REMOVE THE MASK: A RELATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE EFFECTS OF AUTHENTICITY ON WORK-RELATED INTERPERSONAL OUTCOMES

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

People are encouraged both to be true to self and to regulate self to fit in society. It comes as a practical and intriguing question whether employees need to wear a mask or remove it in the workplace. To address the issue, we set out to explore socio-relational consequences of authenticity in the workplace, specifically, to investigate how authenticity influence social acceptance and how the acceptance is further translated into work-related interpersonal outcomes. Drawing on behavioral script theory, we hypothesized a facilitating effect of a focal employee's authenticity on coworkers' acceptance to him/her among a work team, and proposed three moderators to the effect, which are the coworkers' belief of social complexity, organizational politics of the work team, and the employee's Machiavellian personality. In addition, we postulated that coworkers' acceptance can bring an extensive influence on the focal employee's work-related experience in the workplace. Three studies were employed test the hypothesized model.

In Study one, a relatively small sample (7 teams, 28 individuals, 97 dyads) were recruited to establish the measure of perceived authenticity and to preliminarily explore the hypothesized effects. Focusing on behavioral manifestation of authenticity, we measure employees' authenticity perceived by their coworkers. In Study two, 195 teachers from 47 subject teams, producing 615 dyads, were employed to comprehensively examine the research model. In Study three, 151 employees from 45 work teams, generating 343 dyads, were further recruited to replicate and validate the findings of Study 1 and 2.

Across the three studies, the results consistently suggested that a focal employee's authenticity increase coworkers' acceptance of the employee in a work team. And, coworkers' acceptance was found to be positively associated with coworkers' helping behavior towards him/her, his/her social status in the team, coworkers' exchange with him/her and supervisor's reward recommendations for him/her. Meanwhile, this facilitating effect of authenticity was moderated by coworker's perceived organizational politics or the focal employee's Machiavellianism such that the effect is weaker when the coworkers perceive the work context as political or when the focal employee is a Machiavellian person. However, among the three moderators, the effect of coworkers' social complexity consistently failed to be supported. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings were then discussed.

Keywords: Authenticity; Social acceptance; Work-related interpersonal outcomes; Social complexity; Organizational politics; Machiavellian personality

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"Be yourself - not your idea of what you think somebody else's idea of yourself should be."

— Henry David Thoreau

"Very few people do this any more. It's too risky. First of all, it's a hell of a responsibility to be yourself. It's much easier to be somebody else or nobody at all."

— Sylvia Plath

As implied in admonishments by ancient Greek philosophers, such as "know thyself"; by Shakespeare, such as "to thine own self be true"; and by Thoreau in the beginning, being true to oneself has long been considered a moral and psychological imperative. However, advices against doing so, such as the suggestion from Plath in the beginning quotations, have often been given. Such a contradiction also pervasively exists in the workplace. For example, employees tend to be motivated to work in such a way that they can be themselves (Korman, 1970). But, employees sometimes have to do tasks that they may not want to do following their job requirements (Deci & Ryan, 2000), such as presenting a professional image (Roberts, 2005) and displaying a desirable emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). In this thesis, to unlock the contradiction, we attempt to comprehensively investigate when, why, and how employees are welcome to be authentic in the workplace.

In social contexts, individual behaviors are often regulated by social expectations, such as social rules and norms. Actions that follow social expectation can sometimes be necessary. Although social expectations are not always contradictory with internal urges derived from being true to self, they can often be different from one another (Neale & Griffin, 2006). When the two conflict, people are put into a dilemma where they must choose either to hide their true self and to wear a mask to fit in the contexts, just as a chameleon, or to be true to themselves, that is, to remove the mask. In the workplace, employees may be involved in such a dilemma, because they are formally contracted to perform their work role to fulfill the job requirements. One obvious example of the dilemma is emotional labor, in which employees must regulate their emotions, following the rules, to generate and express the emotions that are different from their actual experiences (e.g., Morris & Feldman, 1996).

Submitting to the external force often accompanies an uncomfortable experience, which can even lead to psychological disorders (Yalom, 1980). Despite the destructive consequences of not being true to self, it is still a question whether employees are welcome to be authentic in the workplace. To clarify the complexity, we want to explore how coworkers respond to a focal employee's authenticity. Furthermore, we investigate how such responses shape the employee's work-related interpersonal experiences. In this chapter, we first briefly review previous organizational studies on authenticity in the workplace, then introduce our current research and finally explain its contributions.

Our Current Understanding

Authenticity has long been considered an important indicator of healthy psychological functioning and has been intensively studied in clinical psychology (Rogers, 1959). However, empirical study on authenticity has largely been neglected

until the recent positive psychology movement (see Linley, Joseph, Harrington, & Wood, 2006). This movement has encouraged a growing number of organizational scholars to join with sociologists and psychologists to examine the nature of authenticity in the workplace. In organizational studies on authenticity, scholars mainly focus on the authenticity of leaders and the inauthentic experience of ordinary employees.

Authentic leadership is an emerging concept that has been increasingly studied. The concept focuses on the leaders' authentic behavioral expressions during interactions with the followers. Authentic leaders are suggested to be "deeply aware of their values and beliefs, they are self-confident, genuine, reliable and trustworthy, and they focus on building followers' strengths, broadening their thinking and creating a positive and engaging organizational context" (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005, p. 374). Authentic leadership is found to be an effective leadership style, in that the authentic leader sets a good model for subordinates to follow (Avolio, & Gardner, 2005; Ladkin, & Taylor, 2010). As a result, the leader brings about the followers' positive behaviors during their interactions (Dasborough, & Ashkanasy, 2005).

Studies have investigated inauthentic emotional displays of employees (Roberts, Cha, Hewlin, & Settles, 2009), focusing on the consequences of emotional labor, which refers to "the act of expressing organizationally desired emotions during service transactions" (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987). For example, employees tend to be anxious and stressful when they must conform to external expectations that are different from their true feelings (Hackman, 1992). Anxiety may bring harm to their psychological and even physical health (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). During emotional labor, employees must express specific emotions to meet the requirements of display rules, even when the expressed emotions are

different from their true feelings. Given inauthentic emotional display, individuals need to engage in self-censorship to suppress the expression of their true emotions, ideas, and opinions (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Such behavior consumes additional energy and resources (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000).

