2018

Situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authentic leadership

Michael Gregory Ehret

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education & Psychology

SITUATIONAL AWARENESS AND TRANSPARENCY AS CORE CONCEPTS OF AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Global Leadership and Change

by

Michael Gregory Ehret, Ed.D.

July 2018

Jack McManus, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Michael Gregory Ehret, Ed.D.

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Doctoral Committee:

Jack McManus, Ph.D., Chairperson

Lani Simpao Fraizer, Ed.D.

Christina Norris-Watts, Ph.D.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Mary Lauria who has had a profound influence on me through her mentorship, sponsorship, and friendship. Her blend of the theoretical understanding and application of leadership development has been a source of inspiration at school, at work, and in life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

With sincerest gratitude and appreciation, I would like to acknowledge the incredible support and energy of my dissertation committee: Dr. Jack McManus, Dr. Lani Fraizer, and Dr. Christina Norris-Watts. You have all played the role of advisor, cheerleader, and coach throughout this process, and I am honored to have been given your time and encouragement. To Dr. Jack, your positivity and passion for life is contagious. I look forward to working on the Ultimate Book of Leadership with you next.

I offer my thanks to Dr. Fatos Kusari and Mr. Tim Mackinnon for your generosity of time and expertise in my research design and analysis.

To all those who have sponsored me in pursuit of this degree: Mrs. Luani Alvarado, Mrs. Mary Lauria, Mr. Paul Anthony, Dr. Robin Cohen, Dr. Adam Myer, Mrs. Susan Podlogar, Mr. Sumeet Salwan, and Dr. Peter Fasolo – thank you.

I would like to thank my parents, Bill and Alane Ehret, who instilled in me the love learning at a young age, and who made countless sacrifices for my sisters and me to have access to the best education available.

I want to acknowledge the tremendous sacrifice my children; Abigail, Eleanor, and Billy, have made over these past five years. While you did not consciously choose to give up so many hours and days without Dad, I hope you know how appreciative I am for your understanding, and love for me and our family. Finally, for my wife Cindy, who DID consciously put my studies ahead of herself, and who always puts the needs and wants of our family over hers, words cannot express how deeply grateful I am.

VITA

EDUCATION

2018	Pepperdine University Doctor of Philosophy, Global Leadership and Change
2016	Pepperdine University Doctor of Education, Organizational Leadership
2003	University of Pennsylvania Master of Science, Organizational Leadership
1999	University of Richmond Bachelor of Science, Finance and Marketing

PROFESSIONAL SUMMARY

Michael Ehret is Senior Vice President, Human Resources within the Medical Devices sector for Johnson & Johnson. In this role, Michael leads the talent and HR strategy agenda for the sector's three franchises, the strategy office, and all centers of excellence. He also has Human Resources responsibility for the Medical Devices Transformation Change Leadership Office and Human Resources Team.

Previously, Michael was the Vice President of Human Resources for Johnson & Johnson's Supply Chain, and prior to that, the Vice President of Talent Development, responsible for global Leadership Development and Learning, as well as Talent Mobility. Other past experiences include working at Bristol-Myers Squibb and CIGNA where Michael held several Human Resources Generalist and Talent Management positions, beginning his career as a member of the CIGNA HR Leadership Development Program.

ABSTRACT

There is not a common, agreed upon definition of authentic leadership. There are varying opinions as to whether authenticity is a trait or a style; however, most scholars believe authenticity is a purpose and value based characteristic (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011) that is developed over time (George, 2003). Transparency is a core concept of authentic leadership, and situational awareness is a critical skill for leaders to determine the degree of transparency that they should demonstrate. There is limited theoretical and empirical research on how transparency and self-monitoring can be used in conjunction with situational leadership and situational awareness theory. This study measures the impact of a leader's expression of transparency on follower's confidence in his or her ability with consideration of a number of covariates. The findings of this study are intended to help advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. Implications are discussed on the advancement of leadership theory, authentic leadership, and transparency as a core concept of authenticity.

Data collection used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and yielded 1,006 global participants who met the inclusion criteria. In general, higher degrees of leadership transparency yield higher levels of follower confidence. Situation can impact how expressions of transparency impact follower confidence. Thus, situational awareness and situational leadership are critical competencies for leaders to use transparency effectively. Leader-Member Exchange does not, generally, moderate the relationship between a leader's transparency and his or her follower's confidence. There was statistical significance in the difference in responses between geographies, but there were not statistically significant differences in the results when considering gender, years of work experience, education, age, and race in the US.

I think the currency of leadership is transparency. You've got to be truthful. I don't think you should be vulnerable every day, but there are moments where you've got to share your soul and conscience with people and show them who you are, and not be afraid of it. – Howard Schultz, Forbes

Chapter 1: Introduction

As technology and communication capabilities continue to advance, access to information has put additional demands on global leaders to consistently act ethically. Any lapse in judgement can cause a leader's career, or organization, to be destroyed along with the trust and credibility that the leader once brought. While there was a time when some mistakes, misgivings, infidelities, and other breeches in morality may have gone unnoticed, in today's world, they are quickly disseminated and publicized through various news channels and social media outlets. As access to the internet grew rapidly in the 1990s, so did a swell of public exposure of poor leadership across both the public and private sectors. Some of the most prominent scandals included Enron, Bernie Madoff's Ponzi investment schemes, Waste Management, Inc., WorldCom, Inc. and Freddie Mac (Ehret, 2016).

Engagement, retention, and high performance are all linked to the trust that exists between leader and follower (Connell, Ferres, & Travaglione, 2003; Corbitt & Martz, 2003; Costa, 2003; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). As a result of the rise of public mistrust of leaders in the 1990s, Leadership Summits were envisioned, and held, at the Gallup Leadership Institute (GLI) of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln in 2004 and 2006 (Ehret, 2016). These summits resulted in the formations of a scholarly community who shared the belief that authenticity is a critical component to effective leadership. Some of the preeminent scholars in authentic leadership that emerged post the Leadership Summits were William Gardner, Bruce Avolio, Bill George, Fred Walumba, and Kevin Cashman. Central to the study of leadership, inclusive of authentic leadership, is the degree of trust between leader and follower. According to Leader-Member

Exchange theory (LMX), the leader/follower relationship is the quintessential success predictor for an individual or team (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Trust is foundational to a leader-follower relationship, and authenticity is a strong enabler of trust.

According to Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995),

> trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. (p. 715)

In 1987, Kouzes and Posner conducted a study to understand the characteristics or traits of superior leaders. They questioned 1,500 managers to learn what attributes or features they most highly valued from their direct supervisors. The most common answers, ranked in descending order, were: "(a) integrity (is truthful, is trustworthy, has character, and has convictions), (b) competence (is capable, is productive, and is efficient), and (c) leadership (is inspiring, is decisive, and provides direction)" (Kouzes & Posner, 1987, p. 71). Even beyond leadership competence, followers deemed integrity and trustworthiness as most important. The researchers concluded that these attributes, when combined, create credibility. Credibility builds trust, and trust leads to engagement (Ehret, 2016). With heavy influence from the results of the Kouzes and Posner study in 1987, Duignan and Bhindi (1997) offered a theoretical construct for the study of authentic leadership in an organization. Some of the most relevant elements of the construct include the fact that widespread disparagement of leaders in the late 1990s was based on perceptions of their integrity and ethics, especially since authenticity and authentic relationships are critical to impactful leadership (Ehret, 2016).

From 2000 to 2010, there was a movement in the study of leadership focused on the importance of authenticity (see Figure A1 in Appendix A; Gardner et al., 2011). Perhaps the explanation for the swell in authenticity as a central theme in leadership studies is the cynicism and mistrust of leaders in the corporate setting. Despite being regarded as successful and financially stable company, Enron had leveraged unmanageable debt through partnerships with subsidiaries it had created. Worse, the company's auditor, Arthur Anderson, neglected to report the company's problems. By 2001, Enron declared bankruptcy, leaving thousands of people out of work. In addition, both individual and institutional investors had lost billions (NPR, n.d.). Enron may have been the most visible display of corporate mistrust of the early 2000s, but there were other incidents in the early 2000s as well, including Bernie Madoff scamming thousands of investors via a Ponzi scheme, and numerous banks requiring a U.S. governmental bailout for subprime mortgage defaults (Ehret, 2016).

Inspired by the flawed ethics and morality of modern leadership as evidenced by these examples and others of industrial and political malpractice, two enormously impactful authors emerged: former Medtronic CEO, Bill George, and Professor William Gardner (Ehret, 2016). George and Gardner advocated for honesty, transparency, genuineness, and ethically based leadership, which they referred to as *authentic leadership* (Gardner et al., 2011). With a similar concern for morality in leadership, Luthans and Avolio (2003) communicated "a need for a theory-driven model identifying the specific construct variables and relationships that can guide authentic leader development and suggest researchable propositions" (p. 244). In response to the need that they declared, Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005) created a model of authentic leadership with focus on sustainable follower performance. In 2007, Avolio, Gardner, and Walumbwa (2007) published the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). Using the authentic leadership framework as foundation, the ALQ can determine individual levels of authenticity through exploration of "self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing" (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, p. 89). Strong predicative validity for the ALQ was established using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with relation to work attitudes and behavioral indicators. The authors of the ALQ believe that their solution builds upon and advances ethical and transformational leadership research.

One of the challenges facing the advancement of the study of authentic leadership is the agreement and alignment of a construct definition. To be most efficient in the advancement of research, where one researcher can build on the next to substantiate and improve upon the previous iterations, scholars and practitioners need to create a common definition, as well as a common and recognized set of measurement tools (Gardner et al., 2011). Previously, researchers have used different segmentations, descriptions, and definitions of authentic leadership without recognizing the key differentiations between them.

As evidenced by the increasing volume of research and publication centered on authenticity, there appears to be growing interest in a leaders' ability to express authentic behavior (Gardner et al., 2011). Scholars such as Adam Grant and Herminia Ibarra would argue that there is an authenticity paradox. There is such a thing as being too authentic, and being overly authentic can limit growth and limit leadership impact (Ibarra, 2015). However, what if they do not have a choice? What if a person cannot control how authentic he or she is, but rather it is a personality trait that has been developed over time? Rather than delve into the debate on the authenticity paradox, this research is focused on exploring transparency as a core concept within the broader construct of authentic leadership, situational leadership, and situational awareness. Transparency is an expression that can be controlled. While authenticity is important in leadership, just like being morale and ethical, leaders need to develop the ability to assess situations and follower needs, and decide how much information should, or should not be shared, to maximize engagement.

In 2000, Steven Gangestad and Mark Snyder conducted a meta-analysis on self-monitoring based on existing literature on personality and social psychology. The researchers created a quantitative methodology to assess publications to determine the variation people demonstrate in public in different environment of socialization (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Additionally, Gangestad and Snyder have analyzed a survey that multiple psychologists have administered over several decades. The survey now has data from over 23,000 working professionals. Some of the items in the survey, which are asked as true/false questions, include:

- My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs.
- I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.
- I'm always the person I appear to be (Gangestad and Snyder, 2000, p. 540).

Participants who responded *true* to these questions are perceived to be authentic, meaning they convey the participants feel that they project their true selves to others. A comprehensive review of the 136 studies conducted based on this data set shows that those that who self-identify as authentic actually receive lower performance ratings and have a lower likelihood for promotion (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). The study of the impact of self-monitoring has garnered significant attention from researchers and practioners. Self-monitoring can be defined as “the extent to which people cultivate public appearances in diverse domains of social functioning” (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000, p. 530). If authenticity is viewed as a personality trait, and transparency is an expression that can be controlled, then self-monitoring is the mechanism in which an individual can decide on who to transparent to be in a given situation.

The contingency approach to leadership suggests that a given situation, or dynamic circumstance, should determine which leadership style will be most effective to invoke or use (Northouse, 2008). The basic premise of Situational Leadership is that no singular leadership approach is superior to others. The Hersey-Blanchard (1977) Situational Leadership Model has two variables, relationship behavior and task behavior, and the most suitable or appropriate leadership style for a given situation is based on the assessment of these two fields. Literature building on Hersey-Blanchard concluded that different situations and leader/follower relationships have optimal leadership styles, and that the best leaders are able to adapt their style based on situational variables.

Problem Statement

There is existing research on the importance of authenticity in leadership (see Table 20 in Appendix A; Gardner et al., 2011). Most existing research identifies authenticity as a trait that successful leaders demonstrate, and the research emphasizes the criticality of being an authentic leader. Drawing upon the definitions of authenticity that have been introduced in previous research (see Table 16 in Appendix A; Gardner et al., 2011), it is possible to generate a list of leadership traits that could be used as an inclusion criteria to identify *authentic leaders*. Of the twelve definitions of authentic leaders and authentic leadership, nine of the definitions (75%) reference an accordance to personal values, ethics, and/or morality that may be beyond a person's consciousness. This means, people may not be able to control authenticity, but a degree of authenticity is part of one's personality and character. Conversely, transparency does connote a conscious and deliberate behavior where one can choose how transparent to be.

The disparity between definitions of authenticity is currently being debated by some leading scholars in the field. As an example, Adam Grant writes in his article, *Be Yourself, is*

Terrible Advice, "If I can be authentic for a moment, no one wants to see your true self. We all have thoughts and feelings that we feel are fundamental to our lives, but that are better left unspoken" (Grant, 2016, p. SR6). In direct response, Bill George wrote on his own LinkedIn blog,

> Authentic leaders monitor their words and behaviors carefully to be attuned to their audiences and to enroll their colleagues and teammates. They do so because they are sensitive to the impact their words and actions have on others, not because they are "messaging" the right talking points. (George, 2016)

As such, the following reflects some of the existing contextual issues related to authenticity and transparency:

- There is not a common, agreed upon definition of authentic leadership.
- As such, there are varying opinions as to whether authenticity is a trait or a style.
- There is limited research on how transparency and self-monitoring can be used in conjunction with situational leadership and situational awareness theory.
- There is a lack of theoretical and empirical research on transparency as a core concept within the construct of authentic leadership.

Purpose of the Study

Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to advance the conceptualization of authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. This study examined the degree of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a constant situation with variable Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Gerstner & Day, 1997). By sharing how transparency can affect follower confidence, both theoretical and empirical contributions will be made towards broader leadership theory, situational leadership and awareness, and the study of authenticity in leadership.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

- To what degree do different expressions of transparency impact a follower's confidence in a leader's ability?
- What is the appropriate level of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a given situation with variable Leader-Members Exchange (LMX; Gerstner & Day, 1997)?
- To what degree do covariates, including situation and demographics, impact that concept of leadership transparency on followers?

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are intended to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. A comprehensive literature review shows a surge in *authenticity* as a key characteristic of effective leaders. Leadership training and books, such as *True North* by Bill George and Peter Sims (2007), are centered on authenticity as critical to building trust, and trust as foundational to building engagement among followers. However, most scholars view authenticity as a leadership trait. Given this, there is little to no research on how leaders can use transparency as a tool to engage followers.

Given the need for situational awareness of leaders, this study sought to build upon and advance existing literature on leadership agility to improve leader performance. Leaders need to exhibit agility and adaptability dependent on the specific followers and situation at a given point of time. Understanding how transparency can be used to build followership and engagement will help those seeking to improve their leadership. The research presented in this dissertation, which sought to determine how leaders best use transparency to inspire confidence from followers, aspired to be significant in providing meaningful information on how leaders can understand self and others, communicate effectively, build teams, manage conflict, and manage performance.

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions were made for this study:

1. It is assumed that leaders can be intentional with the degree of transparency that they demonstrate.
2. The most important factor in evaluating the efficacy of transparency is not in the expression, but instead, how the expression of transparency control is perceived by followers, and whether it builds engagement among followers. A key assumption, therefore, is that followers will be able to accurately depict their engagement levels.
3. Participants in the survey would review the inclusion criteria and self-select to participate. Because of the anonymity maintained, a reference was unable to be completed to validate that the criteria were met. Thus, it is assumed that participants were honest in whether they qualified to be part of the study.
4. It is assumed that different situations, described in the vignette sets, will not yield statistical differences in follower confidence in their leader, when controlling for leader transparency and Leader-Members Exchange (LMX; Gerstner & Day, 1997). If this assumption is proven to be correct, then the impact of leader transparency on follower's confidence may be applicable to situations beyond the two designed as part of this study.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations to this study which include: inherent limitations with the use of vignettes, the use of an internet based survey instrument, and implicit follower theory. This research utilized a *quantitative vignette survey*. A major limitation of a vignette study is that participants are not actual followers of the leader referenced, and subjects were requested to make determinations of confidence based on the extremely limited information that was shared within the vignette. As a result, the confidence that the hypothetical leaders inspire across all scenarios may be derived from a limited information and intuition (Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996). The concern with this limitation is that the findings of this study may not be an accurate representation of real situations where leaders and followers have spent time together and developed a relationship. The relationship was shared as part of the scenario, but there may be a difference in a stated relationship versus a real one. An interconnected limitation is that there are no real repercussions to followers' behaviors and attitudes towards their leaders as a result of the scenario provided in the vignette. There are some conceptual constraints with the use of vignettes that are considered limitations. Some critics of vignettes advocate that the ability for vignettes to truly capture realistic situations is difficult to impossible (Faia, 1980; Kinicki et al., 1995; Parkinson & Manstead, 1993). In response to this challenge, it should be noted that vignettes are not intended to simulate complete reality, but are meant to abstract elements of situation so they can be more deeply examined (Hughes & Huby, 2012). Vignettes are a means to reduce variables to conduct more accurate research. The selectivity used in the construct of a vignette is what makes the methodology so valuable in social research (Lanza & Carifio, 1992; Rossi, 1979).

This survey was completed virtually, utilizing Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). It is possible that conducting the survey in person versus online may have had an impact on the results. Some responses may have differed if the vignette was viewed as a video as opposed to in written form since nonverbal cues are nonexistent. Another possible limitation to the research is the impact of the potential demand effects on the results. Experimental demand effects are participant changes in behavior due to what they perceive to be the appropriate behavior (Zizzo, 2010). It is possible for the results to be influenced by the participant's perceived intent of the survey. Workers are also assigned an approval rating by researchers which impacts their suitability to be chosen to participate in future research on the MTurk platform. Since incomplete work can impact approval ratings, workers may feel obligated to complete a survey, even if they prefer to remove themselves from the study. Additionally, since researchers are paying workers for data quality, respondents may answer in a way they feel is expected. For these reasons, a comprehensive informed consent is required, detailing expectations and outlining the process to withdraw from the survey without consequence (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011). To mitigate this potential limitation, participants were provided with the purpose of the study, and requested authentic responses. Participants were also provided informed consent forms to review and sign, and that their responses would remain anonymous and confidential. Despite these assurances, it cannot be stated unequivocally that the results were not potentially impacted by demand effects.

Another important consideration in the construct of this research is the role that followers play in the examination of leadership (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Hoption, Christie, & Barling, 2015; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten., 2014). An examination of the role of followers in considered in implicit followership theories (Sy, 2010).

Implicit follower theories focus not on the leader, but the effectiveness of the followers and the implications of the categorization process. Researchers have previously considered the categorization process in followership (Coyle & Foti, 2015; Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012). More specifically, the characterization of followers from a leader's perspective has been considered, with a heavy emphasis on positive followership categories. A potential limitation in this study is the survey asked follower's how expressions of transparency with given Leader-Member Exchange impacts the follower's confidence in the ability of the leader. This assumes that the follower's interpretation of the leader's expression is correct, because it is the leader's role to inspire confidence in them (Greenleaf, 1977). However, the characterization of the ability of followers is dynamic where both the follower and the leader have an impression of the efficacy of the follower's behavior (Sy, 2010). Further, there is little understanding of the negative characteristics associated with followers, and the relationship between positive and negative characteristics. As such, one limitation is that while the effectiveness of a leader is being evaluated, it assumes strong followership, which is not validated as part of the study.

Definitions of Key Terms

The study focused situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authentic leadership theory, and therefore used a variety of terms in related fields. Specifically, this study relied on terms related to titles, and, elements in the general workplace, and corporate leadership. The following key terms were used periodically throughout the study:

Authentic Leader: "Authentic leaders are genuine people who are true to themselves and their beliefs. They lead with purpose, meaning, and values" (George & Sims, 2007, p. xxxi). Followers define authentic leadership based on the leader's willingness to accept collective and individual accountability for actions and outcomes and perceive authentic leaders "to demonstrate acceptance of organizational and personal responsibility for actions and outcomes" (Henderson & Hoy, 1983, p. 44). Followers also "perceive authentic leaders as being purpose driven, honest, and ethical" (p. 44).

Authenticity: "The quality of being authentic. Not false or copied; genuine; real" ("Authenticity," n.d., para. 1).

Emotional Control: "A facet of emotion regulation, but refers primarily to attempts by an individual to manage the generation, experience, or expression of emotion, and/or one's emotional responses" (Gross & Kientz, 1999, p. 31).

Engagement: The act of being engaged, inspired, and dedicated. Engagement is an emotion that is generated from the follower toward the leader (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002).

Followership: "The actions of someone in a subordinate role engaged in while interacting with leaders in an effort to meet organizational objectives" (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014, p. 83)

Global Leadership: "The process of influencing the thinking, attitudes and behaviors of a global community to work together synergistically toward a common vision" (Mendenhall & Osland, 2017).

In-Group: The in-group is defined as the team members who demonstrate loyalty and trustworthiness, and have earned the trust of the leader (Graene & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Out-Group: The out-group are members of the team who have not earned the trust of the leader, and/or have demonstrated that they lack competence of motivation. Graene & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Self-Monitoring: "The variation in the extent to which people cultivate public appearances in diverse domains of social functioning" (Gangestadd and Snyder, 530).

Transparency: Open, frank, candid (dictionary.com, n.d.)

Trust: "willingness to be vulnerable in a relationship (Mayer et al., 1995; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998) with another person predicated on positive expectations regarding that person's behavior and intentions (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998)" (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010, p. 351). There is an inherit aspect of vulnerability in this definition since trust assumes ability to share truthful information, even if that information may not be beneficial to be shared (Mayer et al., 1995). It is also expected that there is a level of predictability and dependability with the trusted individual that would deem them to be trustworthy (Rousseau et al., 1998).

Summary

From the early 2000s onwards, the topic of authenticity of leadership has increased in popularity in empirical and theoretical publications. However, most scholars view authenticity as a leadership trait, as opposed to a behavior that can be controlled (Avolioet al. (2007). Transparency is an expression that can be self-monitored as a means to inspire confidence from followers. There is a need for situational awareness of leaders, this study seeks to build upon and advance existing literature on leadership adaptability. Leaders need to exhibit agility and adaptability in style dependent on the specific followers and situation at a given point of time. Given the impact that transparency can have in building followership and engagement, this study will help those seeking to aimprove their leadership. The research presented in this dissertation, which sought to determine how leaders best use transparency to inspire confidence from followers, aspires to be to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity.

Organization of the Dissertation

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the subject matter, the problem statement and the purpose of the study, identifies the research questions, reviews the significance of the study, discusses assumptions and limitations, and defines key terms. Chapter 2 reviews relevant literature regarding this study, including a historical examination of leadership. The literature review is important because it adds richness and context to how transparency has been managed in empirical and theoretical research, and how there is a limited research on individual transparency. Chapter 3 comprises of a restatement of the research questions, the research design and approach, a description of the population, data gathering procedures, plans for IRB, and the data analysis process. Chapter 4 presents the findings from the study. Chapter 5 summarizes the study based on the findings, and includes implications, recommendations, and suggestions for additional research. The chapter closes with final thoughts from the researcher.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

According to Luthans and Avolio (2003), "the authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates into leaders themselves" (p. 243). Within this definition the authors propose that transparency is one component that defines authentic leadership. Walumbwa et al. (2008) also link transparency as an element central to the definition of authenticity. In order to propose a situational transparency model, transparency needs to be examined within the construct of authenticity, and authenticity needs to be researched within the entire spectrum of the evolution of leadership theory. A chronological review of leadership is important because it adds depth and context to how authenticity has risen to prominence within empirical and theoretical research, and sets context for how transparency can be a powerful tool for authentic leaders.

The study of leadership can be traced back to the beginning of civilization (Stone & Patterson, 2005). According to Lewis (1974), from an anthological perspective, regardless if there are formal or elected officials for an organization, there is always a group of leaders who initiate decision making on behalf of the group. The earliest writings on leadership date back to 2300 B.C.E with the Instruction of Ptahhotep (Bass & Bass, 2009). Confucius and Lao-Tzu wrote in the 6th century B.C.E on the roles and responsibilities of leaders, and how they must set a moral example for others (Burns, 1998). One of the preeminent scholars on leadership theory is Bernard Bass. In his handbook on leadership, he writes:

> The study of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilization, which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped by them. From its infancy, the study of history has been the study of leaders—what they did and why they did it. (Bass, 1990, p. 3)

With slow advancement; given how traditionally difficult it was for information to get archived and disseminated globally, contributions to leadership theory progressed through ancient Greece and Rome, and ultimately to the architects of the modern political systems in the 1500s – 1700s in Italy, Switzerland, and The United States of America. Organizational activities, work environments, culture, the work engagement, leadership, and followership, have been studied for almost two centuries (Stone & Patterson, 2005). Yet, in earnest, the academically-oriented, theoretical study of leadership only began in the 1930s. During this time, a great number of varying definitions and theories of leadership have been proposed. However, meta-analysis shows commonality among the constructs to the degree that "leadership is an effort to influence, and the power to induce compliance (Wren, 1995)" (Stone & Patterson, 1995, p. 1).

The review of existing literature on leadership can be organized and presented in a variety of manners. For the purposes of this study, the literature review is a chronological examination of the major theoretical advancements in leadership most relevant to the creation and advancement of authentic leadership and transparency. Trait Leadership Theory (Stogdill, 1948) and Behavioral Leadership Theory (Likert, 1961) are reviewed first with a lens on the physical and behavioral attributes which can be considered personal characteristics. Then, Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) will be considered as scholars examine preferred leadership styles and expressions. Situational Awareness (Endsley, 1995a) will be examined as a core concept of Situational Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Special attention is paid to Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory, first presented by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), Graen (1976), and Graen and Cashman (1975).

In the 1990s, authenticity emerged as an important concept and component of leadership It might appear that authenticity most naturally fits into the Trait Leadership Theory, which emerged in the 1930s and 1940s. However, it was the advancement of the importance of trust in leadership that set the foundation for the importance of authenticity (Mayer et al., 1995. Most scholars characterize authenticity as a trait verses a style. However, transparency, as a component of authenticity is an expression that can be self-monitored. To conduct research that contributes to the impact of situational transparency on global leadership, a thorough literature review must be conducted to understand the historical and current theoretical and methodological context.

Trait Leadership Theory

In the late 1800s, the beginnings of leadership theory were established via analyzing the behaviors of military figures. Since these roles were held exclusively by men, the studies became known as the *Great Man Theory* (Barnett, 2010). Thomas Carlyle (1897/2003) first published his Great Man Theory of leadership in the late 1800s. Carlyle's study is predicated on the fact that societal progress occurs due to exceptional leaders and their leadership. His assertion was that the ability to lead was inherent in people, and based on their genetic makeup (Ehret, 2016). Carlyle advocated that leadership is not something that can be developed, but rather, it is a trait, that someone either possesses or they do not. Carlyle was a pioneer in the study of leadership, but his research, focused almost completely on genetic traits.

In the preceding decades, researchers looked to find correlation between traits of strong leaders. The leadership traits that were researched most prominently were physiological, intellectual, and social characteristics. Generally, this research explored connections between a person's traits and the impact of his/her leadership (Barnett, 2010). Physiological attributes such a person's physical attributes (i.e. height, weight, attractiveness), and intellectual attributes (i.e. IQ, sociability, personality), were primary variables in this early research (Ehret, 2016).

The Great Man Theory gained unchallenged momentum throughout much of the early to mid-1900s. Then, in 1948, Ralph Stogdill published an article titled, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership." Stogdill argued that the existing research on the great man theory lacked validity (Barnett, 2010). Stogdill found that the trait measurements that were used in multiple studies were not predictive as to who will be an effective leader (Stogdill, 1948). There were several deficiencies that Stogdill identified in existing research. First, the assessment of physical, mental, and emotional traits could not be reliably measured (Barnett, 2010). A number of studies that came to define the Great Man Theory, all used different measurements while trying to assess the same traits. In the 1930s the field of Psychometrics was in its early years, and early findings from the study of leader traits found inconsistencies in the traits that distinguished effective leaders from non-effective leaders, or anyone else. Additionally, many trait leadership studies used young adults and students, as opposed to a more representative sample, which also hindered reliability. Finally, Stogdill suggested that leadership is more dependent on a leader's behavior than any specific trait. Due to the lack of validity in the early trait theory research, the study of the great man theory was largely halted by the middle of the 20th century.

Stogdill's research evolved into Trait Leadership Theory, which asserts that leaders have specific innate traits that enable them to be effective leaders. These traits include assertiveness, dependability, persistence, and adaptability (Stodgill, 1974). The main construct of trait theory is that specific traits will result in specific, predictive patterns of behavior. The patterns of behavior will remain consistent regardless of the situation or followership. And finally, the traits and patterns of behaviors can be measured psychometrically. Central to the topic of authentic leadership is the idea that there are certain traits which may be more pre-disposed to create follower engagement. While there is not an absolute consensus among scholars, most view authenticity as a psychological trait which is developed in a person's formative years (Gardner et al,, 2005).

Behavioral Theories of Leadership

Building upon the work of Ralph Stogdill's (1948), research began to shift focus in the 1950s from Trait Leadership Theory to Behavioral Theory of Leadership. As the name well implies, Behavioral Theories of leadership focus on the study of specific behaviors of a leader. Theorists of behavioral leadership believe that the leader's behavior is the best predictor of leadership efficacy, and demonstration of behaviors is far more important than any inherent trait. The premise of behavioral theory was validated by two important studies that were administered at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University in the late 1940s and 1950s (Barnett, 2010). The research that resulted was landmark and significant, and what followed was the creation of hundreds of publications on leadership in the decades to follow.

In 1957, the Personnel Research Board developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) at Ohio State University. The LBDQ was administered to a number of different groups of individuals, including college students, private companies, and military personnel (Halpin, 1957). The study was intended to identify commonalities in leadership behavior across diverse groups. The analysis showed that there were two groups of behaviors that were strongly correlated. The first group was labeled *Consideration*, people-oriented behavioral leaders. The second group was labeled *Initiating Structure,* or task-oriented leaders (Barnett, 2010). The initiating structure group arranged, planned, and measured specific tasks required to accomplish a goal. The consideration group demonstrated care for followers through reward, recognition, and concern for a follower both personally and professionally (Barnett, 2010).

A second landmark study to advance Behavioral Theory was completed at the University of Michigan beginning in 1950. Unlike the Ohio State research, the Michigan studies also focused on the leadership of groups, rather than just individuals (Likert, 1961). Led by researcher Rensis Likert, the Michigan studies identified three common characteristics among leaders. The first two were similar to the findings at Ohio State - task orientation (i.e., initiating structure) and care for people (i.e., consideration). However, the third observation introduced a new concept, one of participative leadership.

Task-oriented behavior. One of the most effective behaviors that strong leaders demonstrate is being able to set clear objectives (Ehret, 2016). According to Zaleznik (2009), "The efficient manager adopts impersonal attitudes toward goals, which themselves are deeply embedded in the organization's history and culture. Leaders, on the other hand, are active instead of reactive, shaping ideas and adopting a personal attitude toward goals." With this definition in mind, Likert found that the best managers identify the what work that needs to get done, and the ability to schedule and plan the work into tasks and subtasks. These managers are also able to set goals that are challenging, yet realistic (Likert, 1961).

Relationship-oriented behavior. The second common characteristic that Likert discovered was that strong leaders focus not only the results that need to be delivered, but also the relationships they have with followers. Because they value and want to preserve the relationship, they are more thoughtful, supportive, and concerned with a follower's well-being (Ehret, 2016). The leader's concern for his/her followers extends beyond the professional environment, but into his/her personal life as well. Relationship-oriented leaders tend to use both reward and recognition, and show genuine appreciation and gratitude for both effort and results. Because they value the relationship with followers, generally, relationship-oriented leaders empower their followers, and do not micromanage unless the situation absolutely warrants such. While they set clear objectives and priorities, they also give their followers flexibility in terms of how their objectives are met (Likert, 1961).

Participative leadership. According to Likert (1961), one of the commonalities found across diverse groups leaders is their use of a participative style (Likert, 1961). These leaders have the ability to lead groups as well as individuals. For example, effective leaders are skilled at engaging followers in public settings, like team meetings. Participative leaders also tend to be inclusive in when creating a team vision and when resolving conflict. Through the act of being inclusive, leaders also role model behaviors and norms that they would want their team members to replicate (Ehret, 2016). Likert found that the most effective leaders tend to be more of a facilitator than a dictator. However, the role of facilitator should not be misconstrued for one to believe that the leader abdicates responsibility. These leaders believe in role clarity, and assume ultimate accountability for the team. Participative leadership creates highly engaged teams that are able to work interdependently versus a collection of independent individual contributors, also known as a working group (Likert, 1961). The results of the he Michigan Studies, allowed Likert to create and publish his Four Systems of Management in 1967 (see Table 1).

