight in the other field as well. Bosses and employees can be thought to engage in mini-negotiations about how to carry out and reward work on a daily basis. Likewise, a negotiation is a decision-making process of a sort. As such, this research borrows ideas that have been developed in negotiations settings in order to understand how they operate in decision-making. Curhan, Elfenbein and Xu (2006) developed a framework of social-psychological factors that are associated with interpersonal judgments following a negotiation. In particular, the focus is on the organizational justice components of voice, consideration, and process fairness. This framework is applicable to this research since it incorporates reactions to fairness in a relational situation (a negotiation), which is similar in many ways to the interpersonal decision-making context of a leader and follower. These ideas are useful for this research since it outlines the important fairness-related social psychological judgments that follow interpersonal interactions.

In this framework, the dependent variables are organized into four categories: 1) feelings about instrumental outcomes, 2) feelings about the process, 3) feelings about the relationship, and 4) feelings about the self. Justice scholars have conducted studies that show how perceived fairness is related to perceptions about distributive or instrumental outcomes, in that people are more satisfied with distributive outcomes when they perceived the process to be fair (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). In addition, fairness has been linked to satisfaction with the relationship such as desire for future interaction, support for leaders, and commitment to leaders (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000). Fairness has also been associated with enhanced perceptions

about the self because fair treatment indicates to individuals that they are valued members of the group (Tyler, DeGoey & Smith, 1996) and because it can enhance self-esteem (Brockner et al., 1998). Finally, the notion that enhanced perceptions of fairness leads to greater satisfaction with the process is the bedrock finding of work on procedural fairness (Thibault & Walker, 1975). Thus, there is evidence to support the relevance of the subjective values framework to organizational justice scholarship, and in particular, that the organization of the interpersonal reactions maps well onto dependent variables that are considered in work on fairness.

The expectation is that perceived authenticity will be related to more positive evaluations of feelings about the outcome, process, self, and relationship for two reasons. One, as mentioned earlier, perceived authenticity enhances the certainty that a leader's fair behaviors are genuine. That is, individuals can be sure that the fairness is sincere and thus can use the information about fair processes to make a determination about expected outcomes and evaluations about the process. In addition, authentic fairness can signal relational standing such that it enhances judgments about the self. Finally, the relationship is deemed to be satisfactory since perceived authenticity about fairness allows for the emergence of the typically positive relational outcomes associated with fair processes.

Two, perceived authenticity should also be directly related to subjective outcomes. That is, in addition to extending these outcomes due to an enhanced perception that the behavior is a sincere reflection of fairness, authenticity should also receive positive reactions from perceivers on its own accord. As mentioned earlier, research has indirectly shown that individuals experience positive reactions to acts that are seen to be authentic. Proposed here is that these positive reactions are also due to the enhanced predictability, decreased uncertainty, and increased control experienced through interactions with authentic actors. These impressions

reduce anxiety and increase confidence in how to interact with others and plan for the future, and form expectations about outcomes. Therefore, perceived authenticity should be related to higher ratings of subjective outcomes above and beyond an increase in the perception of fairness.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived authenticity is associated with higher ratings of subjective values: feelings about the outcome, feelings about the process, feelings about the self and feelings about the relationship.

Finally, it is expected that perceived authenticity will mediate the relationship between volitionality and intentionality and the outcome variables of trust, trustworthiness, and the subjective values. This is due to the key supposition that volitionality and intentionality are formative impressions of authenticity. As such, these impressions will be mediated by ratings of perceived authenticity on all outcomes related to authentic fairness.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived authenticity will mediate the relationship between volitionality and intentionality and trust, trustworthiness, and subjective values.

Summary of Study Hypotheses

In sum, the hypotheses in this research test a proposed model of perceived authenticity of personal values. First, Hypotheses 1 and 2 directly test for the main effects of whether the two volitionality and intentionality on perceived authenticity. Second, Hypothesis 3 tests whether volitionality and intentionality interactively predict perceptions of authenticity. Third, Hypothesis 4 tests whether perceived authenticity leads to higher ratings trust and trustworthiness and, in addition. Hypothesis 5 tests whether perceived authenticity leads to enhanced subjective values including feelings about the outcome, process, self, and relationship. Finally, hypothesis 6 proposes a mediation effect for perceived authenticity on the relationship between volitionality and intentionality and trust, trustworthiness, and subjective values. The methodology for the experimental study designed to test the stated hypotheses will now be addressed, followed by a presentation of the study results and a discussion of the study findings.

CHAPTER 3: PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

Authenticity is a primary concern to individuals during times of uncertainty. People can determine what types of outcomes they can expect to receive and how they will be treated in the process by forming judgments of their partner's authenticity. One process of importance to employees is the promotion process in organization. In this study, participants were asked to respond to the perceived authenticity of fair behaviors enacted by a leader during a promotion decision-making process in an organization. Fairness was operationalized as the invitation of voice in the promotion decision process. Voice in decision-making has long been recognized as an important element of fair processes at work (e.g., Folger, 1977; Lind, Kanfer & Earley, 1990). Participants were then asked about their impressions of the leader and their subjective values ratings of the promotion process.

Participants were asked to read a brief scenario about a promotion process in a fictitious organization. In the scenario, leader volitionality was manipulated such that participants read a scenario in which a leader was high in volitionality with regard to his fair behaviors (the fair behaviors were seen to originate within the leader), low in volitionality (the fair behaviors were seen to be required by an outside agent), or a control statement about the origin of the fair behaviors. Leader intentionality was manipulated such that participants read a scenario in which a leader was high in intentionality (the fair behaviors were seen to be enacted to achieve fair outcomes), low in intentionality (the fair behaviors were seen to be enacted for the leader's personal gain), or a control statement about the intended outcomes of the fair behaviors. Both of the control statements were ambiguous as to the nature of the volitionality or intentionality and contained information about the possibility of either internal/external volitionality or high/low

intentionality. Participants were then asked to respond to a questionnaire about their leader and their reactions to the promotion process at this organization.

Participants and Design

This study was a 3 (volitionality) X 3 (intentionality) between-subjects factorial design with a control group. Participants were randomly assigned to one of nine study conditions, volitionality (high, low, control) crossed with intentionality (high, low, control). This design has been selected in order to test for the interaction of volitionality and intentionality on perceived authenticity. Participants were recruited from an online survey recruitment service, Amazon Mechanical Turk, where individuals self-selected into this study. They completed the study at their own convenience, at a computer of their choosing and were compensated \$2.00 for their participation. All surveys were completed on the same day. The age range was between 18 and 60 years of age. Participants represented a cross-section of organizational experiences ranging from less than a year of work experience through twenty years or more work experience.

Procedure

Data collection took place during the course of one day. Participants completed the study electronically through an online self-assessment. To participate, respondents self-selected into the study by first reading a brief description of the study including the study's purpose and time commitment, then choosing to continue to the online study to participate. After clicking the link to participate, participants found information about voluntary participation, confidentiality and anonymity, and information about whom to contact with questions. Participants were informed that consent to participate was provided by clicking the "next" button to advance to the start of the electronic materials. Once clicking into the survey, participants read a short paragraph to frame the context of the organizational scenario, as follows:

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

After reading this paragraph, participants read the paragraphs that contain one of the three volitionality manipulations paired with one of the three intentionality manipulations and then continued on to complete a questionnaire including the dependent variable measures. The target manager was intentionally described as male as opposed to female or an unclear gender. This was done so as to control for any stereotypes or other perceptions about women in management positions that may influence perceptions of authenticity. It is very important to understand how gender may shape perceptions of authenticity and should be addressed by future research. Such an investigation was beyond the scope of the current study and therefore a male target was selected so as to reduce the influence of confounding variables. See Appendix B for a copy of the stimulus materials and Appendix C for a copy of the questionnaire.

Experimental Manipulation

Volitionality was manipulated by reading one of the following three sets of paragraphs. The underlined text identifies which statements differ across materials and constitute the manipulation of the independent variable. In the high volitionality condition, participants read the following:

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, it is completely up to each manager to decide whether to ask candidates for their input into promotion decisions. That is, there are no corporate requirements that your manager ask candidates for their input. Your manager has taken it upon himself to seek such input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your manager has decided to allow you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision

about who will be promoted. Your manager prefers to do this in written form, so has asked you and your colleagues to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

In the low volitionality condition, participants read the following:

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. One type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, your manager has to adhere to a strict corporate requirement of asking candidates for their input. In other words, it is not optional for your manager to seek such input. Your manager is required to ask for input from candidates when making promotion decisions.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. To be in compliance with corporate policy, your manager has asked you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision about who will be promoted. The corporate policy requires this to be done in written form, so you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

In the control condition, participants read the following:

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. One type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, candidates may be asked to provide input either because their manager took it upon him or herself to ask for their input or because the manager has to comply with a strict corporate policy to ask for their input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your input has been requested. However, it is not clear whether the manager took it upon himself to seek your input, or whether he did so to be in compliance with a corporate requirement. In any event, you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

Intentionality was manipulated by suggesting a reason for why the leader is acting fairly during the promotion process. In the high intentionality condition, participants read the following:

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was very concerned with making a decision that was fair to everyone, one that selected the best person for the job. Your manager read all of the written documents carefully, and after doing so consulted with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: “Things are being done this way because I care a lot about making decisions in the fairest way possible.”

In short, every indication is that your manager made a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and intended to make a fair decision.

Participants in the low intentionality condition read the following:

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was not very concerned with making a fair decision or selecting the best person for the job. Your manager only skimmed all of the written documents and did not consult with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: “Things are being done this way because I really don’t care about making decisions in fairest way possible.”

In short, every indication is that your manager did not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and did not intend to make a fair decision.