In addition to inauthentic display, a few recent studies also attempt to examine employees' authentic experiences in the workplace. Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, and Sels (2012)'s study revealed that followers' authentic experiences under authentic leadership can satisfy their fundamental psychological needs and further improve their work role performance. Bosch and Taris (2014) developed a measure to capture employees' psychological experience of authenticity. They found that employees who display their authentic selves tend to have a lower level of negative emotion. They experience a lower level of stress and higher levels of work engagement, job performance, and in-role performance.

In sum, previous studies on authenticity in the workplace attempt to explore its role in leadership and its effect on psychological experience and related work outcomes. These studies significantly contribute to our understanding of this topic. However, the existing studies on the authenticity of ordinary employees mainly focused on employees' psychological experience of being true to themselves. The socio-relational implications of employees' authenticity, though assumed, have seldom been investigated. Thus far, we know little about how a focal employee's authenticity influences his/her social standing in the workplace. Moreover, knowledge is lacking on whether "removing the mask" can be helpful for the employee to fit in the work team. To extend the previous works, in the thesis, we attempt to investigate how a focal employee's authenticity shapes his/her work experiences in a work team from a relational perspective.

The Present Study

Being defined as the experience of being true to oneself, authenticity has been conceptualized from different theoretical perspectives, e.g., self-determination theory perspective (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2000), person-centered psychology (Barrett-Lennard, 1998; Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliousis, & Joseph, 2008), and cognitive psychology (Kernis, 2003; Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis & Goldman, 2006). Among all the conceptualizations, authenticity is recognized to include the awareness of true self and act accordingly. To explore relational implications of authenticity, this study focuses on its behavioral manifestations of authenticity. Thus, we conceptualized authenticity, namely, *perceived authenticity*, as observable behaviors. In the present study, perceived authenticity is defined as *employees' behaviors to exhibit awareness and unbiased understanding of one's own motives, values, and propensities, and to frankly express it in actions and in social relationships.*

We investigated the effects of employees' authenticity on their work-related interpersonal outcomes from a relational perspective. In the theoretical framework on interpersonal interactions and relationships, the environment of a focal employee, such as team climate and exchange quality with coworkers, can play a crucial role in shaping the employee's work experience, because work is inevitably entangled with social relations (Grant & Parker, 2009). For example, review on work organization suggested that teams are widely used in modern organizations to complete work, such that employees carry out their tasks and responsibilities interdependently (Osterman, 2000; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). As such, in this study, we attempt to explore the influence of a focal employee's authenticity on coworkers' relationship with the employee and in turn the influences on his/her work-related interpersonal outcomes.

To understand a coworker's response to a focal employee's authenticity, we need to explore the social perceptions of coworkers. After all, one's perception of behavior, not behavior *per se*, is the factor that influences his/her response to other's behaviors (e.g., Engle & Lord, 1997; Gioia, Thomas, Clark, & Chittipeddi, 1994). Coworkers' responses to the focal employee's authenticity depend highly on the conveyed social meanings of the observed behaviors, which are socially constructed and subjectively interpreted (e.g., Lewis & Grimes, 1999). One often casts social meaning to observed behaviors by comparing behaviors with related behavioral expectations in the social context (Gioia & Manz, 1985), because social perception is by nature a sense-making process (Lord & Maher, 1991). The expectations on a particular behavior in specific situations are determined by a behavioral script, which refers to the mental representation describing a behavior in terms of its appropriateness in specific situations and contexts (Schank & Abelson, 1977; Gioia & Manz, 1985). A behavioral script can decide the appropriateness of a focal employee's behaviors, such as authenticity in the study, perceived by coworkers and further determines their responses to the employee. In general, authenticity helps to build up mutual trust and foster social acceptance, because authenticity is often interpreted as honesty, trustworthy, and openness in the interpersonal relationship (Heppner, Kernis, Nezlek, Foster, Lakey, & Goldman, 2008; Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009). Research on the effects of dispositional authenticity on interpersonal relationships revealed that authenticity is positively related to interpersonal relationship quality (e.g., Brunell, Kernis, Goldman, Heppner, Davis, et al., 2010).

As we argued in the beginning, authenticity may not always be appreciated in the workplace. Some situations may arise in which authenticity is considered inappropriate. To address the issue, we further investigate the boundary conditions

under which the focal employee's authenticity is unappreciated by coworkers. As suggested by Gioia and Manz (1985), behavioral expectations on authenticity can be reshaped by behavioral scripts derived from three different sources of criteria: the observer's social beliefs, social context of the group, and behavioral pattern of the actor. Accordingly, we propose that coworkers' behavioral expectations on authenticity may be shaped by scripts from the three sources. These expectations, thus, reshape coworkers' responses to the employee's authenticity. First, coworkers with high social complexity, *i.e.*, the social beliefs that inconsistency among human behaviors is common, and as such, behavioral flexibility is important to address social issues, and tend to expect the focal employee to behave in a flexible way (Bond, Leung, Au, Tong, & Chemonges-Nielson, 2004). Thus, the coworkers may not welcome the focal employee's authentic behaviors following clear and uncompromised principles. Second, coworkers perceiving the work team in a highly political climate expect the focal employee to accept and utilize political influences (Witt, Kacmar, Carlson, & Zivnuska, 2002; Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004). Thus, the coworkers tend not to appreciate his/her authentic behaviors, which can be regarded as straightforward manifestation of true self and insensitivity to political influence. Third, a focal employee who is high in Machiavellianism (*high Mach* in short), *i.e.*, a personality trait characterized by a cynical view of human nature, a use of manipulative tactics, and a pragmatic orientation over morality, is expected not to exhibit authentic behaviors by observers given the contradiction between authenticity and Machiavellianism. However, high Mach tends to authentically express the belief in the effectiveness of manipulative tactics (Jones & Paulhus, 2009) and use authentic behaviors as a manipulative tactic (Liu, 2008). Thus, by observing authentic behaviors of the employee with high Machiavellianism, the coworkers may

interpret their behaviors negatively and not appreciate them. In addition, the aforementioned three factors can interact with each other to determine behavioral expectation. Thus, these factors guide coworkers' responses to the focal employee's authenticity. The coworkers' responses constitute the social surroundings in which the focal employee is embedded, which further shape the employee's work experiences.