Figure 1

Likert's System of Management Leadership

LIKERT'S SYSTEMS OF MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP

Leadership Variable	System 1 (Exploitative Autocratic)	System 2 (Benevolent Autocratic)	System 3 (Participative)	System 4 (Democratic)
Confidence and trust in subordinates	Has no confidence and trust in subordinates	Has condes-cending confidence and trust, such as master has to servant	Substantial but not complete confidence and trust; still wishes to keep control of decisions	Complete confidence and trust in all matters
Subordinates' feeling of freedom	Subordinates do not feel at all free to discuss things about the job with their superior	Subordinates do not feel very free to discuss thing about the job with their superior	Subordinates feel rather free to discuss to discuss thing about the job with their superior	Subordinates feel completely free to discuss the job with their superior
Superiors seeking involvement with subordinates	Seldom gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems.	Sometimes gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems.	Usually gets ideas and opinions and usually tries to make constructive use of them	Always asks subordinates for ideas and opinions and always tries to make constructive use of them.

Note. From *The Human Organization: Its Management and Value* (p. 113), by R. Likert, 1967, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill. Copyright 1967 by the Author. Adapted with permission.

Perhaps the most significant of Likert's (1967) findings was that participative behaviors generate the highest engagement and motivation of followers. Building on the Likert's Systems of Management Leadership, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton created their Leadership Grid (Blake, Mouton, & Bidwell, 1962; see Figure 1). Within this grid, the authors consider the relationship between *people concern* and *task concern,* and introduce five styles of behavioral leadership. A leader who demonstrates low care for followers and low concern for task is known as an *impoverished manager*. A leader with high concern for people and low concern for task is labeled a *country club* manager. A leader, who has high concern for the task, but low concern for people, is known as an *authority-obedience manager*. The fourth quadrant in the grid is for the leader who has a high value of people and a high value for task. These leaders are known as *team managers*. Finally, a leader who attempts to balance concern for task and people is known as a *middle of the road manager*. According to Blake, Mouton, and Bidwell (1962), the ideal leader is the *team manager*. The Blake and Mouton Leadership Grid was an important advancement in the study of leadership theory, and served as a foundation for future models and frameworks. However, reliability and validity have not been recognized to distinguish between task-centric or people-centric leaders and leadership effectiveness. The major shortcoming of the Blake and Mouton Leadership Grid is that is does not consider situation as a variable that can impact preferred leadership styles.

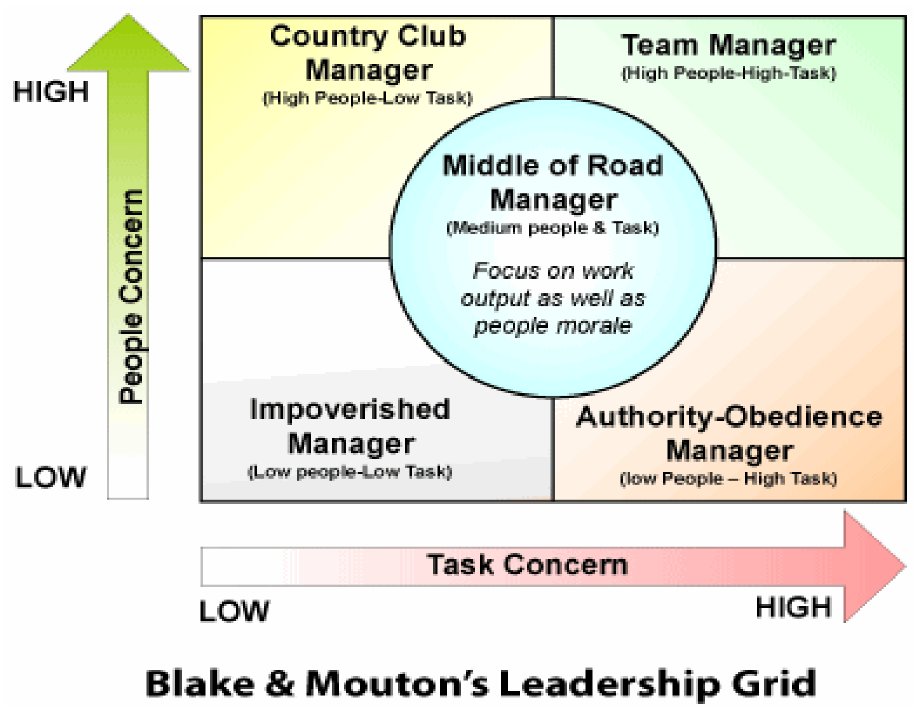


Figure 2. Blake and Mouton's leadership grid.

Reprinted from “Managerial Grid,” by R. R. Blake, J. S. Mouton, and A. C. Bidwell, 1962, *Advanced Management-Office Executive*, *1*(9), p. 13. Copyright 1962 by the Authors. Reprinted with permission.

Contingency Theory

The Contingency Theory contends that there is no single best way to lead. Instead, the best leadership style is contingent upon the situation (Northouse, 2008). Since one of the main purposes of this research is to create a situational transparency model, it will be important to review the different styles of leadership (Lewin, 1939), Fiedler’s (1967) Contingency theory, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago (Vroom & Yetton, 1973) model for decision making, and finally, the Hersey-Blanchard (1977) model on situational leadership. As referenced earlier, Contingency Theory tries to determine the best leadership style for a given situation. In this context, a leader’s effectiveness is a complex combination of leadership style, task, situation, and followership (Northouse, 2008). In Contingency Theory, the leadership style that a leader demonstrates can be based on the work to be done, or by the needs of the followers. Task oriented leaders are generally more motivated by the need to deliver results, while relationship oriented leaders are generally more motivated more to preserve relationships, and maintain personal communications with people (Northouse, 2008).

Styles of leadership. Kurt Lewin was a psychologist, who is known as one of the modern pioneers of social, organizational, and applied psychology. Lewin (1939) identified that the way in which leader’s make decisions can be considered a leadership style (Lippit & White, 1939). The three leadership styles that Lewin, and associates, identified are autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. Autocratic leaders take sole accountability and responsibility for a decision, and make decisions autonomously. They are not consultative, and they do not involve others in the decision-making process (Lippitt & White, 1939). The autocratic leader does not feel to an obligation to give followers context, or situational awareness. After making a decision, autocratic leaders expect followers to execute upon it. This type of leader is extremely direct and will often criticize or praise in public settings (Victor, 2010). As an example, a military leader, especially in times of conflict or a situation that involves extreme duress and urgency, serves followers well by demonstrating autocratic leadership (Victor, 2010). An authoritarian style of leadership works best when firm direction is required, or a fast decision needs to be made. Followers who prefer receiving detailed direction, who lack initiative, or require rules and regulations to perform may appreciate this style. They are reverent to positions of authority, and follow orders respectfully.

Democratic leaders actively take responsibility for decisions. They participate in in the decision-making process, but they involve team members as well. A democratic leader gathers information, opinions, and perspectives from followers to make help make decisions. This type of leader typically engages the team in dialogue, shares situational context, and facilitates a conversation to weigh options (Victor, 2010). The democratic leader seeks consensus, and is typically balanced in offering praise and criticism. They will be a part of team activities, but not be overbearing. Democratic leaders value team input and include followers in co-authoring, and thus co-owning, decisions. However, a democratic leader always maintains ultimate accountability and responsibility for a decision. A democratic leader is especially adept at identifying followers' skills and experiences that can be leveraged across a team, and seeks to maximize the contributions of each follower (Ehret, 2016). It is sometimes difficult for a democratic leader to identify when a situation necessitates a shift in leadership style. Not all tasks or decisions can afford the luxury of gathering input from the followers/

The third leadership style, according to Lewin (1939), is laissez-faire. Laissez-faire leaders disassociate themselves from the decision, leaving matters to their followers. In situations where followers are capable and motivated, this style may be highly appropriate. The *laissez-faire* leader will typically only engage with the team when asked. He/she does not join in team activities or gatherings. Critical observations or praise are only delivered when asked. If a leader has a talented and results-oriented group of followers, laissez-faire leadership can be most effective. Laissez-faire leadership empowers skilled followers to use their talents to deliver results on behalf of the leader and team in an unencumbered manner. Typically, this style of leadership is highly energizing and engaging to followers since they are entrusted to perform with little input and direction from the leader (Victor, 2010).

The research of Kurt Lewin (1939) has proven to be foundational for future research and theoretical frameworks on leadership and organizational effectiveness, practically and theoretically (Ehret, 2016). When examined in conjunction with various situations, each leadership style can be suitable dependent on the circumstance, audience, and goals that the group is undertaking. Leaders can use Lewin's leadership styles to adjust their own style of leadership based on the situation (Victor, 2010). Other theorists (Fielder, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977), have built on Lewin's (1939) work. While leader's may have a default leadership style based on how they make decisions, the leader's ability to adapt style based on situational awareness is what makes them even most effective.

Fielder's contingency theory. Fred Fielder was a social scientist, and one of the leading industrial and organizational psychologists of the 20th century. Fielder's main area of focus was the personality and characteristics of leaders. In 1967, Fiedler introduced his contingency theory, which states that there is not one leadership style that is best; instead, leadership style needs to adapt to a situation (Ehret, 2016). Fielder was the first to triangulate leadership style, followership needs, and situational factors as collective contributors to leadership effectiveness. It is important to note, however, that Fielder's theory does not propose that leaders change their style based on distinctive situations. Rather, leaders should position themselves in situations where their leadership style is most impactful (Barnett, 2010).

Pivotal to Fielder's (1967) theory is the variable of the *favorability* of the circumstance, which dictates the task versus relationship behavior required of the leader. Favorability is defined by the level of Leader-Member Relationship, Task Structure and Leader's Power Position. The Leader-Member Relationship is the level of trust and respect a follower has for his or her leader. The Task Structure is to what extent a follower's activities can be made quantifiable and measurable. The Leader's Position Power is a leader's ability to reward and recognize a follower. Situational favorability is highest when followers have trust and have respect for their leaders. Additionally, the follower has clear performance objectives which are highly controllable, structured, and can be clearly measured. Finally, the leader has direct control over reward and recognition of the followers (Fielder, 1967). Fielder's (1967) research also recognized that leaders with high task orientation are equally successful in favorable, or unfavorable situations. However, people centric leaders tend to be more effective in more stable circumstances, meaning not highly favorable or unfavorable.

Vroom-Yetton decision-making model. The Vroom-Yetton model is designed to help leaders select the best decision-making approach and leadership style, based on the current situation. Originally developed by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton in their 1973 book, *Leadership and Decision Making***,** the decision-making model imparts a practical approach to help leaders make decisions (see Figure 2). The three criteria that Vroom and Yetton recommend considering when making a decision are the degree of thoroughness and quality required, the commitment of the group, and whether there are any time restrictions (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). According to Vroom and Yetton (1973), there are several leadership styles that can be appropriate based on the situation. The leadership styles range from authoritarian to highly participatory (see Figure 2). Building on the original mode, Vroom and Jago launched a mathematical system in 1988 to serve as an additional decision-making tool for leaders (Vroom & Yetton, 1988). The most appropriate leadership style is based on a leader's authority and the situation.

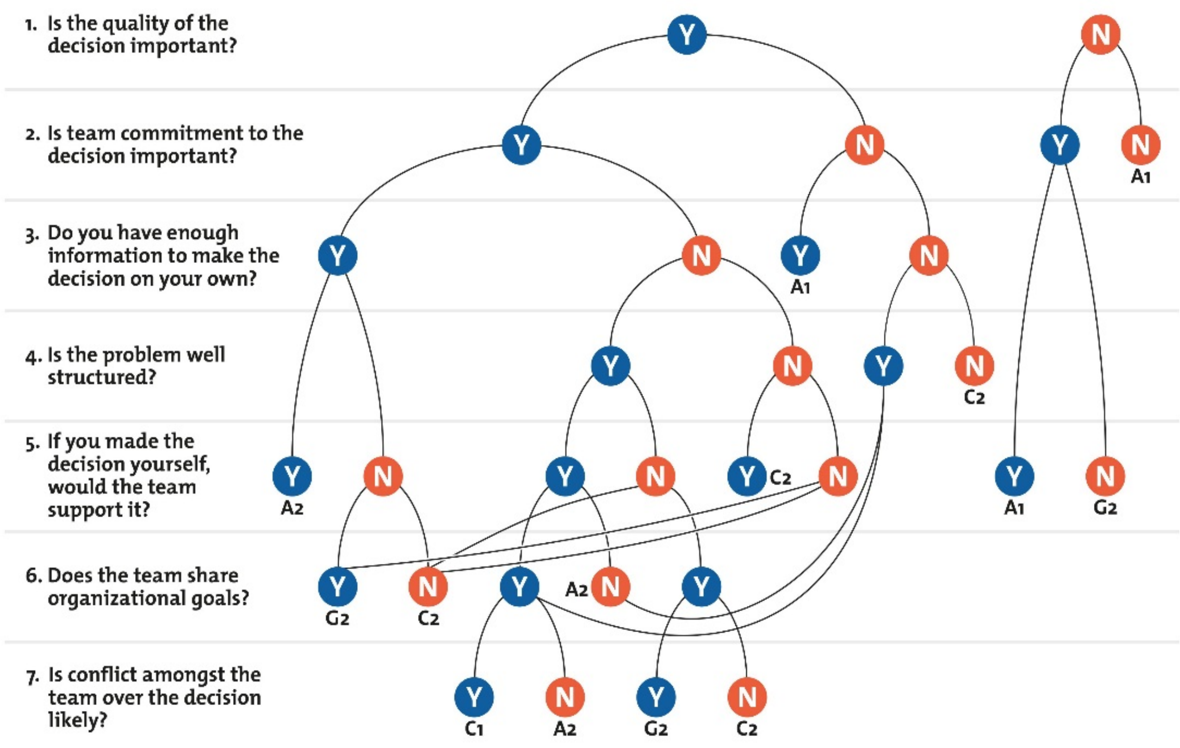


Figure 3. The Vroom-Yetton decision model.
From *Leadership and Decision Making*, by V. H. Vroom and P. W. Yetton, 1973, Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press. Copyright [1973] University of Pittsburgh Press. Adapted with permission.

According to Vroom and Yetton (1973), the types of decision making styles can be categorized into five types: A1, A2, C1, C2, and G2. The styles range from strongly autocratic

(A1), to strongly democratic, or participative (G2). With the Strongly Autocratic (A1) style, leaders use existing information to make a decision, without further input from the team. The Autocratic (A2) style suggests that the leader consults the team to acquire needed information to be able to make the decision. With the Consultative (C1) style, the leader shares the situation with the team, and asks followers for perspectives and inputs. However, the group is not brought together for a collective discussion. The final decision is made by the leader. The Consultative (C2) decision making style suggests that the leader pulls the group together for a collaborative discussion, but the final decision still rests with the leader. The final decision-making style is called Collaborative (G2). In G2, the leader role is largely one of a facilitator, who tries to get the group to consensus. Vroom and Yetton (1973) believe that the best leadership style can be identified based on short survey response. The questions explore the importance of correctness, or the quality of the decision, as well the importance of follower commitment that is required to execute the decision (Barnett, 2010). A major criticism of the Vroom-Yetton model is that is can be complex, and is a bit impractical for decisions that need to be made quickly (Baker, 1980).

Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), the basic principle of situational leadership is that no singular leadership approach is superior to others. First published in 1969, Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory was further developed and updated in 1977. The Hersey-Blanchard (1977) Situational Leadership Model has two variables: relationship behavior and task behavior, and the best leadership style is advised based on the assessment of these two fields (see Figure 3). Optimal leadership needs to be considerate of the task to be complete, and the relationship between leader and followers. The most successful leaders have the ability to adapt their style based on the work to be done (the task), and the amount of direction needed by followers, which

Hersey and Blanchard define as *team maturity* (Ehret, 2016). The level of team maturity can be defined by the willingness of followers to take accountability for the work, how well followers respond to challenging objectives, their knowledge, skills, and experiences. The four leadership styles are labeled *telling*, *selling*, *participating*, and *delegating*. These styles can be adapted based on maturity levels, which are labeled "very capable and confident, capable but unwilling, unable but willing, and unable and insecure" (p. 200). The quadrants of the model are described in the following sections.

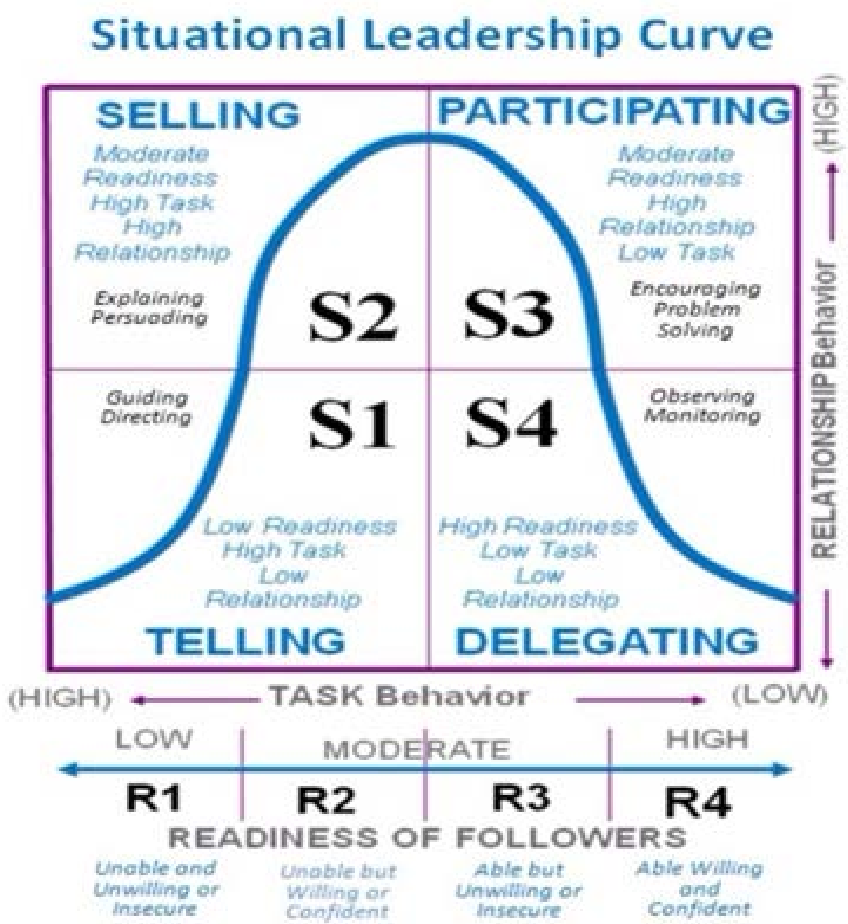


Figure 4. Hersey-Blanchard situational leadership model.
From Management of Organizational Behavior (3rd ed.) (p. 200), by P. Hersey and K. H. Blanchard, 1977, Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. Copyright [1977] by the Authors. Reprinted with permission.

S1: Telling. As seen in Figure 3, when the task is complex and relationship focus is low telling is the recommended leadership style. In this situation, the leader distinctly dictates follower roles. The leader gives a high degree of direction and prescribed specificity on all details required to complete a given task. One attribute of the S1 leadership style is that the communication is delivered as an order, with little opportunity for challenge on behalf of followers (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997).

S2: Selling. This selling leadership style is advisable when the task is complex, and there is a high relationship focus. In this situation, the leader gives detailed information and guidance in a direct manner, but still allows for followers to ask questions or challenge assumptions and information. As the title implies, with this style, the leader is trying to sell his/her ideas with the hope of gaining follower commitment. Often, part of the leader's message will describe how the ask connects with the greater value to the organization, or members of the organization (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997).

S3: Participating style. The leadership style in this quadrant is high relationship and low task focus. In the participating style, the leader focuses more on involving followers to gain their engagement and commitment. The concern of the leader is directed towards the follower and less on the task. As the followers possess the appropriate and applicable knowledge, they feel empowered to make several decisions. This style is dependent on the leader/follower relationship, and trust between the two is extremely important (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997).

S4: Delegating style. This leadership style is low relationship and low-task focus. The leader behavior in this quadrant is demonstrated when the leader looks to have followers manage more transactional work so, the leader can focus on higher-level commitments. Responsibility of tasks is passed on to the followers. The leader continues to track and monitors the progress of his/her followers, but provides them the autonomy to take over more responsibility normally reserved for the leader (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997).

Situational awareness. Situational awareness is an important concept within the broader construct of leadership theory and situational leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Situational awareness is the notion that an individual, or group, has such a strong understanding of the current environment, that he/she/ may be able to project the future environment based on changing variables (Merket, Bergondy, & Cuevas-Mesa, 1997). Situational awareness necessitates that an individual can correlate how local, environmental knowledge, information, and action may work together to impact the present and/or future. Those that have high degrees of situational awareness, generally, have an intuitive feel for activities and outcomes within an environment, and they possess a basic intuition about the many variables that make up the situation. Examples of these variables include the players, the setting, interplay that occurs between them. Situational awareness is most important when the projection of the future can have life and death consequences, such as military and health care (Endsley & Jones, 1997).

In 1995, Dr. Mica Endsley, introduced her model of situational awareness. The notion of situational awareness is important to fully leverage previous work like Fielder's Contingency Theory (1967), the Vroom-Yetton Decision-Making Model (1973), and Hersey-Blanchard's Situational Leadership Model (1977). Endsley' model is often sited with regards to the importance that the situation variable plays in leadership effectiveness, in part due to its simplicity. Endsley's model describes situational awareness in three phases: perception, comprehension, and projection (Endsley, 1995a) (see Figure 4).

The first step in realizing Situational Awareness is the ability to perceive environmental status, attributes, and dynamics. Attributes associates with perception include the ability to assess the environment, detect cues, and basic identification (Endsley, 1995b). Common situational elements include perception of surroundings, objects, occurrences, and people. The second step in the creation of Situational Awareness is comprehension. Comprehension of a situation includes the ability to recognize unconnected items that are perceived in step one, and to make sense of them in an interconnected way. The three aspects of the comprehension level are pattern recognition, interpretation, and evaluation (Endsley, 1995b). Another distinguishing factor of the comprehension step is to translate how the perceived situation will impact the vision and mission of an individual or team. For one to be successful at this step, he/she must possess the ability to make sense of the entire environment, and how it relates to the individual or team. The final, and most difficult, step of Situational Awareness is projection. As the label implies, perception is the ability to predict how a situation will evolve given the perception and comprehension of the environment and its elements. An understanding of environmental dynamics is required, and the ability to process independent and dependent aspects of the situation into a projection of the future (Endsley, 1995b) (see Figure 5).

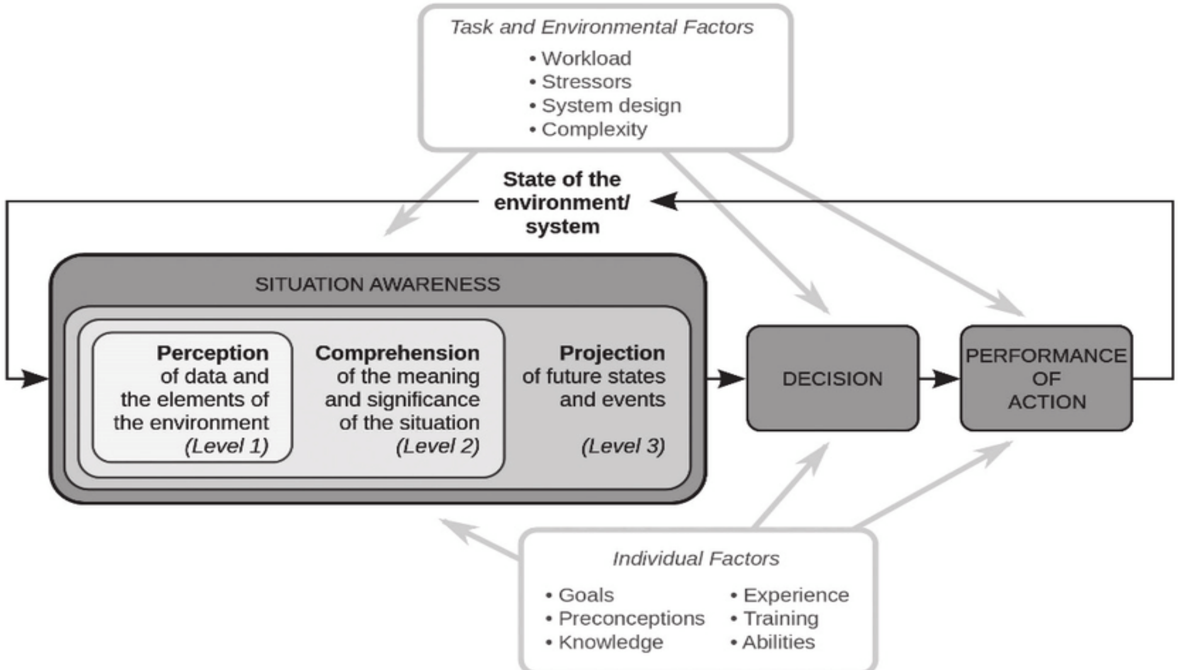


Figure 5. Endsley's model of Situational Awareness.
This is a synthesis of versions she has given in several sources, notably Endsley (1995a) and Endsley & Garland (2000). Drawn by Dr. Peter Lankton, May 2007.

One might question whether Situational Awareness is a trait developed over time, or a skill that can be developed. According to Endsley (1995a), there are variables that can impact the Situational Awareness as a competency. They include the individual, the work to be done, and the environment. (Endsley, 1995a). An individual can have a greater propensity towards Situational Awareness based on his/her personality type, IQ, and EQ. While training can be helpful, it will not ensure that individuals perceive, comprehend, and project Situational Awareness in the same way. According to Endsley, Situational Awareness "provides the primary basis for subsequent decision making and performance in the operation of complex, dynamic systems" (Endsley, 1995a, p. 65). In relation to decision-making, Situational Awareness can help one consider valuable inputs such as reading cues, assessing situations, and making predictions, all of which contribute to making good decisions (Artman, 2000).

Time and space also play important roles in Situational Awareness. Situations are constantly changing, inclusive of the players, the work to be done, and the environment. With new inputs constantly entering the situational ecosystem, an individual needs to continually reprocess, and adapt projections and plans (Endsley, 1995b). Spatial recognition also plays a critical role in Situational Awareness. The surroundings and environment are also constantly evolving, and an individual needs to be aware special changes in concert with other factors. In summary, the three steps of Situational Awareness: perception, comprehension, and projection must also be examined within the broader context of temporal and spatial components (Endsley, 1995b).

Building on Endsley's (1995a) previous work, Endsley and Jones (1997) introduced three components of situational awareness are *states*, *systems*, and *processes*. Situational awareness *states* are an individual's awareness to the situation. The situational awareness *system* is the level of awareness within a group, and the awareness between the group and the circumstances. Collectively, these elements make up a system of awareness. Situational awareness *processes* involve the continually updates of the situation as it evolves. Thus, situational awareness is the ability to understand the environment, a thorough comprehension of the situations, and the ability to foresee how the situation will evolve in the future (Endsley & Jones, 1997).

As with any model, or construct, Situational Awareness is not exempt from criticisms. Most models of Situational Awareness are depended upon cognition, and share cognition processes. One of the major criticisms of Situational Awareness is that there is not a clear to cognitive processes, but "are not specific in what processes are involved and to what extent" (Banbury & Tremblay, 2004, p. xiii). However, this criticism is not specific just to models of Situational Awareness, but rather a critique of cognitive science. While Situational Awareness does have clear definitions and well-defined assumptions, the inherent processes associated with the cognitive processes are broadly insubstantial to provide application to the scholarship.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Trait Leadership Theory, Behavioral Theories of Leadership, and Contingency Theory made substantial contribution and advancement of theoretical and empirical research in leadership theory. Each of these theories explore variables and interaction effects with relation to leaders and followers. In 1975, Dansereau et al. first presented the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. Soon after, Graen (1976) and Graen and Cashman (1975) continued to refine and revise the original theory to its modern iteration. LMX theory focuses on the constantly evolving leader/follower relationships, as opposed to followers' traits, styles and/or behaviors (Barnett, 2010). "According to LMX, the quality of the relationship that develops between a leader and a follower is predictive of outcomes at the individual, group, and organizational levels of analysis" (Gerstner & Day, 1997, p. 827). In contrast to other theories, the main premise of LMX theory is that leadership must be viewed as an iterative process, measured through the interactions between leaders and their followers (Ehret, 2016). LMX Theory challenges that leaders should not manage followers as a collective, but instead as an assembly of individuals. Additionally, LMX centers on the dissimilarities between leaders and followers, as opposed to the similarities (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) found that there are two consistent ways in which leaders and followers connect. The first connection is when the relationship is based on trust and general care for each other. The second connection point is when the leader and follower relationship is formally defined through a contract or job description (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

The central thesis of LMX is that within any team, there is an in-group and an out-group. Early research on LMX focused on the contrast between the two groups. The in-group is defined as the team members who demonstrate loyalty, and have earned the trust of the leader. The leader's natural tendency is to give this group the majority of his/her attention, as well as the most meaningful and challenging work. The in-group also tends to get preferential treatment with regards to developmental and career advancement. Generally, the in-group also receives differentially more interaction time with the leader. Frequently, the in-group has similar personality types and work ethic with the leader (Graene & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The out-group are members of the team who have not earned the trust of the leader, and/or have demonstrated that they lack competence of motivation. The work given to the out-group is typically restrictive and tactical. The leader tends to give out-group members less time, and less opportunities for development and advancement (Graene & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Post the early work on LMX Theory focusing on the contrasting in-groups and out-groups, a number of studies were conducted to test the correlations between LMX Theory and team effectiveness. Research was also done to explore the impact of LMX on organizational, team, and individual results (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). With regards to leadership development, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) suggest that a leader develop strong relationships with all of his/her followers. It is important that leaders not differentiate when it comes to investment in time, or emotion, from one follower to another.

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) Theory claims that the quality of the leader/follower relationship is directly correlated to multi-dimensional outcomes (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987). For example, correlations between LMX have been studied with respect to performance management (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), employee effectiveness (Scandura & Graen, 1984), organizational culture (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989), demographic commonalities (Liden et al. 1993), perceived similarity (Liden et al., 1993), and attitudinal similarity (Turban, Jones, & Rozelle, 1990). The broad applicability of LMX is a demonstration of how beneficial the theory with respect to organizational dynamics (Engle & Lord, 1997).

In 1997, Engle and Lord published a study on implicit theories, self-schemes, and Leader Member Exchange (LMX). The study examined the relationship between liking and leader-member exchange (LMX) in a natural setting. The perception of similarity between leader and follower was found to be a significant predictor of LMX quality. The first finding of Engle and Lord (1997) was that the notion of liking is strongly correlated to both leader and follower ratings of LMX quality. Secondly, there is a perception of similar attitude between leader in follow that correlated with both LMX quality and liking. The third finding was that implicit leadership theory congruence did not correlate with follower liking or LMX quality. However, implicit performance theory congruence did correlate with leader liking. Finally, self-schemes were found not to moderate implicit leadership theory, or liking (Engle & Lord, 1997). While Graene and Uhl-Bien (1995) found that personality type and work ethic tended to be similar between leader and in-group followers, Engle and Lord (1997) demonstrated the correlation between liking and attitude with LMX Theory, but implicit leader theory and self-scheme to not be predictive of LMX . A possible explanation of these findings is that perceptions of similarity may lead a team member to associate him/herself with other team members, resulting in an emotional connection that can manifest in a personal relationship (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). A follower's ability to match personality and other qualities of the leaders also has an impact on the leader liking and associating with the follower. As such, followers can attempt to mirror the traits and characteristics of their leaders to positively affect ratings and liking (Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

The impact of low Leader Member Exchange (LMX) relationships, if widespread in an organization, can have an impact on organizational performance (Scandura & Graen, 1984). In such cases, LMX interventions may be necessary to improve organizational LMX quality. Engle and Lord (1997) suggest that one possible solution can be *cognitive norming*, meaning the organization should set performance measurements that spell out the work and the relationship that should exist between leader and follower. An example of *cognitive norming* via performance standards would be training as part of the performance management process with focus on objective setting and appraisal (Hauenstein & Foti, 1989). Another practical intervention to improve organizational LMX quality can be to train individuals on impression management, the ability to adapt style and even personality manifestations in recognition of the characteristics of other team members (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Followers who have negative affectivity may be able to cultivate better relationships with others by developing in impression management.

In 1999, Lord, Brown, and Freiberg studied follower self-concepts in relation to Leader Member Exchange (LMX). The authors discovered that leaders and followers can affect each other's self-schemas through interactions over time. The definition of self can be considered at the individual level, interpersonally, and at the group level (Lord et al., 1999). Meaning, there can be a different version of self, based on the group and setting. There is an impact of self-identification based on self-conceptualization of how each person views. Adaptive leaders are able to make short-term changes based on the conceptualization of self and long-term changes based on the iterative views of their scheme. Followers do have an influence on leader's scheme, as individuals and as a collective. Lord et al.'s (1999) views on identity, self-conceptualization, and scheme; and how they can adapt over time, have bearing on the adaptive leadership theory and authenticity.