Participants in the control intentionality condition read the following:

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you discussed the promotion process with a colleague. At this point it is not clear whether your manager will or will not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input in to the decision (and intend to make a fair decision).

After reading the paragraphs with the volitionality and intentionality manipulations, participants were asked to complete the questionnaire with the manipulation check and dependent variable measures.

Independent Variables Manipulation Check

Volitionality. The volitionality manipulation check was measured by the participant’s response to two questions: “How much does was the manager’s decision to seek employee input done out of his own free will (own initiative)?” and “How much was the manager’s decision to

seek employee input something that he was required to do?” measured on a 7-point scale (*not at all--very much*). The second item was reverse coded (Chronbach's $\alpha = .87$).

Intentionality. The intentionality manipulation check was measured by the participant's response to the question stem, “How much did the manager intend to...” “bring about a fair outcome,” “select the best person for the promotion,” measured on a 7-point scale (*not intended--very intended*) (Chronbach's $\alpha=.96$).

Dependent Variable Measures

Perceived Authenticity. The authenticity measure was based on the composite score of the response to the following question: “Based upon what you read, how would you describe the manager's decision to seek employee input about the promotion decision?”, participants will respond to five adjective ratings (*authentic—not authentic, genuine—not genuine, real—not real, from the heart—not from the heart, consistent with personal values—not consistent with personal values*) measured on a 7-point scale. In addition, participants were asked to rate the perceived inauthenticity of the manager's behaviors according to four adjective ratings (*deceitful—not deceitful, fake—not fake, forced—not forced, phony—not phony*) measured on a 7-point scale. The inauthenticity items were reverse coded (Chronbach's $\alpha = .98$).

Impressions about the leader. Impressions about the leader were measured by participant responses to items that include characteristics such as trust (De Cremer & Tyler, 2007), and trustworthiness (Mayer & Davis, 1995). In response to the question, “Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about your manager” participants will rate the manager on items such as “this manager has a strong sense of justice” and “I would trust this manager” measured with a 7-point scale (*strongly disagree—strongly agree*). The trust scale

was comprised of four items (Chronbach's $\alpha = .98$). The trustworthiness scale was comprised of six items (Chronbach's $\alpha = .80$).

Subjective values. The subjective values inventory was based on items adapted from Curhan, Elfenbein, and Xu (2006). Curhan and colleagues outlined four dimensions originally intended to measure subjective reactions to negotiations: feelings about the instrumental outcome, feelings about the process, feelings about the self, and feelings about the relationship. In this study, the items were adapted along the same dimensions, to reflect reactions to the leader-subordinate recall scenario presented in this research.

Feelings about the outcome were measured by participant responses to three items rated on a 7-point scale, “If you had to guess, how would you rate the outcome of this decision for you?” (*favorable—unfavorable*), “How satisfied would you be with your manager’s promotion decision?” (*not at all—very much*), and “To what extent do you think the outcome of the decision would be considered to be legitimate by others?” (*not at all—very much*) and in addition, participants categorical question on whom they expect to receive the best outcome (*self, manager or both*). (Chronbach's $\alpha = .91$.)

Feelings about the process were measured by participant responses to four items rated on a 7-point scale, “Would you characterize this promotion process as fair?” (*not at all—very much*), “How satisfied would you be with how your manager went about making the promotion decision?” (*very dissatisfied—very satisfied*), “How much would you feel like your manager listened to you?” (*not at all—very much*), and “How much do you think this manager considered your wishes, opinions, or needs?” (*not at all—very much*). (Chronbach's $\alpha = .97$.)

Feelings about the self were measured by participant responses to four items measured on a 7-point scale, “How would this process affect your self-image or impression of yourself?”

(*very negatively—very positively*), “Would this process make you feel more or less competent at your job?” (*less competent—more competent*), “How would you feel about *yourself* as a result of this promotion process?” (*generally bad—generally good*), “To what extent would this process make you feel like you acted consistently with your own personal values?” (*not at all—very much*). (Chronbach's $\alpha = .87$.)

Feelings about the relationship were measured by participant responses to four items measured on a 7-point scale, “What kind of “overall” impression do you have of this manager?” (*extremely negative—extremely positive*), “How satisfied would you be with your relationship with this manager as a result of this promotion process?” (*extremely dissatisfied—extremely satisfied*), “Would the promotion process enhance your trust in this manager?” (*not at all—very much*), “Would your manager’s behavior build a good foundation for a future relationship with you?” (*not at all—very much*). (Chronbach's $\alpha = .98$.)

The next chapter will outline the analytical techniques used to assess the study hypotheses and present the study results. In the final chapter, a discussion of the study results, theoretical and practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for future work will be explored.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Participants were 300 U.S. citizens (37% female) recruited from an online data collection service (MTurk). Fourteen participants were excluded for failing to properly respond the questionnaire, as measured by their response to two items designed to test their attention. Participants were on average 33 years of age ($SD = 9.94$) and had an average of 12.20 years of work experience ($SD = 9.90$). Seventy-six percent of participants self-identified as White, 6% as Black or African American, 9% as Asian, 7% as Hispanic or Latino, and 1% as American Indian or Alaskan Native. One participant selected “other” and indicated Asian/White as his or her race. The majority of participants had a bachelor's degree (44%) followed by a high school or GED diploma (33%), associate's degree (16%), master's degree (7%) or a PhD (1%). The average number of years of education was 3.7 ($SD=1.95$). See Table 2 for participant demographics.

Experimental Manipulations

To test the effectiveness of the study manipulations, participants responded to two items that measured volitionality and two items that measured intentionality. Results showed that participants in the internal manipulation rated volitionality as highest in the ($M=4.72$), followed by participants in the control condition ($M=3.44$), and lowest by participants in the external manipulation ($M=2.88$). As expected, volitionality ratings differed significantly by group, $F(2, 285)=25.03$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2 =.150$. In addition, results showed that participants in the high intentionality condition rated intentionality as highest ($M=6.11$), followed by participants in the control condition ($M=4.84$), and was rated lowest by participants in the low intentionality condition ($M=1.84$). As expected, intentionality ratings differed significantly by group, $F(2, 285)=315.66$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2 =.690$. Fisher's LSD tests were performed to determine which groups were significantly different from each other, within each condition. Results showed that, at the

$p < .05$ level, each group was significant from each other group within condition for both volitionality and intentionality manipulations. In addition, a 3 (volitionality) x 3 (intentionality) ANOVA was performed for both manipulation check measures to determine if the manipulation remained successful while controlling for the other condition, and that the other condition was not significantly related to the measure. Volitionality was not significantly related to the manipulation check measure for intentionality, $F(2, 285) = 1.13$, $p = ns$, $\eta^2 = .008$, while intentionality remained significant, $F(2, 285) = 309.87$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .691$. However, intentionality was significantly related to the manipulation check for volitionality, $F(2, 285) = 28.62$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .171$, as was volitionality in the presence of intentionality, $F(2, 285) = 33.61$, $\eta^2 = .195$. Therefore, it can be concluded that the independent variable manipulations were successful, with intentionality also being related to the volitionality manipulation check measure. See Table 3 for means and standard deviations of the manipulation check measures by condition.

Preliminary Analyses

Correlations and descriptive statistics for the dependent variables are reported in Table 4. See Tables 5 and 6 for the means and standard deviations for each study condition (volitionality and intentionality), across all of the outcome variables. A 3 (volitionality) x 3 (intentionality) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on all outcome measures. Further, intercell comparisons were conducted using Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) with the significance level set at $p < .05$ to test study predictions. See Table 7 for the results of the MANOVA.

Main Analyses: Perceived Authenticity

A 3 (volitionality) x 3 (intentionality) ANOVA was performed on perceived authenticity with a significant main effect for both volitionality $F(2, 285) = 7.46$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .051$, and

intentionality, $F(2, 285) = 225.85, p < .001, \eta^2 = .620$. Table 8 shows the results of the ANOVA. Participants in the high volitionality condition rated the manager's decision to be more authentic ($M=4.32$) than did participants in the control ($M=3.92$) or low volitionality conditions ($M= 3.81$). Likewise, participants in the high intentionality condition rated the manager's decision to be more authentic ($M=5.87$) than did the participants in the control ($M=4.30$) or low intentionality condition ($M=2.14$), providing support for hypotheses 1 and 2. However, the interaction between volitionality and intentionality on ratings of perceived authenticity was not significant, $F(1, 285) = 1.65, p=ns$. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was not supported by the results of the ANOVA.

To further investigate the interaction effect, a multiple regression analysis was performed using the continuous manipulation check measures for volitionality and intentionality. A hierarchical linear regression was performed by first including demographic variables in step 1 (sex, age, race (white/not white), years of work experience, and years of education), the main effects for volitionality and intentionality were entered in step 2, and finally the interaction term was entered in step 3. Following Aiken and West (1991), volitionality and intentionality were centered (i.e., the mean was subtracted from each score) to reduce issues associated with multicollinearity and the interaction term was based on the centered variables. Table 9 shows the regression results. Results showed that both volitionality ($\beta = .194$) and intentionality ($\beta = .823$) significantly predicted ratings of authenticity, $F(1, 286) = 704.54, p < .001$. However, the interaction term was also significant ($\beta = .066, p < .01$). See Figure 2 for a scatter plot graph of the interaction. This provided partial support for the interaction predicted in Hypothesis 3.

Dependent Variables: Impressions about the Manager and Subjective Values

Linear regression analyses were performed to assess whether the perceived authenticity was related impressions about the manager. Results showed that perceived authenticity was

significantly related to ratings of trust ($\beta = .931, p < .001$), trustworthiness ($\beta = .905, p < .001$) such that higher ratings of authenticity were associated with higher ratings of trust and trustworthiness, in support of hypothesis 4. In addition, perceived authenticity significantly predicted feelings about the outcome ($\beta = .916, p < .001$), process ($\beta = .887, p < .001$), self ($\beta = .701, p < .001$), and relationship ($\beta = .932, p < .001$), such that the higher the rating of perceived authenticity, the higher the rating of the subjective value. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was supported. See Table 10 for results.

