HOW AND WHEN DOES LEADERS' EXPRESSED HUMILITY INFLUENCE EMPLOYEE UPWARD VOICE? AN EXAMINATION OF SELF-PRESENTATION MECHANISMS

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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Abstract

Drawing on self-presentational theory, this study identifies leader expressed humility as a self-presentational strategy and explores the interpersonal influence function of it by examining how and when leaders' expressed humility may generate authenticity impression and effectiveness impression from team members, which in turn elicit members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice. Further, this study hypothesizes leader humility differentiation within team as a weakening moderator of such indirect relationships. The proposed moderated mediation model is tested with multisource data collected from 48 team leaders and 237 team members from three firms in China. The statistical results support the positive associations between leader expressed humility and member impressions of the leader, respectively perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness. Furthermore, leader humility differentiation strengthens not weakens, the positive effect of leaders' expressed humility on members' perceived authenticity of leaders, which in turn strengths the indirect effect of leaders' expressed humility on members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice, with perceived leader authenticity as the mediating mechanism. The mediating role of perceived leader effectiveness and the moderating role of leader humility differentiation on this mechanism are not support. On the basis of empirical findings, this study discusses theoretical contributions to humility literature and self-presentation theory, as well as practical implications for work teams.

Keywords: expressed humility, self-presentation, perceived authenticity, perceived effectiveness, voice, differentiation

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Over the past twenty years, the conceptual and operational development of humility, such as Tangney (2000), Owens et al. (2013), and Ou et al. (2014), has promoted the empirical investigations of leaders' humble behaviors. Leader humility promotes team humility via social learning or social contagion process (Owens & Hekman, 2016; Rego, Owens, Leal, et al., 2017), and facilitate team work via social information conveyed by these humble behaviors (e.g., Rego, Owens, Yam, et al., 2017; L. Wang et al., 2018).

Despite the increasing and deep studies on leader humility has achieved fruitful results, there is still much yet to be learned about the self-presentational value of humility in leader-member interactions. The increasing studies on leader humility has shown the positive effects of leader humility, including but not restricted to, on subordinate in-role performance, team performance and even firm innovative performance (e.g., Chiu et al., 2016; Owens et al., 2015; H. Zhang et al., 2017). In terms of the outcomes, accumulated studies tend to take humility as completely altruistic behaviors and predominantly discussed how does leaders' humble behaviors benefit the followers and related units (e.g., Owens et al., 2015, 2018). Some recent studies started to discuss the potential dark side of leader humility, such as resulting in unethical behavior via moral licensing process or triggering members' perception of leader hypocrisy (Bharanitharan, Lowe, Bahmannia, Chen, et al., 2021; Bharanitharan, Lowe, Bahmannia, Cui, et al., 2021). Self-presentation theory takes a neutral assumption on expressed behaviors, which are not necessarily genuine or deceptive (Leary, 1995). In fact, manipulating personal behaviors to manage self-image is fundamental and sometimes is even unconscious (Leary, 1995; Schneider, 1981). Self-presentation behaviors are functional in interpersonal influence. Specifically, actors manipulate their behaviors to control how they are perceived by other people, which may help the actors to get desired response from the audience (Baumeister, 1982; Leary, 1995).

In the vein of self-presentation theory, the association between leaders' expressed

humility and subordinates' responses hinges on subordinates' impressions of leaders. (Leary, 1995). Perceived authenticity and effectiveness reflect different facets of impressions (De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002, 2007; Schlenker, 1975; Van Lange & Kuhlman, 1994). Authenticity is an important moral rule in organizational context and perceived authenticity underlies the success of self-presentation efforts (Gardner et al., 2011; Sezer et al., 2018). Perceived effectiveness reflects leaders' ability to exercise influence over subordinates and to improve collective performance towards organizational goals (Amagoh, 2009; Hogan et al., 1994; Madanchian et al., 2017). Impressing audience with positive impressions may help the actors to earn desired outcomes, whereas negative impressions have opposite effects (Eastman, 1994; Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Thus, taking the self-presentational perspective to explore the effects of leaders' expressed humility on members' responses and identifying member impressions of leaders as mechanisms fill a notable gap in the humility literature. Specifically, this study sheds light on perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness as representative impressions that created by humble behaviors

Furthermore, existed literature on leader humility mainly take a general approach to study the effects of leaders' general trend in humility, implicitly assuming that leaders treat all of their subordinates homogeneously or all subordinates perceive their leaders' behaviors unanimously (e.g., Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013). Alternative to the general approach, dyadic approach explicitly argued that leaders may develop unique relationships with each subordinate and therefore, brings research insights from team-level leadership to dyadic-level leader-member interaction and variance across different dyads within groups (Dansereau Jr et al., 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980). Although the general approach to leader humility has suggested several conceptual mechanisms to explain the effectiveness of leader humility, the dyadic approach leads more attention to interactions within the team and may help enrich our knowledge about subordinates' perceptions and reactions towards leader humility. Moreover, since audience-pleasing self-presentation is specific to a particular audience, the presented behaviors may vary across different targets (Baumeister, 1982). Thus, in the team context, leaders may treat

different members with different levels of humility. Such difference in dyadic humility expressed by the leader towards various members may serve as additional inference that affecting the impression formation process. Therefore, the second purpose of this study is to contribute to the humility literature by investigating the moderating role of leader humility differentiation.

Drawing from self-presentational theory, this study argues that the impression formation process following leaders' humble behaviors may act as activating mechanisms that leading to voice behaviors. Exerting interpersonal function is an important function of self-presentational behaviors (Baumeister, 1982; Gardner & Martinko, 1988). Specifically, leaders are potentially to control public image among subordinates via expressing humble behaviors such that they could solicit promotive or prohibitive voice from subordinates. Promotive voice refers to expressing innovative ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of the work unit, while prohibitive voice refers to expressing concerns about work practices, incidents, or behaviors for avoiding dysfunction of the work unit (Liang et al., 2012). This study focused on subordinate voice as a desired outcome of leaders' humble behaviors mainly for three reasons. First, voice is an extra-role behavior that beneficial for unit function whereas employees often refrain from voice speaking up. Employees generally hold implicit theories about when and why communicating voice to leaders is risky or inappropriate(Detert & Edmondson, 2011), highlighting the importance of exploring facilitators of voice. Second, no matter promotive voice or prohibitive voice, are inherently embedded in interpersonal communication, therefore require some efforts to smooth leader-follower interaction. Leaders' humble behaviors are defined and characterized in interpersonal context, and has been suggested to provide subordinate with relational energy (Owens et al., 2013; L. Wang et al., 2018). Third, voice represents an upward influence from followers to leaders, which is associated with self-transcendence and other-appreciating characteristics of humble behaviors (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013). Therefore, the current study will discuss the social influence processes that linking leaders' humble behaviors to subordinates' promotive and

prohibitive voice.

In this study, the researcher integrates self-presentation theory and humility literature to illustrate when and why leader expressed humility is related to member voice. In doing so, the current study is intended to make three unique contributions. Firstly, departing from previous theoretical perspectives such as social learning theory and social information processing theory (e.g., Naseer et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2020), this study adopts self-presentation theory to explain the mechanisms through which humble leaders generate favorable response from subordinates. This study introduce leader expressed humility as a self-presentational strategy that can be controlled by leaders to elicit favorable impressions, as well as subsequent extra-role behaviors from team members, which is contrasting with traditional view of humility as a truthful manifestation of personal trait (Hu et al., 2018). Secondly, diverting from general perspective, the dyadic perspective in the current study reveals new insight to the potential variation in leader's interpersonal humility and further explores the influence of such differentiation on impression formation. In addition, the current study will help understand whether expressed humility could generate desired reactions from audience in the condition of intrateam differentiation. Thirdly, the current study extends voice literature by suggesting self-presentation as a potential inducing mechanism and provides a new paradigm for studying the antecedent factors of promotive voice and prohibitive voice. Figure 1 depicts the theoretical framework of this study.

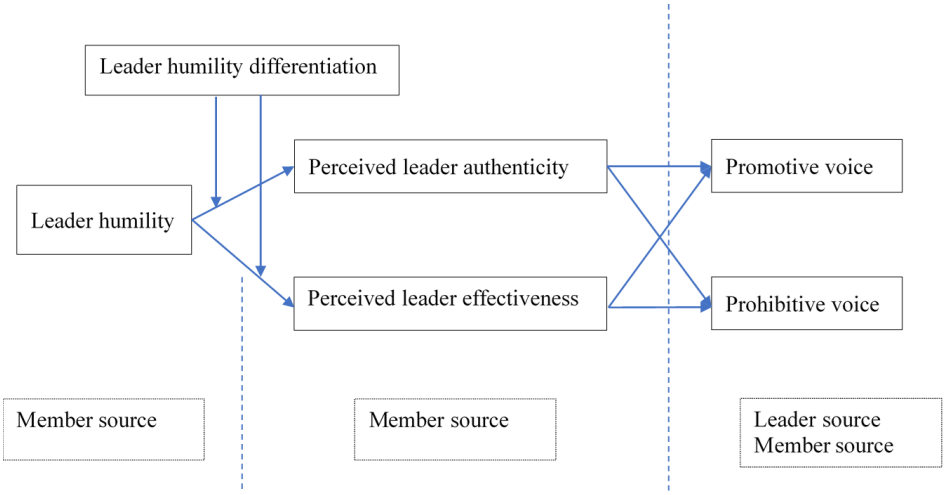

Figure 1 The theoretical model

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1. Review on self-presentation

2.1.1. Definition of self-presentation

Impression is a subjective concept that resides in social context that refers to others' perceptions and evaluations of one (Leary, 1995). Substantive studies have demonstrated that impressions people make on others in social contexts could greatly affect people's benefit in life. From an evolutionary perspective, people care deeply about others' impressions of them because impressions formed in social groups are closely related to adaptive outcomes, such as attracting mates and maintaining relationships (Griskevicius et al., 2006). From a functional perspective, impressions matter in social interactions because impressions formed in a given situation are significantly linked to desired effect, such as audience approval and mutual cooperation (Powers & Zuroff, 1988; Van Lange et al., 2002). Individuals drawing favorable impressions among targets in the workplace are likely to obtain desired goals or receive valuable rewards. Actors conveying impressions of likable to the targets may elicit psychological closeness and social identification from targets, and may even win leader endorsement from them (Hu et al., 2019). Similarly, impressing interacting parties with competence is another way for people to generate reciprocity and gain status in task contexts (Ouyang et al., 2018). To put it in another way, the impressions individuals hold on one another strongly influence how individuals respond to that person. Given the importance of impressions in social contexts, individuals often pay close attention to the impressions they make on other people.

The pervasive concerns of individuals with their public impressions/appearance also elicited research interests of scholars. "The process of controlling how one is perceived by other people" is constructed as **self-presentation** (impression management) in the literature (Leary, 1995, p. 2). Self-presentation is **interchangeable** with impression management in many studies (e.g., Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Vohs et al., 2005; Yilmaz, 2014). Whereas some studies figured out the minor differences between self-

presentation and impression management, stating that self-presentation is more specific about communicating information about oneself to others while impression management is more general about controlling information about persons, cities, or other objects (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). In other words, the focal actor of impression management may be varied entities besides individuals and impressions may be regulated by diverse tactics besides self-presentation. For example, individuals may strategically shift their descriptions about their friend in response to characteristics of an audience such that they can help their friends create favorable impressions on significant others (Schlenker & Britt, 1999, 2001). Impression management is more encompassing than self-presentation, however, when dealing with how individuals control the impressions others form of them, both terms are appropriate (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Considering the research topic on leaders' humble behaviors as a tactic of regulating impressions on subordinates, the current study will follow the theorizing of Leary and colleagues (Leary, 1995; Leary & Kowalski, 1990) to take self-presentation as interchangeable with impression management.

Most studies agreed on the definitions of self-presentation, which is natured in controlling projected images. Some scholars fleshed the definition with some detailed characteristic of self-presentational behaviors. Firstly, self-presentation is a kind of **goal-directed behaviors** (Schlenker et al., 1996; Schlenker & Wowra, 2003). For example, Schlenker and Wowra (2003) defined self-presentation as "the goal-directed activity of controlling information to influence the impressions formed by an audience about oneself" (p.871). Goals underlie any other social activities, like maximizing rewards and minimizing punishments, may energize self-presentation (e.g., Major & Adams, 1983; Shapiro, 1975). However, the motive to please the audience and the motive to construct one's public self are particularly associated with controlling information about oneself, and these two groups of motives are often cited as key factors guiding presented behaviors in social interactions (e.g., Schneider & Eustis, 1972; Tice et al., 1995).

Secondly, the process of impression management is not necessarily under **conscious control**. There exist some misconceptions about self-presentation by assuming the control of information merely connotes witting process, but actually "people attempt to regulate and control, sometimes consciously and sometimes without awareness, information they present to audiences" (Schlenker & Weigold, 1992, p. 134). On the one hand, repeated self-presentation may form a behavioral schema and so individuals may take self-presentational behaviors for desired goals without consciously thinking about the behavioral roots (Baldwin & Mark, 1992). When self-presentational behaviors turn into mindless habits or procedural knowledge, habitual response to activated goals may take place automatically (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000). On the other hand, individuals sometimes perform self-presentational behaviors without consciously aware of the inducements. A representative phenomenon of unnoticed self-presentation is disclosure reciprocity in communications (e.g., Baumeister et al., 1989; Vorauer & Miller, 1997). Actors tend to adjust their behaviors according to implicit social stimuli, like partners' self-description, by boasting oneself to self-enhancing partners while deprecating oneself to self-deprecating partners. (Baumeister et al., 1989). However, such strategical self-presentation is undetected and unintended by the actors (Baumeister et al., 1989; Vorauer & Miller, 1997).

Thirdly, self-presentation is **not always deceptive and selfish**. The nature of self-presentation is a continuum ranging from authentic presentation, one extreme in which expressed behaviors are exactly consistent with true self, to deceptive presentation, another extreme in which presented behaviors are totally discrepant from inner self (Albright et al., 2001). Dispositional characteristics and external factors work simultaneously to affect people's overt behaviors towards audiences. Self-monitoring and self-consciousness are two representative characteristics that are closely related with self-presentational behaviors. Individuals low in self-monitoring or high in private self-consciousness tend to unwilling or unable to adapt their behaviors according to situational cues, consequently displaying cross-situational consistency and high-level authenticity (Day et al., 2002; Elliott, 1979). Although dispositional factors are

important determinants, situational pressures may be more prevailing in determining how actors construct their public images Schlenker (1975). Situational factors, like target familiarity, gender similarity, future interaction, etc., imply target expectations and situational norms regarding what kind of behaviors are appropriate in a certain context to a specific target (Schlenker & Pontari, 2000). When interacting with familiar same-gender friends, people are more secured of social approval and less anxious about friends' impressions of them than otherwise, and therefore people are more likely to remove their disguise (Jellison & Green, 1981; Leary et al., 1994). Similarly, individuals tend to refrain from flattering themselves when audiences have access to accountability information to check their descriptions (Tyler & Rosier, 2009). In addition, self-presentation may spring from altruistic not selfish motives. Across three experiments in two studies, Schlenker and Britt (1999, 2001) found that people tend to deliver favorable information while hide unfavorable information about their friends to evaluators such that their friends could leave favorable impressions on those evaluators. Even among strangers, people also demonstrate supportive behaviors, including making negative self-descriptions and positive partner-description, to comfort the self-critical partner (Powers & Zuroff, 1988). Thus, self-presentation covers both positive and negative facets of interpersonal behaviors.

