



Research School of Management

Sometimes Sharks Appear in Lakes Too: Tridirectional Insights on Leader Humility and Its Influence on Employee Behavior

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Doctor of Philosophy

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SOMETIMES SHARKS APPEAR IN LAKES TOO: TRIDIRECTIONAL INSIGHTS ON LEADER HUMILITY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOR

ABSTRACT

Most research on leader humility to date has focused on positive outcomes, portraying humble behaviors as unequivocally beneficial to followers and leaders. However, scant research has examined the detrimental aspects of leader humility. This thesis challenges the consensus that leader humility is largely beneficial for followers and leaders. Using a relationship-cognition research lens, the overall objective of this thesis is to explore the seemingly contradictory (paradoxical), detrimental, and pseudo-beneficial outcomes of leader humility on followers and leaders in an organizational context. The thesis consists of three studies. Adopting a follower-centric approach, Study 1 examines the consequences of follower behavior when followers positively perceive leader humility. This study reveals that leader humility has seemingly contradictory effects on followers' voice behavior. Study 2 examines the consequences of follower behavior when followers positively perceive leader humility but attribute it negatively. The results of this field study reveal that leader humility is ineffective when followers attribute the humility to impression management. Adopting a leader-centric approach, Study 3 examines the consequences of leader behavior when leaders positively perceive their own humility. The results of this study demonstrate that leaders' humble behavior is positively associated with increases in unethical behavior. Thus, this thesis provides novel theoretical contributions and insight into the literature on leader humility. Practically, the thesis offers suggestions to organizations to encourage humility in leaders while simultaneously taking steps to mitigate any negative consequences of humble leader behavior.

Keywords: *Leader humility, Hypocrisy, Voice, Unethical behavior*

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I dedicate this thesis to Darwin, EVR Periyar, and Newton.

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CHAPTER ONE

SOMETIMES SHARKS APPEAR IN LAKES TOO: TRIDIRECTIONAL INSIGHTS ON LEADER HUMILITY AND ITS INFLUENCE ON EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOR

1. Research Objective and Questions

In the contemporary hypercompetitive business environment, leaders must have a wide range of expertise, soft skills, openness to new experiences, and self-awareness to overcome present and future business challenges (Hill, Brandeau, Truelove, & Lineback, 2014). Accordingly, scholars and practitioners encourage leaders to have more humility and less hubris (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005; Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez, 2004). Leader humility is conceptualized as follows: 1) willingness to view oneself accurately; 2) teachability, or openness to new ideas and feedback; 3) appreciating others' strengths and contributions (Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013). In the context of humility, leader behavior goes beyond the conventional definition of a leader, that is, it refers to more than a "director of activity." Leader humility enhances the importance of followers, and can lead to a highly positive image of leaders (Haslam & Platow, 2001; Hollander, 1992; Owens, 2009; Van Vugt, 2006). Over the past 100 years, leadership studies have portrayed effective leaders as dominant, aggressive, and masculine—anything but humble (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). The recent change in the conventional image of leadership may influence followers' perceptions of and behavior toward their leaders, either positively, negatively, or both. However, this change may also affect leaders who choose a more humble approach to leadership. To date, research has shown that leader humility has several positive effects on followers (Owens & Hekman, 2015; Owens, Wallace, &

Waldman, 2015; Rego et al., 2017). Consequently, the current assumption is that leader humility represents a positive management practice. Nevertheless, it is unclear whether this assumption holds when considering the influence of the factors of followers' negative attribution of leader humility, an overly positive perception of leaders' humble behavior, and humble leaders' positive perception of themselves. Thus, the assumption that leader humility is a positive management practice may be premature. Following this line of reasoning, unlike the prior studies that examine the beneficial outcomes of leader humility, the current study examines the seemingly contradictory (paradoxical), detrimental, and pseudo-beneficial effects of leader humility on followers and leaders.

Given that leader humility is a social-cognitive construct, and that the leader–follower relationship is ongoing, I adopt a social-cognitive approach to shed light on the nature of the leader–follower relationship.

Insert Figure 1.1 about here

Prior studies have failed to notice the social-cognitive importance of relationships in the workplace (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Boyd & Taylor, 1998; Ferris et al., 2009; Thomas, Martin, Epitropaki, Guillaume, & Lee, 2013). Unlike previous relationship-based approaches to leadership that focus on the quality of the relationship (e.g., LMX), by relying on a relationship-cognition lens (i.e., content, structure, and process) (see Figure 1.1), the present study uses a person-based (e.g., the leader or the follower) approach to explore specific theories to achieve a more in-depth understanding of leader–follower relationships and perceptions, and their influence on followers and leaders.

Employing a relationship-cognition lens, the central research question of this thesis is as follows: What are the contradictory, detrimental and (pseudo) beneficial outcomes of leader humility on employees in an organizational context? To address this research question, three specific studies were conducted, each driven by three specific research questions and theories as outlined below:

Study 1. What are the consequences on follower behavior of followers positively perceiving leader humility? This question employs a follower-centric approach based on attachment theory.

Study 2. What are the consequences on follower behavior of followers positively perceiving leader humility but attributing it negatively? This question employs a follower-centric approach based on person-perception and attribution theories.

Study 3. What are the consequences on leader behavior of leaders positively perceiving their own humble behavior? This question employs a leader-centric approach based on moral-licensing and accountability theories.

1.1. Brief Introduction to Study 1

Although prior studies have shown that leader humility is generally beneficial, and that the follower's increased sense of security arising from leader humility results in desirable outcomes (Popper & Mayseless, 2003; Wu, Parker, & De Jong, 2013), this study moves beyond these calculated and intentional explanations by examining the seemingly contradictory outcomes to which leader humility may lead, and aiming to gain better understand of these outcomes through the attachment model. More specifically, Study 1 examines the seemingly contradictory (paradoxical) outcomes when followers become overly attached to leaders because of the leader's uniformly positive humble behavior. The study seeks to discover the

consequences on follower behavior (i.e., challenging voice and defensive voice) of followers positively perceiving leader humility. Simply put, we examine whether engaging in humble leader behaviors can cause followers to engage in contradictory voice behaviors and, if so, what the mechanisms are. To map the cognitive “structure” of the relationship mind, Study 1 employs attachment theory to understand the effect of individuals’ structure of the working models (i.e., leaders/relationship). Specifically, we adopt attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969/1982), as it can explain how the individuals’ (e.g., children’s or followers’) perception of support from their caregivers (e.g., parents or leaders) influences their exploratory tendencies, such as novelty seeking and challenging their environment, in ways which parallel their voice behavior. The study has implications for the understanding of leader–follower relationships. Study 1 employs a quantitative method (i.e., empirical methods) to examine the data from information technology (IT) organizations in Taiwan (for details on the methodology employed, see Chapter 3). I conduct a multi-source and multi-wave survey study to test the proposed hypotheses. Although I measure the study variables at the individual level, after taking into consideration the rater effect results on followers’ voice behaviors, I opt to use multilevel analysis in SPSS to test the proposed hypotheses.

To examine further our overall research questions, in Study 2 we explore the detrimental outcomes. Unlike Study 1, which explores the contradictory outcomes or pseudo beneficial effect when leader humility is uniformly positively perceived, this study investigates the effects on followers’ behavior if they perceive leader humility positively but attribute it negatively. Study 2 explores this research question by adopting perception and attribution theories

1.2. Brief Introduction to Study 2

Past studies in leadership cognition and relationship science have suggested that the “content” of individual’s cognition (i.e., expectations, standards, and beliefs) constitute individuals’ cognitive representation of the relationship (Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991; Thomas et al., 2013). Given that the content of cognition varies widely, Study 2 focuses on followers’ perceptions and attributions associated with leaders, which in part determine the leader–follower relationship. Studies have also shown how individuals’ schemas play a crucial role in their motivations in a relationship (Baldwin, 1992, 1995; McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998). Prior studies have revealed that leaders use humility as a cover or for “impression-management tactics” to mitigate the negative consequences of narcissistic behavior (Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015). In turn, followers may not perceive their leader’s humble behavior as genuine, but rather as a mere impression-management tactic and thus consider the manager disingenuous and/or hypocrite. Building on this recognition, Study 2 employs the person-perception (Fritz, 1958) and attribution theories (Wong & Weiner, 1981) to examine the consequences on follower behavior of followers positively perceiving leader humility but attributing it negatively, namely, hypocrisy. The overall objective of this work is to explore how followers evaluate leader humility behaviors and to examine the influence of such evaluations on their own behaviors. Specifically, we answer the call to find and examine a potential moderator that renders a leader’s apparent humility as ineffective.

We collect data in Taiwan (survey-based study) and Canada (scenario-based study) to test the proposed hypotheses; the studies employ empirical methods to examine data. We also

employ endogeneity analysis¹ (for details on the methodology employed, the data collection, and location, see Chapter 4). Simply put, this study unveils a previously unexamined area in the leader-humility literature and provides theoretical and empirical evidence that opens a new avenue in humility research (for more information, see Chapter 4).

As stated earlier, my aim is to explore the consequences of leader humility on employees' contradictory, detrimental, and pseudo-beneficial behaviors in an organizational context. Study 1 and Study 2 adopt a follower-centric approach to explore the influence of leader humility on followers' seemingly contradictory and detrimental behavior. In human relationships, social comparisons are inevitable, particularly when individuals receive an increasing amount of praise from others. It is logical to believe that such praise increases the likelihood of engaging in a process of social comparison (i.e., comparing oneself within and across relationships), which may lead individuals to believe that they have displayed morally praiseworthy behaviors. In this sense, I believe that when leaders perceive their humility as morally praiseworthy, it may impact their morality and subsequent behavior. To examine this, I have conducted Study 3 to examine leader humility impact on leaders' behavior.

1.3. Brief Introduction to Study 3

Study 3 focuses on the “process” of cognition in leader–follower relationships. An important process in a leadership context is relationship maintenance (Dindia & Canary, 1993; Leana & Barry, 2000). Previous studies have argued that committed individuals sometimes relinquish their self-interest for broader considerations (Canary, Stafford, Hause, & Wallace, 1993; Thomas

¹ Initially, I did not plan for endogeneity analysis, but it was conducted due to the editor and reviewers' request/interest.

et al., 2013). However, during the social-comparison processes, individuals regularly compare themselves both within and across relationships, which may lead to positive and negative outcomes (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007). Therefore, in this study, I seek to answer the following questions: 1) Does leader humility have a detrimental effect on leaders' behavior? 2) If so, under what conditions are such detrimental effects likely to emerge? To do so, the study adopts a leader-centric approach and employs moral-licensing theory to investigate the path from leader humility to unethical behavior toward and for the organization. In addition, drawing on the theory of accountability, the study also suggests a solution for mitigating the self-oriented leader behavior; however, the solution has both a pseudo-beneficial and a detrimental effect.

For Study 3, I collect data in Taiwan to test the proposed hypotheses (for more information, see Chapter 5). This study contributes to both the leader-humility literature and moral-licensing theory by suggesting a solution for mitigating certain negative outcomes. In addition, in relation to accountability theory, the study also shows that accountability is not uniformly beneficial, and can also have negative implications for leadership development in organizations.

1.4. Thesis Structure

The present study has six chapters. Chapter 1 explains the research motivation, objectives, and process. Chapter 2 presents the literature review of leader humility, and briefly discusses the outcomes of this leader behavior. Chapters 3, 4, and 5 present the introduction, theoretical development, sampling method, and data analysis. Finally, Chapter 6 presents the overall discussion and conclusions of the proposed studies.

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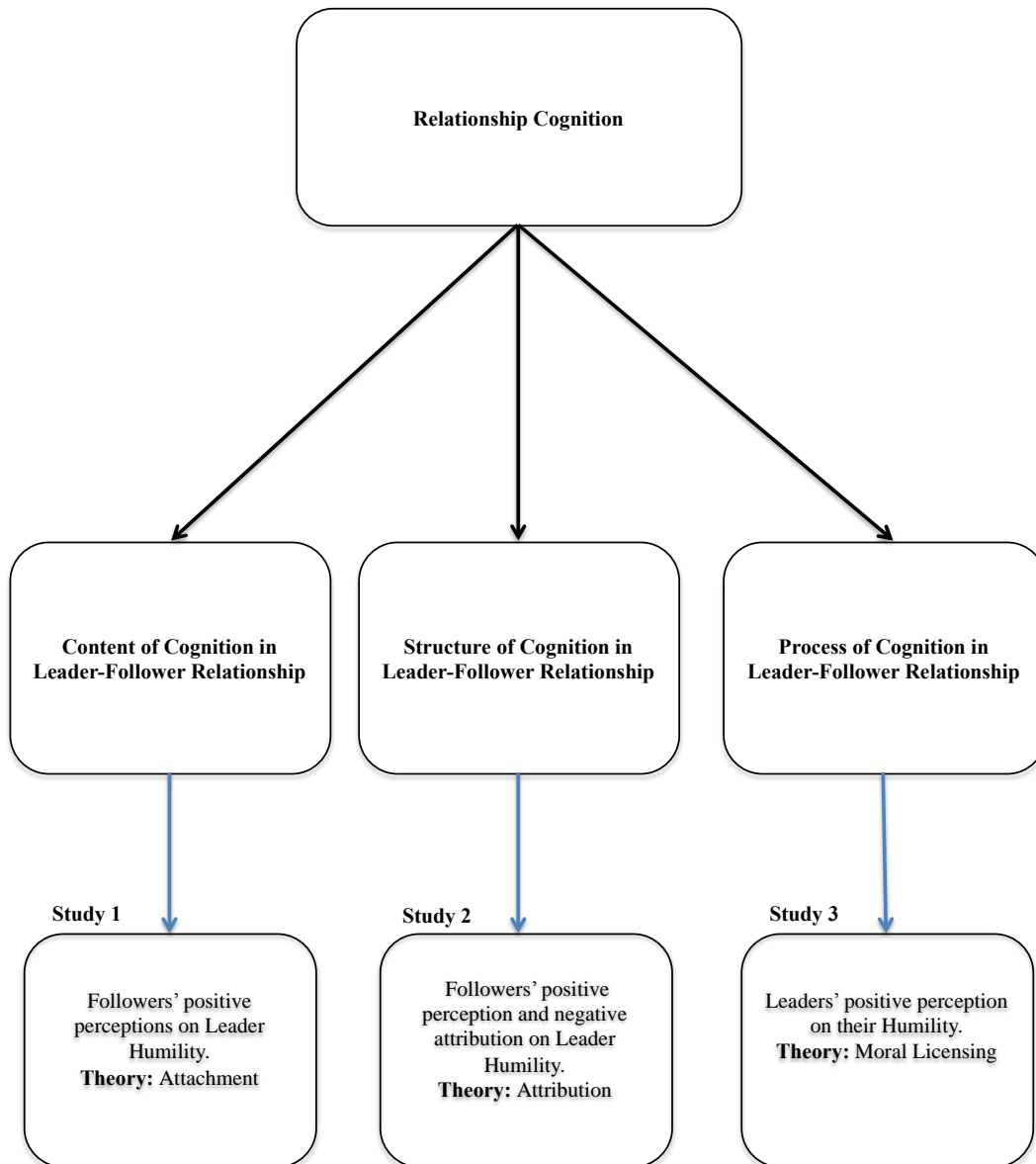


Figure 1.1. An integrative framework of the proposed studies

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review focuses on humility in an organizational context, particularly on leader humility and its consequences. The literature review is divided into the following sections. Section 2.1 provides a brief definition of the term “humility” in general and the importance of humility in the organizational context. Section 2.2 provides the details of the theoretical models employed in the studies and explains the scales of leader humility developed by Owens and Hekman (2012). Section 2.3 presents a brief discussion of the relevant constructs of humility. Section 2.4 reviews the theoretical framework to explain the effect of leader humility on different levels (i.e., on the individual, team, and firm) and presents the gaps in the humility literature.

2.1. Humility

Humility is considered a virtue. The term “humility” is derived from the Latin term “humilitas,” which refers to the state of being “humble” or “grounded.” The trait of humility is emphasized in the workplace as leading to moral actions (Nielsen, Marrone, & Slay, 2010; Owens & Hekman, 2012). In the past, humility has been perceived as representing weakness, shyness, or a lack of confidence; however, positive organizational psychology now emphasizes humility as a positive component of the self. For example, humility is defined by Nielsen et al. (2010) as a “desirable personal quality that [represents] an understanding of oneself through awareness of personal identities, strengths, and limitations” (p. 34). Further, theorists have proposed that humility is a shift from *self-focus* to *other's focus* that emphasizes the valuation of

other people (Exline & Geyer, 2004; Nielsen et al., 2010; Tangney, 2000). Having this trait allows individuals to display openness to others' ideas and opinions, value the contribution of others, and seek feedback from others for their own improvement (Morris et al., 2005; Nielsen et al., 2010; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Thus, the individual's self-awareness and realistic view of the environment can make them humble as well as competitive. Recently, the trait of humility has been receiving increasing attention in organizational research because of the nature of today's knowledge economy in emphasizing the leader–follower relationship and the importance of a two-way learning process in this relationship. The following sections explain the details of the leader-humility construct and its consequences in an organizational context.

2.2. Definition of Construct of Leader Humility

Although humility has long been conceptually examined in the literature, the first leader-humility scale was developed recently by Owens and Hekman (2012). In this scale, humility is manifest by the following set of interpersonal characteristics: 1) willingness to view oneself accurately; 2) modeling teachability (openness to new ideas and feedback); 3) appreciation of others' strengths and contributions (Owens, 2009). First, leaders can recognize their self and self in relation to others by developing a holistic self-concept (Nielsen et al., 2010). In reflecting “this willingness, humble individuals will thus assiduously seek out and thoroughly consider the opinions and ideas of others to gain a realistic sense of their own capabilities as well as limitations” (Nielsen et al., 2010, p. 34). Thus, acknowledging their own weakness leads leaders to be more open to receiving new information and appreciating those who are highlighting or providing this information, even if the information conflicts with the leader's beliefs (Owens & Hekman, 2015). From this perspective, a leader's willingness to see themselves accurately is

likely to endorse necessary ethical behavior and good relationships with other members of a team or the organization (Owens, Rowatt, & Wilkins, 2011).

Second, humility can also be connected to the concept of self-transcendence (Dennett, 1995; Tangney, 2002). The thinking of people who have a self-transcendent pursuit is less about themselves; these people do not place themselves at the center of their own world (Tangney, 2000; Templeton, 1998). The passion of such individuals for the greater whole is intense, which leads to forgetting the self. As a result, self-transcendent individuals are free from excessive egos and attention-creating factors (Crocker, Garcia, & Nuer, 2008). Studies note that “drawing attention to others’ strengths, being open to others’ ideas and perspectives and being willing to acknowledge personal limits are all manifestations of transcending the self” (Owens & Hekman, 2015, p. 5). Along this line, humble behaviors (e.g., openness to new ideas and information, and willingness to learn) foster an open and safe environment for new ideas and feedback.

Third, humility fosters a positive work environment through openly recognizing and appreciating others’ strengths and contributions (Owens et al., 2011) without feeling threatened (Owens et al., 2011). That is, humility supports one’s own view of others’ strengths without the eliciting feelings of inferiority. In summary, humility shapes how the individual views themselves, others, and new ideas and information, and the outcomes of this in the workplace is the creation of cooperative relationships and a safe and proactive environment.

It should be noted that the perception of humility varies depending on cultural context. In the present research, the conceptualization of leader humility was examined in the Asian context, with the findings demonstrating some unique outcomes in the Asian context; however, the existing nine items were consistent despite the cultural context (Oc, Bashshur, Daniels, Greguras, & Diefendorff, 2015).

2.3. Constructs Related to Leader Humility

The newly developed humility construct is related to many existing constructs but is also distinct from them, for example, modesty, openness to experience, and learning goal orientation. This section briefly explains the differences between humility and other related constructs. Table 2.1, taken from Owens (2009), presents the correlations between humility and other similar constructs.

Modesty refers to a “played-down” estimation of one’s qualities and successes, while humility refers to an accurate understanding of one’s strengths and weaknesses. More importantly, humility focuses on personal learning and development through self-evaluative information (Morris et al., 2005); however, modesty is more related to the motivation of not drawing the attention of others or boasting about oneself.

Openness to experience is one of the personalities in the Big Five model. This personality type refers to a person who has broad interests, appreciates novelty, and endorses unusual ideas (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Although openness to experience is similar to teachability (one of the dimensions in humility), teachability focuses on the individual’s self-evaluative information, whereas openness to experience focuses on general (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Unlike teachability and openness to experience, humility focuses on self-evaluation, self-development, and self-transcendence.

Learning-goal orientation is related to motivation and mastering the task at hand. That is, learning-goal orientation describes the behavioral-response pattern in achievement situations, whereas humility describes the response pattern in self-evaluative situations (Owens et al., 2011). Practically speaking, learning-goal orientation is important for competencies and

mastering new situations, but is not related to the possible effects of acknowledging others' strengths on performance in the workplace.

Core self-evaluation (CSE) represents the comprehensive view of the self, which encompasses an individual's baseline evaluations about themselves, their own abilities, and their own control (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). CSE comprises the following four lower-order constructs: generalized self-efficacy, internal locus of control, self-esteem, and emotional stability. Humility reflects a motivation for an accurate self-view, whereas generalized self-efficacy reflects self-beliefs. Although humility and internal locus of control share a common theoretical ground, the internal locus of control pays attention to external incidents and beliefs, whereas humility is more focused on personal development. Considered as a whole, unlike humility, CSE pays little attention to how viewing others may influence workplace performance.

Insert Table 2.1 about here

2.4. Leader Humility Outcomes

For this literature review, a meta-analysis for leader humility over the past 5 to 10 years was performed. An extensive search of the major databases, including JSTOR, EBSCOHostEJS, PsychLit, PsycInfo, and ECONbase was undertaken using the following keywords:

- leader humility in organizational context
- leader humility outcomes on followers and top-management team (TMT) members
- leader humility effects on team performance
- antecedents of leader humility
- leader humility as a moderator and mediator
- the dark side of leader humility.

Following this, an investigation using search engines including Google Scholar and the Australian National University's (ANU's) Super Search was also conducted using similar keywords filtering extensively for leading journals in the field of organizational behavior. In short, the current literature on leader humility focuses on its positive effects and views it as a virtue. Given that humble leadership represents a less self-centered approach to leadership, and can thus increase the trust of followers (Nielsen et al., 2010), it being considered a virtue is unsurprising. However, some scholars appear to associate leader humility with vulnerability, inadequacy, and low confidence (Tangney, 2000). This view is consistent with the assistant-leadership perspective, which argues that leader humility involves the "ability to learn from and gratefully receive the gifts of the less powerful" (Greenleaf & Spears, 2002, p. 320). In consideration of the search results, the research on leader humility was divided into the following three categories: individual level, team level, and organizational level. These three levels are discussed in the following three subsections.

2.4.1. Leader humility and individual outcomes

Research examining the relationship of leader humility to outcomes for individuals is exceptionally poor. While the assumption remains that humble leadership is positive for the organization, there is limited research explaining when or how these positive outcomes arise.

Owens et al. (2011) suggest that leader humility may have important implications for developmental readiness because such leaders enable a type of interaction in which the developmental activities of leaders and followers are mutually reinforced. More insidiously however, Owens et al.'s (2013) findings suggest that leader humility has beneficial outcomes (e.g., for individual performance, satisfaction, learning-goal orientation, engagement, and turnover) for individual followers and teams. In another important implication for the

development of the leader–follower relationships, that is, the consideration of “faking” versus actually “becoming”, Owens et al. (2013) found that individual followers experience less disillusionment overall. Specifically, the relationship between leader humility and followers’ psychological empowerment is strong when the followers’ degree of power-distance orientation is strengthened (Jeung & Yoon, 2015). Along this line of reasoning, prior studies have also revealed that followers’ creativity and voice increase under humble leaders (Liu, Mao, & Chen, 2017). Nevertheless, I speculate that there is a possibility that leader humility may decrease creativity as it may foster group conformity. For instance, followers could feel inclusive under humble leaders, and as a result may not want to disturb the collective environment by reciprocating the friendliness of the humble behavior of the leaders. Consequently, it may lead to group conformity.

Further, researchers have analyzed how leaders’ multiple characteristics (e.g., narcissism and humility) influence followers’ job engagement and performance (Owens et al., 2015). The findings confirm that leader humility acts as a counterbalancing factor for leader narcissism, which paves a positive path toward followers’ performance and job engagement (Owens et al., 2015). Given the findings for the effect of humility on a negative trait (e.g., narcissism), it seems reasonable to expect that humility should produce a detrimental effect at the individual level. Examination of the detrimental effect of humility would be made richer if researchers broadened their lens to examine these issues.

2.4.2 Leader humility and group-level outcomes

While leadership has been argued to be the most influential contextual factor affecting team effectiveness, several studies have stated that a great deal more research is needed to foster

understanding of the connection between leader behavior and team effectiveness (Burke et al., 2006).

Greer (2013) extends the analysis of humility from the individual to the group level. Greer's (2013) study then examines the relationship between group humility and participative leadership, organizational citizenship, collective efficacy, and deeper team-learning orientation in organizations. The study finds group humility is positively related to group humility with participative leadership, organizational citizenship, collective efficacy, and deeper team-learning orientation.

Similarly, it is important to know how leader humility influences the performance of an entire team given that leadership is the most influential contextual factor. From this perspective, past research has stated that the followers reciprocate (i.e., collective humility) the leader's humble behavior, which fosters effective team functioning (Owens & Hekman, 2015). Further, results showed that team emergent state (i.e., collective humility) increases a team's collective promotion focus, which ultimately enhances team performance. However, Owens and Hekman (2015) did not examine the potential boundary conditions for the effectiveness of collective humility. Similar to Owens and Hekman (2015), Rego et al. (2017b) suggest that leader humility influences team performance through the team's collective psychological capital and the team's task-allocation effectiveness. However, unlike Owens and Hekman (2015), Rego et al. (2017b) argue that leader humility has heterogeneous effects. Further, Rego and Simpson (2016) assess the role of balanced processing between perceived humility and team effectiveness, which suggests adding humility to the authentic leadership. Following a different research focus, Chiu et al. (2016) show how leader humility and team-member characteristics foster the conditions that promote shared leadership, which ultimately influences team effectiveness.

The role of gender has been examined in the relationship between perceived charisma and humility, with findings showing that leader humility has a strong effect on female followers. In addition, humble female leaders are perceived as more charismatic by their female followers, but not by their male followers (Chiu & Owens, 2013). Research at the individual level has demonstrated the importance of considering team emergent state and team characteristics as additional boundary conditions that affect the expression of humility, as well as the outcomes of that expression.

2.4.3 Leader humility and organizational outcomes

Work examining the effect of humility on firm-level outcomes remains scant. The humility of chief executive officers (CEOs) is considered to lead to several positive outcomes for organizations, including for TMT integration, firm innovative behavior, and firm performance. While the assumption remains that humility is positive for the functioning of the organization, limited theoretical or empirical work exists explaining how or why these positive outcomes arise. As with the studies examining the effect of humility at the individual level, the studies at the organizational level also argue for the benefit of leader humility to the organization.

Ou et al. (2014) argue that CEO humility acts as a role model to set a group norm, and encourages middle managers to respond, which in turn creates a climate for empowerment within the TMT. To capture in-depth the degree of influence of CEO humility, Ou et al. (2014) developed new measures for humility along with the existing scales. In these new measures, they explored CEOs' low self-focus, self-transcendent pursuit, and transcendent self-concept. The results demonstrate that the influence of CEO humility in organizations at the level of TMT and at the individual level (middle managers) is connected to top and middle managers through collective perceptions of empowerment at both levels (Ou et al., 2014). Further, Ou et al. (2015)

proposed a mediation model to examine the relationship between CEO humility and organizational performance. They suggest that when a more humble CEO leads a firm, the TMT is more likely to adopt an ambidextrous strategic orientation, and that there tends to be lower pay disparity between the CEO and the TMT. This line of reasoning makes sense theoretically and fits conceptually with findings in other areas of the TMT literature; however, there is a problem with the way TMT retention is operationalized. Relatedly, Ou et al. (2015) demonstrated that when TMT fault lines are high, a TMT member's humility no longer sustains the middle manager's job satisfaction and voluntary leaving.

While limited, the emerging research on the effect of humility at the organizational level is interesting. In particular, there is an emphasis on the TMT fault line as a key boundary condition. Further research effort should be dedicated to examining the generalizability of these findings.

2.4.4. The gap in the Literature

Many studies agree that positive behavior such as humility is morally praiseworthy only when it is intrinsically motivated, incorporates the self-transcendence view, is oriented toward the enhancement of others, and is enacted without self-interest (Morris et al., 2005; Owens & Hekman, 2012). However, at times, individuals who display humble behavior do not possess these characteristics (Owens et al., 2015; Schimmel, 1992). Humility is not a one-shot exchange. When the other side of humility is considered, the model of humility becomes substantially richer, and the ability to predict an effect for humility is improved. Further, unlike many heroic and dominant leadership styles, in addition to other-oriented behaviors (e.g., appreciating and recognizing others), humble leaders also show vulnerability (e.g., through accepting their limitations and mistakes, enabling leader–follower role reversals, displaying teachability, and accepting and encouraging critical feedback), which may affect followers' behavior in positive

and/or negative ways (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Regardless of humble leaders' vulnerability, thus far, research almost universally argues that leader humility leads to clear positive follower behavior (Argandona, 2015; Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013; Rego et al., 2017; Rego & Simpson, 2018).

As discussed earlier in Chapter 1, unlike existing studies which show the positive outcome of leader humility, I have taken a different approach (the reasons are discussed in Chapter 1) by exploring the contradictory, detrimental, and pseudo beneficial outcomes of leader humility. As this approach is fairly new in the leader humility literature, and is still in the beginning stage, the following includes the brief literature support for all three studies. More details can be found in Chapters 3, 4, and 5.

Study 1. Research in leader humility has revealed that leaders can be both narcissistic and humble, and these two qualities may work together to increase positive outcomes (Owens et al., 2015). Despite leaders' dual characteristics (humility-narcissism) working together to benefit leadership effectiveness, scant research in this realm has questioned or even examined whether more humble leadership that includes leaders' vulnerability may be associated with more contradictory outcomes in followers' behaviors. Humble leaders shape how their followers view themselves, others, and their willingness to embrace new ideas/information which can promote cooperative relationships. It is clear that humble leaders provide a very safe environment for their followers. However, it is less clear how followers perceive that support. Does a humble leader's secure base support impact the follower's sense of security, subsequently leading to an increase in voice behavior? With this question in mind, Study 1 explores whether non-heroic humble behaviors impact followers' behavior in other than uniform, positive ways.

Study 2. At first glance, there are many reasons to expect followers to embrace the displays of humble leader behavior wholeheartedly. However, a more nuanced review of the past century of research reveals that leadership studies have more frequently portrayed effective leaders as dominant, aggressive, and masculine—anything but humble (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). Thus, the transformation of the conventional image of leadership may be influencing followers’ perceptions and attributions of humble behaviors.

Furthermore, impression management studies have argued that other-enhancement behaviors might convey both positive and negative signals (Bolino, 1999; Schlenker, 1980; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Given that humility behavior is other-oriented, it is possible that others could attribute such humility behavior to socially desirable motives. Thus, in Study 3 I explore the consequences of followers’ disconnect between perception and attribution. Specifically, what is the outcome when followers’ positively perceive leader humility but negatively attribute it to impression management?

Study 3. Prior studies have suggested that individuals who demonstrate “good citizenship” may incur unanticipated negative consequences because they are motivated by their positive self-image and sense of entitlement (Bolino, Klotz, Turnley, & Harvey, 2013; Merritt, Effron, & Monin, 2010).). Also, Yam et al., (2017) have shown a potential negative consequence of good citizenship behaviors when employees feel they are morally licensed. Following this line of reasoning, as mentioned at the outset, I argue that leader humility is morally praiseworthy behavior (i.e., benefits others with no external rewards promised a priori in return and discretionary) which may induce leaders to engage in unethical acts as a result of their sense that they have built up moral credits (i.e., credits earned through good behavior and accumulated in a metaphorical bank account). Therefore, Study 3 examines the relationship

between leader humility and leaders unethical behavior resulting from the accumulation of the leader's moral credit, and the ways to mitigate the detrimental outcomes of this tendency.

These explanations contain the initial literature support for all the next three of the upcoming Chapters. To conclude Chapter 2, Table 2.2 presents the integrative framework used in studies on leader humility, and demonstrates that the literature to date has almost exclusively focused on the beneficial outcomes of leader humility. Building on this notion, this thesis explores whether non-heroic humble behaviors affect follower behavior in ways that are not positive, that is, in ways that are contradictory, detrimental, and pseudo-beneficial, in an organizational context.