Mediation analyses. Hypothesis 3 proposed that the effect for intentionality on perceived authenticity would be greater when volitionality was internal to the actor rather than external. In addition, hypothesis 6 stated that perceived authenticity would mediate the relationship between volitionality and intentionality on the dependent variables ratings for trust, trustworthiness, and the subjective values. The two independent variables, volitionality and intentionality, were included specifically to examine the antecedent impressions of perceived authenticity. Therefore, it was expected that any relationship between the independent variables would be fully mediated by perceived authenticity since they are formative components of an impression of authenticity. In addition, there was no hypothesis about any direct relationship between these two antecedent perceptions on the dependent variables since it was expected that their influence would operate through the formation of an impression of authenticity.

One condition for establishing mediation is that the independent variables (volitionality X intentionality) must significantly predict the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986). There was not a significant interaction effect on our proposed mediating variable, perceived authenticity, when using the categorical variables for the manipulation. However, each of the independent variables had a significant main effect on perceived authenticity, as stated in hypotheses 1 and 2.

Therefore, the mediation test was conducted for each of the main effects as opposed to the interaction effect. Both variables were entered into the analyses together so as to account for any shared variance between the two in their relationship with perceived authenticity.

Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step procedure for assessing mediated effects was employed using ANOVA. The analysis is presented in Table 11. First, the predictor variable (volitionality and intentionality) should be significantly related to the dependent variable (impressions and subjective values). Second, the predictor variable (volitionality and intentionality) should be significantly related to the mediator (perceived authenticity). Third, the mediating variable (perceived authenticity) should be related to the dependent variable (impressions and subjective values) with the predictor (volitionality and intentionality) included in the equation. If these conditions are met, at least partial mediation is present. If the predictor variable has a non-significant effect on the dependent variables in the third step, complete mediation is present. The Bootstrap test was used to assess whether the effect of the predictor on the dependent variable was significantly reduced by the inclusion of the mediating variable (Bollen & Stine, 1990; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The Bootstrap procedure was conducted using the Hayes "meditate" macro for SPSS that was created to assess mediation using multi-categorical independent variables (Hayes & Preacher, 2014).

Since the independent variables were categorical, a series of univariate ANOVAs were performed to assess the effect of volitionality and intentionality on the dependent variables (step 1). Both independent variables were entered together to control for any shared variance. As shown in Table 11, intentionality was significantly related to all of the dependent variables whereas volitionality was only slightly related to trust, $F(2, 284) = 2.42, p < .10$, and feelings about the outcome, $F(2, 285) = 2.63, p < .10$, and significantly related to feelings about the process

$F(2, 285)=3.81, p<.05$ and feelings about the relationship $F(2, 283)=4.83, p<.05$. Therefore, Bootstrap mediation analyses for volitionality were conducted only for feelings about the process and feelings about the relationship.

Prior analyses determined that both volitionality and intentionality were significantly related to perceived authenticity (see Table 8) therefore the second step for mediation was met. For the third step of mediation, perceived authenticity was entered into the ANOVA analysis with volitionality and intentionality. When perceived authenticity was present, volitionality no longer had a significant relationship with any of the dependent variables. The relationship between intentionality and the dependent variables remained significant when authenticity was entered into the model, but the F-values for each dependent variable were drastically reduced. In addition, perceived authenticity was strongly associated with all of the dependent variables. Taken together, these results strongly suggest the presence of a mediation effect of perceived authenticity on the relationship between volitionality and intentionality and the dependent variables.

To further investigate the nature of the mediation effect, the significance of any indirect effects were tested using bootstrapping procedures. Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for each of 1,000 bootstrapped samples, and the 95% confidence interval was computed by determining the indirect effects at the 5th and 95th percentiles. For the mediation effect of perceived authenticity on volitionality, the bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect for feelings about the process was .29 (95% CI, .01 - .55) and for feelings about the relationship was .29 (95% CI, .03 - .54). The confidence intervals did not contain 0, thus, the indirect effects were statistically significant.

For the mediation effect of perceived authenticity on intentionality, the bootstrapped unstandardized indirect effect for trust was .77 (95% CI, .55 – .98), for trustworthiness was .54 (95% CI, .39 – .69), for feelings about the outcome was .67 (95% CI, .49 – .88), for feelings about the process was .81 (95% CI, .56 -1.04), for feelings about the self was .37 (95% CI, .25 – .48), and for feelings about the relationship was .81 (95% CI, .57 – 1.05). The confidence intervals did not contain 0, thus, the indirect effects was statistically significant for each dependent variable. Therefore, hypothesis 6 was supported. See Table 12 for a summary of the Bootstrap test results.

To further clarify the mediation results, an analysis was performed to determine if there was a spurious relationship between the independent and dependent variables. That is, since perceived authenticity was highly correlated with the other dependent variables, it is important to clarify whether perceived authenticity truly mediates the relationship or if the mediation relationship would hold if perceived authenticity was the outcome variable while the other dependent variables were entered as mediators. Therefore, the Bootstrap procedure was performed for each of the mediation relationships described above, however the mediator and the outcome variables were reversed.

For volitionality, mediation was not found for feelings about the process on perceived volitionality or for feelings about the relationship, with unstandardized indirect effect of .19 (95% CI, -.05 – .44) and .22 (95% CI, -.02 – .48), respectively. Both confidence intervals contained zero, therefore mediation was determined not to be present. In terms of intentionality, the mediation effect did stand when the mediator and the outcome variables were reversed. Results showed unstandardized indirect effects for trust of .71 (95% CI, .49 – .94), trustworthiness of .70 (95% CI, .49 – .89), feelings about the outcome of .50 (95% CI, .29 – .71),

feelings about the process of .63 (95% CI, .42 – .86), feelings about the self of .40 (.22 – .57), and feelings about the relationship of .71 (95% CI, .49 – .94). Therefore, the alternative explanation of the spurious relationship between intentionality and perceived authenticity and the outcome variables was not rejected. However, it was rejected for volitionality as the relationship between volitionality and both feelings about the process and feelings about the relationship were mediated only by perceived authenticity, but not the reverse.

The final chapter will conclude with a discussion of the study results and implications for theory and practice. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research will end the chapter.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

In this study, I examined the antecedent perceptions to forming an attribution of authenticity for a fair behavior. In addition, I explored how a perception of authenticity leads to more generalized impressions of individuals and also to relational outcomes concerning the interaction between the actor and perceiver. Results showed that perceivers use two forms of information when creating an attribution of authenticity: information about the source of the behavior (internal or external to the actor) and the goals of the actor (intended to lead to a fair outcome or not intended to lead to a fair outcome), supporting both hypotheses 1 and 2. In particular, there was some evidence that the intentionality of the actor's goals was most important in terms of perceived authenticity when the volition for the behavior was internal to the actor as opposed to when it was imposed by an external force, partially supporting hypothesis 3. Perceived authenticity was rated highest when volitionality was internal and intentionality was high and lowest when volitionality was external and intentionality was low. In addition, ratings of perceived authenticity were associated with a number of important impressions about the actor and also in regard to the relationship between the actor and perceiver. Specifically, actors were rated as more trusted and trustworthy when volitionality was high and intentionality was high, thus supporting hypothesis 4. In terms of relational outcomes, perceivers were more satisfied with a number of subjective values associated with the interaction with the actor, including a greater satisfaction with the outcome, process, self, and relationship, thus supporting hypothesis 5. Finally, ratings of perceived authenticity fully mediated the relationship between volitionality and feelings about the process and relationship and partially mediated the relationship between intentionality and both impressions and subjective values, in partial support of hypothesis 6.

There are two particularly interesting patterns from these results. One, as related to perceived authenticity, the external and control conditions for volitionality did not differ significantly from each other, though they both differed from the internal volitionality condition. Subsequently, a significant direct effect for volitionality on perceived authenticity would suggest that when volitionality is perceived to be internal to the actor fairness is perceived to be more authentic than when it is not. However, since there was no difference between the external and control conditions, it appears that, in this scenario, individuals default to external impressions of volitionality. This could be due an effect of the stimulus materials such that the description of the organization may have naturally come across as hierarchical whereby managers have less freedom to choose how to enact promotion processes. Though, there appears to be some support for volitionality as an antecedent impression to perceived authenticity such that a fair behavior is seen as more authentic when it is internally motivated by the actor. And, in particular, these impressions are related to feelings about the fairness of the process as well as the feelings about the relationship with the actor.

Two, for intentionality, all dependent variables ratings were significantly different across conditions as well as significantly associated with all the dependent variables. In addition, results showed that the effect for intentionality was partially mediated by perceived authenticity. As such, this suggests that intentionality is both an important input into a perception of authentic fairness, but it is also important for relational outcomes on its own. In particular, the large effect sizes and strong associations indicate that individuals form impressions about the reasons for and the goals of an actor's behaviors and that these impressions have important implications for trust and trustworthiness as well as for subjective evaluations of the overall interpersonal situation.

These results have a number of theoretical implications for both the organizational justice and leadership literature. In regard to the former, this study showed that when engaging in procedurally fair behaviors such as inviting voice in decision-making, it is important for the actor to come across as authentic (the behavior being internally motivated). And, perhaps more importantly, the actor must be perceived to have an *intention* to be fair. These results add to the literature on organizational justice by unpacking the nature of the subjective reaction to procedurally fair behaviors. That is, it shows that individuals do not simply respond to fair behaviors at face value, but, instead, they engage in an attribution process that serves to determine both *who* initiated the behavior, and *why* the actor chose to act fairly. Indeed, studies have shown that an individual's level of trust in authorities determines the reaction to procedurally fair behaviors (e.g., De Cremer & Tyler, 2007), and here, the results show that trust and trustworthiness is driven, in large part, by the perceptions of the actor's intentions, in addition to a perception that the behavior was self-motivated.