Fourthly, designed image of self-presentation **is not always positive**. The definition of self-presentation did not assume that people always want others to form positive impressions of them, but neutrally define it as a goal-directed process. In other words, sometimes positive impressions may hinder goal attainment, while negative impressions may facilitate goal attainment. Although "Intelligent" is a positive evaluation, it is not valid for Whites in achieving the goal of being liked when communicating with Blacks (Bergsieker et al., 2010). Furthermore, in certain conditions, self-enhancing presentations may backfire. When claimed ability is inconsistent with established performance, the audience may penalize the dishonest actors by giving them lowest evaluations, which is adverse to actors' desired goals (Schlenker & Leary, 1982b). Contrary to the stereotype that positive impressions are

always desirable, people may attempt to leave negative impressions on audiences so as to protect themselves from potential losses or to win themselves desired rewards. Failure is often associated with incompetence, a negative impression, whereas depressive individuals may intentionally fail in a preliminary task to escape from participating an evaluative task, because the evaluative results may threaten their delicate esteem and the goal of protecting self-esteem prevails the goal of enhancing public images (Weary & Williams, 1990).

2.1.2. The nature and history of self-presentation

Self-presentation is **fundamental** in everyday interaction (Leary, 1995; Schneider, 1981). People pay close attention to others' opinions of them, an interpersonal behavior that reflects a fundamental human need to form and maintain positive, lasting and stable interpersonal relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Driven by the belongingness need, a person is sensitive to others' response, which signals the degree to which one gets accepted versus rejected by others (Leary et al., 1995).

The broad applicability of the belongingness need explains why people care deeply about how others perceive them in various situations. Effective self-presentation enables harmonious interpersonal relationships and facilitates significant interpersonal bonds. **In daily interactions,** individuals are more easily attracted by and form friendship with similar others (Byrne et al., 1967; Duck, 1973). Behavioral intention is contagious among individuals, and self-presentation process could promote similarity between two persons through behavioral reciprocity (Neuberg et al., 1993; Van Lange et al., 2002; Vorauer & Miller, 1997). Specifically, people behave more modestly when communicating with modest partners than otherwise, whereas people behave more self-enhancing when communicating with self-enhancing partners than otherwise (Baumeister et al., 1989). The reciprocity tendency in self-presentation process demonstrates that individuals autonomously adapt their behaviors to implicit or explicit social norms such that their behaviors are appropriate and acceptable in the eyes of others.

In pursuit of important interpersonal goals, individuals are motivated to make right impressions on others. To attract potential mates, males tend to display their dominance, wealth and financial generosity via conspicuous consumption and heroic helpfulness, while females incline to display warmth, kindness and group-oriented traits via public helping behaviors (Griskevicius et al., 2007). Furthermore, individuals may falsify personal profiles in order to convey desirable characteristics towards attractive mates in online dating (Toma & Hancock, 2010). Besides promoting a favorable/desired image, self-presentation is also manipulated in preventing or weakening an adverse image. Individuals face contradictory impulsions in communications: the intention to display their true self or best self in one side while the pressure to consider the audiences' perceptions in the other side. Giving accurate but negative comments to another one is risky for the information givers because it may trigger negative reactions (e.g., perceived to be mean and unkind) from information recipients and audiences (Bergsieker et al., 2012). Such that, for self-presentation concerns, individuals would intentionally hide negative evaluations on others and merely release unthreatening truth (Bergsieker et al., 2012). Certain circumstances may activate prevention-focus in self-presentation, and the goal of overcoming negative impressions may prevail making positive impressions on others. Specifically, in interactions between Whites and Blacks, Whites prefer to neutralizing negative stereotype associated with racism and immorality, whereas Blacks prefer to denying negative stereotype associated with low intelligence and low status (Bergsieker et al., 2010).

In working relationships, strategic self-presentation potentially increases possibility of being included while decreases the possibility of being excluded. The dyadic relationship between leaders and subordinates, namely leader-member exchange (LMX), has been repeatedly studied since its inception in 1970s (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Mutual trust, respect, and obligation signifies high-quality relationship and in-group membership (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and ingratiation exhibited by subordinates towards leaders significantly contributes to developing high-quality LMX

(Deluga & Perry, 1994). A large amount of studies amassed on workplace relationship has consistently found that high-quality relationship promotes is positively associated with work effectiveness (Banks et al., 2014; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Seers, 1989), which underlies the importance of appropriate self-presentation in smoothening interpersonal interactions. In addition, evidence has shown that employees may manipulate their citizenship behaviors to win an advantage over others in promotion (Hui et al., 2000), may avoid seeking feedback from leaders in the presence of other audiences to reduce the risk of losing face (Morrison & Bies, 1991), and may reject helping from coworkers so as not to be evaluated as incompetent (Thompson & Bolino, 2018). Furthermore, self-presentation is not confined to subordinates, it is also popular with leaders. For example, a new CEO could take ingratiatory strategies to build a positive relationship with the predecessor CEO and take self-promoting strategies to create a competent image in the organization, consequently eliminating obstacles in transition period and reducing the possibility of early dismissal (Yi et al., 2019).

Self-presentation is not inherently good or bad. For a long time, there has been some misconceptions about self-presentation, that treating it as superficial, manipulative, calculative, duplicitous, and the like. Indeed, public self may diverge from true self for actors presenting oneself in front of audiences, however, self-centered behaviors may also benefit audiences because the welfare of the actors is not necessarily conflict with the welfare of the audiences. Self-presentation may spring from egoistic goals while result in altruistic outcomes.

When need for impression management is salient, individuals with high inputs in experimental tasks tend to distribute rewards equally while not in proportion to personal contributions, which could help the allocators to create favorable impressions on those with low inputs (Shapiro, 1975). This research demonstrates that sometimes the value of favorable impressions prevails the value of material rewards, and people may attempt to form desired impressions on targets even at the expense of **monetary returns**.

Besides giving material resources, people may also manage their public impressions on important others by offering **social resources**. Ingratiation is one of the most common tactics used by employees to exert upwards influence (Foulk et al., 2016; Harrison et al., 1998). Ingratiators take target-enhancing actions, like opinion conformity and verbal flattering, to impress the targets and then attain personal goals, meanwhile the targets' vanity get fulfilled (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Vonk, 2002; Yi et al., 2019). These studies consistently demonstrate that even if the self-presentational behaviors are stemmed from self-centered considerations, the actors and targets may benefit from the process together.

Despite the dark side resides in motives, appropriate self-presentation benefits **both actors and audiences**. Self-presentation can be viewed as a tool, of which the negativity and positivity depend on how the actor uses it. Just like a gun, it may either be used by criminals to rob a bank or be used by security to guard a bank. In this vein, it is unreasonable to attach negative labels to self-presentation. Rather than a trick played by the minority, self-presentation is a ubiquitous characteristic of social life and a universal skill mastered by the majority, if not everyone. Concerns about others' impressions of us pervade in daily interactions, and strongly affect people's behaviors in front of others. For example, feedback seeking behaviors maybe interpreted as signs of weakness by audiences, and therefore threaten competence image that the actor makes on audiences (e.g., Ashford & Tsui, 1991).

2.1.3. A brief history of self-presentation research

Sorting out the development of a theory could help researchers understand its emphases, deficiencies, controversies, unanswered questions, and so on. Self-presentation emerged from psychology and sociology nearly at the same time and evolve relevant independently, because sociologists and psychologists typically not refer to each other's work (Leary, 1995). Then researchers in management area involved self-presentation theory to explain managerial problems/issues. For example: OCB, ingratiation and some other behaviors with manipulative intentions.

In sociology area, research on self-presentation in sociology can be traced to as early as 1950s, signaled by the publication of "*The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*" authored by Erving Goffman. His research interest mainly lied in the people's public behavior and how does the surface appearance affect others' response. Self-presentation may benefit people via intentionally manipulate others' impressions on them, although it sometimes goes awry. Moreover, self-presentation may facilitate smooth interaction via disclosing information about oneself to their interactants. At about the same time, **in social psychology area**, Edwards Jones started with investigation on interactive behaviors to explore bases for person perception (E. E. Jones et al., 1961; E. E. Jones & Daugherty, 1959; E. E. Jones & deCharms, 1958) and then moved on to varied facets of impression formation process (E. E. Jones et al., 1981; E. E. Jones & Pittman, 1982). Specifically, Edwards Jones raised ingratiation as a self-presentation tactic that attempting to color others' impressions of them and increase interpersonal attractiveness (E. E. Jones et al., 1963, 1965). Soon afterwards, the scope of self-presentation tactics were significantly extended to involve self-promotion, self-deprecation, exemplification, and supplication, and so on (Godfrey et al., 1986; E. E. Jones & Pittman, 1982). Overall, interest in self-presentation emerged in 1950s, increased in 1960s, expanded in 1970s and flourished in 1980s. Self-presentational perspectives had been applied to a wide variety of emotional, cognitive and behavioral issues, such as embarrassment, anxiety, self-serving attributions, cognitive dissonance, self-defense, reward allocation and aggression (Archibald & Cohen, 1971; Arkin et al., 1980; Bradley, 1979; Rosnow et al., 1973; Schlenker & Leary, 1982a; Shapiro, 1975; Tedeschi et al., 1971). Since 1980s, interest in self-presentational perspective had spread to **management research** and demonstrated usefulness in a large number of studies (e.g., Giacalone & Beard, 1994; Giacalone & Rosenfeld, 1986; Morrison & Bies, 1991). Along the way, self-presentational approaches have offered explanations for an array of research topics in management area, including but not restricted to feedback seeking, deception in job interviews, citizenship behavior, newcomer adaptation and leadership transition (e.g., Foulk et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2008; Weiss & Feldman,

2006; Yi et al., 2019).

2.1.4. Self-presentation tactics

Self-presentation tactic covers a staggering variety of behaviors. Virtually any aspect of everyday behavior, from clothing, facial expressions and tone of voice in daily interactions, to intimidation, self-promotion and ingratiation at workplace, may influence the impressions people make on others (Bonaccio et al., 2016; Schneider, 1981). Therefore, it is hardly possible to give an exhaustive review of behaviors that people use for impression management purpose. This part will try to give a broad review of these behaviors and demonstrate different taxonomies of self-presentation tactics.

Since self-presentation is conceptualized as a process of controlling information about oneself, on the basis of **information carrier**, self-presentation tactics could be classified into verbal self-presentation versus nonverbal self-presentation (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Schneider, 1981; Terrell & Kwok, 2011). These two classifications are not mutual exclusive but complementary. Any verbal statement conveying particular information about oneself may be regarded as self-presentation, therefore **verbal self-presentation** contains a great variety of strategies (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; McFarland et al., 2005). Example strategies include self-descriptions (e.g., R. A. Jones et al., 1974), apologies (e.g., Schlenker & Weigold, 1992), flattering (e.g., Foulk et al., 2016), opinion conformity (Treadway et al., 2007), and the like. **Nonverbal cues** complement verbal statement in controlling information and make additional contribution to impression management (DePaulo, 1992). Previous studies have demonstrated that nonverbal strategies are effective in creating desired impressions on others and are widely used by individuals on various occasions. On formal occasions, citizenship behavior (e.g., Bolino, 1999), counter-conformity (e.g., Gergen & Taylor, 1969), emotional expressions and body movement (e.g., McFarland et al., 2005), as well as other nonverbal cues, may serve as information sources. On informal occasions, a wide range of nonverbal behaviors, such as cooperation (e.g., Danheiser & Graziano, 1982), generosity (e.g., Van Lange et al., 2002), eating lightly (e.g., Mori et al., 1987),

conspicuous consumption (e.g., Griskevicius et al., 2007), are manipulated by individuals to manage the impression they leave on others.

Taking "**presentation style**" as a classification standard, self-presentation tactics encompass two categories: direct self-presentation and indirect self-presentation. In interpersonal interactions, people may explicitly give some information about oneself, which is called **direct self-presentation**, or implicitly demonstrate personal characteristics, which is called **indirect self-presentation**. Among direct tactics, verbal self-descriptions is one of the most straightforward tactics and mainly occurs in face-to-face communications. In this way, people can directly tell others they are a certain kind of person or they aren't a certain kind of person (Leary, 1995). People have autonomy to select favorable information and exclude unfavorable information when revealing about oneself, while "what to say" is mainly affected by the kind of impression that people would like others to form (Leary, 1995). For example, to create an image of competence in employment interviews, the applicants may elect to take most credit for previous accomplishment (i.e., entitlement), aggrandize the value of an event (i.e., enhancement), and put their best sides forwards (i.e. self-promotion) (Ellis et al., 2002; Kacmar et al., 1992). Besides verbal self-descriptions, ingratiation, intimidation, supplication, disclaim, apology, etc., could also serve as direct self-presentation (Bolino et al., 2008; McFarland et al., 2005).

Direct claims about oneself may elicit audiences' cynicism about the credibility of given information and thus fail to create desired impressions (e.g., Sezer et al., 2018). For this reason, people may try to manage their public image through **connection-focused tactics (i.e., indirect self-presentation)**, thereby indicating certain characteristics of the actors, or leading the audiences to make certain references. One of the most widely used indirect tactic is "association" (e.g., Cialdini & de Nicholas, 1989; Cialdini & Richardson, 1980). For purposes of managing others' perceptions and evaluations, people may attempt to associate themselves with positive events or successful others, and dissociate themselves with negative events or unsuccessful others (e.g., Cialdini &

de Nicholas, 1989; Cialdini & Richardson, 1980). Under the pressure of cognitive balance, the observers may take actors' external connections as evaluation reference, and thus forming corresponding perceptions of the actors. Specifically, even a trivial connection such as sharing a birth date with someone important, could be strategically announced by the actor to benefit from another's glory. Besides claiming positive relationships with favorable others, connection-focused tactics are manifested in many other ways, such as exaggerating the positive quality of a positively connected other (i.e., burnishing), enhancing the negative quality of a negatively connected other (i.e., blasting), minimizing the negative quality of a positively connected other (i.e., booting), and so on (Mohamed et al., 1999; Terrell & Kwok, 2011).