Authenticity

Definitions of authenticity. To advance research on any given theory, model, or construct, there needs to be a common definition to be used as a foundation for advancement. A lack of consistency prevents research from being collectively built upon to progress the study, and does not allow for research be compared and contrasted (Gardner et al., 2011). Further, to be most efficient in the advancement of research, where one researcher can build on the next to substantiate and improve upon the previous iterations, scholars and practitioners need to create a common definition, as well as a common and recognized set of measurement tools (Ehret, 2016). Prior to a review and assessment on existing theories and frameworks related to authenticity, a detailed examination must be conducted of the definitions of authenticity. Foundationally, authentic leadership needs to be segmented into a number of discernable elements, which are then described and put together to form a definition. However, there is no evidence that research has been conducted to link common segmentations, descriptions, and definitions of authentic leadership, inclusive of the recognition of the key differentiations between them. In 2011, William Gardner and his associates did an extensive review of definitions of authenticity, the number of publications by year, and the number of foundational citations that exist. In terms of advancement of the study of authentically leadership, Gardner and associates, have set a workable foundation for a common definition construct. Additionally, Gardner and associates (2011) cataloged a number of definitions of some of the most frequently cited research in this field (see Table 15 in Appendix A).

Although there was not a huge volume of authentic leadership research until the early 1990s, there are some commonalities among the most active researchers in the field. In 1967, Rome and Rome were some of the first researchers to link an organization's identity to a manifestation of its leaders. According to the authors, an enterprise can only be defined as *authentic* when its leadership owns decisions and ambiguity (Ehret, 2016). The collection of individuals who make up an organization need to understand their authority, be accountable for mistakes, be adaptable and agile in their approach to opportunities, create processes and procedures, and be positive contributors to the community in which they reside.

Intriguingly, Rome and Rome's (1967) definition of authenticity focuses on accountability and responsibility, but does not refer to being true to oneself or a similar derivative. In 1983, Henderson and Hoy offered this definition of authentic leaders:

> Leadership authenticity is therefore defined as the extent to which subordinates perceive their leader to demonstrate the acceptance of organizational and personal responsibility for actions, outcomes, and mistakes; to be non-manipulating of subordinates; and to exhibit salience of self over role. Leadership inauthenticity is defined as the extent to which subordinates perceive their leader to be "passing the buck" and blaming others and circumstances for errors and outcomes; to be manipulative of subordinates; and to be demonstrating a salience of role over self. (Henderson & Hoy, 1983, pp. 67-68)

In Henderson and Hoy's (1983) definition the notion of followers' perceptions is first introduced. Emphasis is also placed on the leader putting the job ahead of his/her own personal interests. While this definition may be a bit inconsistent with other definitions, Henderson and Hoy suggest that authentic leaders needs to possess selflessness and a degree of servant leadership.

In 1997, Bhindi and Duignan asserted that leaders can be deemed authentic only by those who have sincere relationships with them. Then, in the early 2000s, a wave of modern day leadership theorists including Bill George, William Gardner, Bruce Avolio, Fred Luthans, Bernard M. Bass, and Paul Steidlmeier solidified the acceptance of the importance of authenticity, and brought significant recognition and notoriety to the construct. Nathan Harter (as cited in Luthans & Avolio, 2003) described authenticity as “owning one’s personal experiences, including one’s thoughts, emotions, needs, desires, or beliefs. Hence, it involves being self-aware and acting in accord with one’s true self by expressing what one genuinely thinks and believes” (p. 241).

Having concluded an impressive career as a business leader, Bill George (2003) brings a practical element to the evolution of the authentic leader definition. He writes,

> Authentic leaders use their natural abilities, but they also recognize their shortcomings, and work hard to overcome them. They lead with purpose, meaning, and values. They build enduring relationships with people. Others follow them because they know where they stand. They are consistent and self-disciplined. When their principles are tested, they refuse to compromise. Authentic leaders are dedicated to developing themselves because they know that becoming a leader takes a lifetime of personal growth. (p. 12)

George describes great leaders as being self-aware, uncompromising (perhaps a reference to previous definitions and the importance of personal accountability), unwilling to compromise, and focused on self-development. It is inferred that the *purpose*, *meaning*, and *values* belong to the leader himself/herself, but the most successful leaders’ have value systems aligned to the value systems of the organizations in which they work.

Bruce Avolio and his associates presented a definition of authentic leadership that appears to hold many of the attributes common in all of the definitions. Avolio and colleagues describe authentic leaders as being exceptionally self-aware. Authentic leaders have strong conceptualization, and are acutely aware of how their verbal and nonverbal expressions are interpreted by others. Additionally, authentic leaders possess a well-defined sense of self, purpose, and morality. They are attuned to the environment and situational context. They are generally self-assured, positive, persistent, and highly ethical (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004).

By the mid-2000s, the definitions of authentic leadership begin to be sorted into dimensions. Dimensionalization is an important to theoretical advancement because dimensions must exist to create foundations for measurement. Some of the early analyses into authentic leadership definitions varied widely, largely because the different dimensions spanned “diverse domains—traits, states, behaviors, contexts, and attributions” (Avolio, Luthans, & Walumbwa, 2004, p. 7). To further complicate the analysis, situation and followership are variable, which leads to different optics and perceptions of leadership based on the vantage point (Ehret, 2016). Finally, examination of authentic leadership can yield variable results based on the lens in which leadership impact is being observed. For example, the analysis can be quite different if the researcher is evaluating individual impact versus organizational impact (Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2004).

In terms of dimensionalization of authentic leadership, Shamir and Eilam (2005) offer a definition where leaders can be labeled as authentic versus unauthentic based on four delineating personal characteristics. The first dimension describes the alignment between a leader’s personal value system and the values of the institution he/she serves. Second, a leader’s self-awareness serves as a guide to ensure his/her expressions to be consistent with his/her true self. Third, authentic leaders have objectives that align to their purpose and self-assessed identity. And finally, authentic leaders demonstrate strong consistence in self-conceptualization, self-scheme, and how these beliefs in self, manifest publicly. Shamir and Eilam (2005) also refer to the antithesis of authentic, as *inauthentic*. Aligned with this notion, is the idea that there can be different versions of the self. Those that are able to align their true self with the self that others perceive can be viewed as being authentic (Ehret, 2016). Gordon Whitehead (2009), a Harvard professor, defines authentic leadership as the ability of a leader to have an acute understanding of his/her self. Additionally, authentic leaders possess humility, are determined to continually improve, are concerned for the well-being of followers, embody trust among followers, and have a high need for results orientation consistent with an organization's value system (Whitehead, 2009). The attributes and dimensions offered in Whitehead's definition are some of the first that have can actually be measured. With the prevailing assumption that authentic leadership is inherently good, the addition of definition dimensions allows for measurement. When researched, a powerful data set can be created and analyzed for leaders to improve their performance (Ehret, 2016).

It is easy to see how the definitions of authentic leaders have built on each other from the mid-1960s to the current day. Early on, authenticity was connected to personal accountability and responsibility. Next, there was an evolution to values and how they associate with followers. Subsequently, the focus moved to the action of being authentic or true to oneself, and then finally to the dimensionalization and segmentation of attributes that make up an authentic leader (Ehret, 2016).

The study of authenticity: Historical overview and trends. While most formal research on authentic leadership began in the early 1990s, the reference to authenticity is present in the earliest of leadership theory. "Authenticity can be traced back to ancient Greek philosophy and is reflected by the Greek aphorism 'Know Thyself' which was inscribed in the Temple of Apollo at Delphi" (Parke & Wormell, 1956, p. 3). Greek philosophers Aristotle and Socrates both wrote about the importance of self-awareness and self-examination as being critical elements of happiness and fulfillment. Socrates (as cited in Ricoeur, 1986) went so far as to advocate that "an unexamined life is not worth living" (p. 25). Aristotle took his mentor's guidance one step further by explaining that true self-fulfillment comes by aligning when activity is aligned to purpose (Hutchison, Valentino, & Kirkner, 1998). As such, Aristotle was advocating for the alignment of values with the activities in which one chooses to participate well before Henderson and Hoy (1983). According to Erickson (1995), the study of authentic leadership began in the 1930s in the fields of psychology and philosophy (Erickson, 1995). "Contemporary psychological views of authenticity owe a great deal of debt to the works of philosophy" where "authenticity is loosely set within topics, such as *metaphysics* or *ontology*, firmly entrenched in particular movements, such as existentialism or *phenomenology*, and localized to specific authors like *Sartre* or *Heidegger*" (Kernis and Goldman (2006), p. 284). Hence, the historical progression of authentic leadership reserch transitioned from ancient philosophy to modern philosophy to psychology (Ehret, 2016).

In 2006, Kernis and Goldman conducted a detailed review of historical research on authentic leadership, concluding that there are "a range of mental and behavioral processes that explain how people discover and construct a core sense of self, and how this core self is maintained across situations and over time" (p. 207). In their literature review, Kernis and

Goldman (2006) found common themes to be: a profound self-understanding, awareness of their strengths and weaknesses, demonstrated behaviors and actions, and relationship orientation. The establishment of categories and themes is a helpful advancement in the study of leadership and has helped provide a basis for analysis and inspiration for a number of the major contributors to this field of study (Ehret, 2016).

According to Cooper, Scandura, and Schriesheim (2005), the rise of interest in authentic leadership was a response to negative behavior that was disseminated unlike any time before in history. As referenced in Chapter 1, researchers believe that some of the public and impactful displays of unethical behavior among leaders from the early 1990s necessitated new thinking on effective leadership. Indeed, sometimes crisis is the impetus for change (Kotter, 1996). In 2011, Gardner and associates completed a comprehensive inventory of theoretical, empirical, and practitioner publications that focused on authentic leadership. The publications were cataloged and grouped by year (see Table A5 in Appendix A). The research team (Gardner et al., 2011) found 91 articles that had authentic leadership as part of the main thesis. Of the 91, only seven were published before 2003. Seventy-seven of the 91 publications were published between 2005 and 2010 (see Table A5 in Appendix A). Interpretation of these findings suggests that the study of authentic leadership began, in earnest, in the early 1990s, and is generally studied as a concept within organizational psychology and/or leadership development (Ehret, 2016).

While there are a number of contributors to the study of authentic leadership, none has been more prolific or recognized than Bill George. George enjoyed a successful career in both the public and private sectors, before turning his interests to more scholarly pursuits, in particular the importance of authenticity to leaders. Similar to several other scholars who view authenticity as an uncompromising trait, George refers authenticity as one’s true north.

> Your *"true north"* cannot be redirected by external pressures. Once you start trying to satisfy one shareholder, you'll have to deal with another shareholder with a different point of view. Same with board members and all your other constituencies. If you allow yourself to be pulled off course, you're going to destroy your enterprise. (George & Sims, 2007, p. 67)

If a follower, team, or organization believes its leader to modulate on ethical issue, the leader will lose credibility, and ultimately the followers' trust and engagement (Ehret, 2016).

George also believed that a leader's values need to be aligned to the organization's value system. "The leader's job today, in 21st-century terms, is not about gaining followership. Followership is an outmoded notion. Leadership starts with gaining alignment with the mission and values of the organization: What are we about" (George & Sims, 2007, p. 243). Leadership needs to work in tandem with followership and situations, with all three being ever changing variables. At the same time, when an individual can be his/her true self, he/she expends less energy and is generally happier. George, and many of his peers in this area of study, has referenced this value alignment.

George and Sims (2007) also advocate that authenticity is a means to create trust between followers and group. "Successful leaders lead with the heart, not just the head. They possess qualities like empathy, compassion and courage. They also have the ability to establish deep, long-term and genuine relationships where others trust them" (p. 18). Trust is critical to follower engagement. Trust can be built through credibility and being true to one's word (George and Sims, 2007). While there is an entire field of study that links the importance of trust to team and leader effectiveness, it is quite clear that authenticity has a direct correlation to trust.

Theoretical and methodological advancements. Building on research that focused on the impact that authentic leadership can have on followership, and breaking definitions of authentic leadership into dimensions and themes, Rego, Vitória, Magalhães, Ribeiro, and Pina e Cunha (2013) conducted a study that focused on the impact of authentic leadership on teams. The study found that leadership authenticity is positively correlated to the commitment of followers, and the greater purpose of the group. Additionally, the study showed that authentic leadership is broadly correlated to team success.

In 1997, Duignan and Bhindi shared a theoretical construct for leadership, which stated that strong leaders must self-actualize their true self with respect to their own values and purpose. When working with others, the true self must be presented consistently. Duignan and Bhindi also believe that authentic relationships are what lead to team results. In order for individuals to feel comfortable being their authentic selves, organizations must provide a culture and acceptance. Many organizational cultures make members feel that they must be untrue to their values and purpose, in order to be successful. Duigan and Bhindi's (1997) model connects theoretical and practical leadership approaches to address the growing apprehension regarding leadership integrity. The model seeks to counteract the issues of mistrust by emphasizing the importance of transparency, honesty, and vulnerability in leadership (Duignan & Bhindi, 1997).

However, there are scholars such as Erickson (1995) who warn that authenticity should not be viewed as a binary characteristic, whereby people are either wholly authentic or not. Erikson argues that there is no absolute authenticity or inauthenticity, but rather people demonstrate authenticity in gradations. Therefore, it is more practical to view someone as more or less authentic, but not entirely one or the other (Ehret, 2016). Erickson suggests authenticity should be measured in a range or spectrum, rather than according to absolutes. It sounds simple, but this shift represents a major advancement in how scholars thought about the subject.

Perhaps one of the most significant methodological advancement in authentic leadership came in 2008, when Walumbwa et al., published the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). In some regards, the authors of the ALQ took the theory of Erikson (1995), and created a methodology and measurement tool. Given the belief that authenticity is a trait that is inherent to adults, the authors developed a theory-based measurement of authentic leadership using samples from multiple countries around the world. The ALQ is comprised of a multidimensional model to measure individual authenticity. The construct includes “leader self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing” (Walumbwa et al, 2008, p. 89). Validity was established using structural equation modeling, using work- related norms and beliefs. This approach went well beyond the traditional ethical aspects of leadership which has been typically been used in authenticity studies. The authors show positive association between authentic leadership and how followers rate the leader’s performance. Most importantly, the first scale to measure authenticity was introduced. As a result, leaders cannot get an absolute authenticity rating which is useful in development planning and leadership development.

Authenticity and emotional control. Consistent with the research of Erickson (1995), if absolute authenticity is on one end of the spectrum, then it is important to consider the antithesis of authenticity: emotional control. Emotional control can be considered the counter to authenticity, but nonetheless it is an expression that leaders can demonstrate, and it is often required depending upon the situation (Gross & Kientz, 1999). There can be a conscious or unconscious demonstration of emotional control, depending on individual's personality type (Ehret, 2016).

While the study of authenticity has rapidly produced sizable amounts of research, there has not yet been enough research on emotional control to establish real validity or reliability on the concept. This includes a lack of consistency of definition. Generally, however, emotional control is when a leader intentionally and consciously opts to express transparency, vulnerability, or constraint to attempt to manage his/her followers' perceptions (Gross & Kientz, 1999). Bill George (2003) termed the opposite of authenticity as a *shadow side*. Gross and Kientz (1999) define "emotional control" as occurring when "an individual attempts to manage the generation, experience, or expression of emotion, and/or one's emotional responses" (p. 275). George (2003) believes that the shadow side can be an enormous eroder of followership:

> Being true to the person you were created to be means accepting your faults as well as using your strengths. Accepting your "shadow side" is an essential part of being authentic. The problem comes when people are so eager to win the approval of others that they try to cover their shortcomings and sacrifice their authenticity to gain the respect and admiration of their associates. (pp. 14-15)

Challenges to authenticity. In response to public concern regarding the integrity of leaders, advocates of authentic leadership argue that leaders should intentionally pursue factors that are critical to authenticity: transparency, honesty, and vulnerability, for example (Cooper et al., 2005). Cooper et al. (2005), however, do not feel the field of research is ready for leaders to proactively and intentionally act authenticity until researchers gain more alignment on the definition, key attributes, traits, and metrics that define authentic leadership. Cooper et al. shared this concern to highlight the fact that future work in authentic leadership needs to be nontheoretical and applicable. The idea of orchestrating authenticity is not only counterintuitive, but also counterproductive in demonstrating the importance of authenticity in leadership.

A counterpoint to authenticity comes from Ford and Harding (2011) who stated, “Authentic leadership is increasingly influential, with its promise to eliminate, and thus surpass, the weaknesses of previous models of leadership” (p. 463). However, Ford and Harding argue that the identification of one’s true self is unachievable. The pursuit of one’s true self prioritizes the self as defined by an organization, and does not take into account the deficiencies that a person possesses. An example of this would be if a person is authentically a bigot or racist. If this fictional person is authentic and demonstrates his/her true self, these characteristics will most certainly not build engagement among most followers.

Researchers are continuing to seek ways to validate the impact of authenticity in leadership. According to Cooper et al. (2005), one such approach would be to explore expression of authenticity from leaders and see what the impact is on followers. A test could be created similar to the Implicit Association Test (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998), which records participants’ physical and mental responses to a word association. Since engagement is one of the proposed outcomes resulting from authentic leadership it is important to study authentic expressions of leadership in concert with how the expressions are received. The challenge behind this type of study is the number of variables involved. In attempting to measure the impact of authenticity, any number of situational aspects or personal traits or attributes could be the driver of impact beyond authenticity. For example, a leader might be demonstrating authenticity, but it is really his/her technical expertise that is driving the engagement. A leader’s self-assessment of his/her demonstration of authenticity can be different than how the demonstration is perceived by followers. An example would be if a leader felt he/she was being authentic by sharing some personal issue, but the follower may feel that the information shared was inappropriate or unprofessional (Cooper et al., 2005).

Transparency

While there may be some debate as to which degree of authenticity is most suitable in a given situation, and with a given followership, that is no debate that transparency is a critical component in the construct of authenticity. The earliest definitions of transparency centered largely around the transmissions of light (Merrian-Webster, n.d.). Later, the definition expanded to include acting in a way that is openly and readily understood by others (Schnackenberg & Tomlinson, 2014). When leaders are transparent it shows appreciation and respect for the follower at an individual level. Organizationally, transparency brings operational efficiency, better and faster decision making, and improved conflict management (Walker & Pagano, 2008). Transparency builds credibility and trust between leaders and followers. Unlike authenticity, there is an aspect of self-monitoring which can flex transparency to maximize confidence followers have in the ability of the leader (Gangestadd & Snyder, 2000).

Organizational transparency. The intentional use of transparency can be rooted back to multinational organizations, outside of the United States, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). Substantively, the use of transparency in policy began with the start of the European Union in the 1990s (Lodge, 1994), the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (Qureshi, 1990), and undertakings of other European governments and NGOs (Cooper & Yoder, 2002; Holzner & Holzner 2006; McIntosh as cited in Roberts, 2006).

Perhaps one of the greatest catalysts for the use of transparency as a political tool came with the creation of “Transparency International,” a nongovernmental organization (NGO) created by a former manager at the World Bank, Peter Eigen (Cobb & Elder 1971). In the early

1990s, Peter Eigen became increasingly frustrated and concerned by the bank's unwillingness, or inability, to consider the significant corruption issues within many of the nations to which the bank was administering loans (Eigen, 2003). "The bank's so-called politically neutral position led to little economic progress, and high costs for the citizens of developing countries because of the siphoning off of money, and mass protests" (Holzner & Holzner, 2006, p. 188). Convinced that he could not adequately address the issues of public and private corruption from the World Bank, Eigen and a small multinational group of colleagues, formed Transparency International (TI). With the tag line, *The Global Coalition against Corruption*, TI attempts to expose the impact of corruption on citizens. As stated on the TI website, named transparency.org, "We work together with governments, businesses and citizens to stop the abuse of power, bribery and secret deals. As a global movement with one vision, we want a world free of corruption" (www.transparency.org, n.d. para 1). Amidst some debate from the founders, the group ultimately settled on Transparency International as a name based on the long-understood meaning by Europeans, and the more global interpretation of transparency when information is openly shared and easily digested.

In the mid-1990s, bribery was part of the normal course of politics and business in Latin America. This region is where Transparency International (TI) started by working with the Organization of American States (OAS). In 1996, the OAS created a specific agenda item during its annual summit on corruption. The convention delegates ratified a motion calling on member states to make bribery illegal (OAS 1996). While the word transparency was not used in the 1996 convention, future OAS meetings began using the words transparency, accountability and good governance in the organization's proceedings. The use of transparency by the OAS was internalized by the World Bank, and soon started to appear in World Bank policies (Woods

2001). Additionally, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) conventions (2001a, 2001b, 2002) all highlighted the importance of transparency, and "to congressional directives to the International Monetary Fund" (Roberts, 2006, 187). Each of these groups issued policy recommendations to countries to ensure transparency through accessible conflict-of-interest policies, open creation and tracking of spending, freedom of information, and co-creation with constituents in the creation and execution of public policies.

Transparency International (TI) was also an innovator in the construction of a common system to measure perceived corruption for a range of targeted countries. TI is also credited with creation of the National Integrity System. Building on the transparency index, the system of integrity included more than organizational charts, but also included agent profiles, whether the country has free media, an aversion to bribery, and the ability for private citizen to access information in the public and private sectors. Building on the transparency indexes that have been built upon over time, the World Bank became the first institution to publish a *black list*. The black list is shared on the World Bank's website and includes 300 companies, and individuals, that are unable to participate in bidding processes based on prior illegal or unethical acts. In 2006, Ben Heineman and Fritz Heimann wrote that much of the progress that was made in the creation of "rules [anti-corruption laws], rhetoric, and awareness" (p. 85) was due to the work of Transparency International.

Transparency and leadership credibility. An important aspect of transparency is determining how much information to disclose, and the manner and timing in which it is disclosed. In certain situations, leaders can be too transparent, or not transparent enough (Walker & Pagano, 2008). If transparency is demonstrated without consideration of the impact on followers, the results can be disastrous, both in equity and responsibility at the individual and organizational level. It is important for leaders to have a clear understanding of the culture of their organization, as well as people's capacity and ability to comprehend information. A clear understanding of the situation at hand is critical. Walker and Pagano (2008) write that the understanding of how transparency a leader should be is partially intuitive, but there are practices that can help. Many leaders believe themselves to be overwhelmingly honest, but many followers disagree. In evaluating a number of leadership assessments with over 13,000 participants, over 50% of direct reports and peers believe that their leaders could be more honest and ethical (Walker & Pagano, 2008). There are situations where leaders who tend to be extremely transparent do not possess the information they need to appropriately share and position with followers. It can build credibility and trust with followers, if leaders simply share directly with followers, "I can't tell you that right now, but here's what I can say" (Walker & Pagano, 2008). This eliminates the chance for followers to create a false reality due to an absence of information. It also leaves no wonder around the leader's intentions. Full transparency should only be used with consideration of the feelings and inspiration required of followers. When leaders practice this principle they set a tone of honesty and openness for the entire team. In this scenario, not only is credibility and trust built, but followers become more comfortable in absence of full information (Walker & Pagano, 2008).

Leaders may feel the need to be overly transparent with the intention of building credibility and trust. However, sometimes sharing authentic opinions and emotions can be disengaging to followers. Leaders need to demonstrate an element of composure and self-monitoring when it comes to transparency (Walker & Pagano, 2008). When leaders act authentically, attempt to create meaningful and real connections with followers, and do so in with deep sincerity, they are often viewed as credible. Part of this equation includes disclosing information, even personal information, if it adds to creating a meaningful context for work. In order to do this, leaders must be extremely self-aware of the situation at hand, and the relationships that exist collectively and individually with followers. Leaders need to anticipate "how people might perceive, dissect, and disseminate the information that is revealed" (Walker & Pagano, 2008, p. 3). In multiple circumstances, it is not always possible for leaders to be completely transparent about the future, because of limited information. It is important to credibility that leaders take accountability for mistakes or sharing misinformation. This type of accountability requires a high degree of vulnerability. Depending on the situation, disclosure and accountability may make the leader look incapable, or weak. Or, acknowledging mistakes and deficiencies may make the leader appear confident and humble. Follower response will vary based on situation and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX).

Another way to garner credibility via transparency is when a leader can deliver bad news well (Walker & Pagano, 2008). According to psychiatrist, Elisabeth Kübler-Ross (2009), at the beginning of any change, individuals view some form of ending. For example, when someone gets a new manager, their initial feeling is that it is the end of his, or her, time with their existing manager. When and individual gets through the change curve, they see the situation as a new beginning (Kübler-Ross, 2009). If a leader is unable to communicate delicate, sensitive, or confidential information in a sincere and sensitive way, leaders can lose credibility and the faith of their followers.

In Warren Bennis' book, *Why Leaders Can't Lead* (1989), there is a central premise that leaders need to show followers that they care about them on a personal level. Leaders are unable to influence and motivate others if they do not authentically care for the individual, and/or, if they are not at least somewhat transparent in their feelings (Bennis, 1989). Some ways to best demonstrate caring, are for leaders to provide transparent feedback and coaching to their followers, to reward and recognize, and to seek to understand their motivations (Walker & Pagano, 2008). "While showing value for employees has lasting, bottom-line benefits in morale, quality, and productivity, a leader should not be motivated to demonstrate care and value for the organization's benefit alone" (Walker & Pagano, 2008, p. 5). By positioning care of the organization ahead of the individual can diminish the value that the individual provides to the organization. Servant leadership is based on a leader viewing their role as an enabler of both organizational and individual success (Greenleaf, 1977). If this implicit agreement is not followed, than the leader's intentional transparency is questioned, leading to follower's to question whether the leader might have different intentions.

The expectations that followers have for leaders are generally based on the leader-member exchange (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Relationships are built on interpersonal connection between follower and leader, and credibility, reliability, and trust are predicated on the relationship. Once the relationship is well founded, and especially if a follower is considered part of the *in group* leaders and followers can deliver business outcomes with this basis of trust (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Contrastingly, when a leader and follower do not have a relationship and the connection is weak, business outcomes, as well as personal success, can suffer. Organizations often recognize the value of transparency, and opt to create a culture that is conducive to high transparency (Walker & Pagano, 2008). The transition from a low transparency culture to a high transparency culture can be challenging. Organizations and leaders often need to face difficult or uncomfortable issues, which are sometimes easier not to address. But, working through this discomfort can move the organization to higher operating efficiency which can be beneficial to both the organization and the individual. By "turning leadership around, in helping organizations become more transparent and more credible, leaders not only must develop an intuitive sense of transparency's optimal level, but they also must fulfill the nine expected behaviors of credibility" (Walker & Pagano, 2008, p5). When leaders help cultivate a relationship with followers based on credibility, they can in some instances avoid being overly transparent, because they do not need to fully explain all decisions and context because of the high level of trust.

Transparency and trust. One of the most challenging issues facing leaders within any organization is to build trust and confidence in the leader's ability (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, (2010). According to Mayer et al. (1995),

> Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. (p. 712)

Thus, trust can be viewed as a trustor's willingness to "trust in general and the ability, benevolence, and integrity of the trustee" (Mayer et al, 1995, p. 712) (see Figure 5). The degree of trust and the perception of risk by the trustor can have impact on the trustor's risk tolerance, in general. The consequence of historical trusting behavior will most certainly have an impact on one's opinion of "ability, benevolence, and integrity" for the next interaction. As an example, if a leader trusts a follower to execute an important task, and does so successfully, the leader will increase trust in the followers. On the contrary, if the follower failed to deliver on the task, the leader would lose trust in the follower. The leader may credit a follower's performance to "ability, benevolence, and/or integrity", dependent on situational awareness. The ability to predict performance is connected to a leader's consistency and regularity of behavioral demonstration regardless of situation.

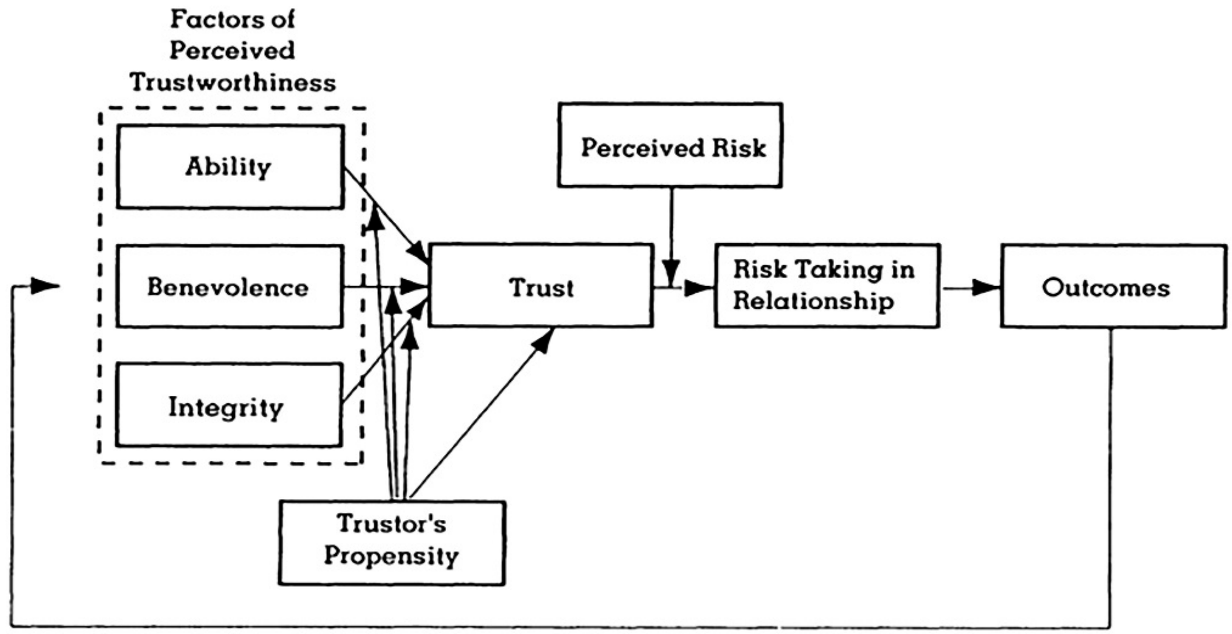


Figure 6. Proposed model of trust.
From Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review,* p. 715. Reprinted with permission.

Norman et al. (2010) conducted a study in 2010 that used a downsizing scenario as a means to test how effective leaders address significant organizational change. The study included 304 participants who were each “randomly assigned to one of the four conditions of high (low) leader positivity ×high (low) leader transparency” (Norman et al, 2010. p. 350). The study results of the mixed method study showed that leaders who demonstrated higher levels of positivity and transparency had higher levels of perceived trust and leadership effectiveness among followers (Norman et al, 2010). In summary, Norman and his co-authors determined that transparent leaders may have an advantage in building trust among followers versus leaders who were less transparent.

Transparent communications have traditionally been recognized as a critical component to organizational health and effectiveness (Gross, 2002; Haney, 1967; Likert, 1967; Myers, Knox, Pawlowski, & Ropog, 1999; Rogers, 1987). In 1951, Alex Bavelas and Dermot Barrett conducted research on the efficacy of open communication, and the how open communication correlates with “higher levels of honesty, effective listening, trust, supportiveness, and frankness” (Rogers, 1987, p. 54). Within the construct of an organization, open communication can be defined as a “message sending and receiving behaviors of superiors, subordinates, and peers with regard to task, personal, and innovative topics” (Rogers, 1987, p. 54). As such, open communication has an impact on all individuals with an organization at all levels. Regardless of the segmentation, individuals generally are more responsive and engaged by leaders who are more transparent (Norman et al, 2010). Additionally, high transparency is connected to strong leader-follower relationships, higher confidence from followers in the leaders’ ability (Kay & Christophel, 1995), higher job engagement (Burke & Wilcox, 1969; Klauss & Bass, 1982; Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener., 2002; Weiss, 2002), clearer decision making and role understanding (Klauss & Bass, 1982; Wilson & Malik, 1995), stronger relationships with peers (Myers et al., 1999), and greater credibility and trust of organizational norms and behaviors (Korsgaard et al., 2002).

Transparency and leadership. There is limited empirical and theoretical research that exists on transparency in leadership (Gardner et al., 2005; George, 2003; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). In the literature that was reviewed, transparent leadership is defined as the extent, and level of consistency, in which an individual demonstrates openness in the treatment of information to others (Norman et al, 2010). The information can include rationale for decision making, openness to getting the perspectives and input of others, and/or including personal motivations, values, and feelings. These expressions allow a follower to more clearly connect with a leader, building credibility and trust (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). According to Vogelgesang (2008), “transparency” is defined in the Webster dictionary as “something which is obvious, readily understandable, clear, candid and/or lucid" (Vogelgesang, 2008, p. 43). Perhaps a more complete definition is suggested by "Interactions characterized by sharing relevant information, being open to giving and receiving feedback, being forthcoming regarding motives and the reasoning behind decisions, and displaying alignment between words and actions" (Vogelgesang, 2008, p. 43). A descriptive definition is also proposed that suggests that transparency needs to be viewed as to whether important and relevant information is equally understood among leaders and followers, and other key stakeholders. "Transparency has also been proposed as a descriptive construct that relates to whether or not relevant information is made known to all interested parties (Vogelgesang & Crossley, 2006)" (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010, p. 352). With transparent leaders, followers come to know what the leader values and stands for, and that the leader understands who they are as well. Furthermore, if such insights reveal high levels of congruence between the attributes, values, and aspirations of both parties, the level of trust will deepen. (Avolio et al., 2004, p. 811) Kernis (2003) makes the connection between transparency and authenticity as the representation of the intention of one to be open, and to share information openly in an honest manner. Transparent leaders and their followers are assumed to have higher levels of trust than less transparent leaders (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

In 2007, Vogelgesang conducted an experimental study to explore the impact of a violation of an implicit psychosomatic pact that exists with followers. The study found that leaders who have a track record of transparency maintained higher levels of trust among followers post the breech of implicit contract. In essence, there is an equity, or currency that can be acquired from consistent demonstration of transparency that can help leaders maintain trust through arduous points of the leader-follower relationship (Vogelgesang, 2007). Additionally, a leader who intentionally acts in a manner consistent with high morality, ethics, and values, typically garners greater trust and confidence among followers (Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Gardner et al., 2005; Kernis, 2003; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). There is a positive correlation between demonstrated actions and leader values with followers having higher degrees of trust in those leaders (Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Mayer et al., 1995). Additionally, those leaders who practice open communication, and are willing to share vulnerabilities are more trusted among followers (Gardner et al., 2005; Hughes, 2005; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Rogers, 1987), especially in challenging situations (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). Research also suggests that in times of significant organizational change, leaders who are more transparent are more successful in navigating followers through these events while maintain engagement and confidence (Appelbaum, Everard, & Hung, 1999; Cascio & Wynn, 2004; DeMeuse, Vanderheiden, & Bergmann, 1994; Mullaney, 1989; Tourish, Paulsen, Hobman, & Bordia, 2004). In a historical review of case studies (Appelbaum et al., 1999; Cascio & Wynn, 2004), there is also evidence that leaders who keep their followers well informed through change events are rated significantly better than leaders who did not (Mullaney, 1989; Tourish et al., 2004).