In regard to the leadership literature, the work on authentic leadership has outlined a set of behaviors that are associated with “real” leadership. While this work has shown that followers react positively to the set of behaviors such as increased self awareness, transparency, self regulation, and ethical behavior, this model seems to include the nomological network of what one would consider to be “leadership” rather than what one would consider to be “authentic.” And, while in the authentic leadership literature authenticity has largely carried a positive connotation, and rightly so, these results show that forming a perception about leader's authenticity is much more innocuous and may simply be an internal attribution made about a leader's behavior or a judgment of their goals. As such, authenticity may be more of an impression related to the consistency and predictability of a leader's behavior rather than a

positive impression of the leader's personal traits or values or a successful enactment of the role of leader.

Practical Implications

These results also carry important practical information. Specifically, practitioners who engage in self-reflective activities in order to come across as “authentic” must also spend time evaluating how their behaviors are interpreted by others. Simply acting in a way that is patently fair, such as by inviting voice into decision-making, can be interpreted in different ways and does not necessarily lead to a universally positive response. Likewise, a fair behavior is likely to build trust and elicit the greatest degree of positive reaction when it is performed with an intention to achieve a fair result. Therefore, when choosing how to interact with others when making important decisions that affect them, practitioners should consider how a behavior is perceived instead of assuming that all procedurally fair behaviors lead to positive reactions.

These results also have implications for a number of other aspects of organizational life. For example, leaders and managers may be operating in systems that undermine their perceived authenticity in that fair procedures are simply a matter of policy. In these situations, leaders and managers must overcome the initial impression of low volitionality by establishing a close relationship with followers; leaders and others can demonstrate a personal commitment to fairness (i.e., high volitionality) by enacting some of the less structural types of process fairness such as interactional fairness. By employing behaviors such as treating others with dignity and respect, honest and transparent communication, and providing proper justification for decisions (i.e., to achieve a fair outcome), leaders can enhance the perception that their desire to be fair is self-motivated.

In addition, many aspects of 21st century organizational life can pose a challenge to achieving a perception of authenticity. For instance, authenticity has been conceptualized here as a highly individualistic quality. That is, authenticity is an expression of a person's internal beliefs and values that are, presumably, self-determined. However, in cultures that are high in collectivism, such as many East Asian cultures, authenticity may pertain to an adherence to group-determined norms as opposed to self-determined beliefs. In such situations, low volitionality may be more closely associated with perceived authenticity since externally imposed guidelines for behavior are expected. An individual that acts out of his or her own "free will" may be met with less positive reactions since it is counter-normative to act in such a way. In these situations, a leader must carefully consider the cultural norms around behavior in order to come across as authentically fair. To do so, a leader or manager may want to discuss fairness norms with local employees before engaging in behaviors intended to reflect a value of fairness.

Limitations

This study has a number of limitations to consider. One, this study is cross-sectional and was completed at one point in time. Thus, the use of a survey method is associated with common method bias, or, variance in results that is attributable to the method of measurement rather than the constructs of interest (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879). This type of measurement bias is always of concern when the predictor and criterion variables are measured simultaneously. As such, the relationship between perceived authenticity and manager impressions or subjective values may be somewhat inflated since they are both presented and measured in the same materials. This may also limit the interpretation of the causal direction between the measure of authenticity and the other dependent variables, such as trust may lead to increased perceptions of authenticity as opposed to authenticity enhancing perceptions of trust.

The order in which the independent variables were presented may have had an impact in the nature of participant's reactions to the stimulus materials. That is, information about the volitionality of the manager's behavior may have influenced reactions to the intentionality information that followed. That is, in materials where high volitionality was paired with a control condition for intentionality, the positive reactions to high intentionality may have influenced a slightly more positive reaction to the control condition for intentionality. Indeed, broadly speaking, the scenario nature of design may have attenuated reactions to the manipulations due to the “imaginary” decision making process as opposed to a more robust reaction to a “real” decision making process. Certainly, the emotion evoked by a real manager would be more significant than the emotion evoked by an imagined person.

Furthermore, the sample was obtained via an online participant recruitment service which limited the understanding of who responded to the invitation to participate and why. For example, participants may have been more sensitive to promotion and human resource decision-making because of a recent event in their own employment that led them to be interested in participating in this research. Therefore, it reduces the ability to make broad inferences about the generalizability of the study findings. In addition, this study design also did not allow for the comparison between a manager's self-perception of authenticity and an employee's perception of the manager's authenticity, an approach that is common in leadership work. Despite these limitations, studies that have investigated the qualities of online participant recruitment services have suggested that studies performed online are not inferior to studies performed in other manners, and, in many cases can yield high quality data or data of similar quality to traditional study designs (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2012; Hauser & Schwarz, 2015).

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research should be performed to replicate the results of the interaction effect found in this study. In particular, research should be conducted in an experimental laboratory setting that allows for careful control over the independent variables. Such a setting would allow for participants to react to “real” interactions as opposed to imaginary scenario that would enhance the experience of the reaction to the manager's behavior. In addition, future research should be conducted in a field setting in order to generalize the results to actual experiences in organizations where promotion decisions and considerations of fairness are salient.

In addition to methodological considerations, future research should also consider different theoretical implications. As mentioned earlier on, authenticity does not necessarily imply a positive value, but a consistency between internal states and external expression. It would be important to know how individuals react to authentic leaders who are not demonstrating positive or ethical values. Unrelated streams of work on ambivalent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996) and ambivalent racism (Dovidio, Gaertner, Kawakami, & Hodson, 2002) suggest that there may be situations in which individuals react differently to clearly, albeit negative, internal states versus unclear or ambiguous positive internal states. Here, the analysis was limited to reactions to positive internal values (fairness). But, it would be important to investigate reactions to perceived authenticity across a number of different values, both positive and negative.

In addition, there are important situational factors that should be considered in future work. Uncertainty management theory (Van den Bos, Wilke & Lind, 1998) suggests that concerns about fairness are paramount when outcomes are unclear. Organizations undergoing a major change, such as a merger, or a buy-out or any other large-scale shift in how work is

performed, may have implications for reactions to perceived authenticity. As such, perceived authenticity about fairness may be more important in these uncertain situations than in organizations that are not undergoing change or which have more static day-to-day methods of working. Indeed, research should explore whether and when perceived authenticity may lead to negative reactions—such as when the authenticity is relative to a negative outcome for the individual (e.g., layoff).

Future work on the topic of the perceived authenticity of fairness should also be performed using longitudinal designs. It may take more than interaction for individuals to form a perception about the authenticity, or, indeed the inauthenticity, of a leader's behavior. While initial reactions to a fair behavior may be positive, if, over time, it becomes apparent that a leader's intentions are not associated with fair goals, the initially positive reactions may take a sharp reversal toward negative reactions. Likewise, it would be interesting to understand if a leader can “undo” a perception of inauthenticity. Research on trust repair suggests that it is far more difficult to regain trust once lost than it is to earn trust at the outset of a relationship. Correspondingly, it may be more difficult to overcome a perception of inauthenticity than it is to achieve an initial impression of authenticity.

Finally, future research should consider how and when a person's identity characteristics such as gender or race influence perceptions of authenticity. Stereotypes associated with roles such as leadership roles may connote behavior that appropriate behavior is “male-typed” (e.g., Heilman, 1983) and therefore may make it more difficult for women to come across as authentic when enacting values through behaviors that are stereotypically male (e.g., Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). Indeed, many 21st century conditions may affect inhibit the ability to be perceived as authentic, such as digitally mediated or cross-cultural interactions (c.f., Roloff, Brockner, &

Wiesenfeld, 2012). For example, in non-individualistic cultures such as in much of East Asia, behaviors that are seen as self-originating (highly volitional) may be perceived to be less authentic than behaviors that are

Conclusion

This research explored the nature of perceived authenticity in regard to inviting voice into decision-making about a promotion. Both perceptions about the source of a behavior and the intentions for the action were to a perception of authenticity, which, in turn, was related to a number of important impressions about the person and subjective reactions to the decision-making process. In addition, impressions about a person's intentions were highly important in regard to outcomes, above and beyond the contribution to perceived authenticity.

REFERENCES

- Aiken, L.S., & West, S.G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Avolio, B.J., & Gardner, W.L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 315-338.
- Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 801–823.
- Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2004). Authentic leadership: Theory building for veritable sustained performance. Working paper: Gallup Leadership Institute, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator- mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173–1182.
- Bazerman, M. (2005). *Negotiation, decision making, and conflict management*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Bies, R.J. (1987). Beyond “voice”: The influence of decision-maker justification and sincerity on procedural justice judgments. *Representative Research in Social Psychology, 17*, 3-14.
- Blader, S.L., & Chen, Y.-R. (2012). Differentiating the effects of status and power: A justice perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 102*(5), 994-1014.
- Blader, S.L., & Tyler, T.R. (2003). A four component model of procedural justice: Defining the meaning of a "fair" process. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*, 747-758.
- Bollen, K. A., & Stine, R., (1990). Direct and indirect effects: Classical and bootstrap estimates of variability. *Sociological Methodology, 20*, 115-40.
- Brockner, J. (2002). Making sense of procedural fairness: How high procedural fairness can reduce or heighten the influence of outcome favorability. *Academy of Management Review, 27*, 58-76.
- Brockner, J., Konovsky, M., Cooper-Schneider, R., Folger, R., Martin, C. & Bies, R.J. (1994). The interactive effects of procedural justice and outcome negativity on the victims and survivors of job loss. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*, 397-409.