Schütz (1998) reviewed existed classifications of self-presentational behaviors and then raised a four-type taxonomy, respectively **assertive, offensive, protective, and defensive**, on the basis of self-presentation motive. **Assertive self-presentation** represents behaviors aimed at portraying favorable images by presenting favorable features (Schütz, 1998). Representative behaviors of this category – ingratiation, exemplification, and self-promotion – have been discussed extensively (E. E. Jones & Pittman, 1982). Further, assertive self-presentation can be categorized as self-focused and other-focused tactics (McFarland et al., 2005). **Offensive self-presentation** covers behaviors aimed at generating favorable images at the cost of others' public image. Those aggressive tactics, such as promote oneself by criticizing a third party, derogate counterpart in comparison, attack the source of negative evaluations, etc., are subsumed under this category. **Protective self-presentation** aimed at maximizing the risk of establishing negative impressions via avoidance-oriented tactics, such as minimal self-disclosure, keeping silent, minimizing social interaction, and so on (Schütz, 1998). **Defensive self-presentation** mainly occurs after the desired image has been threatened, undermined or damaged and thus typically involves behaviors aimed at eliminating negative impressions or reestablishing positive impressions, such as justification , dissociation, excuses, and the like (Schütz, 1998).

Limiting the scope of interaction to the workplace context, self-presentation behaviors are classified into job-focused tactics, supervisor-focused tactics and self-focused tactics (Bolino et al., 2006; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Green, 1993). **Supervisor-focused tactics** are featured as ingratiatory behaviors towards supervisors (Bolino et al., 2006; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), such as other-enhancement, opinion conformity and favor rendering (Deluga & Perry, 1994; Harrison et al., 1998). **Self-focused tactics** encompass behaviors that are intended to make the audience perceive the actors to be honest, polite, disciplined and dedicated (Bolino et al., 2006; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). For this purpose, individuals may do more or better than is required, which is known as exemplification (E. E. Jones & Pittman, 1982). **Job-focused tactics** are centered on behaviors or statements associated with job performance to present competence in front of the audience (Bolino et al., 2006; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). In practice, this type of tactics is mainly manifested in self-promotional behaviors, specifically like telling previous achievements, showing confidence, displaying personal abilities, etc. (Godfrey et al., 1986; Nguyen et al., 2008). Compared with other taxonomies, this classification shed light on workplace self-presentation, however, this classification merely covers behaviors aimed at establishing favorable images by putting forward one's best face, virtually all of which could be subsumed under **assertive self-presentation**.

2.1.5. Functions of self-presentation

There are two main functions of self-presentational behaviors. The first function is **exerting interpersonal influence**. One may attempt to control public image formed by others in order to maximize desired rewards or minimize undesired punishments (Baumeister, 1982; Gardner & Martinko, 1988). The second function is **constructing intrapersonal influence**. It has been repeatedly claimed that, for actors, taking public behaviors may also influence one's affective, cognitive, and behavioral states (Dunn et al., 2007; McNiel & Fleeson, 2006; Schlenker et al., 1994; Tice, 1992). The two functions are independent but oftentimes are compatible. On the one hand, the target of self-presentation may be simultaneously the self and others (Greenberg, 1983). On the

other hand, self-presentational behaviors may influence both actors' private identities and perceivers' interpersonal evaluations (Powers & Zuroff, 1988; Weary & Williams, 1990).

In interpersonal interactions, people tend to evaluate others along two dimensions – **warmth and competence** – and then form corresponding impressions of others (De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002, 2007; Schlenker, 1975; Van Lange & Kuhlman, 1994). The first dimension, warmth, describes the intentions of one person to be good or bad to others, and encompasses a wide range of evaluations like sincere, honest, friendly, trustworthy, and many more (De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002). The second dimension, competence, describes the ability of one person to pursue personal intentions, and includes a variety of perceptions like skillful, intelligent, self-confident, creative, and the like (De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002).

This perception structure has been proposed and supported by massive studies, although some of them may take labels different from warmth and competence. For example, Peeters and Czapinski claimed two evaluative dimensions, respectively self-profitability (intelligent, ambitious, powerful, etc.) and other-profitability (honest, tolerant, trustworthy, etc.) (Peeters, 1992; Peeters & Czapinski, 1990). Wojciszke (2005) took morality (e.g., sincere, truthful, honest, loyal) and competence (e.g., clever, efficient, intelligent, energetic) as the most plausible categories of trait-descriptive terms. In an experiment evaluating audience perception of teachers, Tetlock (1980) got a three-factor model from 22 traits: competence, self-confidence and social evaluation. The first two factors could be subsumed under the competence dimension, and the social evaluation factor can be subsumed under the warmth dimension. Apparently, these dimensionalities can be regarded as different operationalizations of warmth-competence structure.

The impressions that people make on others have plausible influences both in daily communications and workplace interactions. By presenting appropriate impressions to

the perceivers, the actors have potential to elicit expected response from them, whereas by presenting inappropriate impressions or failing to present appropriate impression to the perceivers, the actors have the risk of receiving unexpected response from them (Leary, 1995; Schlenker & Leary, 1982a). As Leary (1995) claimed: "When people respond to us, they are really responding to their impression of the kind of people we are – our abilities, our personalities, our attitudes, our intentions, and so on" (p.41). Therefore, in most circumstances, people tend to manipulate the disclosed information about oneself to others. Releasing favorable information, holding unfavorable information, or fabricating deceptive information can help actors generate impressions from the perceivers, and thus leading to desired outcomes in social interactions.

Favorable impressions can improve the quality of social interaction. Several experimental designs have demonstrated that both male and female care about their attractiveness perceived by their potential dating partners and tend to alter their self-presentation according to preferred characteristics held by desirable partners, and meanwhile they react more actively to those with high attractiveness (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Guadagno et al., 2012; Mori et al., 1987; Rowatt et al., 1998; Toma & Hancock, 2010). Furthermore, people displaying self-serving characteristics to the audiences may win competence evaluations at the expense of warmth evaluations. People who claim high responsibility for success and low responsibility for failure are perceived as more competent whereas less likable, and meanwhile get lower cooperation willingness from the perceivers, than those claim high responsibility for failure and low responsibility for success (Carlston & Shovar, 1983; Forsyth et al., 1981). Concluding from these examples, different presentational behaviors will lead the audiences to form different impressions. People are more likely to make friends or develop intimate relationships with someone who make positive impressions on them than with those who make negative impressions.

Impressions also have plausible potentials to affect important work-related outcomes. To get a job, candidates using strategic self-presentation may lead the interviewers to

form positive impressions of him or her, and then win advantages over others (e.g., Kacmar et al., 1992; Kacmar & Carlson, 1994). For example, job applicants using ingratiation tactic, which is manifested with agreeing with the recruiters' opinions, supporting recruiters' values, and flattering the recruiters, are perceived to be fit more with the jobs than their counterparts, and therefore would receive more positive hiring recommendations and more job offers (Higgins & Judge, 2004). When interacting with groupmates, group members who are gorgeous favor givers could establish competence image, and consequently enjoying high social status within the group (Ouyang et al., 2018). In leader-member interactions, how direct leaders respond towards subordinates' extra-role behaviors is much determined by the perceptions that leaders have formed. For subordinates proactively seeking feedback, leaders are more likely to form high quality relationship with them when such behaviors are perceived to be performance enhancement driven, however, leader are less likely to form high quality relationship with them when such behaviors are perceived to be impression management driven (W. Lam et al., 2007). Furthermore, leaders may take other inferences to interpret subordinates' extra-role behaviors and attach different labels to them accordingly. The subordinates who are labeled as good citizens will receive higher rewards and pay raise from leaders (Eastman, 1994). Therefore, at workplace, colleagues' response to one is much influenced by their perceptions of one's motives, intention, attitudes, and so on.

Besides exserting social influence on perceivers, self-presentational behavior also affect actors themselves. Firstly, self-presentation has the potential to regulate actors' affective state. Specifically, expressive behaviors that conveying favorable information about oneself (i.e. positive self-presentation) can elicit positive affective outcomes for actors, whereas expressive behaviors that conveying unfavorable information about oneself (i.e. negative self-presentation) can elicit negative affect outcomes for actors (e.g., Dunn et al., 2007; McNiel & Fleeson, 2006). Fleeson, Malanos and Achille (2002) manipulated subjects' extraverted behaviors in lab experiments and then required these subjects to rate their own and their counterparts' affective state. Three experimental studies in this research consistently illustrated an evident association between acting

extraversion and positive affect: subjects felt significantly happier than their counterparts when instructed to act extraverted; Meanwhile, subjects' affective state varied rapidly with their expressive behaviors and subjects reported increased happiness after acting extraverted (Fleeson et al., 2002). The association between acting extraversion and affective outcomes was further verified by McNiel, Lowman, and Fleeson (2010) with different experimental designs. Subjects participated in two dyadic discussions and those assigned to the "target group" were randomly instructed to be extraverted or introverted in the first discussion and then were instructed to be the other way in the second dyadic discussion. Participants' self-report indicated that they felt greater positive affect when displaying extraversion than the otherwise. The strong effect of acting extraversion on affective outcomes appears robust and holds across series of studies with varied samples, methods, and measures.

The emotional benefits of self-presentation can be expanded from social psychology to organizational settings. Expressing appropriate emotions is a pervasive impression management strategy in organizations, especially for employees who directly interact with significant others (e.g., clients, customers, patients, etc.) (Totterdell & Holman, 2003; Tsai, 2001). Different from traditional viewpoint that emotion regulation is merely a job demand, recent studies studied the bright side of emotion regulation as a job resource. In daily interactions, actors' sharing positive feelings can send positive feedback to partners and modify their situation, which in turn enhance actors' enjoyment (Quoidbach et al., 2015). In workplace interactions, displaying positive emotions can help employees earn favorable evaluations from significant others, as well as hedonic shifts consistent with the surface displays (Barger & Grandey, 2006; Ybema & Dam, 2014).

Secondly, self-presentation may alter the cognitive state of actors. On the one hand, self-presentation constructs the self. Conveying a positive image in public is associated with positive arousal in self-appraisal, whereas conveying a negative image in public is associated with negative arousal in self-appraisal (E. E. Jones et al., 1981; Rhodewalt

& Agustsdottir, 1986; Tice, 1992). Simply stating, external behaviors can be internalized and the shift in self-appraisal is consistent with the content of public behaviors. As an example, subjects who were instructed to be sociable, compared with those who did not get such instruction, reported higher self-ratings on sociability (Schlenker et al., 1994). On the other hand, effortful self-presentation consumes the self. Self-presentation is a vital aspect of social life, while some people are better than others in managing the impressions they make (Ludwig et al., 1986; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), because effectively presenting oneself requires carefully managing one's exhibited behaviors and meanwhile exserts high pressure on resource expenditure (Elliott, 1979; Major & Adams, 1983; Shapiro, 1975; Vohs et al., 2005). The expended resources are either tangible or intangible. Impression management concerns make people adopt allocation rule that unfavorable to oneself while favorable to one's partner (e.g., Greenberg, 1983; Major & Adams, 1983). High self-monitors are mostly more effective than low self-monitors in eliciting expected reaction from audiences via creating desired images, whereas the effectiveness in self-presentation is preconditioned by personal resources spent in collecting relevant information (Elliott, 1979). Furthermore, presenting an image different from inner self always demands great efforts and may even result in regulatory resource depletion (Vohs et al., 2005).

Thirdly, self-presentation may influence the behavioral intentions of actors. Public behaviors are often internalized by the actors and therefore carried over to subsequent situations (Schlenker et al., 1994; Schlenker & Wowra, 2003; Tice, 1992). Participants who portrayed themselves as extraverted are more likely to initiate a conversion in later communications than those who portrayed themselves as introverted (Tice, 1992). Similarly, participants who are instructed to express oneself as sociable, transparent, or impenetrable acted in accordance with earlier public expressions in later communications (Schlenker et al., 1994; Schlenker & Wowra, 2003). That is, actors are likely to adjust their behaviors in the direction of earlier public presentation.

Self-presentation is a vital part of social life. It serves as a mode for managing

interpersonal influence and a mechanism of explaining intrapersonal influence. People can generate desired response from others, and this social influence is mostly mediated by impressions that others form of actors. Impressions can be categorized into two dimensions, respectively warmth and competence. Presenting certain impressions can exercise far-reaching impact on one's social outcomes and career outcomes. Interpersonal influence and intrapersonal influence are mutual independent but not mutual exclusive. Actually, one may experience interpersonal change simultaneously when influencing others via public presentation. Specifically, intrapersonal influence of self-presentation are manifested in affective, cognitive and behavioral areas.

2.2. Review on humility

2.2.1. Definition

Owens and Hekman (2012) used inductive case studies to capture the behavioral manifestation of leader humility and fit this construct into three general categories. Owens, Johnson, and Mitchel (2013) further polished the findings of the previous qualitative study and named it expressed humility. Ou and colleagues regarded humility as a relatively stable trait and deductively reviewed accumulated literature to get a six-dimension construct definition. These two conceptualizations are the most widely used in accumulated literature. Although most definitions of humility are largely overlapped, for example, the definition of humility trait incorporates three dimensions of expressed humility (Ou et al., 2014; Bradley P. Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013), some definitions contain some unique facets. For example, Tangney (2000) summarized six key elements of humility. The last element "An appreciation of the value of all things, as well as the many different ways that people and things can contribute to our world" (p.74) can't be classified into any dimension of expressed humility or humility trait (A. Y. Ou et al., 2014; Bradley P. Owens et al., 2013). Additionally, the conceptualization of leader humility put forwards by Oc and colleagues (2015) contained five dimensions that are relatively unique in Singapore culture, respectively leading by example, showing modesty, working together for the collective good, empathy, and approachability, mentoring and coaching.

2.2.2. Features of humility

Social feature. Owens and colleagues took an interpersonal and behavioral perspective to study humility and named the observable behaviors as expressed humility (Owens et al., 2013). Specifically, the external manifestation of humility trait may vary across different contexts or times. Therefore, expressed humility is just "an interpersonal characteristic that emerges in social contexts" (Owens et al., 2013, p.1518).