Insert Table 2.2 about here

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Table 2.1. Humility scale descriptive statistics and correlations

Variable	1	2	3	4
Humility		.62**	.31**	.34**
Modesty	.01		.09	.10
Openness to experience	.27**	-.45**		.51**
Core self evaluation	.14	-.31**	.37**	
<i>Mean (Self-report)</i>	3.99	2.88	3.45	3.50
<i>SD (Self-report)</i>	.46	.53	.43	.53
<i>Mean (Other report)</i>	3.21	2.66	3.26	3.32
<i>SD (Other report)</i>	.85	.66	.57	.59

Note: Self-report correlations are reported below diagonal, other report correlations are reported above the diagonal, N = 101, *p < .05, **p < .01

Table 2.2. Summary of studies related to leader humility as an independent variable

Level	Authors	Theory	Moderator	Mediator	Outcome
Individual	Mao, Chiu, Owens, Brown, & Liao (2019)	Self-Expansion	Gender and Age Similarity	Self-Expansion, Self-Efficacy	Task performance
Individual	Lin, Chen, Herman, Wei, & Ma, 2017	Approach inhabitation	Power distance	Sense of Power	Voice
Individual	Owens, Wallace, & Waldman (2015)	Paradox	Leader humility× Leader Narcissism		Follower Objective/Subjective performance, Leader effectiveness Team Innovation
Team	Liu, Mao, & Chen (2017)	Social information processing and leadership theories	Task independence	Team voice climate	Team task performance
Team	Chiu, Owens, & Tesluk (2016)	Social information processing, Dominance complementary	Team proactive personality, team performance capability	Shared leadership	Team task performance
Team	Rego et al. (2017b)	Social information processing		Team Psychological Capital, team task allocation effectiveness	Team performance

Table 2.2. Summary of studies related to leader humility as an independent variable (CONTD)

Level	Authors	Theory	Moderator	Mediator	Outcome
Team	Rego and Simpson (2016)	Social exchange		Balanced processing	Team effectiveness
Team	Rego et al. (2017a)	Socialization theory	Strength of humility, Strength of team humility, Strength of team psychological capital	Collective Humility, Team Psychological Capital	Team effectiveness
Team	Owens & Hekman (2015)	Social Contagion perspective		Collective humility, Collective promotion focus	Team Performance
Firm	Ou, Waldman, and Peterson (2015)	Upper echelons, power, and paradox	Top management team vertical pay disparity,	top management team integration	Firm Performance

Table 2.2. Summary of studies related to leader humility as an independent variable (CONTD)

Level	Authors	Theory	Moderator	Mediator	Outcome
Firm	Ou et al. (2014)	Social information processing and Upper echelon theory		Empowering leadership, TMT behavioral Integration, Empowering organizational climate	Middle manager responses
Firm	Zhang, Ou, Tsui, and Wang (2017)	Paradox	Leader humility× Leader Narcissism	Socialized Charisma	Firm’s innovative culture
Firm	Ou, Seo, Choi, and Hom (2016)	Upper echelon	TMT fault line	Middle manager job satisfaction	Middle manager voluntary turnover
Multilevel	Owens, Johnson, and Mitchell (2013)			Team learning orientation,	Voluntary employee turnover, employee job engagement, employee job satisfaction

CHAPTER THREE (STUDY 1)

IS LEADER HUMILITY A FRIEND, FOE, OR BOTH? AN ATTACHMENT THEORY LENS ON LEADER HUMILITY AND ITS CONTRADICTIONARY OUTCOMES

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the consequences on follower behavior of followers positively perceiving leader humility. To examine this, attachment theory is adopted because it integrates the general and specific level of relationship knowledge structures of the self and of others. The relevant relationship knowledge structures (e.g., cognitive map) help individuals steer their path through close relationships. Although attachment theory explains the specific attachment styles that have effects in close relationships, this study specifically explores whether leader humility provides a necessary safe haven to followers and how it affects the follower's sense of self-confidence and sense of the leader's confidence in themselves. This chapter explores the following question: If leader humility provides a safe haven for followers, does it lead only to positive behavior in followers or does it lead to seemingly contradictory behavior (paradoxical)? The following study answers these questions.

IS LEADER HUMILITY A “FRIEND, FOE, OR BOTH”? AN ATTACHMENT THEORY LENS ON LEADER HUMILITY AND ITS CONTRADICTIONARY OUTCOMES

Bharanitharan K, Zhen Xiong Chen, Somayeh BS, and Kevin B Lowe,

As studies continue to accumulate on leader humility, it has become clear that humility (one of the moral virtues) in a leader is largely beneficial to his or her followers. While the majority of the empirical research on this topic has demonstrated the positive effects of leader humility, this study challenges that consensus by arguing that a leader’s humble behavior can have contradictory outcomes in followers’ voice behavior. Drawing on attachment theory, we develop a model which takes into account the ways in which leader humility influences the seemingly contradictory voice behavior of followers, i.e., inducing challenging voice (promoting the flexibility toward changes), and defensive voice (showing the persistence toward changes) depending on the followers’ sense of security as reflected by *feeling trusted (sensing the leaders’ confidence in them)* and *self-efficacy for voice (sense of self-confidence)*. The results of this empirical study confirm that leader humility influences followers’ voice in a contradictory way through their sense of security.

1 Introduction

Humility—one of the moral virtues—has been shown to be more essential than previously thought for those who lead and have authority in organizations. Humility is useful for leaders seeking to solve complex business problems in tandem with their followers and can be a key determinant in motivating followers to engage in exploratory behaviors (e.g., voice) (Owens & Hekman, 2012; Solomon, 1992). Unlike many heroic and dominant leadership styles, in addition to other-oriented behaviors (e.g., appreciating and recognizing others) humble leaders

also show vulnerability, such as accepting his/her limitations and mistakes, enabling leader-follower role reversals, displaying teachability, and accepting and encouraging critical feedback, which may affect followers' behavior in positive and/or negative ways (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Regardless of humble leaders' vulnerability, thus far, there has been every indication that leader humility predicts clear-cut, positive follower behavior (Argandona, 2015; Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013; Rego et al., 2017; Rego & Simpson, 2018). In this research, we explore whether these non-heroic humble behaviors impact followers' behavior in other than uniform, positive ways.

Moreover, to respond to the pace of change in our current hyper-competitive and diverse business environment, employees need a number of mutually contradictory skills (Lewis, 2000; Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015). Related to this, research suggests there is a seemingly contradictory effect: that while change is inherent to an organizations' efficiency, too much change tends to be detrimental (Amason, 1996; Lewis, 2000). This shows the importance of striking a balance between change and stability. For example, there may be times when employees' voices, defined as "the expression of challenging but constructive concerns, opinions, or suggestions about work-related issues" (Janssen & Gao, 2015, p. 1854), express desire for changes in the organization's operations (promoting/seeking flexibility toward changes), although at the same time they may protest changes in operations (showing persistence toward changes) to maintain the stability of the organization or self (Amason, 1996). This shows that individuals can exhibit seemingly contradictory behaviors, demonstrating that contradictory behaviors need not be on different ends of the spectrum, but can co-exist (Owens et al., 2015). In further investigations along this line, research in leader humility has revealed that leaders can be both narcissistic and humble, and these two qualities may work together to increase positive

outcomes (Owens et al., 2015). Despite leaders' dual characteristics (humility-narcissism) working together to benefit leadership effectiveness, scant research in this realm has questioned or even examined whether more humble leadership that includes leaders' vulnerability may be associated with more contradictory outcomes in followers' behaviors. Given the importance of followers' upward communication in the success of contemporary organizations (Detert & Edmondson, 2011), we conceptualize such contradictory voice outcomes as *challenging voice*—advocating for change— and *defensive voice*—stubbornness regarding the change. With this in mind, we examine whether engaging in humble leader behaviors can cause followers to engage in contradictory voice behaviors and, if so, what the mechanisms are.

Toward this end, we adopt attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969/1982), as it can explain how the individuals' (e.g., children's or followers') perception of support from their caregivers (e.g., parents or leaders) influences their exploratory tendencies, such as novelty seeking and challenging their environment, in ways which parallel their voice behaviors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998a). Studies have also suggested that the leader-follower relationship is analogous to parent-child dynamics in terms of the parent/leader showing the correct path and providing nurturing (Popper & Mayseless, 2003; Wu & Parker, 2014). As leadership plays a vital role in providing a secure base support for followers, humble leaders shape how their followers view themselves, others, and their willingness to embrace new ideas/information that promotes cooperative relationships, safety, and the formation of a proactive workplace environment (Owens et al., 2013). Even though it is known that humble leaders provide a secure base support, it is less clear how followers perceive that support. Does a humble leader's secure base support impact the follower's sense of security, subsequently leading to increase in voice behavior? To understand this connection, we operationalise followers' sense of security through self-efficacy

for voice (followers' sense of self-confidence) and their feeling of being trusted (followers' sense that their leaders have confidence in them), "the perception that another party is willing to accept vulnerability by engaging in risk-taking" (Baer et al., 2015, p. 1640). Self-efficacy for voice and feelings of being trusted map onto the "can do" and "safe to" motivational states, respectively. These are identified as key motivations that drive voice behavior (Brower, Lester, Korsgaard, & Dineen, 2009; Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010).

Although previous research has provided valuable insights into particular antecedents and associated psychological mechanisms underlying employee voice, a topic that has largely been overlooked is an evaluation of how employees' feelings of being trusted by their leader and self-efficacy can influence their voice behavior. The relevant question is, then: What exact roles do these two mediators play in contradictory voice behavior? On the one hand, followers who are confident of their abilities are motivated to engage in voice input that can make a difference, i.e., challenging voice (advocating change). On the other hand, a higher level of self-efficacy may motivate people to think they do better than others, and, consequently, underestimate others' opinions (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Grant & Schwartz, 2011; Vancouver & Kendall, 2006), which encourages followers to engage in defensive voice (protest the changes proposed by others). Similarly, when followers' awareness of their leaders' trust in them increases, so does their sense of responsibility and competence, which motivates them to engage in challenging voice (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010). On the flip side, however, followers' sense of felt trust increases their pride (Baer et al., 2015) and "trustees are often willing to accept such positive information and exert effort to maintain the status quo" (Lau, Lam, & Wen, 2014, p. 114), which motivates followers to engage in protesting against change (defensive voice) because change may lead to uncertainty regarding the status quo (Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, & Putka,

2002). In line with the previous studies in which two seemingly contradictory behaviors co-exist (Owens et al., 2015; Zhang, Waldman, Han, & Li, 2015), we simultaneously predict both challenging and defensive voice behaviors in followers, which explains why feeling trusted and having self-efficacy for voice is a unique psychological process that can transmit the effect of leader humility to followers's contradictory voice behavior, as shown in Figure 3.1.

This research makes five major contributions to the literature. First, although leader humility is generally considered to be a positive trait that leads only to positive outcomes in followers, the current study uses an attachment lens to challenge this consensus and further the theory on leader humility. We are confident this research can contribute to an emerging body of literature that explores the nature of contradictions in individuals' behavior, as well as its cognitive frames and processes. Second, we interconnect leader humility and voice literature by showing how two seemingly contradictory voice behaviors can co-exist in individuals under humble leaders. Third, by challenging the consensus that feeling trusted is uniformly beneficial to employee productivity, we advance the trust literature and provide ideas which may lead to more effective managerial practices. Fourth, our outcomes in regard to leader humility and its theoretical pathways contribute to the business ethics literature, which up until now has almost always promoted the position that humility negates followers' sense of moral self-sufficiency (Argandona, 2015; Frostenson, 2016).

Figure 3.1 about inserts here

2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

2.1.1 Humble Leaders as Guardians/Parents

The essence of attachment theory is the role of support from others in fostering an individuals' exploration behavior (Bowlby, 1969/1982). In particular, this theory suggests that

when individuals receive sensitive and responsive support from caregivers, they tend to explore and become competent in interactions with novel environments. Initially, attachment research focused on infants and their relationships with caregivers, but later research has explored its implications for leaders (Davidovitz, Mikulincer, Shaver, Izsak, & Popper, 2007; Keller, 2003; Popper, 2002; Popper & Amit, 2009; Popper & Mayseless, 2003), supervisor-subordinate relationships (Simmons, Gooty, Nelson, & Little, 2009) , and co-workers (Nelson, 1991). Specifically, these studies suggest that leader-follower relationships are analogous to parent-child dynamics in terms of instruction, guidance, and care (Popper & Mayseless, 2003; Wu & Parker, 2014).

Leader humility consists of a set of interpersonal characteristics which includes a) an accurate view of the self, b) openness to new ideas and feedback, and c) a willingness to showcase followers' strengths and contributions (Owens, 2009). Thus, we expect there to be a close correspondence between good parents and humble leaders in the outcomes of their "protégés". First, similar to good parents, humble leaders are willing to accept their vulnerabilities and promote mutual trust. Second, both good parents and humble leaders are non-judgmental, supportive, and appreciative, which in turn fosters self-confidence and self-esteem. Third, as a willingness to view themselves accurately is a core principle of humble leaders, they promote self-realization in their followers similar to what good parents do. Finally, both are positive role models. As may be seen in these similarities, the resemblance between humble leaders and parents is quite clear. Therefore, in an organizational context, we position humble leaders in a caregiver position where they provide a necessary secure base support, which predicts followers' voice behavior through influencing their sense of security (mediating path). Moreover, recent interest in humility may therefore be attributed in part to a desire to incorporate

sound moral reasoning into business decision making environments that are increasingly complex and often perceived to be dominated by avarice.

2.1.2 Leader Humility and Followers' Feeling Trusted

Research on leader humility suggests that humility may be an important factor for the kind of strong interpersonal relations, which spur cooperative relationships in the workplace (Morris et al., 2005; Rowatt et al., 2006). This line of research also suggests that leader humility increases followers' trust in their leader, leading to a *sense of safety* and a supportive leader-follower relationship (Morris et al., 2005; Nielsen, Marrone, & Slay, 2010). However, "the ultimate motivation to do something or not, or to do it in a certain way is the result of a whole process in which all kinds of factors play a role" (Andriessen, 1978, p. 367). Humble leaders openly show their vulnerability with their followers, which is one of the key motivations for followers' sense of felt trust (Baer et al., 2015; Owens, Rowatt, & Wilkins, 2011). Following this line of reasoning, we propose that leader humility influences followers' sense of feeling trusted by fostering "safe to" voice motivation.

In the trust literature, trust and feeling trusted are often related, but not necessarily equivalent (Korsgaard, Brower, & Lester, 2014). The key difference between these two constructs is their referents: "the referent for trusting is the truster, and the referent for felt trust is the trustee" (Lau et al., 2014, p. 114). Related to this, previous studies have shown that perceived supervisory trust enhances employees' job performance and organization-based self-esteem (Lau et al., 2014; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Previous studies also indicate that self-disclosure is an integral component in a relationship, and often leads to increased trust and reciprocal disclosure (Collins & Miller, 1994; Ehrlich & Graeven, 1971).

Accordingly, as stated earlier, one of the core elements of leader humility is self-

disclosure (accepting his/her personal limitations), which signals to followers that the leader considers them as trustable, and organizationally important (Morris et al., 2005). Having a humble leader who shares sensitive information and accepts critical feedbacks signals a level of trust, and followers may feel empowered by such admissions and even feel such risk-taking is reasonable and become more secure about taking risks themselves (Detert & Burris, 2007; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). The incorporation of such positive messages enhances the followers' perceptions of feeling trusted (Baer et al., 2015). Specifically, leader humility provides an opportunity for followers to realize that accepting mistakes is helpful for identifying potential areas for growth rather than serving as a source of accusations, a tendency which leads to bickering and feelings of being undervalued (Owens & Hekman, 2015). Continuing along this line of reasoning, leaders' self-disclosure also has the potential to foster transparent interactions between leaders and followers, enhancing mutual trust (Lau et al., 2014). We anticipate that this component of leader humility also fosters followers' sense of felt trust because such leaders are willing to show vulnerability.

Furthermore, leaders' feedback seeking behavior enhances the followers' perceptions of trust due to the leaders' expression of vulnerability (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Wu, Parker, & De Jong, 2014). For instance, humble leaders who show teachability by listening to others have been shown to foster greater trust and an increased sense of justice in followers because followers feel that their leaders are not egocentric (Collins & Miller, 1994). When a leader is approachable, a flexible and safe work environment is fostered, and this is a key factor for followers' felt trust (Baer et al., 2015; Edmondson, 1999; Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011; Wu et al., 2014). In particular, a humble leader's essential willingness to display vulnerability enhances the followers' perceptions of being in a safe, nurturing environment. We, therefore, predict:

Hypothesis 1 Leader humility is positively related to followers' feeling trusted.

2.1.3 Leader Humility and Followers' Self-Efficacy for Voice

Humble leaders tend to value the strengths and appreciate the good performance of their followers, which fosters the “can do” motivation level of the followers (Owens et al., 2013). Similarly, a humble leader who has self-understanding will seek help or feedback from followers when it is needed (Owens et al., 2013), which boosts the intellectual value and the importance of followers. Means, Wilson, Sturm, Biron, and Bach (1990, p. 214) suggest that “humility is an increase in the valuation of others and not a decrease in the valuation of self.” This implies that humble leaders are other-enhancing and this other-enhancing quality of humble leaders is less likely to lead to a dualistic evaluation (competent versus incompetent) of others (Owens et al., 2013). Moreover, philosophical writings on humility have shifted away from humility as self-abasement toward defining humility as a virtue that reduces the focus on self-oriented outcomes in favor of a higher focus on other-oriented outcomes (Nadelhoffer, Wright, Echols, Perini, & Venezia, 2016). This non-judgmental stance of humble leaders, coupled with a willingness to identify and value the unique abilities of followers send a positive signal to followers, and promotes “can do” motivation (Argandona, 2015; Frostenson, 2016; Morris et al., 2005). Specifically, the virtue of humility has been established as both supportive of rational ethical theory and foundational to a moral point of view that guides reasoning to sound conclusions (Green, 1973).

Humble leaders increase followers' sense of psychological safety and competence by acknowledging that a certain amount of uncertainty may be unavoidable, thus encouraging followers to listen to others and both seek and propose new ideas (Owens, 2009). Humility is part of the social nature of moral reflection since it involves openness (Argandona, 2015; Kupfer,

2003). Accordingly, business ethicist Solomon (2003) recommends demonstrating humility by not taking too much credit for positive outcomes, but instead thanking others for their part in the success. Through such actions, humble leaders showcase their followers' strengths and push them into the limelight, causing followers to feel that their leaders are truly their guardians, a feeling that increases their competency level (Liu, Mao, & Chen, 2017; Rego & Simpson, 2018). As a result, followers of humble leaders experience a sense of self-confidence (i.e., self-efficacy), as they are able to influence their leader's decisions without risking their careers. Humble leaders also allow followers to occasionally lead them, rather than constantly telling followers how to do things. Such a role reversal heightens the followers' self-efficacy (Owens & Hekman, 2012). In other words, "humble leaders were described as students of their followers' strengths, and thus they were experts on the human capital around them" (Owens & Hekman, 2012, p. 797).

In a deep sense, these humble behaviors can unlock the followers' intrinsic motivation, often inspiring increased job engagement and productivity (Owens & Hekman, 2012). More importantly, humble leaders encourage followers to speak out regarding their doubts, uncertainties, and respond favorably to feedback, even if it is critical, which positively affect followers' sense of security. This is also reflected in an increasing tendency of workers to adopt a "can do" attitude towards challenges and obstacles in the workplace. Thus, we predict:

***Hypothesis 2** Leader humility is positively related to followers' self-efficacy for voice.*

3.2.4 Mediating Mechanism between Leader Humility and Followers'

Voice Behaviors

To complete our theoretical model, we adopt an attachment theory to explain how a humble leader's behavior fosters a feeling that it is "safe to" speak out or try a new approach to a

problem, and a “can do” attitude towards challenges. Taking this perspective leads us to predict voice behaviors in followers. In other words, when humble leaders provide support in the form of a safe environment for experimental new ideas, encourage critical thoughts, foster “other-oriented” approaches, and demonstrate a willingness to accept vulnerability by engaging in risk-taking, it leads to the establishment of a secure base which promotes followers’ contradictory voice via the effects of feeling trusted (sense of leaders confidence in them) and self-efficacy (sense of self-confidence).

2.1.5 Mediating Influence of Followers’ Feeling Trusted

Leaders’ trust can be shown through salient and concrete signals including compliments and honoring the efforts of followers (Baer et al., 2015). When followers are aware of being respected and trusted, they feel they have earned a positive boost to their reputation related to their task completion and achievements in the workplace (Morrison, 1993). Leader humility reflects an “other-oriented” approach in which leaders appreciate and acknowledge contributions from followers rather than finding faults and criticizing their weaknesses; also, such leaders are open to all sorts of feedback (even if critical) and accept their own limitations and mistakes (Owens & Hekman, 2012). In such cases, followers perceive the appreciation and acknowledgment related to job performance accurately, and are likely to respond positively to it by trying to increase their work performance even more, so as to receive more praise and encouragement (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). A relationship in which both leaders and followers trust each other influences the exploration and affiliation behavioral systems that lead to the followers’ increasing willingness to take on extra roles (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). For instance, leaders are more willing to take risks with followers whom they trust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Conversely, when followers believe their leaders have ability, integrity, and

are benevolent, they are more likely to engage in behavior that puts them at risk (Mayer et al., 1995). Given its nature of entailing risk, a challenging voice shares some common ground with a moral voice because both involve personal risk and demonstrate care for organizations (Lee, Choi, Youn, & Chun, 2017). Consequently, we also claim that this outcome is a negation of moral self-sufficiency as a result of the humble leaders' influence on their followers' sense of security. Past research has also suggested that leader humility is a less self-interested leadership style, and so can foster followers' safety perception while building a supportive leader-follower relationship, which, in turn, motivates followers to engage in extra-role behaviors (Burriss, 2012; Nielsen et al., 2010). Based on these arguments, we expect followers to be more willing to take risks with leaders with whom they feel secure and trusted.

***Hypothesis 3** Followers' feeling trusted mediates the relationship between leader humility and challenging voice.*

In the following section, we explore another aspect of followers feeling trusted and its outcome. In accordance with attachment theory, humble leaders' selfless and ethics-oriented behaviors positively influence the followers' feelings of being trusted. In particular, leader self-disclosure causes followers to sense that their leader trusts them, and they are motivated to maintain the status quo (i.e., their sense of being trusted by their leaders) (Gao et al., 2011; Morris et al., 2005). In turn, the subsequent cognitive conclusion is that the sense of "feeling trusted" should capture the heightened levels of self-image, which motivates followers to engage in defensive voice behavior.

As stated earlier, the referent for feeling trusted is the trustee. With the support of the proposition of the obligation to return, trustees develop responsibility norms in reference to job performance (Salamon & Robinson, 2008). Being trusted represents a positive complement that

triggers followers' pride (Baer et al., 2015), and eventually leads followers to want to maintain this status quo to protect their self-image (Lau et al., 2014). This line of reasoning can be equated to the followers' defensive voice motive as it is characterized by a preference for safe, secure decisions, and shielding the status quo (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014) at the expenses of humble leaders' willingness to assume risk with their followers. Past studies have also suggested that the outcomes of followers' feeling trusted should not only be constrained to positive aspects, as it also increases perceived workload and reputation maintenance concerns which are positively correlated to emotional exhaustion (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). In other words, feeling trusted not only increases pro-social motives but also self-protective motives. Thus, feeling trusted should be associated with defensive voice for a number of reasons. Defensive voice behavior reflects self-protective motives as a result of the fear of losing self-image (Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003; Maurer, 1996; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). To protect the self, individuals employ a variety of intentional techniques, including diversionary response, exaggeration, and distortion (Turner, Edgley, & Olmstead, 1975). This could include assertive responses such as vocally opposing how things are done through defensive voice (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). This is because, "the bigger that trust is, the harder one's reputation could fall if trust were to be violated" (Bromley, 1993, p. 193). As a result, changes in operating procedures may need more expertise to handle and if the results are poor, followers may feel a decrease in their self-image and, accordingly, their self-esteem (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Ryan & Oestreich, 1991).

Furthermore, humble leaders provide a safe space to openly share critical feedback, openly admitting his/her limitations, and recognizing and showing open appreciation of followers' contributions. This increases the followers' social status among their peers and satisfies the initial step of attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969/1982) by encouraging a "safe to"

motivational state for voice. In turn, when followers conclude that their leaders trust them, it carries an implicit responsibility to demonstrate competence that followers are expected to maintain by not engaging in changes (i.e., defensive voice), because changes may lead to uncertainty in regards to their positive self-image. Based on these and the preceding arguments, we hypothesize the following:

***Hypothesis 4** Followers' feeling trusted mediates the relationship between leader humility and defensive voice.*

2.1.6 Mediating Influence of Followers' Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to “a person’s estimate of his or her capacity to orchestrate performance on a specific task” (Gist & Mitchell, 1992, p. 183). Secure base support from humble leaders can raise followers’ self-efficacy by persuading them to believe that they have the competence and skills to achieve their goals (Bandura, 1999). Secure based support also fosters followers’ motivation to engage in actions without worrying about uncertainty as well as legitimizing uncertainty in the developmental journey (Morris et al., 2005; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Moreover, encouragement from humble leaders fosters a feeling of self-determination because the leader provides a safe and secure environment (Morris et al., 2005). Consequently, enhanced self-determination elevates followers’ positive affect and sense of self-efficacy (Jones, 1986; Rego & Simpson, 2018; Vancouver et al., 2002). Followers’ self-efficacy, in turn, can enhance “can do” motivation for voice behavior toward leaders because individuals high in self-efficacy see chances for agency within the environment (Detert & Burris, 2007; Detert & Treviño, 2010; Parker et al., 2010). Although the challenging voice seeks fundamental changes in policies or practices as likely being contrary to the leaders’ fundamental beliefs (Burris, 2012), humble leaders afford others a sense of voice because they are teachable, which has been shown

to foster motivation and heighten a sense of justice in followers (Cropanzana, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007; Owens et al., 2013). Past studies have also linked self-efficacy to many forms of voice and proactive behavior (e.g., Gist, 1987; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Janssen & Gao, 2015; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Thus, we expect that humble leaders' other-orientation and unselfish behavior will be positively related to challenging voice via its positive association with self-efficacy.

***Hypothesis 5** Followers' self-efficacy mediates the relationship between leader humility and challenging voice.*

The following section explains the other side of self-efficacy and how it predicts followers' defensive voice behaviors. Phobics with a high sense of their own capacity can overcome their fears and perform better than those with a low sense of their capacity (Bandura & McClelland, 1977). Past studies have argued that the explanation of these effects is motivational and increases either levels of persistence "or" effort, and enhances self-efficacy, confidence, and trust. This leads not only to beneficial behavior but also to harmful behavior (Grant & Schwartz, 2011; Lau et al., 2014; Vancouver et al., 2002). For instance, people may set unrealistically high goals because of enhanced self-efficacy, but fail to meet them, stubbornly sticking with failing strategies and spending less time and energy learning new things due to their confidence they are already adequately equipped to handle the work (Vancouver & Kendall, 2006; Whyte, 1998; Whyte & Saks, 2007). Furthermore, Bandura and Jourden (1991) find that high self-efficacy does not increase performance, but rather contributes to decrements in performance; they conclude that "complacent self- assurance creates little incentive to expend the increased effort needed to attain high levels of performance" (Bandura & Jourden, 1991, p. 949). In a similar vein, Stone (1994) finds that high self-efficacy leads to overconfidence in individuals, who then

contribute less toward tasks and are less attentive compared to their low self-efficacy counterparts.

A meta-analysis of self-efficacy has also shown that negative effects might be expected under certain conditions (Boyer et al., 2000). As highlighted by Owens and Hekman (2012), humble leaders appreciate and acknowledge followers' contributions and openly allow critical feedback. In addition, they are willing to display vulnerability by accepting their limitations, even to the point of allowing followers to lead them. With this evidence, we anticipate that these humble behaviors can provide the necessary conditions (i.e., secure base via increasing sense of self-confidence) for followers to reach a belief that they are highly competent individuals, which can ultimately lead to a defensive voice (protesting changes) in the workplace. When highly competent individuals believe that they are more competent than others, it can result in persistence with the procedures that they prefer as opposed to the procedures proposed by others (Vancouver et al., 2002). This resistance may be purely motivated by their overconfidence (Grant & Schwartz, 2011; Vancouver & Kendall, 2006; Vancouver et al., 2002). When looked at through an ethical lens, defensive voice behavior is based on self-defense and can be equated to moral self-sufficiency (Lee et al., 2017). It implies that one fails to acknowledge the standards, values, and viewpoints of others while identifying, judging, and adopting those outlooks which are in accordance with his/her personal interest (Gardner & Pierce, 2011). One can also argue that high self-efficacy individuals may protest changes in the workplace based on the belief that they are detrimental to the organization. However, in an organizational context, past research has found that when individuals are given power, they tend to devalue the worth and input of others (Kipnis, 1972). To gain more support for our argument, in addition to attachment theory, we also borrow a logic from perceptual control theory (Powers, 1973) that suggests high self-efficacy

direction would be negative under some circumstances. It is worth mentioning that defensive voice can be perceived either positively or negatively, based on the raters' (leaders') perception (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Given that humble leader provide the circumstances in which followers can feel highly competent and powerful, we hypothesize the following:

***Hypothesis 6** Followers' self-efficacy mediates the relationship between leader humility and defensive voice.*

3. Method

3.1.1 Sample and Procedure

We conducted a multi-source and multi-wave survey study to test the proposed hypotheses. Given the focus on leader-follower interdependence and the need for non-western sample studies in humility research, we chose an information technology (IT) company in India where rapid changes in technology have led to leader-follower interdependence in regards to knowledge exchange. The participants were professional employees, including software developers, product designer and developers, and their respective leaders. We collected data from two different sources (i.e., both followers and leaders) and two different times to avoid common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Specifically, in the survey, we asked the leaders to rate the dependent variables (i.e., two types of followers' voice), and asked the followers to rate the independent variable, mediators, and control variables. In Time 1, the leader questionnaires were distributed to 65 leaders, and each leader was asked to rate the voice behavior of six of his/ her immediate followers, who were randomly selected. Two weeks later (i.e., Time 2), 390 immediate followers of the above leaders were asked to rate the other variables. We informed the respondents about the voluntary nature of participation, the objective of the survey, the procedures for completing the questionnaires, and the confidentiality

of their responses. We used a coding scheme to ensure matched leader-follower data. The participants returned the survey to a box in the human resource department designated for the current study. Out of 65 team leaders and 390 followers, we received 57 (87.69%) of the leaders' and 290 (74.35%) followers' questionnaires. After eliminating missing data and unmatched responses, our final sample consisted of 257 followers matched with 57 leaders for a final overall response rate of 65.89%. Among those samples, 66.9% is male, and 33.1% is female. The majority of participants were Bachelor degree holders (53.7%), with the rest having a Masters (46.3%). Age groups were 20-30 (26.5%), 31-40 (42.8 %), 41-50 (27.6%), others (3.1%), and followers' tenure ranges from less than 1 year (16.3%) to 6 to 10 years (17.9%).

4 Measures

The surveys are in English, and unless otherwise indicated, response options ranged from 1, "strongly disagree", to 7, "strongly agree."

4.1.1 Leader humility. The nine-item measure developed by Owens et al. (2013) was used to assess leader humility. The sample items include "This leader actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical" and "This leader admits it when he or she does not know how to do something." Cronbach's α was 0.87.

4.1.2 Feeling trusted. We used an eight-item scale to measure feeling trusted from Baer et al. (2015). The original scales were developed by Mayer and Gavin (2005). All items were adapted to reflect employees' beliefs that their supervisors had accepted vulnerability to them. Sample items include "If I ask why a problem occurred, my leader speaks freely even if he/she is partly to blame." Cronbach's α was 0.81.

4.1.3 Self-efficacy for voice. We used three items from Janssen and Gao (2015) to measure self-efficacy for voice. The sample items include "I am self-assured about my

capabilities to voice my opinion about work activities,” and “I have enough skills and experience to voice my opinion.” Cronbach’s α was 0.70.

4.1.4 Defensive voice. As we needed scales that reflect “*persistence*” behavior, we used a six-item scale developed by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) to measure defensive voice. The sample items are: This employee [] “Stubbornly argues against changing work methods, even when the proposed changes have merit,” and “Speaks out against changing work policies, even when making changes would be for the best.” The response scale ranges from 1 = almost never, to 7 = almost always. Since leader reported the voice behaviors of the individual followers, we calculated intraclass correlation or ICC 1 for defensive voice, and its value is 0.43. Cronbach’s α was 0.83.

4.1.5 Challenging voice. We used a three-item scale adopted by Burris (2012) from the original measures developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998b). This scale reflects our notion of “flexibility” because it advocates for changes (i.e., challenging tone). A sample item is: This employee [] “challenges me to deal with problems around here.” The response scale ranges from 1 = almost never, to 7 = almost always. Similar to defensive voice, challenging voice of the individual followers were reported by leaders. Thus, we calculated intraclass correlation or ICC 1 for challenging voice, and its value is 0.39. Cronbach’s α is 0.72.

4.1.6 Control variables. We included four demographic variables, i.e., sex (0 = female, 1 = male, 2 = others), age (in years), follower’s tenure with supervisor (1 = less than a year, 2 = 1 to 2 years, 3 = 3 to 5 years, 4 = 6 to 10 years, 5 = over 10 years), and education (1 = bachelor’s degree, 2 = master’s degree, 3 = doctoral degree, and 4 = others) as control variables. We also controlled for follower ratings (the response scale ranged from 1, “strongly disagree,” to 7, “strongly agree”) of leader authentic leadership (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, &

Peterson, 2008) to observe the impact of leader humility. Authentic leadership was assessed with sixteen items and sample items include “my leader asks for ideas that challenge his/her core beliefs” and “my leader solicits feedback for improving his/her dealing with others.” The alpha reliability for this scale was 0.90.