- Brockner, J., Heuer, L., Siegel, P.A., Wiesenfeld, B.M., Martin, C., Grover, S., Reed, T., & Bjorgvinsson, S. (1998). The moderating effect of self-esteem in reaction to voice: Converging evidence from five studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 394–407.
- Brockner, J. & Wiesenfeld, B.M. (1996). An integrative framework for explaining reactions to decisions: The interactive effects of outcomes and procedures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120(2), 189-208.
- Brockner, J., Wiesenfeld, B., & Diekmann, K. (2009). Towards a “fairer” conception of process fairness: How, when and why more may not be better than less. In J. Walsh & A. Brief (Eds.), *The Academy of Management Annals* (vol. 3, pp. 183-216). New York: Routledge.
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., Gosling, S.D. (2011). Amazon’s mechanical turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(1), 3-5.
- Cameron, K., Dutton, J., & Quinn, R. (2003). *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Chen, C.C., Choi, J., & Chi, S.C. (2002). Making sense of local-expatriate compensation disparity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4), 807-817.
- Clapp-Smith R., Vogelgesang, G.R., & Avey, J.B. (2009). Authentic leadership and positive psychological capital: The mediating role of trust at the group level of analysis. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 15, 227-240.
- Curhan, J.R., Elfenbein, H.A., & Xu, H. (2006). What do people value when they negotiate? Mapping the domain of subjective value in negotiations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 91(3), 493–512.
- De Charms, R. (1968). *Personal causation: The internal affective determinants of behavior*. New York: Academic Press.
- De Cremer, D. & Schouten, B. (2008). When apologies for injustice matter: The role of respect. *European Psychologist*, 13, 239-247.
- De Cremer, D. & Tyler, T.R. (2007). The effects of trust and procedural justice on cooperation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 639-649.
- Diekmann, K.A., Soderberg, A.T., & Tenbrunsel, A.E. (2013). Fairness and ethics in bargaining and negotiation. In M. Olekalns & W.L. Adair (Eds.), *Handbook of research on negotiation* (pp. 191-220). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Dineen, B.R., Lewicki, R.J., & Tomlinson, E.C. (2006). Supervisory guidance and behavioral integrity: Relationships with employee citizenship and deviant behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 622-635.

- Dovidio, J.F., Gaertner, S.E., Kawakami, K., & Hodson, G. (2002). Why can't we just get along? Interpersonal biases and interracial distrust. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 8*(2), 88-102.
- Ely, R.J. & Thomas, D.A. (2001). Cultural diversity at work: The effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Administrative Quarterly, 46*(2), 229-273.
- Festinger, L. (1962). Cognitive dissonance. *Scientific American, 207*(4), 93-107.
- Fields, D.L. (2007). Determinants of followers' perceptions of a leader's authenticity and integrity. *European Management Journal, 25*(3), 195-206.
- Fiske, S.T., & Taylor, S.E. (1991). *Social cognition*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Folger, R. (1977). Distributive and procedural justice: Combined impact of "voice" and improvement on experienced inequity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35*, 108-111.
- Folger, R. (1998). Fairness as a moral virtue. In M. Schminke (Ed.), *Managerial ethics: Morally managing people and processes* (pp. 13–34). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gardner, W.L., Cogliser, C.C., Davis, K.M., & Dickens, M.P. (2011). Authentic leadership: A review of the literature and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*, 1120-1145.
- Gelfand, M.J., Higgins, M., Nishii, L.H., Raver, J.L., Dominguez, A., Murakami, F., Yamaguchi, S., & Toyama, M. (2002). Culture and egocentric perceptions of fairness in conflict and negotiation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(5), 883-845.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The ambivalent sexism inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*(3), 491-512.
- Golomb, J. (1995). *In search of authenticity: Existentialism from Kierkegaard to Camus*. New York: Routledge.
- Goodman, J.K., Cryder, C.E., Cheema, A. (2013). Data collection in a flat world: The strengths and weaknesses of mechanical turk samples. *Behavioral Decision Making, 26*(3), 213-224.
- Greenberg, J. (1988). Cultivating an image of justice: Looking fair on the job. *Academy of Management Executive, 2*, 155-158.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Looking fair versus being fair: Managing impressions of organizational justice. In B. Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 12, pp. 111-157). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

- Greenberg, J., & Colquitt, J.A. (2005). *Handbook of organizational justice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Greenberg, J. & Ornstein, S. (1983). High status job title compensation for underpayment: A test of equity theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68(2), 285-297.
- Hannah, S., Lester, P. B. , & Vogelgesang, G. R. (2005). *Moral leadership: Explicating the moral component of authentic leadership*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Harter, S. (2002). Authenticity. In C.R. Snyder & S. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 385-394). London: Oxford University Press.
- Harter, S., Marold, D.B., Whitesell, N.R., & Cobbs, G. (1996). A model of the effects of perceived parent and peer support on adolescent false self behavior. *Child Development*, 67, 360–374
- Harvey, P., Martinko, M.J., & Gardner, W. (2006). Promoting authenticity in organizations: An attributional perspective. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 12, 1-11.
- Hauser, D.J. & Schwarz, N. (2015). Attentive turkers: MTurk participants perform better on online attention checks than subject pool participants, *Behavior Research Methods*, in press.
- Hayes, A. F., & Preacher, K. J. (2014). Statistical mediation analysis with a multicategorical independent variable. *British Journal of Mathematical and Statistical Psychology*, 67, 451-470.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. New York: Wiley.
- Heider, F. (1959). On perception, event-structure and psychological environment. *Psychological Issues*, 1, 1-123.
- Heilman, M.E. (1983). Sex bias in work settings: The lack of fit model. In B.M. Staw and L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 5, pp. 269-298). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Heilman, M. E. & Okimoto, T. G. (2007). Why are women penalized for success at male tasks?: The implied communality deficit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 81-92.
- Hollander-Blumoff, R., & Tyler, T.R. (2008). Procedural justice in negotiation: Fairness, outcome acceptance, and integrative potential. *Law & Social Inquiry*, 33(2), 473-500.
- Jones, E.E., & Davis, K.E. (1965). From acts to dispositions: The attribution process in person perception. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 219-266). New York: Academic.

- Kelley, H.H. (1967). Attribution Theory in Social Psychology. *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, 15*, 192-238.
- Kenny, D. (1991) A general model of consensus and accuracy in interpersonal perception. *Psychological Review 98*(2), 155–163.
- Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2005). From thought and experience to behavior and interpersonal relationships: A multicomponent conceptualization of authenticity. In A. Tesser, J. V. Wood, & D. Stapel (Eds.), *On building, defending and regulating the self: A psychological perspective* (pp. 31-53). New York: Psychology Press.
- Kernis, M.H., & Goldman, B.M. (2006). A multi-component conceptualization of authenticity: Research and theory. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 284-357). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Lam., W., Huang, X., Snape, E. (2007). Feedback-seeking behavior and leader-member exchange: Do supervisor-attributed motives matter? *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(2), 348-363.
- Leroy, H., Dierynck, B., Anseel, F., Simons, T., Halbesleben, J., McCaughey, D., Savage, G., & Sels, L. (2012). Behavioral integrity for safety, priority of safety, psychological safety, and patient safety: A team-level study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(6), 1273-1281.
- Leventhal, G.S., Karuza, J., & Fry, W.R. (1980). Beyond fairness: A theory of allocation preferences. In G. Mikula (Ed.), *Justice and social interaction* (pp. 167-218). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Lind, E. A. (1999). Social involvement, justice judgments, and the psychology of negotiations. In R.J. Bies, R.J. Lewicki & B.H. Sheppard (Eds.), *Research on negotiations in organizations* (Vol. 8, pp. 125-139). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgments as pivotal cognitions in organizational relations. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 56–88). Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.
- Lind, E.A., Kanfer, R., Earley, P.C. (1990). Voice, control and procedural justice: Instrumental and non-instrumental concerns in fairness judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*(5), 952-959.
- Lind, E.A., & Tyler, T.R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice*. N.Y.: Plenum.
- Lopez, F.G., & Rice, K.G. (2006). Preliminary development and validation of a measure of relational authenticity. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 53*(3), 362-371.
- Lord, R. G., & Brown, D. J. (2001). Leadership, values, and subordinate self-concepts. *Leadership Quarterly, 12*, 133–152.

- Lord, R.G., Brown, D.J., Freiberg, S.J. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78, 167-203.
- Lord, R., & Maher, K.J.. (1991). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance*. Boston, MA: Unwin-Everyman.
- Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(6), 695-706.
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B.J., Avey, J.B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 541-572.
- Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2004). Human, social, and now positive psychological capital management: Investing in people for competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics*, 33(2), 143-160.
- Malle, B. F., & Knobe, J. (1997). The folk concept of intentionality. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 33, 101-121.
- Malle, B. F., Knobe, J. M., & Nelson, S. E. (2007). Actor-observer asymmetries in explanations of behavior: New answers to an old question. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 93, 491-514.
- Martinko, M.J., Harvey, P., & Douglas, S.C. (2007). The role, function, and contributions of attribution theory to leadership: A review. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 561-585.
- Maslow, A.H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 370-96.
- Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(4), 738-748.
- May, D.R., Chan, A.Y.L., Hodges, T.D., Avolio, B.J. (2003). Developing the moral component of authentic leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, 32, 247-260.
- Mayer, R.C., Davis, J.H., & Schoorman, F.D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20, 709-734.
- Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A classification and handbook*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Roberts, L. M. (2005). Changing faces: Professional image construction in diverse organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 30, 685-711.