Transparency and self-monitoring. Similar to emotional control being on the opposite end of a measurement scale for authenticity, self-monitoring would be the antithesis of transparency. Self-monitoring is the notion that “individuals can exercise control over their expressive behavior, self-presentation, and nonverbal displays of affect” (Snyder, 1974, p. 576). Snyder (1987) is the preeminent scholar in the narrow field of self-monitoring. Snyder created the first exploration into theoretical and methodological treatments of self-monitoring, where he identified two categories of people: high self-monitors and low self-monitors (Snyder, 1987). High self-monitors constantly change their behavior to make positive impression on others. Low self-monitors are true to themselves, and have either a lack of ability, or interest, to adapt their behavior to impress others. Snyder designed and validated a Self-Monitoring Scale, which translates his self-monitoring theory into a self-monitoring measurement tool. The study of self-monitoring has impact on the study of transparency, authenticity, and leadership, as well as social psychology, and organizational dynamics. If authenticity is a leadership trait, than the ability to oscillate between transparency via self-monitoring is an important tool that leaders can flex.

Summary

Transparency and situational awareness both need to be studied as core concepts of authenticity, and parts of the larger construct of leadership theory. The historical examination of leadership is important as it adds richness and context to how authenticity has risen to prominence within empirical and theoretical research. The fascination with leadership is as old as human civilization (Wren, 1995). Thomas Carlyle (1897/2003) first published his great man theory of leadership in the late 1800s. His assertion was that the ability to lead was inherent in people and based on their genetic makeup. The main construct of Trait Leadership Theory is that specific traits will result in specific and predictable patterns of behavior. The patterns of behavior will remain consistent regardless of the situation or followership. With Trait Leadership Theory as a foundation, leadership theory progressed to the Behavioral Theories of Leadership. The basic presupposition of Behavioral Theory is that the behavioral actions demonstrated by leaders are far more crucial than any inherent trait. This belief was validated by two important studies, administered at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University in the late 1940s and 1950s (Barnett, 2010). From these studies, the concepts of task oriented behavior, relationship oriented behavior, and participative leadership (Likert, 1961) evolved.

The next group of major advancements in leadership theory can be characterized as the Contingency Theory, which suggests that the situation, or dynamic circumstance, should lend itself to which leadership style will be most effective (Northouse, 2008). First, styles of leadership were explored (Lewin, 1939). Additionally, three of the major contributors to the contingency approach were reviewed: Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago decision-making model of leadership (Vroom & Yetton, 1973), and the Hersey-Blanchard (1977) situational leadership theory. Situational awareness was examined as a core concept within Situational Leadership (Endsley, 1995b). Yet, scholars still had unanswered questions and criticisms of trait, behavioral, and contingency approaches. In the 1970s, several alternative theoretical frameworks were introduced, most prominently Leader Member Exchange (LMX) Theory (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975).

After a brief review of Leadership Theory, authentic leadership was explored. The review began with definitions of authentic leadership, but also included an historical overview and trends, and a summary of theoretical and methodological advancement. Authenticity and emotional control were examined, as well as challenges to the authenticity construct. As a core concept of authenticity, transparency was investigated with focus on organizational transparency, transparency and leadership credibility, transparency and trust, transparency and leadership, and finally, transparency and self-monitoring.

Chapter 3: Research Methods

The purpose of this study was to advance the conceptualization of authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. By sharing how transparency can affect follower confidence, both theoretical and empirical contributions will be made towards advancing leadership theory , and the study of authenticity in leadership. A quantitative methodology was used. Chapter 3 describes the research design methodology, the quantitative approach, and why it was proposed as the best fit for this research. The population and sampling methodology are reviewed, as well as the sample response rate. Considerations for human subjects are explored to ensure that safety and privacy are guaranteed. The validity and reliability of the study are addressed, as well as measures taken to reduce the threat of researcher bias. The data collection process and survey protocol are shared. Finally, the process for analyzing data and identifying findings from the research is presented.

Given the need for situational transparency of leaders, this study intended to contribute to existing literature on leadership adaptability. Leaders need to exhibit agility and adaptability that are dependent on their specific follower relationship and the current situation. Situational transparency, therefore, is highly dependent on situational awareness. Given the impact that transparency can have in building followership and engagement, this study will help contribute to both theoretical and empirical research on authentic leadership, and ultimately will help improve leader performance. This chapter discusses the research methodologies that were employed to accomplish the study’s purpose, and to answer the research questions.

Nature of the Study

This study sought to advance the conceptualization of authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. The intent was to dissect, understand, and prescribe the degree of transparency a leader should demonstrate based on variable leader-member exchange in a constant situation. Understanding how to flex expressions of transparency will advance the study of leadership and serve as applied scholarship for tangible actions for current and aspiring leaders. Chapter 3 describes the quantitative research design methodology, and why it was recommended as the best fit for this research. A model, or framework, for situational transparency can later be considered and deployed by future leaders to improve their leadership impact. This chapter discusses the research methodologies that were employed to accomplish the study's purpose, and to answer the research questions.

This study focused on answering the following research questions:

- To what degree do different expressions of transparency impact a follower's confidence in a leader's ability?
- What is the appropriate level of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a given situation with variable Leader-Members Exchange (LMX; Gerstner & Day, 1997)?
- To what degree do variables, including situation and demographics, impact that concept of leadership transparency on followers?

In order to answer the research questions, the following hypothesis are proposed for hypothesis testing (see Figure 6):

1. There is a relationship between the degree of manager transparency and the level of follower confidence in the manager after controlling for demographic variables, including age, gender, work experience and geography, as well as vignette type.
2. LMX will moderate the relationship between a leader's transparency and their follower's confidence in them.

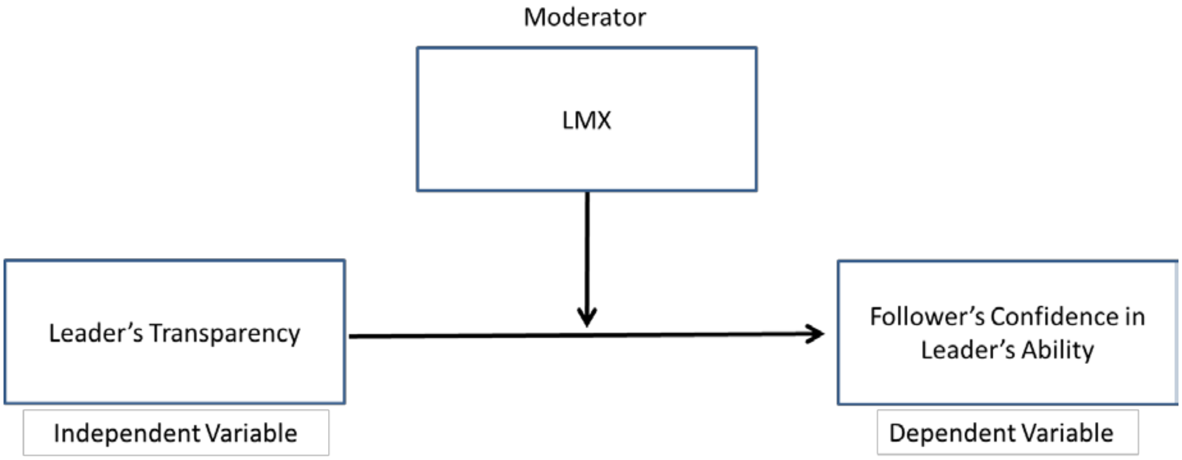


Figure 7. Visual representation of hypotheses.

a) If a leader and follower have a high LMX, expressions of high transparency will build greater follower confidence in the leader's ability.

3. The vignette set does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.
4. Leader gender does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.
5. Follower gender does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.
6. Follower work experience does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

7. Follower age does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.
8. Participant geography does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.
9. Participant race for U.S. based participants does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

This research is best characterized as a quantitative vignette study. "A vignette is a short, carefully constructed description of a person, object, or situation, representing a systematic combination of characteristics" (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010, p. 128). The study intended to describe the ideal levels of transparency that leaders should express. The quantitative methodology applied to this study was a vignette study.

> A quantitative vignette study consists of two components: (a) a vignette experiment as the core element, and (b) a traditional survey for the parallel and supplementary measurement of additional respondent-specific characteristics, which are used as covariates in the analysis of vignette data. (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010, p. 128)

The combination of vignette technique with a traditional survey, allows for targeted investigation of participants' beliefs, attitudes, and judgements. In quantitative research, the combination vignette study extracts elements from traditional experimentation and survey methodology to offset potential weaknesses that each approach might bring (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010). If done correctly, a traditional survey can possess strong external validity largely because of the representativeness of the multivariate and multivalent measurements. Conversely, however, traditional surveys can have low internal validity because of the multicollinearity of the measured values. Classic experiments are high in internal validity because there is a discrete approach to measurement that is design for controlled intervention. However, classic experiments tend to have low external validity because of the disconnect they can have to reality, and the oversimplification that results from variable reduction (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010). By reducing the effects of the low validity and leveraging the aspects of high validity, vignette studies combine aspects of the traditional survey with the classic experiment.

> This combination of the traditional representative survey and the vignette analysis with their different strengths in external and internal validity was one of the innovational breakthroughs in the design of public opinion surveys: the availability of multifactorial, multivalent designs has encouraged a reorientation from narrowly methodological concerns to broader substantive issues. (Sniderman and Grob, 1996, p. 378)

Similar to experimental designs, there are three general types of vignette experiments can be distinguished: (a) within-subjects designs, (b) mixed designs, and (c) between-subjects designs (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010). In within-subjects designs, participants respond to the exact same set of multiple vignettes. In some cases, the vignette set may represent the entire vignette population, depending on the size (Pizarro, Uhlmann, & Bloom, 2003), or a subset of a larger vignette population. In mixed designs, different groups of respondents get different vignette sets but within each group each respondent receives the same vignettes for judgment. In between-subjects designs each respondent judges only one single vignette. In between-subjects designs is proposed for this study.

Research Design

Research data were obtained via a quantitative vignette study. The data sources for this research were selected with consideration for the population as defined subsequently. Participants were included by meeting a three-point characterization criterion. There are two vignette sets, with three factors each, that were used for this study. The factors are leader gender, (male, female), leader transparency (unforthcoming, translucent, transparent), and leader-member exchange (in, out). So, for this study the three factors each have two or three factor levels, which results in a vignette population of 2 x 3 x 2 = 12 different vignettes. Two situations, or vignette sets, were explored, which equated to 24 total vignettes (see Figure 7).

Vignette Set 1
Common situation: In a team meeting your manager shares that a team member has left the organization.
.
A) Gender (Male, Female)

B) Leader Member Exchange (Close personal relationship with leader, Professional relationship with leader)

C) Transparency (Nothing else to add, other than they are leaving; to pursue other opportunities outside of the company, the team member applied for three different promotional opportunities over the past year and was unsuccessful; however, they were able to get an advancement opportunity elsewhere)

Would this response inspire confidence in your manager's leadership ability?
Likert Scale –Very Low Confidence, Low Confidence, Neutral, High Confidence, Very High Confidence

Vignette Set 2
Common situation: In a 1:1 meeting, your manager asks if you can cover a meeting for him/her tomorrow. Your manager appears to be distracted, and you ask if everything is alright.

A) Gender (Male, Female)

B) Leader Member Exchange (Close personal relationship with leader, Professional relationship with leader)

C) Transparency (I'm fine, thank you; I am dealing with a personal situation; My child has been causing some issues at school, and I need to visit their guidance counselor)

Would this response inspire confidence in your manager's leadership ability?
Likert Scale –Very Low Confidence, Low Confidence, Neutral, High Confidence, Very High Confidence

Figure 8.. Vignette sets.

Sampling frame. The sample population was those individuals who met the inclusion criteria and were invited to be a part of the study. The inclusion criteria specify characteristics that are considered for participant selection (Richards & Morse, 2013).

- *Inclusion Criteria*
    - ❑ 5 years of office based work experience
    - ❑ A Bachelor's Degree or higher
    - ❑ English speaking

Sample and response rate. The study l used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk; www.mturk.com) as the process and tool to recruit participants, apply the inclusion criteria, and to administer the surveys. MTurk is an online tool, that connects researchers who have human intelligence tasks (HITs) to workers who are interested in completing the tasks, generally for remuneration. Launched in 2005 by Amazon.com, MTurk currently averages over 100,000 public HITs at any given time. The number of registered workers on MTurk was 100,000 in 2007 (Pontin, 2007), and has now risen to over 500,000, residing in more than 190 countries. Workers can access the list of all HITs available on MTurk, or conduct a search by keyword to find tasks that they are interested in completing. There are no restrictions as to who can become a requester, or worker for MTurk as either a researcher or worker.

The quality of data that are derived from MTurk have been the focus of several studies, and the results have been generally positive. In 2010, Paolacci, Chandler, and Ipeirotis, re-created three well established experiments on decision-making using MTurk participants, online forums, and using a sample of college students. The study showed only slight quantitative differences between the three methodologies. In 2011, Buhrmester, Kwang, and Gosling compared a large sample of total internet users to the workers associated with MTurk and found little difference in human task related outcomes. In 2011, Behrend et al. looked at differences between MTurk workers and a large sample of college students on a multitude of measures including character and ambition. "For both quantitative and qualitative data, they found slightly higher data quality in the MTurk sample, along with higher social desirability, and measurement invariance among the majority of the items between groups" (Barger, Behrend, Sharek, & Sinar, 2011, p. 11). Finally, a succession of studies were conducted that showed little difference between MTurk workers and populations of applicants with respect to personality types and situational awareness, even when multiple regression dimensions were applied (Barger and Sinar, 2011). From this research, overwhelming evidence exists that suggests that the data collected from MTurk is equally valid compared to other sources, when appropriate data assurance measures are used.

- *Participation*
    - ❑ Power analysis, but roughly 30 participants per condition for ANOVA.
    - ❑ 12 scenarios X 2 vignette sets = 24 total vignettes
    - ❑ Minimum 720 total participants (30 participants per vignette scenario)
    - ❑ Gender, tenure, function, and residential geography

Human subjects considerations. This research was conducted in a manner consistent with Title 45, Part 46 of the U.S. Code of Federal Regulations, Pepperdine's IRB, and ethical principles of the Belmont Report. Data collection was done via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). A detailed application was submitted to the Pepperdine University Graduate and Professional School IRB under exempt status, including the IRB application Informed Consent Form (see Appendix B and Appendix C) and Interview Protocol designed for the study.

Participation in the study was voluntary. Participants' rights include:

> (a) the right to be fully informed about the study's purpose and about the involvement and time required for participation, (b) the right to confidentiality and anonymity, (c) the right to ask questions to the investigator, (d) the right to refuse to participate without any negative ramifications, (e) the right to refuse to answer any questions, and (f) the right to withdraw from the study at any time. (Richards & Morse, 2013, p. 263)

MTurk is designed to ensure worker's information is kept anonymous and confidential. As a result, there will be a degree of reliance on self-reporting to gather worker information. Participants were ensured confidentiality and anonymity, verbally and in writing, and informed consents were secured. US $2 were awarded to each participant as remuneration for being part of the survey.

All researchers must be concerned with the ethical treatment of participants. Since MTurk is a relatively new way to gather data, consistency and process standardization for the ethical treatments is not well established. However, the foundational ideology and practice of ethical research still applies. When they met the inclusion criteria, participants were given a detailed description of the study, the time expected to complete, and the associated monetary remuneration, so that they could self-select whether to participate or not. Appendix C outlines the Informed Consent that was used as part of this study. MTurk workers identities are anonymous to researchers, and are only identifiable by an alphanumeric worker ID.

Research Protocol

The following is an example of the research protocol for the study, as reviewed by a preliminary review committee, and finalized and approved by the dissertation committee. Since the protocol was designed, specifically for the use of this study, principles of traditional reliability methodology to establish reliability of a data collection instrument were utilized. Data were collected from participants over a 4-week period utilizing the quantitative methodology conducted via survey. The data-gathering instrument was two sets of 12 vignettes for a total of 24 vignettes. As opposed to leveraging an existing or previously used instrument, the data collection instrument was created independently by the researcher. Developing a new instrument is important because the questions that needed to be addressed in the data gathering process were specific to extracting the effect of situation, gender of the leader, leader-members exchange, and expression of transparency situation.

Survey administration using MTurk started with the primary investigator opening an account as a requestor. The researcher's account linked MTurk workers to those who might be interested in participating in the research. Workers could view all of the available research on MTurk, and listed in the work to be complete will be the twenty-four vignette surveys. Upon clicking on one of the links, workers were given the purpose of the study, the remuneration fee, and the inclusion criteria. If the worker met the criteria, and was interested in participating, he or she could review the informed consent form (see Appendix C). Once electronically agreeing to the consent, workers could begin the survey. The survey began by collecting demographic information, including participant race, gender, age, work experience, education, and geography. The vignette was presented, and participants awere asked to submit to what degree of confidence the scenario would inspire confidence in the leader's ability via a five point Likert scale. The survey instrument was developed and refined based upon feedback from a preliminary review panel and the dissertation committee. Data collection focused on the impact of transparent expressions on followers. Once they completed the survey, participants were thanked for their participation, reminded of the protection of their privacy, and paid $2 as remuneration. The responses gathered helped to identify appropriate levels of transparency that leaders should express in a given situation with variable leader gender and leader-member exchange.

Validity and reliability of the study. An essential element of credible research is the assurance that the interview protocol and instrument are both valid and reliable. Validity is related to the accuracy of a data set. Reliability is the consistency is which the data would be collected should the experiment be replicated.

***Validity*.** For vignette construct validity, the protocol instrument, validity was established in 3 ways

1. Articulating a set of theoretical concepts and their interrelations
2. Developing ways to measure the hypothetical constructs proposed by the theory
3. Empirically testing the hypothesized relations among constructs and their observable manifestations (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955, p. 286).

The examination of relationships is foundational to the understanding of science (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). While most leadership research focuses on creating evidence between dependent and independent variables, covariation between variables raises two important questions in regard to establishing validity: (a) Did the measured event, in this case follower's confidence in their leader's ability, occur over time or prior to the intervention, and (b) have all other accounts for interdependent variance been adequately considered and dismissed (Aguinis & Vandenberg, 2014)? A determining factor to respond to these questions is that much of leadership research is based on observational design and transverse examination (Aguinis & Edwards, 2014; Podsakoff & Dalton, 1987). To offset this, a deeper understanding of leader and follower relationship is required in investigational constructs (Grant & Wall, 2009; Spector, 1981). For this study, the leader-member exchange intended to mitigate the uncertainty of the leader-follower relationship. The examination of the leader-follower relationship has been identified as a need in several publications (e.g. Allan, Hancock, Vardaman, & McKee, 2014; Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Miller & Tsang, 2011; Podsakoff, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Maynes, & Spoelma, 2014). Still, there is limited research on studies that have appropriately addressed the relational causes in their design (Podsakoff & Dalton, 1987; Scandura & Williams, 2000). The reason for this deficiency in existing research is easily understood given the practical and logistical constraints required to create an experiment, participant recruitment, experiment admiration, address of human subject considerations when compared to synthesizing the vast amounts of archival data (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012; Grant & Wall, 2009; Highhouse, 2009; Sniderman & Grob, 1996). Additionally, typically, experimental designs can sacrifice external validity and generalizability to enhance internal validity (Argyris, 1975; Scandura &Williams, 2000). As an example, experiential research designs typically seek participants who are experienced professionals, or students, but the research is conducted in an environment which is different from their natural one. The dilemma that researchers face is:

> (a) implement experimental designs that yield high levels of confidence regarding internal validity but are challenged by difficulties regarding external validity (i.e., uncertainty regarding generalizability of results), or (b) implement nonexperimental designs that often maximize external validity because they are conducted in natural settings but whose conclusions are ambiguous in terms of the direction and nature of causal relationships. (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014, p. 360)

Experiential Vignette Methodology (EVM) is a way to address this dilemma, and was the methodology employed in this study. Using EVM, participants are presented with thoughtfully structured and true-to-life scenarios which clearly isolate dependent and independent variables.

In doing so, the realism of an experiment is enhanced. Additionally, EVM allows researchers to better control and variables including goals, mindsets, and behaviors (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014), and enhance both internal and external validity (Atzmuller & Steiner, 2010; Hox, Kreft, & Hermkens, 1991).

Reliability. According to Thanasegaran (2009), reliability is the degree to which measurements are error free, thus yielding consistency of results. This study used a 5-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932). Frequency scales, the most common of which being a Likert scale, use fixed choice responses, and are devised to assess a range of perspectives and feelings (Bowling, 1997; Burns & Grove, 1997). Typically, frequency scales measure the degree of agreement or disagreement. Based on the research of Nunnally and Bernstein (1967), scale developers target to attain a Cronbach coefficient alpha of at least .80. If a new scale fails to exceed this threshold, then changes should be made to improve reliability. For this study the Cronbach coefficient alpha was measured and shared in Chapter 4 to help demonstrate the reliability of the Likert scale that was utilized.

Validation of the Data Gathering Instrument. The selectivity used in the construct of a vignette is what makes the methodology so valuable in social research (Lanza & Carifio, 1992; Rossi, 1979). The efficacy of this study was highly predicated on the validity of the vignette construct. In order to validate the vignette sets, two organizational psychologists reviewed and recommended slight changes to the vignette constructs. Expert 1 holds a Ph.D. in Organizational Psychology from Rutger's University with over 15 years of academic and industry experience and expertise in organizational dynamics, culture, assessment, and emotional intelligence. Expert 2 holds a Ph.D. in Organizational Psychology from Penn State University with almost 10 years of experience and expertise in advanced multivariate analysis, global business intelligence, and leadership development. The vignette sets were shared with these experts for review, and revisions were made on the common situations and how leader-member exchange is described. Review from these experts, in addition to feedback the dissertation committee helped to refine the design, and contribute to construct validity.

Overcoming the Threat of Research Bias

Acknowledgement of personal bias is an important process for any and all research (Creswell, 2003). The researcher's professional experience in Human Resources and Talent Management, as well as the academic pursuit of the study of leadership, have shaped the researcher's perspective on what types of leadership are most impactful. This leads to the researcher's bias that transparent leadership is generally advantageous. The researcher's bias toward views of transparency and the power of expressions of transparency likely had an effect on the research design and methodology. The experimental vignette methodology used two vignettes which were both in work settings. A bias may exist that leadership is best examined in the context of work verses personally, or socially.

Bracketing. A quantitative vignette study is predicated upon a group or individual understanding the real-life situation that is represented in the vignette. Bracketing requires a baseline understanding of assumptions and biases held by the researcher so as to refrain from impacting the validity a study (Creswell, 2013). The strategy of bracketing was used to help comprehend the assumptions and inherent biases, and the underlying personal experiences that might lead to those biases. For this study the researcher listed all conceivable pre-conceptions of authentic leadership, situational leadership, situational awareness, and transparency, as well as significant experiences that have impacted the researcher's perception of these constructs. The assumptions and biases were bracketed into themes, and were considered comparatively with the thematic results of the vignette construction. The themes were shared with the dissertation committee, as well as two peer experts, to ensure researcher bias was not evident in the research design.

Data Analysis

The analysis of fractional or confounded designs has three characteristics (Atzmuller & Steiner, 2011):

1. The multiple measurement of respondents (block structure in ANOVA terminology)
2. The set effect based on the construction of vignette sets
3. The lack of balance of vignette data, especially concerning unmeasured factor level combinations. Since each respondent judged a set of vignettes, we obtained multiple measurements for each respondent. Therefore, vignette data typically show a two-level structure with level one representing the vignette level, level two representing the respondent level.

The data were analyzed using a multi factorial regression analysis utilizing an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to examine the moderated relationship between leader transparency and follower confidence for different LMX (Baron & Kenny, 1986). "Within a correlational analysis framework, a moderator is a third variable that affects the zero-order correlation between two other variables" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1173). Age, gender, and geography were added into the regression analysis to see if each variable was a predictor. In summary, the interaction variable between Predictor (Leader Transparency), Moderator (LMX), and Predictor x Moderator (Leader Transparency x LMX) was measured via regression analysis. Whether it was a quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable or qualitative variable (e.g., gender, ethnicity), a moderator was used to “measure the correlation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1186, see Figure 8).

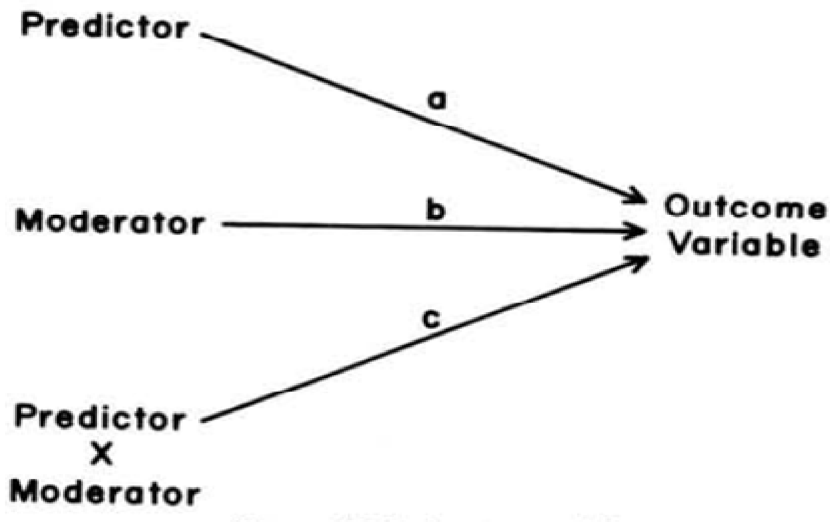


Figure 9. The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research. (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

The data analysis associated with this study used a regression analysis to estimate the relationship between variables. Specifically, the relationship between an independent variable (leader transparency) and a moderator (leader-member exchange).

Leader Transparency + LMX + (Leader Transparency x LMX) = Follower Confidence

The regression analysis explains how the dependent variable (follower’s confidence in leadership ability) changes when the independent variable (leader transparency) and moderator (leader-member exchange) are varied. When conducting a regression analysis, the characterization of dependent variable variation is based on the ability to predict regression functioning with the use of a probability distribution. An interconnected, and required activity for this type of analysis includes creation of a necessary condition analysis (NCA), which approximates “the maximum (rather than average) value of the dependent variable for a given value of the independent variable (ceiling line rather than central line) in order to identify what value of the independent variable is necessary but not sufficient for a given value of the dependent variable" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p.1174). The use of moderators as a third variable, allows separation of the independent variables. The partition establishes the optimal effectiveness with regards to the dependent variable. In commonly used analyses of variance (ANOVAs), a basic moderator effect can help characterize the relationship between and independent variable and the conditions required for a factor to be considered valid. It is important in this design that the moderator be uncorrelated with both the independent variable (leader's transparency) and the dependent variable (predictor) to ensure a clear interaction effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Variable Measurements

Measures of independent variable. The independent variable for this study is Leader's Transparency. For data analysis purposes, the three potential expressions of transparency are Unforthcoming, Translucent, and Transparent. The independent variable is ordinal where Unforthcoming = 1, Translucent = 2, and Transparency = 3. An example of an unforthcoming expression of transparency is a complete non-disclosure of information. A translucent expression of transparency is sharing partial information, but not all information in its entirety. A transparent expression of transparency is sharing all information, including personal sentiment.

Measures of moderator. The moderator for this study is Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). LMX theory centers on the constantly changing leader/follower relationships, as opposed to followers' traits, styles and/or behaviors (Barnett, 2010). LMX focuses on the contrast between the in-group and the out-group, and the associated correlation between LMX theory and team effectiveness (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). There were two scenarios for LMX, either the follower was in the in-group or out-group. The moderator (W) of LMX was measured in categorical variables where In-group = 1 and Out-group = 2. The two connections that define these groups is whether the relationship between leader and follower is based on trust and general care for each other (in-group), and whether the leader and follower relationship is formally defined through a contract or job description (Graen & Cashman, 1975). The in-group is defined as the team members who demonstrate loyalty, and have earned the trust of the leader. The leader's natural tendency is to give this group the majority of his/her attention, as well as the most meaningful and challenging work. The in-group also tends to get preferential treatment with regards to developmental and career advancement. Generally, the in-group also receives differentially more interaction time with the leader. Frequently, the in-group has similar personality types and work ethic with the leader (Graene & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The out-group are members of the team who have not earned the trust of the leader, and/or have demonstrated that they lack competence of motivation. The work given to the out-group is typically restrictive and tactical. The leader tends to give out-group members less time, and less opportunities for development and advancement (Graene & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Measures of dependent variables. The dependent variable for this study is the follower's confidence in the leader's ability. Participants were asked the degree to which their confidence in their leader's ability is impacted by the expression of transparency. The confidence was measured using a 5-point Likert scale with the ratings being: Very Low Confidence, Low Confidence, Neutral, High Confidence, and Very High Confidence.

Measures of covariance. There are a number of covariates which were also examined as possible predictors to the studies results. These covariates include: gender, manager gender, years of work experience, education, age, geography, and race for United States participants. Both the participant and manager gender are categorical variables with the category being 'male' or ‘female.” The work experience of participants is an interval variable measured as ‘5 to just under 10 years,’ ‘10 to just under 15 years,’ or ‘15 years or more.’ Participants’ education is an ordinal variable, measured as Bachelor’s Degree = 1, Master’s Degree = 2, Doctorate Degree of Equivalent = 3. Follower age was captured as an ordinal variable, so that every participant entered their age, but then the data were organized as an interval variable. The intervals are ‘Under 25,’ ‘26 – 35,’ ’36 – 45’, ‘46 – 55’, and ‘Over 55.” Participants were asked in which geography they currently reside. This categorical variable was either: ‘North America,’ ‘Europe, Middle East, or Africa,’ ‘Asia Pacific,’ or ‘Latin America.’ If the participant lives in the United States, race was captured as categorical variable. The possible categories include: ‘White,’ ‘Black or African American,’ ‘Hispanic/Latino,’ ‘Asian,’ ‘American Indian or Alaska Native,’ or ‘Two or more races.’

Summary

The purpose of the study was to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. A quantitative methodology was used. Chapter 3 describes the research design methodology, the quantitative approach, and why it was selected as the best fit for this research. The population and sampling methodology are reviewed, as well as the sample response rate. Considerations for human subjects are explored to ensure safety and privacy were guaranteed. The validity and reliability of the study are addressed, as well as efforts made to overcome the threat of research bias. The data collection process and interview protocol are shared. Finally, the process for analyzing data and identifying findings from the research was presented.

Given the need for situational transparency of global leaders, this study intended to contribute to existing literature on leadership agility. Leaders need to exhibit agility and adaptability dependent on the specific followers and situation at a given point in time. Given the impact that transparency can have in building followership and engagement, this study will contribute to the advancement of leadership theory, and ultimately aid those seeking to improve their leadership. This chapter discussed the research methodologies that were employed to accomplish the study's purpose, and to answer the research questions.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of the study was to advance the conceptualization of authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. This study examined the degree of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a constant situation with variable Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Gerstner & Day, 1997). By sharing how transparency can affect follower confidence, both theoretical and empirical contributions will be made towards broader leadership theory, situational leadership and situational awareness, and the study of authenticity in leadership. This study was designed to address the following: (a) the appropriate level of transparency a leadership should demonstrate in a given situation with variable LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997); (b) the degree to which different expressions of transparency impact a follower's confidence in a leader's ability, and; (c) and the degree to which leader and follower gender, work experience, age, and ethnicity do or do not impact the concept of leadership transparency on followers. This chapter shares participant demographics, and an analysis of the data collected via quantitative vignette surveys.

Participants

In order for inferential quantitative research to be valid and reliable, there needs to be consistency in processes, and a random sample selection that is representative of the broader population that is being studied (Creswell, Fetters, & Ivankova, 2004). As such, identification of sample size and sample source is extremely important. The decision of recruitment and selection must take into consideration the purpose of the study, the theory which is being sought to advance, and the empirical data that need to be gathered.