Intellectual feature. Some researchers extracted the intellectual facets of humility and consequently created a new construct — intellectual humility. Krumrei-Mancuso and Rouse parsimoniously define intellectual humility as "a nonthreatening awareness of one's intellectual fallibility" (p.210). Consistent with this definition, Leary and colleagues (2017) conceptualized intellectual humility as "recognizing that a particular personal belief may be fallible, accompanied by an appropriate attentiveness to limitations in the evidentiary basis of that belief and to one's own limitations in obtaining and evaluating relevant information" (p.1) and operationalize it to be "independence of intellect and ego, openness to revising one's viewpoints, respect for others' viewpoints, and lack of intellectual overconfidence" (p.3), nearly identical with the operationalization of Krumrei-Mancuso and Rouse (2016). Independence of intellect and ego means that "identity of ego" is not involved when individuals are faced with intellectual challenges, which in turn decrease the feeling of threatening or offended. This dimension can be projected to the "low self-focus" dimension of humility trait. Openness to revising one's viewpoints can be projected to "teachability", which means openness to feedback and new ideas. Respect for others' viewpoints can be projected to "appreciation of others' strength and contributions. Lack of intellectual overconfidence can be projected to "self-awareness" and "transcendent self-concept". In terms of the conceptual domain, intellectual humility mainly discussed beliefs, positions, perspectives, and viewpoints, while general humility doesn't set such restrictions in the definition. In the measure development study, Krumrei-Mancuso and Rouse proved that intellectual humility is convergent with general humility, with the

significant correlation coefficient r=0.23**. However, none of these studies that involved in our review discussed the distinction between general humility and intellectual humility. Inferred from the definitions, intellectual humility partly overlapped with general humility, but the nonthreatening attitude towards intellectual fallibility or challenge is not involved in humility's definition. Therefore, it is hard to judge whether intellectual humility is nested within general humility.

Considering the conceptual and operational definition, intellectual humility contains both interpersonal and intrapersonal facets (Krumrei-Mancuso & Rouse, 2016; Leary et al., 2016; McElroy et al., 2014; Samuelson et al., 2015). Internally, those who are intellectual humble have nonthreatening self-awareness of intellectual fallibility and therefore lack intellectual overconfidence. Externally, even when negotiating with individuals who hold contrary belief, those who are intellectual humble still respect the rational part of others' argument and revise personal viewpoints accordingly. From another perspective, we can regard the social part as external manifestations of private (intrapersonal) part (Leary et al., 2016).

Empirical studies about intellectual humility still lack solid theoretical foundations. Most hypotheses are based on the loose argument: merely illustrating the meaning of particular dimensions and then proposing hypotheses. Some research focused on social interactions of intellectual humble persons. Because intellectual humility is reflected in awareness of intellectual fallibility and openness attitude towards contrary viewpoints, people high in intellectual humility are willing to accept diverse viewpoints and evaluate those who hold contrary ideas or change their viewpoints positively, are able to judge the strength of argument and prefer balanced or neutral arguments (Leary et al., 2016). In the understanding of lay persons, intellectual humble persons and wise persons have a lot of common traits. Therefore, Samuelso and colleagues (2015) concluded that intellectual humility is closely related to the wise concept.

Inferred from those empirical conclusions, humble people with objective self-

awareness and openness attitude can improve their competence in the long-term, through absorbing diverse information and revising personal viewpoints accordingly (Leary et al., 2016; Bradley P. Owens et al., 2013). On the other hand, humble people are perceived to be competent because they partially fit with the prototype of wise persons, like aware, admit mistakes, open minded (Owens et al., 2013; Samuelson et al., 2015).

Following Penner's argument (1973), different virtues may be intertwined and coexist in the same person. Individuals express one prosocial characteristic, like intellectual humility, may possess a series of related virtues, like altruism, benevolence, and universalism (Krumrei-Mancuso, 2017). Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory proposes that "these positive traits and values may reciprocally influence one another in a positive spiral" (Samuelson et al., 2015, p.14). Accordingly, intellectual humility and other prosocial values mutually promote each other (Samuelson et al., 2015). Combining theoretical logic of Penner (1973) and Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory, humility as a human virtue, can coexist and reciprocate with series of virtues, resulting in high-level general virtue. Therefore, humble persons are likely to be impress others with virtuous images.

2.2.3. Empirical findings of humility

Accumulated studies are mostly designed to prove the effectiveness of leaders' humility from different perspectives. Humble leaders act as role models to illustrate acceptable social interaction patterns within teams, and followers will emulate leaders' behaviors. Consequently, leaders' behavioral intentions involve into collective behavioral intentions, which was called collective humility or team humility(Chiu et al., 2021; Owens & Hekman, 2016; Rego, Owens, Leal, et al., 2017; Ye et al., 2020) (Owens & Hekman, 2016; Rego et al., 2017). Either by establishing team promotion focus or by enriching psychological resource for team development (i.e., team psychological capital), team humility can ultimately promote team performance (Owens & Hekman, 2016; Rego, Owens, Leal, et al., 2017).

Chiu et al. (2016), Ou et al. (2014) and Rego et al. (2017), as well as some other studies adopted social information processing theory as the foundation of their arguments. Chiu et al. (2016) and Rego et al. (2017) discussed the informational role of leaders' humble behaviors, but Ou et al. (2014) is mainly concerned with implicit information delivered by TMT (top management team) integration and empowering organizational climate, which are cascaded from CEO's humble behaviors. "Due to their higher status and direct involvement and interactions with employees" (Chiu, Owens, & Tesluk, 2016, p.11), leaders' humility serves as critical informational source. Leaders' humble behaviors interpreted by team members as promoting "both leadership-claiming and leadership-granting behaviors" (Chiu et al., 2016), therefore facilitating shared leadership within teams. Behaviors of humble leaders are social cues to legitimize a mindset oriented towards development and facilitate positive perceptions towards teams, for example, awareness of personal strength and contributions, and openness attitude that facilitates further development. Therefore, leaders' humble behaviors can shape team psychological safety (Rego et al., 2019).

Owens and colleagues (2015) and Zhang and colleagues (2017) adopted paradox theory to argue that narcissism and humility can coexist and work in combination. In the perspective of Owens, Wallace and Waldman (2015), narcissism and humility can coexist in harmonization and integration because: empirically, the negative relationship between humility and narcissism is weak and nonsignificant in Ou et al. (2014); theoretically, the destructive facet of narcissism can be tempered by humility. For example, a sense of superiority or arrogance is weakened by self-awareness of weakness and mistakes (Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015). Although narcissism and humility contradict each other in cognition, motivation and manifested behaviors, former studies proved that environmental factors could activate certain part of contradict cognitions, some persons are driven by a mixture of contradictory motivations, and behaviors, which are externally manifestation of cognition and motivation, may feature contradictory (Zhang, Ou, Tsui, & Wang, 2017). Therefore,

humility can coexist with narcissism. In practice, CEOs who can manage the counterbalancing of humility and narcissism can endorse and model the innovative culture, promote innovative performance through exploitation and exploration (Zhang et al., 2017).

Chapter 3: Hypotheses

Self-presentation theory contends that external behaviors lead perceivers to form particular impressions of the actor (Leary, 1995; Schlenker & Pontari, 2000), and meanwhile, interpersonal impressions mainly form along two dimensions that warmth and competence (De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002, 2007; Schlenker, 1975; Van Lange & Kuhlman, 1994). Impressions organized along the warmth dimension denoting the intentions of one person to be good or bad to others, while impressions organized along the competence dimension denoting the ability of one person to pursue personal intentions (De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002). In the self-presentational process, actors can strategically control their interpersonal behaviors, and perceivers will evaluate the actors according to the information delivered by these behaviors.

In the vein of self-presentation theory, a variety of verbal and nonverbal behaviors have instrumental values in managing impressions (DePaulo, 1992; Schlenker & Weigold, 1992; Schneider, 1981) and people are able to give nontruthful presentations without being detected (Albright et al., 2001; DePaulo et al., 1992). Humility is regarded as a virtue in positive psychology (Davis et al., 2010; Hill & Sandage, 2016), and behaving humbly is involved as a facet of positive leadership (Hackett & Wang, 2012; Van Dierendonck, 2011). In other words, appearing humble to others accords with both social virtues and leadership requirements, thereby potentially inducing positive evaluations from others. Furthermore, external behaviors in humility are not necessarily derived from inner self, and people can manipulate their behaviors to enact a humble role. Hence, displaying humility may serve as a self-presentational strategy for leaders

to exercise influence over subordinates.

Extending the self-presentation perspective to humility literature, humble behaviors expressed by leaders may potentially affect how subordinates evaluate leaders in terms of warmth and competence. Specifically, this study focused research interest on perceived authenticity and perceived effectiveness as representatives respectively of warmth and competence.

Authenticity is conceptualized as consistency between one's external expression and one's internal values and beliefs (Gino et al., 2015; Lehman et al., 2019). Leader authenticity perceived by followers describes the extent to which followers judge leaders as acting in accordance with true self (e.g., Weischer et al., 2013). Across a variety of studies that examining audience reactions towards actors' presentation (e.g., De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002; Schlenker & Leary, 1982a), warmth is reflected with honesty and sincerity, which are the core meanings of authenticity. Furthermore, series of empirical studies have reported that leaders perceived as authentic by followers appear to stimulate positive outcomes in followers' attitudes and behaviors (Avolio et al., 2004; Banks et al., 2016; Gardner et al., 2011; Leroy et al., 2015). Considering the important role of perceived authenticity, especially in the setting of leader-follower interaction, this study narrows down the follower impression along the warmth dimension to perceived leader authenticity and specifically discusses the effects of leaders' expressed humility on followers' perception of leader authenticity.

Leader effectiveness is a long-running topic in leadership research that denoting the leaders' ability to exercise influence over subordinates and to improve collective performance towards organizational goals (Amagoh, 2009; Hogan et al., 1994; Madanchian et al., 2017). Empirically, leader effectiveness can be operationalized with follower ratings (i.e., perceived leader effectiveness) (Hogan et al., 1994; Kerr et al., 2006; Owens et al., 2015). The conceptual meaning and empirical operationalization of leader effectiveness implies that this construct delineates followers' general evaluations

of supervisors' leadership ability, thereby constituting an important part of competence impression. Thus, this study narrows down the follower impression along the competence dimension to perceived leader effectiveness and specifically discusses the effects of leaders' expressed humility on followers' perception of leader effectiveness.

3.1. Leader expressed humility and follower impressions

Self-presentation theory offers a theoretical lens for exploring the relationship between leaders' expressed humility and followers' perception of leader in authenticity and effectiveness. Drawing on self-presentation theory, leaders' external behaviors carry information about what kind of person he or she is, and consequently structure the followers' impressions of leaders (DePaulo, 1992; Leary, 1995; Schlenker & Pontari, 2000; Schlenker & Weigold, 1992). Empirical findings informed that self-presentational strategies can simultaneously exert positive influence on both warmth impression and competence impression that actors make on perceivers. Actors engaging in self-transcending strategies, such as ingratiation towards the audience, other-serving attribution of performance, other-serving claim of responsibility, subsequently win positive ratings from perceivers in warmth, as well as in competence (Carlston & Shovar, 1983; Forsyth et al., 1981; Higgins & Judge, 2004; Nguyen et al., 2008). Contrary to self-enhancement that emphasizing self-interest, self-transcendence emphasizes transcending selfish interests and serving the interest of others (Schwartz, 1992, 1994). Humble behaviors expressed by leaders, which are characterized with low self-focus and high self-transcendent pursuits, significantly affect follower perceptions and job-related outcomes in the workplace (Ou et al., 2014; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Informed by self-presentation theory and empirical findings, leaders' expressed humility is potentially positively related to followers' perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness.

The self-transcendence of humility are manifested in three behavioral facets that respectively are accurate self-awareness, appreciation of others, and teachability (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013). Behaviors entailed in accurate self-awareness include

making objective appraisal of personal strengths, abilities and knowledge, as well as transparent acknowledgement of personal weakness, mistakes and failures (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Oc and colleagues suggests that authentic humility could decrease follower vulnerability and encourage follower authenticity (2020). Although this study has identified the importance of self-perceived authenticity in discussing how and when leaders' humble behaviors affect subordinates, the role of interpersonal authenticity impression is still less explored.

In dyadic interaction, self-enhancing appears to be the spontaneous motivation, thereby driving biased or even untruthful presentation, that is emphasizing positive side whereas hiding negative side of oneself (Paulhus et al., 1989; Rosenfeld et al., 1994; Schlenker, 1975). Whereas balanced and realistic presentation about both sides of oneself, especially disclosing the unfavorable side in transparency, is interpreted by the perceivers as truthful expression transcending self-enhancing bias (e.g., Forsyth et al., 1981; Schlenker & Leary, 1982b). Empirical evidence suggests that perceivers would view behaviors with apparent self-serving intentions to be less sincere or less ethical than behaviors with constrained self-serving intentions (Carlston & Shovar, 1983; Tetlock, 1980). Accordingly, leaders displaying accurate self-appraisals towards followers are more likely to induce high authentic perceptions among followers than leaders boastful repeating personal strengths and contributions (Gershon & Smith, 2019; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). Furthermore, by transparently admitting personal weakness, mistakes or failures, leaders will be perceived by followers to be trustworthy and authentic (Norman et al., 2010; Weischer et al., 2013).

The second facet of expressed humility – appreciation of others – is reflected with appreciating the strengths and contributions of others (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013; Owens & Hekman, 2012). Leaders acting in humble ways are less likely to take overt claims of group accomplishments or deprecate followers' abilities, but are more readily to identity followers' abilities, acknowledge followers' strengths and appreciate followers' contributions (Oc et al., 2015; Van Dierendonck, 2011). By so doing,

followers will identity their leaders as other-enhancing rather than self-enhancing. Moreover, followers tend to trust leaders who attending to others' interests (C.H. Chan & Mak, 2014; Kashyap & Rangnekar, 2016; Setyaningrum et al., 2020), and therefore are inclined to assume behaviors of other-serving leaders as genuine expressions of their inner values (Steffens et al., 2016). In similar way, leaders' humble behaviors can impress followers with authentic identity.

The third facet of expressed humility, teachability, is manifested by openness to feedback, comments and alternative views (Ou et al., 2014; Owens et al., 2013; Owens & Hekman, 2012). "Humility carries with it an open-mindedness" (Tangney, 2000, p. 72), and the openness is important for leadership within dyadic interaction context. On the one hand, feedback seeking and feedback acceptance of team leaders make team members feel that leaders are readily to modify their self-appraisals with reference to followers' viewpoints, such that inflated or deflated self-concept could be corrected (Leary et al., 2016). On the other hand, leaders who shift their attention from self-reference to followers' viewpoints and needs are prompted to orienting towards collective interest (Bai et al., 2017). As a result, the authentic self-appraisals and collective endeavors embedded in leaders' humble behaviors are conductive to members' perceived authenticity on leaders (Schlenker & Leary, 1982b; Steffens et al., 2016).

Taken together, leaders' expressed humility is likely to lead team members to form authenticity impression of their leader. Furthermore, by a self-presentational perspective, perceivers generally tend to see others' presentation as sincere and it is hard for them to detect deception (Albright et al., 2001; DePaulo, 1992). Therefore, this study hypothesizes:

Hypothesis 1: Leader humility is positively related to followers' perception of leader authenticity.