5. Results

Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations among focal variables are shown in Table 1. The results of reliability test show satisfactory values of Cronbach’s alpha, ranging from 0.70 to 0.90 above the recommended level of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978).

INSERT TABLES 1 ABOUT HERE

5.1.1 Measurement Models

To measure the goodness of fit for the measurement model, we conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) with AMOS 18.0. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest modification indices in which the fit of the proposed five-factor model (i.e., leader humility, self-efficacy for voice, feeling trusted, defensive voice, and challenging voice) has acceptable fit (Chi-square (degree of freedom) [χ^2 (343)] = 620.24; comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.91; incremental fit index [IFI] = 0.92; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.05). We have compared the fit of this model with five alternative models. First, the fit (χ^2 (368) = 948.47; CFI = 0.82; IFI = 0.82; RMSEA = 0.07) of a four-factor model-1 (feeling trusted and self-efficacy for voice were combined) was not better than the five-factor model. Second, the fit (χ^2 (368) = 886.94; CFI = 0.84; IFI = 0.84; RMSEA = 0.07) of four-factor model-2 (challenging voice and defensive voice were combined) was slightly better than a four-factor-1 model, but it is not better than a five-factor model. Third, we tried a three-factor model in which we combined

feeling trusted and self-efficacy for voice, as well as challenging and defensive voice and the fit result ($\chi^2 (371) = 977.94$; CFI = 0.81; IFI = 0.81; RMSEA = 0.08) was inferior to the alternatives. Fourth, we examined a two-factor model (which combined leader humility, feeling trusted, self-efficacy for voice, and voice behaviors) and the fit result was ($\chi^2 (373) = 1310.03$; CFI = 0.71; IFI = 0.71; RMSEA = 0.09) still below the cutoff values. Finally, we tried a one-factor model result ($\chi^2 (374) = 1630.18$; CFI = 0.61; IFI = 0.61; RMSEA = 0.11), but it was also inferior to the proposed model and below the cutoff values. The results of this analysis provide support for the construct validity of our set of focal variables.

5.1.2 Results of Hypotheses Testing

Although we measured the study variables at the individual level, after taking into consideration the rater effect results on followers' voice behaviors and past research (Duan, Li, Xu, & Wu, 2017; Janssen & Gao, 2015; Lin, Chen, Herman, Wei, & Ma, 2017), we opted to use multilevel analysis in SPSS to test the proposed hypotheses.

In Table 2, we predicted that feeling trusted and leader humility would have a positive relationship ($\beta = 0.39$, $S.E. = 0.04$, $p < 0.001$; Model 1). In Model 2, we also predicted a positive relationship between self-efficacy for voice and leader humility ($\beta = 0.22$, $S.E. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$). Hence, both hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 are supported. We next made predictions regarding challenging voice and defensive voice. In Model 3, leader humility has no significant effect on challenging voice behavior ($\beta = 0.19$, $S.E. = 0.10$, ns). In model 4, when feeling trusted and having self-efficacy for voice were included, both self-efficacy for voice ($\beta = 0.27$, $S.E. = 0.09$, $p < 0.01$) and feeling trusted ($\beta = 0.51$, $S.E. = 0.13$, $p < 0.001$) positively predict challenging voice. Furthermore, in Model 5, the result shows that leader humility positively predicts defensive voice ($\beta = 0.20$, $S.E. = 0.06$, $p < 0.01$). Finally, in Model 6, both self-efficacy for voice ($\beta = 0.16$,

S.E. = 0.05, *p* < 0.01) and feeling trusted ($\beta = 0.38$, *S.E.* = 0.08, *p* < 0.001) predict defensive voice behavior. These results provide support for hypotheses 3-6.

Following a procedure recommended by Hayes (2013), we tested the indirect effect of leader humility through two mediators (i.e., followers' self-efficacy for voice and feeling trusted). The results are shown in Table 3. The indirect effects of followers' feeling trusted ($\beta = 0.22$, *S.E.* = 0.06, 95% CI [0.12 0.36]) and self efficacy for voice ($\beta = 0.07$, *S.E.* = 0.03, 95% CI [0.02, 0.16]) on challenging voice are significant. Likewise, the two mediators, feeling trusted ($\beta = 0.16$, *S.E.* = 0.03, 95% CI [0.08, 0.28]), and self-efficay for voice ($\beta = 0.04$, *S.E.* = 0.01, 95% CI [0.01, 0.08]) prove to be significantly correlated to defensive voice. Collectively, these results are consistent with the proposed hypotheses.

INSERT TABLES 2, 3 AND FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

6. Discussion

While the positive outcomes of leader humility for organizations are clear and well explained in the literature, the other outcomes and implications of leader humility tend to be murky or elided altogether. Previous empirical research on leader humility has demonstrated that followers' behavioral outcomes when encountering leader humility are positive. On the contrary, the purpose of this research is to examine the leader humility potential for contradictory outcomes through followers feeling trusted and self-efficacy for voice.

In the present study, the results regarding feeling trusted and self-efficacy for voice are relatively straightforward. As hypothesized, leader humility may be influenced directly, regardless of any attribution of behavior. Followers may simply interpret leader humility as a positive cue about the leader and perceive them accordingly. This suggests the importance of a

context that is supported by leader humility. In particular, leaders' vulnerability and openness can enhance followers' feeling trusted and self-efficacy for voice because it may make followers feel more confident about sharing their thoughts and taking risks. Furthermore, followers' sense of security (feeling trusted and having self-efficacy for voice) is related to each of the voice outcomes and mediates the influence of leader humility on voice outcomes. This result supports our suggestion that leader humility outcomes are not uniform and consistent. Overall, these findings are important because they show that leader humility can lead to seemingly contradictory outcomes via followers' sense of security, i.e., feeling trusted and having self-efficacy for voice. Therefore, our study opens a new avenue of research in leader humility and its influence on followers' multiple voice behavior.

6.1. Theoretical Implications

This study makes several contributions to the research on leader humility, trust, and voice studies. First, this research expands the nomological net by examining seemingly contradictory voice behavior (challenging voice and defensive voice) as a result of leader humility. This finding is particularly relevant to the dual voice inquiry, which may offer new and more enabling understandings of seemingly contradictory voice behavior. While recent research has shown that humility is generally a positive leadership trait which can enhance followers' personal sense of power, and is a strong predictor of employee voice (Lin et al., 2017), the current study is among the first attempts to show that humility can also lead to contradictory voice behavior in followers. In doing so, we provide some initial evidence that humble leaders can foster these competing behaviors in followers; this approach challenges contingency theorists, who tend to favor an either/or approach (Knight & Harvey, 2015; Lüscher & Lewis, 2008). However, whether these

two opposing behaviors can increase organizational performance is beyond the scope of this study.

Second, our study's findings provide some hard data on the predictability of certain outcomes resulting from leader humility, which have received little empirical study. Although attachment theory has been employed to understand the leader-follower process (Davidovitz et al., 2007; Mayseless, 2010; Wu & Parker, 2012), our study is among one of the first to explore the relationship between leader humility and followers' seemingly contradictory voice behavior through an attachment lens.

Third, we also address the scarcity of studies dealing with the topic of the effects of followers' feeling trusted by management (Baer et al., 2015). We are confident the present work can enrich the understanding of multiple effects that feeling trusted can catalyze. A substantial body of research has emphasized that feeling trusted is beneficial to both workplace relationships and followers' organizational citizenship behavior (Lau et al., 2014; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Salamon & Robinson, 2008). However, our study demonstrates how feeling trusted can make followers engage in both challenging and defensive voice at the same time, which helps to round out our understanding of the phenomenon by complexifying what has hitherto been seen as having no down-side. In addition, our findings are also grounded in a theoretical basis that is new to the trust literature—attachment theory.

Furthermore, our study contributes to the self-efficacy literature by showing how self-efficacy for voice has an influential role and can help predict contradictory voice behavior through the use of an attachment theory lens. Although we find that self-efficacy is positively correlated to defensive voice, we do not want to imply that high self-efficacy is harmful. Our motivation has not been to disparage self-efficacy but to provide the theoretical lens and the path

to tease out some ramifications, which previous theorists have failed to consider. Taken together, we have integrated leader humility literature with voice literature to create a richer model with which to examine how followers' sense of security (sense of self-confidence and sense of leaders' confidence in them) can serve as a potential mediating mechanism to shed lights on followers' voice behavior.

Finally, although humility is an important virtue and contributes to leaders' moral and professional development, in neither the business world nor in ethics literature has humility been recognized and ranked as a key virtue (Argandona, 2015). Apart from the potential beneficial outcomes of discouraging hubris in a business context, to highlight the importance of humility and its contradictory outcomes in followers' behavior, in this study we show that promoting humility itself may not only lead to beneficial outcomes, but also contradictory outcomes in a dynamic business context. Following this line of reasoning, the findings of the current study also contribute to the business ethics literature by showing various potential contradictory outcomes in followers' behavior under humble leaders (i.e., ethical-oriented leaders) through a theoretical lens. First of all, our study contributes to the business ethics literature by examining followers' voice outcomes (challenging voice and defensive voice). For instance, challenging voice may include suggestions that improve organizations' efficiency or inhibit unethical work behaviors. Secondly, contrary to the claims made in the business ethics literature, that humility can negate individuals' self-sufficiency (Argandona, 2015; Frostenson, 2016), we show the mediating mechanism to explain why and how leader humility leads to followers' defensive voice behavior, which might be viewed as self-sufficiency, i.e., a failure to acknowledge the viewpoints of others (Frostenson, 2016; Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez, 2004). Similar to Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), we do not argue that being defensive is desirable or undesirable, but merely show the

psychological mechanism connecting leader humility and followers' defensive voice behavior. In doing so, this study sheds light and provides a theoretical explanation, backed by empirical evidence, for why and how the potentially contradictory voice behavior may be elicited by humble leaders among followers within the organization. This serves as the initial evidence in the business ethics literature related to humility and its influence on individuals' self-reliance (Argandona, 2015; Frostenson, 2016).

6.2. Managerial Implications

As one of the first studies to empirically examine the seemingly contradictory outcomes of leader humility on voice, the present research should provide practical implications for leaders and human resource managers. In the past, leaders have been known for the personality characteristics of dominance, narcissism, and aggression. On the contrary, our research has found that humble leaders inspire voice behavior through influencing followers' sense of security. Therefore, organizations should encourage leaders to have more humility and less hubris. Our study's findings also demonstrate that leader humility can have a contradictory outcome on followers' behavior. In regards to actual business practices, the findings from our study suggest that in a creative context where followers' exploration is important, leaders should actively support non-uniform behaviors. However, excessive stubbornness in followers may harm group cohesion and organizational effectiveness. As self-sufficiency plays a primary role in reducing the quality of ethics in business (Frostenson, 2016), we recommend that leaders practice a more nuanced view of humility. Although humility can be seen as a midpoint (i.e., between deficiency and excess) of temperance virtue (Crossan, Mazutis, & Seijts, 2013), when an other-oriented humble leader seeks the best for all concerned, he or she must both manage the non-uniformity

which may arise and seek an optimal point along the continuum rather than defaulting to what feels balanced simply because it is a midpoint (Rego, Cunha, & Clegg, 2012; Tsoukas, 2017).

Our approach—using attachment theory—provides insights into feeling trusted and self-efficacy. These may help humble leaders to reduce certain harmful effects that may result from over-empowered followers. Although we do not claim the defensive voice outcome is detrimental, we warn that anything excessive does have that potential. How, then, should leaders handle these feeling trusted and self-efficacy dynamics? One crucial factor is remaining aware that the acceptance of vulnerability brings a variety of consequences. In this way, humble leaders should understand that their behavior influences their follower's cognition, and such influence might be balanced by celebrating a team's successes and failures equally. By doing so, followers may perceive social status is not at stake even at failure that may reduce losing of self-image. More importantly, teams' success is often attributed to leadership effectiveness; thus, humble leader's other-oriented behavior may neutralize or negate the followers' self-sufficiency. Therefore, organizations should often celebrate teams' successes and recognize the leaders' humble behaviors as well.

3.6.3 Limitations and Future Studies

As with any study, this study has several limitations. First, as our study design is cross-sectional, there might be bi-directional relationships owing to the possibility that followers might seek to enhance their self-efficacy and felt trust by engaging in voice behavior. As a result, followers with higher self-confidence who speak out may be more likely to receive fair or unfair treatment from their leaders than low-confidence followers. A valid argument against this potential for reversed causality can be found in attachment theory, which suggests that a leaders' secure base of support enhances followers' sense of security, and enhanced levels of such self-

confidence and sense of leaders confidence in them increases followers' motivation to engage in voice behaviors (Exline & Geyer, 2004; Owens et al., 2011). However, we encourage longitudinal and qualitative studies to provide firm evidence of causation. Although theoretical reasoning supports both voice outcomes (challenging voice and defensive voice), such outcomes may also be influenced by the leaders' counterbalancing traits, such as confidence and competence. With this in mind, future studies may adopt suitable moderators to examine the influences of counterbalancing traits, which can be justified through implicit theories of leadership.

Second, leader humility fosters two-way learning processes (Owens & Hekman, 2012); hence, leader-follower behavior and the quality of their relationship may influence the learning process. However, we did not include the impact of followers' attachment styles on the relationship between the leaders' behavior and followers' sense of security constructs and LMX (leader-member exchange) in our study to measure the influence. Future studies may want to consider this either as a moderator or control variable. Furthermore, the individual's motivational type can also serve as a crucial factor of voice (Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, & Chu, 2014; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2008). For instance, an individual who has an approach motivation (promotion focus) could engage in more improvement oriented tasks whereas avoidance motivation (prevention focus) prevents individuals from engaging in riskier behaviors. Thus, future research can explore these motivations by using regulatory focus theory as it suggests that individuals pursue goals in ways that maintain the individuals' regulatory orientations (promotion and prevention) (Higgins, 1997). The examination of individuals' motivation type may lead to a better understanding of the relationship between having a sense of a secure base and voice behaviors under humble leaders. As our study examines contradictory outcomes, it

would be useful if future studies could examine the interplay between approach and avoidance motivation on followers' voice behavior.

Third, in this study, we categorize and examine both challenging and defensive voice in a creative context (an IT firm) and, therefore, it is limited with respect to generalizability to other sectors. One further avenue for future research is to explore various types of contradictory voice outcomes across contexts and look at which type of contradictory voice is most likely to emerge from followers' sense of security. In this study, we do not claim that contradictory voice behavior can lead to organizational effectiveness, as it is not the focus of the current study. Moreover, we are aware of no prior research that has empirically examined how two seemingly contradictory voice behaviors interact and how they are related to organizational effectiveness. Prior research has suggested that the organizational learning process is inherently paradoxical (i.e., the complementary and interrelated relationship between radical and incremental learning process). As a result, "although choosing among competing tensions might aid short-term performance, a paradox perspective argues that long-term sustainability requires continuous efforts to meet multiple, divergent demands" (Smith & Lewis, 2011, p. 381). If this problem is to be explored using a paradoxical lens, future research should examine whether the interaction of two seemingly contradictory voice behaviors contributes to organizational effectiveness.

Fourth, in this study, in line with attachment theory, we hypothesize that followers perceive leader humility in a positive way that affects their sense of security. Moreover, leadership is a perception (Eden & Leviatan, 1975); thus, it might be possible for some followers to perceive leader humility as a socially desirable behavior, not as genuine humility. As this possibility goes beyond our study, we suggest a mechanism by which such evaluation could occur. Future research could operationalize such speculations to determine their effects.

Finally, given the fact that the proposed model has five variables and our sample source (an IT firm) and the subjects (engineers) are time sensitive, in order to maintain the high response rate and data quality we were unable to include more control variables in addition to authentic leadership. Previous studies have investigated the influence of psychological safety and attachment styles on proactive behavior or voice context (Edmondson, 1999; Liu, Liao, & Wei, 2015; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Thus, future research in this line of study may need to control for such variables. We also recommend that future research try to replicate our findings using samples from Western contexts.

7. Conclusion

It is generally accepted that leader humility has a positive impact on employee outcomes. However, in this research, by applying attachment theory, our results demonstrate that leader humility fosters followers' sense of security (feeling trusted, self-efficacy for voice), which leads to seemingly contradictory voice behaviors in followers. We neither suggest that leader humility is simply a source of seemingly contradictory voice behavior, nor that leader humility is merely bad. While we believe that leader humility is vital and that leaders ought to exhibit such behavior, it is still important to call attention to the use of an attachment theory lens to disrupt the existing frames—frames that contain perceptions within current belief systems regarding humility, self-efficacy, felt trust, and voice behaviors. Although additional research is clearly needed to establish the generalizability of our results, our findings can be seen as a modest beginning that provides evidence regarding leader humility and voice behaviors, further supporting the fruitfulness of this direction for research and showing that leader humility outcomes are not always obvious.

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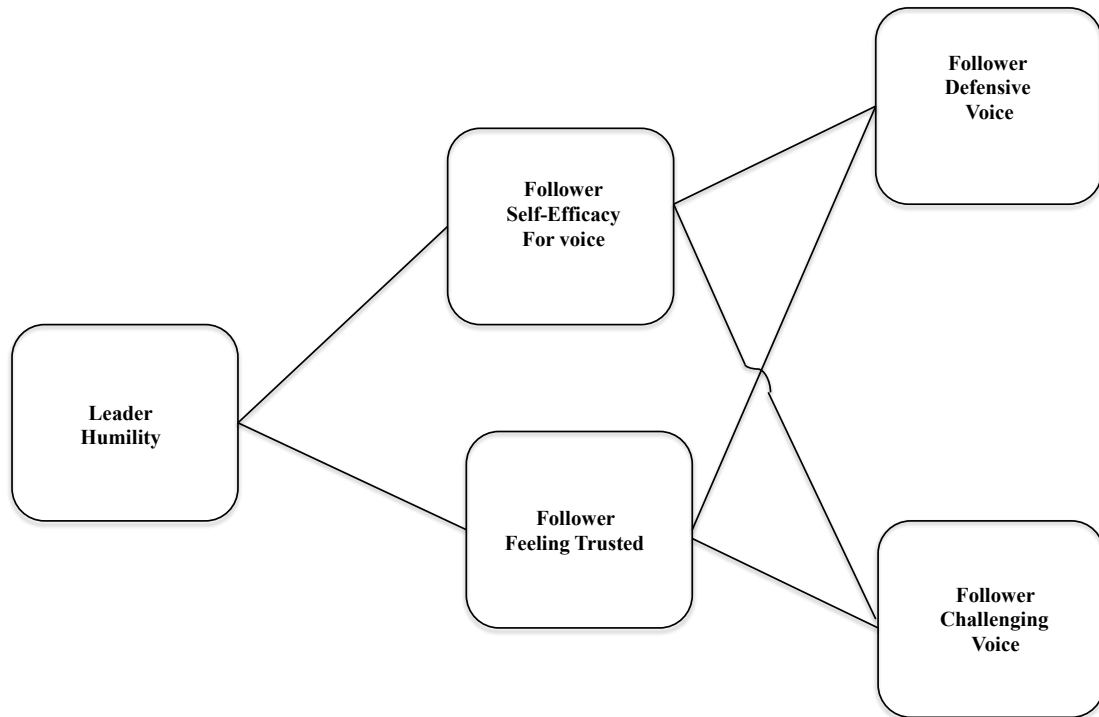


Figure 1. Conceptual model of the paradoxical outcome of leader humility

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among the Focal Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Leader Humility	(0.87)									
2. Feeling Trusted	0.51**	(0.81)								
3. Self-Efficacy for Voice	0.24**	0.35**	(0.70)							
4. Challenging Voice	0.21**	0.34**	0.28**	(0.72)						
5. Defensive Voice	0.28**	0.42**	0.30**	0.54**	(0.83)					
6. Authentic Leadership	0.46**	0.28**	0.14*	0.25**	0.23**	(0.90)				
7. Age	0.04	-0.04	-0.07	0.04	0.03	0.15*	—			
8. Gender	0.03	-0.018	-0.11	0.04	-0.03	-0.02	-0.12*	—		
9. Education	0.07	0.09	-0.02	-0.05	0.08	0.05	-0.01	0.06	—	
10. Tenure with Supervisor	0.06	0.06	0.09	0.05	0.07	-0.01	0.01	-0.06	0.03	—
M	5.44	5.17	4.99	4.54	5.18	5.29	35.84	—	—	2.50
SD	0.96	0.78	1.01	1.55	0.75	0.75	0.81	—	—	0.96

Note. $N = 257$. M is Mean and SD is Standard Deviation. Cronbach's alphas are reported along the diagonal in parentheses.
 * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Table 2 Multilevel Analysis for the Hypothesized Relationships

Measures	Feeling Trusted		Self-Efficacy for Voice		Challenging Voice		Defensive Voice	
	Model-1	Model-2	Model-3	Model-4	Model-5	Model-6		
<i>Intercept</i>	2.64 (0.37)	3.85 (0.54)	1.08 (0.83)	-1.34 (0.90)	2.91(0.51)	1.23 (0.54)		
Age	-0.07 (0.05)	-0.13 (0.07)	0.01 (0.11)	0.09 (0.11)	-0.00 (0.07)	0.04 (0.06)		
Gender	-0.02 (0.08)	-0.23 (0.12)	0.19 (0.20)	0.27 (0.18)	-0.05 (0.12)	-0.08 (0.11)		
Education	0.09 (0.08)	-0.07 (0.12)	-0.23 (0.18)	-0.26 (0.17)	0.11 (0.11)	0.09 (0.10)		
Tenure with supervisor	0.03 (0.04)	0.08 (0.06)	0.08 (0.09)	0.04 (0.09)	0.06 (0.05)	0.03 (0.05)		
Authentic leadership	0.07 (0.06)	0.07 (0.09)	0.42 (0.14)**	0.36 (0.13)*	0.17 (0.08)*	0.13 (0.08)		
Leader humility	0.39 (0.04)***	0.22 (0.07)**	0.19 (0.10)	0.06 (0.11)	0.20 (0.06)**	0.01 (0.06)		
Feeling trusted				0.51 (0.13)***		0.38 (0.08)***		
Self-efficacy for voice				0.27 (0.09)**		0.16 (0.05)**		
<i>-2 Log likelihood</i>	521.38	712.63	930.15	900.35	679.73	641.46		
Residual	0.44	0.93	2.18	1.94	0.82	0.71		

Note: $N = 257$. Unstandardized co-efficient results (standard errors in parenthesis).

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 3 Indirect Path Results

Indirect relationship between leader humility to challenging voice through feeling trusted and self-efficacy for voice				
	Effect	SE	z	95% CI
Via Feeling trusted	0.22***	0.06	3.54	[0.12, 0.36]
Via Self-efficacy for voice	0.07*	0.03	2.36	[0.02, 0.16]
Indirect relationship between leader humility to defensive voice through feeling trusted and self-efficacy for voice				
	Effect	SE	z	95% CI
Via Feeling trusted	0.16***	0.03	4.23	[0.08, 0.28]
Via Self-efficacy for voice	0.04*	0.01	2.29	[0.01, 0.08]

Note: $N = 257$. Unstandardized path analysis results (standard errors in parenthesis) of the hypothesized theoretical model. *SE* is Standard Error. *CI* is Confidence Interval, 1000 bootstrap samples. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

CHAPTER FOUR (STUDY 2)

SEEING IS NOT BELIEVING: LEADER HUMILITY, HYPOCRISY, AND THEIR IMPACT ON FOLLOWER BEHAVIOR

Chapter 4 (Study 2) examines the influence of leader humility when followers positively perceive their leader's behavior, and explores how followers map this positive behavior in their self-view (self-efficacy) and in others' view (feeling trusted), which affects their seemingly contradictory voice behavior. Following the relationship-cognition framework, study 2 explores the influence of followers' content of cognition (i.e., expectations, standards, and beliefs that constitute an individual's cognitive representation) in terms of their perception and attribution of leader humility, which in part determines the leader–follower relationship. Unlike Study 1, which explores the effect when leader humility is uniformly positively perceived, this study investigates the effects on followers' behavior if they positively perceive leader humility, but attribute it negatively. More details can be found in Chapter 1. Study 2 explores this research question by adopting the perception and attribution theories.

SEEING IS NOT BELIEVING: LEADER HUMILITY, HYPOCRISY, AND THEIR IMPACT ON FOLLOWER BEHAVIOR

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In this research, we challenge the prevailing consensus that leader humility is largely beneficial and that it is consistently perceived as genuine. We focus on circumstances where leader humility behaviors are positively perceived and yet negatively received due to attributions of impression management by followers in the workplace. Arising from potential inconsistencies in perceptions and attributions, we argue that followers may evaluate leader humility behavioral displays as either genuine or hypocritical. Drawing from the literature on person perception, attribution, and impression management, we conducted two studies, obtained in different contexts to test our hypotheses on whether followers react positively or negatively to leader humility displays. In Study 1 (Taiwan, Confucian Asian cluster), we used a survey methodology to test our theoretical model. Due to the validity problems of our instrumental variables, we were unable to draw conclusions from the analysis results of study 1. In Study 2 (Canada, Anglo cluster), we used a scenario-based experimental design. While the hypothesized mediating effect via perceptions of leader hypocrisy was not supported by the results, we found support for the hypothesis that the interaction of leader humility and impression management positively influenced hypocrisy. We discuss the implications of these findings and recommend future research on the negative aspects of leader humility's impact on followers' behavior.

1. Introduction

Humility—a foundation for other virtues—is an interpersonal characteristic that emerges in social contexts and connotes (a) a willingness to view oneself accurately, (b) teachability, or openness to new ideas and feedback, and (c) an appreciation of others' strengths and

contributions (Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013). Humility is an increasingly popular research topic due to the interdependent nature of the leader-follower relationship in knowledge economies (Argandona, 2015). To date research has provided many indications that leader humility is beneficial for organizations in terms of followers' work engagement, affective commitment, job performance (Ou et al., 2014), and team performance (Owens & Hekman, 2015; Rego et al., 2017a; Rego et al., 2017b). Implicit in the theorizing and discussions of leader humility research is the notion that leader humility is congruently perceived and attributed positively by their followers. What remains unexplored, however, are those cases where followers perceive the content of leader humility displays positively but attribute the motive of those displays negatively to impression management tactics. In this work, we seek to examine the implications for how this perception/attribution inconsistency gap may affect follower outcomes.

In today's knowledge economies, leaders are facing complex problems, which need broader perspectives and expertise to solve them (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014). As a result, leader humility may prove beneficial to increasing open interaction between leaders and followers to find those solutions, because leaders' career successes are becoming increasingly intertwined with followers' skills (Burke et al., 2006; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Moreover, a leader's humility is inherently manifested towards, and thus evident to or perceived by, a follower owing to the other-oriented nature of the behavior (Hill, Brandeau, Truelove, & Lineback, 2014; Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005). At first glance, there are many reasons to expect that followers would embrace displays of humble leader behaviors wholeheartedly. However, a more nuanced review of the past century of research reveals that leadership studies have more frequently portrayed effective leaders as dominant, aggressive, and masculine— and

certainly not humble (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). Thus, the transformation of the conventional image of leadership may be influencing followers' perceptions and attributions of humble behaviors.

In every individual, a baseline humility may exist due to life experience, personality traits, and heredity (Owens, 2009). Nevertheless, the degree of expression of humility varies based on social cues because humility is a social-cognitive construct (Owens & Hekman, 2012). Relatedly, impression management studies have argued that other-enhancement behaviors might convey both positive and negative signals (Bolino, 1999; Schlenker, 1980; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Given that humility behavior is other-oriented, and its expression is socio-cognitively based (Owens & Hekman, 2012), it is possible that others could attribute such humility behavior to both intrinsic and impression management motives. Thus, both the motives and the source of the behaviors may interact to influence a summary evaluation of a humility behavior as authentically humble, or as an insincere impression management attempt.

The current work focuses on those cases where followers' attributions of humility displays by the leader are attributed to impression management tactics. In this line of inquiry, the pertinent question is, then: what is the nature of this impression management attribution? Recently, leadership studies have noted that the followers' subjective attributions regarding a leader's degree of self-interest and behavioral inconsistency are crucial to understanding followers' reactions to leaders' positive behaviors (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). To date, neither empirical nor theoretical examinations exist on the link between followers' attribution of leaders' humility behavior and evaluation. Recently, Ou et al. (2014) have suggested that humility is attributed as positive and effective only to the degree it is perceived as authentic by others. Furthermore, Schimmel (1992, p. 39)

says, “in a society which rewards humility with social esteem, some people may mimic behaviors typical of authentic humility.” Specifically, when individuals exhibit humble behaviors without incorporating a self-less view, such behaviors may come to be regarded as inconsistent over time (Ou et al., 2014). Similarly, prior actor-based study findings reveal that inconsistency in workplace behavior can emanate from the same employee (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009). For example, a previous study has shown that leaders can exhibit both humble and narcissistic (i.e., paradoxical) behaviors (Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015), which increases their leadership effectiveness and followers’ job performance. However, other scholars have argued that when a leader fails to exhibit behavioral integrity while leading, it is potentially detrimental in followers’ behavioral outcomes (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006; Simons, 2002). Following these lines of evidence, we assert that when followers perceive inconsistency in humble leaders’ behavior, they may not attribute their leader’s humble behavior as intrinsically motivated, but rather as an impression management tactic, and so label them as hypocrites.

Hypocrisy is defined as referring to beliefs or behavior that contradict what one claims to believe or feel (Webster, 2003). In the context of humility, leaders are perceived as hypocrites by followers when follower perceptions of behavior and attributions of their leaders’ behaviors are incongruent. Accordingly, we examine the nature of this evaluation because it may ultimately influence followers’ behaviors, such as intention to quit, time theft (deviance behavior) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Building on these and preceding arguments, we argue that a leader’s humility behavior is likely to induce followers to perceive the behavior as hypocritical when it is attributed to impression management.

The overall objective of this work is to explore how followers evaluate leader humility behaviors and to examine the influence of such evaluations on their own behaviors. To achieve this goal, we integrate theories of person perception and attribution (Heider, 1958; Jones & Davis, 1965; Wong & Weiner, 1981) to test the proposed theoretical model. As conceptualized, we expect that the followers evaluate leaders based on their humility behaviors. This evaluation, potentially resulting in perceptions of hypocrisy when the behaviors are regarded as impression management attempt, is expected to influence subsequent follower behaviors both positively (e.g., time theft, intention to quit) and negatively (e.g., OCB).

In doing so, this work offers crucial insights into the nascent but growing literature on leader humility. First, by adopting the follower's perspective, we examine the potential for follower's negative interpretation and reaction to the leader's humility behaviors. Moreover, by integrating theories of attribution and perception, we provide the theoretical basis for examining the interactive effect of leader humility and leader impression management attributions on perceptions of leader hypocrisy. In doing so, we answer the call to find and examine a potential moderator that renders a leader's apparent humility as ineffective (Owens, 2009; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Second, we explicitly examine followers' perception of their leaders as hypocrites as a mediator representing an evaluation of their perception and attribution of leader humility, thus addressing a salient gap in the literature. Accordingly, we view perceived leader hypocrisy as an indicator of the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers because followers try to make sense of their leader's behavior, presumably to enable them to predict their future under the leader (Erber & Fiske, 1984). Hence, the uncertainty of the leader's behavior associated with perceived hypocrisy is dysfunctional. We posit that perceived hypocrisy will generate follower discomfort with their leader, which eventually increases the follower's

turnover intentions and deviance behavior (time theft) and decreases their organizational citizenship behaviors. Finally, the majority of prior studies frame leader humility as uniformly beneficial. This work challenges that consensus by providing a theoretical basis and empirical evidence regarding the potentially detrimental effects of leader humility on follower behaviors. In doing so, we contribute to the growing leader humility literature and highlight for organizations the need to mitigate the negative consequences of humble behaviors being perceived as hypocrisy. In the sections that follow, we develop hypotheses regarding the connections among the variables as well as possible indirect effects of leader humility and impression management attribution on followers' behavioral outcomes.

2. Theoretical Development

A long tradition of research on leadership has pointed to a pivotal distinction between behaving in a more authentic manner and an instrumental manner. Specifically, this distinction carries over into the attributions that followers make about leaders' motives. Simply put, good behaviors may be viewed negatively when attributed to instrumental motives (Eastman, 1994; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). By adopting a person perception perspective, as has happened in a handful of studies that examine how people interpret information about others and draw a conclusion of them, we can shed light into how one's behavior—such as leader humility—is perceived. Moreover, a crucial component of interpreting the behavior of leaders lies in the attribution of motives (Feldman, 1981; Heider, 1958, 2013). The theory of attribution states that individuals construct causal explanations (i.e., why people behave the way they do) for others' behavior in an effort to understand their environment (Heider, 1958). In turn, these explanations are attributed to behavior and to the way that individuals (such as followers) interpret and evaluate that behavior. By employing these theories, we shed light on the valance of followers'

evaluation of the leaders' humble behavior, thereby providing a more nuanced understanding of when humility behavior is likely to be viewed as negative.