- Roloff, K.S., Brockner, J.B., Wiesenfeld, B.M. (2012). The role of process fairness authenticity in 21st century negotiations. In B.M. Goldman and D.L. Shapiro (Eds.), *The psychology of negotiations in the 21st century workplace: New challenges and new solutions* (pp. 45-69). New York: Routledge.
- Ross, L. (1977). The intuitive psychologist and his shortcomings: Distortions in the attribution process. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (vol. 10, pp. 173-220). New York: Academic Press.
- Schlegel, R. J., Hicks, J. A., Arndt, J. & King, L. A. (2009). Thine own self: True self-concept accessibility and meaning in life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 96, 473-490.
- Seligman, M. (2002). *Authentic happiness*. New York: Free Press.
- Shapiro, D.L., & Brett, J.M. (1993). Comparing three processes underlying judgments of procedural justice: A field study of mediation and arbitration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(6), 1167-1177.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7, 422-445.
- Simons, T. (2002) Behavioral integrity: The perceived alignment between managers' words and deeds as a research focus. *Organization Science*. 13(1), 18-35.
- Simons, T., Friedman, R., Lieu, L., & McLean Parks, J. (2007). Racial differences in sensitivity to behavioral integrity: Attitudinal consequences, in-group effects, and "trickle down" among black and non-black employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 92(3), 650-665.
- Simons, T., Tomlinson, E.C. & Leroy, H. (2012). Research on behavioral integrity: A promising construct for positive organizational scholarship. In K.S. Cameron and G.M. Spreitzer (Eds.), *Handbook of positive organizational scholarship* (pp. 325-340.), Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Swann, W. B. (1983). Self-verification: Bringing social reality into harmony with the self. In J. Suls & A. G. Greenwald (Eds.), *Social psychological perspectives on the self* (Vol. 2, pp. 33-66). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum
- Thibaut, J.W., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Tomlinson, E.C., Dineen, B.R., & Lewicki, R.J. (2004). The road to reconciliation: Antecedents of victim willingness to reconcile following a broken promise. *Journal of Management*, 30, 165-188.

- Tyler, T.R., & Blader, S.L. (2004). Justice and negotiation. In M.J. Gelfand & J.M. Brett (Eds.), *Handbook of negotiation and culture* (pp. 295-312). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Tyler, T.R., Boeckmann, R.J., Smith, H.J., & Huo, Y.J. (1997). *Social justice in a diverse society*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Tyler, T.R., Degoey, P., & Smith, H. (1996). Understanding why the justice of groups matters: A test of the psychological dynamics of the group-value model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*, 913-930.
- Tyler, T.R., & Lind, E.A. (1992). A relational model of authority in groups. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *25*, 115 - 191.
- Tyler, T.R., & Smith, H. (1997). *Social justice and social movements*. In D. Gilbert, S. Fiske, G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Psychology* (4th edition, vol. 2, pp.595-629). N.Y.: McGraw-Hill.
- Van den Bos, K., Lind, E.A., Vermunt, R. & Wilke, H.A.M. (1997a). How do I judge my outcome when I do not know the outcome of others? The psychology of the fair process effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *72*, 1034-1046.
- Van den Bos, K., Wilke, H.A.M., & Lind, E.A. (1998). When do we need procedural fairness? The role of trust in authority. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *75*, 1449-1458.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Avolio, B.J., Gardner, W.L., Wernsing, T.S., & Peterson, S.J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management*, *34*(1), 89-126.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Wang, P., Wang, H., Schaubroeck, J., & Avolio, B.J. (2010). Psychological processes linking authentic leadership to follower behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(5), 901-914.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, *92*(4), 548-573.

TABLE 1:
Interaction between Volitionality and Intentionality on Perceived Authenticity

	High Volitionality	Low Volitionality
High Intentionality	Highest	Low
Low Intentionality	High	Lowest

**TABLE 2:
Study Demographics**

	N (%) / M (SD)
Age	33 (9.94)
Gender	
Male	179 (63%)
Female	107 (37%)
Race/Ethnicity	
African American/Black	18 (6%)
American Indian/Alaskan Native	4 (1%)
Asian	9 (27%)
Hispanic/Latino	20 (7%)
White	216 (76%)
Years of Work Experience	12.20 (9.90)
Years of School	3.70 (1.95)
Highest Degree Obtained	
High School Diploma/GED	93 (33%)
Associates	45 (16%)
Bachelors	125 (44%)
Masters	19 (7%)
Doctoral	4 (1%)

TABLE 3:
Means and Standard Deviations for Manipulation Check by Condition

Target Condition	Volitionality		Target Condition	Intentionality	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Internal (<i>n</i> =100)	4.72	1.88	High (<i>n</i> =93)	6.11	1.13
External (<i>n</i> =82)	2.88	1.84	Low (<i>n</i> =105)	1.84	1.32
Control (<i>n</i> =104)	3.44	1.73	Control (<i>n</i> =88)	4.84	1.23

Note. *N* = 286. Volitionality: $F(2, 285)=25.03$, $p=.000$, $\eta^2 = .15$, Intentionality: $F(2, 285)=315.66$, $p=.000$, $\eta^2=.69$. Post-hoc tests showed that all groups were significantly different from each other.

TABLE 4:
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among the Dependent Variables

Dependent Variable	<i>M (SD)</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Volitionality	3.72 (1.96)	--									
2. Intentionality	4.15 (2.01)	.37	--								
3. Authenticity*	4.03 (2.05)	.49	.88	--							
4. Trustworthiness	3.92 (1.43)	.39	.91	.91	--						
5. Trust	3.88 (1.96)	.43	.93	.93	.95	--					
6. BI	4.05 (1.83)	.39	.91	.92	.93	.96	--				
7. Outcome	3.94 (1.78)	.41	.87	.89	.88	.90	.90	--			
8. Process	3.82 (2.08)	.44	.93	.92	.92	.95	.93	.93	--		
9. Self	4.32 (1.30)	.37	.68	.70	.69	.72	.72	.79	.75	--	
10. Relationship	3.85 (2.10)	.47	.93	.93	.93	.95	.93	.93	.97	.76	--

Note. N = 286. All correlations are significant at the $p < .001$ level (two-tailed).

TABLE 5:
Means and Standard Deviations for Impressions of the Manager by Condition

Target Condition	Authenticity		Trustworthiness		Trust	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Volitionality						
Internal (n=100)	4.32 ^a	2.04	4.01 ^a	1.46	4.02 ^a	2.03
External (n=82)	3.92 ^b	2.03	3.89 ^a	1.37	3.86 ^a	1.96
Control (n=104)	3.81 ^b	1.95	3.85 ^a	1.45	3.76 ^a	1.89
Intentionality						
High (n=93)	5.87 ^a	1.12	5.21 ^a	0.75	5.58 ^a	1.12
Low (n=105)	2.14 ^b	1.30	2.57 ^b	1.09	1.97 ^b	1.28
Control (n=88)	4.30 ^c	1.38	4.30 ^c	1.38	4.34 ^c	1.26

Note. N=286. Condition means within columns not sharing a subscript differ significantly at the $p < .05$ level. All independent variables were measured on a 7-point scale. Higher means indicate that the target was rated as higher on the variable of interest.

TABLE 6:
Means and Standard Deviations for Subjective Values by Condition

Target Condition	Outcome		Process		Self		Relationship	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Volitionality								
Internal	4.13 ^a	1.84	4.04 ^a	2.14	4.43 ^a	1.37	4.12 ^a	2.12
External	3.80 ^b	1.81	3.72 ^{a,b}	2.00	4.21 ^a	1.29	3.70 ^b	2.07
Control	3.88 ^{a,b}	2.10	3.68 ^b	2.07	4.30 ^a	1.23	3.71 ^b	2.10
Intentionality								
High	5.31 ^a	1.10	5.62 ^a	1.21	5.14 ^a	1.03	5.75 ^a	1.18
Low	2.39 ^b	1.35	1.85 ^b	1.35	3.56 ^b	1.07	1.86 ^b	1.32
Control	4.34 ^c	1.35	4.26 ^c	1.44	4.76 ^c	1.28	4.21 ^c	1.47

Note. N=286. Condition means within columns not sharing a subscript differ significantly at the $p < .05$ level. All dependent variables were measured on a 7-point scale. Higher means indicate that the target was rated as higher on the variable of interest.

TABLE 7:
MANOVA Analyses for Volitionality and Intentionality on Outcome Variables

	<i>Trust</i>	<i>Trustworthiness</i>	<i>BI</i>	<i>Outcome</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Self</i>	<i>Relationship</i>
Volitionality	2.42 ^t	2.10	1.53	3.15*	4.07*	1.56	4.74**
Intentionality	221.67**	207.32**	215.81**	140.16**	205.54**	48.00**	211.89**
Vol x Inten	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

Note. $N = 286$. Table entries are F-values. Trust, trustworthiness and BI were entered together in one MANOVA and Outcome, process, self and relationship were entered together in a separate MANOVA.

^t $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 8:
3 x 3 Univariate ANOVA on Authenticity

	Authenticity
Volitionality	7.46**
Intentionality	225.85**
Volitionality x Intentionality	1.65
Overall Model <i>F</i>	59.42**
<i>DF</i>	8, 286

Note. *N* = 285. Table entries are F-values for between-subjects tests.

†*p* < .10, **p* < .05, ***p* < .01

TABLE 9:
Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Perceived Authenticity on Volitionality and Intentionality

	β	R^2	R^2_{adjusted}	df
Step 1		.011	-.007	5, 277
Gender	-.076			
Age	-.044			
Work	-.030			
Education	.007			
Race/Ethnicity	.044			
Step 2		.839	.835	7, 275
Volitionality	.191**			
Intentionality	.831**			
Step 3		.843	.839	8, 274
Volitionality x Intentionality	.065*			
Overall Model F	184.528**	--	--	8, 274

Note: Predictors are centered (Aiken & West, 1991) and the interaction term is based on the centered variables. * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$.