According to self-presentation theory, one's public behaviors carry rich information about oneself: intentions, preference, personalities, abilities, and so on (Leary, 1995). In the context of intrateam interactions, leaders' humble behaviors, connoting accurate self-awareness, appreciation of others, and teachability could be interpreted by team members as signals of low self-focus, high other-focus, and continuous development (Owens et al., 2013; Wright et al., 2017). Specifically, accurate self-awareness summarizes a realistic view of the self, reduced self-enhancement, and low self-prioritization, while appreciation of others centers on service for others' interests and appreciations for others' values (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Owens et al., 2013; Stellar et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2017). These behavioral manifestations display leaders' low self-focus and high other-focus towards team members. In the leadership literature, understanding, respecting, appreciating, and serving followers' interest has been increasingly identified as an essential part of effective leadership (e.g., Banks et al., 2016; Judge et al., 2006; Lemoine et al., 2019; Y. Zhang et al., 2021). Perceived leader effectiveness reflects subordinates' general evaluation of whether the leader is effective at fulfilling leadership responsibilities (Amagoh, 2009; Fiedler, 1981; Hogan et al., 1994). Leaders' humble behaviors have been proved to be positively related to group performance, members' work engagement, ratings of charisma, members' feeling trusted, team information sharing, as well as other attitudinal and behavioral factors (Bharanitharan et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2018; Owens et al., 2015; Rego, Owens, Yam, et al., 2017; H. Zhang et al., 2017), which are all indicators of leadership effectiveness (Hogan et al., 1994). Empirical evidence demonstrates that leaders' humble behaviors are associated with favorable individual-level and collective-level outcomes, therefore, in the eye of perceivers, the humble leader may impress direct followers with impressions of effectiveness.

Furthermore, teachability reflects openness attitude, absorptive capacity, and desire for learning (Owens et al., 2013; Tangney, 2000), thereby indicating leaders' continuous development. A wide array of theoretical discussions (Newstead et al., 2019; Wallace et al., 2021) and a variety of empirical studies (Hirst et al., 2004; Kwok et al., 2020)

suggest that self-improvement efforts, knowledge accumulation, and skills learnings are conductive to increasing leadership effectiveness. As immediate followers of team leaders, team members have close working contacts with team leaders, which implies that team members can easily capture leaders' humble behaviors, and meanwhile extract leaders' attitudes towards and inputs in self-improvements. Consequently, interpretations of these behaviors will influence the effectiveness impressions that members form of leaders. Leadership is malleable and learnable (Eva et al., 2021; Newstead et al., 2019), and therefore continuous development implied in humble behaviors exert positive influence on perceptions and expectation of members on leader effectiveness. Taken together, this study hypothesizes the following:

Hypothesis 2: Leader humility is positively related to followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness.

3.2. The mediating mechanisms

Employees' voice is beneficial for the function of work unit, whereas it is risky and challenging for voicers (Liang et al., 2012; Parker & Collins, 2008). Therefore, researchers invested lots of research interests on antecedent mechanisms of voice behaviors, which can be summarized into personal factors (i.e., internal factors) and situational factors (i.e., external factors). Based on theories like trait activation theory, personality trait theory, locus of control, etc., researchers have identified series of antecedent variables of voice, including proactive personality, voice habit, promotion and prevention focus, and the like (C. F. Lam et al., 2018; A. N. Li & Tangirala, 2021; Lin & Johnson, 2015). Moreover, leader and leadership comprise an important part of external factors that influence employee voice, either by directly affecting employees' willing to voice or by indirectly affecting followers' perceived safety (cost) and perceived efficacy (utility). For example, leaders' positive affect, managerial openness, and transformational leadership can enhance followers' psychological safety and thus encouraging upward voice (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu et al., 2017). Managers' ethical leadership can promote ethical voice via group ethical voice efficacy (Huang &

Paterson, 2017). This study will seek to advance present knowledge of the psychological mechanisms that facilitate upward voice by rooting in self-presentation theory (Leary, 1995). Specifically, this study focuses on general impressions of subordinates on their direct leaders rather than personal feelings of subordinates related to the act of speaking up.

Self-presentation theory provides an overarching frame for understanding how leader humility is indirectly related to follower promotive voice and prohibitive voice. For leaders, managing impressions formed by others may work as an important influence mechanism to solicit desired outcomes (Gardner & Martinko, 1988). As Leary (1995) claimed, "When people interact, they are responding to the impressions they have of one another" (p.41). A handful of laboratory studies (e.g., Powers & Zuroff, 1988; Schlenker & Leary, 1982b) and field studies (e.g., Higgins & Judge, 2004; Yi et al., 2019) have demonstrated the social influence of public impressions. Specifically, favorable impressions are generally leading to desired outcomes. For example, a new CEO can ingratiate the predecessor CEO to create the impression of likableness, which helps weaken the likelihood of early dismissal when the predecessor CEO remains as the board chair, whereas the use of self-promotion tactic can create the impression of competence, which helps weaken the likelihood of early dismissal when the stock markets reacts negatively to the new CEO's appointment (Yi et al., 2019). In the context of leader–member interactions, leaders who effectively use self-promotion or ingratiation tactics are more likely to make favorable impressions on team members than those who do not use, and furthermore, to form high quality exchange relationship with members (Wayne et al., 1994).

Drawing from self-presentational perspective, this study further proposes that leaders' expressed humility influences members' voice through regulating the impressions (i.e., perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness) that the leader makes on members. That is, when the team leader's expressed humility leads the member to form authenticity impression and effectiveness impression of him or her, the member,

in turn, will be more likely to propose promotive voice and prohibitive voice but for different reasons. Within work teams, promotive voice refers to members' expression of novel ideas or suggestions for improving team functioning (Liang et al., 2012). Relevant research has reported that promotive voice is based on carefully scanning the surroundings and reflecting on current situations, and thus uncertain information is detrimental to the generation of new ideas (C. Li et al., 2020). Furthermore, direct leader is an important source of work-related information for team members (Nifadkar et al., 2019). If the team leaders are viewed as highly authentic, the member is willing to confer credibility to the information shared by leaders, which can further facilitate members' deep thinking about how to improve the teamwork. However, if the team leader is viewed as far from authenticity, the member is prompted to label the information shared by leaders with uncertainty, which may result in members' refraining from critical thinking. Furthermore, working with authentic leaders engenders followers to actively engage in daily work, assist the unit development and contribute extra-role efforts (Giallonardo et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Such attentiveness to team affairs is necessary for members' coming up with constructive ideas to improve team function (Liang et al., 2012). Consequently, perceived leader authenticity is positively associate with member promotive voice.

By contrast, prohibitive voice in team settings denotes members' expression of concerns about harmful practices, incidents, or behaviors (Liang et al., 2012). The focus of prohibitive voice implies high-level social risk and personal risk to the voicers. On the one hand, speaking up dysfunctions oftentimes bring to light the failures or inappropriate behaviors of someone, and hence less favorable in triggering peer appreciation than promotive voice (McClean et al., 2018). Moreover, followers making supervisors feel threatened may ignite retaliation like abusive treatment (Yu et al., 2018). On the other hand, keeping vigilant about team process and focusing attention on problems will subsequently deplete the voicers (Lin & Johnson, 2015). Hence, encouraging prohibitive voice from team members requires certain protection of members from these risks. Empirical studies have repeatedly reported that team

members hold positive expectations of and feel decreased vulnerability of authentic leaders' behaviors (e.g., Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; D. S. Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Wong et al., 2010). That is, leaders perceived to be authentic are also rated as reliable and dependable by their followers, making followers believe that prohibitive voice is safe within the team, and meanwhile, the team members are willing to rely on the authentic leaders and to express prohibitive voice even when such actions make one vulnerable to personal risks. Conclusively, perceived leader authenticity is positively related to member prohibitive voice.

Parallel to perceived leader authenticity mechanism, perceived leader effectiveness is expected to link the positive association between leaders' expressed humility and members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice. Leader effectiveness signals leaders' attitude towards voice and ability to implement voice. Leaders lacking self-confidence in managerial effectiveness are refrained from soliciting and implementing voice, or even hold aversive attitude towards voicers, under which conditions followers are not willing to communicate improvement-oriented voice (Fast et al., 2014). Additionally, followers' willingness to voice is largely depended on leaders' behaviors and intentions (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu et al., 2017). When perceiving leaders to be ineffective, team members would assume that leaders are rejective to novel ideas, and moreover, are incapable of putting developmental suggestions into practice, finally resulting in reluctance to express promotive voice. The more effective the leader is, the more positive estimations the member would make about giving promotive voice, and thus the member is more willing to speak up. Following this rationale, perceived leader effectiveness is positively related to member promotive voice.

Unlike promotive focusing on team development, prohibitive voice is aimed at protecting the team from harm (Liang et al., 2012). Prohibitive voice challenges the current status quo and thus implies high-level personal risk to the speakers (Liang et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2020; Sessions et al., 2020), and meanwhile motivates a voice calculus. Whether to speak up or not, is largely the result of a calculation about voice rewards

and voice cost (McClean et al., 2018; Milliken et al., 2003; Shepherd et al., 2019), both of which are largely depended on direct leaders because they have formal authority to administer rewards and punishments in areas like performance appraisal and promotability evaluation (Howell et al., 2015; Whiting et al., 2012; Xu Huang et al., 2018). This hierarchical structure in management highlights leaders' actions as important cues for prohibitive voice. When the expected cost outweighs the expected rewards, members are unwilling to communicate prohibitive suggestions, especially for those working with inefficient leaders who may react to voice with inertia and reply to voicers with unfavorable evaluations. Therefore, the effectiveness of leader in the eyes of members are predictive of members' prohibitive voice.

As noted earlier, leader expressed humility is positively associated with perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness reported by team members. Thus far, this study has argued that leader expressed humility is positively related to member perception in leader authenticity, which in turn promotes both promotive and prohibitive voice. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: Leader humility has a positive, indirect effect on follower promotive voice (3a) and prohibitive voice (3b) via increasing followers' perception of leader authenticity.

Hypothesis 4: Leader humility has a positive, indirect effect on follower promotive voice (3a) and prohibitive voice (3b) via increasing followers' perception of leader effectiveness.

3.3. The moderating role of leader humility differentiation

Behaving in humble ways is not always a blessing to the actors – the bright side is blended with the dark side. Humble behaviors may make actors feel that they are licensed to express unethical behaviors (Bharanitharan, Lowe, Bahmannia, Cui, et al., 2021), and observers may suspect whether actors' expressed humility is consistent with their inner beliefs (Bharanitharan, Lowe, Bahmannia, Chen, et al., 2021). The

contradiction in empirical results indicate that the present study should combine different sources of information to discuss the impression formation process.

According to self-presentation theory, self-presentational consistency is a general norm that prescribes how people should act in certain positions or situations (Leary, 1995). Consistency norm dictates that actors should "show a reasonable degree of consistency in how they behave across different situations" (Leary et al., 1995, p. 71). People are expected to behave consistently across different situations, otherwise they might be viewed as uncertain and unreliable (e.g., Matta et al., 2017). In leader-member interactions, followers may refer to the norms as an important basis for impression formation (E. E. Jones & deCharms, 1958; Leary & Jongman-Sereno, 2014). When leaders treat team members with differentiated level of humility within the team, the consistency norm is violated and therefore the information carried by leader' humble behaviors would be deemed as unreliable. Although the decreased self-focus, increased other-focus and openness mindset implied by leaders' humble behaviors are predictable to follower perception of leader authenticity and effectiveness, violating the consistency norm may darken these behaviors as deceptive and manipulative, and therefore cancel the positive effects of expressed humility. In a word, the foundation of authenticity and effectiveness impression might be impaired by the leader humility differentiation. When leaders treat team members with nondiscriminatory level of humility within the team, they abide by the consistency norm and therefore the information carried by expressed humility would be less likely to be challenged. Under this condition, low-level leader humility differentiation will possibly serve as external guarantee of followers' judgment in leader authenticity and leader effectiveness. Accordingly, this study proposes that:

Hypothesis 5: Leader humility differentiation moderates the relationship between leader humility and followers' perception of leader authenticity, such that the relationship is more positive when leader humility differentiation is low.

Hypothesis 6: Leader humility differentiation moderates the relationship between

leader humility and followers' perception of leader effectiveness, such that the relationship is more positive when leader humility differentiation is low.

To integrate these previously discussed relationships, this study further proposes the moderated mediation model in which leader humility differentiation moderates the indirect relationship between leaders' expressed humility and followers' voice. That is, when leader humility differentiation is high, the humble behaviors expressed by leaders will have weaker positive influence on perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness that formed by team members, and indirectly on members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice. When leader humility differentiation is low, the humble behaviors expressed by leaders will have stronger positive influence on perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness that formed by team members, and indirectly on members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice.

Hypothesis 7: Leader humility differentiation moderates the positive indirect effect of leader humility on followers' promotive voice (7a) and prohibitive voice (7b) via followers' perception of leader authenticity, such that the indirect effect is stronger when leader humility differentiation is low.

Hypothesis 8: Leader humility differentiation moderates the positive indirect effect of leader humility on followers' promotive voice (8a) and prohibitive voice (8b) via followers' perception of leader effectiveness, such that the indirect effect is stronger when leader humility differentiation is low.

Chapter 4: Method

4.1. Procedure

To test the hypothesized model, this study collected multilevel and multisource data from three companies in mainland China, including two companies respectively operating in supply chain service and education at Shenzhen and one company engaging in emergency management services at Xi'an. In each company, the manager of human resource department assisted the researcher to sort the list of participants by groups at

work. Participants are from varied departments across three companies, including marketing department, finance department, teaching center, and the like. Within each team, team manager is responsible of monitoring and coaching the work of team members, and meanwhile team members need to coordinate with each other on task allocation. Team managers and team members keep frequent communications such that they could get timely update on work-related information. With strong support from top managers in the three surveyed companies, the researcher is able to solicit wide participation from employees.

Questionnaires were distributed to 48 team leaders and 237 team members with the assistance of human resource managers. The questionnaire for team leader involved items evaluating team members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice, as well as demographic questions. The questionnaire for team members involved questions reporting leader humility, perceived competence of team leader and perceived authenticity of team leader, as well as demographic questions. Finally, 46 team leader surveys were returned, with a response rate of 95.83%. 222 team member surveys were returned, with a response rate of 93.67%. Leader response is paired with subordinate response and nine unpaired samples were filtered out. Finally, the valid sample size is 213.

4.2. Samples

The final sample consist of 213 team members from 46 teams. On average, a team is composed of 4.63 members (S.D.=1.15). Of team leaders, the age was averaged at 35.64 and the length of taking current leader positions was averaged at 3.87 years. Female leader occupied 50.7% while male leaders occupied 49.3%. Most leaders (i.e., 58.7%) had received bachelors' degree, which was followed by college degree at 29.1%. Of team members, the age was averaged at 29.72 and the length of working with current leader was averaged at 2.12 years. 64.3% of team members are female and 35.7% of team members are male. Most team members (i.e., 53.5%) had received bachelors' degree, which was followed by college degree at 38.1%.