The participants in the study sample must have direct knowledge in the topic being studied. In this case, the study focused on advancing key concepts in leadership theory via a quantitative vignette study. With this objective, it was important that the subjects have work experience that included a leader/follower relationship. A requirement for study validation was that the participants could relate to the vignette. The data source for this research was selected with consideration for the population as defined subsequently. Participants were qualified to be part of the study if they met the following inclusion criteria: 5 years of office based work experience, a Bachelor's Degree or higher, and English speaking.

Once subject suitability was established, the next consideration was the size of the sample. In order to be able to statistically analyze multivariate data, a calculation of the sample size must be completed to ensure that an appropriate power analysis can be conducted. Guidance from VanVoorhis and Morgan (2007) is the following: in order to conduct a power analysis via a multi factorial regression analysis using analysis of variance (ANOVA), the target sample size is 30 participants. A power analysis refers to the probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis. As a general guidance, a sample size of 30 would yield 80% power for measuring group difference. For regression analysis, 50 participants is considered a reasonable sample size (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007). Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk; www.mturk.com) is a process and tool to recruit participants, apply an inclusion criteria, and to administer surveys. MTurk is an online tool, that connects researchers who have human intelligence tasks (HITs) to workers who are interested in completing the tasks, generally for remuneration. MTurk was selected based on the general representation of the population (Ipeirotis, 2010; Ross, Zaldivar, Irani, & Tomlinson, 2010), and the ability via inclusion criteria to ensure proximity to the expertise required of the study. Since there were 24 vignette scenarios with a target of 30 participants per vignette set (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007), the target sample size was 720 participants. The survey was launched requesting 1,000 participants to ensure that the minimal sample size guidelines were well exceeded. Having met the inclusion criteria, and in agreement with informed consent, 1,006 participants self-selected to be part of the study through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk).

Data Collection Process

Data collection adhered to the final interview protocol, as reviewed by the preliminary review committee, approved and finalized by the dissertation committee, and approved by Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The survey was posted on Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) as a Human Intelligence Task (HIT). Workers, who are part of the MTurk community could consider being part of the study by seeing the listing via the tool, or conducting an online search. Should the workers be interested, and meet the inclusion criteria, they would be eligible to take the survey. By clicking on the MTurk link (see Appendix D), participants were transferred to the survey, hosted by Qualtrics. Qualtrics is a leading company in research and experimentation, and allows researchers to collect and analyze data online. Once in the Qualtrics survey, participants read through the informed consent, and if comfortable with the construct of the document, and in agreement with the terms as shared, they clicked on the next button. A sentence was included at the bottom of the informed consent which stated, "clicking on the next button represents your satisfaction with the informed consent, and your electronic signature stating your approval to be part of this study." Participants were then asked to indicate if their year of birth ended an even number, or an odd number. The designation of odd or even directed participants to either vignette set one or vignette set two, unbeknownst to them. A series of demographic information data items was then collected, including gender, work experience, education, age, geography, race (if residing in the United States), and their Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) number. The MTurk number was gathered to serve as an anonymous unique identifier. Qualtrics was set up to randomly assign one of the twelve vignette scenarios associated with each vignette set. This means, each participant responded to only one vignette scenario, and one question. Once the survey was complete, the participants were given a unique completion code to ensure no bots were involved, or that participants could not take the survey more than once. Participants then input the completion code back in MTurk to acknowledge completion and trigger the $2 remuneration payment for being part of the study. 1,006 surveys were collected in 48 hours, exceeding the targeted sample size, and thus completing the data collection process.

Data Analysis

Several analytical tools were used to test the hypotheses of the study including bivariate (Pearson) analysis, multiple linear regression, moderation process analysis, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Central to this study was the examination of the relationship and impact on several independent variables on the dependent variable, follower's confidence in leadership ability. These variables included, leader transparency, leader-member exchange, vignette set, and demographic variables. Multiple linear regression helped to predict the correlation between a variable and the linear output of the gathered data (Grégoire, 2014). A bivariate (Pearson) analysis was conducted to analyze if, and to what degree, there was an empirical relationship between variables in the study. Next, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted using PROCESS for SPSS, a computational tool for moderation, mediation and conditional process analysis. Unlike, a STEPWISE regression, which requires variables in be entered in 'blocks', PROCESS requires variables at be entered at once, including moderators and/or mediators.

The next analytical tool used to conduct the data analysis was moderation process analysis. The concept of moderation (see Figure 9) is that the impact of an independent variable X on the variable Y may be moderated by variable W if the impact of W is great enough. Additionally, the impact of X+Y is measured for interaction effect (Baron & Kenny 1986), Hayes, 2017). Finally, analysis of variance was used for the co-variants that were found to be statistically significant in the model to be able to examine the means analysis more deeply. This technique was used also to determine if any factors, or possible key concepts, could be identified that might help further develop the concept of Authentic Leadership.

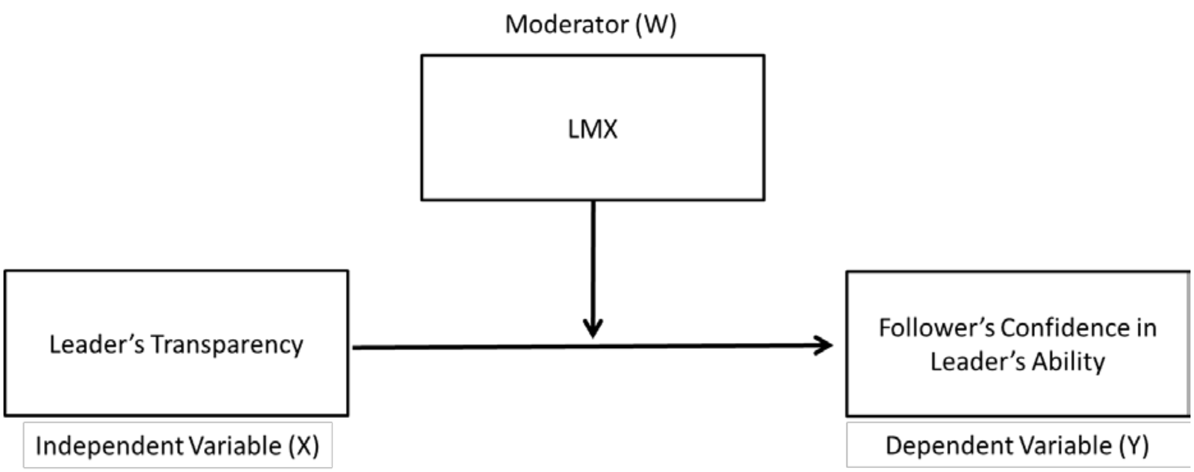


Figure 10. Representation of moderation process analysis.

Data Display

The following section presents the demographic information of the study participants, a view of the vignette variables, and a summary of participant vignette responses. The demographic data collected included gender, years of work experience, education, age, geography, and race for United States participants.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Factor	Frequency	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Gender			
Male	577	57.4	57.4
Female	429	42.6	100
Total	1006	100	-
Years of Work Experience			
5 to just under 10 years	347	34.5	34.5
10 to just under 15 years	276	27.4	61.9
15 years or more	383	38.1	100
Total	1006	100	-
Education			
Bachelor's degree	800	79.5	79.5
Master's degree	182	18.1	97.6
Doctorate degree or equivalent	24	2.4	100
Total	1006	100	-
Age			
Under 25	55	5.5	5.5
26 - 35	482	47.9	53.4
36 - 45	293	29.1	82.5
46 - 55	117	11.6	94.1
Over 55	59	5.9	100
Total	1006	100	-
Geography			
North America	832	82.7	82.7
Europe, the Middle East and Africa	13	1.3	84
Asia-Pacific	155	15.4	99.4
Latin America	6	0.6	100
Total	1006	100	-
Race for United States Based Participants			
White	649	78.7	78.7
Black or African American	55	6.7	85.3
Hispanic/Latino	39	4.7	90.1
Asian	57	6.9	97
American Indian or Alaska Native	4	0.5	97.5
Two or more races	21	2.5	100
Total	825	100	-

Gender. Survey participants were 57.4% male (577) and 46.6% female (429). Of all U.S. based Amazon Mechanical Turk workers, 65% are female (Ross, Zaldivar, Irani, &

Tomlinson, 2010). Given the population gender representation, the representation of males in the sample was higher than expected. Overall, both genders are adequately represented in the study (see Table 1).

Years of work experience. Inclusion criteria for the study included a minimum of five years of work. 347 of 1,006 (34.5%) had had between five years and ten years of work experience. 276 participants (27.4%) had ten to fifteen year of work experience. The majority of participants, 383 of 1,006 (38.1%), had 15 years or more of work experience. Overall, the representation of employees at varying levels of their careers was strong (see Table 1).

Education. Inclusion criteria for the study included a Bachelor's degree or higher of educational attainment. 800 of the 1,006 participants have a Bachelor's degree as the highest level of degree that they have attained. 182 of participants (18.1%) earned a Master's degree, and 24 participants (2.4%) have attained a doctorate degree. Since 82.7% of participants were from the United States, a comparison to U.S. Census data on educational attainment may be pertinent. According to the 2015 U.S. Census, one third of adults have attained a college degree, and 12% have an advanced degree (Ryan & Bauman, 2016). Using the census data as a comparator, the percentage of participants with an advanced degree appears high. The sample for this study indicates that of all participants, each of whom has at least a master's degree, 20% have an advanced degree. The number of participants with advanced degrees is in no way a detriment to the study, but in terms of having a representative sample, this one aspect is likely not indicative of the broader population (see Table 1).

Age. The survey asked for the age of each participant. As opposed to displaying the frequency be every year, age was grouped into five categories. 55 of the 1,006 participants (5.5%) were 25 years old or younger. 482 of the participants (47.9%) were between the ages of

26 and 35. 293 of the participants (29.1%) were between the ages of 36 and 45. 117 of the participants (11.6%) were between the ages of 46 and 55. Finally, 59 of the participants (5.9%) were over the age of 55. 775 of the participants (77.0%) were between the ages of 26 and 45. The youngest participant, who still met the inclusion criteria of five years was 21 years old, and the oldest participant was 74 years old (see Table 1).

Geography. Since this study focuses on advancing global leadership theory, representation from all regions was preferred. Of the participants, 832 (82.7%) currently live in North America. 13 of the 1,006 participants (1.3%) live in Europe, the Middle East, and Africa. 155 of the participants (15.4%) live in Asia. Six of the participants (0.6%) live in Latin America. Since Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) is designed to ensure anonymity of workers, reliance on participant demographic information is necessary. Since the MTurk system is designed to protect the anonymity of workers, self-reporting must be relied upon. However, two studies were conducted that show that while MTurk workers populations are global, they primarily reside in the United States and India (Ipeirotis, 2010; Ross, Zaldivar, Irani, & Tomlinson, 2010). Given this study, the representation of the participants was not unexpected (see Table 1).

Race for United States based participants. 832 of the 1,006 participants (82.7%) were based out of North America. Of these 832 participants, 825 (99.2%) were based in the United States and seven (.8%) were based in Canada. Of the 825 U.S. based participants, 649 (78.7%) self-reported their race as White. 55 of the 825 participants (6.7%) self-reported as being Black of African American. 39 of the 825 participants (4.7%) self-reported as being Hispanic or

Latino. 57 of the 825 participants (6.9%) self-reported as being Asian. And, four of the 825 participants (0.5%) self-reported as being American Indian or Alaska Native (see Table 1).

Vignette set. This study included two vignette sets. In order, for a participant to be directed to a vignette set, they were asked if their birth year ended in an even number, or an add number. Even number birth years were given vignette set one, and odd number birth years were given vignette set two. As expected, the distribution of vignette sets was relatively even with 491 of the 1,006 participants (48.8%) seeing a scenario associated with vignette one, and 515 of the 1,006 participants (51.2%) seeing a scenario associated with vignette two. Since each vignette set represents a different situation this distribution was important to be able to test co-variance (see Table 2).

Table 2

Vignette Demographics

Factor	Frequency	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Vignette Set			
Vignette 1	491	48.8	48.8
Vignette 2	515	51.2	100
Total	1006	100	-
Manager Gender in Vignette			
Male	530	52.7	52.7
Female	476	47.3	100
Total	1006	100	-
Leader-Member Exchange in Vignette			
In-group	484	48.1	48.1
Out-group	522	51.9	100
Total	1006	100	-
Manager’s Expression of Transparency in Vignette			
Unforthcoming	329	32.7	32.7
Translucent	334	33.2	65.9
Transparent	343	34.1	100
Total	1006	100	-

Manager gender in vignette. Of the twenty-four vignette scenarios twelve included the manager as male, and twelve with the manager as female. Participants were assigned vignette scenarios through randomization within the Qualtrics tool. As such, 530 of the 1,006 participants (52.7%) had a vignette scenario with a male manager, and 476 of the 1,006 participants (47.3%) had a vignette scenario with a female manager. These data are important because they reflect that the randomization algorithm was in fact successful (see Table 2).

Leader-member exchange in vignette. Of the twenty-four vignette scenarios twelve included an in-group relationship between leader and follower, and twelve featured an out-group relationship between leader and follower. Participants were assigned vignette scenarios through randomization within the Qualtrics tool. As such, 481 of the 1,006 participants (48.1%) had a vignette scenario with high leader-member exchange (in-group), and 522 of the 1,006 participants (51.9%) had a vignette scenario with low leader-member exchange (out-group). These data are important because they reflect that the randomization algorithm was in fact successful. Additionally, leader-member exchange was tested as a moderator of follower confidence in their manager with different manager expressions of transparency (see Table 2).

Manager's expression of transparency in vignette. Of the twenty-four vignette scenarios four included an unforthcoming expression of transparency from the manager, four included a translucent expression from the manager, and four included a transparent expression from the manager, for a total of 12 expressions of transparency. Participants were assigned vignette scenarios through randomization within the Qualtrics tool. As such, 329 of the 1,006 participants (32.7%) had a vignette scenario with an unforthcoming manager expression, 334 of the 1,006 participants (33.2%) had a vignette scenario with a translucent manager expression, and 343 of the 1,006 participants (34.1%) had a vignette scenario with a transparent manager expression. This data is important because it reflects that the randomization algorithm was in fact successful. Additionally, the manager's expression of transparency was tested for relational co-variance (see Table 2).

Bivariate correlation. A bivariate (Pearson) analysis was conducted to analyze if, and to what degree, there was an empirical relationship between variables in the study. This analysis showed the bivariate measure of association, or strength, of the relationship between two variables. The findings of the bivariate correlation analysis showed correlation to the .05 level between Leader-Member Exchange and vignette set (see Table 3). Additionally, there was correlation to the .05 level between follower's confidence in leader's ability (independent variable) and vignette set. The analysis shows correlation significant to the .01 level between follower's confidence in leader's ability (independent variable) and leader's transparency (dependent variable).

Table 3

Correlations between Vignettes, Participant's Gender, Manager's Gender, LMX, Transparency and Confidence in the Manager (N = 1,006)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Vignette[a]					
2. Participant's Gender[b]	.050				
3. Manager's Gender[c]	.049	.052			
4. LMX[d]	.067*	-.002	.024		
5. Manager's Transparency	.017	-.022	.001	.041	
6. Confidence in Manager	.072*	-.011	.026	.003	.108**

[a] Vignette: 1=*vignette* 1, 2=*vignette* 2. [b] Participant's Gender: 1=*male*, 2=*female*. [c] Manager's Gender: 1=*male*, 2=*female*. [d] LMX: 1=*ingroup*, 2=*outgroup*

* Correlation is signficant at the .05 level

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level

Vignette display. In this study, there were two vignette sets, and twelve scenarios for each set for a total of twenty-four vignette scenarios. The variables included in each vignette scenario, manager gender, leader-member-exchange, and manager expression of transparency is shown in Table 4. Additionally, the number participants for each scenario, the minimum and maximum ratings on the Likert scale, the mean, and standard deviation are also displayed.

Table 4

Vignette Display

Vignette	Manager Gender	Leader-Member Exchange	Expression of Transparency	n	Minimim	Maximim	Mean	Standard Deviation
V1S1	Male	In-group	Unforthcoming	59	1	5	2.73	0.980
V1S2	Male	In-group	Translucent	43	2	5	3.09	0.610
V1S3	Male	In-group	Transparent	42	1	5	3.10	1.031
V1S4	Male	Out-group	Unforthcoming	42	1	4	2.71	0.805
V1S5	Male	Out-group	Translucent	41	1	5	3.05	0.865
V1S6	Male	Out-group	Transparent	44	1	5	2.95	0.861
V1S7	Female	In-group	Unforthcoming	33	1	5	2.61	1.088
V1S8	Female	In-group	Translucent	40	2	5	3.13	0.822
V1S9	Female	In-group	Transparent	36	2	5	3.17	0.878
V1S10	Female	Out-group	Unforthcoming	32	1	5	2.84	0.920
V1S11	Female	Out-group	Translucent	35	1	5	3.06	0.906
V1S12	Female	Out-group	Transparent	44	1	5	3.05	0.834
V2S1	Male	In-group	Unforthcoming	40	1	5	2.90	0.632
V2S2	Male	In-group	Translucent	36	2	5	3.11	0.708
V2S3	Male	In-group	Transparent	41	1	5	3.29	0.814
V2S4	Male	Out-group	Unforthcoming	38	1	5	3.03	0.788
V2S5	Male	Out-group	Translucent	45	1	4	2.91	0.633
V2S6	Male	Out-group	Transparent	59	1	5	3.14	0.880
V2S7	Female	In-group	Unforthcoming	34	2	5	3.15	0.657
V2S8	Female	In-group	Translucent	43	1	5	3.05	0.653
V2S9	Female	In-group	Transparent	37	1	5	2.92	0.924
V2S10	Female	Out-group	Unforthcoming	51	2	5	3.10	0.640
V2S11	Female	Out-group	Translucent	51	2	5	3.08	0.717
V2S12	Female	Out-group	Transparent	40	1	5	3.20	1.043

Model summary. The output from the statistical software showed an R of .288. The *p*-values for all variables: expression of manager transparency, leader-member exchange (LMX), the moderation/interaction effect of LMX, participant gender, manager gender, work experience, vignette set, age, and geography; as well as the independent variable (Y) of the expression of transparency chart and table are all presented in Table 5. The independent variable, the leader's transparency, is ordinal and measured as Unforthcoming = 1, Translucent = 2, and Transparent = 3. The moderator (W) of LMX is measured in categorical variables where In-group = 1 and Out group = 2.

Since R-squared (R^2) is small (.083), the effect size on each variable would not be meaningful. The overall model is statistically significant ($p < .000$). The R^2 for the model is .083 which means that 8.3% of the overall variability in follower confidence can be accounted by the variables in the model. Cohen's f^2 (Cohen, 1988) is used to calculating the effect size of this regression model: $f^2 = R^2 / (R^2 – 1)$. In this case, $f^2 = .083^2 / (.083^2 – 1)$ *or .007/(.007-1) or 007/-.993=-.007*. Cohen's f^2 interpretation for R^2 is: 0.02 = small, 0.15 = medium, 0.35 = large. Therefore, the overall effect of the variables in the model (R^2) in predicting follower confidence is 'very small.' (see Table 6).

Table 5

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
0.288	0.083	0.645	10.041	9	996	0

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	1.799	0.268	6.714	0	1.273	2.324
Transparency	0.244	0.1	2.446	0.015	0.048	0.439
LMX	0.182	0.135	1.342	0.18	-0.084	0.447
Interaction	-0.096	0.062	-1.545	0.123	-0.219	0.026
Gender	0.024	0.052	0.458	0.647	-0.079	0.127
Work Experience	-0.051	0.041	-1.236	0.217	-0.132	0.03
Vignette	0.137	0.051	2.677	0.008	0.037	0.237
Age	0.004	0.004	1.14	0.255	-0.003	0.011
Mgr Gender	0.062	0.051	1.211	0.226	-0.038	0.162
Region	0.276	0.035	7.808	0	0.207	0.345

Table 6

Test for Highest Order Unconditional Interactions (Transparency X Confidence)

	R2-chng	f	df1`	df2	p
X*W	0.002	2.389	1	996	0.123

Table 7

The Relationship Between Leader Transparency, LMX, and Follower Confidence

Manager Transparency (1=unforthcoming, 2=translucent, 3=transparent)	LMX (1=in-group, 2=out-group)	Follower Confidence
1	1	2.87
2	1	3.02
3	1	3.17
1	2	2.96
2	2	3.01
3	2	3.06

Moderator effect of leader-member exchange on follower confidence and leader inspiration. One of the central topics of this research intended to advance leadership theory, is the impact of Leader-Member Exchange on whether expressions of manager transparency impacts follower's confidence. The research shows that leader-member exchange does not have a moderation effect, when correlated with manager expressions of transparency, on follower confidence in their leader. The *p*-value for the moderation, or interaction, was 0.123 which is greater than 0.05 (see Table 5). Figure 11 shows a graphical representation of the moderation. While follower confidence scores ranged from 1 to 5, only 2 to 3 are displayed to provide a more precise view of the graph line.

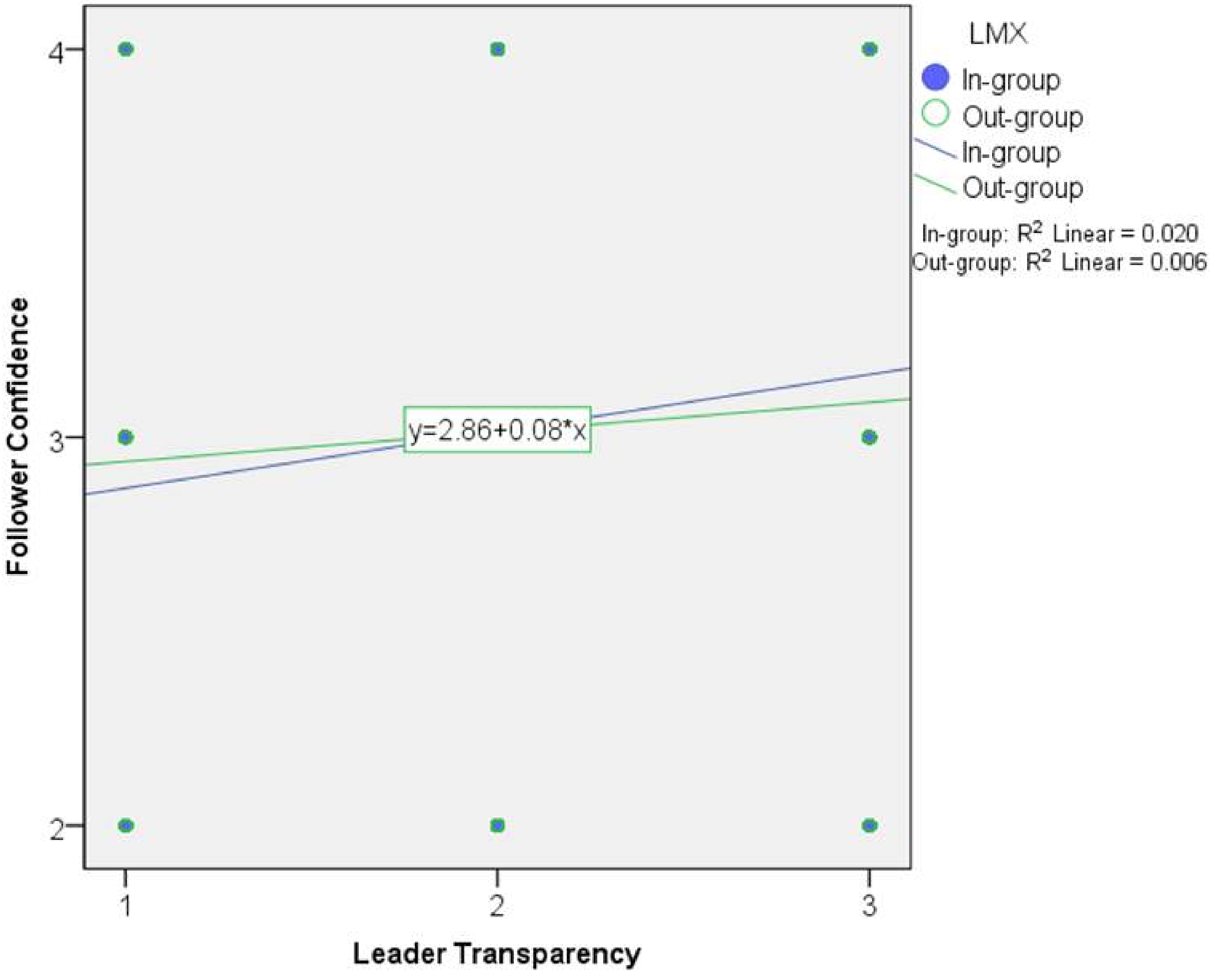


Figure 11. Moderator effect of leader-member exchange on follower confidence and leader inspiration.

Mean differences based on vignette. A means analysis was completed via an analysis of variance (ANOVA), given that vignette set was found to yield statistical differential significance. The inspiration of follower confidence was different between vignette one and vignette two, meaning that the situation does matter when considering how manager's expressions of transparency impacts inspires follower confidence in them (see Tables 8 and 9).

Table 8

Mean Differences Based on Vignette

Vignette	Mean	*n*	Standard Deviation
Vignette 1	2.9532	491	0.8962
Vignette 2	3.0738	515	0.76803
Total	3.0149	1006	0.83504

Table 9

Vignette ANOVA Table

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Conf*Vignette	Between Groups (Combined)	3.658	1	3.658	5.268	0.022
	Within Groups	697.119	1004	0.694		
	Total	700.776	1005			

Mean differences based on geography. A means analysis was completed via an analysis of variance (ANOVA), given that geography was found to yield statistical differential significance. The inspiration of follower confidence was different between geographies, meaning that the geography does matter when considering how manager's expressions of transparency impacts inspires follower confidence in them. Overall, the degree of follower confidence in their manager was higher in Asia Pacific than the other three regions (see Tables 10 and 11).

Table 10

Mean Differences Based on Geography

In which region do you live?	Mean	n	Standard Deviation
North America	2.9195	832	0.72898
Europe, the Middle East, and Africa	2.9231	13	1.44115
Asia Pacific	3.5548	155	1.0577
Latin America	2.5000	6	1.22474
Total	3.0149	1006	0.83504

Table 11

Geography ANOVA Table

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Conf*Region	Between Groups (Combined)	54.465	3	18.155	28.146	0.000
	Within Groups	646.312	1002	0.645		
	Total	700.776	1005			

Manager gender interactions. In order to get a deeper understanding as to whether manager gender had an interaction effect on follower confidence in leader ability, a mean differences analysis was conducted. For vignette set one, when the manager gender was male and leader transparency was unforthcoming, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 2.72 (See Table 12). When the manager gender was male and leader transparency was translucent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.07. When the manager gender was male and leader transparency was transparent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.02. According to the mean differences analysis, the difference in confidence between unforthcoming and translucent, was not statistically significant. However, there was significance in confidence between the manager expressions of translucent and transparent. For vignette set one, when the manager gender was female and leader transparency was unforthcoming, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 2.72. When the manager gender was female and leader transparency was translucent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.09. When the manager gender was female and leader transparency was transparent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.10. According to the mean differences analysis, the difference in confidence between unforthcoming and translucent, was not statistically significant. However, similar to male managers, there was significance in confidence between the manager expressions of translucent and transparent.

Table 12

Mean Differences for Manager's Transparency for Vignette 1

		Manager's Transparency		
		Unforthcoming	Translucent	Transparent
Manager's Gender	Male	2.72_a	3.07_b	3.02_b
	Female	2.72_a	3.09_b	3.10_b

Note: Values in the same row not sharing the same subscript are significantly different at $p < .05$

For vignette set two, when the manager gender was male and leader transparency was unforthcoming, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 2.96 (See Table 14). When the manager gender was male and leader transparency was translucent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.00. When the manager gender was male and leader transparency was transparent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.20. According to the mean differences analysis, the difference in confidence between unforthcoming and translucent, was statistically significant. Additionally, there was statistical significance in confidence between the manager for both translucent and transparent expressions. For vignette set two, when the manager gender was female and leader transparency was unforthcoming, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 2.72. When the manager gender was female and leader transparency was translucent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.06. When the manager gender was female and leader transparency was transparent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.06. According to the mean differences analysis, follower confidence in leader's ability was statistically significant for all three expressions of transparency, unforthcoming, translucent, and transparent. While all confidence levels were significant, it is important to note that for female leaders in vignette set two has descending levels of follower confidence as leader transparency increased.

Table 13

Mean Differences for Manager's Transparency for Vignette 2

		Manager's Transparency		
		Unforthcoming	Translucent	Transparent
Manager's Gender	Male	2.96_{a}	$3.00_{a,b}$	3.20_{b}
	Female	3.12_{a}	3.06_{a}	3.06_{a}

Note: Values in the same row not sharing the same subscript are significantly different at $p < .05$

When considering both vignette sets in aggregate, when the manager gender was male and leader transparency was unforthcoming, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 2.83 (See Table 14). When the manager gender was male and leader transparency was translucent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.04. When the manager gender was male and leader transparency was transparent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.12. According to the mean differences analysis, the difference in confidence between unforthcoming and translucent, was statistically significant. Additionally, there was statistical significance in confidence between the manager between translucent and transparent expressions. For both vignette sets in aggregate, when the manager gender was female and leader transparency was unforthcoming, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 2.95. When the manager gender was female and leader transparency was translucent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.08. When the manager gender was female and leader transparency was transparent, the mean confidence in leader's ability was 3.08. According to the mean differences analysis, follower confidence in leader's ability was statistically significant for all three expressions of transparency, unforthcoming, translucent, and transparent.

Table 14

Mean Differences for Manager's Transparency for Both Vignettes

		Manager's Transparency		
		Unforthcoming	Translucent	Transparent
Manager's Gender	Male	2.83_a	3.04_b	3.12_a
	Female	2.95_a	3.08_a	3.08_a

Note: Values in the same row not sharing the same subscript are significantly different at $p < .05$

Data Collection Results

The data needed to advance the study of global leadership theory, authentic leadership, situational awareness, and transparency as a core concept of authenticity, were derived from the exploration of the research question from data collected from quantitative vignette surveys. The answers to the research questions were broken up into specific hypothesizes that were analyzed via SPSS, a commonly used statistical software solution. The resulting acceptance or rejection of the hypothesis led to conclusions related to the research questions.

Research question one. Research question one asked: To what degree do different expressions of transparency impact a follower's confidence in a leader's ability? In order to answer this question, there was one associated hypothesis that was answered.

Hypothesis one: Hypothesis one states that there is a relationship between the degree of manager transparency and the level of follower confidence in the manager after controlling for covariates, including age, gender, work experience and geography, as well as vignette type. The *p*-value for the first hypothesis is .0146 which is less than .05. Therefore, there is a is a positive relationship between the degree of manager transparency and the level of follower confidence in the manager after controlling for covariates, including age, gender, work experience and geography, as well vignette type. The estimated direct effect of leader transparency on follower confidence is .244. This result indicates that two different participants who differ by one unit on leader transparency, but are equal on the control variables, are estimated to differ by .244 units on follower confidence. The results confirm the hypotheses that the greater the level of leader transparency, the higher level of followers' confidence on the leader. As a general guidance, a sample size of 30 would yield 80% power for measuring group difference. For regression analysis, 50 participants is considered a reasonable sample size (VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007). The total participant size for this study was 1,006 with a minimum of 32 participants for each vignette situation. Thus, 80% power, at minimum, was achieved.

Research question two. Research question two asked: What is the appropriate level of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a given situation with variable Leader-Members Exchange (LMX; Gerstner & Day, 1997)? In order to answer this question, there was one associated hypothesis that is answered.

***Hypothesis two*.** Hypothesis two states that Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) will moderate the relationship between a leader's transparency and their follower's confidence in them. If a leader and follower have a high LMX, expressions of high transparency will build greater follower confidence in the leader's ability. The *p*-value for the second hypothesis is .123 which is greater than .05, therefore Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) does not moderate the relationship between a leader's transparency and their follower's confidence in them.

Research question three. Research question three asked: To what degree do covariates, including situation and demographics, impact that concept of leadership transparency on followers? In order to answer this question, there were seven associated hypotheses that are answered.

***Hypothesis three*.** Hypothesis three states that the vignette set does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The *p*-value for the third hypothesis is .008 which is less than .05, therefore the vignette set does affect the follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The estimated direct effect of vignette set on follower confidence is .137. This result indicates that two different participants, who each had a different vignette, differ by one unit on leader transparency, but are equal on the control variables, are estimated to differ by .137 units on follower confidence. The results confirm that vignette set does affect the follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

***Hypothesis four*.** Hypothesis four states that leader gender does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency**.** The *p*-value for the fourth hypothesis is .266, which is greater than .05, therefore leader gender does not affect the follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The lack of significance when combining both vignette sets was confirmed by a means difference analysis (See Table 15). However, when the vignette sets are broken out an unexpected result was discovered. In vignette two (personal situation), for female leaders the means confidence in leader's ability decreased as a leader's expression of transparency went from unforthcoming, to translucent, to transparent. Follower confidence in leader's ability also decreased with increased leader transparency when there was high LMX between leader and follower which was an unexpected output.