Contributions

In the present study, we seek to contribute to the literature in several ways. First, although studies have investigated leader's authenticity and employee's psychological experience of being authentic, an employee's behavioral manifestation of authenticity in the workplace has drawn little attention. By seeking to improve the current understanding on authenticity, we would like to explore the influence of employee's authenticity on their work outcomes and the extent to which authenticity is under constraint in the workplace. Although its socio-relational implications of authenticity are widely assumed, previous analyses on employee's authenticity are mainly from an intrapersonal perspective. The effects of employee's authenticity on interpersonal relationship and social acceptance have seldom been directly studied. The present study contributes to the line of research by exploring social acceptance towards authenticity in the workplace.

Second, previous organizational studies on self-presentation and self-display in the workplace mainly investigated the ways of self-presentation that aim to manipulate the perceptions of others, such as impression management (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008) and emotional regulation (Grandey, 2003). Attention has seldom been paid to authentic self-display in the workplace. In this study, we attempt to extend the scope of the line of research by analyzing how coworkers perceive and react to a focal employee's authenticity.

Third, we employ behavioral script theory to explore the boundary conditions for coworkers to accept a focal employee's authentic behaviors. Authenticity is often put in a positive light and considered a pleasant psychological experience (Seligman, 2002) and helpful in building up a high-quality intimate relationship (Brunell, et al., 2010). However, the study suggests that authenticity is simply a way of self-presentation. This type of self-presentation may not be always appreciated by others. In this study, we proposed that social benefits of authenticity in the workplace are conditional and dependent on how coworkers understand and interpret authentic behaviors.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

People have the psychological need to be authentic (Korman, 1970; Korman, 1976). Being true to oneself is crucial to psychological health. On the contrary, losing contact with one's true self and then failing to fulfill such psychological needs can lead to serious psychological health problems and considerable human misery (Ryan et al., 2000; Rogers, 1961; Yalom, 1980; May, 1981). However, despite the positivity of being true to oneself, authentic behaviors are not constantly accepted and welcomed in social contexts. For example, certain social roles require inhibiting authentic emotional expressions and making a socially desirable impression (e.g., Grandey, 2003). In this thesis, we attempt to explore under what conditions authentic behaviors are not socially appreciated. However, before analyzing the issue, we need to review the nature of authenticity and the mechanism of social acceptance.

In this chapter, we first defined the concept of authenticity, and then reviewed the conceptualizations of authenticity from three prevailing theoretical perspectives, namely, self-determination theory perspective, person-centered theory perspective, and multi-component conceptualization. Based on the review on the previous understanding of authenticity, we presented the conceptualization used in our studies. Lastly, literature on social acceptance was further discussed, highlighting the mechanisms of social acceptance in different social contexts.

Conceptualization of Authenticity

Authenticity refers to "owning one's personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, wants, preferences, or beliefs" and behaving "in accord with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings" (Harter, 2002, p. 382). Scholars held different assumptions about the nature of authenticity. Some scholars proposed that authenticity is an individual trait, which tends to be consistent over time and across contexts (Kernis, 2003; Wood et al., 2008). Others suggested that it is a psychological state, varying on a spectrum of subjective experience from being authentic self to being false self in various social contexts (Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997; Lenton, Bruder, Slabu, & Sedikides, 2013). From different perspectives and based on different theoretical foundations, the construct has been mainly conceptualized in three frameworks in social psychology and organizational study.

Self-determination Theory Perspective

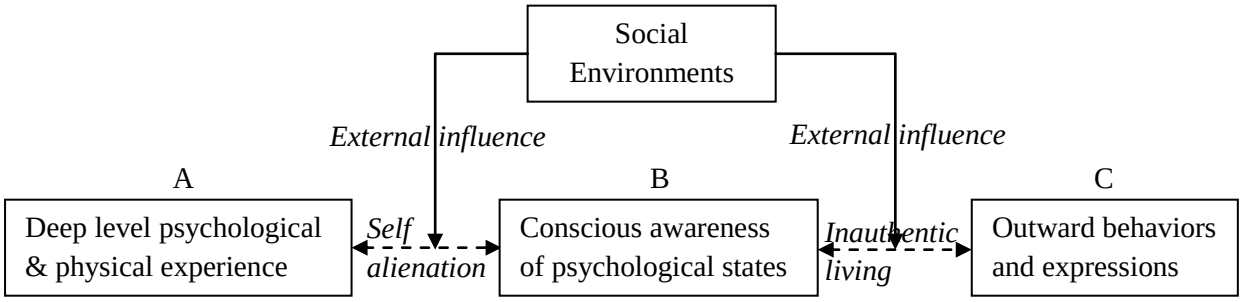
The first framework is from self-determination theory perspective. According to the theory, individual behavior can be driven by either *controlled motivation* or *autonomous motivation*. Controlled motivation refers to one's motives to participate in an activity because of a sense of pressure or a feeling of *having to* engage in the action; autonomous motivation involves volitional action with a sense of its being chosen and determined by oneself (Gagné & Deci, 2005). People feel authentic when they act with a full sense of choice of alternative behaviors and being autonomously regulated (Sheldon, et al., 1997). Autonomy is emanated from *self* and can be displayed in two forms: intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing activities for one's inherent tendency to exercise and extend one's capabilities, and fully integrated extrinsic motivation, which means that extrinsic goals have already been evaluated and brought into

congruence with one's core values and needs (Ryan et al., 2000; Deci et al., 2000). External requirements and social values can be gradually internalized and assimilated into one's self-concept by an integrative process (Deci, et al., 2000). Therefore, self-concept is not merely limited to the aspects of one's *nascent self*, but also contains the fully internalized extrinsic norms and values. In this sense, authentic behaviors are essentially self-determined actions, whether they stem from internal urges or from fully internalized social values. This conceptualization of authenticity was then adopted and integrated into Luthans and Avolio (2003)'s original self-based definition of authentic leadership, which refers to "a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (p. 243).

Person-centered Psychology Perspective

Another conceptualization of authenticity is adapted from person-centered psychology. In the aforementioned self-determination theoretical framework, scholars focus on the experiences of the aware self and ignore the unaware aspects of self. However, from the perspective of person-centered psychology, awareness of self-concept is one important facet of authenticity. According to Rogers (1961; 1959), the founder of person-centered psychology, keeping fully in touch with authentic self and acting totally based on it seems to only happen in an ideal condition, namely, *fully functioning*, which is Rogers' term to describe one's psychological health condition with all psychological potential fulfilled. In the person-centered psychology, authenticity is defined as the consistency between the three levels of personal experience, *i.e.*, from inward to outward: (a) a person's primary experience, including physical states and deep level psychological experience, (b) the conscious awareness

of the actual psychological states, and (c) the outward behaviors and expressions (Barrett-Lennard, 1998, see Figure 2-1).