4.3. Measures

Leader humility. The current study adapted the 9-item scale developed by Owens, Johnson, and Mitchell (2013) to measure leaders' expressed humility at personalized level. For example, team members were asked to evaluate leaders with "My leader actively seeks feedback from me, even if it is critical", "My leader admits it to me when they don't know how to do something", etc.

Leader humility differentiation. Following prior examples of differentiation measurements (e.g., Henderson et al., 2008; H. Liao et al., 2010), the present study used the within-team variance in the individual-level humility scores for each team to capture team-level variability. Higher within-team variance reflects higher team-level differentiation in leader humility.

Perceived leader authenticity. Team members evaluated team leaders' authenticity with four items adopted from Gershon & Smith (2019) and Sezer, Gino, & Norton (2018). Sample items include "How genuine was this entrepreneur" and "How credible do you think this person is".

Perceived leader effectiveness. Using four items selected from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the researcher asked team members to evaluate the effectiveness of team leaders.

Voice. The 10-item scale developed by Liang, Farh and Farh (2012) was used in team leader questionnaire to measure team members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice, with 5 items for each dimension. Sample items include "He/She proactively develops and makes suggestions for issues that may influence the unit", "He/She advises other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance".

Control variables. The present study controlled for team members' age, gender,

education and leader-member relationship length, following the norms of previous studies (e.g., Ma et al., 2020; L. Wang et al., 2018). Furthermore, this study also controlled for team leaders' age, gender, education, as these factors are related to individual humility (Cannon et al., 2020; Kawamoto, 2016; Mao et al., 2019). Furthermore, team size is involved because it might influence team process (Menon & Phillips, 2011), and thus possibly affect interactions between leaders and members. Tenure as leader is controlled because it reflects how long the leader has supervised the team, which might influence team members' perception of leader humility (Chiu et al., 2016). Considering that leader-member exchange (LMX) reflects the quality of relationship between team leaders and their subordinates, and LMX differentiation is widely suggested by previous studies to affect team members' attitudes and behaviors (Henderson et al., 2009; H. Liao et al., 2010), thus it is also considered.

4.4. Analytical Strategy

This study first conducted confirmatory factor analysis to exclude common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and confirm the discriminant validity of the measurements. In the next, considering that team members are nested in teams, this study adopted hierarchical linear model to partition variance at the individual level (team member) and team level (team leader) with Mplus 7.4. The main effect of the hypothesized model lied at the individual level (i.e., level 1) while the moderating effects of leader humility differentiation lied at the team level (i.e., level 2). When assessing the moderated mediation hypotheses, namely Hypothesis 7 and Hypothesis 8, this study followed Edwards and Lambert (2007) to take the moderated path analysis approach by integrating moderation effect into the path analytic method. Additionally, 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals with 1,000 bootstrapped samples in Mplus facilitated significance testing.

Chapter 5: Results

5.1. Preliminary Analyses

Confirmatory factor analysis. Before hypotheses examination, this study conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to testify the discriminant validity of the measures, namely leader humility, perceived leader authenticity, perceived leader effectiveness, and voice. As shown in table 1, relevant indicators were loaded on their respective latent variables and the hypothesized five-factor model fit the data well, $\chi^2(314, N = 213) = 616.648$, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.931, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) = 0.923, root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.067, standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR) = 0.046, and all factor loadings were significant. The current study also run four alternative models. Model 2 combined two mediators, perceived leader authenticity and perceived leader effectiveness ($\Delta\chi^2(4) = 159{,}568$, $p<0.001$, CFI = 0.895, TLI = 0.884, RMSEA = 0.082, SRMR = 0.051), Model 3 combined two outcome variables ($\Delta\chi^2(4) = 245.141$, $p<0.001$, CFI = 0.875, TLI = 0.863, RMSEA = 0.090, SRMR = 0.054), Model 4 combined two mediators and two outcome variables ($\Delta\chi^2(7) = 401.716$, $p<0.001$, CFI = 0.840, TLI = 0.825, RMSEA = 0.101, SRMR = 0.058), and Model 5 combined all variables into one factor ($\Delta\chi^2(10) = 2055.961$, $p<0.001$, CFI = 0.462, TLI = 0.417, RMSEA = 0.184, SRMR = 0.225). All indices consistently suggested that the hypothesized five-factor model fit the data significantly better than any of the four alternative models.

Preliminary results. The mean, standard deviation, correlations, and reliabilities of level-2 variables are reported in Table 2, whereas the mean, standard deviation, correlations, and reliabilities of level-1 variables are reported in Table 3. The reliabilities of all measurements range from 0.77 to 0.95, all above 0.7. At level 1, team leaders' expressed humility is positively related to team members' perceptions of leaders (perceived leader authenticity, $r = 0.72$, $p < 0.001$; perceived leader effectiveness, $r = 0.76$, $p < 0.001$), promotive voice (leader source, $r = 0.15$, $p<0.05$; member source, $r = 0.46$, $p<0.001$) and prohibitive voice (leader source, $r = 0.12$, $p <$

0.1; member source, $r = 0.39$, $p < 0.001$). All correlations are consistent with hypothetical expectations, and therefore providing preliminary support for the hypotheses.

5.2. Hypothesis testing.

Predictors, mediators and outcomes in the hypothesized model are all conceptualized at the individual level, whereas followers in the sample are nested in 46 teams. Therefore, the researcher conducted a hierarchical regression analysis to parcel out group-level variance and examine hypothesis 1-4 on the basis of within group variance. Hypothesis 5-8 involve cross-level interaction, which requires specifying the direct effect of leader humility on mediators as random slopes and examine whether the random sloped could be explained by the level 2 moderator, leader humility differentiation. Specifically, at level 1, this study specified the effects of leader humility on perceived leader authenticity, perceived leader effectiveness, promotive voice and prohibitive voice. In addition, team member age, team member gender, team member education, team member dyadic tenure (i.e., length of working with team leader) and LMX are involved as level 1 control variables. At level 2, this study assessed the cross-level interaction by regress random slopes on leader humility differentiation, and also added the group means back to control for the main effects of the level 1 variables. In addition, team leader age, team leader gender, team leader education, team leader tenure, team psychological safety and team cohesion are included as level 2 control variables.

The study firstly conducted stepwise regressions to examine the first stage of the model, as presented in table 4, sequentially testing the effects of control variables (M1 and M4 in simultaneous), the effects of independent variable (M2 and M5 in simultaneous), and the effects of first stage moderation (M3 and M6 in simultaneous). Then, as shown in table 5, the study took two steps to examine the second stage of the model, with step 1 presenting the effects of control variables (M1a and M3a in simultaneous, M1b and M3b in simultaneous), step 2 presenting the effects of independent variables and mediators on outcomes (M2a and M4a in simultaneous, M2b and M4b in simultaneous).

Furthermore, this study followed Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang (2010) and Selig & Preacher (2008) to use Monte Carlo method for testing the hypothesized multilevel indirect effects (see Table 6). Finally, this study adopted the moderated path analysis approach to estimate the confidence intervals for conditional indirect effect (see Table 7).

Model 2 and Model 5 in Table 4 show that leader humility is positively related to followers' perceived leader authenticity (b = .16, SE = .06, p<.01) and perceived leader effectiveness (b = .26, SE = .07, p<.001). Thus, Hypotheses 1 and 2 are supported.

Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3b posit that followers' perception of leader authenticity mediates the positive relationship between leader humility and follower promotive voice as well as prohibitive voice. Leader humility is positively related to leader authenticity perceived by follower (Model 2 in Table 4: b = .16, SE = .06, p < 0.01). Outcome variables, promotive voice and prohibitive voice, are collected from both leaders and followers. In terms of leader source data, perceived leader authenticity is positively while insignificantly related to promotive voice (Model 2a in Table 5: b = .07, SE = .19, p > 0.05) and prohibitive voice (Model 4a in Table 5: b = .06, SE = .15, p > 0.05). In terms of member source data, perceived leader authenticity is significantly and positively related to follower promotive voice (Model 2b in Table 5: b = .30, SE = .09, p < 0.01) and prohibitive voice (Model 4b in Table 5: b = .25, SE = .11, p < 0.05). To further testify the significance of the indirect effect, this study employed the Monte Carlo method that recommended by Selig & Preacher (2008). As shown in Table 6, with 20,000 Monte Carlo replications, it is found that the indirect effect of leader humility on followers' promotive voice and prohibitive voice (member source) via perceived leader authenticity are significant and positive at the .05 level, as the 95% confidence intervals [0.012, 0.086] and [0.008, 0.086] excluded zero. However, the indirect effect of leader humility on followers' promotive voice and prohibitive voice (leader source) via perceived leader authenticity are not significant at the .05 level, as the 95% confidence intervals [-0.050, 0.083] and [-0.034, 0.053] included zero. Therefore,

Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3b are partially supported.

Hypothesis 4a and Hypothesis 4b suggest that followers' perception of leader effectiveness mediates the positive relationship between leader humility and follower promotive voice as well as prohibitive voice. In terms of two sources of data, perceived leader effectiveness is not significantly related to promotive voice (Model 2a in Table 5: b = -.01, SE = .12, p > 0.05; Model 2b in Table 5: b = -.03, SE = .08, p > 0.05;) or prohibitive voice (Model 4a in Table 5: b = .01, SE = .11, p > 0.05; Model 4b in Table 5: b = .10, SE = .10, p > 0.05). To further testify the significance of the indirect effect, this study employed the Monte Carlo method that recommended by Selig & Preacher (2008). As shown in Table 6, with 20,000 Monte Carlo replications, it is found that the indirect effect of leader humility on followers' promotive voice and prohibitive voice via perceived leader effectiveness are not significant at the .05 level, as the 95% confidence intervals included zero (leader source: [-0.071, 0.052]and [-0.024, 0.090]; member source: [-0.099, 0.063] and [-0.050, 0.070]). Thus, Hypothesis 4a and Hypothesis 4b are not supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicts that leader humility differentiation would weaken the positive effects of individual level leader humility on perceived leader authenticity. Hypothesis 6 predicts that leader humility differentiation would weaken the positive effects of individual level leader humility on perceived leader effectiveness. Model 3 in Table 4 reveals that the cross-level interaction of individual level leader humility and group level leader humility differentiation is significantly positively related to perceived leader authenticity (γ = .30, SE = .12, p < 0.05), while insignificantly related to perceived leader effectiveness (γ = .09, SE = .20, p > 0.05). This result shows that leader humility differentiation strengthens the positive association between leader humility and perceived leader effectiveness, which is contrary to Hypothesis 3. Figure 2 and slope tests indicate that when leader humility differentiation is high (1 s.d.), leader humility is significantly and positively related to perceived leader authenticity (γ = .20, SE = .06, p < 0.01), whereas when leader humility differentiation is low (-1 s.d.), leader

humility is not significantly related to perceived leader authenticity (γ = .00, SE = .08, p > 0.05). Therefore, Hypotheses 5 and 6 are not supported.

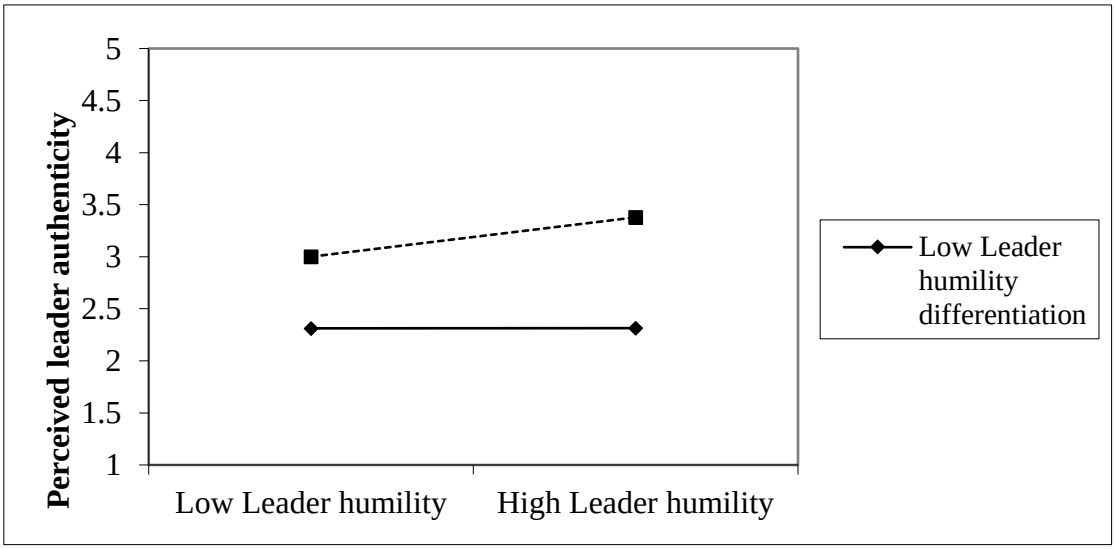

Figure 2 The multilevel interaction effect of leader humility and leader humility differentiation on perceived leader authenticity

Hypothesis 7 proposes that the indirect effects via perceived leader authenticity are contingent on leader humility differentiation. To test the moderated mediation hypotheses, this study applied moderated path analysis approach (Edwards & Lambert, 2007) to estimate the first-stage, second-stage, direct, and overall indirect effects at the high and low levels of the moderator (i.e. leader humility differentiation). Relevant results are presented in Table 7. In terms of follower voice rated by team leaders, the indirect effect of leader humility on follower promotive voice and prohibitive voice through perceived leader authenticity are not significant no matter when leader humility differentiation is higher (indirect effect for promotive voice = .013, 95% CI [-.058, .084]; indirect effect for prohibitive voice = .012, 95% CI [-.045, .068]) or lower (indirect effect for promotive voice = .013, 95% CI [-.012, .012]; indirect effect for prohibitive voice = .003, 95% CI [-.011, 011]). In terms of self-report voice, the indirect effect of leader humility on follower promotive voice through followers' perceived leader authenticity is positive and significant when perceived leader humility differentiation is higher (indirect effect = .065, 95% CI [.013, .118]), whereas the indirect effect is negative and insignificant when perceived leader humility differentiation is lower (indirect effect =

-.005, 95% CI [-.056, .046]). Furthermore, the indirect effect of leader humility on follower prohibitive voice through followers' perceived leader authenticity is positive when perceived leader humility differentiation is higher (indirect effect = .053, 95% CI [-.004, .111], 90% CI [.005, .102]), whereas it is negative when perceived leader humility differentiation is lower (indirect effect = -.004, 95% CI [-.045, .037], 90% CI [-.038, .030]). When the outcomes variables are rated by members not leaders, the differences in the indirect effects of leader humility at high and low levels of leader humility differentiation are significant for promotive voice (Δindirect effect = .070, 95% CI [.003, .138]) and prohibitive voice (Δindirect effect = .057, 95% CI [-.001, .115], 90% CI [.009, .106]). Overall, the moderated mediation process is partially supported, whereas in opposite direction to Hypothesis 7. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 is not supported.