2.1. Leader humility and perceptions of leader hypocrisy

Our first aim in this work is to examine the evaluation outcome of inconsistency between followers' perception and attribution. As noted above, leader humility leads to openness to new ideas, recognizing and appreciating others' contributions, and an acknowledgement of the leader's own limitations and mistakes (Oc, Bashshur, Daniels, Greguras, & Diefendorff, 2015; Owens et al., 2013; Owens, Rowatt, & Wilkins, 2011). From this perspective, scholars argue that humility can be used as a possible source of competitive advantage for organizations by their leaders (Owens, 2009). Specifically, in public, to gain the competitive advantage, leaders may wear humility like a favorable hat, but in private, be self-interested. This leads to inconsistencies in their humility behavior because their behaviors do not incorporate a transcendent self-view (Ou et al., 2014). Similarly, studies confirm that leaders may not be consistent with their displays of behavior (Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012; Lanaj, Johnson, & Lee, 2016). In a similar vein, the central focus of leader humility is other-oriented, but on the other end of the spectrum, scholars have also pointed to the detrimental role of engaging in such behavior in order to impress others (Owens, 2009; Owens et al., 2013). Hence, this type of evaluation of a leader's humility motives may be termed as *impression management attributions*. Specifically, when followers make impression management attributions about leader humility, they are interpreting that the leader is doing it strategically to influence the way that others view him or her and to maintain a particular image in the eyes of others (Bolino, 1999; Owens et al., 2013; Rosenfeld, Booth-Kewley, Edwards, & Thomas, 1996). Consequently, followers may associate negative information with leader humility and perceive the leader as a hypocrite (i.e., perceptions

that one's leader is not consistent with the behaviors/value he or she has espoused).

Research points out that when a leader bolsters followers' self-esteem, followers tend to appreciate their leader and make a positive evaluation of their leader's behavior (Ralston, Gustafson, Elsass, Cheung, & Terpstra, 1992). However, Kipnis and Vanderveer's (1971) experimental study highlights a possible negative effect of using such other-enhancement because it was used as one of the impression management tactics to get good ratings and maintain the positive image, in which case, those good ratings do not reflect on the actual performance of the employee. As a result, it was perceived as impression management tactics of the leaders. Similarly, leader humility advocates other-enhancement through openness by asking for feedback (Morris et al., 2005; Nielsen, Marrone, & Slay, 2010; Owens et al., 2015; Tangney, 2000). Arguably, there is a difference between leaders who ask for feedback and those who are actually willing to take it on board and implement it. Furthermore, humility advocates the acceptance and acknowledgment of one's own mistakes and limitations, which improves leadership effectiveness and promotes collective humility (Owens & Hekman, 2015). However, impression management studies identified that these behaviors generally increase the likelihood that a leader will be seen by his/her followers as likable to minimize identity damage (Frantz & Bennis, 2005; Schwartz, Kane, Joseph, & Tedeschi, 1978). Therefore, these behaviors will be viewed as not genuine humility by followers when attributed to impression management.

Moreover, the definition of authenticity relies upon the context in which it is used, and therefore it is socially constructed (Moeran, 2005). In a similar vein, Meindl (1990) also showed that in some cases authenticity does not necessarily exist but is attributed to leaders by followers. Therefore, we argue that when followers make impression management attributions to leaders' humility behavior, they are implying that the leaders' behavior is a political tactic and not

authentic, which leads to perceived hypocrisy of leaders' behavior. In other words, followers' perception of leaders' behavior is not consistent with what they believe/attribute or feel and this inconsistency is analogous to hypocrisy. In this way, leader humility may be equated to acquisitive impression management tactics—where leaders attempt to be seen favorably or positively (Judge & Bretz Jr, 1994; Sosik, Avolio, & Jung, 2002; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Following the follower's attribution process, then, suggests that the more that followers attribute leader humility to impression management motives, the more they should perceive hypocrisy of leader humility. Based on these arguments, we hypothesize,

Hypothesis 1. The interactive effect of perceived leader humility and followers' impression management attribution is positively related to perceptions of leader hypocrisy such that the relationship between perceived leader humility and perceptions of leader hypocrisy are more strongly positive when attributions of impression management are high as opposed to low

2.2. Followers' reaction as a hypocrisy driven outcome

The second aim of this work is to examine followers' reactions when they attribute leader humility to hypocrisy. Recalling theories of person perception and attribution, once individuals interpret behaviors—for instance, perceiving leader humility to hypocrisy—they solely rely on this interpretation to decide their own behavior in reaction (Feldman, 1981; Heider, 1958, 2013). The question is, then: if leader humility can convey hypocrisy information, what are the implications for follower reactions? In this sense, we categorize followers' reactions into three possibilities: a) passively negative outcome (e.g., time theft), b) actively negative outcome (e.g., intention to quit), and c) neutral outcome (e.g., OCBO).

Cha and Edmondson (2006) conclude that the hypocrisy perception is likely to produce disenchantment, which entails anger, disappointment, and loss of trust. Accordingly, as a part of

the subsequent behavior predicted by person perception and attribution theories, followers may also react negatively to a leader's hypocrisy through withdrawal rather than highly visible retaliation because most followers do not want to cause major risk to their career (Brink-Lee & Spector, 2006; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Following this line of reasoning, we argue that time theft (i.e., during working hours, the employee engages in non-work related activities such as taking longer breaks and surfing the internet for personal interest) is one of the non-aggressive forms of organizationally targeted deviant behavior (Robinson & Bennett, 1995) and suitable retaliation behavior for followers who feel frustrated by leader hypocrisy. In other words, followers may engage in time theft as a way to check out mentally escaping their negative emotions towards leaders (Martin, Brock, Buckley, & Ketchen, 2010). Also, a recent survey estimates time theft in American organizations at up to two hours per day (Henle, Reeve, & Pitts, 2010; Martin et al., 2010); this shows the urgent need for exploring the potential antecedents of time theft. More importantly, in an organizational context, followers engage in time theft because it is hard to detect due to its passive-aggressive nature. In doing so, they preserve their resources by not allowing leaders/organizations to consume them (Henle et al., 2010; Lorinkova & Perry, 2017) in an attempt to compensate for any frustrations associated with their leader's hypocrisy.

***Hypothesis 2.** Perceptions of leader hypocrisy are positively related to followers' time theft.*

Extant research has long established that the broader implication of hypocrisy is followers' turnover intentions (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015; Philippe, 2002; Simons, 2002). More specifically, assigning hypocrisy to leaders—their behavior as not reflecting who they really are—represents an unfavorable evaluation by followers, which should have negative implications for followers' reactions. For instance, followers who perceive hypocrisy on the part of their leader may feel uncertainty regarding the leader's future behavior that in turn makes

them feel uncertain about their own future career under this leader (Erber & Fiske, 1984; Fiske, Neuberg, Beattie, & Milberg, 1987; Simons, 2002). Consequently, followers may distance themselves from the source of hypocrisy by deliberately intending to leave the leader and eventually the organization (Simons, 2002; Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

***Hypothesis 3.** Perceptions of leader hypocrisy are positively related to followers' intention to quit.*

Having described how a leader's perceived hypocrisy impacts a follower's actual quit behavior and passive aggression in the form of time theft, we now consider the impact of followers' reactions to perceived hypocrisy on organizational citizenship behavior that benefits the organization in general (OCBO), as opposed to organizational citizenship behavior that benefits specific individuals in the organization (OCBI). Studies have suggested that OCBO has a more direct effect on the leader than OCBI (Williams & Anderson, 1991), and OCBO is more likely to be influenced by a leader's role sending behavior (Ralston et al., 1992). Thus, we focus on OCBO, which is more theoretically relevant to our work. The notion that followers will respond to positive leader behaviors and high-quality leader-follower relationships by engaging in extra-role behaviors is supported by prior research on authentic attributions of leaders' behaviors (see eg., Chen & Aryee, 2007; Guay & Choi, 2015; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015; Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015). On the flip side, followers feel discomfort when their leaders or other group members are deemed hypocrites (Greenbaum et al., 2015; Simons, 2002; Stone & Cooper, 2001), and such discomfort likely motivates them not to engage in OCBO. In other words, followers who attribute hypocrisy to their leaders will not step outside the bounds of their formally defined job duties because their OCBO has a higher positive impact on leaders (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Moreover, followers' OCBO is largely discretionary; leaders play

a crucial role in motivating and engaging followers toward a larger collective cause over individual self-interest (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Accordingly, we argue that when followers perceive leader humility as hypocrisy, this is likely to demotivate them from the collective cause. Also, the perception of leader hypocrisy increases the follower's anger, distrust, and disappointment (Cha & Edmondson, 2006), which are certainly not antecedents of OCBs of either kind. Accordingly, it is reasonable to expect a negative relationship between perceived leader hypocrisy and OCBO.

***Hypothesis 4.** Perceptions of leader hypocrisy are negatively related to follower's OCBO.*

2.3. The mediating role of leader hypocrisy

A follower's perceived leader hypocrisy evaluation is a consequence of leader humility if they are attributed to impression management motives. Consistent with the person perception and attribution theories, we propose that the more that followers attribute leader humility to impression management, the more likely they are to experience misalignment of leader behaviors, reflected in an evaluation that the leader is engaged in hypocrisy. In turn, these followers are likely motivated to behave negatively (Cha & Edmondson, 2006; Greenbaum et al., 2015; Hewlin, Dumas, & Burnett, 2017; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Therefore, we further predict that leader hypocrisy mediates the relationship between the interactive effect of leader humility and impression management attributions on followers' reactions such as intention to quit, time theft, and OCBO.

Followers' perception of leader hypocrisy gives rise to the socio-cognitive conclusion that the leader is indeed a hypocrite because the leader is not genuinely committed to his or her espoused behaviors, and this is antithetical to perceived integrity (Simons, 2002). Consequences include heightened levels of distrust, lack of commitment to work, and unpredictability (Cha &

Edmondson, 2006). Furthermore, the perception of hypocrisy by the leader is inherently threatening to followers, because of the positional power of leaders. Although leader humility encourages openness (Owens & Hekman, 2012), a follower's feelings of being under threat restrict cognitive processing and lead the follower to seek clarification about a situation (Cha & Edmondson, 2006). Therefore, in accordance with person perception and attribution theories, we argue that followers' impression management attribution of leader humility triggers the *fight or flight* mode in an attempt to respond to their leaders' hypocrisy. When they choose flight mode, they tend to leave the organization (i.e., intention to quit) because that helps them to manage their discomfort with the leaders' incongruent state. On the flip side, where followers enter the fight mode, we expect that followers may passively retaliate by engaging in time theft (i.e., organizationally targeted deviant behaviors and not engaging in OCBOs (i.e., behaviors that benefits organization) without leaving the organization and risking their career as well. We, therefore, hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 5a. *Perceptions of leader hypocrisy mediate the relationship between the interactive effect of perceived leader humility and impression management attribution on follower's time theft.*

Hypothesis 5b. *Perceptions of leader hypocrisy mediate the relationship between the interactive effect of perceived leader humility and impression management attribution on follower's intention to quit,*

Hypothesis 5c. *Perceptions of leader hypocrisy mediate the relationship between the interactive effect of perceived leader humility and impression management attribution on follower's OCBO.*

3. Followers' Liking of a Leader and Its Influence on Leader Humility Ratings

Leadership studies note that follower's liking may be a crucial precursor of leadership ratings (Engle & Lord, 1997; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). In this regard, prior research also suggests that a followers' liking of a leader influences evaluation of that leader's behavioral styles and affect felt towards a leader will color a follower's leadership judgments and perceptions (Brown & Keeping, 2005; Hall & Lord, 1995).

Furthermore, based on a Similarity-attraction paradigm, Byrne (1997) also note that an individual is more likely to feel positive affect toward a similar other. In particular, leader's personality may have an impact on followers' perceptions (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). Proponents of leader humility suggest that humility ratings reflect judgments based on the behavior of the leader in question because leader humility items themselves are phrased primarily in terms of behaviors (Owens & Hekman, 2012). Nevertheless, behavioral ratings are not reflecting a function of the direct recall of actual behavior (Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Perceivers can base their judgments on their overall evaluative reaction toward the leader because evaluative concept (likable vs. dislikable) can serve as an interpretive schema (Srull & Wyer, 1989). In this case, perceivers are not judging a leader based on recalled behavior, but based on their impression follow a series of stages that form an initial evaluative schema. Following this line of reasoning, although extensive research has been carried out on perceived leader humility, no single study exists which has examined the influence of followers' liking on ratings of their leaders' humility. In addition, prior research also suggests that liking plays an important role in impression management attributions (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Therefore, in this work, we include followers' liking of a leader as a control variable in the proposed theoretical model.

4. Endogeneity of the Proposed Theoretical Model's Variables

Expressed humility reflects an individual characteristic that emerges in social interactions and is a strong indicator of willingness to learn from others (Owens & Hekman, 2012). Owens, Johnson, and Mitchell (2013) show that expressed humility is highly correlated with personality variables. Furthermore, prior studies also show that HEXACO model of personality has an influence on individuals' behavior (Breevaart & de Vries, 2017; De Vries, 2012; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). In this line of reasoning, as conceptualized, the proposed theoretical model includes four endogenous predictor variables (i.e., leader humility, impression management, leader humility * impression management, and liking), which needs to be instrumented. These variables may share omitted causes with three other variables: time theft, intention to quit, and OCBO in the present research. Thus, to ensure that estimates are methodologically consistent, in addition to leaders' age, sex, and tenure as those factors influence the individuals expressed humility (Owens et al., 2013), we include the HEXACO (cf. Ashton & Lee, 2009; De Vries, 2012) model of personality, which distinguishes six personality domains; Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness. Below, we delineate and describe six exogenous personality variables; these cannot vary as a function of omitted causes of the endogenous variables (leader humility, impression management, leader hypocrisy, and liking) in the proposed model. Studies also show that HEXACO model of personality has an influence on individuals' behavior (Breevaart & de Vries, 2017; Judge et al., 2002; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). In the following section, we provide theoretical reasons to explain how the HEXACO model of personality (exogenous) is related to the endogenous variables in our theoretical model.

4.1.1. Honesty-Humility

Honesty-humility constructs share some pro-social characteristics with humility (Owens et al., 2013). Humility has been defined by its core elements: willingness to view oneself accurately, teachability, and appreciation of others (Owens & Hekman, 2015). According to Owens and Hekman (2012), humble leadership comprises behaviors such as fairness, fair communication, and self-disclosure. Similar to those with high levels of humility, “people high on Honesty-Humility are genuine in relationships with others, are unwilling to manipulate others, tend to avoid fraud and corruption and do not take advantage of others (Breevaart & de Vries, 2017, p. 692). Taken at face value, humility appears to be aligned to the more general characteristics of honesty-humility.

Furthermore, leadership studies have noted that liking plays an influential role in leadership ratings (Engle & Lord, 1997; Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), particularly when leaders’ personalities reflect honesty-humility, which tends to make them more likable. Finally, although genuine honesty-humility reflects sincerity, fairness, greed-avoidance, and modesty (Ashton & Lee, 2005), those qualities might be used to create and maintain desired perceptions of themselves. Therefore, on the one hand, we expect a positive effect from impression management when leaders’ honesty-humility is not genuine. On the other hand, there may not be any effect (negative) on impression management when honesty-humility is genuine.

4.1.2. Emotionality

Unlike leader humility and liking, emotionality can be characterized as fearfulness, anxiety, dependence, and sentimentality, which are contradictory to humility. According to Bono and Judge (2004), individuals high in emotionality or neuroticism are “not likely to be seen as

role models, are unlikely to have a positive view of the future, and maybe too anxious to undertake transformational change efforts” (p. 902). Also, Owens et al. (2013) found that leader humility has a compensatory effect for those with the low general mental ability (Owens et al., 2013). Thus, we do not expect high emotionality to be positively related to leader humility and liking.

On the flip side, Lee, Ashton, Morrison, Cordery, and Dunlop (2008) note that emotionality has a mixture of desirable and undesirable content at both ends of its spectrum, for instance, “at the high pole, anxiety tends to be socially undesirable, whereas sentimentality is socially desirable; conversely, at the low pole, fearlessness tends to be socially desirable whereas insensitivity is socially undesirable” (p. 149). Thus, we expect emotionality to impact leaders’ impression management.

4.1.3. Extraversion

Extraversion is characterized by liveliness, a desire to influence and be influenced (social boldness), social self-esteem, and sociability (Lee & Ashton, 2004), which are more likely to be similar to expressed humility characteristics—a much needed personality trait for being liked by others (Strauss et al., 2001). Humble leaders are energetic, expressive, tend to have strong social confidence as they openly accept their limitations, and show interpersonal warmth by appreciating and listening to others (Owens et al., 2012). Similar to extraversion, expressed humility represents individual characteristics that emerge during social interactions (Owens et al., 2013). Therefore, we expect extraversion personality traits will be more related to humility and liking. Furthermore, extraversion can be seen or employed as self-promotion, which is one of the impression management tactics (Bourdage, Wiltshire, & Lee, 2015). Following this line of

reasoning, we also expect that extraversion may have an effect on leaders' impression management.

4.1.4. Agreeableness

Humble leaders show interpersonal warmth and demonstrate clear concern and even vulnerability towards their followers, such as concern for their feedback, willingness to admit their mistakes and limitations, and even share power with them (Owens & Hekman, 2016), characteristics that are closely related and strongly overlap with agreeableness. Similar to those who are humble, “agreeable people are mild in their judgment of others, are willing to compromise and cooperate, do not express their anger easily, and are forgiving” (Breevaart & de Vries, 2017, p. 693). Moreover, the results of a prior study (Owens, 2009) shows that humility strongly overlaps with agreeableness, which is a trait associated with developing positive relationship with others, which also leads to likability because agreeable individuals express or act in ways consistent with other people's beliefs and values (Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Furthermore, since agreeable individuals behave in a natural and intuitive manner, this personality factor has a positive relationship with a key impression management tactic, i.e., ingratiation (e.g., Kristof-Brown, Barrick, & Franke, 2002).

4.1.5. Conscientiousness

Humble leaders' listen to others' feedback, recognize and appreciate others' contributions (Owens & Hekman, 2015), characteristics that require the leader to be conscientious. Particularly, humble leaders tend to view their strengths and limitations objectively, which helps to protect them from overestimating their ability and strength in ways that could cause problems for the less humble, such as setting unreasonable project deadlines in a performance context due to overconfidence (Owens, 2009). As humble leaders show openness to feedback, they will be

more likely to learn from mistakes and take appropriate remedial action. In addition to the logical relationship between humility and conscientiousness, Owens (2009) empirical study shows a positive relationship between conscientiousness and leader humility. Thus, we expect that the personality trait of conscientiousness to be positively related to humility. Furthermore, Bourdage et al. (2015) note that conscientiousness is likely related to a key impression management tactic, i.e., exemplification. This is because the intention of this behavior appears as dedication, which is also related to the targets' increased liking for the source (Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

4.1.6. Openness

Morris, Brotheridge, and Urbanski (2005, p. 1331) define humility as a “personal orientation founded on a willingness to see the self accurately and a propensity to put oneself in perspective,” which reflects one of the core elements of HEXACO’s personality variable i.e., openness. In other words, the prominent qualities of humble leaders, which are listening to others’ feedback, even if it is critical, being open to the new ideas of others, and showing a willingness to see and accept their own limitations can be equated with openness (Oc, Bashshur, Daniels, Greguras, & Diefendorff, 2015). Owens et al. (2013) found a positive relationship between openness and leader humility, which adds strength to our argument that HEXACO’s openness will affect leader humility. Moreover, openness is one of the personality traits that is highly associated with being liked by others (Judge et al., 2002). Transparency (i.e., openness) may not directly cultivate impression management tactics, and impression management is not positively associated with openness (McCrae & Costa, 1983). However, we expect that if openness is not perceived to be authentic or genuine, it may be used as an impression management tactic.

In summary, the above explanations showed the theoretical relationship between

HEXACO model of personality and four endogenous predictor variables (i.e., leader humility, impression management, leader humility * impression management, and liking). Owens et al., (2013) noted that honesty-humility, openness, and extraversion are closely related to leader humility. Briefly, first, honesty-humility 's prosocial characteristics are likely to be related to leader humility. Second, leader humility includes open to feedback and advice from others, which are closely related to openness. Finally, humble reflects sociable, and energetic which are similar to extraversion. Moreover, when leaders exhibit these behaviors, followers are more likely to feel positive affect toward leaders. However, under certain circumstances, it may also positively affect followers' impression management attributions. Table 1a summarizes the information of variables' type used in the proposed theoretical model.

Insert Table 1a about here

5. Overview of Studies

We tested our theoretical model across two studies. In Study 1, we use multisource, three-wave survey data to test our theoretical model. In Study 2, to test our casual claim in the proposed theoretical model, we used a scenario-based experimental design. To increase the generalizability of this work, we conducted Study 1 in Taiwan (Confucian Asia Cluster) and Study 2 in Canada (Anglo cluster). We chose countries from two different clusters as “clusters provide important information regarding societal variation and are a useful way to summarize intercultural similarities” (Gupta, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002, p. 11).

Taiwan is generally characterized as a “tight” culture (Gelfand et al., 2011), that is, a collectivistic, hierarchical and long-term oriented society with a relatively high need for certainty (Hofstede, 2001). Also, a study by Martin et al. (2013) notes that word-action consistency plays a major role in defining leader integrity in an Asian context (Confucian Asia Cluster).

Consequently, Taiwan provides an interesting and suitable context for investigating the impact of leader humility perceptions and attributions because the consequences of hypocrisy perceptions may have greater, or longer-lived, effects than those observed in individualistic, risk-oriented, “loose” cultures. Collecting data in Taiwan offers a chance to bring some balance to this literature, in which the sampling approach has been almost exclusively Anglo-centric and more narrowly dominated by samples from the United States (see for example Owens & Hekman, 2015; Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013; Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015). Furthermore, as stated earlier, we conducted Study 2 in Anglo cluster country.

5.1 Sample and Procedure-Study 1

Participants and procedures

We collected data from the employees from a variety of organizations in Taiwan, including hospitality, technology, and construction. By recruiting participants from multiple industries, we increase generalizability and avoid contextual constraints associated with limited industries (Rousseau & Fried, 2001). We administered our survey in person using Chinese language questionnaires accompanied by a letter introducing the study, explaining the participation procedure, and confidentiality agreement. We employed the standard translation and back-translation procedures recommended by Brislin (1970) to translate the original English language version of the questionnaire into Chinese. First, we obtained the name and contact details (both follower and their immediate leader) of a representative sample of followers who rate their leaders, while their leaders rate their followers’ OCBO. Second, to avoid the rating selection effect, we randomly (lucky draw) chose followers to rate their immediate leaders and respective leaders’ rate to followers’ OCBO. When performing the random selection, we took steps to mitigate selection effects issues (see Antonakis, House, & Simonton, 2017).

For the time-lagged survey, in the first wave, we distributed questionnaire to 320 employees from which 238 completed questionnaires were returned (a 74.37% response rate). At Time 1, followers rated theory leaders' humility, impression management, liking, and demographics. Two weeks later (Time 2), followers completed measures on their perceptions of leader hypocrisy. We received 254 completed questionnaires in the second wave (response rate = 79.37%). Finally, at Time 3 (two weeks after Time 2), followers completed measures on time theft, intention to quit. Also, the followers' immediate leaders completed the self-rating form of the HEXACO-PI-R, demographics, and rated follower's organizational citizenship behavior at Time 3. Of 320 distributed questionnaires, we received 233 completed questionnaires (response rate = 72.81%) from leaders (self-rated form), 227 from followers (response rate = 70.93%), and 219 leaders (response rate = 68.43%) rated followers' OCB. The human resources manager provided 223 (response rate = 69.68%) OCBO (objective) data of followers. The participants returned their completed surveys in a box in the human resource department, which has been specifically designated for this purpose by the research administrators. Each questionnaire was coded using a researcher-assigned identification number to match followers' response to their immediate supervisor's evaluations. After eliminating missing data and unmatched responses, the final usable unique leader-follower dyad sample is 204. The demographics of the leader sample were as follows: 79.9 % were male, average age was 39.76 years old ($SD = 24.11$), and average tenure in the organization was 4.64 years ($SD = 3.44$). The demographics of the follower sample were as follows: 64.2% were male, average age was 33.63 years old ($SD = 25.46$), and their tenure with leaders was 2.41 years ($SD = 3.31$). The unique leader-follower dyads primarily worked in IT (54.9%), hospitality (25.5%), and construction (19.6 %) industries.

6. Measures

Unless otherwise noted, we use 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

6.6.1. Leader humility.

The nine items measure of leader humility developed by Owens et al. (2013) were used to assess leader humility. The scale contains items such as “This leader actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical” and “This leader admits it when he or she does not know how to do something.”

6.6.2 Impression management attributions.

Followers assessed impression management motives attributed to leader humility with four items adapted from Rioux and Penner (2001) and Wayne and Ferris (1990). Sample item includes “My leader behave nicely []...because it will look good to his/her follower.”

6.6.3 Perceptions of leader hypocrisy.

Followers indicated the degree to which they perceived leaders as hypocrites using four items from Dineen et al. (2006). An example item is “I wish my leader would practice what he/she preaches more often.”

6.6.4 Intention to quit.

Followers’ intentions to quit were measured using an adapted version of Tett and Meyer (1993) four scales. One sample item is “I am planning to look for a new job.”

6.6.5 Time theft.

Followers were asked to indicate how often they engaged in the following activities at work during the last two weeks. Providing a short period for this outcome would be likely to help followers recall the amount of time theft activities they committed. To assess the followers’ time

theft, we used three items from Bennett and Robinson (2000), an example item is: “Took an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.” Followers use a 7-point frequency response scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (very often).

6.6.6 Organizational citizenship behaviors toward organization (OCBO).

We used eight items from Lee and Allen (2002) to assess the followers’ organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization. An example item is “This employee defends the organization when other employees criticize it.” In addition to subjective measure, we collected objective measures of OCBO. From the organizations’ Human Resource Department, we should be able to collect objective measures of followers’ OCB such as “Attendance at work is above the norm, helps others who have been absent (Substitutes), and helps others who have heavy workloads (work sharing). These OCB measures are from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990).

6.6.7 Short HEXACO-PI-R.

Leaders completed the short form of self-rating personality in HEXACO-PI-R (Ashton & Lee, 2009); each dimension consists of 10 items.

6.6.8 Liking.

As effect felt towards a target will impact the followers’ leadership perception and judgments (Hall & Lord, 1995), we also examine the extent to which controlling for followers’ liking will impact the relationship between leader humility and followers’ behavioral outcomes. We used a four-item scale “liking for leaders” from Brown and Keeping (2005), which was originally developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990). An example item includes “I get along well with this leader.” Table 1 summarizes the information of variables’ type and raters used in Study

Insert Table 1b about here

Analysis and Results - Study 1

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among Study 1 variables were presented in Table 2. As noted earlier, we have four endogenous predictor variables (leader humility, impression management, leader humility* impression management, and liking) in the proposed theoretical model, that need to be instrumented (Antonakis et al., 2010). This potential endogeneity can lead to bias in estimates of the effects of perceived leader humility. To address this potential endogeneity issue, we followed the instrumental variable approach implemented through the two-stage least squares (2SLS) estimation procedure as outlined in Stata 12.0 with the reference of past studies (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010; Serban et al., 2018). 2SLS estimation procedure is an econometric method that has been shown to be “useful to purge coefficients of endogeneity bias due to common methods, measurement error or simultaneity” (Antonakis & House, 2014, p. 759).

Our hypotheses are tested in three stages. In the first stage, the endogenous variables are regressed on the proposed instrumental variables (Honesty (H), Emotionality (E), Extraversion (X), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness(C), Openness (O), leader’s age (Age), sex (S), and tenure (T) in the organization) as well as on other exogenous control variables (followers’ age, sex, tenure with leaders, and organizational fixed effects [n-1 organizational dummies, where n is the number of the organization]). These exogenous control variables are represented by “*Controls*” in the following equations:

Stage 1 equations;

Leader Humility (LH)

$$= a_0 + a_1 H + a_2 E + a_3 X + a_4 A + a_5 C + a_6 O + a_7 \text{Age} + a_8 S + a_9 T \\ + a_{10} H*X + \text{Controls} + e_1 \quad (1)$$

Impression Management (IM)

$$= b_0 + b_1 H + b_2 E + b_3 X + b_4 A + b_5 C + b_6 O + b_7 \text{Age} + b_8 S + b_9 T \\ + b_{10} H*X + \text{Controls} + e_2 \quad (2)$$

*Leader Humility * Impression Management (LH*IM)*

$$= c_0 + c_1 H + c_2 E + c_3 X + c_4 A + c_5 C + c_6 O + c_7 \text{Age} + c_8 S + c_9 T + c_{10} H*X \\ + \text{Controls} + e_3 \quad (3)$$

Please note that the interaction term in Eq. 3 is the interaction between the two strongest instruments from the Eqs.1 and 2 results.

Liking (L)

$$= d_0 + d_1 H + d_2 E + d_3 X + d_4 A + d_5 C + d_6 O + d_7 \text{Age} + d_8 S + d_9 T \\ + \text{Controls} + e_4 \quad (4)$$

With valid instruments in equations 1-4, the instrumented values of the endogenous predictors can be calculated (\widehat{LH} , \widehat{IM} , $\widehat{LH*IM}$, and \widehat{L}). In the second stage, the hypothesized effect on perceived leader hypocrisy can be tested with the following equation:

Stage 2 equation;

Hypocrisy (HYP)

$$= g_0 + g_1 \widehat{LH} + g_2 \widehat{IM} + g_3 \widehat{LH*IM} + g_4 \widehat{L} + \text{Controls} + e_6 \quad (5)$$

With instrumented value of perceived leader hypocrisy, the hypothesized effects on the ultimate outcome variables can be tested with the following equations.

Stage 3 equations;

Time Theft (TT)

$$= h_0 + h_1 \widehat{HYP} + Controls + e_7 \quad (6)$$

Intention to Quit (IQ)

$$= i_0 + i_1 \widehat{HYP} + Controls + e_8 \quad (7)$$

Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization (OCB-O)

$$= j_0 + j_1 \widehat{HYP} + Controls + e_9 \quad (8)$$

In terms of implementation, we estimated the above equations simultaneously using the “reg3” package in STATA 12 (all control variables are represented by *controls*):

```
reg3 (TT IQ OCBO = HYP controls) ///
(HYP = LH IM LH*IM L controls) ///
(LH IM LH*IM L = h e x a c o controls), 2sls first (A)
```

An alternative and equivalent implementation is:

```
sem (LH IM LH*IM L <- h e x a c o age sex tenure controls) ///
(HYP <- LH IM LH*IM L controls) (TT IQ OCBO <- HYP controls), ///
covstructure (e._OEn, unstructured) vce (robust) (B)
```

We interpret the results of the stage 1 models (equations 1-4) to evaluate the instruments’ relevance. The results of these first-stage analyses were reported in Table 3a. The F-test results of first stage models were as follows: Leader humility (F (13, 187) = 5.82), impression management (F (13, 187) = 3.53), leader humility*impression management (F (13, 187) = 5.52), and liking (F (13, 187) = 4.47). The F-statistics of the first stage models were lower than that the conventional cut-off value of 10, indicating a lack of instrument strength. Although the theoretical justification of the instrumental variables discussed early in the paper suggests a

strong relationship between the instruments and the endogenous variables, only a few of the instruments were significantly related to the endogenous variables. Specifically, “agreeableness” was positively associated with leader humility ($\beta = .18, p = .00$). For impression management, both “emotionality” ($\beta = .37, p = .00$) and “conscientiousness” ($\beta = .21, p = .02$) were statistically significant predictors. In addition to the F-test results and the small regression coefficients for instruments, the low R-squared values of Equations 1-4 also indicate that the proposed instruments were weak. Unsurprisingly, a joint Wald test of instrumental strength returned a low value ($F = 0.68$), further suggesting that the instruments were weak.

Inserts Table 2 and Table 3a about here

The estimation of the second stage model (equation 5) returned highly significant Hausman test results ($\chi^2(4) = 18.006, p = 0.0012$), indicating the presence of endogeneity (Antonakis et al., 2010; Hausman, 1978), even with the weak instruments as shown in stage 1 results. With the full model, the Hansen-Sargan overidentification test returned a highly significant result ($\chi^2(17) = 45.667, p = 0.0002$). This suggests that the constraints imposed (i.e., excluding the endogenous variables from later stages of the regressions) were not tenable. One possible explanation was that the perceived leader humility and perceived impression management were predictors of time theft, intention to quit, or OCBO. Given these, together with the weak instruments, the results on the later stage equations (see Table 3b) cannot be reliably interpreted to draw conclusion on our hypotheses. The SEM implementation of the full model did not converge. Given that the proposed model is misspecified, the indirect effects cannot be tested. Hence, we did not extend the analysis. Overall, the analysis results from study 1 highlight the necessity of experimental design for stronger and valid instruments, which we

conducted in study 2.

Insert Table 3b about here

8. Sample and Procedure -Study 2

With the assistance of faculties in the participating universities, we recruited experiment participants from two Canadian universities. In each of these universities, we randomly selected undergraduate and graduate students to participate in this study and our final sample was 208 (a 81% response rate). Of the participants 53.4% were female. The average age was 21.69 years old ($SD = 4.76$). The questionnaires were in English and accompanied by a letter introducing the study and explaining the participation procedure and confidentiality agreement. We used a 2 (high impression management versus neutral impression management) \times 2 (high leader humility versus neutral leader humility) between-subjects experimental design. Manipulations of impression management were based on prior conceptualizations from Rioux and Penner (2001) and Wayne and Ferris (1990); measures and conceptualization of leader humility are based on Owens et al. (2013). We asked participants to read a scenario and to imagine what they would do if they were in the given situation. First, the participants completed a survey that included the mediator (i.e., perceptions of leader hypocrisy), dependent variables (i.e., time theft, intention to quit, OCBO), and demographics. Finally, we provided the questionnaire that included independent variables (i.e., impression management and leader humility).