TABLE 10:
Linear Regression Analysis: Perceived Authenticity as a Predictor of Dependent Variables

	<i>Trust</i>	<i>Trustworthiness</i>	<i>Outcome</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Self</i>	<i>Relationship</i>
Model 1						
Authenticity	.931**	.905**	.887**	.923**	.701**	.932**
R-Square	.866**	.819**	.786**	.852**	.491**	.868**
Model 2						
Volitionality	.109**	.068*	.103**	.113**	.137**	.146**
Intentionality	.866**	.887**	.827**	.885**	.630**	.872**
R-Square	.868**	.836**	.758**	.869**	.479**	.876**
Model 3						
Volitionality	.012	-.022	-.007	.025	.057	.057
Intentionality	.473**	.505**	.358**	.514**	.291*	.458**
Authenticity	.503**	.464**	.507**	.415**	.413**	.468**
R-Square	.911**	.872**	.812**	.902**	.508**	.912**

Note. $N = 286$. The continuous manipulation check measures were used for the volitionality and intentionality variables. Table entries are standardized regression coefficients. Prior to the analysis, it was determined that both volitionality and intentionality significantly predicted authenticity at $p < .001$. The independent variables were centered to reduce the effect of multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991).

^t $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 11:
ANOVA Mediation Analyses: Authenticity as a Mediator
of Volitionality and Intentionality on Dependent Variables

	<i>Trust</i>	<i>Trustworthiness</i>	<i>Outcome</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Self</i>	<i>Relationship</i>
Model 1 (IV→DV)						
Volitionality	2.42 ^t	2.09	2.63 ^t	3.81 [*]	1.40	4.82 [*]
Intentionality	221.67 ^{**}	207.32 ^{**}	137.33 ^{**}	204.45 ^{**}	47.20 ^{**}	215.30 ^{**}
Model 2 (IV→MED→DV)						
Volitionality	1.68	.91	1.07	.22	.64	.25
Intentionality	13.47 ^{**}	8.60 ^{**}	3.69 [*]	8.19 ^{**}	1.57	6.77 ^{**}
Authenticity	622.34 ^{**}	382.79 ^{**}	390.75 ^{**}	531.88 ^{**}	127.33 ^{**}	571.54 ^{**}

Note. $N = 286$. Table entries are F-values. In prior analyses, it was determined that authenticity significantly predicted all of the dependent variables at $p < .001$ and volitionality and intentionality both significantly related to ratings of authenticity at $p < .001$.

^t $p < .10$, ^{*} $p < .05$, ^{**} $p < .01$

TABLE 12:
Bootstrap Test Results: Authenticity as a Mediator
of Volitionality and Intentionality on Dependent Variables

	<i>Trust</i>	<i>Trstwrthiness</i>	<i>Outcome</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Self</i>	<i>Relationship</i>
Volitionality						
Indirect Effect	--	--	--	.29	--	.29
95% CI	--	--	--	.01 – .55	--	.03 - .54
Intentionality						
Indirect Effect	.77	.54	.67	.81	.37	.81
95% CI	.55 - .98	.39-.69	.49 - .88	.56 – 1.04	.25 - .48	.57 – 1.01

Note. $N = 286$. Table entries are unstandardized indirect effects.

**FIGURE 1:
Model of Perceived Authenticity**

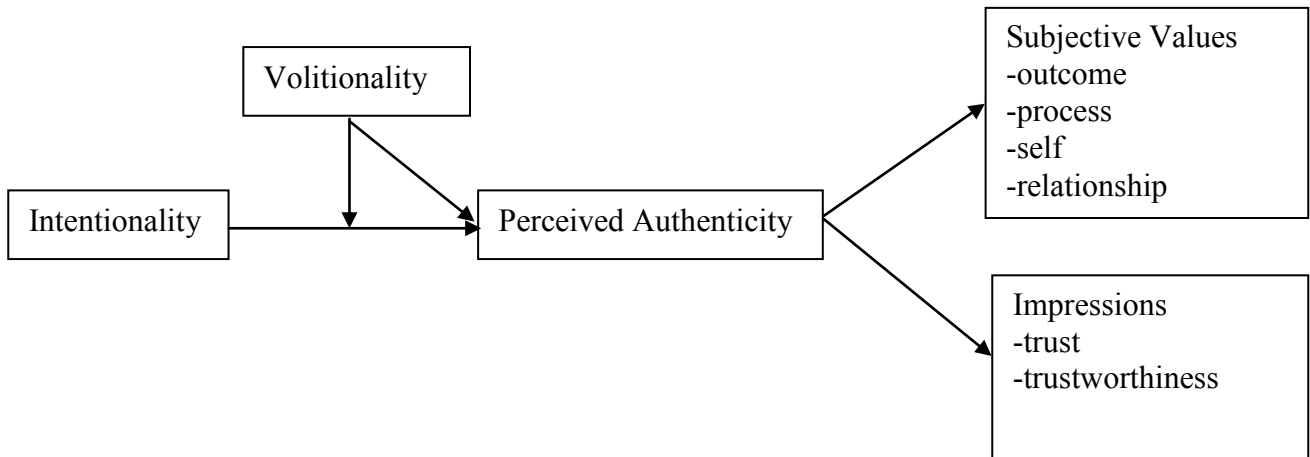
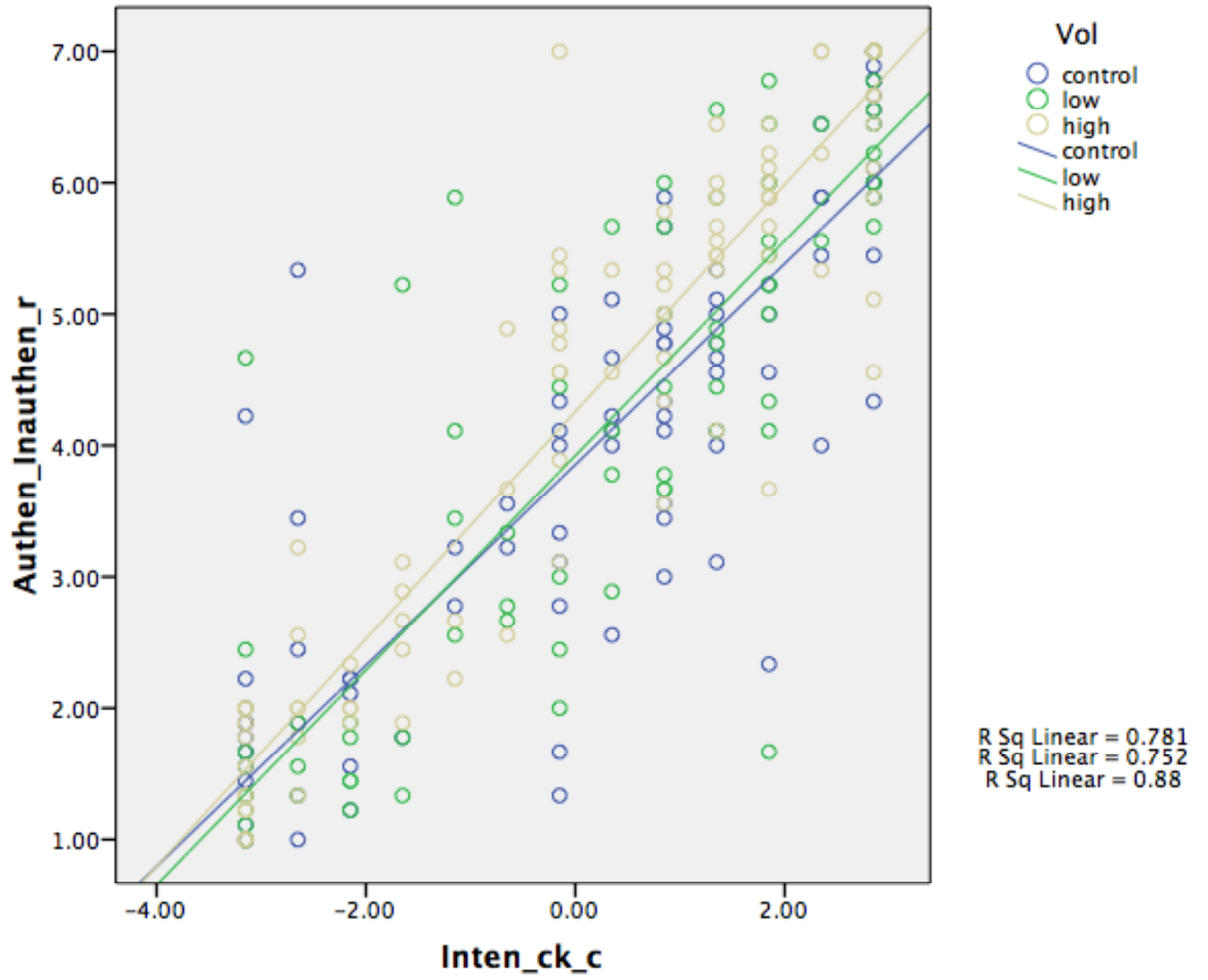


FIGURE 2:
Scatter plot of Volitionality x Intentionality on Perceived Authenticity



**APPENDIX A:
Institutional Review Board Approval**

Perceived Authenticity of Leader Values, PART II

Protocol ID	14-068
PI	Kathryn Roloff
PI Type	Student
Faculty Sponsor	W. Warner Burke
Faculty Sponsor Acceptance Status	Accepted
Department	
Submitted By	Kathryn Roloff
Co-PI's	
External P.I.'s	
Approval Status	Full Board Approved
Date Received	11/13/2013
Date of Completion	
Date Approved	12/05/2013
Approval Expires	11/18/2015
Proposed Start Date	
End Date	
Date Closed	
Funding Source	no
IRB Review Fee	
Grant Number	
Consent Waived	Not Requested
Waiver of Documentation of Informed Consent	Not Requested

APPENDIX B: Stimulus Materials

Version 1: High Volitionality/High Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, it is completely up to each manager to decide whether to ask candidates for their input into promotion decisions. That is, there are no corporate requirements that your manager ask candidates for their input. Your manager has taken it upon himself to seek such input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your manager has decided to allow you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision about who will be promoted. Your manager prefers to do this in written form, so has asked you and your colleagues to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was very concerned with making a decision that was fair to everyone, one that selected the best person for the job. Your manager read all of the written documents carefully, and after doing so consulted with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: “Things are being done this way because I care a lot about making decisions in the fairest way possible.”