Hypothesis 8 proposes that the indirect effects via perceived leader effectiveness are contingent on leader humility differentiation. Relevant results are presented in Table 7. In terms of follower voice rated by team leaders, the indirect effect of leader humility on follower promotive voice and prohibitive voice through perceived leader effectiveness are not significant no matter when leader humility differentiation is higher (indirect effect for promotive voice = -.003, 95% CI [-.068, .063]; indirect effect for prohibitive voice = .002, 95% CI [-.055, .059]) or lower (indirect effect for promotive voice = -.002, 95% CI [-.052, .048]; indirect effect for prohibitive voice = .001, 95% CI [-.043, .046]). In terms of follower self-report voice, the results are in similar vein no matter when the leader humility differentiation is higher (indirect effect for promotive voice = -.009, 95% CI [-.048, .031]; indirect effect for prohibitive voice = .027, 95% CI [-.030, .084]) or lower (indirect effect for promotive voice = -.007, 95% CI [-.037, .024]; indirect effect for prohibitive voice = .021, 95% CI [-.028, .070]). Therefore, Hypothesis 8 is not supported

Table 1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis [a]

Model	Factor [b]	χ2	df	χ2/ df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
M1（5 factors）	H, A, E, V1, V2	616.648***	314	1.964	0.931	0.923	0.067	0.046
M2（4 factors）	H, A+E, V1, V2	776.216***	318	2.441	0.895	0.884	0.082	0.051
M3（4 factors）	H, A, E, V1+V2	861.789***	318	2.710	0.875	0.863	0.090	0.054
M4（3 factors）	H, A+E, V1+V2	1018.364***	321	3.172	0.840	0.825	0.101	0.058
M5（1 factors）	H+A+E+V1+V2	2672.609***	324	8.249	0.462	0.417	0.184	0.225
Criterion					**>0.9**	**>0.9**	**<0.08**	**<0.05**

[a] n = 213.

[b] H=Leader humility, A=Perceived leader authenticity, E=Perceived leader effectiveness, V1=Promotive voice, V2=Prohibitive voice.

***p＜.001.

Table 2

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlations of Level-2 Variables [a]

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Leader age	35.52	4.32						
2. Leader gender [b]	0.46	0.50	0.16					
3. Leader education [c]	3.78	0.63	0.25	0.04				
4. Leader tenure [d]	3.70	3.15	0.35*	-0.05	-0.28+			
5. Team size	14.04	12.02	0.03	0.25	-.30*	0.22		
6. Leader humility differentiation	0.80	0.33	-0.02	-0.07	-0.09	0.16	0.02	(0.93)

[a] n = 46.

[b] Gender: 0 = female, 1 = male.

[c] Education: 1=middle school graduate, 2=high school graduate, 3=college graduate, 4=master graduate, 5= PhD.

[d] In months.

+p＜.1, *p＜.05, ***p＜.001.

Table 3

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlations of Level-1 Variables [a]

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Member age	29.72	5.14												
2. Member gender [b]	0.35	0.48	-.06											
3. Member education [c]	3.56	0.64	.04	-.07										
4. Member dyadic tenure [d]	2.12	2.29	.45**	.11	-.13^{+}									
5. Leader member exchange	4.52	0.92	-.12^{+}	.19**	.12^{+}	.03	(0.92)							
6. Leader humility	4.56	0.95	-.06	.14*	.16*	-.03	.81***	(0.93)						
7. Perceived leader authenticity	4.99	0.85	-.05	.09	.11	.02	.79***	.72***	(0.95)					
8. Perceived leader effectiveness	4.63	1.04	-.05	.21***	.09	.04	.82***	.76***	.77***	(0.91)				
9. Promotive voice (L [e])	4.06	1.00	.14*	-.07	.15*	-.01	.13^{+}	.15*	.15*	.15*	(0.95)			
10. Prohibitive voice (L [e])	3.91	0.99	.160*	-0.08	.139*	0.10	.13^{+}	0.12^{+}	0.11	0.12^{+}	.75***	(0.93)		
11. Promotive voice (M [f])	4.71	0.75	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.01	.46***	.46***	.42***	.38***	0.13^{+}	.16*	(0.93)	
12. Prohibitive voice (M [f])	4.45	0.80	0.13^{+}	0.05	-0.11	0.10	.42***	.39***	.39***	.38***	0.06	0.13^{+}	.54***	(0.88)

[a] n = 213.

[b] Gender: 0 = female, 1 = male.

[c] Education: 1=middle school graduate, 2=high school graduate, 3=college graduate, 4=master graduate, 5= PhD.

[d] In months.

[e] reported by team leader; [f] reported by team member.

$^{+}p<.1$, $^{*}p<.05$, $^{***}p<.001$.

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Analysis on the Effects of Leader Humility on Mediators [a]

	Perceived leader authenticity			Perceived leader effectiveness		
Variables	**M_1**	**M_2**	**M_3**	**M_4**	**M_5**	**M_6**
Level 1						
Control variables						
Team member age	.00 (.01)	.00 (.01)	.00 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)
Team member gender [b]	-.07 (.06)	-.07 (.05)	-.07 (.06)	.13^{+} (.08)	.13^{+} (.07)	.13^{+} (.07)
Team member education [c]	-.01 (.04)	-.01 (.04)	-.02 (.04)	-.07^{+} (.04)	-.07^{+} (.04)	-.07^{+} (.04)
Team member dyadic tenure [d]	.00 (.01)	-.00 (.01)	.00 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.00 (.01)	-.00 (.01)
Leader member exchange	.67*** (.05)	.55*** (.06)	.55*** (.06)	.83*** (.04)	.63*** (.08)	.63*** (.08)
Independent variable						
Leader humility		.16** (.06)	.10^{+} (.06)		.26*** (.07)	.25** (.09)
Level 2						
Control variables						
Leader age	-.00 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.02 (.02)	-.02 (.01)	-.02 (.01)
Leader gender [b]	-.16^{+} (.08)	-.16* (.08))	-.16* (.08)	-.12 (.10)	-.13 (.10)	-.14 (.10)
Leader education [c]	.06 (.08)	.03 (.07)	.03 (.07)	.12^{+} (.08)	.09 (.08)	.09 (.07)
Leader tenure [d]	-.02 (.02)	-.02 (.01)	-.02 (.02)	.00 (.02)	.01 (.02)	.01 (.02)
Team size	.00 (.00)	.01 (.00)	.01 (.00)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)
Moderating variable						
Leader humility differentiation			-.04 (.18)			-.17 (.15)
Cross level interaction						
Leader humility * Leader humility differentiation			.30* (.12)			.09 (.20)

[a] n = 213.
[b] Gender: 0 = female, 1 = male.
[c] Education: 1=middle school graduate, 2=high school graduate, 3=college graduate, 4=master graduate, 5= PhD.
[d] In months.
$^{+}p<.1$, $^{*}p<.05$, $^{**}p<.01$, $^{***}p<.001$.

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Analysis on the Effects of Leader Humility and Mediators on Outcomes [a]

Variables	Promotive voice (L^e)		Prohibitive voice (L^e)		Promotive voice (M^f)		Prohibitive voice (M^f)	
	M_{1a}	M_{2a}	M_{3a}	M_{4a}	M_{1b}	M_{2b}	M_{3b}	M_{4b}
Level 1								
Control variables								
Team member age	.02^{+} (.01)	.02^{+} (.01)	.02 (.01)	.02 (.01)	.00 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.02 (.01)	.03* (.01)
Team member gender [b]	-.09 (.11)	-.13 (.12)	-.16 (.15)	-.20 (.16)	.06 (.12)	-.05 (.11)	.07 (.13)	-.07 (.12)
Team member education [c]	.01 (.09)	-.01 (.09)	.07 (.11)	.06 (.11)	-.01 (.10)	-.07 (.09)	-.13 (.09))	-.19* (.08)
Team member dyadic tenure [d]	.04 (.03)	.04 (.03)	.09** (.03)	.08* (.03)	.01 (.03)	.00 (.03)	.01 (.03)	.01 (.02)
Independent variable								
Leader humility		.05 (.10)		.03 (.10)		.19* (.08)		.18 (.11)
Mediators								
Perceived leader authenticity		.07 (.19)		.06 (.15)		.30** (.09)		.25* (.11)
Perceived leader effectiveness		-.01 (.12)		.01 (.11)		-.03 (.08))		.10 (.10)
Level 2								
Control variables								
Leader age	.02 (.02)	.02 (.02)	.03 (.02)	.04 (.03)	.01 (.02)	.10 (.02)	.01 (.02)	.02 (.01)
Leader gender [b]	-.01 (.20)	.02 (.20)	-.07 (.20)	-.03 (.19)	-.07 (.13)	-.00 (.13)	-.10 (.12)	-.05 (.11)
Leader education [c]	.20 (.17)	.17 (.15)	.11 (.17)	.08 (.16)	.02 (.11)	-.01 (.10)	.09 (.13)	.06 (.12)
Leader tenure [d]	.00 (.03)	.00 (.03)	-.02 (.04)	-.03 (.04)	-.01 (.02)	-.02 (.02)	-.01 (.03)	-.01 (.03)

Team size	-.02^{+} (.01)	-.02* (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.00 (.01)	.01 (.01)	.01 (.01)
Moderator								
Leader humility differentiation		-.38 (.33)		-.22 (.32)		-.13 (.19)		-.02 (.20)

[a] n = 213.

[b] Gender: 0 = female, 1 = male.

[c] Education: 1=middle school graduate, 2=high school graduate, 3=college graduate, 4=master graduate, 5= PhD.

[d] In months.

[e] reported by team leader; [f] reported by team member.

$^{+}p<.1$, $^{*}p<.05$, $^{**}p<.01$, $^{***}p<.001$.

Table 6

Mediation analyses

Effect	Dependent variables (Leader source)			
	Promotive voice		Prohibitive voice	
	LH→AU→MV	LH→EF→MV	LH→AU→HV	LH→EF→HV
Direct effect	.05	.05	.03	.03
Indirect effect	.01	.02	-.00	.00
Indirect effect 95% confidence interval	[-0.050, 0.083]	[-0.071, 0.052]	[-0.034, 0.053]	[-0.024, 0.090]
	Dependent variables (Member source)			
	Promotive voice		**Prohibitive voice**	
	LH→AU→MV	LH→EF→MV	LH→AU→HV	LH→EF→HV
Direct effect	.19	.19	.18	.18
Indirect effect	.05	.07	-.01	.03
Indirect effect 95% confidence interval	[0.012, 0.086]	[-0.099, 0.063]	[0.008, 0.086]	[-0.050, 0.070]

Note. LH = leader humility; AU = perceived leader authenticity; EF = perceived leader effectiveness; MV = promotive voice; HV = prohibitive voice.

n (level1) = 213; n (level2) = 46.

Table 7

Conditional indirect effect

Moderator	Promotive voice (L [a])		Prohibitive voice (L [a])		Promotive voice (M [b])		Prohibitive voice (M [b])	
	Indirect effect	95% CI	Indirect effect	95% CI	Indirect effect	95% CI	Indirect effect	95% CI
	LH→AU→MV		LH→AU→HV		LH→AU→MV		LH→AU→HV	
Low leader humility differentiation (-1 *SD*)	.000	[-.012, .012]	.003	[-.011, 011]	-.005	[-.056, .046]	-.004	[-.045, .037]
High leader humility differentiation (+1 *SD*)	.013	[-.058, .084]	.012	[-.045, .068]	.065	[.013, .118]	.053	[-.004, .111]
Difference between high and low	.013	[-.056, .082]	.009	[-.041, .064]	.070	[.003, .138]	.057	[-.001, .115]
	LH→EF→MV		LH→EF→HV		LH→EF→MV		LH→EF→HV	
Low leader humility differentiation (-1 *SD*)	-.002	[-.052, .048]	.001	[-.043, .046]	-.007	[-.037, .024]	.021	[-.028, .070]
High leader humility differentiation (+1 *SD*)	-.003	[-.068, .063]	.002	[-.055, .059]	-.009	[-.048, .031]	.027	[-.030, .084]
Difference between high and low	-.001	[-.016, .015]	.001	[-.013, .014]	-.002	[-.016, .012]	.006	[-.027, .040]

Note. LH = leader humility; AU = perceived leader authenticity; EF = perceived leader effectiveness; MV = promotive voice; HV = prohibitive voice.

[a] reported by team leader; [b] reported by team member.

n (level1) = 213; n (level2) = 46.

Chapter 6: Discussion

The multilevel multisource empirical results demonstrate that humble behaviors expressed by team leaders can lead the team member to form positive impressions of them, respectively authenticity impression and effectiveness impression. Furthermore, perceived leader authenticity is positively related to the promotive voice and prohibitive voice reported by team members, whereas the association between perceived leader effectiveness and member voice is not supported. Contrary to the hypothesis, leader humility differentiation strengths, not weakens, the positive relationship between leader expressed humility and member perceived authenticity of leaders, which in turn explains that the indirect effect of leader expressed humility on member voice, including both promotive voice and prohibitive voice, via perceived leader authenticity is strengthen by leader humility differentiation.

The statistical results reveal the leader humility differentiation within the team as an enhancer, which may possibly be explained by the characteristics of self-presentational behaviors. Considerable studies have reported that the usefulness of certain behaviors may vary across different situations (Flynn & Ames, 2006; e.g., McFarland et al., 2005; Schneider, 1969). Additionally, effective impression management requires adjusting one's behaviors according to situational demands (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). Therefore, a certain degree of differentiation in expressive behaviors may facilitate actors to achieve desired impressions and audience responses. Furthermore, taking reference of other literature on within-group differentiation, the individual–within-group comparison processes may amplify positive influence of leaders (e.g., Henderson et al., 2009; H. Liao et al., 2010; L. C. Wang & Hollenbeck, 2019). For example, the quality of leader-member exchange relationship is more salient to team mebers in the context of high-level LMX differentiation relative to low-level LMX differentiation, such that the effects of LMX on individual OCB, turnover, and self-efficacy is strengthened by LMX differentiation (Harris et al., 2014; H. Liao et al., 2010). Morevover, LMX is more strongly related to member's association when authority differentiation is high other

than when authority differentiation is low, because authority differentiation can facilitate resource allocation (L. C. Wang & Hollenbeck, 2019). In a similar vein, differentiation in leaders' humble behaviors targeted at different members may send positive signals that leaders are able to regulate personal behaviors according to situational needs and are willing to express authentic attitudes towards members without hiding inner feelings.