Experimental Manipulation

Sam, the name of the immediate leader in all scenarios described here. We use the following introductory paragraph in the scenario:

You are an employee at the “Luxe Pro” marketing company. You have been

working at Luxe Pro for five years, and you expect to be promoted to Public Relations Manager. Your immediate leader (Sam) holds a meeting with all employees to discuss the upcoming marketing campaign for a new product. Your ideas and contributions in the meeting will be used for your upcoming performance evaluation, which will impact your potential promotion to Public Relations Manager.

Next, we included a paragraph that manipulates leader humility.

High leader humility.

Sam spends a considerable amount of time discussing issues with employees including treating colleagues and customers with respect, and listening to their opinions and appreciating and acknowledging their thoughts. Sam also conducts a relationship development session on how to be open to people's ideas and advice, and how to find people's unique strengths. Sam concludes by emphasizing that you and your coworkers are expected to demonstrate these self-less behaviors and abide by these principles. Sam tells you that you were given this session because the company requires it. Also, Sam thinks it is a crucial topic to foster two-way learning. Sam insists that you need to have a selfless view and treat other people well in order to have high performance at your job.

Neutral leader humility.

Sam spends a considerable amount of time discussing issues with employees, including treating colleagues and customers appropriately and the best ways to handle people's suggestions. Sam also conducts relationship development session on how to receive customers' complains in a respectful way. Sam also suggests

basic principles of etiquette (i.e., being respectful) that you and your workers should demonstrate. Sam tells you that you were given this session as part of the company's usual procedure. Also, Sam thinks that it is a usual topic for learning about others and their behavior. Sam suggests that you should treat other people well in order to have high performance at your job.

Finally, we included a paragraph that manipulates impression management.

High impression management.

A few days later, you overhear Sam discussing your performance evaluation and the feedback you gave regarding the new product's marketing campaign with Joe, the Divisional Manager. You hear Sam make specific comments about you including 1) he/she is not happy about your criticisms of campaign plans, but he/she tries to be calm and cool 2) he/she is angry about your non compliance with his/her campaign plans but he/she does not want to show it 3) he/she said he/she treats you very well and he/she is good at treating you well compared to others. Joe will be using the performance evaluations to decide who will be promoted to Public Relations Manager in the coming weeks.

Neutral impression management.

A few days later, you overhear Sam discussing the performance evaluation and your feedback regarding the new product's marketing campaign with Joe, the Divisional Manager. You hear Sam make comments about your working style and behavior, in which Sam neither complains nor praises you, but merely comments on the events and actions, which have taken place. Joe will be using the performance evaluations to decide who will be promoted to Public Relations

Manager in the coming weeks.

9. Measures

Unless otherwise noted, we use 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

9.9.1. Manipulation check.

The leader humility manipulation check was assessed with Owens et al. (2013) 9-items measure. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed that the leader in the scenario shows humility. The impression management attributions manipulation check was measured with 4-items that were adopted from Rioux and Penner (2001) and Wayne and Ferris (1990) used in Study 1.

9.9.2 Perceptions of leader hypocrisy.

Perceptions of leader hypocrisy will be assessed with the same measure used in Study 1 (i.e., Dineen et al., 2006) ($\alpha = .82$).

9.9.3 Intention to quit.

Followers' intentions to quit will be assessed with the same measure used in Study 1 (i.e., Tett & Meyer, 1993) ($\alpha = .79$).

9.9.4 Time theft.

Similar to Study 1, to assess the followers' time theft we will use three items from Bennett and Robinson (2000) ($\alpha = .81$).

9.9.5 Organizational citizenship behaviors toward organization (OCBO).

In this study, participants will rate their intention to do OCBO. We will use eight items from Lee and Allen (2002) to assess the followers' organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization ($\alpha = .90$).

9.9.6 Control variables.

In our proposed theoretical model, we control the followers' age and gender as control variables and organizational effect using dummy variables. Table 4 shows the summary of variables and their types used in Study-2.

Insert Table 4 about here

9.1. Analysis and Results - Study 2

Pilot Study

Before administrating Study 2, to ensure the accuracy of the manipulations, we conducted a pilot study (n = 11). By conducting one-way ANOVA, we examined whether the manipulations were successful. We found that the leader humility manipulation had a significant effect on participant perceptions of leader humility $F(1, 9) = 19.30, p < .01$. The results show that participants in the high leader humility condition report higher leader humility ($M = 5.66, SD = 1.03$) than those in the neutral leader humility condition ($M = 3.40, SD = .54$). Furthermore, results indicate that participants in the high impression management attribution condition report a higher impression of management attributions ($M = 6.00, SD = .89$) than those in the neutral impression management attribution condition ($M = 3.60, SD = .54$), $F(1, 9) = 27.18, p < .001$.

Results

The means, standard deviations, inter-correlations, and reliabilities for Study 2 variables are presented in Table 5.

Insert Table 5 about here

In this study, we used a 2 (high impression management versus neutral impression management) \times 2 (high leader humility versus neutral leader humility) between-subjects experimental design. Thus, to represent four conditions, we used two instrumental variables to represent the scenario's manipulation conditions. First, we used a dummy variable X1, which has a value of 1 if the assigned scenario is designed to trigger perceptions of high leader humility, and 0 otherwise. Second, we used a second dummy variable X2, which has a value of 1 if the assigned scenario is designed to trigger perceptions of high impression management and to 0 otherwise. Before testing our hypotheses, we examined whether the manipulations were successful by conducting one-way ANOVAs. The leader humility manipulation had a significant effect on participants' perceptions of leader humility, $F(1, 184) p = .00$. Results indicated that participants in the high leader humility conditions reported high leader humility ($M = 5.30, SD = .84$) than participants in the neutral leader humility condition ($M = 3.83, SD = .68$). Also, the impression management manipulation had a significant effect on participants' impression management attribution, $F(1, 362), p = .00$. Results of the one-way ANOVA indicated that participants in the high impression management attribution condition reported higher impression management attributions ($M = 6.27, SD = .68$) than those in the neutral impression management attributions ($M = 4.04, SD = .98$). It should be noted that perceived leader humility was correlated with impression management attribution (i.e., it is not orthogonal). Similar to Study 1, we used a 2SLS procedure to test the hypotheses. As we had two universities for sampling, we controlled for the university fixed effects with a dummy variable. In this study, we also controlled for the participants' age and sex, which are represented by "Controls" in the equations below.

Leader humility (LH), Impression management (IM), and Leader Humility (LH) *

Impression management (IM) might be endogenous. Hence, manipulated leader humility (X1), manipulated impression management (X2), and manipulated leader humility * manipulated impression management (X1*X2) are exogenous variables because they represent the LH and IM conditions associated with the scenarios. In this line, we used X1, X2, and X1*X2 as instruments for perceptions of leader humility (LH), impression management (IM), and leader humility (LH) * impression management (IM) as they are expected to be strong instruments for the respective endogenous variables. Accordingly, we implemented the 2SLS estimation procedure for the following equations:

Stage 1 equations:

Leader Humility (LH)

$$= a_0 + a_1 X1 + a_2 X2 + a_3 X1 * X2 + Controls + e_1 \quad (9)$$

Impression Management (IM)

$$= b_0 + b_1 X1 + b_2 X2 + b_3 X1 * X2 + Controls + e_2 \quad (10)$$

*Leader Humility * Impression Management (LH * IM)*

$$= c_0 + c_1 X1 + c_2 X2 + c_3 X1 * X2 + Controls + e_3 \quad (11)$$

Stage 2 equation:

Hypocrisy (HYP)

$$= d_0 + d_1 \widehat{LH} + d_2 \widehat{IM} + d_3 \widehat{LH} * \widehat{IM} + Controls + e_4 \quad (12)$$

Stage 3 equations:

Time Theft (TT)

$$= g_0 + g_1 \widehat{HYP} + Controls + e_6 \quad (13)$$

Intention to Quit (IQ)

$$= f_0 + f_1 \widehat{HYP} + Controls + e_5 \quad (14)$$

Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization (OCB-O)

$$= h_0 + h_1 \widehat{HYP} + Controls + e_7 \quad (15)$$

The estimation of the full model with all equations (9-15) of the three stages was implemented using the “*reg3*” package of STATA 12 (all control variables are represented by controls):

```
reg3 (TT IQ OCB-O = HYP controls) (HYP = LH IM LH*IM controls) ///  
(LH IM LH*IM = X1 X2 X1*X2 controls), 2sls
```

 (C)

which is equivalent to the “*sem*” implementation:

```
sem (TT IQ OCB-O <- HYP controls) (HYP <- LH IM LH*IM controls) ///  
(LH IM LH*IM <- X1 X2 X1*X2 controls), ///  
covstructure(e._OEn, unst) from (c, skip) diff
```

 (D)

We interpret the results of stage 1 equations (9-11) to assess the strength of the instrumental variables (Table 6a). The F-test results of first stage models were as follows: Leader humility (F (3, 201) = 74.39), impression management (F (3, 201) = 113.82), and leader humility*impression management (F (3, 201) = 60.76). These results were well above the critical values of the Stock-Yogo test of instrument strength. The instruments were significantly related to the endogenous variables. Specifically, X1, which indicated the assignment of leader humility scenarios, showed a significant effect ($p = .00$) on leader humility with a coefficient of 2.28. The large and significant effect size suggests that X1 was a strong instrument for leader humility. Meanwhile, X2, which indicated the assignment of impression management attribution (IM) scenarios, showed a significant effect ($\beta = 2.28, p = .00$) on IM. The large and significant effect size suggested that X2 was a strong instrument for X2.

Insert Table 6a about here

The results of stages 2 and 3 were presented in Table 6b. In the second stage, we conducted a joint Wald test of instrument strength to evaluate if the instruments were jointly statistically significant predictors of the endogenous variables. The results of the Wald test ($F = 26.83$) indicated that the instruments were jointly strong. The Hausman's test of endogeneity returned significant results ($\chi^2(3) = 11.710, p = 0.0084$), indicating the presence of endogeneity. With the full model, the Hansen-Sargan overidentification test returned a highly significant result ($\chi^2(6) = 82.957, p = 0.0000$). It suggested that the constraints imposed (i.e., excluding the endogenous variables from later stages of the regressions) were not tenable. Similar to Study 1, a possible explanation was that the perceived leader humility and perceived impression management were predictors of time theft, intention to quit, or OCBO. The SEM implementation also returned significant overidentification test. Overall, these results show that although the experimental instruments were exogenous (by the nature of experiment) and statistically strong, both individuals and jointly, our three staged empirical model following the hypothesized relationships suffer from misspecification, possibly due to the fact that the independent variables cannot be excluded from the estimation equations of the ultimate outcomes. As such, the results on the later stage equations (shown in Table 6b) were not reliable evidence to support our hypotheses.

Table 6b about here

Exploratory Analysis

Given the miss-specification of the three-staged model was likely due to the exclusion of independent variables from the equations of the ultimate outcomes, we conducted an exploratory analysis by removing the ultimate outcomes (i.e. TT, IQ, OCB) and hence focusing on the first two stages to test our Hypothesis 1. Specifically, we implemented 2SLS covering equations 9-12 using the STATA syntax below:

```
ivreg2 HYP age gender ofe1-ofe2 (LH IM LH_IM = X1 X2 X1_X2), ///  
endog (LH IM LH_IM) first (E)
```

which is equivalent to:

```
reg3 (HYP = LH IM LH_IM age gender ofe1-ofe2) ///  
(LH IM LH_IM = X1 X2 X1_X2 age gender ofe1-ofe2), 2sls (F)
```

and:

```
sem (HYP <-LH IM LH_IM age gender ofe1-ofe2) ///  
(LH IM LH_IM <- X1 X2 X1_X2 age gender ofe1-ofe2), ///  
covstructure(e._OEn, unst) (G)
```

Same as the results reported in Table 6b, the instruments were individually and jointly strong predictors for the endogenous independent variables. The above two-stage model was just-identified, hence disallowing for the overidentification test. At a theoretical level, we expect the instruments to be excluded from equation 12 because the experimental scenarios were not directly related to leader hypocrisy. To ensure this is indeed the case, we removed age from the second stage equation (12) to enable the overidentification test. The test returned a non-significant result ($\chi^2(1) = 0.007$, $p = 0.9341$), indicating that the exclusion restrictions were tenable. Interpreting the results of the analysis (E, F, and G), which were reported in Table 7, we

found consistent support for the positive effect of the interaction of leader humility and followers' impression management attributions on the perception of leader hypocrisy ($\beta = 0.16, p = 0.04$). Overall, this exploratory analysis provides support for Hypothesis 1, suggesting that leader humility does not always induce positive feedback from subordinates, as its interaction with impression management attribution can trigger negative perception by the subordinates. While we were unable to support the proposed model with subordinates' behavioral consequence, our exploratory analysis shows attitudinal consequence as a result of incongruence between perception and attribution.

Insert Table 7 about here

10. Discussion

After carrying out both a sampling study (Study 1) and an experimental study (Study 2), our exploratory analysis of Study 2 supports our prediction that leader humility and impression management attributions interact to influence followers' perceptions of leader hypocrisy. As outlined in the theoretical section, to address the endogeneity problem in measuring leader humility and impression management attributions in Study 1, we employed instrumental variable estimates. However, our analyses showed that the instruments were weak, and the Hansen-Sargan overidentification test returned a highly significant result. This suggests that the constraints imposed are not tenable. Therefore, we cannot draw any conclusion from Study 1 results.

In Study 2, we conducted a scenario-based experimental study. Unlike Study 1's instrumental variables, Study 2's instrumental variables are strong predictors of leader humility and impression management attributions. However, similar to Study 1, the Hansen-Sargan overidentification test suggests that the constraints imposed (i.e., excluding the endogenous variables from later stages of the regressions) are not tenable. Hence, Study 2 results cannot be used to provide

support to proposed hypotheses 1-5c. Therefore, we conducted exploratory analysis which provides support to our Hypothesis 1 (i.e., the interactive effect of perceived leader humility and followers' impression management attributions are positively related to perceptions of leader hypocrisy). Although Taiwan and Canada have significant cultural dissimilarities, both samples provide at least some support for the proposed hypotheses, making it clear that leader humility is not unequivocally beneficial and leaders' behavioral consistency is crucial regardless of culture. After all, as humans, we share more similarities than differences with negative perceptions of attempts to deceive (impression management tactics) likely to be negatively attributed across cultures. Table 8 summarizes and compares the support for the hypotheses used in Studies 1 and 2.

Insert Table 8 about here

10.1. Theoretical Implications

This manuscript expands what is currently a rather limited understanding of leader humility. Prior research provides evidence of various consequences of leader humility—centered on commonly assumed positive attribution and perception— such as follower engagement (Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013), team performance (Owens & Hekman, 2015), firm innovation (Ou, Waldman, & Peterson, 2018). However, understanding the consequences of leader humility in the workplace involves more than just the resulting behaviors of the leaders' humility—it should also consider the other side of perception and attribution. With that in mind, this manuscript extends existing knowledge by considering the impact that other aspects of perception and attribution may have on leader humility. The current consensus from research on leader humility is that it is generally positive for follower's wellbeing and organizational performance.

Considering the fact that humility is an interpersonal characteristic that only emerges within a social context, there is clearly potential for downsides and a negative impact in the workplace (Ou, Seo, Choi, & Hom, 2017; Owens et al., 2013). By including the potential for leader humility to be perceived as hypocrisy, this study contributes to the leader humility literature by identifying those conditions that can undermine the positive influence of humility and contribute to the debate about its worthiness as a virtue (Exline & Geyer, 2004). Our investigation thus presents a more nuanced picture showing how followers' perceptions of leader humility can be undermined by their impression management attribution.

The identification of leader humility as concurrent with impression management attribution, as an incongruent state, is crucial mainly because perceptions of leader hypocrisy can result in detrimental changes in followers' behavior. Consequently, our results complement and extend the extant leadership research by employing person perception and attribution theories to propose a linkage between leader humility, impression management, hypocrisy, and followers' behaviors (intention to quit, time theft, OCBO). By outlining a mechanism through which the interactive effects of leader humility and impression management attribution may influence followers' behavior (through perceptions of leader hypocrisy), we provide researchers with a more in-depth understanding of the process through which this negative effect occurs, answering a recent call (Owens & Hekman, 2015) to identify the factors and mechanisms through which leader humility can be rendered ineffective. Simply put, our study unveils the other side of leader humility outcomes through the theoretical lens of person perception and attribution.

In a related vein, our theoretical rationale and empirical findings contribute to the leader humility literature by underscoring the importance of followers' attribution, and may help to explain why followers view leader humility as leader hypocrisy. The presence of impression

management attribution adds fuel to hypocrisy perception when followers realize or suspect that their leader's behavior diverges from the other-oriented behaviors (i.e., humility) they promote. In turn, followers may respond with heightened perceptions of leader hypocrisy, which also serves as an explanation for followers' passive, active, and neutral retaliations. Prior research has so far failed to examine the relationship between leader humility and its relationship with perceptions of leader hypocrisy, nor has the perception and attribution literature specifically examined the impression management attribution as a condition that strengthens the relationship between leader humility and perceptions of leader hypocrisy. Consequently, our study findings provide evidence for the idea that there is a distinct experience which occurs when followers' perception and attribution fail to align. In doing so, we also contribute to person perception and attribution theories with particular attention given to the mediating role of perceptions of leader hypocrisy.

Finally, our undertaking additionally contributes and extends the work on deviance and withdrawal. As expected, perception of leader hypocrisy is positively associated with time theft (low-risk withdrawal from the frustrating and/or stressful workplace; Bennett & Robinson, 2000). In addition, we also show the relation between leader hypocrisy and the followers' active retaliation through intention to quit and silent or neutral retaliation via OCBO. Overall, these results support our assertion that the perception of leader hypocrisy results in a general pattern of negative outcomes. By demonstrating the link between the interactive effect of leader humility and impression management, and negative outcomes through hypocrisy, we alert leader humility and deviance researchers to the potential outcomes of hypocrisy perception at the work place.

10.2. Practical Implications

As one of the first studies to empirically examine the followers' impression management attribution on leader humility and detrimental outcomes, the current study, if the results can be replicated, may provide practical implications for leaders and HR managers. As mentioned previously, a number of studies assert that leader humility leads to positive outcomes, and leaders have been captivated by the notion that more humble behaviors will result in more desirable outcomes (Oc, Bashshur, Daniels, Greguras, & Diefendorff, 2015; Ou et al., 2015; Owens & Hekman, 2015). Nevertheless, followers' impression management attribution presence along with leader humility could have undesirable outcomes and contribute to followers' perceptions of leader hypocrisy. Thus, we encourage leaders to be aware of the level of congruence between their own values and those of their followers.

Furthermore, the proliferation of corporate scandals over the past decade highlight the importance of virtues such as selfless humility, and leaders are expected to demonstrate more humility and less hubris (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005; Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez, 2004). In this way, at a practical level, this study provides an important implication for the HR managers of organizations that are running leadership development programs. Despite the prevalence of this practice in organizations, there is limited data regarding the impact of behavioral inconsistency perception on leader humility and how it impacts the interpersonal relations of leaders and followers. Our results are the first to provide theoretical and empirical evidence regarding how relatively minor perceived misalignments on the part of leaders can harm the leader-follower relationship and organizations as whole. Given the leader hypocrisy perceptions associated with humility for impression management attributions, leaders may seek

to understand and minimize what constitutes the potential for his or her attribution and the resulting impression management attributions which emerge.

Finally, we alert leaders and HR managers to be particularly cognizant of the likelihood that followers may use time theft, psychologically distance themselves, or avoid doing OCBO as a way to cope with their hypocrisy perceptions. Thus, we suggest leaders and HR managers ensure that organizational values are properly communicated and enforced. In some cases, HR managers may reveal leaders' pro-social behaviors that occur outside the organizational context, which may help to reduce the followers' impression management attributions of leaders' humble behaviors.

10.3. Limitations and Future studies

The present study has several limitations which should be noted. First, given that several variables in Study 2 use self-report measures, there is a potential for the same source bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This, however, is not considered to be a problem when interactions are examined (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Moreover, our focus on followers' perceptions and attributions makes self-reported measures reasonable for this type of research (Spector, 2006). Even so, in addition to organizational citizenship behavior, future studies should also consider examining behaviorally based outcomes rated by an objective source, such as job performance and work engagement.

Second, our scenario-based experimental Study 2 has the potential limitation of seeming unrealistic to participants. Although we use multiple methodologies and instrumental variables to compensate for the limitations associated with any one methodology and alleviate concerns regarding common method variance, we recommend that future research consider additional laboratory experiments.

Third, in the proposed model, we accounted for impression management attribution motive for leader humility; however, we do not examine the intrinsic attribution and the potential interplay between these motives. Accordingly, future studies on leader humility perception may consider how such motives co-exist and even conflict with one another. Moreover, it is possible that followers might hold different implicit theories to make sense of the social world (Gelman, Coley, & Gottfried, 1994). Consequently, these beliefs can influence how people understand and structure their perceptions and experiences. Therefore, future research would benefit from examining relational identification and morality beliefs, and organizational identification as controls and/or mediators or moderators to understand the followers' perceptions of leader humility. Also, as our studies clearly provide evidence of the detrimental effect of leaders' behavioral inconsistency on followers' behavior, future research should investigate the detrimental effect of paradoxical leadership behavior on followers' behavior due to the fact that those behaviors are systematically contradictory.

Finally, we should take into account the possibility of the cultural effects of our data set, which could make the hypocrisy perception more salient. Data used to test the proposed theoretical model have been collected in Taiwan (Study 1), where modesty and collectivist culture are pervasive. For example, modesty is a "played down" estimation of one's qualities and success, but humility is an accurate understanding of one's strengths and weaknesses. Moreover, modesty has more to do with the motivation for not drawing too much attention to or boasting about oneself (Owens et al., 2013). Therefore, in an East Asian context, leader humility may not be salient, which might be the forcible factor that leads to hypocrisy perception when there is humility. Future research would also benefit from examining cultural factors, such as power distance, and the influence of tradition on followers' perceptions.

Additionally, although we tend to overcome the cultural context generalizability issue by conducting studies in both Eastern and Western contexts, still there are potential limitations and it should be addressed in future studies. Specifically, our Study 1 (Taiwan) survey includes leaders' HEXCAO personality variables as instrumental variables that played a major role in our proposed model variables and their relationships. However, we did not have personality variables in Study 2 (Canada) which may explain the reasons why both Study 1 and Study 2 results are different. In this regard, when we conduct a scenario-based experimental study, we suggest future studies to use followers/raters' HEXACO personality variables because their personality could affect the way they perceive and attribute others' behavior even in the scenario.

11. Conclusion

Although it generally assumed that leader humility is good for followers in organizations, it is equally important to understand whether humility pays off in all situations. One important consideration is the nature of follower's perceptions and attributions and the implications for how followers respond to those leaders. Our purpose has not been to suggest that leader humility is simply a bad form of leadership that should be avoided, but rather to harness the positive effects of leader humility most effectively while simultaneously understanding the potential ways that leader's humble behaviors can also be perceived as hypocrisy. This is a crucial step for leaders in the use of humility as an actual practice and not merely a theoretical concept. We hope that the findings reported here spur further attention toward developing a better understanding of the relevance of followers' perception and attribution on leader humility; after all, leadership is just a matter of followers' perception and attribution.

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Table 4 Summary of Variables in Study 1 and Study 2

Variable	Type
Honesty-Humility (H)*	Instrumental (Exogenous)
Emotionality (E)*	Instrumental (Exogenous)
Extraversion (X)*	Instrumental (Exogenous)
Agreeableness (A)*	Instrumental (Exogenous)
Conscientiousness(C)*	Instrumental (Exogenous)
Openness (O)*	Instrumental (Exogenous)
Leader Humility	Independent (Endogenous predictor)
Impression Management	Moderator (Endogenous predictor)
Liking*	Endogenous Control
Hypocrisy	Mediator (Endogenous predictor)
Time Theft	Dependent variable (Endogenous)
Intention to Quit	Dependent variable (Endogenous)
Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization	Dependent variable (Endogenous)
Leaders' Age*, Sex*, and Tenure*	Instrumental (Exogenous)
Followers' Age, Sex, Tenure*	Controls (Exogenous)
Organizational Fixed Effect	Control (Exogenous)

Table 1b Summary of Variables in Study 1

Variable	Type	Rating
HEXACO	Instrumental (Exogenous)	Leader self-rating
Leaders' Age, Sex, Tenure	Instrumental (Exogenous)	Leader self-rating
Followers' Age, Sex, Tenure	Controls (Exogenous)	Follower self- rating
Organizational Fixed Effect	Control (Exogenous)	Dummy coded
Leader Humility	Independent (Endogenous Predictor)	Follower self- rating
Impression Management	Moderator (Endogenous Predictor)	Follower self- rating
Liking	Endogenous	Follower self- rating
Hypocrisy	Mediator (Endogenous Predictor)	Follower self- rating
Time Theft	Dependent Variable (Endogenous)	Follower self- rating
Intention to Quit	Dependent Variable (Endogenous)	Follower self- rating
Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization	Dependent Variable (Endogenous)	Leader rating of follower

Table 2 Study 1- Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among the Focal Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Honesty-humility	0.93																	
2. Emotionality	0.04	0.94																
3. Extraversion	0.36	-0.10	0.91															
4. Agreeableness	0.28	0.17	-0.02	0.90														
5. Conscientiousness	0.33	-0.08	0.38	0.10	0.92													
6. Openness	0.41	-0.02	0.20	0.23	0.20	0.93												
7. Liking	0.32	0.11	0.13	0.24	0.12	0.19	0.92											
8. Leaders' Age	-0.01	-0.04	0.03	-0.00	0.10	-0.17	0.02	–										
9. Leaders' Sex	-0.07	0.01	-0.02	-0.08	0.05	0.03	-0.02	0.04	–									
10. Leaders' Tenure (Organization)	0.01	0.03	-0.00	-0.01	-0.10	-0.08	0.08	0.19	-0.03	–								
11. Leader Humility	0.44	-0.05	0.19	0.28	0.28	0.29	0.34	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.89							
12. Impression Management	0.09	0.27	0.18	0.07	0.20	-0.05	0.12	0.13	-0.10	-0.07	-0.05	0.91						
13. Hypocrisy	-0.07	0.10	0.06	0.04	0.10	-0.06	0.07	0.07	0.10	-0.08	0.02	0.11	0.83					
14. Time Theft	-0.10	0.08	-0.03	0.03	0.04	-0.03	0.06	0.03	-0.02	-0.04	-0.01	0.14	0.60	0.73				
15. Intention to Quit	-0.06	0.08	-0.04	0.10	0.05	-0.04	0.02	0.13	-0.14	0.03	-0.07	0.16	0.59	0.56	0.86			
16. Organizational Citizenship Behavior	0.29	-0.06	0.02	0.23	0.16	0.19	0.18	-0.04	0.03	0.04	0.49	-0.13	-0.41	-0.35	-0.35	0.90		
17. Interaction 1 ^a	0.07	-0.00	0.15	-0.01	-0.00	-0.02	0.02	0.09	-0.16	0.02	-0.10	0.14	0.27	0.14	0.31	-0.11	-	
18. Interaction 2 ^b	-0.13	-0.01	0.05	-0.01	-0.12	-0.10	0.04	0.14	0.00	0.14	0.01	-0.02	-0.05	-0.09	-0.09	0.05	0.12	-
M	4.50	5.10	4.91	4.85	4.30	4.11	4.51	39.76	1.20	3.23	4.61	5.28	5.61	5.38	5.17	3.95	0.05	0.36
SD	0.88	1.13	0.83	1.15	1.12	0.83	1.17	24.11	0.40	0.88	1.05	1.33	0.97	0.82	0.89	1.30	1.07	0.94

Note. $N = 204$. M is Mean and SD is Standard Deviation. Cronbach's alphas are reported along the diagonal in parentheses. ^aInteraction 1 = Leader humility \times Impression management, ^bInteraction 2 = Honesty- Humility \times Extraversion. $r > .12, p < .05$; $r > .17, p < .01$.

Table 3a Study 1-Two-Stage Least Square Analysis for the Proposed Model

Variables	Endogenous predictor variables			
	Leader Humility (1)	Impression Management (2)	Leader Humility * Impression Management (3)	Liking (4)
Honesty-Humility	0.40(.00)	-0.03(.80)	2.14 (.00)	0.31 (.00)
Emotionality	-0.09(.13)	0.38(.00)	1.26 (.00)	0.09 (.18)
Extraversion	0.02 (.83)	0.27 (.03)	1.30 (.07)	0.09 (.37)
Agreeableness	0.19 (.00)	0.04 (.65)	1.11 (.03)	0.16 (.02)
Conscientiousness	0.15 (.04)	0.22 (.03)	1.74 (.00)	0.10 (.22)
Openness	0.15 (.10)	-0.16 (.18)	-0.02 (.97)	0.06 (.56)
Leaders' Age	0.03 (.77)	0.20 (.11)	1.28 (.09)	0.04 (.71)
Leaders' Sex	0.23 (.18)	-0.43 (.06)	-1.35 (.32)	-0.11 (.57)
Leaders' Tenure with Organization	0.07 (.42)	-0.16 (.17)	-0.31 (.64)	-0.01 (.91)
Controls				
Followers' Age	0.11 (.28)	-0.02 (.85)	0.59 (.47)	-0.04 (.73)
Followers' Sex	0.18 (.19)	0.05 (.78)	1.23 (.28)	0.09 (.57)
Followers' Tenure with Leaders	0.07 (.49)	0.06 (.66)	0.47 (.54)	0.11 (.30)
Organizational Fixed Effect	Included	Included	Included	Included
F	4.77	2.90	4.53	3.51
R ²	0.28	0.19	0.27	0.22

(no.) → in Endogenous predictor variables indicate the equation number in Study 1's analysis

section, B: Coefficient, P value

Table 3b Study 1-Two-Stage Least Square Analysis for the Proposed Model

Variables	Mediator		Dependent Variables			
	Hypocrisy(5)	Time Theft (6)	Intention to Quit (7)	Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Organization (8)	OCB- Subjective	OCB- Objective
Independent Variables						
Leader Humility (\widehat{LH})	3.36 (.51)	—	—	—	—	—
Impression Management (\widehat{IM})	3.38 (.45)	—	—	—	—	—
Leader Humility * Impression Management ($\widehat{LH} * \widehat{IM}$)	-0.71 (.48)	—	—	—	—	—
Liking (\widehat{L})	0.43 (.77)	—	—	—	—	—
Hypocrisy (\widehat{HYP})		0.72 (.00)	0.69 (.01)	-0.87 (.07)	-1.84 (.00)	
Controls						
Followers' Age	0.27 (.33)	-0.09 (.30)	-0.04 (.60)	-0.21 (.16)	0.01 (.95)	
Followers' Sex	-0.05 (.84)	0.05 (.60)	0.12 (.25)	-0.05 (.76)	-0.04 (.88)	
Followers' Tenure with Leaders	-0.08 (.76)	0.10 (.16)	-0.03 (.68)	-0.08 (.51)	0.00 (.97)	
Organizational Fixed Effect	Included	Included	Included	Included	Included	Included
F	0.49	2.09	2.37	1.84	1.54	
R ²	1.75	0.35	0.41	0.15	0.56	

($\widehat{}$) → in Independent variables indicate the predicted values in Study 1

(no.) → in Mediator and dependent variables indicate the equation number in Study 1's analysis and results section

B: Coefficient, P value

Table 4 Summary of Variables in Study 2

Variables	Type	Rating
Followers' Age and Sex	Controls (Exogenous)	Follower self-rating
Organizational (University) Fixed Effect	Control (Exogenous)	Dummy coded
Manipulated Leader Humility (X1)	Instrumental (Exogenous)	Scenario assignment (Dummy coded)
Manipulated Impression Management (X2)	Instrumental (Exogenous)	Scenario assignment (Dummy coded)
X1 * X2	Instrumental (Exogenous)	Scenario assignment (Dummy coded)
Leader Humility	Endogenous predictor	Follower self-rating
Hypocrisy	Endogenous predictor	Follower self-rating
Impression Management	Endogenous predictor	Follower self-rating
Time Theft	Dependent variable (Endogenous)	Follower self-rating
Intention to Quit	Dependent variable (Endogenous)	Follower self-rating
Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization	Dependent variable (Endogenous)	Follower self-rating

Table 5 Study 2- Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among the Focal Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Leader Humility	.91									
2. Impression Management	-0.09	.91								
3. Hypocrisy	-0.14	0.10	.82							
4. Time Theft	-0.20	0.19	0.53	.81						
5. Intention to Quit	-0.19	0.31	0.53	0.57	.79					
6. Organizational Citizenship Behavior	0.56	-0.18	-0.32	-.047	-	.90				
7. Follower's Age	-0.10	-0.01	0.03	0.03	0.01	-0.14	-			
8. Follower's Sex	0.06	0.02	0.07	-0.05	0.02	0.00	0.09	-		
9. Interaction 1 ^a	0.33	0.18	0.08	-0.09	-0.01	0.37	-0.11	0.04	-	
10. Interaction 2 ^b	-0.54	-0.08	0.32	0.16	0.06	0-.38	0.03	0-.07	0.12	-
M	4.32	5.63	4.97	5.09	5.39	3.71	23.75	1.53	0.19	0.09
SD	1.01	1.26	0.87	1.06	0.95	1.76	16.88	0.50	0.39	1.2

Note. $N = 208$. M is Mean and SD is Standard Deviation. Cronbach's alphas are reported along the diagonal in parentheses. ^aInteraction 1 = Manipulated Leader humility (X1) \times Manipulated Impression management (X2), ^bInteraction 2 = Observed Leader humility Observed impression management. $r > .13$., $p < .05$; $-.31 < r > .17$, $r > .52$, $p < .01$.