Hypothesis five. Hypothesis five states that follower gender does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The *p*-value for the fifth hypothesis is .0647, which is greater than .05, therefore follower gender does not statistically significantly affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

Hypothesis six. Hypothesis six states that follower work experience does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The *p*-value for the sixth hypothesis is .217, which is greater than .05, therefore work experience does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

Hypothesis seven. Hypothesis seven states that follower age does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The *p*-value for the seventh hypothesis is .255, which is greater than .05, therefore follower age does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

Hypothesis eight. Hypothesis eight states that participant geography does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The *p*-value for the eighth hypothesis is .000, which is less than .05, therefore participant geography does effect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The estimated direct effect of geography on follower confidence is .276. This result indicates that two different participants, who each live in a different region, differ by one unit on leader transparency, but are equal on the control variables, are estimated to differ by .276 units on follower confidence. The results confirm that geography does affect the follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

Hypothesis nine. Hypothesis nine states that participant race for U.S. based participants does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The *p*-value for the ninth hypothesis is .405, which is greater than .05, therefore participant race for U.S. based participants does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

Summary

The study was intended to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. Participants were selected with consideration of suitability and access. Data collection used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and yielded 1,006 global participants post meeting the inclusion criteria, and agreeing to the informed consent as approved be Pepperdine's Institutional Review Board (IRB), and the dissertation committee. Data were collected to address the three research questions originally introduced in Chapter 1. The researcher used statistical software to analyze the data, and to apply findings to the associated nine hypotheses.

Research question one asked: To what degree do different expressions of transparency impact a follower's confidence in a leader's ability? The study shows that there is a relationship between leader transparency, and the impact on follower's confidence on the leader's ability. It was found that the more transparent a leader is, the more confidence is inspired in followers.

Research question two asked: What is the appropriate level of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a given situation with variable Leader-Members Exchange (LMX; Gerstner & Day, 1997)? It was found that Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) does not have an independent correlation with regards to the impact of follower confidence in their leader's ability, nor does LMX serve as a moderator of follower confidence in their leader's ability. An interaction effect between leader transparency and LMX was not found to be significant.

Research question three asked: To what degree do covariates, including situation and demographics, impact that concept of leadership transparency on followers? The research shows that the situation did have a relationship with how manager expressions of transparency impact the degree of follower confidence in their leader's ability. This finding is an indication, and reinforcement, that situational leadership and situational awareness are important concepts in leadership theory. The research also showed that manager gender, follower gender, leader gender, age, years of work experience, and education do not have a relationship with how manager expressions of transparency impact the degree of follower confidence in their leader's ability. However, there were differences in geography with respect to the outcomes. Additionally, there was an unexpected outcome when splitting out vignette sets. When the manager is a female, regardless of follower gender, mean follower confidence diminishes when manager transparency goes from unforthcoming to translucent, and with greater significance in the scenario with higher LMX.

Chapter 5 will summarize the results and key findings of this study, and makes recommendations for future research. The principal research includes commentary on critical observations, and give general conclusions related to this quantitative study. Implications of this study to leadership theory, authentic leadership, and transparency as a core concept of authenticity will be discussed. The study will close with the principal researcher's final thoughts and reflections

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

To advance research on any given theory, model, or construct, there needs to be a common definition to be used as a foundation for advancement. A lack of consistency prevents research from being built upon collectively to progress the study, and does not allow for research be compared and contrasted (Gardner et al., 2011). While there are varying opinions as to whether authenticity in leadership is a trait or a style, most scholars believe authenticity to be a purpose and value based characteristic (Gardner et al., 2011) that is developed over time (George, 2003). Transparency is a core concept associated with authentic leadership, and situational awareness is a critical skill for leaders to determine the appropriate degree of transparency they should demonstrate. There is limited theoretical and empirical research on how transparency and self-monitoring can be used in conjunction with situational leadership and situational awareness theory. The findings of this study are intended to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. This chapter will provide a summary of the study, re-presentation of key results and key findings, implications of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of the study was to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. This study examined the degree of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a constant situation with variable Leader-Member Exchange (LMX; Gerstner & Day, 1997). By sharing how transparency can affect follower confidence, both theoretical and empirical contributions will be made towards broader leadership theory, situational leadership and awareness, and the study of authenticity in leadership. This study was designed to address the following: (a) the appropriate level of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a given situation with variable LMX (Gerstner & Day, 1997); (b) the degree to which different expressions of transparency impact a follower's confidence in a leader's ability, (c) and the degree to which leader and follower gender, work experience, age, and ethnicity do or do not impact the concept of leadership transparency on followers. This chapter shares participant demographics, and an analysis of the data collected via quantitative vignette surveys.

Results and Discussion of Findings

The main purpose of this study was to understand how leaders can best use transparency to inspire confidence from followers in order to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness, and transparency, as core concepts of authenticity. This study was intended to create a model for situational transparency that will provide the degree of transparency a leader should demonstrate based on variable leader-member exchange in a constant situation.

The study included 1,006 participants, who were 57.4% male (577) and 46.6% female (429). A minimum of five years of work was required to be part of the study, 347 of the 1,006 participants (34.5%) had had between five years and ten years of work experience, 276 participants (27.4%) had ten to fifteen years of work experience, and 383 of 1,006 (38.1%), had 15 years or more of work experience. An additional inclusion criterion was that participants must have earned a Bachelor's degree or higher to participate. 800 of the 1,006 participants had a Bachelor's degree as the highest level of degree that they have attained. 182 of participants (18.1%) earned a Master's degree, and 24 participants (2.4%) attained a doctorate degree. 775 of the participants (77.0%) were between the ages of 26 and 45. Of the participants, 832 (82.7%) currently live in North America. 13 of the 1,006 participants (1.3%) live in Europe, the Middle

East, and Africa. 155 of the participants (15.4%) live in Asia. Six of the participants (0.6%) live in Latin America. Of the 825 U.S. based participants, 649 (78.7%) self-reported their race as White, and 176 (21.3%) self-reported as being Black or African America, Hispanic/Latino, American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian, or multiracial.

The study focused on answering the followinng research questions:

- To what degree do different expressions of transparency impact a follower's confidence in a leader's ability?
- What is the appropriate level of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a given situation with variable Leader-Members Exchange (LMX; Gerstner & Day, 1997)?
- To what degree do variables, including situation and demographics, impact that concept of leadership transparency on followers?

The impact of transparency on follower's confidence. An important aspect of leadership transparency is determining how much information to disclose, and the manner and timing in which it is disclosed. In certain situations, leaders can be too transparent, or not transparent enough (Walker & Pagano, 2008). Full transparency should only be used with consideration of the feelings and inspiration required of followers. When leaders practice this principle, they set a tone of honesty and openness for the entire team. In this scenario, not only are credibility and trust built, but followers become more comfortable in absence of full information (Walker & Pagano, 2008). When leaders act authentically, attempt to create meaningful and real connections with followers, and do so with deep sincerity, they are often viewed as credible. Part of this equation includes disclosing information, even personal information, if it adds to creating a meaningful context for work. In order to do this, leaders must be extremely self-aware of the situation at hand, and the relationships that exist collectively and individually with followers.

Results show that the degree of transparency demonstrated by a leader does have a positive relationship with the degree of confidence that the expression inspires from follower in the leader's ability. The study hypotheses support that, generally, higher levels of transparency translate into higher level of follower's confidence in them. Based on regression analysis, the degree of manager transparency does have a positive correlation between the level of follower confidence in the manager after controlling for demographic variables, including age, gender, work experience and geography, as well vignette type.

The optimal level of transparency. It is believed that trust is predicated on one's "propensity to trust in general and the ability, benevolence, and integrity of the trustee" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 717). An effort was made to control participants' trust in their leader by explicitly stating the leader-member exchange that exists. Transparent communications have traditionally been recognized as a critical component to organizational health and effectiveness (Gross, 2002; Haney, 1967; Likert, 1967; Myers et al., 1999; Rogers, 1987). In 1951, Alex Bavelas and Dermot Barrett conducted research on the efficacy of open communication, and the how open communication correlates with "higher levels of honesty, effective listening, trust, supportiveness, and frankness" (Rogers, 1987, p. 54). Within the construct of an organization, open communication can be defined as a "message sending and receiving behaviors of superiors, subordinates, and peers with regard to task, personal, and innovative topics" (Rogers, 1987, p. 54). As such, open communication has an impact on all individuals with an organization at all levels. Regardless of the segmentation, individuals generally are more responsive and engaged by leaders who are more transparent (Norman et al, 2010). Additionally, high transparency is connected to strong leader-follower relationships, higher confidence from followers in the leaders' ability (Kay & Christophel, 1995), higher job engagement (Burke & Wilcox, 1969; Klauss & Bass, 1982; Korsgaard et al., 2002; Weiss, 2002), clearer decision making and role understanding (Klauss & Bass, 1982; Wilson & Malik, 1995), stronger relationships with peers (Myers et al., 1999), and greater credibility and trust of organizational norms and behaviors (Korsgaard et al., 2002). It was hypothesized that with higher degree of leader-member exchange, and thus higher trust, transparent expressions would yield greater follower confidence in the leader's ability. However, while there was generally greater confidence in the leader with higher levels of transparency, leader-member exchange did not prove to be significant as a moderator (*p*-value = 0.123). While it LMX may not be a statistically significant variable in this study, further studies should be completed with different scenarios to further substantiate.

Other than region, all the demographic co-variates did not show significant differences in results. However, the mean of level of confidence of Asia Pacific was higher than the other regions. North America had a mean of 2.92, Europe, the Middle East, and Africa had a mean of 2.92, Asia Pacific had a mean of 3.55, and Latin America had a mean of 2.50 (see Table 16). Another geographic difference was the moderator effect of leader-member exchange (LMX). In North America, which accounted for 832 of the 1,006 participants (82.7%), the *p*-value for interaction using moderation process analysis was 0.063. The *p*-value acceptance for this study was greater than .05, which was used for this study. Thus, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Higher levels of leader-member exchange do not serve as a moderator on follower's confidence in their leaders, when considered in conjunction with different degrees of leaders' transparency. However, the *p*-value is just over the threshold for acceptance, which may be cause for consideration of the importance of leader-member exchange. At the least, LMX cannot be ignored.

The importance of situational awareness. Situational awareness is an important concept within the broader construct of leadership theory and situational leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Situational awareness is the notion that an individual, or group, has such a strong understanding of the current environment, that he/she may be able to project the future environment based on changing variables (Merket et al., 1997). The three aspects of the comprehension level are pattern recognition, interpretation, and evaluation (Endsley, 1995b). Another distinguishing factor of the comprehension step is to translate how the perceived situation will impact the vision and mission of an individual or team. Hypothesis three states that the vignette set does not affect follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency. The *p*-value for the third hypothesis is .008 which is less than .05, therefore the vignette set does affect the follower confidence in the leader when controlling for LMX and leader transparency.

Co-variate analysis. All participants received an input of a situation, their role as follower, the manager's gender, an approximation of leader-member exchange between leader and follower, and expression of transparency. Additionally, there was uniformity on the procedure that ensured that each participant viewed the conditions in a similar manner. Multiple linear regression helps to predict the correlation between a variable and the linear output of the gathered data (Grégoire, 2014). Analysis shows that participant gender, manager gender, years of work experience, education, age, and race for United States participants did not have statistical significance on the relationship between a leader's expression of transparency and follower confidence in their ability when controlling for all other variable. However, there was statistical significance in both the region in which a participant lives, and vignette set. Additionally, when the manager is a female, regardless of follower gender, mean follower confidence diminishes when manager transparency goes from unforthcoming to translucent, and with greater significance in the scenario with higher LMX. This unexpected finding suggests that female leaders may need self-monitor degrees of transparency when the situation involves personal circumstance.

Key Findings

The key findings from this study were derived from answers to the four research questions that were posed.

1. In general, higher degrees of leadership transparency yield higher levels of follower confidence.
2. The situation can impact how expressions of transparency impact follower confidence, as evidence by the statistical significance that existed between the two vignette scenarios. Thus, situational awareness and situational leadership are critical competencies for leaders to use transparency effectively.
3. Leader-Member Exchange does not, generally, moderate the relationship between a leader’s transparency and their follower’s confidence in him/her. However, for North America, the results were just over the stated requirement for statistical significance.
4. There is statistical significance in the difference in responses between geographies.
5. There were not statistically significant differences in the results when considering gender, years of work experience, education, age, and race for United States participants.

6. In one of the vignette sets when the manager is a female, regardless of follower gender, mean follower confidence diminishes when manager transparency goes from unforthcoming to translucent, and with greater significance in the scenario with higher LMX.

Implications of Study

There are a number of significant implications to the theoretical advancement of global leadership associated with this study. The intent of this research was to contribute to, and advance, leadership theory, the construct of authentic leadership, situational awareness, and transparency as a core concept of authenticity. The pertinent implications, as such, include the following.

Implications on leadership theory. In 1995, Bennis approximated a minimum of 650 definitions of leadership in publications (Bennis & Townsend, 1995). Among these definitions are classifications such as situational leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977), authentic leadership (Gardner et al., 2005), and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). Broadly, a well cited definition of leadership is “Leaders are individuals who establish direction for a working group of individuals who gain commitment form these group of members to this direction and who then motivate these members to achieve the direction's outcomes” (Conger, 1992, p. 18). One of the most comprehensive submissions to the definition of global leadership is “the process of influencing the thinking, attitudes and behaviors of a global community to work together synergistically toward a common vision” (Mendenhall and Osland, 2017). In 1977, Greenleaf wrote on the notion of servant leadership, which is predicated on the fact that leaders must place their followers’ needs ahead of their own. Servant leaders often have the common attributes of care, concern, empathy, and a deep sense of obligation towards helping followers meet their professional and personal goals. What all of these definitions have in common is they all stress the importance of the outcome. Effective leaders inspire followers to work towards a common vision, and can often position themselves as an enabler of follower success (Greenleaf, 1977).

Should one subscribe to these similarities in construct definition of leadership, then situational transparency can be viewed as a tool to inspire confidence, trust, and to gain alignment in attainment of a common goal. This study shows the positive correlation between transparency and follower confidence in their leaders. The study also confirms the theoretical scheme of situational leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). Optimal leadership needs to be considerate of the task to be completed, and the relationship between leader and followers. As such, it should be noted that while this study shows that based on the two vignette sets, expressions of greater transparency, yielded greater confidence from followers, this is likely not always the case. There are some situations where too much transparency can erode confidence. For example, if a leader discloses that he/she is ill-equipped to lead, or unsure of what to do.

According to Mayer et al. (1995),

> Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. (p. 712)

Norman et al. (2010) conducted a study in 2010 that used a downsizing scenario as a means to test how effective leaders address significant organizational change. The study included 1,006 participants who were each "randomly assigned to one of the four conditions of high (low) leader positivity × high (low) leader transparency" (Norman et al, 2010, p. 350). The study results of the mixed method study showed that leaders who demonstrated higher levels of positivity and transparency had higher levels of perceived trust and leadership effectiveness among followers

(Norman et al, 2010). Similar to the Norman study (2010), this study treats transparency as an independent variable. Instead of a measurement in trust, the degree of follower confidence in their manager was measured, but the concepts are similar. Both studies showed positive correlation from between the independent variable and dependent variable.

Situational awareness is the ability to perceive environmental status, attributes, and dynamics. Attributes associated with perception include the ability to assess the environment, detect cues, and basic identification (Endsley, 1995b). Common situational elements include perception of surroundings, objects, occurrences, and people. Self-awareness is an important component of situational awareness "because demonstrating that one is aware of one's strengths and weaknesses helps one to be true to oneself and is critical to being authentic" (Walumba et al., 2008). This study shows situation matters with relation to the impact of a leaders' transparency. Given this finding, the implication is further reinforcement on the concept and importance of situation awareness. In order for leaders to determine the degree of transparency that they need to exhibit, they need to be acutely aware of the everchanging environmental status, attributes, and dynamics of a situation, including the follower needs.

Implications on the study of authentic leadership. In the meta-analysis on authentic leadership conducted by Garner et al in 2011, almost every definition has a reference to transparency, or authentic expressions. Authentic leaders "lead with purpose, meaning, and values" (George, 2003, p. 11). In 2008, Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner., Wernsing, and Peterson, proposed a construct definition of authentic leadership which included four dimensions: leader self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. Under this construct of authenticity, transparency is a critical component, and as such, can be an effective tool. While the ethical and moral component of leadership should never adjust, the degree to which leaders can control information can be flexed. Leaders should always be honest, but they have the ability to control information to ensure that the follower is inspired, and that goals are met. Unlike authenticity, there is an aspect of self-monitoring which can flex transparency to maximize confidence followers have in the ability of the leader (Gangestadd & Snyder, 2000). This study shows that leaders' expressions of transparency have an impact on followers' confidence in them. Trust is foundational to follower engagement. Trust can be built through credibility and being true to one's word. Thus, an element of authenticity connects directly to trust, and a whole study of the importance of trust to team and leader effectiveness George & Simms, 2007).

While the degree of authenticity that a person possesses may be a trait, their ability to control information while preserving their authentic and true selves allows for psychological assonance.

Avolio and colleagues describe authentic leaders as being exceptionally self-aware. Authentic leaders have strong conceptualization, and are acutely aware of how their verbal and nonverbal expressions are interpreted by others. Additionally, authentic leaders possess a well-defined sense of self, purpose, and morality. They are attuned to the environment and situational context. They are generally self-assured, positive, persistent, and highly ethical (Avolio et al., 2004). This study contributes to the advancement of authentic leadership theory, in that is does not dispute whether authenticity can be controlled. Rather, it focuses on one component of the authenticity construct, transparency, where control is undisputed.

Implications on transparency as a core concept of authenticity. While there may be some debate as to which degree of authenticity is most suitable in a given situation, and with a given followership, that is no debate that transparency is a critical component in the construct of authenticity. The study shows that the concept of transparency is generally, positively received by followers. The impact of transparency can vary by situation. It was not demonstrated that leader-member exchange plays a moderator role in how expressions of leadership transparency impacts follower confidence in them. Co-variate demographics were not shown to have a relationship with the outcome of the study with the exception of Asia Pacific follower confidence scores being higher. It may have been possible that the follower confidence towards the leader, as shared in the vignette, may have been impacted by implicit assumptions of manager competence (Mayer et al., 1995). Therefore, the positive correlation of leadership transparency in these scenarios was supported in the current study. Given the limited amount of empirical evidence on the impact of transparency, the key findings of this study may advance the theoretical construct of transparency as a core concept of authenticity.

Recommendations for Future Research

There are a number of opportunities for future research with relation to this study. One premise of the consistently evolving nature of leadership, is the constantly changing situation. Situational variables include the players, the setting, interplay that occurs between them (Endsley & Jones, 1997). This study viewed two constant situations; however, the number of possible situations is infinite. It is recommended that future research include the use of other situations using a similar research design. Both situations explained in the vignette were business based. It would be accretive to create situations across multiple environments, including politics, sports, religion, and pop culture.

As referenced in the limitations section, there are some concerns around the use of vignettes. In vignette sets used as part of this study, participants were not actual followers of the leader referenced, and subjects were requested to make determinations of confidence based on the extremely limited information that was shared within the vignette. To further explore situation transparency a variety of research methodologies can be used including descriptive, associational, and interventional. A quantitative vignette study is a descriptive by nature, and gathering information from a myriad of sources may prove helpful. Future research could include a qualitative, phenomenological study where researchers would interview participants on how they experience leaders' expressions of transparency.

In this study, the independent variable was leader transparency, and the dependent variable was follower's confidence in the leader's ability. Implicit follower theory focuses not on the leader, but the effectiveness of the followers and the implications of the categorization process (Coyle & Foti, 2015; Whiteley et al., 2012). William Gardner (2005) has a theory on the *authentic follower* which complements his foundational work on authentic leadership. Gardner defined the authentic follower as a follower of an authentic leader who has high degrees of commitment, trust, and engagement For future research, the characterization of followers from a leader's perspective could be considered: in essence, flipping the independent and dependent variable. A future survey could ask participants to envision themselves in the role of leader, and based on the perceived degree of confidence a leader has in them, what expression of transparency they would recommend.

It was found in this study that the mean of level of confidence of Asia Pacific was higher than the other regions. Additional research should be conducted to test how geographic and cultural differences might exist with regards to transparency and trust. The implication for this is that leaders may want to demonstrate different levels of transparency based on the geography in which they are operating.

Future research should be conducted to continue to establish validity and reliability with research that uses Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). For this study, the intention was to get a global representation of participants who met the three-point inclusion criteria. While enough respondents were collected to show statistical significance for a global study, the participants were largely North America based. The representation of gender, age, and work experience was representative of the greater global population. Mturk was launched in 2005, so continued research on the suitability of MTurk as a data source and instrument will only add credibility to the tool.

Final Thoughts

Having previously completed a Doctorate in Education, it became clear over the course of writing this dissertation in Philosophy, the stark differences between the two degrees. The Doctorate in Education (Ed.D.) focused on attaining general knowledge in authentic leadership theory, including a broad understanding of leadership and change models and existing research. The capstone dissertation provided an opportunity to contribute applied scholarship which is usable to practitioners. The final product was an aggregation of common strategies and practices among authentic senior leaders (Ehret, 2016), which can be used for future leadership development. In contrast, the Doctorate in Philosophy (Ph.D.), was an opportunity to become a deep expert with focus on conceptualization of the theory, and advancing existing research, which can then be further studied.

Most existing research identifies authenticity as a trait that successful leaders demonstrate (Gardner et al., 2011. This means, people may not be able to control authenticity, but a degree of authenticity is part of one’s personality and character. Conversely, transparency does connote a conscious and deliberate behavior where one can choose how transparent to be.   The disparity between definitions of authenticity is currently being debated by some leading scholars in the field including the likes of professors Adam Grants and Bill George. Grants (2016) writes, “If not our authentic selves, what should we be striving to reach? Decades ago, the literary critic Lionel Trilling gave us an answer that sounds very old-fashioned to our authentic ears: sincerity” (p. SR6). Grant advocated that instead of seeking to understand our inner self, and ensure that is what is reflected externally, we should be making an effort to understand how we are presenting ourselves to others, and what is required of us. He writes “rather than changing from the inside out, you bring the outside in” (Grant, 2016, p SR6). Grant’s muse is extremely consistent with the basic premise of the most advanced leadership of the late 20th and early 21st century: that leaders serve to inspire and motivate others to achieve a common goal. Thus, leadership is less about the individual leader, and more about followers and the greater goal.

In 1999, Ibarra conducted a study on working professionals that explored authenticity, transparency, and self-monitoring. Ibarra defined high self-monitors as less authentic, and high self-monitors as more authentic. In the study, she found that high self-monitors (less authentic) were more likely than low self-monitors (more authentic) to test different leadership approaches (Ibarra, 1999). She also found that low self-monitors were able to mimic personality of senior leaders of an organization, replicating their personas and language. With practice, these norms and behaviors were adapted by the low self-monitors, helping them to be successful and advance in the organization (Ibarra, 1999). While low self-monitors may have been lower in authenticity, they were likely sincere in their efforts to be successful, personally, and organizationally.

With the assumption that people should always be ethical, moral, and honest, authenticity is neither a good trait nor bad trait. There are individuals who are able to adapt their true selves based on situation, and individuals who have such a strong, and well-established vision of self, that they are unable to adapt. Regardless of where one might score on the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) (Walumbwa et al, 2008), there is not necessarily an ideal level of authenticity.

This study has attempted to bypass the debate on the ideal levels of authenticity, but instead on the leadership theory, and associated models that can be deliberately controlled. Transparency is a critical core concept of authenticity. Being able to understand and consciously control levels of transparency requires situational awareness. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) built a leadership model predicated on the understanding that different situations require different leadership. Endlsey (1995) built on this premise that in order to fully optimize situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard), individuals must have situational awareness. By understanding the environment, the players, and the interaction of the two, leaders can appropriately assess a situation. With this information, they can define the type of leadership that is required to successfully meet a goal. Additionally, leaders can determine how transparent they should be based on the situation, inclusive of the followership. All of this processing can happen in an instant.

The purpose of the study was to advance authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity. Given the results showed, generally, a linearly progressive relationship between leader transparency and followers' confidence in them, more data are required to fully validate a situational transparency model. While Leader-Member Exchange did not prove to be a moderator, it was close to being significant when looking at the majority of participants based in North America. Additional situations, with a similar research design, should be added to provide more information on the effect of leader-Member Exchange, and the impact of leader transparency on follower confidence.

REFERENCES

Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J. (2014). Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies. *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(4), 351-371. doi:10.1177/1094428114547952

Aguinis, H., & Edwards, J. R. (2014). Methodological wishes for the next decade and how to make wishes come true. *Journal of Management Studies, 5*1(1), 143-174. doi:10.1111/joms.12058

Aguinis, H., & Lawal, S. O. (2012). Conducting field experiments using eLancing's natural environment. Journal of Business Venturing, 27(4), 493-505, https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2012.01.002

Aguinis, H., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2014). An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure: Improving research quality before data collection. Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol. Organ. Behav., 1(1), 569-595, https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091231

Allen, D. G., Hancock, J. I., Vardaman, J. M., & Mckee, D. L. N. (2014). Analytical mindsets in turnover research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(S1), S61-S86. doi:10.1002/job.1912.

Appelbaum, S. H., Everard, A., & Hung, L. T. S. (1999). Strategic downsizing: Critical success factors. *Management Decision*, *37*(7), 535−552, https://doi.org/10.1108/00251749910285674

Artman, H. (2000). Team situation assessment and information distribution. *Ergonomics*, *43*(8), 1111–1128. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Henrik_Artman/publication/12347389_Team_situati on_assessment_and_information_distribution/links/00b7d527cf59e6ddcd000000/Team-situation-assessment-and-information-distribution.pdf

Attributes. (n.d.). In *Dictionary.com.* Retrieved from http://www.dictionary.com/browse/attribute

Atzmüller, C., & Steiner, P. M. (2010). Experimental vignette studies in survey research methodology. *European Journal of Research Methods for the Behavioral and Social Sciences*, *6*(3), 128-138. http://dx.doi.org/10.1027/1614-2241/a000014

Authenticity. (n.d.). In *Dictionary.com.* Retrieved from http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/authenticity?s=t

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 315-338. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.001

Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2007). Authentic leadership questionnaire. Retrieved from https://www.mindgarden.com/69-authentic-leadership-questionnaire

Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *15*(6), 801-823. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.09.003

Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2006). *The high impact leader: Moments matter for accelerating authentic leadership development.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2004). *Authentic leadership: Theory building for veritable sustained performance.* Lincoln, NE: The Gallup Leadership Institute. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.001

Baker, C. (1980). The Vroom-Yetton model of leadership—model, theory or technique. *Omega*, *8*(1), 9-10, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0305-0483(80)90035-3

Banbury, S., & Tremblay, S. (2004). *A cognitive approach to situation awareness: Theory and application*. Aldershot, UK: Ashgate.

Barger, P. B., & Sinar, E. F. (2011). Psychological data from Amazon. com's MTurk: Rapid and inexpensive–but high-quality. In Poster presented at the 26th Annual Conference for the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Chicago, IL.

Barnett, T. (2010). *Leadership theories and studies*. Retrieved from http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/management/Int-Loc/Leadership-Theories-and-Studies.html

Barger, P., Behrend, T. S., Sharek, D. J., & Sinar, E. F. (2011). IO and the crowd: Frequently asked questions about using Mechanical Turk for research. *The Industrial-Organizational Psychologist*, *49*(2), 11-17. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Tara_Behrend/publication/262300488_I-O_and_the_crowd_Frequently_asked_questions_about_using_Mechanical_Turk_for_research/links/584048d908ae8e63e61f7b85/I-O-and-the-crowd-Frequently-asked-questions-about-using-Mechanical-Turk-for-research.pdf

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *51*(6), 1173, http://dx.doi.org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173

Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2009). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.

Begley, P. T. (2001). In pursuit of authentic school leadership practices. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *4*(4), 353-365. doi:10.1080/13603120110078043

Behrend, T. S., Sharek, D. J., Meade, A. W. & Wiebe, E. N. (2011). The viability of crowdsourcing for survey research. *Behavior Research Methods*, *43*, 1–14,
https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.3758/s13428-011-0081-0

Bennis, W. (1989). *Why leaders can't lead*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bennis, W. G., & Townsend, R. (1995). *Reinventing leadership.* New York, NY: Collins Business Essential.

Bhindi, N., & Duignan, P. (1997). Leadership for a new century: Authenticity, intentionality, spirituality, and sensibility. *Educational Management and Administration*, *25*(2), 117–132, https://doi.org/10.1177/0263211X97252002

Blake, R. R., Mouton, J. S., & Bidwell, A. C. (1962). Managerial grid. Advanced Management-Office Executive. ISBN: 0872014746 9780872014749

Bowling, A. (1997) *Research methods in health*. Buckingham, PA: Open University Press.

Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *6*, 3–5. doi:10.1177/1745691610393980

Burke, R. J., & Wilcox, D. S. (1969). Effects of different patterns and degrees of openness in superior-subordinate communications on subordinate job satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, *12*, 319−326, https://doi.org/10.5465/255179

Burns, J. M. (1998). Transactional and transforming leadership. *Leading organizations*, *5*(3), 133-134.

Burns, N., & Grove, S. K. (1997). *The practice of nursing research conduct, critique, & utilization*. Philadelphia, PA: W.B. Saunders and Co.

Carsten, M., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B., Patera, J., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring Social Constructions of Followership: A Qualitative Study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 543-562, https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.015

Cascio, W. F., & Wynn, P. (2004). Managing a downsizing process. *Human Resource Management*, *43*(4), 425−436, http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20034

Casper, W. J., Eby, L. T., Bordeaux, C., Lockwood, A., & Lambert, D. (2007). A review of research methods in IO/OB work-family research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 28, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.28

Carlyle, T. (2003). *On heroes, hero-worship and the heroic in history*. New York, NY: Kessinger. (Original work published 1897).

Cobb, R. W., & Elder, C. D. (1971). The politics of agenda-building: An alternative perspective for modern democratic theory. *The Journal of Politics, 33*(4), 892-915, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2128415

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.

Conger, J. A. (1992). *Learning to lead: The art of transforming managers into leaders*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Connell, J., Ferres, N., & Travaglione, T. (2003). Engendering trust in manager-subordinate relationships: Predictors and outcomes. *Personnel Review*, *32*(5), 569−587, https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1108/00483480310488342

Cook, T. D., Campbell, D. T., & Shadish, W. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Cooper, T. L., & Yoder, D. E. (2002). Public management ethics standards in a transnational world. Public Integrity, 4(4), 333-352, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15580989.2002.11770926

Cooper, C. D., Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2005), Looking forward but learning from our past: Potential challenges to developing authentic leadership theory and authentic leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*, 475-493. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.008

Corbitt, G., & Martz, B. (2003). Groupware case studies: Trust, commitment, and the free expression of ideas. *Team Performance Management*, *9*(1/2), 16−22, https://doi-org.lib.pepperdine.edu/10.1108/13527590310468024

Costa, A. C. (2003). Work team trust and effectiveness. *Personnel Review*, *32(*5), 605−622. doi:10.1108/00483480310488360

Coyle, P. T., & Foti, R. (2015). If you’re not with me you’re...? Examining prototypes and cooperation in leader–follower relationships. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *22*, 161-174. doi:10.1177/1548051814550830

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., Fetters, M. D., & Ivankova, N. V. (2004). Designing a mixed methods study in primary care. *The Annals of Family Medicine*, *2*(1), 7-12, http://dx.doi.org/10.1370/afm.104

Cronbach, L. J., & Meehl, P. E. (1955). Construct validity in psychological tests. *Psychological bulletin, 52*(4), 281, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0040957

Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13*(1), 46-78. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(75)90005-7

DeMeuse, K. P., Vanderheiden, P. A., & Bergmann, T. J. (1994). Announced layoffs: Their effect on corporate financial performance. *Human Resource Management*, *33*(4), 509−530, https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.3930330403

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*, 611−628. http://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0021-9010.87.4.611

Duignan, P. A., & Bhindi, N. (1997). Authenticity in leadership: An emerging perspective. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *35*(3), 195-209. doi:10.1108/09578239710170119

Ehret, M. G. (2016). *Common strategies and practices of authentic senior leaders*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Proquest Dissertations and Theses. UMI Number: 10152947.

Endsley, M. R. (1995a). "Measurement of situation awareness in dynamic systems". Human Factors. 37 (1): 65–84. doi:10.1518/001872095779049499.

Endsley, M. R. (1995b). "Toward a theory of situation awareness in dynamic systems". Human Factors. 37 (1): 32–64. doi:10.1518/001872095779049543

Endsley, M. R., & Garland, D. J. (2000). Theoretical underpinnings of situation awareness: A critical review. Situation awareness analysis and measurement, 1, 24.

Endsley, M. R. & Jones, W.M. (1997). *Situation awareness, information dominance, and information warfare* (No. AL/CF-TR-1997-0156). Wright-Patterson AFB, OH: United States Air Force Armstrong Laboratory

Engle, E. M., & Lord, R. G. (1997). Implicit theories, self-schemas, and leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, *40*(4), 988-1010, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/256956

Erickson, R. J. (1995). Our society, our selves: Becoming authentic in an inauthentic world. *Advanced Development Journal*, *6*(1), 27-39. Retrieved from http://www.gifteddevelopment.com/products/volume-6-becoming-authentic

Faia, M. A. (1980). The vagaries of the vignette world: A comment on Alves and Rossi. *American Journal of Sociology*, *85*(4), 951-954.