Adopted from: *Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliousis, & Joseph, 2008*

FIGURE 2-1

Conception of Authenticity from Person-centered Perspective

Given that total authenticity seems impossible from this perspective, the conception of authenticity focuses on the extent to which one's outward expressions are deviant from the primary experience. The deviance can be caused by both a discrepancy between (a) primary experience and (b) conscious awareness, and by a discrepancy between (b) conscious awareness and (c) outward expressions. Therefore, based on the conceptualization, the first aspect of authenticity involves the conscious awareness of actual psychological states. The extent to which the person experiences a discrepancy between the two can be used to assess the first aspect of authenticity, or to be accurate, inauthenticity, i.e., *self-alienation*. The mismatch will lead to a subjective experience of not knowing oneself or being out of touch with one's true feelings. Self-alienation is often caused by severe stress and regarded as an indicator of psychopathology in person-centered psychology. In addition to severely stressful events, self-deception can produce and aggravate self-alienation. For example, self-deceivers in the workplace tend to believe that they achieve more than they actually do (Martocchio & Judge, 1997). Ultimately, they lose contact with their true experiences.

The second aspect of authenticity, *authentic living*, involves the degree of congruence between consciously perceived psychological states and outward expressions of the psychological experience. Surface acting in emotion management, i.e., manipulating expression to display an emotion different from the one felt (Grandey, 2003), is an example of such incongruence. Humans are fundamentally social beings. Thus, the aforementioned two types of congruence can be affected by external environments (Schmid, 2005). Workplace is one of the most salient social environments. In the work environment, self-alienation can be produced by self-deception (Martocchio & Judge, 1997). The experience of inauthentic living can be created by surface acting or by inauthentic impression management (Bolino, 1999). Therefore, the third aspect of authenticity involves the extent to which one's psychological and behavioral experiences can be influenced by social environments, i.e., accepting *external influence*. Accepting external influence can occur in two possible ways from self-determination perspective: introjecting views and expectations from social contexts onto outward behaviors, or integrating external regulations and values into self-concept. Integration of external values would not increase inauthenticity because, during integration, self-concept is changed to be consistent with social behavioral requirements. The person-centered theoretical framework is used mainly in social psychology to theorize the individual difference on authenticity (Wood et al., 2008). This framework was recently employed in organizational study to conceptualize employees' inauthentic experience after emotional labor (Simpson & Stroh, 2004; Roberts, et al., 2009).

Multi-component Conceptualization

The third framework is multi-component conceptualization of personal authenticity proposed by Kernis and Goldman (Kernis, 2003; Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis &

Goldman, 2006). This framework is the most widely used theoretical framework of authenticity in organizational study. In this conceptualization, authenticity is defined as an "unobstructed operation of one's true, or core, self in one's daily enterprise" (Kernis, 2003, p. 13), comprising four separate but related components (see Table 2-1): awareness, unbiased processing, authentic behavior, and relational transparency.

TABLE 2-1

Multi-component Conceptualization of Authenticity

Components	Personal Authenticity	Perceived Authenticity
Awareness	having knowledge of and trust in one's own feelings, personal characteristics, motives, desires, and self-relevant cognitions	exhibiting a clear understanding of one's own motives, value, and propensities
Unbiased Processing	not denying, distorting, exaggerating, or ignoring private knowledge, internal experiences, and externally based evaluative information	admitting, accepting, and embracing the shortcoming of the way of behaving
Authentic Behavior	acting according to one's values, needs, and true self rather than pleasing others or attaining rewards or avoid punishment	acting according to the principles derived from one's motives and values
Relational Transparency	valuing and striving to achieve openness and truthfulness in one's close relationship	presenting authentic self and openly sharing thoughts to others, do not fake and deceive

The first component, awareness, involves having knowledge of and trust in one's own feelings, personal characteristics, motives, desires, and self-relevant cognitions. It includes being aware of one's own emotional states, personal strengths and weaknesses, and one's own role in daily enterprise. Awareness does not simply reflect the recognition of one's dominant aspects of self-concept, such as an introverted person's awareness of his/her introversion, but also represents knowledge of existing polarities inherent in self-concept, e.g., introversion and desire for social connectedness, and the influence of the contradictions on one's thoughts, feelings, actions, and behaviors.

The second cognitive component of authenticity involves *unbiased processing* of self-relevant information. This component refers to "not denying, distorting, exaggerating, or ignoring private knowledge, internal experiences, and externally based evaluative information" (Kernis, 2003, p. 14). The bias of the processing can result from both internal experiences and external interactions based on the dominion of self-relevant information. On one hand, people may have difficulty in incorporating unacceptable internal experiences into the self-concept, and then distort or ignore the experiences, though they are aware of these experiences. For example, a person who has difficulty in acknowledging his/her anger and anxiety may misinterpret the emotions as sadness and boredom, respectively. On the other hand, in social interactions, people may not be able to objectively and accurately process external information and actively select situations in which a biased self-concept can be fulfilled (Ilies et al., 2005). Regarding the knowledge of self-related cognitions, unbiased processing of internal experience is similar to the first component, i.e., self-awareness. However, the two components are different in that one can be aware of some unacceptable cognition, but still refuse to incorporate the cognition into self-

concept. In the aforementioned example, a woman with a biased processing of her inner experience can feel anger and anxiety but consider them as inappropriate following the female display rule (Simpson & Stroh, 2004). As such, she may refuse to admit the emotions and misinterpret them as sadness and boredom. By contrast, the one who has low capability of self-awareness may lose contact with the feeling of anger and anxiety, and instead just not feel right.

The behavioral component of authenticity involves *authentic behavior*. Authentic behavior refers to acting according to one's values, needs, and true self rather than pleasing others, attaining rewards, or avoiding punishment. However, this definition does not mean that social consequences of authentic behavior are not considered. After all, instances exist in which unabashedly expressing one's true self may result in severe social sanctions. Thus, Kernis (2003) suggests that authentic behavior is the action in such a manner that one can express core feelings freely and naturally rather than with the compulsion to be one's "true" self.