Table 6a Study 2-Two-Stage Least Square Analysis for the Proposed Model

Variables	Endogenous Predictor		
	Leader Humility (9)	Impression Management (10)	Leader Humility * Impression Management (11)
Instrumental Variables			
Manipulated Leader Humility (X1)	2.29 (.00)	-0.04 (.82)	8.53 (.00)
Manipulated Impression Management (X2)	0.52 (.00)	2.29 (.00)	10.71 (.00)
Manipulated Leader Humility (X1) * Manipulated Impression Management (X2)	-1.20 (.00)	-0.20 (.41)	-2.95 (.06)
Controls			
Followers' Age	-0.01 (.83)	-0.08 (.27)	-0.39 (.42)
Followers' Sex	0.13 (.18)	0.28 (.79)	0.50 (.47)
Organizational Fixed Effect	Included	Included	Included
F	40.13	60.61	31.06
R ²	0.54	0.64	0.48

(no.) → in Endogenous predictor variables indicate the equation number in Study 2's analysis and results section. B: Coefficient, P value

Table 6b Study 2-Two-Stage Least Square Analysis for the Proposed Model

Variables	Second Stage Mediator		Dependent Variables	
Independent Variables	Hypocrisy (12)	Time Theft (13)	Intention to Quit (14)	Organizational Citizenship Behavior-Organization (15)
Leader Humility (\widehat{LH})	-0.95 (.00)	—	—	—
Impression Management (\widehat{IM})	-0.49 (.13)	—	—	—
Leader Humility * Impression Management ($\widehat{LH} * \widehat{IM}$)	0.16 (.04)	—	—	—
Hypocrisy Controls	—	1.09 (.00)	1.20 (.00)	-3.07 (.00)
Followers' Age	0.01 (.93)	0.03 (.74)	-0.01 (.84)	-0.27 (.29)
Followers' Sex	0.14 (.23)	-.20 (.13)	-0.06 (.63)	0.34 (.37)
Organizational Fixed Effect	Included	Included	Included	Included
F	4.76	7.87	7.71	7.19
R ²	0.11	0.21	0.00	1.23

($\widehat{}$) → in Independent variables indicate the predicted values in Study 2

(no.) → in Second stage mediator and dependent variables indicate the equation number in Study 2's analysis and results section

B: Coefficient, P value

Table 7 Study 2- First Stage Analysis for the Proposed Model

Variables	Endogenous Predictor			Dependence variable
	Leader Humility	Impression Management	Leader Humility * Impression Management	Hypocrisy
Manipulated Leader Humility (X1)	2.29 (0.00)	-0.04 (0.82)	8.53 (0.00)	
Manipulated Impression Management (X2)	0.52 (0.00)	2.29 (0.00)	10.71 (0.00)	
Manipulated Leader Humility (X1) * Manipulated Impression Management (X2)	-1.20 (0.00)	-0.20 (0.41)	-2.96 (0.06)	
Leader Humility (\widehat{LH})				-0.96 (0.00)
Impression Management (\widehat{IM})				-0.49 (0.13)
Leader Humility * Impression Management ($\widehat{LH} * \widehat{IM}$)				0.16 (0.04)
Followers' Age	-0.01 (0.83)	-0.08 (0.27)	-0.40 (0.42)	
Followers' Sex	0.13 (0.18)	0.03 (0.79)	0.51 (0.47)	0.14 (0.23)
Organizational Fixed Effect	Included	Included	Included	Included
F	40.13	60.61	31.06	5.74
R ²	0.54	0.64	0.48	0.11

Table 8 Overall Summary and Comparison for Study 1, 2, and Study 2 Explorative analysis

Hypothesis	Support		
	Study 1	Study 2	Exploratory Analysis- Study 2
H1: Perceived Leader Humility * Impression Management Attribution → Perceptions of Leader Hypocrisy	Not tenable ¹	Not tenable ¹	Supported
H2: Perceptions of Leader Hypocrisy → Follower's Time Theft	Not tenable ¹	Not tenable ¹	Eliminated
H3: Perceptions of Leader Hypocrisy → Follower's Intention to Quit	Not tenable ¹	Not tenable ¹	Eliminated
H4: Perceptions of Leader Hypocrisy → Follower's Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization	Not tenable ¹	Not tenable ¹	Eliminated
H5a: Perceived Leader Humility * Impression Management Attribution → Perceptions of Leader Hypocrisy → Follower's Time Theft	No result ²	No result ²	Eliminated
H5b: Perceived Leader humility * Impression Management Attribution → Perceptions of Leader Hypocrisy → Follower's Intention to Quit	No result ²	No result ²	Eliminated
H5c: Perceived Leader Humility * Impression Management Attribution → Perceptions of Leader Hypocrisy → Follower's Organizational Citizenship Behavior- Organization	No result ²	No result ²	Eliminated

¹ The overidentificaiton test indicates that constraints made in the full model are not tenable

² Given that the proposed model is miss-specified, the indirect effects cannot be tested.

CHAPTER FIVE (STUDY 3)

A WOLF IN SHEEP'S CLOTHING: EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER HUMILITY AND UNETHICAL BEHAVIOR

One of the overarching purposes of this thesis is to explore the consequences of leader humility on employees' contradictory, detrimental, and pseudo-beneficial behaviors in an organizational context. Study 1 and Study 2 adopt a follower-centric approach to explore the influence of leader humility on followers' seemingly contradictory and detrimental behavior. The findings of these studies show that leader humility can induce outcomes that are not beneficial. In a relationship-cognition framework, the research on cognitive processes can help to explore the functions and processes in close relationships. Particularly, individuals in close relationships usually compare themselves both within and across relationships. In the long term, in a leader–follower relationship, both parties consider the use of relationship-maintenance strategies to ensure the continuance of the relationship because their inter-reliance. In this process, both the leader and the follower engage in behavior that increases the harmony in relationships. Simply put, in human relationships, social comparison is inevitable, particularly when individuals receive an increasing amount of praise from others. Such praise increases the likelihood of engaging in a process of social comparison (i.e., comparing oneself within and across relationships). Thus, Study 3 examines the effect when leaders perceive their humble behavior as morally praiseworthy, and whether this perception affects the leader's moral self-regard and their behavior toward the organization. To answer the research question, Study 3 adopts a leader-centric approach to explore the consequences on leader behavior of the leader perceiving their humility as morally praiseworthy.

A WOLF IN SHEEP'S CLOTHING: EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER HUMILITY AND UNETHICAL BEHAVIOR

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Prior research on the effects of leader humility implies that the more humility the leader exhibits, the greater the positive effect on recipients (e.g., followers and teams). However, little or no attention has so far been paid to the effects on the actors (e.g., leaders) who espouse humble behavior. In response to recent calls to theorize and examine how humility impacts these actors, this research draws on moral licensing theory, adopting an actor-centric approach to examine the mechanisms through which leader humility can lead to unethical behavior such as unethical behavior for an organization (pseudo beneficial) and unethical behavior toward the organization (detrimental). Ultimately, we propose leader relational accountability as a moderator to mitigate humble leaders' moral licensing effect. Results from experimental and survey-based studies provide general support for the proposed hypotheses.

1 Introduction.

In the dynamic context of early the twenty-first century, businesses are demanding that leaders demonstrate greater humility and less hubris because it is considered that we live in a context where hubris attracts attention, but humility gets results (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005; Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez, 2004). Owens, Johnson, and Mitchell (2013) have characterized leader humility as follows: 1) willingness to view oneself accurately (e.g., accepting his/her limitations); 2) teachability, or openness (e.g., seeking feedback even if it is critical); 3) appreciating others' strengths and contributions (e.g., recognizing others' achievements). In other words, leader humility is self-effacing, others-affirming, and mutual learning nature. To date, research has demonstrated that leader humility has several positive

effects on followers, for example, it leads to followers' greater job engagement, voice, creativity, and engagement in team tasks (Owens & Hekman, 2015; Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015; Rego et al., 2017). As a result, the current assumption is that leader humility is a positive management practice. Nevertheless, it is unclear whether this assumption holds when considering the influence of humble behaviors on leaders themselves. Thus, the assumption that leader humility is a positive management practice may be premature. Despite the beneficial consequences of leaders' humility on followers' behavior, no attention has been paid to the potential effects on leaders.

Failing to consider the potential detrimental effects of leader humility is a crucial oversight in the literature given that an emerging body of research suggests that engaging in what are generally considered "morally good" behaviors can be costly to leaders. For example, it has been found that individuals who model morally laudable behavior may engage in unethical acts and have limited concern about how organizational goals are achieved (Rose & Anastasio, 2014). In addition, prior studies have suggested that individuals who demonstrate "good citizenship" may incur unanticipated negative consequences because they have already demonstrated morally laudable behavior — benefit others with no external rewards promised a priori in return and discretionary (Bartal, 1982)— that motivates them to engage in unethical acts (Bolino, Klotz, Turnley, & Harvey, 2013; Merritt, Effron, & Monin, 2010). In this line of reasoning, we suspect that exhibiting humble leader behavior is one way for leaders to give support that they have high moral standing as it is other-oriented and discretionary. As stated, humility is other-oriented behavior that reflects an awareness of a relationship with others and indicates the importance of others. For instance, individuals with humble behavior show their vulnerability to demonstrate two-way learning, mutual respect, and encourage feedback even if it

is critical, which are all morally praiseworthy behavior (Owens & Hekman, 2015; Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015). Therefore, in this study, we seek to answer the following questions: 1) Does leader humility have a detrimental effect on leaders' behavior? 2) If so, under what conditions are such detrimental effects likely to emerge? To answer these questions, this study employs a leader-centric approach and adopts moral-licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010), which outlines the causes and outcomes of morally praiseworthy behavior.

To examine the detrimental outcomes of leader humility, we suggest that when leaders engage in humility, they develop a sense of moral license that leads to subsequent unethical behavior. To understand this connection, we use moral credits (i.e., credits earned through good behavior and accumulated in a metaphorical bank account) as a mediating mechanism between leader humility and leader unethical behavior mediator. Specifically, we use *moral credit* to capture the leaders moral licensing as leader humility should increase moral credits for a number of reasons. Individuals accumulate more and more moral credits only if their praiseworthy behavior is discretionary and other-oriented (Miller & Effron, 2010). Accordingly, given that leaders' humility is other-oriented and discretionary, they accumulate more moral credits.

Despite the different mechanisms implied by moral-licensing theory, behavior that is either illegal or morally unacceptable to the wider community is the common outcome of the effect of moral licensing (Miller & Effron, 2010). The present research suggests that the sense of having accumulated moral credits is likely to increase leader unethical behaviors. Hence, our study focuses on leaders' unethical behavior for organization (i.e., unethical behavior that benefits organization) and leaders' unethical behavior toward organization (i.e., unethical behavior that benefits individuals) as the downstream result because they are affected by leaders feeling they have surplus moral credits.

As the body of research on leader humility continues to grow, a fuller understanding the conditions that foster and/or restrict unethical acts of humble leaders becomes increasingly important. Particularly, leaders have an intrinsic drive to do what is best for the organization and their obligations are greatly influenced by immediate relationships because they are accountable for their acts. To address this, the study examines a crucial moderator on the extent to which humble leaders' moral credits influence leaders' unethical behavior. In an attempt to reduce the unethical outcomes of humble leaders' moral credits, the study proposes leaders' *relational accountability*—accountability towards their relational counterparts typically associated with an individuals' current role (Leavitt, Reynolds, Barnes, Schilpzand, & Hannah, 2012)— as a theoretically relevant condition. The proposed solution also gains support from accountability theory (Schlenker, 1986; Schlenker et al., 1994; Tetlock, 1999) because it suggests that perceived accountability decreases a person's intention to commit unethical acts due to an underlying assumption that individuals held accountable— “maintain the approval and the respect of those to whom they are accountable” (Tetlock, 1985, p. 309)— for their behaviors. In relation to the present study, relational accountability is likely to weaken the relationship between humble leaders' moral credits effect on leaders' unethical behavior toward an organization when leaders tend to maintain the mutually respectable relationship in the workplace; however, under the same condition, when the leader feels a surplus moral credit and sense of obligation to their relational counterpart, this interaction may strengthen the relationship between leaders' moral credits effect on leaders' unethical behavior for the organization (Hall, Blass, Ferris, & Massengale, 2004; Leavitt et al., 2012).

The overall objective of this study is to examine whether engaging in leader humility can lead to subsequent self-oriented unethical behavior for organization and toward the organization, and if so, to identify the mechanisms involved in this process. Having knowledge of the potential mediating and moderating mechanisms in the relationship between leader humility and unethical leader behavior can help organizations to encourage humility while simultaneously taking steps to mitigate any of its potential negative consequences. Thus, the present study seeks to expand understanding about humility and its moral licensing process, proposing four specific positions that can serve as contributions to the management literature. First, the present study suggests that it is possible for humble leaders to engage in unethical behavior for and toward their organization. This contribution sheds light on the possible negative outcomes of leader humility. Second, the study shifts the central focus of the literature on humility from followers to leaders. In doing so, we reveal the potential challenges that affect humble leaders, thus generating practical implications for leadership development. Third, the study examines the potential and possible antecedents of unethical behavior for and toward the organization to provide insight into why humble leaders may engage in unethical behavior at work. This contribution has practical implications for leadership development practice and organizational interventions aimed at curbing the effect of moral licensing on unethical behavior toward organization. Fourth, the study moves toward mitigating the detrimental effects of leader humility by identifying relational accountability as a potential moderator. Although relational accountability encourages leaders to engage in unethical behavior for the organization, by unveiling the two faces of accountability, the study contributes to accountability theory and to an integrated understanding of accountability. This contribution provides a more nuanced view of the association between

relational accountability and leader humility. Figure 5.1 summarizes the proposed theoretical model.

Figure 5.1 about inserts here

2 Theoretical Development

Moral licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010) states that previously performed good deeds elevate the actor's sense of moral self-regard to a level above the moral equilibrium that leads individuals to feel licensed to engage in bad deeds. Moral licensing theory is founded on the fundamental assumption that individuals engage in unethical acts based on the sense of moral license that they acquire through morally praiseworthy behavior. A number of studies suggested leader humility is morally praiseworthy behavior (Kupfer,2003; Owens et al.,2012; Owens et al., 2011), so we included a variable that captures leaders moral behavior that could present the risks to themselves (i.e., leader humility) as an antecedent to leader humility's detriment outcome (i.e., leader moral credit) and subsequent unethical acts (i.e., unethical behavior for/toward organization).

Furthermore, we propose a boundary condition (i.e., relational accountability) to mitigate leader humility's unethical acts. To address this, we adopt a theory of accountability (Tetlock,1992; Lerner & Tetlock, 1999), which describes — to maintain a social image, individuals cope with accountability by engaging in behaviors that are desired by those whom they account. In other words, accountability theory explains how the perceived need to justify an individual's behaviors to another party causes one to feel accountable for his or her own decisions. In this line of reasoning, we included a variable (i.e., relational accountability) which captures the leaders' accountability to his/her relational counterparts, for two primary reasons. First, when leaders hold relational accountability, it is highly unlikely that they engage in

unethical acts that affect them in the workplace. Second, leaders' relational accountability motivates leaders to engage in unethical acts that are beneficial to whom they account as the success in the workplace influence their role. Moreover, relational accountability is closely tied with leaders' responsibility that is not a choice because leaders are accountable for their relational counterparts.

2.1 Leader humility and the experience of moral credits

The first goal of this study is to examine the path from leader humility to moral credits and its consequences. By adopting moral licensing theory (Miller & Effron, 2010), an area of research that examines how individuals' morally praiseworthy behavior can be perceived as granting license to perform bad deeds (Bolino et al., 2013; Klotz & Bolino, 2013; Yam, Klotz, He, & Reynolds, 2017), we can provide insight into how a leader's behavior — such as humility — generates moral credits.

There are few studies that have applied moral licensing concept to extra-role behavior (Klotz & Bolino, 2013; Lin et al., 2016). Specifically, Klotz and Bolino (2013) conceptually showed that engaging in organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) can earn moral credits that license them to engage in deviance behavior. Similarly, Yam et al., (2017) showed a potential negative consequence of OCB when employees feel they are morally licensed due to their morally praiseworthy behavior. In this line of reasoning, as mentioned at the outset, we argue that leader humility is morally praiseworthy behavior as humility is self-effacing, others-affirming, and mutual-learning nature. First, acknowledging their weakness (i.e., willingness to view oneself accurately) allows leaders to have a greater openness with new information and demonstrates an appreciation of those who are highlighting it, even if they are in conflict with the leader's own beliefs (Owens & Hekman, 2015). From this perspective, a willingness to see

one's self accurately is one of the dimensions of leader humility shows the nature of self-effacing (Owens, Rowatt, & Wilkins, 2011). Second, humility fosters a positive work environment through openly recognizing and appreciating others' strengths and contributions (i.e., others-affirming) without feeling threatened by them (Owens et al., 2011). Finally, teachability or leaders' openness to learning from others (i.e., mutual-learning) positively influences the workplace as it exhibits a positive leader-follower relationship. Overall, these humble behaviors can enhance the leader's moral standing that may support leaders' moral credits.

Furthermore, as stated earlier, moral licensing theory views morality as a kind of metaphorical bank account in which moral credits can accumulate based on the good acts that influence our subsequent unethical behavior (Mullen & Monin, 2016). For instance, even if we behave badly, we still consider ourselves to be good people when we have enough moral credit built-up through our morally praiseworthy behaviors. Kouchaki and Jami (2016) conducted consumer behavioral research which shows that people act selfishly after being praised for good behavior, demonstrating the licensing effect in a marketing context. Furthermore, licensing has also been examined in an organizational context where engaging in citizenship and ethical behavior allows individuals to earn more moral credits that then license them to involve in questionable acts such as abusive or counterproductive behavior (Klotz & Bolino, 2013; Lin et al., 2016; Yam et al., 2017). Based on these examples and the preceding theoretical arguments, we suspect that engaging in morally praiseworthy humble behavior can increase the moral credits model of moral licensing. The underlying logical reason behind our claim is that humble leader behavior is inherently intertwined with morality in a way that bolsters leaders' moral credits. We, therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Engaging in leader humility is positively related to an increase in moral credits.

We argue that when individuals hold surplus moral credits and have a favorable moral self-regard, they feel free to engage in discreditable behavior without concern because they can use their moral credits to justify/ pay for their actions. Following this line of theoretical reasoning, we can shed some light on whether the surplus moral credit accrued from leader humility results in an increase in subsequent unethical behavior. Of course, we are not asserting that the acquisition of moral license automatically leads to unethical behavior, but only that it will remove the psychological barrier which permits some from engaging in such behavior. One noteworthy aspect of this study is that we examine not only unethical behavior, which harms organizations, but also unethical behavior enacted for the organization's benefit. In a leadership context, leaders are naturally filled with a sense of responsibility toward their organization; thus, we suspect that the leader licensing effect may also extend to unethical behavior enacted for the benefit of their organization.

Prior studies (Erkut, Jaquette, & Staub, 1981; Staub, 1978) suggest that the cost of moral decisions is often influenced by the actor's situation (i.e., role, responsibilities). More importantly, an individual's immoral acts are based on the extent that he or she feels morally licensed by the amount of moral credits in his or her metaphorical bank account. In the moral "credits" model, individuals tend to retain an overall positive balance. Thus, they accumulate moral credits via positive behavior, and later "spend" from their fund of positive behavior when there is a surplus of moral credits on the positive side of the ledger (Merritt et al., 2010; Miller & Effron, 2010). Therefore, individuals need to perform the mental arithmetic to track surpluses and deficits in their moral ledger. Merritt et al. (2010) suggest that an individual's choice of

behavior is solely based on his/her moral credits. On the flip side, behavioral choices play a crucial role in restoring the balance to the moral ledger (Merritt et al., 2010). More importantly, leaders tend to maintain their successful image because the compliance of their followers is the mirror image of successful leadership (Howell & Avolio, 1992).

Surplus moral credit can also motivate humble leaders to engage in unethical behaviors. However, due to the leaders' responsibility to maintain the positive association with their organization they may also engage in unethical behavior that benefits the organization because employees may perceive unethical behavior that benefits the organization as also benefitting themselves (Umphress et al., 2010). Similarly, a recent study shows that employees engage in unethical behavior that benefits the group when they seek to improve their inclusionary status in their team (Thau, Derfler-Rozin, Pitesa, Mitchell, & Pillutla, 2015). In support of the preceding theoretical evidence, and in addition to our own theorizing, it is useful to point out that although the surplus moral credits may motivate leaders to engage in unethical behaviors toward their organization when it directly benefit themselves, leaders are still likely to regulate their behavior to maintain a positive association with the organization, which can lead to unethical behavior that benefits the organization. Hence, we suggest that leaders' humility is prone to increase the moral credits that license people to exhibit subsequent self-oriented unethical behaviors because the moral credits they have earned can justify or enable them to afford such actions.

Hypothesis 2a: Engaging in leader humility will have a positive indirect effect on subsequent unethical behavior toward organization via increases in moral credits.

Hypothesis 2b: Engaging in leader humility will have a positive indirect effect on subsequent unethical behavior for organization via increases in moral credits.

2.3. The moderating role of leaders relational accountability

The final goal of this study is to examine the crucial moderating effect on leaders' unethical behavior. We propose that humble leaders' moral credits will be an especially powerful influence on unethical behavior when leaders' relational accountability is high. Unethical behavior in the workplace is created when there is a lack of accountability for questionable actions. Hence, we claim that leaders high in relational accountability will particularly benefit from leaders' moral credit because high relational accountability restricts them to engage in unethical behavior toward organization. Moreover, this prediction derived from accountability theory (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999), which suggests that the perceived need to justify one's behavior to another party causes one to feel accountable for one's decisions

In this way, accountability can serve as an enforcer of organizational norms and values (Lanivich, Brees, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2010). Similarly, studies have suggested that accountability encourages leaders to weigh decisions and consequences more carefully because of potentially having to justify their actions to a relational counterpart (Rozelle & Baxter, 1981; Siegel-Jacobs & Yates, 1996; Tetlock, 1985). Corroborating this line of thought, we believe that humble leaders accountability to organizations is crucial because their success decides the fate of their leadership effectiveness. Hence, in line with the theory of accountability and the preceding relevant evidence, it seems reasonable that relational accountability can serve to mitigate a leader's unethical behavior toward his/her organization enabled by the perception of having surplus moral credits.

Hypothesis 3a: Leader relational accountability negatively moderates the relationship between moral credits and unethical behaviors toward organization such that the relationship is weaker when relational accountability is high than when it is low.

On the other end of the spectrum, a study by Leavitt et al. (2012) argues that individuals are flexible in their moral judgment when they perceive commitments to others. Studies have also confirmed that perceptions of relevant moral obligations are influenced by immediate relationships (Brass, Butterfield, & Skaggs, 1998; Rai & Fiske, 2011). For example, lawyers who are committed to their clients have an obligation to get them acquitted of charges against them regardless of the client's guilt or innocence. Evidently, individuals strategically mold their judgment for decisions to correspond to the outcomes they desire from the evaluating audience, which is a metaphor for a "person-as-intuitive-politician" (Tetlock, 1985). Unlike past studies that view accountability as a formal and objective monitoring system in organizations (Ferris, Fedor, & King, 1994; Lerner & Tetlock, 1999), recent studies view accountability through a phenomenological lens, leading them to suggest that accountability is a state of mind which depends upon an individual's perception of organizational reality (Ammeter, Douglas, Ferris, & Goka, 2004; Frink & Ferris, 1999). In a related vein, when individuals are held accountable for outcomes, regardless of the means used to obtain such outcomes, it can lead to both increased commitment and less truthfulness (Simonson & Staw, 1992). As indicated earlier, individuals are flexible in their moral judgments under relational accountability (Leavitt et al., 2012). In turn, when leaders perceive themselves to possess a surplus of moral credits, could feel it is acceptable to engage in unethical behaviors for their under the belief that the ends justify the means. This implies that there may be a detrimental outcome of relational accountability when there is a surplus of moral credit.

Hypothesis 3b: Leader relational accountability positively moderates the relationship between the moral credit and the unethical behavior for organization such that the relationship is stronger when relational accountability is high than when it is low.

. 3. Overview of Studies

To test our proposed theoretical model's hypotheses, we have conducted two studies in Taiwan. In Study 1, to test our casual claim in the proposed theoretical model, specifically, to determine whether manipulated leader humility led to higher levels of leader moral credit and, ultimately, to unethical behavior for organization and unethical behavior toward organization, we used a scenario-based experimental design. Finally, in Study 2, we tested our entire model through survey-based study.

4 Study 1

Sample and Procedure

To conduct our experiment, we recruited experiment participants from a Taiwan university with the assistance of participant university faculty. We randomly selected a pair of 245 students to participate in this study and our final pair of sample was 187 (76.32% response rate). The average age was 22 years old ($SD = 2.90$). The questionnaires and scenarios were translated from English into Chinese by bilingual university staff members following a back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1970). In order to create a manipulated condition for leader humility (humble leader, non-humble leader), we used an experimental scenario which was based on Owens et al. (2013) conceptualization of leader humility and adopted leader humility script from Owens et al. (2015). To ensure the accuracy of the leader humility manipulations, we conducted a pilot study ($n=23$) which showed that the leader humility manipulation had a significant effect on participant perceptions of leader humility $F(1, 21) = 25.82, p < .01$. The results show that participants in the humble condition report leader humility ($M = 5.70, SD = 1.15$) than those in the non-humble condition ($M = 3.15, SD = 1.21$)

We asked the participants to read a scenario and to imagine what they would do if they

were in the given situation. In order to have other-rated leader humility, we have also asked the participants (different from who rated other variables in the model) to rate leader behavior—we have changed “you” as “Sam” and includes “his/her, he/she” in the appropriate places— in the scenario.

Experimental Manipulation (English version)

We used the following introductory paragraph in the scenario:

You are a project leader at Luxe Manufacturing (LM) Company. You have been employed at LM for six years, and you are known for efficiency. You have recently been asked to draft a new project proposal. Although you have experience in project management, the current project’s technical specifications are beyond your expertise, which affects your ability to define the timeline for the tasks in the project and complete the proposal. After a few weeks, the regional head is going to hold a project evaluation meeting with you.

Next, we included a paragraph that manipulates leader humility.

Humble Condition

You come to your team members to discuss a project. You admit to your team members that you are not an expert in the new project’s technical details and suggest they make a list of the project tasks’ anticipated time duration, ranked in ascending order, from 1 to 10, beginning with the most time-consuming tasks and ending with the least time-consuming ones. One of your team members suggests first categorizing the tasks as complex and non-complex tasks, after which they will go through and rank them. You feel it is a good idea and say, “although I am a leader, I may not be the smartest regarding this new technique and I welcome your suggestions.” Your team member feels happy and appreciates you for implementing his/her idea. You encourage your team members to share their suggestions. You ask their views on asking for a second opinion from the

engineering department. Your team members say it is a very sensible idea and appreciate your timely thinking. A few minutes later, you notice one of the team members is simply sitting. You encourage him/her by saying “I know you have good ideas, you’ve done a good job. Keep going.” Finally, you thank everyone for completing the task. The team members feel happy that you are caring, and appreciate your kindness and attentiveness. You also overhear team members speaking highly of your behavior towards the other members.

Non- Humble Condition

You come to your team members to discuss a project. You say you are the leader and you hope they can follow your suggestions. You ask them to prepare a list of the project tasks’ anticipated time duration, ranked in ascending order, from 1 to 10, beginning with the most time-consuming tasks and ending with the least time-consuming ones. One of your team members suggests first categorizing the tasks as complex and non-complex tasks, after which they will go through and rank them. You say no and ask him/her to just do as they were instructed. You say you like your way more and you are so glad you were chosen to be a leader as this role fits your personality. Your team member says his/her idea is also good. You ask him/her to follow your way. A few minutes later, you notice one of the team members is simply sitting. You ask her/him, “Please do not think about new ideas. Please follow my idea and rank them in ascending order. If you do not follow my way, I will take this issue seriously”. You ask the member to think harder. You say your approach is very good. Finally, you thank everyone for completing the task.

5. Measures

5.1.1 Leader humility. We measured leader humility using nine items from Owens et al. (2013). The scale contains items such as, “this leader actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical” ($\alpha = .91$).

5.1.2 Moral credits. We adopted five items to measure moral credits from Lin et al. (2016). Sample items include “Acting good built up my account of moral credits,” and “Each good deed I performed added to my moral credit.” ($\alpha = .89$).

5.1.3 Unethical behavior for and toward organization. The detrimental outcome is measured through unethical behaviors toward organization using seven items from Moore, Detert, Klebe Treviño, Baker, and Mayer (2012). Sample items include “If it would benefit me, I would falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than I spent on business expenses.” ($\alpha = .90$). Similarly, pseudo beneficial outcomes (i.e., unethical behavior for the organization) is measured through seven items (e.g., If it would help my organization, I would misrepresent the truth to make my organization look good) developed by Umphress et al., 2010. ($\alpha = .92$).

5.1.4 Control Variables. We included participants’ age, gender, and education as control variables.

6. Results-Study 1

Scale Validation-Study 1

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among the main variables are presented in Table 1. Prior to hypotheses testing, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with AMOS 19 to measure the distinctiveness of the measured variables. We compared the fit of our proposed theoretical model, which consists of five factors, to a number of nested plausible alternative models based on chi-square statistics and fit indices, such as the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the incremental fit index (IFI), and the root-mean-squared error of approximation (RMSEA). The fit indexes reveal that the fit of the five-factor model is the best ($\chi^2 (343) = 534.16$; CFI = .94; IFI = .94; TLI = .93; RMSEA = .05). These results provide support for the construct validity of focal variables. Also, the construct

reliability was examined using Cronbach's alpha. The result indicates that all the measures have a high degree of reliability.

Insert Table 1 about here

Manipulation Check

Before testing our hypotheses, we examined whether the manipulations were successful by conducting one-way ANOVAs. The leader humility manipulation had a significant effect on participants' perceptions of leader humility, $F(1, 185) = 226.98, p < .001$. Results indicated that participants in the humble condition reported high leader humility ($M = 6.03, SD = .55$) than participants in the non-humble condition ($M = 4.51, SD = .81$).

Results of Hypotheses Testing – Study 1

Following the recommendation of Preacher and Hayes (2008), we conducted bootstrapped regression-based path analyses (i.e., PROCESS software) to test both mediation and moderation; we included the control variables as covariates. The results of these analyses are presented in Table 2. As can be seen in Table 2, leader humility is positively related to leader moral credits ($\beta = .51, t = 5.59, p = .000$). This result supports Hypothesis 1. The results of the indirect effect analyses indicate that leader humility predicts leader unethical behavior for organization ($\beta = .17; CI [.05, .07], SE = .05$) and also unethical behavior toward organization ($\beta = .14; CI [.05, .26], SE = .05$) through the mediating influence of leader moral credits; thus, hypotheses 2a and 2b are supported.

Insert Table 2 about here

7 Study 2

Method

To examine our proposed theoretical model's hypotheses, we have conducted a time-lagged study in Taiwan. To test our hypotheses, we sampled employees and their leaders in various kinds of organizations, such as hospitality, retail, and IT. These organizations face stiff competition, and the level of competition in a market may influence the leaders' willingness to engage in unethical behavior (Schwieren & Weichselbaumer, 2010; Shleifer, 2004).

Sample and Procedure

The participants in this study were also identified through Human Resource Management departments. Our initial sample consisted of 320 unique follower-leader dyads who agreed to participate. The research administrator distributed the surveys in person to participants in closed envelopes. The envelope included questionnaires in Chinese, a letter that introduced the study, explained that participation was completely voluntary, and guaranteed the confidentiality of responses.

We collected surveys at three points of time. At Time 1, we collected data on follower's demographics and their rating of their leaders' behavior (humility, ethics) and leaders' demographics and negative affectivity (a control variable). At Time 2, we surveyed leaders' relational accountability, control variables (moral credential, positive reciprocity beliefs), and moral credits. A week later (Time 3), we surveyed leaders' unethical behavior for the organization and toward the organization. Of the 320 dyads, we identified 273 fully completed surveys (85.31% response rate) across all three times. The demographics of the leaders' sample were as follows: 71.8% were male, the average age was 47.77 years old (SD = 10.29). The

leader-follower dyads primarily worked in the hospitality (37%), retail (32.6%), and IT (30.4%) industries.

8 Measures

8.1.1 Leader humility.

We measured leader humility using nine items from Owens et al. (2013). In study 1, leaders are asked to rate their behavior. The scale contains items such as “This leader actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical,” and “This leader admits it when he or she does not know how to do something.” ($\alpha = .93$).