In short, every indication is that your manager made a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and intended to make a fair decision.

Version 2: Low Volitionality/High Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, your manager has to adhere to a strict corporate requirement of asking candidates for their input. In other words, it is not optional for your manager to seek such input. Your manager is required to ask for input from candidates when making promotion decisions.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. To be in compliance with corporate policy, your manager has asked you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision about who will be promoted. The corporate policy requires this to be done in written form, so you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was very concerned with making a decision that was fair to everyone, one that selected the best person for the job. Your manager read all of the written documents carefully, and after doing so consulted with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: “Things are being done this way because I care a lot about making decisions in the fairest way possible.”

In short, every indication is that your manager made a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and intended to make a fair decision.

Version 3: Control Volitionality/High Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, candidates may be asked to provide input either because their manager took it upon him or herself to ask for their input or because the manager has to comply with a strict corporate policy to ask for their input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your input has been requested. However, it is not clear whether the manager took it upon himself to seek your input, or whether he did so to be in compliance with a corporate requirement. In any event, you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was very concerned with making a decision that was fair to everyone, one that selected the best person for the job. Your manager read all of the written documents carefully, and after doing so consulted with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: "Things are being done this way because I care a lot about making decisions in the fairest way possible."

In short, every indication is that your manager made a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and intended to make a fair decision.

Version 4: High Volitionality/Low Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, it is completely up to each manager to decide whether to ask candidates for their input into promotion decisions. That is, there are no corporate requirements that your manager ask candidates for their input. Your manager has taken it upon himself to seek such input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your manager has decided to allow you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision about who will be promoted. Your manager prefers to do this in written form, so has asked you and your colleagues to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was not very concerned with making a fair decision or selecting the best person for the job. Your manager only skimmed all of the written documents and did not consult with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: “Things are being done this way because I really don’t care about making decisions in the fairest way possible.”

In short, every indication is that your manager did not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and did not intend to make a fair decision.

Version 5: Low Volitionality/Low Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, your manager has to adhere to a strict corporate requirement of asking candidates for their input. In other words, it is not optional for your manager to seek such input. Your manager is required to ask for input from candidates when making promotion decisions.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. To be in compliance with corporate policy, your manager has asked you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision about who will be promoted. The corporate policy requires this to be done in written form, so you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was not very concerned with making a fair decision or selecting the best person for the job. Your manager only skimmed all of the written documents and did not consult with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: “Things are being done this way because I really don’t care about making decisions in the fairest way possible.”

In short, every indication is that your manager did not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and did not intend to make a fair decision.

Version 6: Control Volitionality/Low Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, candidates may be asked to provide input either because their manager took it upon him or herself to ask for their input or because the manager has to comply with a strict corporate policy to ask for their input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your input has been requested. However, it is not clear whether the manager took it upon himself to seek your input, or whether he did so to be in compliance with a corporate requirement. In any event, you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you received information from a very reliable source that your manager was not very concerned with making a fair decision or selecting the best person for the job. Your manager only skimmed all of the written documents and did not consult with peers about who should be selected for the position. In fact, you overheard your manager say: “Things are being done this way because I really don’t care about making decisions in the fairest way possible.”

In short, every indication is that your manager did not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision and did not intend to make a fair decision.

Version 7: High Volitionality/Control Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, it is completely up to each manager to decide whether to ask candidates for their input into promotion decisions. That is, there are no corporate requirements that your manager ask candidates for their input. Your manager has taken it upon himself to seek such input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your manager has decided to allow you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision about who will be promoted. Your manager prefers to do this in written form, so has asked you and your colleagues to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you discussed the promotion process with a colleague. At this point it is not clear whether your manager will or will not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision (and intend to make a fair decision).

Version 8: Low Volitionality/Control Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, your manager has to adhere to a strict corporate requirement of asking candidates for their input. In other words, it is not optional for your manager to seek such input. Your manager is required to ask for input from candidates when making promotion decisions.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. To be in compliance with corporate policy, your manager has asked you and your colleagues to provide input into the decision about who will be promoted. The corporate policy requires this to be done in written form, so you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You also know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you discussed the promotion process with a colleague. At this point it is not clear whether your manager will or will not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision (and intend to make a fair decision).

Version 9: Control Volitionality/Control Intentionality

You are working in an organization that is witnessing a lot of shifts in its external environment (for example, the globalization of business, greater competition, and rapid advances in technology). As a result, your organization and your managers have been introducing a variety of changes in how they do business, including changes in strategy, culture, and how decisions are made in general.

A position that you have long wanted to be promoted to has just become available, and you have applied for the position. During times of change, one type of decision of obvious importance is promotions. When it comes to promotion decisions, candidates may be asked to provide input either because their manager took it upon him or herself to ask for their input or because the manager has to comply with a strict corporate policy to ask for their input.

A number of your colleagues also have applied for the position, some of whom are very well qualified, so it is not at all assured that you are going to get the promotion. Your input has been requested. However, it is not clear whether the manager took it upon himself to seek your input, or whether he did so to be in compliance with a corporate requirement. In any event, you and your colleagues have been asked to prepare a written statement (not more than a few pages long) about why they should be selected for the position. You know that it will be at least a few weeks before any decision is made.

During the time period in which your manager was deciding who will get the promotion, you discussed the promotion process with a colleague. At this point it is not clear whether your manager will or will not make a good faith effort to seriously consider your input into the decision (and intend to make a fair decision).

**APPENDIX C:
Questionnaire**

Main Dependent Variable: Perceived Authenticity

Based upon what you read, how would you describe the manager’s decision to seek employee input about the promotion decision?

Authentic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Authentic
Genuine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Genuine
Real	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Real
From the Heart	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not from the Heart
Consistent with personal values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not consistent with personal values
[INAUTHENTIC]								
Fake	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Fake
Deceitful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Deceitful
Phony								Not Phony
Forced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Forced

Manipulation Checks

How much was the manager’s decision to seek employee input...

done out of his own free will (own initiative)?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much

something that he was required to do?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

How much did the manager intend to...

bring about a fair outcome?

Not Intended 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Intended

select the best person for the promotion?

Not Intended 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Intended

Dependent Variable Measures

Impressions about the manager

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about this manager.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

This manager has a strong sense of justice.

I never would have to wonder whether this manager would stick to his word.

This manager's actions and behaviors do not seem to be very consistent.

I like this manager's values.

This manager's behavior is guided by sound principles.

This manager tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.

I would trust this manager.

This manager would try to do the right thing by me.

This manager would take account of my needs when making decisions that affect me.

This manager would care about my point-of-view.

There is a match between this manager's words and actions.

This manager would deliver on promises.

This manager practices what he/she preaches.

This manager would conduct himself by the same values he talks about.

This manager would do what he says he will do.

This manager would show the same priorities that he/she describes.

When this manager promises something, I would be certain that it would happen.

If this manager says he is going to do something, he will.

Subjective Values Framework

Feelings about the outcome

If you had to guess, how would you rate the outcome of this decision for you?

Unfavorable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Favorable

How satisfied would you be with your manager's promotion decision?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

Do you expect the outcome to be more favorable for you, for your manager or both?

Better for me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Better for manager

To what extent do you think the outcome of the decision would be considered to be legitimate by others?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

Feelings about the process

Would you characterize this promotion process as fair?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

How satisfied would you be with how your manager went about making the promotion decision?

Very Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Satisfied

How much would you feel like your manager listened to you?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

How much do you think this manager considered your wishes, opinions, or needs?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

Feelings about the self

How would this process affect your self-image or impression of yourself?

Very Negatively 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Positively

Would this process make you feel more or less competent at your job?

Less Competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 More Competent

How would you feel about *yourself* as a result of this promotion process?

Generally bad 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Generally good

To what extent would this process make you feel like you acted consistently with your own personal values?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

Feelings about the relationship

What kind of “overall” impression do you have of this manager?

Extremely Negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely Positive

How satisfied would you be with your relationship with this manager as a result of this promotion process?

Extremely Dissatisfied 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely Satisfied

Would the promotion process enhance your trust in this manager?

Not at All 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

Would this manager’s behavior build a good foundation for a future relationship with you?

Not at All 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Much

ABOUT YOU

Please provide some information about yourself:

1) Sex: Male _____ Female _____

2) Race/Ethnicity (check all that apply):

- _____ African American or Black
- _____ Asian
- _____ American Indian or Alaska Native
- _____ Hispanic or Latino
- _____ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
- _____ White
- _____ Other (Please specify _____)

3) Age in years: _____

4) Years of full-time work experience: _____

5) Years of college education completed: _____

6) Highest degree obtained:

- _____ High School Diploma/GED
- _____ Associates Degree
- _____ Bachelors Degree
- _____ Master's Degree
- _____ PhD