The relational component of authenticity, *relational transparency,* involves valuing and striving to achieve openness and truthfulness in one's close relationships. Similar to the behavioral component, an authentic relationship involves a selective process of self-disclosure. Authentic relational orientation should foster the development of intimate relationship and mutual trust. In Kernis and Goldman's conceptualization, relational authenticity is only exhibited in close relationships and entails wanting to be close to others to see the real self, both the good and bad aspects.

The theoretical framework was first introduced into organizational study to guide the understanding of authentic leadership (Ilies, et al., 2005), as well as to examine the effect of followers' authenticity on work role performance (Leroy, et al., 2012).

Recently, the framework is used to conceptualize authenticity at work in general (Ménard & Brunet, 2011).

Authenticity and Organizational Behavior

To achieve a comprehensive understanding of authenticity in the workplace, further review of the current literature on authenticity in organizational studies is important. Even though authenticity has been rarely studied in the organizational setting until recently, our understanding has substantially advanced in the past decade. In this section, we will review the studies on the below four topics, which cover most research on authenticity in the organizational study. Those are authentic leadership, authenticity and psychological wellbeing, authenticity and work role behaviors, and becoming authentic.

Authentic Leadership. A leader's authenticity has long been viewed as reflecting the leader's ability to reduce ambivalence about the professional role and to enact leadership (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). The construct was first formally defined and operationalized by Henderson and Hoy (1983) as encompassing three facets: acceptance of accountability, non-manipulation of subordinates, and salience of self over role requirements. Ever since its establishment, the conceptualization of the construct has changed due to the advance of the understanding of authenticity. Although several different types of conceptualization of authentic leadership exist (e.g., Shamir & Eilam, 2005; Eagly, 2005), the most widely used model is the four-component self-base theoretical framework (Gardner et al., 2005). This model is adapted from Kernis and Goldman's conceptualization of personal authenticity. Among the original four components, unbiased processing was renamed *balanced processing*, recognizing that unbiased information processing is inherently impossible. Authentic behavior was refined and renamed *internalized moral*

perspective to reflect a leader's commitment to ethical values (Gardner, et al., 2005). Empirical findings on authentic leadership have accumulated in the past decade, comprising the most influential stream among studies on authenticity in organizations. For example, authentic leadership was found to be positively related to a follower's identification with leader (Leary, & Tangney, 2003). In addition, authenticity further improves the effectiveness of leadership by strengthening the leader's referent power over followers (Elias, 2008). Authentic leadership can affect followers' affective process and improve their positivity in performing their jobs (Dasborough et al., 2005).

Authenticity and Psychological Wellbeing. The positive relationship between authenticity and psychological wellbeing is widely assumed in the literature, though seldom empirically tested (e.g., Erickson, & Ritter, 2001; Sloan, 2007). Authenticity considered a positive personal experience, which contributes to psychological wellbeing. Findings in social psychology lend support to the notion. Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, and Ilardi (1997) revealed the positive correlations between authenticity and one's social role satisfaction. Similarly, Toor and Ofori (2009) found that authentic leaders tend to attain high scores in psychological wellbeing. Humanistic and organismic perspective even develops this notion further and regards authenticity as a fundamental indicator of one's wellbeing and psychological health, rather than as a precursor or antecedent of psychological wellbeing (e.g., Rogers, 1961; Yalom, 1980). This perspective focuses on *self-alienation* and considers it the major component of inauthenticity and the cause of mental stress (Yalom, 1980; May, 1981). Goldman (2004) suggested that the positive relationship between authenticity and psychological health is because authenticity encourages good role functioning and achieves a positive self-concept. In the workplace, personal authenticity will improve one's

feeling of work meaningfulness and further increase his/her subjective wellbeing (Menard et al., 2011).

Authenticity and Work Role Behavior. Although authentic leadership has been widely supported to result in subordinates' better work outcomes (e.g., Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), the effect of followers' authenticity on their own work role performance has seldom been explored. Among the few studies on ordinary employees' authenticity, Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, and Sels (2012)'s research suggested that employees' authentic experience at work can increase their work role performance by improving their feeling of basic need satisfaction. The positive relationship between authenticity and work role performance was further confirmed recently (van den Bosch, & Taris, 2013). In addition to job performance, authentic experience at work is positively related to employee's work engagement (Leroy, Anseel, Dimitrova, & Sels, 2013) and voice behavior, whereas it is negatively related to silence (Knoll, & van Dick, 2013).

Becoming more Authentic. The aforementioned three topics mainly focus on the benefits of being authentic in organizations. Here comes another significant question: how can one become more authentic? Previous studies suggested that one's authentic functioning can be enhanced by mindfulness (Leroy, et al., 2013), which is defined as "an enhanced attention to and awareness of current experience or present reality" (Brown, & Ryan, 2003, p.822). Mindfulness would be helpful in deepening and broadening one's self-awareness. In addition to mindfulness, secure social relationship (Gillath, Sesko, Shaver, & Chun, 2010) and interpersonal affirmation (Didonato, & Krueger, 2010) can be the other facilitators for authenticity. Moreover, social situations, such as culture (Robinson, Lopez, Ramos, & Nartova-Bochaver, 2013) and

possessed power (Kraus, Chen, & Keltner, 2011; Kifer, Heller, Perunovic, & Galinsky, 2013), are significantly related to one's authentic experience.

Our Conceptualization of Authenticity

After reviewing the literature on authenticity, we can see that all the aforementioned three conceptualizations suggest three main components of authenticity (see Table 2-2): cognitive, behavioral, and social.

TABLE 2-2

Overview of Previous Conceptualizations

Conceptualizations	Cognitive Component	Behavioral Component	Social Component
Self-determination Perspective	*nascent self* *internalized social values*	*self-determined actions*	*external regulation*[*]
Person-centered Psychology Perspective	*self-alienation*	*authentic living*	*external influence*
Kernis and Goldman's Conceptualization	*self-awareness* *unbiased processing*	*authentic behavior*	*authentic behavior* *relational transparency*

The cognitive component mainly focuses on the knowledge and processing of self-concept. It is reflected in the cognitive capability to communicate with the true self. The cognitive component of authenticity is not directly observable though can be exhibited in observable expressions. The behavioral component of authenticity refers to autonomous behaviors, which convey internal values, conscious feelings, and true self. The component can be manifested both in personal behaviors and in social

[*] External regulation refers to one's regulation of social behaviors, which is initiated and maintained by contingencies external to the person (Gagne et al., 2005)

behaviors, either inconsistent or consistent with external requirements. The social component of authenticity emphasizes the response to external pressure, i.e., psychological and behavioral experiences of being oneself in social contexts. The social component can be demonstrated in self-disclosure and authentic feedback towards others' viewpoints. In our research, we aim to explore the social implications of authenticity in the workplace. Thus, authenticity must first be manifested outward to be observed by others. Some aspects of authenticity, e.g., internalized values, self-awareness, and unbiased processing, are not directly observable. However, they can influence observable expressions and thus be perceived. Therefore, to capture the social nature of authenticity, our conceptualization focuses on the perceivable expressions of all components of authenticity.