8.1.2 Leader moral credit.

We adopted five items to measure moral credits from Lin et al. (2016). Sample items include “Acting good built up my account of moral credits,” and “Each good deed I performed added to my moral credit.” ($\alpha = .90$).

8.1.3 Leader relational accountability.

We assessed leaders’ relational accountability using a six-item measure developed by Leavitt et al. (2012). The scale contains items such as “In my managerial role, I have very specific duties to those depending on me for profits.” ($\alpha = .90$).

8.1.4 Leaders detrimental and pseudo-beneficial outcomes.

The detrimental outcome is measured through unethical behaviors toward organization using seven items from Moore, Detert, Klebe Treviño, Baker, and Mayer (2012). Sample items include “If it would benefit me, I would falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than I spent on business expenses.” ($\alpha = .89$). Similarly, pseudo beneficial outcomes (i.e., unethical behavior for the organization) is measured through seven items (e.g., If it would help my organization, I would misrepresent the truth to make my organization look good) developed by

Umphress et al., 2010. ($\alpha = .90$).

8.1.5 Control variables

We included moral credential as a control variable. As noted in our theorizing, leader humility is other-oriented behavior, which can be construed as morally laudable. Therefore, exhibiting humility may bolster moral credentials. Thus, we include a measure of moral credentials to distinguish the effect of moral credits. Moral credentials were rated using a five-item internalization scale developed by Aquino and Reed (2002) ($\alpha = .92$). We also included positive reciprocity beliefs as a control variable. Prior studies argue that positive reciprocity belief plays a moderating role in willingness to engage in unethical behavior for the organization because the need to reciprocate the favorable treatment they received from exchange partner motivates them to engage in unethical behavior for the organization. Leaders completed a ten-item measure developed by Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, and Rohdieck (2004) ($\alpha = .92$). Similarly, we also controlled for leader trait negative affectivity ($\alpha = .88$) (i.e., concerns regarding an individual's general outlook on life) because it may also influence individuals' unethical behavior toward organization (Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011). Finally, in addition to participants' age, gender, tenure with their organization, another control variable included in the model is ethical leadership (eight items were taken from Brown, Treviño, and Harrison, 2005) ($\alpha = .93$). We included a measure of ethical leadership to distinguish the effect of leader humility from this established leadership construct.

9. Results- Study 2

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among the main variables are presented in Table 1. Prior to hypotheses testing, we examined validity through confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 19. The fit indexes revealed that the fit of the six-

factor model was the best ($\chi^2 (515) = 962.80$; CFI = .92; IFI = .92; TLI = .92; RMSEA = .05). These results provide support for the construct validity of focal variables.

Insert Table 1 about here

Results of hypothesis testing

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among the main variables are presented in Table 3 We tested the model using the method described by Preacher and Hayes (2008). The results of these analyses are reported in Table 4. In support of Hypothesis 1, the independent variable results reveal that leader humility is positively related to leader moral credits ($\beta = .66$; $t = 11.07$, $p = .000$). As predicted, leader moral credits mediate the relationship between leader humility and both unethical behavior for the organization ($\beta = .27$; $CI [.18, .38]$, $SE = .05$) and toward the organization ($\beta = .34$; $CI [.26, .43]$, $SE = .04$), which supports hypotheses (2a and 2b).

Hypothesis 3a is supported as the interaction of relational accountability and leader moral credit in predicting unethical behavior toward the organization is significant ($\beta = -.37$; $t = 7.60$, $p = .000$). As predicted, the interaction of relational accountability and leader moral credit in predicting unethical behavior for the organization is significant ($\beta = .13$; $t = 2.18$, $p < .029$). Thus, Hypothesis 3b is supported, as illustrated in Figures 2 and 3. The results of these analyses are reported in Table 5.

Insert Tables 3, 4, 5, Figures 2 and 3 about here

10. Discussion

Theoretically speaking, leader humility is beneficial for followers and teams even though under some circumstances it induces contradictory outcomes in followers' behaviors (see

Bharanitharan, Chen, Bahmannia, & Lowe, 2018). However, to date, almost all studies in this area have focused on the effects that such behavior has on followers while ignoring the effects on leaders (i.e., the leaders who exhibit humility). This is unfortunate because the humility effect on leaders is vital and it has implications for leadership development practices as they directly impact followers and work-group performance. Indeed, across an experimental study and a snowball sampling study, our findings indicate that displays of humility have a potential pitfall in that they paradoxically increase the likelihood that leaders' subsequently consider performing unethical behaviors either toward or for the organization, as both behaviors eventually benefit them. This tendency towards unethical behaviors is likely because exhibiting humble behavior increases leaders' perception of having built up a store of moral credits, which is consistent with moral licensing theory and both studies provide support to our claim.. In Study 2, findings from hypotheses 3a and 3b support the idea that leaders' relational accountability negatively moderates the relationship between leaders' moral credit and leaders' unethical behavior toward the organization whereas positively moderates toward unethical behavior for organization. This result strengthens the argument that humble leaders' relational accountability is a double edge sword. In the following section, we discuss our findings and explore the implications for theory and practice.

10.1. Theoretical and Practical Implication

This research advances knowledge about leader humility and offers several important contributions. Ultimately, this research provides a theoretical basis to support the idea that leader humility can suffer from the “too much of a good thing” effect (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). A primary contribution is the finding that a dynamic relationship exists between two opposite behaviors: other-oriented (humility) and self-oriented (unethical) leader behaviors. Theoretically,

prior research propositions have generally concluded that these two types of behaviors are negatively related (Frostenson, 2016; Morris et al., 2005; Owens et al., 2013), working under the implicit assumption that “other-oriented leader behaviors are good” and “self-oriented leader behaviors are bad.” The results refute the implicit assumption that humility will not lead to unethical acts (Kupfer, 2003; Morris et al., 2005), but they also show that the interplay between other-oriented (humility) and self-oriented actions (unethical behavior) is often highly nuanced within the competitive business context. In fact, in line with moral-licensing theory, humble leader behavior can eventually lead to unethical behaviors for or toward the organization. Thus, this research suggests that it may be an oversimplification to merely classify individual leaders as other-oriented or self-oriented. Using a behavioral perspective (vs. an entity perspective), research can further examine leader behaviors.

Our results complement and extend the leadership research by employing moral-licensing theory to propose connections between leader humility, moral credits, and unethical behaviors for or toward the organization. By identifying the mechanism through which leader humility (other-orientation) can lead to unethical behaviors for or toward the organization (self-oriented) (i.e., through moral credits), the study provides more in-depth understanding about the process through which this transformation occurs. Particularly, this study extends the research on leader humility by adding a substantive mediator to explain how leader humility can lead to unethical behaviors. The research also considers a highly relevant, yet understudied, construct: moral credits. In doing so, this study provides the insight that the moral-licensing model of moral credits is a key psychological conduit through which humble leaders motivate themselves to perform unethical acts despite their fears. These results may be interpreted to suggest that some leaders may justify their unethical actions by appealing to their surplus moral credits.

Further, much of the literature on unethical behavior portrays unethical behavior as self-orienting or self-benefitting (Greenberg, 2002; Grover & Hui, 1994; Schweitzer, Ordóñez, & Douma, 2004; Treviño, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006). However, the present study shows that when leaders perceive surplus moral credits, they may not only be inclined to engage in unethical behaviors toward their organization but also for the organization given that this unethical behavior will also benefit the leader. Thus, this study advances understanding of unethical actions that are both to the benefit and to the detriment of the organizations by emphasizing the importance of a fundamental aspect of the relationship between leader humility and moral credits. While a great deal of previous research has treated leader humility simply as a means to suppress misconduct or to increase pro-social behavior, this study empirically demonstrates that the moral-licensing model of moral credits is an active decivilizing force that motivates a humble leader to engage in unethical actions (i.e., unethical behaviors for or toward the organization). Given that the indirect effect of humility on unethical behaviors for or toward the organization can be significant, organizations should take steps to mitigate the detrimental and pseudo-beneficial effect of moral credits. As stated, individuals gain moral license when their behaviors are discretionary (Miller & Effron, 2010); thus, establishing leader behavior as a non-discretionary behavior and considering it an in-role job requirement may mitigate the licensing effect.

A further solution for the licensing effect can be achieved by incorporating the theory of accountability with moral-licensing theory, which highlights another theoretically grounded condition under which moral-licensing outcomes are particularly likely to disappear. The findings of the present research relating to the moderating influence of relational accountability on the relationship between moral credits and unethical behaviors toward the organization are

consistent with the theory of accountability. As a result, relational accountability weakens the relationship between moral credits and unethical behaviors toward the organization. With this finding, the study takes a necessary first step toward mitigating the moral-licensing effect by suggesting a solution through suggesting that relational accountability should serve as a boundary condition. However, contrary to the theory of accountability prediction, the moderating influence of relational accountability on the relationship between moral credits and unethical behaviors for the organization is strong and positive. Consequently, the results suggest that the combination of moral credits and relational accountability motivates leaders to engage in unethical behavior for the organization, which reveals the influential role of moral credits. The results may also be interpreted as suggesting that some leaders may be inclined to justify their unethical actions by appealing to the principle of higher relational accountability that is, leaders may believe that they are simply doing what is profitable for organizations. It can also be argued that a leaders' relational accountability will make them care more about their own success because engaging in unethical behavior toward the organization may negatively affect their own reputation, and thus their career success. A counterargument for this claim can be made through moral-licensing theory in its explanation that leaders can embrace questionable behaviors when they feel they have surplus moral credit. In this condition, the leader will believe their unethical behaviors will have little or no effect on their career success.

By providing a theoretical lens and unveiling the factor that counteracts the detrimental outcome of the moral-licensing model of moral credits (i.e., unethical behavior toward organization), this study contributes to the stream of moral-licensing literature that seeks a solution to mitigate the effects of moral licensing. The study also advances the accountability literature by revealing the other side of relational accountability; in particular, the study observes

that relational accountability fails to counteract the effects of moral credits, suggesting that relational accountability increases the level of commitment and threatens to lead to unethical behaviors for the organization (pseudo-beneficial) when there are surplus moral credits. Accordingly, to mitigate the detrimental effects of accountability, the study recommends that organizations instill a culture of ethical process to achieve a desirable outcome and hold leaders accountable for the means used to obtain such outcomes.

Further, most research has focused predominately on unethical behaviors for organizations, that is, unethical pro-organizational behavior, through the research lens of the social-identity and exchange theories, contributing to the organizational and social exclusion literature (Thau et al., 2015; Umphress et al., 2010). In contrast, the present research contributes to the behavioral-ethics literature by extending the role of relational accountability and moral credit to unethical behaviors for the organization through moral-licensing theory and the theory of accountability.

Finally, it is generally assumed that both humility and relational accountability lead to positive behaviors. This research challenges the argument that a moral-licensing model of moral credits is sufficient to transform into negative behaviors, demonstrating that judgment can be readily swayed by morally praiseworthy behaviors and relational accountability.

10.2. Limitations and Future Research

Our research has several limitations that should be noted. First, the three studies employed an actor-centric approach and were based on factors that potentially connect humility and unethical leader behaviors. However, this focuses on whether surplus moral credits may also depend on other organizational factors such as ethical climate (i.e., an organizational culture that incorporates formal and informal systems to support ethical behaviors) (Treviño, 1990) and

follower humility. Moreover, the studies control for leader ratings of ethical leadership, and demonstrate that the moral-credits effect is unique to leader humility, but the studies do not control the external factors (e.g., ethical organizational culture and follower humility). Therefore, future studies should pay closer attention to external factors and examine to what extent the indirect effects of these factors change outcomes.

Second, one of the primary goals of the theoretical model of this research is to capture the mediating role of moral credits. To this end, the theoretical arguments highlight the fact that leaders' temperance virtue (humility) is expected to elevate moral self-regard and generate the cognitive conclusion that the leader has accumulated surplus moral credits, which may encourage the leader to engage in unethical behaviors for and toward the organization. However, it is equally plausible that moral credits give rise to unethical behaviors conducted in other psychological states (e.g., emotional exhaustion, cynicism, ego depletion). Therefore, future studies should consider variables such as these to test the mediating mechanisms between leader humility and unethical behaviors.

Third, although the theoretical model of this research focuses on relational accountability as a mitigating factor of the effect of moral licensing on unethical behaviors toward the organization, it would also be interesting to examine the conditions that could mitigate leaders' engagement in unethical behaviors for the organization. For example, perhaps leaders are more likely to engage in unethical behaviors for the organization when they believe that they have relational accountability and moral credits. To this end, the unethical-behavior literature, particularly, literature examining unethical behavior for the organization, would benefit from investigating relevant theoretical perspectives that may explain when leaders care most about unethical behaviors for the organization. In particular, social-influence theory (Higgins, Judge, &

Ferris, 2003; Levy, Collins, & Nail, 1998) may be beneficial for considering when leaders are most likely to engage in, or care about their, unethical behavior for the organization by determining whether a leader could have refrained from behaving unethically despite it being pseudo-beneficial to organization.

Fourth, leader humility and its influence on unethical behaviors may vary across cultures; however, cultural variables were not included in the current study, principally because the model already contains ten variables, threatening to induce rater fatigue, which may affect or distract the objective of the study. In addition, examining cultural influence on leader humility, leaders' moral credit and unethical behavior for and toward organizations is beyond the scope of the present study. Thus, it is recommended that future studies examine the effect of cultural influence on this relationship by employing Hofstede's cultural typology insights. It is important to further explore this possibility because previous studies also note that employees' individualism, collectivism, and power distance have a significant effect on employees' ethical attitudes (Christie et al., 2003; Smith & Hume, 2005). Along with these cultural variables, future studies should also consider organizational ethical climate as a control variable or moderator.

11. Conclusion

Leader humility alone constitutes a "good" form of leadership and has a beneficial effect on followers and the workgroup (Owens et al., 2011); however, it may have a stronger unfavorable effect when a humble leader gains surplus moral credits and adopts an opposite identity to the behaviors that they normally exhibit. The purpose of this research has not been to suggest that leader humility leads to unethical behavior toward and for the organization, nor that leader humility is simply bad. While this research believes that leader humility is vital and leaders ought to exhibit such behavior, at the same time, organizations need to be conscious of its

detrimental and pseudo-beneficial effects; thus, the research recommends using an ethical lens to distinguish between the sheep and the wolf in sheep's clothing. It is hoped that this study has galvanized interest in understanding the other side of leader humility and relational accountability so that other researchers will be motivated to further investigate in this area.

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Table 1
Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities - Study 1

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Leader Humility	5.51	.97	(.91)						
2. Moral Credits	5.72	.90	.42***	(.89)					
3. Unethical Behavior for Organization	4.89	1.01	.11	.31***	(.90)				
4. Unethical Behavior toward Organization	5.49	1.17	.09	.48	.11	(.92)			
5. Age	22.02		-.00	-.10	.01	-.00	—		
		2.90							
6. Gender	1.36	.48	.04	.01	.09	.11	.08	—	
7. Education	1.45	.49	-.01	-.07	-.05	-.00	.16	.01	—

Note. $N = 187$. *SD* is standard deviation. Internal reliabilities (alpha coefficients) for the overall constructs are given in parentheses on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 2

Mediating Role of Leader Moral Credits – Study 1

Dependent Variables	Moral Credits			Unethical Behavior for Organization						Unethical Behavior toward Organization					
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5		
Measure	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t
Leader Humility	.51(.09)	.000	5.59	.03(.11)	.753	.31	.22(.11)	.052	1.95	-.06(.12)	.638	.47	.27(.13)	.037	2.09
Moral Credits				.36(.08)	.000	4.08				.65(.09)	.000	6.87			
Age	-.10(.08)	.208	1.26	.06(.10)	.515	.65	.02(.10)	.794	.26	.03(.10)	.769	.29	-.03(.12)	.755	.31
Gender	.03(.12)	.753	.31	.16(.14)	.257	1.13	.18(.15)	.239	1.18	.25(.15)	.112	1.59	.27(.17)	.111	1.56
Education	-.07(.12)	.543	.60	-.09(.14)	.515	.65	-.12(.15)	.423	.80	.04(.15)	.779	.28	-.00(.17)	.978	.02
Indirect Effect of Moral Credits	Leader Humility – Unethical Behavior for Organization						Leader Humility – Unethical Behavior toward Organization								
				β (SE)	95% CI					β (SE)	95% CI				

Note. $N = 187$. *SE* is standard error. *CI* is confidence interval based on 1000 bootstrap samples. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 3**Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities - Study 2**

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Leader Humility	3.74	1.12	(.93)												
2. Moral Credits	4.61	1.15	.56***	(.90)											
3. Unethical Behavior for Organization	4.10	.95	.06	.36**	(.90)										
4. Unethical Behavior toward Organization	4.59	.92	.10	.50**	.35**	(.89)									
5. Relational Accountability	4.61	1.88	.02	-.058	.04	-.10	(.90)								
6. Ethical Leadership	3.45	1.56	.44***	.10	-.04	-.09	.05	(.93)							
7. Moral Credential	4.55	1.20	.08	.12*	-.04	.08	.03	-.06	(.92)						
8. Positive Reciprocity Beliefs	4.17	1.34	.23***	.06	-.08	-.06	.02	.29***	-.08	(.92)					
9. Negative Affect	4.93	1.18	-.07	.07	.01	.11	-.12*	-.20**	.02	-.26***	(.88)				
10. Leader Age	47.77	10.29	-.04	-.01	.06	-.05	-.00	-.01	.03	-.02	-.06	—			
11. Leader Gender	1.28	.45	-.11	-.04	-.01	-.01	-.07	.12*	-.00	.12*	-.11	.03	—		
12. Leader Education	2.68	.70	-.01	-.03	-.121*	.08	.02	.12*	.08	.05	-.01	.01	.04	—	
13. Tenure with Leader	4.31	2.43	.04	.01	-.04	.00	-.06	.13*	.03	-.01	-.05	.02	.06	.10	—

Note. $N = 273$. SD is standard deviation. Internal reliabilities (alpha coefficients) for the overall constructs are given in parentheses on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 4
Mediating Role of Leader Moral Credits – Study 2

Dependent Variables	Moral Credits			Unethical Behavior for Organization						Unethical Behavior toward Organization					
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5		
Measure	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t
Age	.01(.05)	.794	.26	.05(.05)	.336	.96	-.04(.04)	.351	.93	-.04(.05)	.319	.99	-.05(.04)	.187	1.32
Gender	.11(.13)	.393	.85	.00(.13)	.941	.07	-.03(.12)	.772	.28	.01(.12)	.896	.13	-.03(.10)	.717	.36
Education	-.22(.08)	.008	2.63	-.16(.08)	.054	1.92	-.07(.08)	.346	.94	-.36(.07)	.000	4.59	-.25(.06)	.000	3.71
Tenure	.00(.07)	.898	.12	-.05(.07)	.438	.77	-.05(.06)	.368	.90	-.11(.06)	.097	1.66	-.11(.05)	.044	2.01
Ethical Leadership	-.10(.04)	.020	2.32	-.03(.04)	.466	.72	.00(.04)	.832	.21	-.06(.04)	.135	1.49	-.01(.03)	.734	.33
Moral Credential	.07(.04)	.111	1.59	-.02(.04)	.574	.56	-.05(.04)	.195	1.29	.09(.04)	.044	2.01	.05(.03)	.168	1.38
Positive Reciprocity Beliefs	.01(.04)	.818	.22	-.05(.04)	.283	1.07	-.05(.04)	.205	1.26	.01(.04)	.791	.265	.00(.03)	.864	.17
Negative Affect	.08(.05)	.095	1.67	.00(.05)	.974	.03	-.03(.04)	.450	.75	.08(.04)	.079	1.76	.04(.04)	.299	1.03
Leader Humility	.63(.05)	.000	10.54	.07(.06)	.220	1.22	-.18(.06)	.007	2.70	.08(.05)	.134	1.50	-.22 (.05)	.000	3.85
Moral Credits							.40(.05)	.000	6.98				.48(.04)	.000	9.71

Indirect Effect of Moral Credits	Leader Humility – Unethical Behavior for Organization		Leader Humility – Unethical Behavior toward Organization	
	β (SE)	95% CI	β (SE)	95% CI
	.25(.04)	[.16, .35]	.30(.04)	[.22, .39]

Note. $N = 273$. *SE* is standard error. *CI* is confidence interval based on 1000 bootstrap samples. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Table 5
Moderating Hypotheses – Study 2

Dependent Variables	Relational Accountability					
	Unethical Behavior for Organization			Unethical Behavior toward Organization		
Measure	β (SE)	p	t	β (SE)	p	t
Age	.06(.04)	.215	1.24	-.07(.04)	.060	1.88
Gender	.04(.12)	.726	.35	.06(.09)	.526	.63
Education	-.10(.08)	.197	1.29	-.16(.06)	.010	2.57
Tenure	-.05(.06)	.409	.82	-.09(.05)	.065	1.85
Ethical Leadership	-.03(.03)	.406	.83	-.09(.03)	.001	3.30
Moral Credential	-.08(.04)	.052	1.94	.08(.03)	.028	2.20
Positive Reciprocity Beliefs	-.07(.04)	.084	1.73	.00(.03)	.792	.26
Negative Affect	-.01(.04)	.774	.28	.01(.03)	.625	.48
Relational Accountability	.07(.05)	.161	1.40	.00(.04)	.837	.20
Moral Credits	.34(.05)	.000	6.21	.48(.04)	.000	10.64
Moral Credits \times Relational Accountability	.15(.06)	.013	2.49	-.36(.04)	.000	7.47
R^2	.21			.46		
F	4.75			14.70		

Figure 1 Proposed Conceptual Model

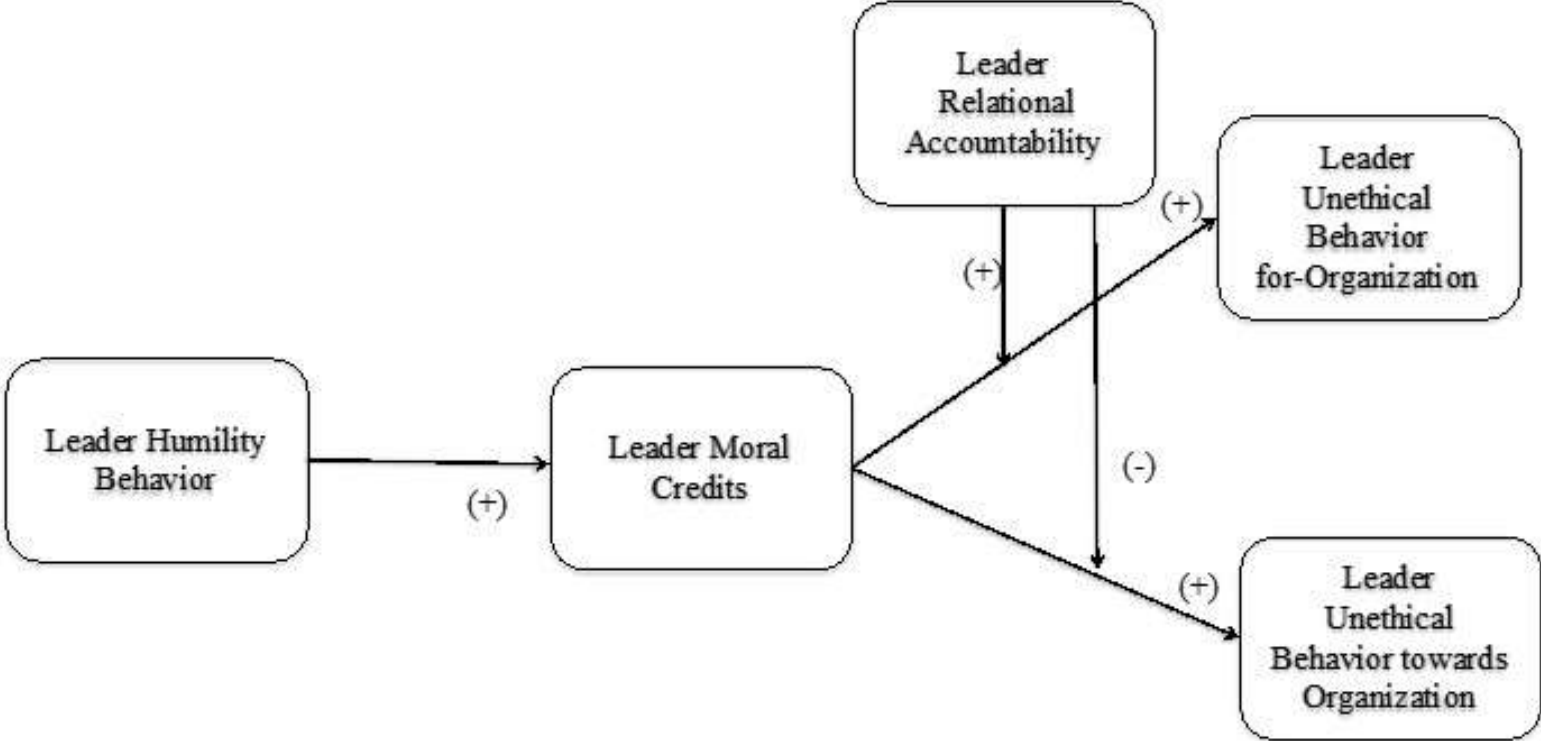


Figure 2 The moderating effect of Relational Accountability on Moral credits –Unethical Behavior for Organization- Study 2

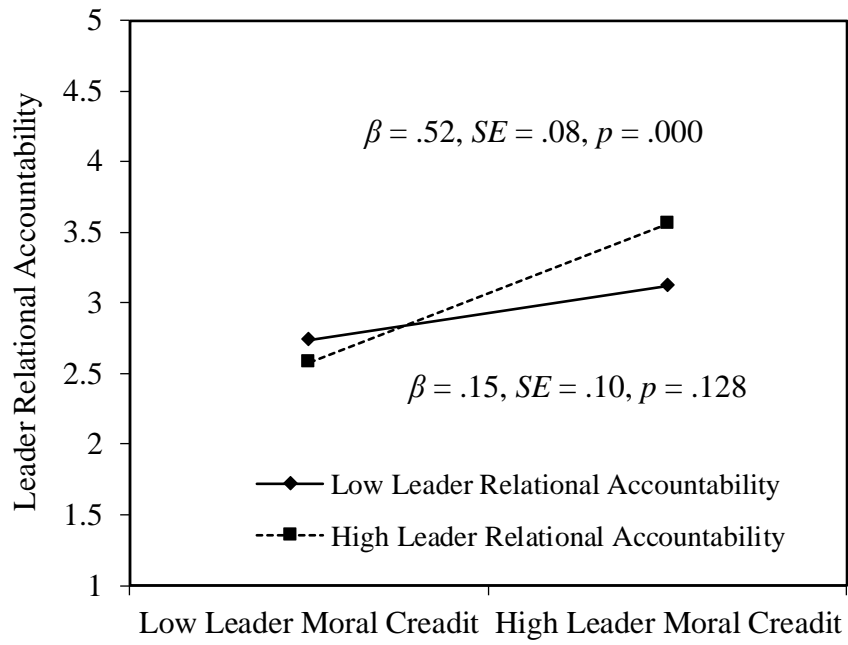
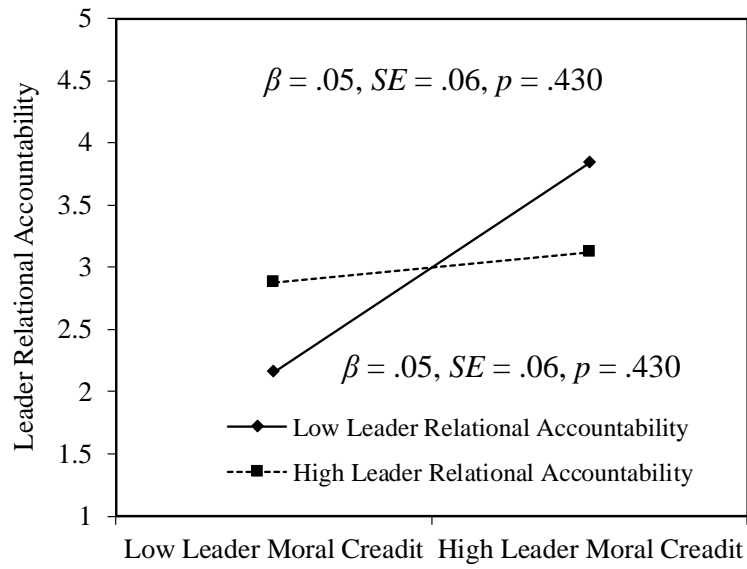


Figure 3 The moderating effect of Relational Accountability on Moral Credits –Unethical Behavior toward Organization – Study 2



CHAPTER SIX

GENERAL DISCUSSION

This researches use a relationship-cognition lens in order to examine the research question from the perspective of the structure, content, and processes of cognition within leader–follower relationships. These three categories are by no means mutually exclusive. Following prior studies in this field (e.g., Collins & Allard, 2001; Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, & Giles, 1999), the present research applies this lens as a meaningful approach to exploring the leader–follower relationship in terms of structure, content, and processes.

In general, the results of Studies 1, 2, and 3 produce unique insights on the effect of leader humility on follower behavior and leader behavior. First, Study 1 proposed that although leader humility produces positive outcomes in follower behavior, its influence and outcome are likely to vary according to the follower’s sense of security. This idea was supported by the results, suggesting that followers’ sense of security (reflected by feeling trusted) and self-efficacy for voice are two factors that may induce the expression of a followers’ seemingly contradictory voice behaviors (i.e., challenging voice and defensive voice). The employment of the attachment-theory lens and the significantly positive results for all hypotheses for Study 1 provided evidence that leader humility has a double-edged-sword nature in a relatively creative context (i.e., within the IT industry). It can be argued that defensive voice is detrimental to the organization. However, in an organizational context, followers may exhibit defensive voice without fear of leaders when they feel and believe proposed changes may not be beneficial for the organization because humble leadership perceives the employee’s developmental journey as legitimate, even when there is conflict, and this perception increases the psychological freedom

and engagement of employees (Owens & Hekman, 2012). Moreover, Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) suggest that defensive voice can be perceived as positive or negative, depending on the rater's perception. In Study 1, leaders are perceived as humble by followers; thus, leaders may not perceive followers' defensive voice as negative, because humble leaders are more accepting of critical feedback. However, this specific analysis is beyond the scope of the present research. Thus, the result of Study 1 provides the initial evidence that leader humility can induce seemingly contradictory or paradoxical outcomes. In summary, in this study, I integrate leader humility literature with voice literature to create a richer model with which to examine how followers' sense of security (sense of self-confidence and sense of leaders' confidence in them) can serve as a potential mediating mechanism to shed light on followers' voice behavior.

Second, unlike Study 1, Study 2 explored the theoretical mechanism under which leader humility is perceived as hypocritical by followers, subsequently leading to followers' counterproductive behaviors (e.g., intention to quit and time theft). The results of Study 2 showed that the followers perceived leaders as hypocrites when they felt the motivation for the leader's humble behavior is impression management (i.e., inauthentic attribution) rather than intrinsic (i.e., authentic attribution). Another important insight addressed in Study 1 and Study 2 is the connection between followers' perception and attribution of leader humility and its influence on their behavior. The results of Study 1 showed that humble leaders influence the followers' sense of security, which intuitively showed that followers might attribute leader humility as authentic, subsequently leading to followers' seemingly contradictory behavior (i.e., challenging voice and defensive voice). As stated, followers' defensive voice should not always be interpreted as a negative outcome because it depends on the leader's rating. However, the results of Study 2 reveal that followers' behavior is distantly related to positive outcomes when

followers attribute their leader's humility to impression management, which might be equivalent to followers believing the leader's humble behavior is disingenuous. Surprisingly, the results of Study 2 from both Taiwan (the Confucian cluster) and Canada (the Anglo cluster) are consistent. The results of this study showed that leaders' behavioral integrity is vital regardless of culture. Therefore, both Study 1 and Study 2 conclude that "seeing is believing" and "seeing is not believing", which is an important implication for leadership development. In summary, Study 2 presents a more nuanced picture of how followers' perceptions of leader humility can be undermined by their impression of management attribution. Also, Study 2's theoretical rationale and empirical findings contribute to the leader humility literature by underscoring the importance of followers' attribution, and may help to explain why followers sometimes view leader humility as hypocrisy.

Finally, as explored in Study 1 and Study 2, leader humility is both paradoxical (i.e., produces seemingly contradictory outcomes) and detrimental for followers. However, nearly all research to date has focused on the effects that such behaviors have on followers while ignoring leaders. When leaders are encouraged to behave with more humility and less hubris, it is crucial to understand the challenges that can accompany such behavior. Therefore, in contrast to the follower-centric approach of Study 1 and Study 2, Study 3 adopted a leader-centric approach and explored the possible cost of leaders who behave with humility. Simply put, Study 3 examined the effect of leaders positively perceiving their own humble behavior. In summary, the results revealed that leader humility can have negative consequences because this positive behavior can increase the likelihood that leaders will subsequently engage unethical behavior toward and for organization. Moreover, by identifying the mechanism through which leader humility can lead to unethical behaviors for or toward the organization (i.e., through moral credits), this study

provides a more in-depth understanding of the process through which this transformation occurs. Furthermore, we advance the accountability literature by showing the other side of relational accountability; in particular, we observe that relational accountability fails to counteract the effects of moral credits, implying that relational accountability increases the escalation of commitment and threatens to lead to unethical behaviors for the organization (pseudo-beneficial) when there are surplus moral credits. Accordingly, to mitigate the detrimental effects of accountability, I recommend that organizations instill a culture of ethical process to achieve desirable outcomes and hold leaders accountable for the means used to obtain such outcomes.