Fernandez, C. F., & Vecchio, R. P. (1997). Situational leadership theory revisited: A test of an across-jobs perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *8*(1), 67-84. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(97)90031-X

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Ford, J., & Harding, N. (2011). The impossibility of the "true self" of authentic leadership. *Leadership*, *7*(4), 463-479. doi:10.1177/1742715011416894

Gangestad, S. W., & Snyder, M. (2000). Self-monitoring: Appraisal and reappraisal. *Psychological Bulletin*, *126*(4), 530-555. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.126.4.530

Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). "Can you see the real me?" A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *16*(3), 343-372. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.003

Gardner, W. L., Cogliser, C. C., Davis, K. M., & Dickens, M. P. (2011). Authentic leadership: A review of the literature and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*(6), 1120-1145. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.09.007

George, B. (2003). *Authentic leadership: Rediscovering the secrets to creating lasting value*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

George, B. (2016). The truth about authentic leaders. *Harvard Business School Working Knowledge.* Retrieved from https://hbswk.hbs.edu/item/the-truth-about-authentic-leaders

George, B., & Sims, P. (2007). *True north: Discover your authentic leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*(6), 827-844. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.827

Graen, G. B. (1976). Role making processes within complex organizations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1201-1245). Chicago, IL: Rand-McNally.

Graen, G., & Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role-making model of leadership in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership Frontiers* (pp. 143-165). Kent, OH: Kent State University .

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6*(2), 219-247. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5

Grant, A. (2016). *The dangers of being authentic*. Retrieved from https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/dangers-being-authentic-adam-grant/

Grant, A. M., & Wall, T. D. (2009). The neglected science and art of quasi-experimentation: Why-to, when-to, and how-to advice for organizational researchers. Organizational Research Methods, 12(4), 653-686, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1094428108320737

Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership*. Retrieved from http://www.american.edu/spa /leadership/application/upload/Greenleaf,%20Servant%20Leadership.pdf

Greenwald, A. G., & Banaji, M. R. (1995). Implicit social cognition: Attitudes, self-esteem, and stereotypes. *Psychological Review*, *102*(1), 4, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.102.1.4

Greenwald, A. G., McGhee, D. E., & Schwartz, J. L. (1998). Measuring individual differences in implicit cognition: the implicit association test. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*(6), 1464-1480. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.74.6.1464

Grégoire, G. (2014). Multiple linear regression. *European Astronomical Society Publications Series*, *66*, 45-72, http://dx.doi.org/10.1051/eas/1466005

Gross, C. U. (2002). Managing communication within virtual intercultural teams. *Business Communication Quarterly*, *65*(4), 22−38, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/108056990206500404

Gross, J., & Kientz, S. (1999). Collaborating for authentic learning. *Teacher Librarian*, *27*(1), 21-25. Retrieved from http://www.teacherlibrarian.com

Halpin, A. (1957). *Manual for the leader behavior description questionnaire*. Retrieved from https://fisher.osu.edu/supplements/10/2862/1957%20LBDQ%20MANUAL.pdf

Haney, W. V. (1967). *Communication and organizational behavior: Text and cases* (2nd ed.). Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin

Hauenstein, N., & Foti, R. J. (1989). From laboratory to practice: Neglected issues in implementing frame-of-reference rater training. *Personnel Psychology*, *42*(2), 359-378, http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1989.tb00663.x

Hayes, A. F. (2017). I*ntroduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: Guilford.

Henderson, J. E., & Hoy, W. K. (1983). Leader authenticity: The development and test of an operational measure. *Educational and Psychological Research, 3*(2), 63-75. Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED219408

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Highhouse, S. (2009). Designing experiments that generalize. Organizational Research Methods, 12(3), 554-566, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1094428107300396

Hoption, C., Christie, A., & Barling, J. (2015). Submitting to the follower label. Zeitschrift für Psychologie, http://dx.doi.org/10.1027/2151-2604/a000116

Hughes, L.W. (2005). The spirit of GIVE: Relational transparency and humor in authentic leader-follower relationships. In W.L. Gardner & B.J. Avolio (Eds.), *Authentic leadership development: Monographs in leadership and management series* (vol. 3), Boston, MA: Elsevier, JAI Press.

Hughes, R., & Huby, M. (2012). The construction and interpretation of vignettes in social research. *Social Work and Social Sciences Review*, *11*(1), 36-51, http://dx.doi.org/10.1921/17466105.11.1.36

Hutchison, S., Valentino, K. E., & Kirkner, S. L. (1998). What works for the gander does not work as well for the goose: The effects of leader behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *28*(2), 171-182. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.1998.tb01699.x

Ibarra, H. (1999). Provisional selves: Experimenting with image and identity in professional adaptation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *44*(4), 764-791, http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2667055

Ilies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: Understanding leader–follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 373-394. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.002

Ipeirotis, P. (2010). *Demographics of mechanical turk*. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/2451/29585

Kay, B., & Christophel, D. M. (1995). The relationships among manager communication openness, nonverbal immediacy, and subordinate motivation. *Communication Research Reports, 12*, 200−205, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08824099509362057

Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological Inquiry, 14*, 1-26. doi:10.1207/S15327965PLI1401_01

Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2006). A multicomponent conceptualization of authenticity: Theory and research. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 38,* 283-235. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(06)38006-9

Klauss, R., & Bass, B. M. (1982). *Interpersonal communication in organizations*. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Kinicki, A. J., Hom, P. W., Trost, M. R., & Wade, K. J. (1995). Effects of category prototypes on performance-rating accuracy. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80(3), 354, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.3.354

Kotter, J. P. (1996). *Leading change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Korsgaard, M. A., Brodt, S. E., & Whitener, E. M. (2002). Trust in the face of conflict: The role of managerial trustworthy behavior and organizational context. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 312−319, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.2.312

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1987). *The leadership challenge: How to get extraordinary things done in organizations.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kozlowski, S. W., & Doherty, M. L. (1989). Integration of climate and leadership: Examination of a neglected issue. Journal of applied psychology, 74(4), 546, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.4.546

Kübler-Ross, E. (2009). *On death and dying: What the dying have to teach doctors, nurses, clergy and their own families*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Lanza, M. L., & Carifio, J. (1992). Use of a panel of experts to establish validity for patient assault vignettes. Evaluation Review, 16(1), 82-92, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0193841X9201600106

Lewin, K. (1939). Field theory and experiment in social psychology: Concepts and methods. *American Journal of Sociology*, *44*(6), 868-896. doi:10.1086/218177

Lewin, K., Lippit, R. and White, R.K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology, 10*, 271-301, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00224545.1939.9713366

Lewis, H. S. (1974). *Leaders and followers: Some anthropological perspectives* (No. 50). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Stilwell, D. (1993). A longitudinal study on the early development of leader-member exchanges. Journal of applied psychology, 78(4), 662, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.4.662

Likert, R. (1932). A technique for the measurement of attitudes. *Archives of Psychology*, *22*(140), 55.

Likert, R. (1961). *New patterns of management*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill

Likert, R. (1967). *The human organization: Its management and value*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 78*(3), 167-203, http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1999.2832

Luthans F., & Avolio B. (2003). Authentic leadership: A positive developmental approach. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline* (pp. 241-258). San Francisco, CA: Barrett-Koehler.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(3), 709−734, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1995.9508080335

Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. (2005). Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal, 48*(5), 874−888, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.18803928

Mendenhall, M. E., Osland, J., Bird, A., Oddou, G. R., Stevens, M. J., Maznevski, M. L., & Stahl, G. K. (Eds.). (2017). *Global leadership: Research, practice, and development*. London, UK: Routledge.

Meyerson, D., Weick, K. E., & Kramer, R. M. (1996). Swift trust and temporary groups. Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research, 166, 195, http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781452243610.n9

Merket, D., Bergondy, M., & Cuevas-Mesa, H. (1997). Making sense out of teamwork errors in complex environments. In 18th Annual Industrial/Organizational Behavior Conference, Roanoke, VA.

Miller, K. D., & Tsang, E. W. (2011). Testing management theories: critical realist philosophy and research methods. Strategic Management Journal, 32(2), 139-158. doi: 10.1002/smj.868

Mullaney, A. (1989). Downsizing: How one hospital responded to decreasing demand. *Health Care Management Review, 14,* 41−48, http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00004010-198922000-00006

Myers, S. A., Knox, R. L., Pawlowski, D. R., & Ropog, B. L. (1999). Perceived communication openness and functional communication skills among organizational peers. *Communication Reports*, *12*(2), 71−83, https://doi.org/10.1080/08934219909367712

Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2010). The impact of positivity and transparency on trust in leaders and their perceived effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(3), 350-364. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.002

Northouse, P. (2008). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1967). *Psychometric theory* (Vol. 226). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P. G. (2010). Running experiments on Amazon Mechanical Turk. *Judgment and Decision Making, 5*, 411–419. Retrieved from https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1626226

Parke, H. W., & Wormell, D. E. W. (1956). *The Delphic oracle.* London, UK: Blackwell.

Parkinson, B., & Manstead, A. S. (1993). Making sense of emotion in stories and social life. Cognition & Emotion, 7(3-4), 295-323, http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02699939308409191

Pizarro, D. A., Uhlmann, E., & Bloom, P. (2003). Causal deviance and the attribution of moral responsibility. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 39(6), 653-660. doi:10.1016/S0022-1031(03)00041-6

Podsakoff, P. M., & Dalton, D. R. (1987). Research methodology in organizational studies. *Journal of Management*, *13*(2), 419-441, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/014920638701300213

Podsakoff, N. P., Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Maynes, T. D., & Spoelma, T. M. (2014). Consequences of unit-level organizational citizenship behaviors: A review and recommendations for future research. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35(S1), https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1911

Pontin, J. (2007, March 25). Artificial intelligence: With help from the humans. *The New York Times.* Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2007/03/25/business/yourmoney/25Stream.html.

Richards, L., & Morse, J. (2013). *README FIRST for a user's guide to qualitative methods* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Ricoeur, P. (1986). Life: A story in search of a narrator. In M. C. Doeser & J. N. Kraay (Eds.), *Facts and values* (pp. 121-132). Netherlands: Springer Netherlands. doi:10.1007/978-94-009-4454-1_9

Rogers, D. P. (1987). The development of a measure of perceived communication openness. *The Journal of Business Communication, 24*(4), 53−61, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/002194368702400404

Rome, B., & Rome, S. (1967). Humanistic research on large social organizations. In J. F. T. Bugental (Ed.), *Challenges of Humanistic Psychology* (pp. 181-193). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Ross, J., Zaldivar, A., Irani, L., & Tomlinson, B. (2010, April). *Who are the cowdworkers? Shifting demographics in Mechanical Turk.* Atlanta, GA: Presented at the Annual CHI Conference.

Rossi, P. H. (1979). 14. Vignette analysis: uncovering the normative structure of complex judgments. Qualitative and quantitative social research: Papers in honor of Paul F. Lazarsfeld, 176.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review, 23*, 393−404, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1998.926617

Ryan, C. L., & Bauman, K. (2016). Educational attainment in the United States: 2016. Washington, DC: US Census Bureau, P20-578.

Scandura, T. A., & Graen, G. B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader–member exchange status on the effects of a leadership intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *69*(3), 428, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.428

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *3*(1), 71-92. doi:10.1023/A:1015630930326

Schnackenberg, A. K., & Tomlinson, E. C. (2016). Organizational transparency: A new perspective on managing trust in organization-stakeholder relationships. Journal of Management, 42(7), 1784-1810, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206314525202

Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). “What's your story?” A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *16*(3), 395-417. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.005

Sniderman, P. M., & Grob, D. B. (1996). Innovations in experimental design in attitude surveys. Annual review of Sociology, 22(1), 377-399, http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.22.1.377

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *30*(4), 526, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0037039

Snyder, M. (1987). *Public appearances, Private realities: The psychology of self-monitoring*. New York, NY: Henry Holt.

Spector, P. E. (1981). *Research designs* (Vol. 23). Sage.

Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *The Journal of Psychology*, *25*(1), 35-71. doi:10.1080/00223980.1948.9917362

Stone, A., & Patterson, K. (2005). The history of leadership focus. Servant Leadership Research Roundtable. Retrieved from https://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/2005/stone_history.pdf

Sy, T. (2010). What do you think of followers? Examining the content, structure, and consequences of implicit followership theories. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *113*(2), 73-84, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.06.001

Thanasegaran, G. (2009). Reliability and Validity Issues in Research. *Integration & Dissemination*, *4*, 35-40. Retrieved from http://aupc.info/wp-content/uploads/35-40-ganesh.pdf

Tourish, D., Paulsen, N., Hobman, E., & Bordia, P. (2004). The downsides of downsizing: Communication processes and information needs in the aftermath of a workforce reduction strategy. *Management Communication Quarterly*, *17*(4), 485−516, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0893318903262241

Transparency. (n.d.). In *Dictionary.com.* Retrieved from http://www.dictionary.com/browse/transparency

Turban, D. B., Jones, A. P., & Rozelle, R. M. (1990). Influences of supervisor liking of a subordinate and the reward context on the treatment and evaluation of that subordinate. Motivation and Emotion, 14(3), 215-233, http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF00995570

Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R. E., Lowe, K. B., & Carsten, M. K. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(1), 83-104, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.007

Victor, D. (2010). *Leadership styles and bases of power*. Retrieved From http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/management/Int-Loc/Leadership-Styles-and-Bases-of-Power.html

Vogelgesang, G. R. (2007). *The impact of relational transparency on trust under changing conditions.* Academy of Management National Conference, Philadelphia, PA

Vogelgesang, G. R. (2008). *How leader interactional transparency can impact follower psychological safety and role engagement*. Unpublished Dissertation, University of Nebraska – Lincoln, Lincoln.

Vogelgesang, G. R., & Crossley, C. D. (2006). *Toward an understanding of interactional transparency*. Gallup Leadership Summit Washington, DC.

Vroom, V. H., & Yetton, P. W. (1973). *Leadership and decision-making*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Walker, K., & Pagano, B. (2008). Transparency: The clear path to leadership credibility. *The Linkage Leader*, *1,* 1-5. Retrieved from http://www.transparencyfiji.org/docs/Background%20-%20Transparent%20Leadership.pdf

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management*, *34*(1), 89-126. doi:10.1177/0149206307308913

Wayne, S. J., & Ferris, G. R. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(5), 487, http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.5.487

Weiss, W. H. (2002). Organizing for quality, productivity, and job satisfaction. *Supervision, 63*(2), 13−15.

Whitehead, G. (2009). Adolescent leadership development: Building a case for an authenticity framework. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership, 37,* 847-872. doi:10.1177/1741143209345441

Whiteley, P., Sy, T., & Johnson, S. K. (2012). Leaders' conceptions of followers: Implications for naturally occurring Pygmalion effects. The Leadership Quarterly, 23(5), 822-834. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.03.006

Whitener, E., Brodt, S., Korsgaard, M. A., & Werner, J. (1998). Managers as initiators of trust: An exchange relationship framework for understanding managerial trustworthy behavior. *Academy of Management Review, 23,* 513−530, http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1998.926624

VanVoorhis, C. W., & Morgan, B. L. (2007). Understanding power and rules of thumb for determining sample sizes. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology, 3*(2), 43-50, https://doi.org/10.20982/tqmp.03.2.p043

Wilson, D. O., & Malik, S. D. (1995). Looking for a few good sources: Exploring the intraorganizational communication linkages of first line managers. *Journal of Business Communication, 32*, 31−48, http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/002194369503200102

Wren, J. T. (1995). *Leader's companion: Insights on leadership through the ages*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Zizzo, D. J. (2010). Experimenter demand effects in economic experiments. *Experimental Economics*, *13*(1), 75-98, http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10683-009-9230-z

Zaleznik, A. (2009). Managers and leaders: Are they different*? Harvard Business Review,* 55(3), 67-78, http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00005110-198107000-00005

APPENDIX A

Additional Tables and Figures

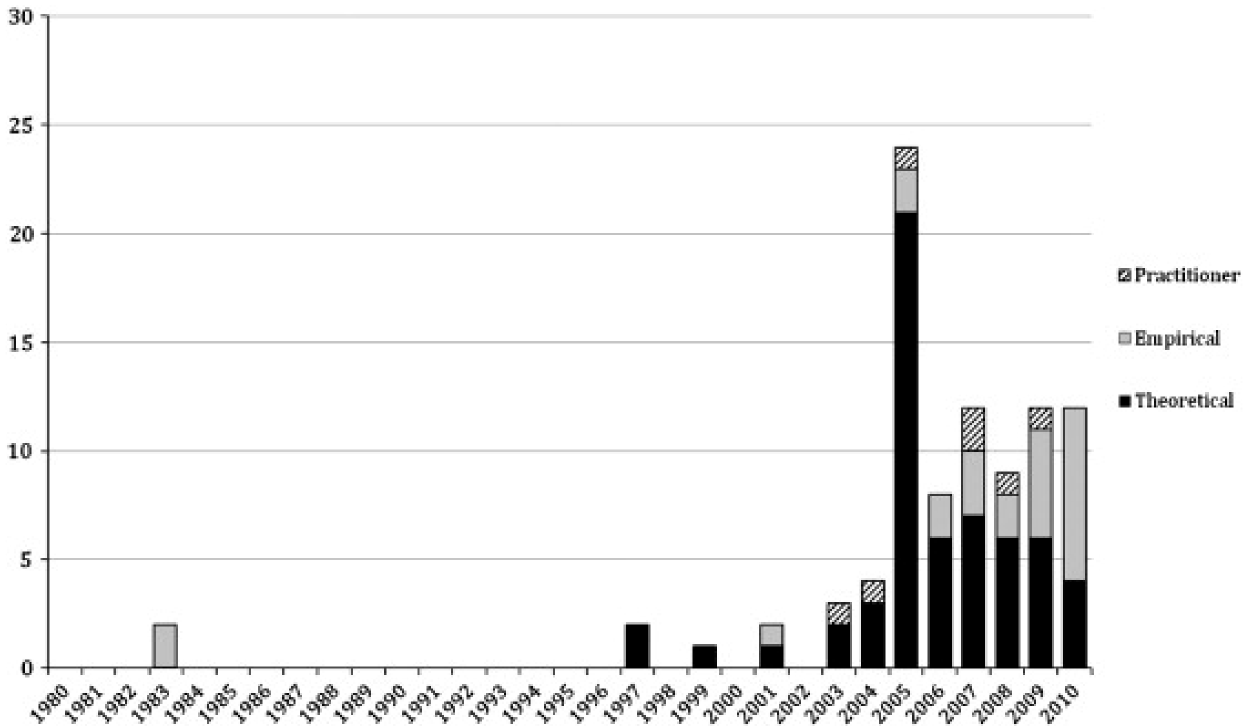


Figure 12. Number of authenticity theoretical, empirical, and practitioner publications by year. From "Authentic Leadership: A Review of the Literature and Research Agenda," by W. L. Gardner, C. C. Cogliser, K. M. Davis, and M. P. Dickens, 2011, *The Leadership Quarterly, 22,* p. 1125. Copyright 2011 by the Authors.

Table 15

Definitions of Authentic Leaders and Authentic Leadership

Source	Definition
Rome and Rome (1967 p.185)	"A hierarchical organization, in short, like an individual person, is 'authentic' to the extent that, throughout its leadership, it accepts finitude, uncertainty, and contingency; realizes its capacity for responsibility and choice; acknowledges guilt and errors; fulfills its creative managerial potential for flexible planning, growth, and charter or policy formation; and responsibly participates in the wider community."
Henderson and Hoy (1983, p. 67-68)	"Leadership authenticity is therefore defined as the extent to which subordinates perceive their leader to demonstrate the acceptance of organizational and personal responsibility for actions, outcomes, and mistakes; to be non-manipulating of subordinates; and to exhibit salience of self over role. Leadership inauthenticity is defined as the extent to which subordinates perceive their leader to be 'passing the buck' and blaming others and circumstances for errors and outcomes; to be manipulative of subordinates; and to be demonstrating a salience of role over self."
Bhindi and Duignan (1997, p.119)	"In this article the authors argue for authentic leadership based on: authenticity, which entails the discovery of the authentic self through meaningful relationships within organizational structures and processes that support core, significant values; intentionality, which implies visionary leadership that takes its energy and direction from the good intentions of current organizational members who put their intellects, hearts and souls into shaping a vision for the future; a renewed commitment to spirituality, which calls for the rediscovery of the spirit within each person and celebration of the shared meaning, with purpose of relationship; a sensibility to the feelings, aspirations and needs of others, with special reference to the multicultural settings in which many leaders operate in the light of the increasing globalizing trends in life and work."
Begley (2001, p.153)	"Authentic leadership may be thought of as a metaphor for professionally effective, ethically sound, and consciously reflective practices in educational administration. This is leadership that is knowledge based, values informed, and skillfully executed."
George (2003, p.12)	"Authentic leaders use their natural abilities, but they also recognize their shortcomings, and work hard to overcome them. They lead with purpose, meaning, and values. They build enduring relationships with people. Others follow them because they know where they stand. They are consistent and self-disciplined. When their principles are tested, they refuse to compromise. Authentic leaders are dedicated to developing themselves because they know that becoming a leader takes a lifetime of personal growth."
Luthans and Avolio (2003, p.243)	"[W]e define authentic leadership in organizations as a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development. The authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates into leaders themselves. The authentic leader does not try to coerce or even rationally persuade associates, but rather the leader's authentic values, beliefs, and behaviors serve to model the development of associates."
Avolio, Luthans, et al. (2004, p. 4)	Authentic leaders are "those individuals who know who they are, what they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspective, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, resilient, and of high moral character."
Begley (2001, p. 5)	"Authentic leadership is a function of self-knowledge, sensitivity to the orientations of others, and a technical sophistication that leads to a synergy of leadership action."

(Continued)

Source	Definition
Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005, p. 374)	"Authentic leaders are deeply aware of their values and beliefs, they are self-confident, genuine, reliable and trustworthy, and they focus on building followers' strengths, broadening their thinking and creating a positive and engaging organizational context."
Shamir and Eilam (2005, p. 339)	"[O]ur definition of authentic leaders implies that authentic leaders can be distinguished from less authentic or inauthentic leaders by four self-related characteristics: (continued) 1) the degree of person role merger i.e. the salience of the leadership role in their self-concept, 2) the level of self-concept clarity and the extent to which this clarity centers around strongly held values and convictions, 3) the extent to which their goals are self-concordant, and 4) the degree to which their behavior is consistent with their self-concept."
George and Sims (2007, p. xxxi)	"Authentic leaders are genuine people who are true to themselves and to what they believe in. They engender trust and develop genuine connections with others. Because people trust them, they are able to motivate others to high levels of performance. Rather than letting the expectations of other people guide them, they are prepared to be their own person and go their own way. As they develop as authentic leaders, they are more concerned about serving others than they are about their own success or recognition."
Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008, p. 94)	"[W]e define authentic leadership as a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development."
Whitehead (2009, p. 850)	"In this article, a definition of an authentic leader is adopted as one who: (1) is self-aware, humble, always seeking improvement, aware of those being led and looks out for the welfare of others; (2) fosters high degrees of trust by building an ethical and moral framework; and (3) is committed to organizational success within the construct of social values."

Note. From "Authentic Leadership: A Review of the Literature and Research Agenda," by W. L. Gardner, C. C. Cogliser, K. M. Davis, and M. P. Dickens, 2011, *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*, p. 1121. Copyright 2011 by the Authors.

Table 16

Publication Purpose, Authentic Leadership Centrality, and Theoretical Foundations by Publication Period

	Time period					
	Pre-2003	2003–2004	2005–2006	2007–2008	2009–2010	Total
Publication purpose						
Develop new theory	4	1	2	1	1	9
Extend/link theory	3	4	27	15	19	68
Contradict/critique theory	0	1	1	0	1	4
Review/summarize	0	1	2	4	3	10
Is AL central?						
Yes	5	4	24	15	18	66
No	2	3	8	6	6	25
Theoretical foundation						
Authentic leadership theory	0	4	31	20	23	78
Authenticity/self/identity	4	2	9	7	8	30
Affective processes	0	0	3	1	1	5
Attribution theory/social perception	0	0	3	1	0	4
Ethics/values/ethical leadership	3	5	6	3	1	18
Neo-charismatic leadership	1	2	2	0	3	8
Positive psychology/POB/POS[a]	0	2	4	2	5	13
Well-being/vital engagement	0	0	3	0	5	8
Other/not applicable	1	0	4	2	2	9

a POB = Positive Organizational Behavior; POS = Positive Organizational Scholarship.

Note. From "Authentic Leadership: A Review of the Literature and Research Agenda," by W. L. Gardner, C. C. Cogliser, K. M. Davis, and M. P. Dickens, 2011, *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*, p. 1127. Copyright 2011 by the Authors.

Table 17

Publication Type by Time Period for Authentic Leadership Publications

	Time period					
Publication type	Pre-2003	2003–2004	2005–2006	2007–2008	2009–2010	Total
Theoretical						
Journal articles	4	4	14	11	8	41
Book chapters	0	1	13	2	2	18
Total	4	5	27	13	10	59
Empirical						
Journal articles	3	0	2	5	13	23
Book chapters	0	0	2	0	0	2
Total	3	0	4	5	13	25
Practitioner						
Journal articles	0	2	1	1	1	5
Book chapters	0	0	0	2	0	2
Total	0	2	1	3	1	7
Grand total	7	7	32	21	24	91

Note. Adapted from “Authentic Leadership: A Review of the Literature and Research Agenda,” by W. L. Gardner, C. C. Cogliser, K. M. Davis, and M. P. Dickens, 2011, *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*, p. 1132. Copyright 2011 by the authors.

Table 18

Foundational Authentic Leadership Citations

Citation	Number of times identified as foundational
Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005)	44
Luthans and Avolio (2003)	43
Avolio and Gardner (2005)	33
Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, and May 2004	32
Bass and Steidlmeier (1999)	23
George (2003)	19
May et al. (2003)	19
Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005)	17
Harter (2002)	15
Shamir and Eilam (2005)	13
Kernis (2003)	11
Avolio, Luthans, and Walumbwa (2004)	10
Burns (1978)	9
Erickson (1995)	9
Luthans (2002a, 2002b)	9
Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008)	9
Avolio and Luthans (2006)	8
Deci and Ryan (1995)	6
Avolio (2005)	5
Bass (1985)	5
Markus and Wurf (1987)	5
87 additional articles	< 5

Note. From “Authentic Leadership: A Review of the Literature and Research Agenda,” by W. L. Gardner, C. C. Cogliser, K. M. Davis, and M. P. Dickens, 2011, *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*, p. 1128. Copyright 2011 by the Authors. Adapted with permission.

Table 19

Summary of Results of Literature Review of Frequency of Use of Experimental Vignette Methodology

Journal	Paper People	PC/CA	Total
1. *Academy of Management Journal*	11	5	16
2. *Academy of Management Review*	0	0	0
3. *Administrative Science Quarterly*	3	0	3
4. *California Management Review*	0	1	1
5. *Decision Sciences*	2	7	9
6. *Group & Organization Management*	5	0	5
7. *Harvard Business Review*	0	0	0
8. *Human Relations*	4	1	5
9. *Human Resource Management*	5	2	7
10. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*	2	0	2
11. *Industrial Relations Journal*	0	0	0
12. *Journal of Applied Psychology*	33	8	41
13. *Journal of Business Research*	12	27	39
14. *Journal of Business Venturing*	1	18	19
15. *Journal of Human Resources*	0	0	0
16. *Journal of International Business Studies*	5	2	7
17. *Journal of Management*	9	5	14
18. *Journal of Management Studies*	2	6	8
19. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*	7	5	12
20. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*	13	3	16
21. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*	3	3	6
22. *Leadership Quarterly*	20	0	20
23. *Management Science*	3	6	9
24. *Monthly Labor Review*	0	0	0
25. *Organization Science*	8	4	12
26. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*	41	18	59
27. *Organizational Research Methods*	0	0	0
28. *Personnel Psychology*	9	2	11
29. *Sloan Management Review*	0	0	0
30. *Strategic Management Journal*	2	5	7
Total	200	128	328

Note: PC/CA ¼ policy capturing/conjoint analysis.

Note. From “Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies,” by Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(4), 351-371Copyright 2014 by the Authors. Reprinted with permission.

Table 20

List of Sources Addressing Experimental Vignette Methodology (EVM)

Type of EVM	Authors	Article's Title
Paper people	Alexander and Becker (1978)	"The Use of Vignettes in Survey Research"
	Atzmüller and Steiner (2010)	"Experimental Vignette Studies in Survey Research"
	Burstin, Doughtie, and Raphaeli (1980)	"Contrastive Vignette Technique: An Indirect Methodology Designed to Address Reactive Social Attitude Measurement"
	Cavanaugh and Fritzsche (1985)	"Using Vignettes in Business Ethics Research"
	Finch (1987)	"The Vignette Technique in Survey Research"
	Ganong and Coleman (2006)	"Multiple Segment Factorial Vignette Designs"
	Hox, Kreft, and Hermkens (1991)	"The Analysis of Factorial Surveys"
	Hughes and Huby (2002)	"The Application of Vignettes in Social and Nursing Research"
	Hyman and Steiner (1996)	"The Vignette Method in Business Ethics Research: Current Uses, Limitations and Recommendations"
	Jasso (2006)	"Factorial Survey Methods for Studying Beliefs and Judgments"
	Ludwick and Zeller (2001)	"The Factorial Survey: An Experimental Method to Replicate Real-World Problems"
	Murphy, Herr, Lockhart, and Maguire (1986)	"Evaluating the Performance of Paper People"
	Sniderman and Grob (1996)	"Innovations in Experimental Design in Attitude Surveys"
	Wason, Polonsky, and Hyman (2002)	"Designing Vignettes Studies in Marketing"
	Weber (1992)	"Scenarios in Business Ethics Research: Review, Critical Assessment and Recommendations"
	Wilks (2004)	"The Use of Vignettes in Qualitative Research Into Social Work Values"
	Woehr and Lance (1991)	"Paper People Versus Direct Observation: An Empirical Examination of Laboratory Methodologies"
Policy capturing and conjoint analysis	Aiman-Smith, Scullen, and Barr (2002)	"Conducting Studies of Decision Making in Organizational Contexts: A Tutorial for Policy-Capturing and Other Regression-Based Techniques"
	Graham and Cable (2001)	"Consideration of the Incomplete Block Design for Policy-Capturing Research"
	Green (1984)	"Hybrid Models for Conjoint Analysis: An Expository Review"
	Green, Krieger, and Wind (2001)	"Thirty Years of Conjoint Analysis: Reflections and Prospects"
	Hobson and Gibson (1983)	"Policy Capturing as an Approach to Understanding and Improving Performance Appraisal: A Review of the Literature"
	Joseph and Chandrasekaran (2013)	"Conjoint Analysis: A Perfect Link Between Marketing and Product Design Functions—A Review"

(Continued)

Type of EVM	Authors	Article's Title
	Karren and Barringer (2002)	"A Review and Analysis of the Policy-Capturing Methodology in Organizational Research: Guidelines for Research and Practice"
	Lohrke, Holloway, and Woolley (2010)	"Conjoint Analysis in Entrepreneurship Research: A Review and Research Agenda"
	Louviere (1988)	"Conjoint Analysis Modelling of Stated Preferences: A Review of Theory, Methods, Recent Developments and External Validity"
	Priem and Harrison (1994)	"Exploring Strategic Judgment: Methods for Testing the Assumptions of Perspective Contingency Theories"
	Priem, Walters, and Li (2011)	"Decisions, Decisions! How Judgment Policy Studies Can Integrate Macro and Micro Domains in Management Research"
	Roehling (1993)	"'Extracting' Policy from Judicial Opinions: The Dangers of Policy Capturing in a Field Setting"
	Shepherd and Zacharakis (1999)	"Conjoint Analysis: A New Methodological Approach for Researching the Decision Policies of Venture Capitalists"
	Slaughter, Richard, and Martin (2006)	"Comparing the Efficacy of Policy-Capturing Weights and Direct Estimates for Predicting Job Choice"

From "Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies," by Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(4), 351-371.

APPENDIX B

IRB Approval

PEPPERDINE

Pepperdine University
24255 Pacific Coast Highway
Malibu, CA 90263
TEL: 310-506-4000

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: February 23, 2018

Protocol Investigator Name: Michael Ehret

Protocol #: 18-01-714

Project Title: Situational Transparency in Global Leadership

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Michael Ehret:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chair

APPENDIX C

Informed Consent

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

SITUATIONAL TRANSPARENCY IN GLOBAL LEADERSHIP

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Michael Ehret, Ed.D. under the direction of Jack McManus, Ph.D. at Pepperdine University, because you have 5 years of work experience, possess an advanced degree, and are fluent in English. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read the consent form. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form. You will also be given a copy of this form for you records.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to create a situational transparency model that helps advance the conceptualization of authentic leadership. This study will examine the degree of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a constant situation with variable Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Gerstner & Day, 1997). By sharing how transparency can affect follower confidence, both theoretical and empirical contributions will be made towards broader leadership theory, situational leadership and awareness, and the study of authenticity in leadership.