The self-determination framework of authenticity focuses on its motivational implication, and thus chooses to ignore the process of self-awareness, suggesting incomprehensiveness of the conceptualization. By contrast, whereas, the person-centered conception is more suitable to be used in studying mental health due to its emphasis on *losing* contact with true self and its psychopathological origin. Therefore, following the previous conceptualizations of authenticity used in the organizational studies (e.g., Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Leroy et al., 2012), we adapt Kernis and Goldman's four-component model of personal authenticity (Kernis, 2003; Kernis et al., 2006) into the organizational context of our research to construct our concept of authenticity, namely, *perceived authenticity*. We define perceived authenticity as *employees' behaviors to exhibit awareness and unbiased understanding of one's own motives, values, and propensities, and to frankly express it in actions and in social relationships*. Because of the focus on observable expressions, our conceptualization of the four components is different from Kernis and Goldman's

original conceptualization (see Table 2-1). First, self-concept in the original model of personal authenticity is broad and abstract, whereas our conceptualization narrows it down to one's own motives, values, and propensities, which can be demonstrated in behaviors. Thus, *self-awareness* in our conceptualization is reflected in a clear understanding of one's motives, values, and propensities. Second, *unbiased processing* is originally defined as not denying and distorting self-relevant information. Considering that self-concept in our conceptualization focuses on the self-aspects that can be perceived, the self-relevant information refers to the information about one's own desires, values, and propensities. Therefore, *unbiased processing* in our conceptualization refers to admitting, accepting, and embracing the shortcoming of one's own desires, values, and propensities. Third, *authentic behavior*, renamed as *self-determined behaving*, refers to acting according to behavioral principles derived from one's own internal and internalized motives, values, and propensities rather than external pressures. Fourth, *relational transparency* is modified to represent presenting authentic self and openly sharing information to others, instead of only to close friends. In this case, the others may or may not be close friends.

In the abovementioned three frameworks, there are two different perspectives regarding the dynamics of self-concept. From the dynamic perspective, behavioral requirements from external environments can be internalized and integrated into one's self-concept and ultimately change the demonstration of authenticity. By contrast, the static perspective focuses on the awareness of the authentic self and considers self-concept as stable. To avoid the concept confusion (Thompson, 2011), we take the static perspective and regard self-concept to be stable despite the process of integration in our conceptualization. Given that the process occurs gradually, self-concept remains the same in a relatively long time.

As suggested in the review above, the psychological implications of authenticity are widely recognized in the literature. Authentic functioning is crucially helpful to employees' psychological health. However, the socio-relational implications of authenticity have seldom been empirically studied. In this thesis, we would like to explore coworkers' responses of a focal employee's authentic behaviors[†] in the workplace and the effects of such responses on the employee's work-related outcomes. To further our analyses, we need first to review the nature of social response and its underlying mechanisms.

Mechanisms of Social Acceptance

Human beings are innately social creatures. The desire to be connected with others and to maintain social bonds is one of the fundamental human motives (Baumeister, & Leary, 1995). When one perceives that the need for social connectedness is threatened, his/her capability of self-regulation suffers (Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Twenge, 2005). In the long run, psychological and physical health will be impaired (Pressman & Cohen, 2005; Williams, Neighbors, & Jackson, 2003). On the contrary, social acceptance from others is positively related to one's self-esteem (Anthony, Holmes, & Wood, 2007), and eventually, the person's psychological and physical wellbeing (Pressman et al., 2005; Williams, et al., 2003). In the workplace, socially accepted employees tend to receive more help from others (Scott, & Judge, 2009). Social rejection in work group is positively associated with the focal employee's withdrawal intentions and negatively related to the group's cohesion (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008).

[†] Hereinafter, unless otherwise stated, *authentic behavior* refers to the behavioral manifestations of all components of authenticity, rather than just behavioral components of authenticity, as in Kernis and Goldman's conceptualization.

Given the importance of social connectedness and the negative consequences of social exclusion in the workplace, a crucial question on what kinds of work behaviors lead to social acceptance must be addressed. In this thesis, we would like to investigate whether authentic behaviors lead to social acceptance and under what conditions in the workplace, as well as their mechanisms. Before discussing the social responses to authentic behaviors, we need to review the mechanisms of social acceptance.

Social acceptance refers to *the occurrence when a focal individual is interested, approved, and accepted by others.* Social acceptance can happen in two possible ways: by in-group members or by out-group members. Acceptance by the out-grouper needs to be considered cautiously and results in mixed feelings, i.e., feeling of being approved, mixed with questioning the motivations of the acceptance (Mendes, Major, McCoy, & Blascovich, 2008). In our research, we focus on social acceptance by the in-grouper, i.e., co-workers, to avoid the complexity. Studies on social acceptance are currently scattered in different research areas and focus on a variety of social phenomena, such as popularity (Scott et al., 2009), social status (Bettencourt, Charlton, Dorr, & Hume, 2001), positive reputation, interpersonal liking (Johnson, Erez, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002), and social inclusion (Leary, Cottrell, & Phillips, 2001). The aforementioned positive interpersonal reactions have much in common with each other. In this review, we will classify the variety of phenomena into two types from the range of social interactions: group range and dyadic range.

Group acceptance and dyadic acceptance are different in two crucial aspects. First, in interactions among a group, social rules and shared norms are the basic behavioral guidelines. In these circumstances, shared behavioral rules are the main referent to evaluate a person's behaviors. Therefore, one needs to fit in with such shared beliefs to be accepted by the group. By contrast, in dyadic interactions, the bond between the

two parties is rather important. The bond can be built up by similarity, social exchange, and common experience. Second, in social contexts, all related parties play the roles of both observer and actor. In a group context, the actor must consider at least two observers. Each may have different expectations for the focal individual's behaviors. Meanwhile, the relationships between the focal actor and each observer are different. Thus, the focal individual's social behaviors may influence and be influenced by more than one person. However, in the dyadic context, the focal individual must simply consider expectations and relationships with one other party. Therefore, in the review, we consider group acceptance and dyadic acceptance separately.