Limitations and Future Research

While this research makes some important contributions, there are also some limitations that should be noted. Here, I highlight those areas most vital to the immediate progression of this research stream, both theoretically and empirically. First, in all three studies, I explicitly mention the importance of context, although none of these studies explicitly test contextual influence. “Context refers to situational or environmental stimuli that impinge upon focal actors and are often located at a different level of analysis from those actors” (Johns, 2018, p. 22). Unlike Individualists that argue leaders have a significant impact on the performance of their organizations, Contextualists argue that the impact of individual leaders is limited by situational factors. Studies have shown that a leader who performs well in one context may not perform the same or better when working in another context; for example, executives at General Electric — which has a highly admired executive training pitch— have mixed performance outcomes after transferring to other companies (Groysberg, McLean, & Nohria, 2006; Groysberg, Nanda, & Nohria, 2004). As a result, given that skills are transferable, these studies conclude that the reason for the mixed performance outcome of the executives is context. In our case, leader

humility emerges in social interaction, and the expression of an individual's humility may vary according to circumstances and contextual cues (Mischel & Shoda, 1999), thus demonstrating the significance of context.

Although previous studies have attempted to examine the systematic ways in which context affects leader humility and followers' behavior, these studies extend middle-range theories of how context influences and/or operates. For example, in Study 1, I have argued that followers' seemingly contradictory voice behavior (i.e., challenging voice, defensive voice) is largely influenced by the organizational context. In Study 2, I conducted studies in two different cultural context which showed the significant impact on the results. However, these works have failed to provide solid theoretical evidence to prove the claim is something more than a speculative theoretical interpretation. To date, context has been studied in little more than a haphazard way. I, therefore, suggest the use of well-developed theories which include context as a core feature. For instance, theory of interpersonal situations and trait activation theory.

Second, in Study 3, given that leader humility is morally praiseworthy behavior, I explore the path between leader humility and leader unethical behavior through leader moral credit. One can argue that leaders' humility may be due to external pressure, as organizations often encourage leaders to be humble. Nevertheless, Study 3 fails to consider this assumption because when moral behavior is performed based on external motives, it can lead to negative behavior (Merritt et al., 2010; Mullen & Monin, 2016; Yam, Klotz, He, & Reynolds, 2017). Thus, I speculate that if leader humility is shown to be enacted for controlled motives (i.e., showing one's self-worth for external reasons, such as meeting the organization's or supervisor's expectations), it may lead to feelings of psychological entitlement (an inflated and pervasive sense of deservingness, and exaggerated expectations of receiving special treatment without

reciprocating) which can potentially lead to deviance behavior. Thus, along with leader humility, future research should test compelled humility behavior as a moderator. To test this connection, I recommend future studies combine both self-determination and moral licensing theory. Self-determination theory proposes that people engage in motivated behavior due to either controlled or autonomous motives. By combining self-determination theory and moral licensing theory, future studies can examine how and when leader humility may lead leaders to subsequently engage in unethical/deviance behavior in the workplace.

Furthermore, at first glance, it is natural to expect that leaders' selfless humility behaviour will be determined by their identity orientation, which gains moral license via moral credit. This makes it easy for scholars to overlook the importance of the interplay between long-standing self-concepts (i.e., trait-like) and working self-concepts (i.e., situation-specific concepts which vary over time, along with goals). For instance, in an organizational context, a person with an individual identity orientation (i.e., self-oriented) may engage in other-oriented behaviour to enhance his/her image and well-being rather than engaging in purely self-oriented behaviours. The pressing issue then becomes: what is the identity and behaviour incongruence impact on an individual's moral self-regard (i.e., one's perceived moral standing at any given moment)? Prior studies have suggested that it is unlikely that employees' moral self-regard will become high enough to make them feel morally licensed when their behavior reflects their identity. Although engaging in selfless humility behaviour should lead to the gaining of more moral credit and elevate moral self-regard, individuals' identity orientation will still effect the degree to which their moral self-regard will be elevated following the performance of leader humility. As such, identity orientation is appropriate for understanding the role that identity plays in the relationship between leader humility and moral credits because these orientations impact exchange

relationships in organizations. For example, I argue that a leader with a central individual identity orientation (i.e., self-oriented), who performs selfless, other-oriented humility behaviour as a leader for his personal well-being may elevate his or her moral self-regard in the eyes of others and thereby gain moral license through moral credits. In this sense, I recommend that future studies include identity orientation variables to examine the impact of a behavioral choice that is contradictory to leaders' identity orientation, and how this impacts moral credit through self-regard.

Third, Study 1 and Study 3 suggest that leader humility can induce a paradoxical effect in followers' exploratory behavior. These include challenging voice (beneficial) and defensive voice (detrimental), as well as changes in leaders' self-oriented behavior, namely, unethical behavior for the organization and unethical behavior toward the organization. With this in mind, I recommend that future studies explore the impact of leader humility on followers' knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding behavior, as well as the applicable mediating mechanism. Although research has demonstrated that positive leader behavior enhances follower's knowledge sharing, the exact process is as yet unexplored. Unlike the traditional top-down leadership approach, leader humility promotes participative decision-making from the bottom up. It genuinely values diverse perspectives, supports open communications, and appreciates contributions (Owens et al., 2013), which are all factors that contribute to followers' perception of inclusion (i.e., uniqueness and belongingness) in the workplace (Shore et al., 2010). This feeling will influence their knowledge sharing/hiding behavior. Although inclusive perception fosters a sense of belonging that may increase knowledge sharing behavior, studies argues that the sense of belonging motivates employees to conform more to group members' expectations of greater cooperation, which is beneficial (Nishii, 2013; Shore et al., 2010), but conformity may

not be beneficial to innovation (Van de Ven, 1986). In this sense, as knowledge hiding is always negative, as it may be done for constructive reasons such as to “protect other party’s feelings, preserve confidentiality, or protect interests of a third party (Connelly, Zweig, Webster, & Trougakos, 2012, p. 65)”, I argue that followers may also hide their knowledge to protect their interest in maintaining a sense of inclusion through belongingness. I recommend the adoption of social information processing theory (SIP) (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), as it explains how employees’ perceptions and behaviors result from information drawn from the social environment.

Fourth, although scholars agree that leader humility can play a crucial role in an organization, resulting in higher levels of individual, team, and firm performance, they have also noted that gender differences may cause leadership behavior to be perceived differently. First, gender can have a large impact on leadership effectiveness and followers’ behavior. Prior studies have indicated that leadership behavior by males and females varies with gender congeniality (e.g., Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly & Johnson, 1990). In this thesis, I include gender as a control variable and have found a non-significant effect on leader humility perceptions. In this sense, I believe gender impact should be tested as more than a simple control variable. For instance, how the expressed emotions of different genders impact the followers’ perception of leader humility.

Brosi, Sporrle, Welpe, and Heilman (2016) have shown that the expression of positive emotion (e.g., pride) shapes one’s judgment of individuals’ perceived competence. This judgment is not balanced between men and women, as women who express positive emotions such as pride are often seen as interpersonally hostile, whereas men are not. Humble leaders are positive, optimistic, open to new experience, and warm (Ashton & Lee, 2005; Frostenson, 2016; Morris et al., 2005; Ou et al., 2015). However, when women express positive emotion, they are

seen as interpersonally hostile; thus, I recommend future studies use positive emotions or body language, such as a smile, as a moderator to explore how it interacts with perceptions of women leaders' humility, and how it subsequently influences perceived leadership competence. The social cognition and social judgment literature supports the idea that individuals are judged in relation to perceived competence (Abels & Wojciszke, 2007; Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011). I also recommend that when conducting research in this field, both surveys and experimental studies should be employed.

Fifth, instead of reaffirming the social consensus on women leadership, future research could investigate whether leader-member exchange (LMX) influences male follower perceptions of humble female leaders. This is because “the central principle in LMX theory is that leaders develop different exchange relationships with their followers, whereby the quality of the relationship alters the impact on the important leader and member outcomes” (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009, p. 433). Hence, investigating the influence of LMX and gender on followers' perceptions of humble female leaders may open the block box.

Finally, unlike Study 1 and 3, Study 2's data were collected in Taiwan and Canada to distinguish the cultural context impact, although I did not test any particular cultural variables. My intention has been to test leader humility across contexts, as most leader humility studies' data has been collected in a Western Context. To address this gap, in this thesis, I have conducted studies in one Anglo-Cluster (Canada), Confucian Asian cluster (Taiwan), and Southern Asia Cluster (India), three distinctly different cultural spheres to show the leader humility impact beyond the Western Context samples. As mentioned earlier, I did not include cultural variables, mainly because the proposed models already contain at least five variables, threatening to induce rater fatigue, distracting from the objective of the studies. Thus, I

recommend future studies may examine the cultural influence of this relationship by employing Hofstede's cultural typology insights. Particularly, I recommend employing individualism, masculinity, and power distance in the model, as these factors are considerably different in Taiwan, Canada, and India. For example, levels of perceived masculinity and individualism in India are higher than in Taiwan, and this may influence individuals more toward self-oriented behaviors that align with their own principles, even if the results are detrimental to the organization (see Smith & Hume, 2005). In addition, I also speculate that power distance may have played a major role in Study 3, along with individualism and masculinity, because individuals may not feel threatened when engaging in unethical behaviors toward the organization if they have positional power, as this power may provide a significant shield for them in a high power distance context. I believe that there is a need, however, to further explore this possibility because previous studies also note that employees' individualism, collectivism, and power distance have a significant effect on employees' ethical attitude (Christie et al., 2003; Smith & Hume, 2005).

Managerial Implications

The current research provides evidence that leader humility has contradictory, detrimental, and (pseudo) beneficial impacts on both followers' and leaders' behavior. I emphasize again that I neither argue leader humility is a source of detrimental behavior nor simply that it is a bad form of leadership. In prior sections of each of these studies (Study 1, 2 and 3) I provide the specific practical implications based on the proposed theoretical model. Hence, in this section, unlike the model-centric implications, I provide overall managerial implications.

First, to mitigate the potential detrimental effects of leader humility, organizations should create an environment/culture that embodies the crucial component of humility in the workplace. For instance, in addition to workshops, organizations may stick pertinent quotes on the office, washroom, and conference room walls, as well as on the office PC's wallpaper, useful reminders such as "Critical feedback shows you care, not that you are mean" "Recognizing and appreciating others' contributions shows your strength" "listen to act, not to react." Second, hold periodic "appreciation parties" to openly recognize employees' achievements. As a result, employees may feel that appreciation and recognition are part of the organizations' routine when their contribution is extraordinary. In this case, when humble leaders perform these behaviors, followers may not be tempted to take advantage on those behaviors.

Third, without any reservation, I encourage the embedding of the detrimental outcomes of practicing leader humility in leadership development workshops. Generally, if you inform a real-world leader that you are a leader humility researcher, his or her first thought is likely to be that you are in the business of teaching people how to impress others. And indeed, real-world leaders generally see humility as synonymous with social desirability or weakness. Though I do not fully agree with the idea that humility is a sign of leaders' weakness, I do argue that only confident people are able to accept their own weakness. Hence, I argue that humility is a sign of confidence. In this sense, I strongly encourage leadership training sessions to simulate the moral licensing effect, behavioral consistency outcomes, and other detrimental outcomes of leader humility. Instead of simply reiterating that leaders should be aware of the potential cost of humility and their followers' individual differences. Human resource (HR) departments should share psychometric evaluation outcome of team members with leaders so as to help them better

understand their followers' individual differences. I also encourage HRs to get a non-disclosure agreement from leaders who receive followers' psychometric test results.

Finally, in Study 3, although I recommend including expected humility behavior in leaders' in-role job requirement to mitigate moral licensing effect, it is more effective to openly show how good behaviors can make someone behave badly through stage performances during the companies' annual events. Again, I am not arguing these recommendations will eradicate detrimental outcomes of practicing humility, but I do believe they may mitigate them.

Conclusion

Unlike prior research, which predominantly focuses on the beneficial effects of leader humility, the present research provides a theoretical lenses through which to examine leader humility to demonstrate that the perception of leader humility as uniformly positive may be incorrect and that there is in fact also a tri-directional (i.e., detrimental, beneficial, and pseudo-beneficial) effect of humble leadership. Particularly, the three studies conducted in the present research demonstrate that there is no guarantee that leaders' humble behaviors always lead to positive outcomes. Thus, as the thesis title states "sometimes sharks appear in lakes too".

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APPENDIX I

I.1 Study 1 Questionnaire (Follower and Leader)

Survey Questionnaire



Dear Respondents:

I would like to invite you to complete this questionnaire. This survey asks questions about the role of leaders' behaviour and your reaction.

□ **Please use the following scale to rate the questions.**

Strongly disagree disagree disagree somewhat undecided agree somewhat agree strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

□ **Example:**

My Leader...

1	Clearly states what he/she means.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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□ Please rate the following statements about your leader

My Leader...		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	admits it when he or she doesn't know how to do something	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	acknowledges when others have more knowledge and skills than himself or herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	takes notice of others' strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	often compliments others on their strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	shows appreciation for the unique contributions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	shows a willingness to learn from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	shows he or she is open to the advice of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	shows he or she is open to the ideas of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ Please rate the following statements about your leader.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My leader shares his/her opinion about sensitive issues with me, even if his/her opinion is unpopular	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My leader informs me about mistakes he/she has made on the job, even if those mistakes could damage his/her reputation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	If I ask why a problem occurred, my leader speaks freely even if they are partly to blame	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My leader doesn't have a problem increasing his/her vulnerability to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My leader is comfortable relying on me for something that is critical to him/her, even if he/she can't monitor my actions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My leader lets me have significant influence over how I do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My leader lets me have an impact on issues that are important to him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	My leader doesn't feel the need to "keep an eye on" me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ Please rate the following statements about your thinking.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am self-assured about my capabilities to voice my opinion about work activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I have enough skills and experience to voice my opinion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am confident about my ability to voice my opinion in the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your leader**

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My supervisor clearly states what he/she means.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My supervisor admits mistakes when they occur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My supervisor openly shares information with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My supervisor expresses his/her ideas and thoughts clearly to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My supervisor shows consistency between his/her beliefs and actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My supervisor uses his/her core beliefs to make a decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My supervisor resists pressures on him/her to do things contrary to his/her beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	My supervisor is guided in his/her actions by internal moral standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My supervisor asks for ideas that challenge his/her core beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	My supervisor carefully listens to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	My supervisor objectively analyses relevant data before making a decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	My supervisor encourages others to voice opposing points of view.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	My supervisor solicits feedback for improving his/her dealings with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	My supervisor describes accurately the way that others view his/her abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	My supervisor shows that he/she understands his/her strengths and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	My supervisor is clearly aware of the impact he/she has on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please fill in some information about yourself

1. Your age:

- 21~30 years old
 31~40 years old
 41~50 years old
 51~60 years old
 others

2. Your gender : Male Female Others

3. Your education:

- Bachelor Degree
 Master Degree
 PhD
 Other (Please specify your education level):

4. How many years have you worked with this leader? Less than 1 year 1 to 2 years 2 to 5 years
 5 to 10 years over 10 year

I.2 Study 1 Leader Questionnaire

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your behavior**

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I actively seek feedback, even if it is critical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I admit it when he or she doesn't know how to do something	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I acknowledge when others have more knowledge and skills than himself or herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I take notice of others' strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I often compliment others on their strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I show appreciation for the unique contributions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I am willing to learn from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I am open to the advice of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I am open to the ideas of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your employee.**

	This employee...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Stubbornly argues against changing work methods, even when the proposed changes have merit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Speaks out against changing work policies, even when making changes would be for the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Vocally opposes changing how things are done, even when changing is inevitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Rigidly argues against changing work procedures, even when implementing the changes makes sense.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Vocally argues against changing work practices, even when making the changes is necessary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Stubbornly argues against issues that relate the quality of work life, even when the proposed changes have merit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your employee.**

	This employee	To an Extremely Small Extent	To a Very Small Extent	To a Small Extent	To a Moderate Extent	To a Large Extent	To a Very Large Extent	To an Extremely Large Extent
1	challenge me to deal with problems around here	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	give suggestions to make things better, even if others disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	speak up to me with ideas to address employees' needs and concerns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please fill in some information about yourself

1. **Your age:**

21~30 years old 31~40 years old 41~50 years old 51~60 years old
 others

2. **Your gender :** Male Female Others

3. **Your education:** Bachelor Degree Master Degree PhD Other (Please specify your education level):

APPENDIX II

調查問卷



親愛的受訪者:

我想邀請您填寫此項問卷調查。本調查是有關領導者行為的角色和您的反應。

□ 請使用以下尺度對所提問題進行勾選。

強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 舉例:

我的上司 ...

1 清楚地表達他/她的意思。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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II.1. Study 2 Questionnaire (Survey Study-Leader)

□ 請閱讀下列每份陳述,並指明您對各陳述之同意或不 同意:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	參觀藝術畫廊我會很無聊。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	我會提前計劃並組織事情,以免在最後一分鐘爭搶。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	我很少懷恨在心,即使對那些嚴重中傷我的人也是如此。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	總體上,我對自己感到滿意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	如果我不得不在惡劣的天氣條件下旅行,我會感到害怕。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	我不會在工作中使用奉承來獲得加薪或晉升,即使我認為這會成功。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	我有興趣了解其他國家的歷史和政治。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	在嘗試實現目標時,我通常非常努力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	人們有時會告訴我,我過於苛責別人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	我很少在小組會議上表達我的意見。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 請閱讀下列每份陳述,並指明您對 各陳述之 同意或不 同意:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	我有時會忍不住擔心一些小事。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	假如我知道我絕不會被抓到,我會願意偷一百萬美元。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	我喜歡創作一件藝術品,比如小說,歌曲或繪畫。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	在處理事情時,我並不太關注細節。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	人們有時會告訴我,我太固執了。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	我喜歡那些涉及積極社交互動的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	當我遭受痛苦的經歷時,我需要有人安慰我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	擁有大量金錢對我來說,並不是特別重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	我認為關注激進想法是浪費時間。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	我根據當下的感覺做出決定,而不是仔細考慮。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 請閱讀下列每份陳述,並指明您對 各陳述之 同意或不 同意:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	人們認為我是一個脾氣暴躁的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	在大多數日子裡,我感到愉快和樂觀。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	當我看到別人哭的時候,我會想哭。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	我認為我應該比一般人更受尊重。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	如果我有機會,我想參加古典音樂會。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	工作時,我有時會因為混亂而遇到困難。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7	我對那些對我不好的人的態度是“原諒和忘記”。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	我覺得我是一個不受歡迎的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	當遇到身體上的危險時，我非常害怕。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	如果我想要某人的某些東西，我會對那個人所講最糟糕的笑話大笑。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 請閱讀下列每份陳述,並指明您對各陳述之同意或不同意:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	我從來沒有真正喜歡翻閱百科全書。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	我只做所要求的最少量的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	在判斷其他人時，我傾向於寬容。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	在社交場合，我通常是邁出第一步的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	我比大多數人所擔心的要少得多。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	我永遠不會接受賄賂，即使它非常大。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	人們經常告訴我，我有很好的想像力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	我總是試著在工作中保持精準，即使是以犧牲時間為代價。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	當人們不同意我時，我的意見通常很有彈性。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	我在新的地方做的第一件事,一定是結交朋友。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 請閱讀下列每份陳述,並指明您對各陳述之同意或不同意

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	我可以不需要任何其他人的精神支持,來處理困難的情況。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	我會因擁有昂貴的奢侈品而獲得很多樂趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	我喜歡那些有非傳統觀點的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	我犯了很多錯誤，因為在我採取行動之前我沒有多加考慮。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	大多數人比我更容易生氣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	大多數人一般比我都更樂觀，更有活力。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	當我親近的人長時間離開時，我會感受到強烈的情緒低落。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	我希望人們知道我是一個地位高的重要人物。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	我不認為自己是藝術或創意類型的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	人們經常稱我為完美主義者。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ 請閱讀下列每份陳述,並指明您對各陳述之同意或不同意:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	即使人們犯了很多錯誤,我也很少說任何負面的話。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	我有時覺得我是一個沒有價值的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	即使在緊急情況下,我也不會感到恐慌。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	我不會只是為了讓某人給我好處,而假裝喜歡他。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	我覺得討論哲學很無聊。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	我寧願做任何想到的事情,而不是固守一個計劃。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	當人們告訴我錯了時,我的第一反應是與他們爭辯。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	當我在一群人中時,我經常是代表該群體發言的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	即使在大多數人變得非常情緒化的情況下,我仍然不帶感情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	如果我確信我可以逃過,我會想要使用假幣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ 請勾選以下有關您員工的陳述:

	這名員工 []..	強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不能判定	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	他會參加不強迫,但有助於組織形象的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	他會跟上組織的發展。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	當其他員工批評組織時,他會替組織辯護。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	在公開場合代表組織時,他會表現出自豪感。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	他會表現出對組織形象的關注。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	他會提供改善組織運作的想法。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	他會表達對組織的忠誠。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	他會採取措施,以保護組織免受潛在問題的影響。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ 請填寫有關您自己的一些信息

1. 您的年齡:

- 21~30 歲 31~40 歲 41~50 歲 51~60 歲
 其他

2. 您的性別: 男 女 其他

3. 你在這個單位工作了多少年?

- 少於一年 1~2 年 2~5 年 5~10 年 超過 10 年

5. 產業類型: _____

謝謝您!

II.1. Study 2 Questionnaire (Survey Study-Follower)

□ 請評估下列關於您的上司的敘述：

我的上司..		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不知道	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	會積極尋找回應，即使回應是批評性的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	當他/她不知道怎樣做某些事情時，會承認自己不懂。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	當其他人比他/她自己有更多的知識和技能時，他/她會承認。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	會注意他人的長處。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	會經常稱讚他人的長處。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	會對他人的特殊貢獻表示感謝。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	會願意向他人學習。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	對他人的建議會持開放態度。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	對他人的想法會持開放態度。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 請評估下列關於您的觀點的敘述：

我認為我的上司行為良好 ...		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不知道	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	因為這樣對他/她的屬下比較好看。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	因為這樣能建立他/她對屬下是『好人』的印象。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	因為這樣他/她的屬下會認為他/她體諒人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	因為這樣看起來會比其他員工更好。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 請評估下列關於你的行動的敘述：

在最近幾月，你多常從事或打算從事下列行為？		從不	很少	偶爾	有時	常常	非常 頻繁	永遠
1	做自己的事而不是做你雇主的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	在工作中花費太多時間在幻想或做白日夢。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	比工作場所規定的休息時間多休息一次或休息較長。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ 請評估下列關於您同事的行為的敘述：

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不知道	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	參加沒被要求、但有助於組織印象的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	跟上組織上的發展。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	當其他員工批評組織時，為組織辯護。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	當公開代表組織時，表現出自豪。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	表現出關心組織的印象。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	提供想法以改進組織的運作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	表示現對組織的忠誠。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	採取行動保護組織以防潛在的問題。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ 請評估下列關於您的工作的敘述:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不知道	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	我正考慮離開這個組織。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	我正計劃尋找一個新工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	我打算問人有無新工作機會。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	我不計劃待在這個組織太久。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ 請評估下列關於您的上司的敘述:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不知道	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	我希望我的上司能夠更多地實踐他(或她)所宣揚者。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	我的上司告訴我們要遵守規, 則但他們(或她們)自己卻不遵守。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	我的上司要求我做他(或她)不願意做的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	我的上司能躲避做事, 而我不能。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ 請評估下列關於您的上司的敘述:

		強烈 不同意	不同意	有點 不同意	不知道	有點 同意	同意	強烈 同意
1	我想我的上司會成為我的好朋友;	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	我喜歡我的上司。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	我和我的上司相處得很好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	與我的上司一起工作很愉快。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ 請填寫下列有關您的訊息:

1. 您的年齡:

- 21~30 歲 31~40 歲 41~50 歲 51~60 歲
 其他

2. 您的性別: 男 女 其他

3. 你跟著這人工作多久了:

- 少於一年 1~2 年 2~5 年 5~10 年 超過 10 年

4. 產業類型: _____

謝謝您!

II.1. Study 2 Questionnaire (Experimental Study)

□ Please rate the following statements about **your leader**

This Leader...		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	admits it when he or she doesn't know how to do something	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	acknowledges when others have more knowledge and skills than himself or herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	takes notice of others' strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	often compliments others on their strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	shows appreciation for the unique contributions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	shows a willingness to learn from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	shows he or she is open to the advice of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	shows he or she is open to the ideas of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ Please rate the following statements about **your view**

This leader behave nicely]]...		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	because it will look good to his/her follower	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	because it can create the impression that he/she is a "good" person to his/her follower	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	so their follower will think that he/she is a considerate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	because it will make him/her look better than other employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ Please rate the following statements about **your action**

I intend to []..		Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Very often	Always
1	Work on a personal matter instead of working for my employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Spend too much time fantasizing or daydreaming at the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Take an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ Please rate the following statements about **your behaviors**

I intend to []..		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Keep up with developments in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Show pride when representing the organization in public.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Express loyalty toward the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8	Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your job**.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am thinking about leaving this organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am planning to look for a new job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I intend to ask people about new job opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I do not plan to be in this organization much longer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your leader**

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I wish my leader would practice what he or she preaches more often.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My leader tells us to follow the rules but doesn't follow them himself or herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My leader asks me to do things he or she wouldn't do himself or herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My leader can get away with doing things I can't.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your leader**

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I think that my leader would make a good friend;	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I like my leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I get along well with my leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Working with my leader is a pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please fill in some information about yourself

1. **Your age:**

- 21~30 years old
 31~40 years old
 41~50 years old
 51~60 years old
 others

2. **Your gender :** Male Female Others

THANK YOU

APPENDIX III

III.1. Study 3 Questionnaire (Leader)

➤ Please rate the following statements

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I thrive on opportunities to demonstrate that my abilities or talents are better than those of other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I have a strong need to know how I stand in comparison to my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I often compete with my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I feel best about myself when I perform better than others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I often find myself pondering over the ways that I am better or worse off than other people around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about your thinking of your behaviors

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I earned credit for performing a morally laudable behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My previous good deeds earned me credit as a moral person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Acting good built up my account of moral credits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Each good deed I performed added to my moral credit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Acting in an ethical manner gave me a surplus of credit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about your job.

	In my managerial role,.....	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I have very specific duties to those depending on me for profits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I feel an obligation to ensure a project returns a healthy profit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I feel an obligation to return profitability for the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	If I don't return profit to ownership, I'm letting someone down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I am required to justify or explain my performance in terms of achieving unit goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I feel an obligation to enhance the individual's effectiveness toward the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	If it would help my organization, I would misrepresent the truth to make my organization look good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	If it would help my organization, I would exaggerate the truth about my company's products or services to customers and clients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	If it would benefit my organization, I would withhold negative information about my company or its products from customers and clients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4	If my organization needed me to, I would give a good recommendation on the behalf of an incompetent employee in the hope that the person will become another organization's problem instead of my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	If my organization needed me to, I would withhold issuing a refund to a customer or client accidentally overcharged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	If needed, I would conceal information from the public that could be damaging to my organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ Please rate your level of agreement on the following statement

		Absolutely inappropriate	Inappropriate	Slightly inappropriate	Neutral	Slightly appropriate	Appropriate	Absolutely appropriate
1	If it would benefit me, I would falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than I spent on business expenses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	If it would benefit me, I would discuss confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	If it would benefit me, I would damage property belonging to my employer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	If it would benefit me, I would take property from work without permission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	If it would benefit me, I would make ethnic, religious, or racial remarks at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	If it would benefit me, I would say or do something to purposely hurt someone at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	If it would benefit me, I would use an illegal drug or consuming alcohol on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

□ Please rate the following statements

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	If someone does me a favor, I feel obligated to repay them in some way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	If someone does something for me, I feel required to do something for them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	If someone gives me a gift, I feel obligated to get them a gift.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I always repay someone who has done me a favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel uncomfortable when someone does me a favor which I know I won't be able to return.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	If someone sends me a card on my birthday, I feel required to do the same.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	When someone does something for me, I often find myself thinking about what I have done for them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	If someone says something pleasant to you, you should say something pleasant back.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I usually do not forget if I owe someone a favor, or if someone owes me a favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	If someone treats you well, you should treat that	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

person well in return.

➤ Please rate the following statements

How often you have experienced each mood state within the last 6 months?

		Absolutely Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	All the Time
1	Disinterested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements

Please report the extent to which you embody a set of following characteristics

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Generous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Caring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please fill in some information about yourself

1. Your age:

- 21~30 years old 31~40 years old 41~50 years old 51~60 years old
 others

2. Your gender : Male Female Others

3. Industry type: _____

4. Your education:

- Bachelor Degree Master Degree PhD
 Other (Please specify your education level):

5. How many years have you worked in this organization?

III.2. Study 3 Questionnaire (Follower)

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your leader**

My leader..[]	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1 actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 admits it when he or she doesn't know how to do something	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 acknowledges when others have more knowledge and skills than himself or herself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 take notice of others' strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 often compliments others on their strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 show appreciation for the unique contributions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 is willing to learn from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 is open to the advice of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9 Is open to the ideas of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please rate the following statements about **your leader**

My Leader []..	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Undecided	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
1 listened to what an employee had to say	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2 disciplined an employee who violated ethical standards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 had the best interests of an employee in mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 Made a fair and balanced decision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5 discussed business ethics or values with an employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6 defined success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7 set an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8 asked "what is the right thing to do" what making a decision	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

➤ Please fill in some information about yourself

1. Your age:

- 21~30 years old 31~40 years old 41~50 years old 51~60 years old
 others

2. Your gender : Male Female Others

3. Industry type: _____

4. Your education:

- Bachelor Degree Master Degree PhD
 Other (Please specify your education level):

5. How many years have you worked with this leader?

APPENDIX IV

Publication Details

IV.1 Study 1

Study-1 and Chapter-3	
Paper title	Is leader humility a “Friend or Foe”, or both? An attachment theory lens on leader humility and its contradictory outcomes
Authors	K. Bharanitharan*, Zhen Xiong Chen , Somayeh BS, and Kevin B Lowe *Principal investigator
Principal investigator’s contribution (%)	The principal investigator has contributed more than <u>80%</u> of the content of the manuscript and was responsible for the following: # Identified the literature gap and constructed the model # Performed data analysis # Drafted the entire manuscript # Addressed the reviewers comment
Journal name	Journal of Business Ethics (Financial Times 50)
Status	Published

IV. 2. Study 2

Study-2 and Chapter-4

Paper title	Seeing is not believing: Leaders humility, hypocrisy, and their influence on followers behavior.
Authors	K.Bharanitharan*, Kevib B Lowe, Somayeh BS, Zhen Xiong Chen, & Lin Cui *Principal investigator
Principal investigator's contribution (%)	The principal investigator has contributed more than 80% of the content of the manuscript and was responsible for the following: # Identified the literature gap and constructed the model # Performed data analysis # Drafted the entire manuscript # Addressed the reviewers comment
Journal name	The Leadership Quarterly (ABDC = A*)
Status	Conditionally Accepted

IV. 3. Study 3

Study-3 and Chapter-5	
Paper title	A wolf in sheep's clothing: Exploring the relationship between leader humility and unethical behavior
Authors	K.Bharanitharan*, Kevin B Lowe, Somayeh BS, Lin Cui, & Zhen Xiong Chen *Principal investigator
Principal investigator's contribution (%)	The principal investigator has contributed more than 80% of the content of the manuscript and was responsible for the following: # Identified the literature gap and constructed the model # Performed data collection and analysis # Drafted the entire manuscript # Address (ed) the reviewers comment
Conference name	79 th Annual meeting of Academy of Management, Chicago, USA
Status (Conference)	Accepted and Presented
Journal name	Journal of Management (Financial Times 50, ABDC =A*)
Status (Journal)	Revise and Resubmit

BIOGRAPHY OF THE CANDIDATE



Bharanitharan K (Darren) received a Ph.D. degree in Data Compression and VLSI Design from National Cheng Kung University, Taiwan. He has also received an MBA degree from National Cheng Kung University, Taiwan. He started his academic career at Korea University as an Assistant Professor. Currently, he is working as an Assistant Professor-Tenure Track

in the School of Business, The University of N. British Columbia, BC, Canada.

In the engineering field, he has published more than 41 research papers in well-regarded journals such as IEEE MM, IEEE TCSVT, IEEE TVLSI, ACM TECS, and IEICE. In the management field, he has also published papers in highly regarded journals listed in the Financial Times-50 and in the Australian Business Dean Council (ABDC)'s A*. His current research interests include leader humility, paradoxical leadership, knowledge hiding, innovational ambidexterity, entrepreneurship, Internet Of Things (IoT), and Video Coding.

Dr. Bharanitharan was named the Outstanding International Student by the Ministry of Education, Taiwan, in 2005. In 2012, based on his contribution to Information and Communication Technologies, the government of Taiwan presented him with an unconditional Permanent Residency (Plum Blossom Card), which grants special and prestigious status in Taiwan. Also, the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) recognized his professional contributions by awarding him the IEEE Senior Member grade, which is the highest honor and international recognition for engineering professionals. He is one of the members of the executive committee of the Academy of Management, OB division.

THANK YOU