6.1. Theoretical contribution

The research findings contribute to the humility, self-presentation and voice literatures in three primary ways. Firstly, the research introduces the self-presentational perspective to humility research and interprets leader expressed humility as an impression management strategy that can exert social influence within the team and generate desired response form team members. Past research concerning the effects of leader humility mostly implicitly assumes humble behaviors as truthful expressions of personal traits (e.g., Cho et al., 2021; Owens et al., 2019; Rego et al., 2019) whereas ignores how does members interpret leaders' humble behaviors. Consequently, the influence of leader expressed humility on the impression formation alongside warmth and competence dimension has generally been left unexplored. This study addressed this research gap by prosing a moderated mediation model to illustrate how and when leader humility as a self-presentational strategy can promote members' extra-role behaviors.

Furthermore, this study finds that by displaying a modest self-view, enhanced other-focus and open mindfulness, team leader can earn authenticity impression and effectiveness from team members. Moreover, team members are more willing to communicate promotive and prohibitive towards those leaders who are viewed as authentic. Previously, in discussing leaders' role in facilitating followers' voice, researchers mainly restricted their attentions to two routes: one is nurturing perceived psychological safety (i.e., decrease risk) and the other is increasing personal efficacy (i.e., increase utility) (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Huang & Paterson, 2017; Liu et al.,

2017). Voice is interpersonal communication in nature, and impression formation is fundamental in interpersonal interaction (Leary, 1995; Schneider, 1981). As Leary (1995) claimed, "When people interact, they are responding to the impressions they have of one another" (p.41). This study enriches psychological mechanisms that transmitting leaders' influence to followers' voice by shedding light on general impressions of subordinates on their direct leaders rather than personal feelings of subordinates specific to the act of speaking up.

Secondly, the current study integrates self-presentational behaviors with self-presentational norm violations, and consequently enlightens the contingent role of leader humility differentiation. Self-presentation consistency is an important norm that dictates the external behaviors keep a reasonable consistency across different situations (Leary, 1995), whereas differentiated humble behaviors apparently violate the norm. The statistical results disclose that leader humility differentiation strengthens the positive effect of leaders' expressed humility on members' perceived leader authenticity, as well as the indirect effect of leaders' expressed humility on members' promotive voice and prohibitive voice via eliciting perceived leader authenticity from members. On the one hand, the results uncover the boundary conditions of expressed humility as an impression management tactic. On the other hand, the result implies that violating the consistency norm is not necessarily resulting in detrimental results. Especially in the leader-member interaction settings, team members sometimes may accept or expect differentiated treatments from leaders (e.g., Carnevale et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2014; C. Liao et al., 2017). Thus, this study contributes to the humility literature by specifying the existence of variation in leaders' interpersonal humility, as well as the magnifying role of this differentiation, and meanwhile contribute to the self-presentation literature by enrich the understanding of the effects of violating consistency norms.

Thirdly, this study also contributes to the self-presentation theory by extending knowledge about self-presentation tactics. Empirical results suggest that humble behaviors are positively relate to perceivers' impression on authenticity and

effectiveness. In interpersonal interactions, people tend to evaluate others along two dimensions – warmth and competence – and then form corresponding impressions of others (De Bruin & Van Lange, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002, 2007; Schlenker, 1975; Van Lange & Kuhlman, 1994). Perceived authenticity in this study is adopted as a representative of warmth, while perceived effectiveness is viewed as a representative of competence. Stereotypically, high warmth is often mixed with low competence and high competence is often mixed with low warmth (Fiske et al., 2002), therefore people may choose to be either a warm person being liked or a competent person being respected in impression regulation (Bergsieker et al., 2010). However, humble behavior as a self-presentation strategy can overcome such contradiction and win positive evaluation in both facets. As such, self-presentation study may further development via exploring the self-presentational meaning of humble behaviors.

6.2. Practical contributions

This research brings practical hints for managerial practices such as leadership training and voice encouraging. The results have shown that humble behaviors benefit leader themselves by creating favorable public impression in terms of warmth and competence. Humility is a facet of leadership (Morris et al., 2005; Nielsen et al., 2010; Van Dierendonck, 2011) and humble behaviors can be taught (Owens et al., 2013), which implies that leadership ability could be significantly improved via involving humility content in training courses. Furthermore, this study offers a new perspective to encourage subordinate voice within the team. Members' suggestions and concerns have significant implication for improving team performance and team creativity (Frazier & Bowler, 2015; N. Li et al., 2015), thus promoting voice amount and voice quality is beneficial for team functions. Managers should aware that impressing follower with authenticity might increasing followers' willingness to speak up.

6.3. Potential limitations and future directions

Despite the contributions, the current study has potential limitations, which also signals possible directions for future studies. Firstly, in terms of limited access to data

collection, this study merely managed to collect multisource data at one timepoint. If possible, additional dataset with multi-wave design should be involved to give more reliable examination of the proposed model. Secondly, self-presentation theory offers the overarching rationale for the theoretical model, however, the current study emphasized the social influence function of expressed humility while ignoring the intrapersonal influence function of it. As show in self-presentational studies, public behaviors may also influence one's affective, cognitive, and behavioral states (Dunn et al., 2007; McNiel & Fleeson, 2006; Schlenker et al., 1994; Tice, 1992). Therefore, future study may further explore the intrapersonal influence of acting in humble ways for leader and followers, as well as intervening mechanisms.

6.4. Conclusion

Drawing on self-presentation theory, the current study uncovers the social influence function of leaders' humble behaviors in soliciting subordinates' promotive and prohibitive voice. Based on the multisource multilevel data collected from team leaders and team members, leaders expressing humble behaviors in leader-member interaction could leave impressions of authenticity and effectiveness among team members. However, the social influence function of leaders' humble behaviors is mainly transmitted by the authenticity impression not effectiveness impression perceived by members. The humble leaders can make followers form an authenticity impression of him/her, which in turn encourage followers promotive voice and prohibitive voice. Furthermore, such effects may be amplified under the context of high-level differentiation in leaders' humility tailored towards team members.

Appendix Codebook of Measured Variables

Summary

Leader questionnaire

#	Section	Variable
1	Subordinate behaviours	Voice

Subordinate questionnaire

#	Section	Variable
1	Individual behaviours	Voice
2	Leader behaviours	Expressed humility
3	Perception of leader	Perceived leader authenticity
4		Perceived leader effectiveness
5	Relationship	LMX

Leader questionnaire

Voice

Liang, J., Farh, C. I., & Farh, J. L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: A two-wave examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(1), 71-92.

Promotive voice as employees' expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their work unit or organization.

1) Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.
2) Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.
3) Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.
4) Proactively voice out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.
5) Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.

Prohibitive voice describes employees' expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization.

6) Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.
7) Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.
8) Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.
9) Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.
10) Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management.

以下是对您这位下属 *在团队中的行为* 的描述。请思考您在多大程度上同意这些陈述，然后在每个陈述后面勾选最能代表您真实意见的数字(1-6)。**1＝非常不同意；6＝非常同意。** **这位下属：**	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 他/她积极思考团队中可能出现的问题并主动提出建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 他/她主动提出可能会使团队受益的工作建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 他/她主动提出可能改善团队业务流程的建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 他/她主动提出可能有助于团队达成目标的合理化建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 他/她提出可能改善团队运作的建设性意见。	1	2	3	4	5	6

以下是对您这位下属 *在团队中的行为* 的描述。请思考您在多大程度上同意这些陈述，然后在每个陈述后面勾选最能代表您真实意见的数字(1-6)。**1＝非常不同意；6＝非常同意。** **这位下属：**	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 他/她及时劝阻部分成员影响工作效率的行为。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 即使部分人有意见，他/她也对损害团队利益的问题实话实说。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 即使会让人难堪，他/她也对影响团队工作效率的事发表意见。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 即使会得罪人，他/她也指出团队工作上存在的问题。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 他/她积极反映团队协调时存在的问题。	1	2	3	4	5	6

Subordinate questionnaire

Expressed humility of leader

Owens, B. P., Johnson, M. D., & Mitchell, T. R. (2013). Expressed humility in organizations: Implications for performance, teams, and leadership. *Organization Science*, *24*(5), 1517-1538.

1. This person actively seeks feedback, even if it is critical.
2. This person admits it when they don't know how to do something.
3. This person acknowledges when others have more knowledge and skills than him- or herself.
4. This person takes notice of others' strengths.
5. This person often compliments others on their strengths.
6. This person shows appreciation for the unique contributions of others.
7. This person is willing to learn from others.
8. This person is open to the ideas of others.
9. This person is open to the advice of others.

以下是对您直属领导的描述。请思考您在多大程度上同意这些陈述，然后在每个陈述后面勾选最能代表您真实意见的数字(1-6)。1=非常不同意，6=非常同意。 我的领导	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 会主动寻求我对他的反馈，即使反馈是批评性的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 会对我承认有人比他/她更有知识或技能。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 会对我承认自己不懂得做某件事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 能看到我的优点。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 经常称赞我的长处。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 对我的贡献表示赞赏。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 愿意向我学习。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 对我的想法持开放的态度。	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 对我的建议持开放的态度。	1	2	3	4	5	6

Perceived leader authenticity

Gershon, R., & Smith, R. K. (2019). Twice-told tales: Self-repetition decreases observer

assessments of performer authenticity. Journal of personality and social psychology.

1. How authentic was this entrepreneur? (1 = not at all authentic, 7 = very authentic);
2. How sincere was this entrepreneur? (1 = not at all sincere, 7 = very sincere);
3. How genuine was this entrepreneur? (1 = not at all genuine, 7 = very genuine).

Sezer, O., Gino, F., & Norton, M. I. (2018). Humblebragging: A distinct—and ineffective—self-presentation strategy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *114*(1), 52-74.

1. How sincere do you think this person is? (1 = not at all, 7 = very much)
2. How credible do you think this person is? (1 = not at all, 7 = very much)

以下是有关您直属领导的问题。请根据您实际的感受，回答下列问题，在 6 个选项中选出最符合的一项。					
1. 您认为您的领导有多可信？					
○非常不可信	○不可信	○有点不可信	○有点可信	○可信	○非常可信
2. 您认为您的领导有多真诚？					
○非常不真诚	○不真诚	○有点不真诚	○有点真诚	○真诚	○非常真诚
3. 您认为您的领导有多诚实？					
○非常不诚实	○不诚实	○有点不诚实	○有点诚实	○诚实	○非常诚实
4. 您认为您的领导有多可靠？					
○非常不可靠	○不可靠	○有点不可靠	○有点可靠	○可靠	○非常可靠

Perceived leader effectiveness

MLQ

请思考您对您的团队领导的印象和感受，并阅读以下有关您*个人感受* 的描述。请思考您在多大程度上同意这些陈述，然后在每个陈述后面勾选最能代表您真实意见的数字(1-6)。**1＝非常不同意；6＝非常同意。**	**非常不同意**	**不同意**	**有点不同意**	**有点同意**	**同意**	**非常同意**
1. 我的领导在向上级领导反映我的需要方面做得很好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 我的领导能有效地满足我在工作方面的要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 我的领导能有效地满足组织（单位）的要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 我的领导所领导的团队是一个高效的团队。	1	2	3	4	5	6

LMX

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. Leadership Quarterly, 6(2), 219-247.

LMX 领导-下属交换关系		
1.	Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?	一般来说，我很清楚我的领导是否满意我的工作表现。
2.	How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	我觉得我领导非常了解我工作上的问题及需要。
3.	How well does your leader recognize your potential?	我觉得我领导非常了解我的潜力。
4.	Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/ her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?	不论我领导的职权有多大，他/她都会运用他/她的职权来帮我解决我工作上的重大难题。
5.	Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/ her expense?	不论我领导的职权有多大，他/她都会牺牲他/她自己的利益来帮助我摆脱工作上的困境。
6.	I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/ her decision if he/she were not present to do so?	我很信任我的领导，即使他/她不在场，我仍会替他/她作出的决策进行辩护和解释。
7.	How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	我和我领导的工作关系很好。

以下是有关 *您对团队领导的态度* 的描述。请按您的真实感受来填答您对各项叙述的符合程度，在右边栏位中（ 1 到 6）圈选出合适的数字。 **1＝非常不符合； 6＝非常符合。**		**非常不符合**	**不符合**	**有点不符合**	**有点符合**	**符合**	**非常符合**
1.	一般来说，我很清楚我的领导是否满意我的工作表现。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	我觉得我领导非常了解我工作上的问题及需要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	我觉得我领导非常了解我的潜力。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	不论我领导的职权有多大，他/她都会运用他/她的职权来帮我解决我工作上的重大难题。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	不论我领导的职权有多大，他/她都会牺牲他/她自己的利益来帮助我摆脱工作上的困境。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	我很信任我的领导，即使他/她不在场，我仍会替他/她作出的决策进行辩护和解释。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	我和我领导的工作关系很好。	1	2	3	4	5	6

Voice

Liang, J., Farh, C. I., & Farh, J. L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: A two-wave examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(1), 71-92.

Promotive voice as employees' expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their work unit or organization.

1) Proactively develop and make suggestions for issues that may influence the unit.
2) Proactively suggest new projects which are beneficial to the work unit.
3) Raise suggestions to improve the unit's working procedure.
4) Proactively voice out constructive suggestions that help the unit reach its goals.
5) Make constructive suggestions to improve the unit's operation.

Prohibitive voice describes employees' expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization.

11) Advise other colleagues against undesirable behaviors that would hamper job performance.
12) Speak up honestly with problems that might cause serious loss to the work unit, even when/though dissenting opinions exist.
13) Dare to voice out opinions on things that might affect efficiency in the work unit, even if that would embarrass others.
14) Dare to point out problems when they appear in the unit, even if that would hamper relationships with other colleagues.
15) Proactively report coordination problems in the workplace to the management.

以下题项描述了***您在此团队工作中的表现***，请根据实际情况评估你对下列描述的同意程度，然后在每个陈述后面勾选最能代表您真实意见的数字(1-6)。 **1＝非常不同意；6＝非常同意。**	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我积极思考团队中可能出现的问题并主动提出建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 我主动提出可能会使团队受益的工作建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 我主动提出可能改善团队业务流程的建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 我主动提出可能有助于团队达成目标的合理化建议。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 我提出可能改善团队运作的建设性意见。	1	2	3	4	5	6

以下题项描述了***您在此团队工作中的表现***，请根据实际情况评估你对下列描述的同意程度，然后在每个陈述后面勾选最能代表您真实意见的数字(1-6)。 **1＝非常不同意；6＝非常同意。**	非常不同意	不同意	有点不同意	有点同意	同意	非常同意
1. 我及时劝阻部分成员影响工作效率的行为。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 即使部分人有意见，我也对损害团队利益的问题实话实说。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 即使会让人难堪，我也对影响团队工作效率的事发表意见。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 即使会得罪人，我也指出团队工作上存在的问题。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 我积极反映团队协调时存在的问题。	1	2	3	4	5	6

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