Group Acceptance

Group acceptance is defined as the acceptance and approval of a focal individual by *the whole group* rather than by certain group members. The reference is the group as an entity. Under the umbrella term of group acceptance, *popularity* and *social status* are widely discussed and studied. In addition, *social inclusion* can also reflect the acceptance of an individual by a group.

Popularity. Popularity exists when a focal individual is widely liked and well-known among peers in a group. Although a phenomenon at group level, popularity is essentially a property of the focal individual embedded in a group. Thus, popularity can be analyzed as "both an individual and group-oriented phenomenon" (Rubin, Bukowski, & Parker, 2006, p. 579). Our study focuses on social acceptance to a focal employee, emphasizing the individual orientation. Thus, this study regards popularity as a property of a particular person. Cillessen and Rose (2005) categorized popularity into two types: sociometrical popularity and perceived popularity. Sociometrical popularity represents one's likability among peers. Such popularity is reflected as having a large number of friends and getting along well with others. It is often

operationalized as being liked by peers, such as likability ratings among peers or frequency of being chosen as a desired friend. In the research of developmental psychology, sociometrically popular youth often exhibit high levels of cooperative behaviors, prosocial behaviors, and lower levels of aggression (Rubin, et al., 2006). In the contrast, perceived popularity refers to the shared perceptions held among peers that one is well-known and popular. Perceived popularity is reflected to be a collective belief held by peers toward the focal individual. Such popularity is generally operationalized by using round-robin procedures to directly rate the focal individual's popularity by all other group members. Perceived popular youth tend to display some aggressive behaviors, such as rule-breaking (Burt, 2009) and social undermining (Rose, Swenson, & Waller, 2004). The possible underlying rationale is that popular youth display dominance via overt or covert aggression and exclude those who can potentially threaten their social standing (Cillessen et al., 2005). The aforementioned studies mainly occur in school settings. But the concept was recently introduced into organizational literature (Scott, et al., 2009). The findings were similar to those in school settings. Nevertheless, the positive association between popularity and aggression in school does not have workplace equivalence. A similar finding suggests that narcissism, a grandiose view of one's own importance, which is regarded as a dysfunctional factor in building healthy interpersonal relationships (Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002), is negatively related to social exclusion when the focal employee is considered an expert in a group with cooperative goal structure (Xu & Huang, 2012).

Social Status. Social status refers to the prominence, influence, and respect one has within a group. Social status is typically exhibited as social power one obtained by having access to scarce resources and/or possessing hierarchical power over peers. Thus, social status is quite important for a group member to obtain valuable resources.

This social power can be acquired by either a formal or an informal approach. The power granted by the institution, e.g., reward and punishment, is formal, whereas that obtained in the social network, e.g., information and expert, is informal. From the perspective of power dependence theory (Emerson, 1962), the power possesses is grounded in the extent to which others are dependent on him/her. The dependence of others on one person results in the person having power over the others. In a work team, the members who control scarce resources and own certain types of expertise are often depended on by some teammates or the entire team (Van der Vegt, Bunderson, & Oosterhof, 2006). Thus, the members being depended on will be considered important persons. As such, they possess high status in the team. Power is not only implied in expertise and scarce resources. People can also gain power in a team by providing others favors. Based on the principle of reciprocity (Cropanzano, & Mitchell, 2005), one can ask the target to return a favor for something that he/she has done before. Popularity has its own implications of social power. Therefore, social status and popularity are not two completely unrelated constructs. In fact, the two tend to be moderately and positively related with each other (Becker, & Luthar, 2007).

Social Inclusion. Social inclusion refers to the phenomena in which a group accepts and includes an individual as its member. From group boundary control perspective (Levine, et al., 2005), when a person starts to enter a group, he/she will undergo five phases of membership (see Figure 2-2). Generally, he/she will go from a *prospective member*, *new member*, *full member*, *marginal member* to *ex-member*. Social inclusion occurs when an individual transitions from outside of the circle into the inside of the circle, particularly from prospective member to new member and to full member, and from ex-member to marginal member and to full member. Studies on the phenomena of social inclusion are few.