STUDY PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a one question survey based on a vignette. The survey will assess your degree of confidence in a hypothetical leader based on the leader's transparency in a given situation. The survey should take no more than 10 minutes and will be conducted using Amazon Mechanical Turk. You are self-selecting to be part of this study, and will be paid $2 for your participation.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no anticipated risks associated with this study.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

While there are no direct benefits to the study participants, there are several anticipated benefits to society which include:

- Advancement of authentic leadership theory with specific focus on situational awareness and transparency as core concepts of authenticity.
- Understanding how transparency can be used to build followership and engagement will help those seeking to improve their leadership.
- Theoretical and practical guidance on how leaders can better understand self and others, communicate more effectively, build teams, manage conflict, and manage performance.

PAYMENT/COMPENSATION FOR PARTICIPATION

You will receive $2 for your participation.

CONFIDENTIALITY

I will keep your records for this study anonymous as far as permitted by law. However, if I am required to do so by law, I may be required to disclose information collected about you.

Pepperdine's University's Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects.

The data will be stored on a password protected computer in the principal investigators place of work. The data will be stored for a minimum of three years. The data collected will be coded and de-identified.

Any identifiable information obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential. Your responses will be coded with a pseudonym and transcript data will be maintained separately. The data will be stored on a password protected computer in the researcher's office for three years after the study has been completed and then destroyed.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

The alternative to participation in the study is not participating or completing only the items which you feel comfortable.

EMERGENCY CARE AND COMPENSATION FOR INJURY

If you are injured as a direct result of research procedures you will receive medical treatment; however, you or your insurance will be responsible for the cost. Pepperdine University does not provide any monetary compensation for injury

INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION

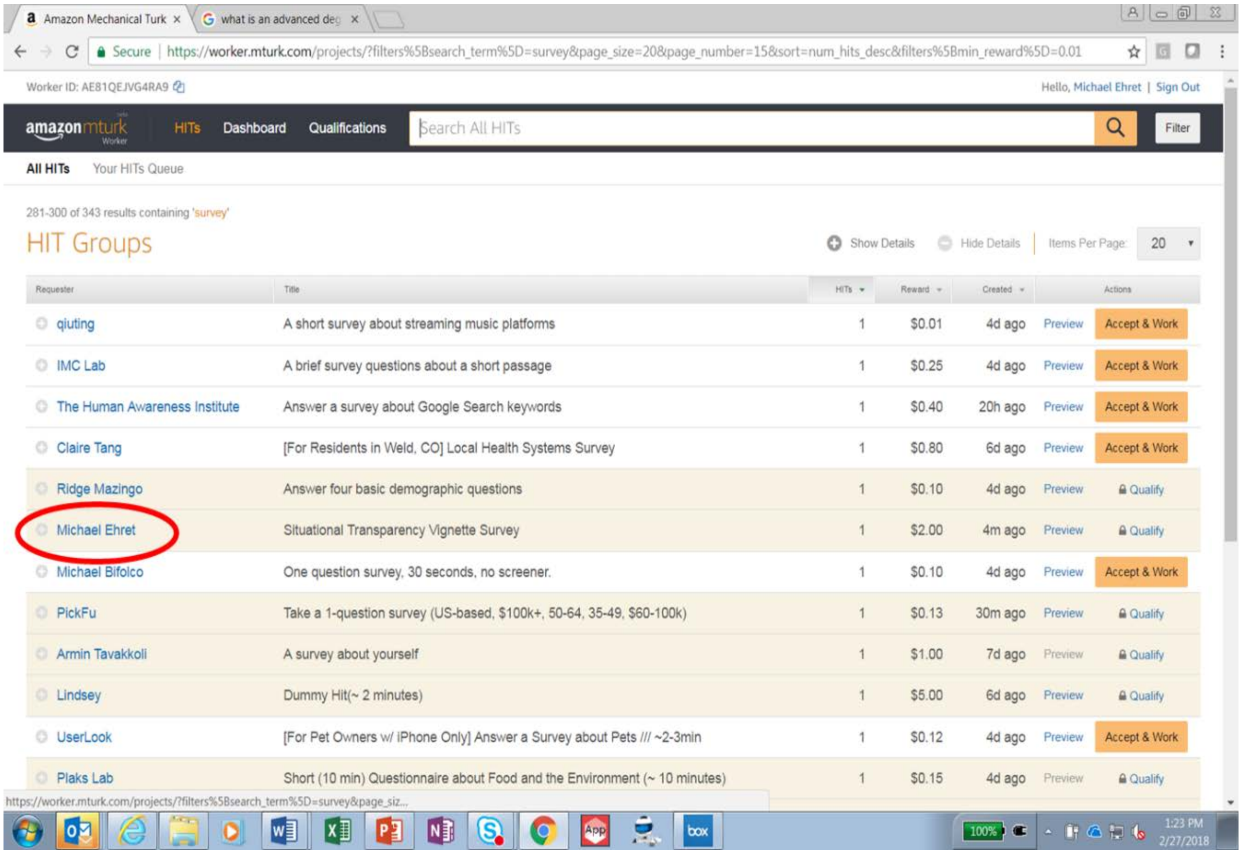
I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Michael Ehret at michael.ehret@pepperdine.edu or Jack McManus jack.mcmanus@pepperdine.edu if you have any other questions or concerns about this research.

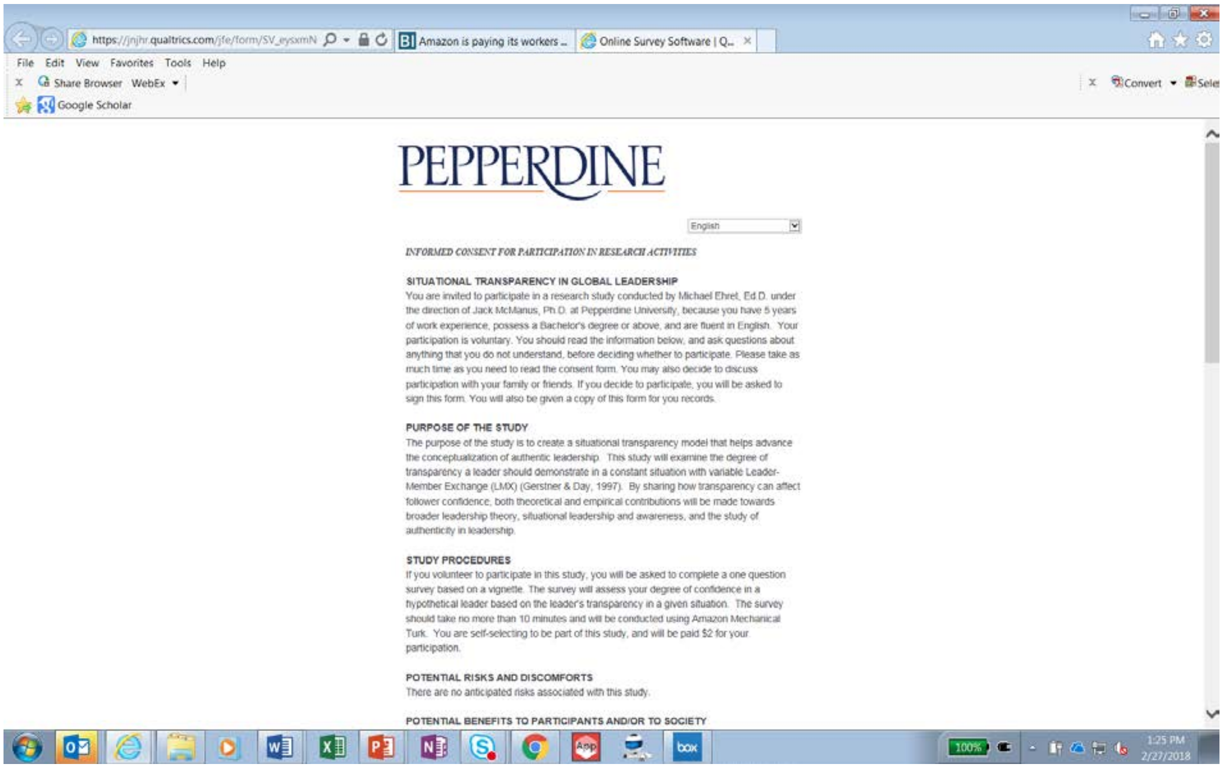
RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500 Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310-568-5753 or gpsirb@pepperdine.edu.

APPENDIX D

Instrumentation Screenshots





PEPPERDINE

English

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

SITUATIONAL TRANSPARENCY IN GLOBAL LEADERSHIP

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Michael Ehret, Ed.D. under the direction of Jack McManus, Ph.D. at Pepperdine University, because you have 5 years of work experience, possess a Bachelor's degree or above, and are fluent in English. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read the consent form. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form. You will also be given a copy of this form for you records.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to create a situational transparency model that helps advance the conceptualization of authentic leadership. This study will examine the degree of transparency a leader should demonstrate in a constant situation with variable Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Gerstner & Day, 1997). By sharing how transparency can affect follower confidence, both theoretical and empirical contributions will be made towards broader leadership theory, situational leadership and awareness, and the study of authenticity in leadership.

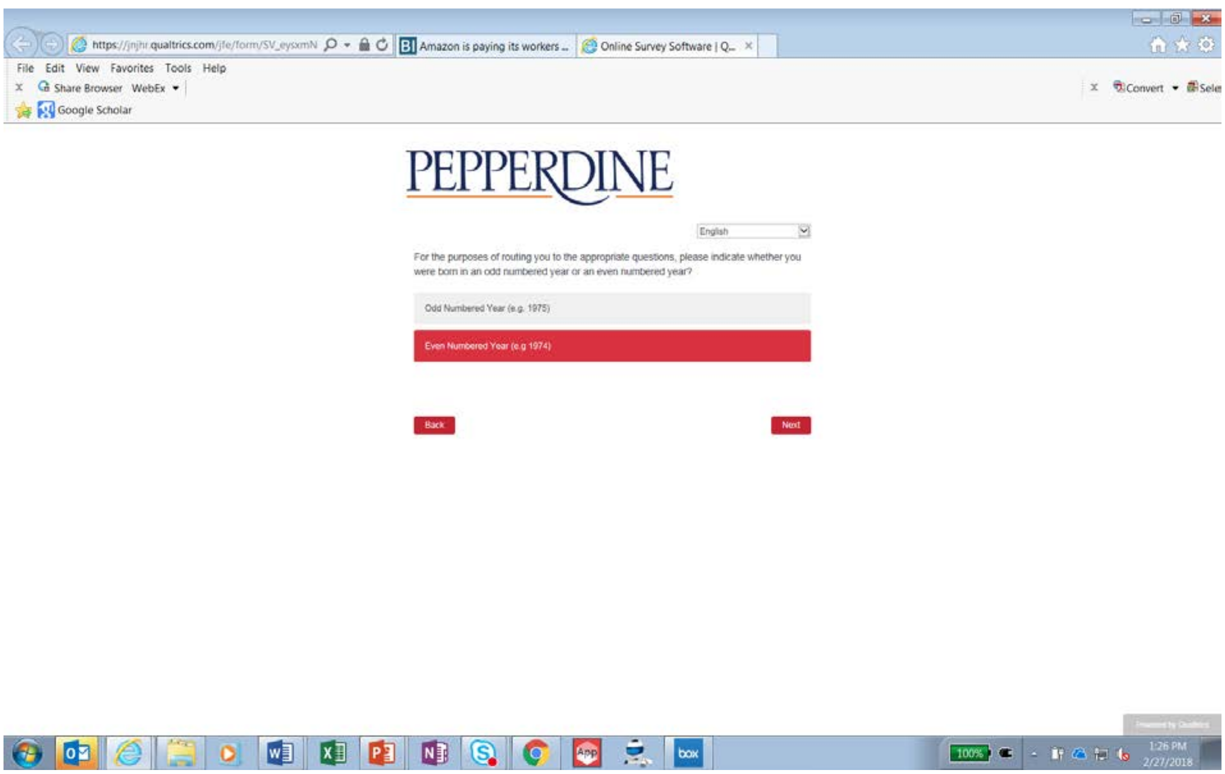
STUDY PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a one question survey based on a vignette. The survey will assess your degree of confidence in a hypothetical leader based on the leader's transparency in a given situation. The survey should take no more than 10 minutes and will be conducted using Amazon Mechanical Turk. You are self-selecting to be part of this study, and will be paid $2 for your participation.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no anticipated risks associated with this study.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO PARTICIPANTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY



PEPPERDINE

English

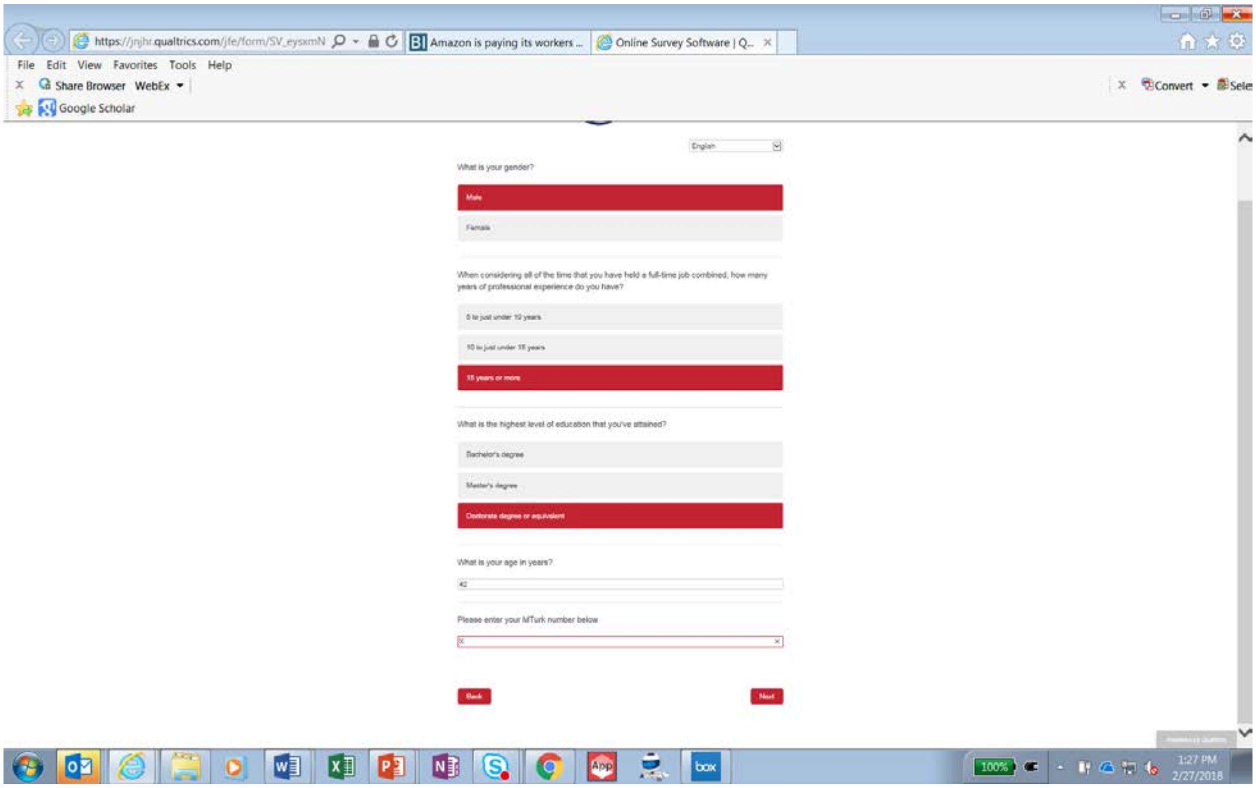
For the purposes of routing you to the appropriate questions, please indicate whether you were born in an odd numbered year or an even numbered year?

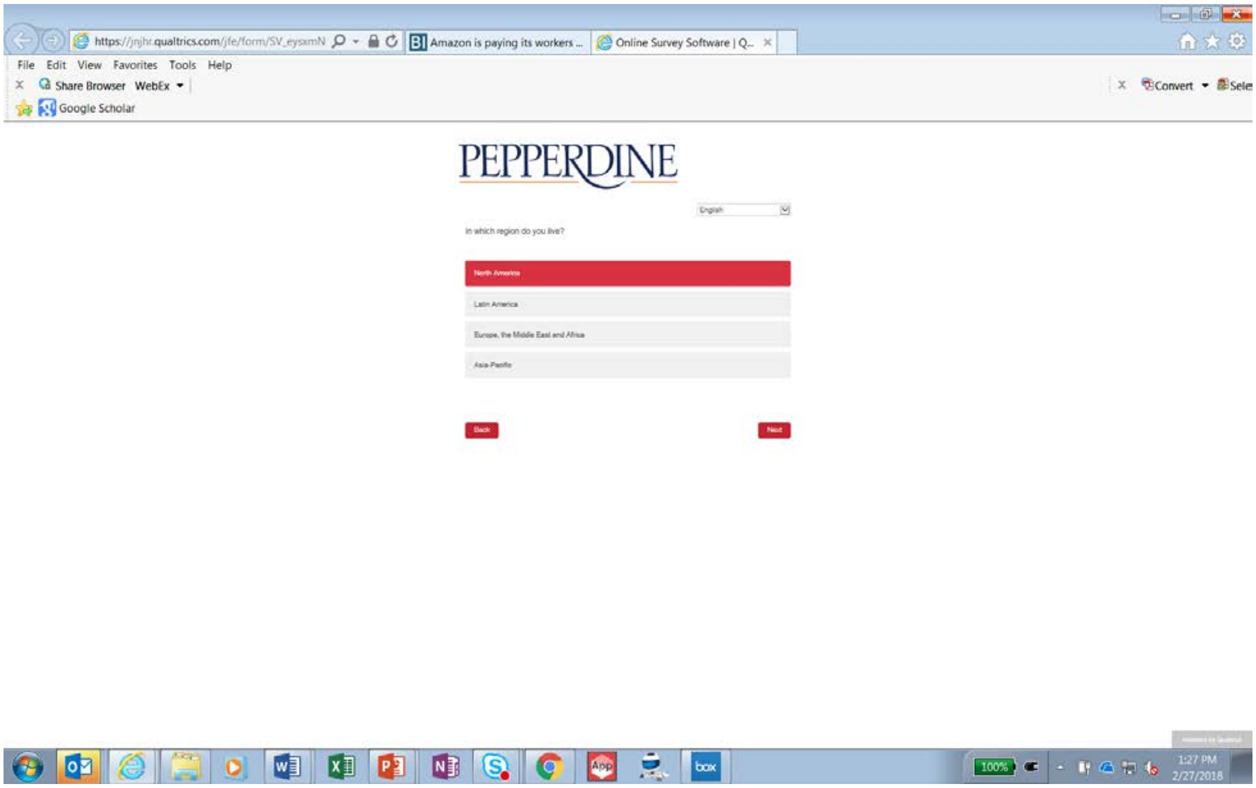
Odd Numbered Year (e.g. 1975)

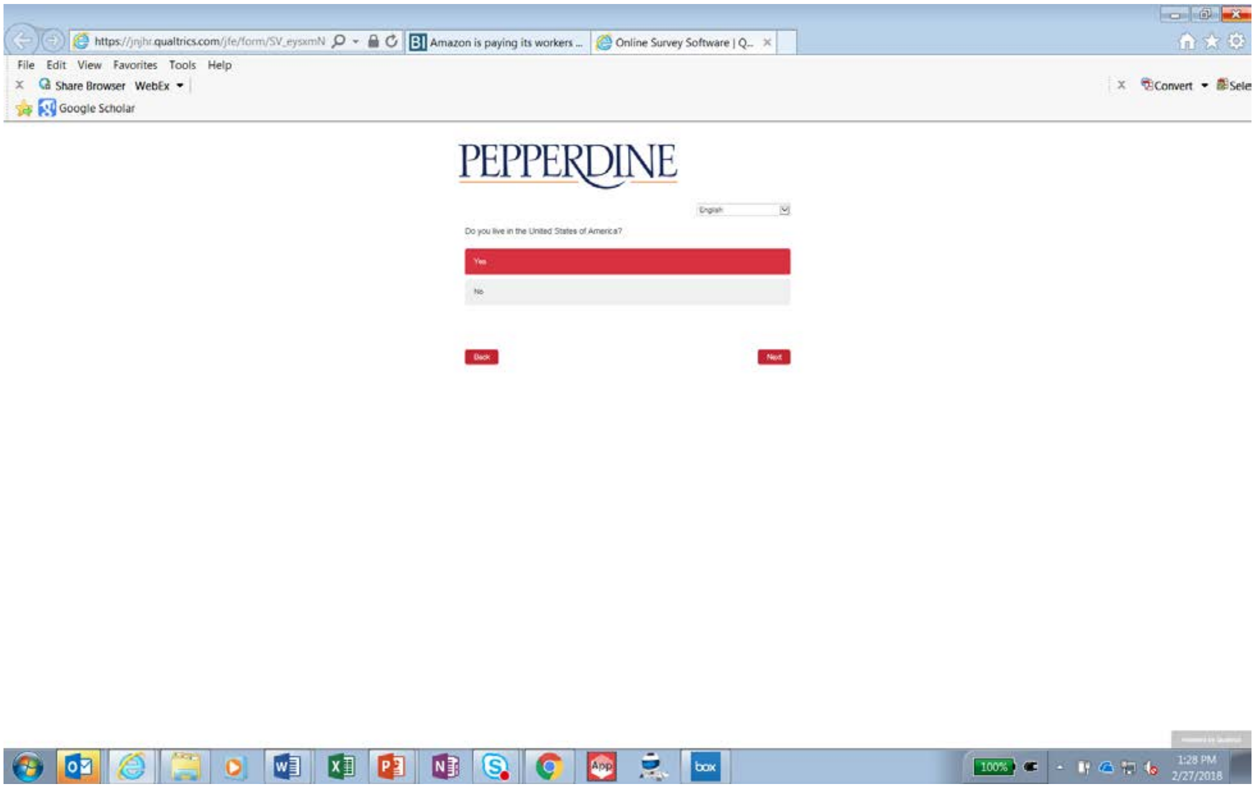
Even Numbered Year (e.g 1974)

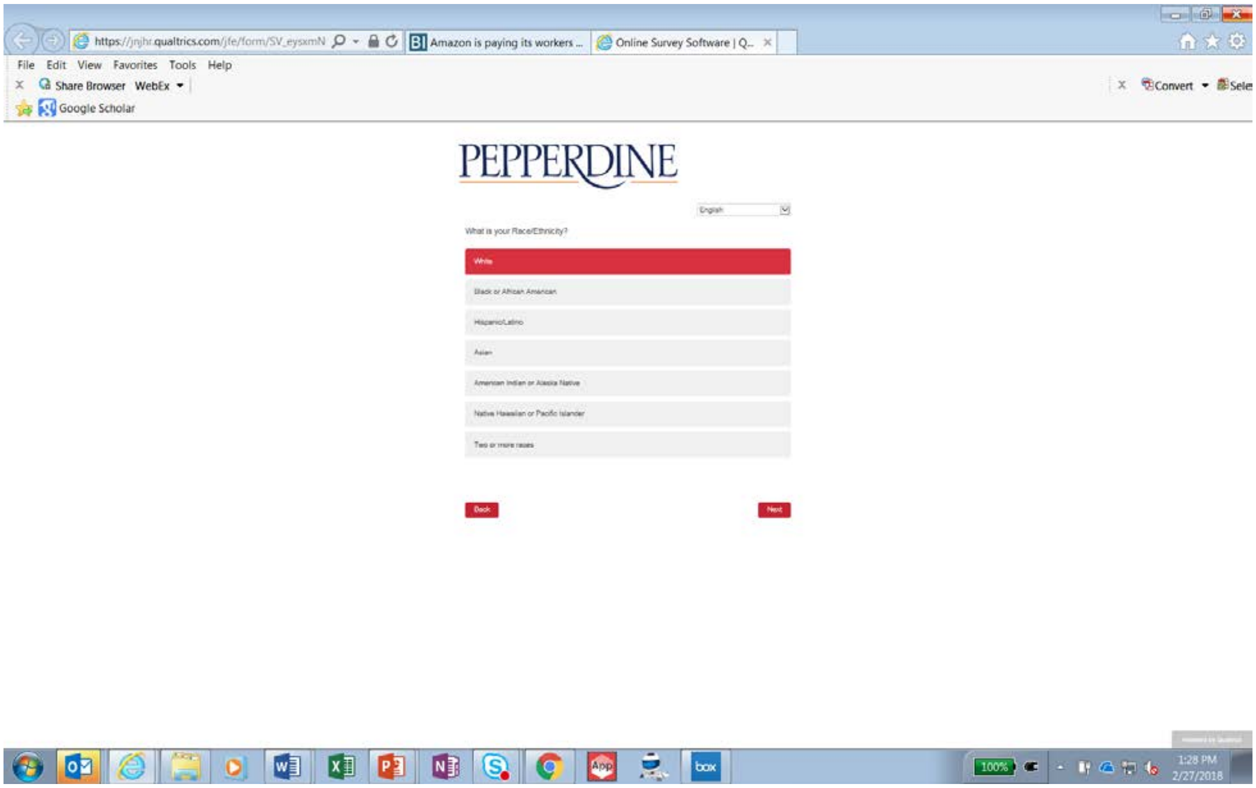
Back

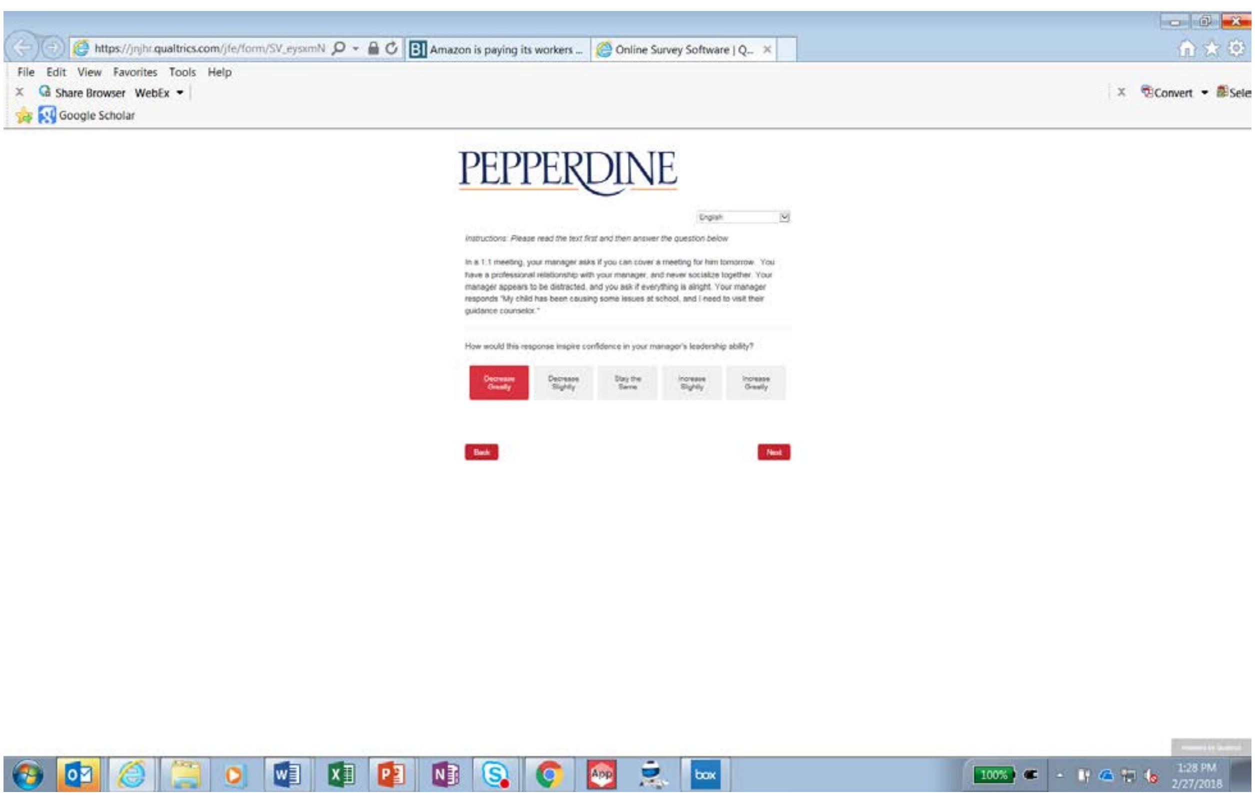
Next

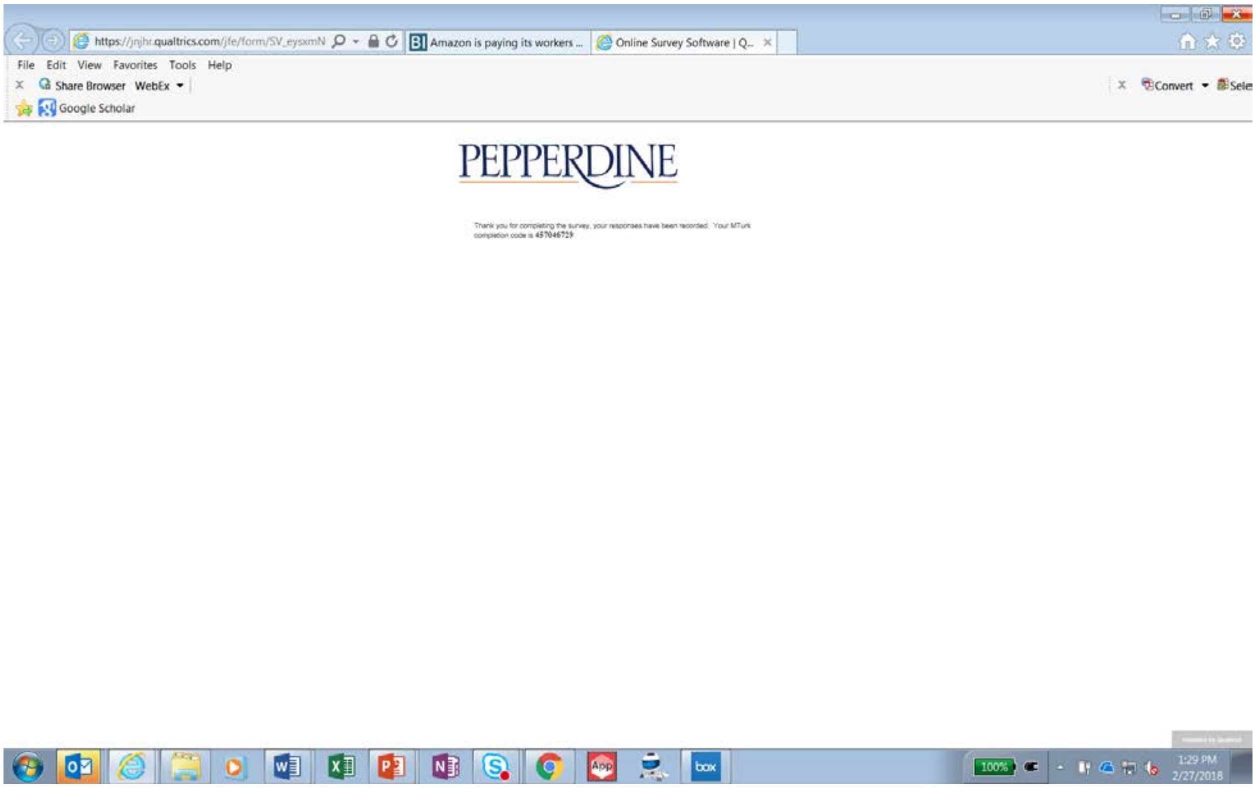

https://jnjhr.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_eysxmN
Amazon is paying its workers ...
Online Survey Software | Q...
File Edit View Favorites Tools Help
Share Browser WebEx
Google Scholar
Convert
What is your gender?
Male
Female
When considering all of the time that you have held a full-time job combined, how many years of professional experience do you have?
5 to just under 10 years
10 to just under 15 years
15 years or more
What is the highest level of education that you've attained?
Bachelor's degree
Master's degree
Doctorate degree or equivalent
What is your age in years?
Please enter your MTurk number below
Back
Next
100%
1:27 PM
2/27/2018


PEPPERDINE
English
In which region do you live?
North America
Latin America
Europe, the Middle East and Africa
Asia-Pacific
Back
Next


PEPPERDINE
English
Do you live in the United States of America?
Yes
No
Back
Next


PEPPERDINE
English
What is your Race/Ethnicity?
White
Black or African American
Hispanic/Latino
Asian
American Indian or Alaska Native
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
Two or more races
Back
Next


PEPPERDINE
English
Instructions: Please read the text first and then answer the question below
In a 1:1 meeting, your manager asks if you can cover a meeting for him tomorrow. You have a professional relationship with your manager, and never socialize together. Your manager appears to be distracted, and you ask if everything is alright. Your manager responds "My child has been causing some issues at school, and I need to visit their guidance counselor."
How would this response inspire confidence in your manager's leadership ability?
Decrease Greatly
Decrease Slightly
Stay the Same
Increase Slightly
Increase Greatly
Back
Next


https://jnjhr.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_eysxmN
Amazon is paying its workers ...
Online Survey Software | Q...
File Edit View Favorites Tools Help
Share Browser WebEx
Convert
Google Scholar
PEPPERDINE
Thank you for completing the survey, your responses have been recorded. Your MTurk completion code is 457046729
100%
1:29 PM
2/27/2018