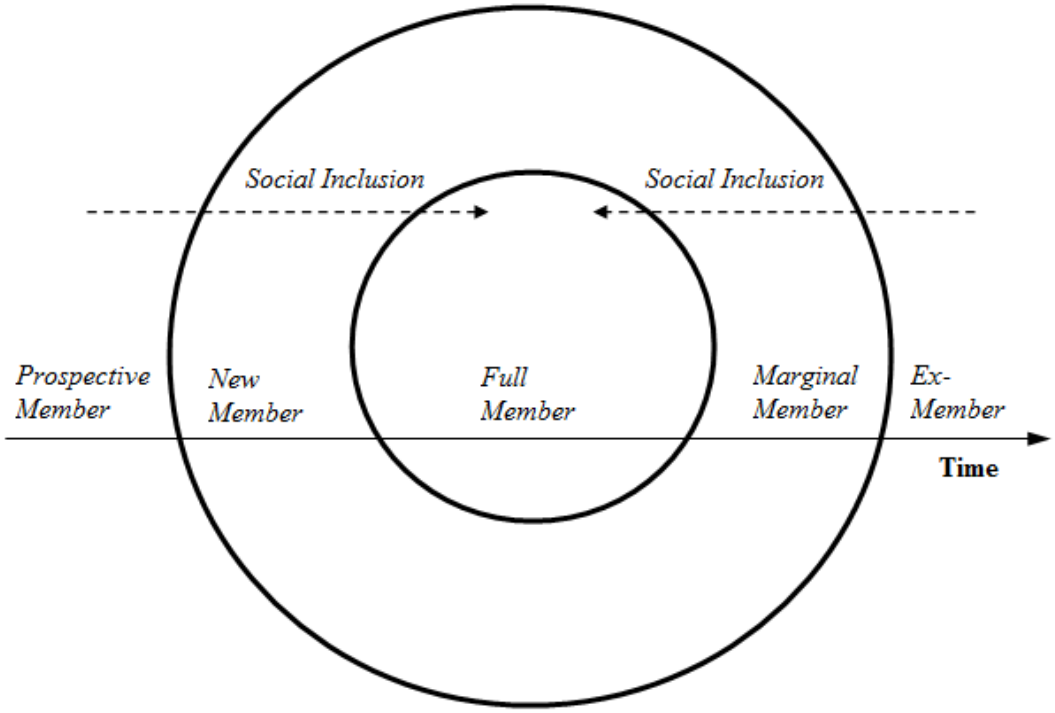


FIGURE 2-2

Five Phases of Membership from Group Boundary Control Perspective

However, studies were widely conducted to investigate the counter-phenomena, i.e., social exclusion. Social inclusion and exclusion are the opposite sides of the same coin. Whereas social inclusion is the process in which an individual transitions from outside membership into inside membership, social exclusion refers to the opposite process. Social exclusion refers to the experience of an individual being isolated and excluded from a group. Not limited to the workplace, social exclusion is ubiquitous in social contexts (Williams, 2001). In fact, the phenomenon of social exclusion has been part of human life throughout history. The extreme form of social exclusion is to exile or to banish. In the workplace, social exclusion is exhibited in several forms, such as the "silent treatment", i.e., avoiding conversations and eye contact, "physical segregation", i.e., preventing access from certain people, and "showing the cold shoulder", i.e., intentionally neglecting or disregarding a particular person. Social exclusion does not

have to be intentionally executed. Sometimes, the ostracizers may be unaware of doing so. One can feel ignored because coworkers are too engaged in their tasks (Williams, 2001). Despite of the motives of the ostracizers, being ostracized is an aversive experience and will cause social anxiety (Geller, Goodstein, Silver, & Sternberg, 1974), decrease the target' self evaluation (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995), and even lead to self-defeating behaviors (Twenge, Catanese, & Baumeister, 2002).

Underlying Mechanism. Based on the previous works on positive peer relationships, socially accepted members in a group tend to score high on prosocial tendencies and social competence (Aikans, & Litwack, 2011). These traits involve a large set of social attributes that enhance the member's effectiveness of social interactions. Based on the analysis of socio-psychological processes of sociometrical popularity, Aikins and Litwack (2011) suggested that socially-competent members gain popularity among peers through two underlying processes: *social-cognitive competencies* and *emotional functioning*.

On the one hand, cognitive processes of social competence include the mental representations of one's social self, the understanding of social cues, and the generation and evaluation of behavioral responses and strategies (Crick & Dodge, 1994). The mental representations of one's social self and the social world determine how the person attends to, encodes, and interprets social information. Socially competent members tend to pay attention to social cues, accurately interpret the underlying meaning, and make use of such information. By contrast, socially incompetent members often misinterpret social information based on their own biases (Dodge & Somberg, 1987). The ability to use social cues helps the socially competent members to respond appropriately, to adjust their responses when needed, and to gain social acceptance. Social knowledge and the understanding of social information allow

a person to generate proper social goals and to effectively enact strategies to achieve the goals (Wentzel, & Erdley, 1993). Socially accepted members in a group are often characterized by having the desire to maintain and enhance existing relationships and to form new ones (Rubin et al., 2006). Such acceptance generates high-quality social goals that are adaptive and prosocial (Richard, & Dodge, 1982) and provides assertive yet friendly strategies to enhance relationships and resolve conflicts (Hart, Ladd, & Burleson, 1990).

On the other hand, psychological processes of social competence involve sound emotional functioning. Emotional functioning refers to the capabilities to understand others' emotional states, to recognize one's own emotions, and to regulate the display of the emotions to effectively interact with the others. The understanding of others' emotions potentiates interpersonal responsiveness and allows one to adjust behaviors in social situations. Therefore, such understanding is helpful in pleasant communication (Campos, Mumme, Kermonian, & Campos, 1994). Accurately recognizing and expressing one's own emotions contributes positively to the interpersonal communications because the expressions clarify the emotional undertone of the interaction, instead of leaving the other guessing and wondering (Miller, Gouley, Seifer, Zakriski, Eguia, & Vergnani, 2005). Successful regulations of internal experiences and external display of emotions can help modulate inappropriate emotional displays and impulses, thereby lending support to social competent behaviors (Hubbard, & Dearing, 2004). Through the two psychological processes, social competence can be manifested as considerate and accommodating social behaviors and further help the person gain social acceptance.

Grounded on the works on popularity among youth, Cillessen (2011) proposed that four preconditions are important in acquiring popularity: *social attention-holding*

power, *motivation*, *behavioral skills*, and *psychobiological quality*. First, Gilbert, Price, and Allan (1995) proposed that people can build up their social status via two different social powers: social attention-holding power and resource-holding power. Social attention-holding power refers to the ability to attract attention from others. Resource-holding power is defined as the capacity to obtain scarce resources and to hold resources against challengers. Considering that popularity can be derived from visibility, the first precondition to achieve popularity is to attract others' attention, i.e., by physical attractiveness, social network centrality (Scott, et al., 2009), and/or achievements. Meanwhile, the resource-holding power is useful in remaining at a high social status and popularity. Second, motivation is reflected as whether the person wants to be popular and in a high social status. Based on the research on popularity among youth, LaFontana and Cillessen (2010) suggested that youth between 12 and 16 years old prioritize popularity and engage in behaviors to obtain it. Third, aggressive behaviors and prosocial behaviors are both positively related to popularity. The key to acquiring popularity is to skillfully use such behaviors (Cillessen, & Rose, 2005). Finally, psychobiological factors, such as stress resistance, provide underpinnings for a person to be popular. Recently, researchers have started to examine other psychobiological factors associated with popularity. They suggest that psychobiological preparedness is crucial to achieve high status within the peer group (Teunissen et al., 2011).

From the group boundary control perspective (Levine, et al., 2005), the inclusion or exclusion of one member is determined by the three steps of evaluative processes: evaluation, commitment, and role transition. *Evaluation* refers to the process to assess the cost and benefit in the current relationship between the group and the individual relative to alternative relationships. In the evaluation process, the group will assess the

individual's past, present, and anticipated future contributions to the group by comparing them with other individuals and with other members. Thus, the group will consider whether the particular individual can make more contributions than can others and whether the person can contribute more in his/her current role than in other roles. The evaluation finally decides the commitment of the group towards the assessed individual. *Commitment* is manifested as the group's efforts to fulfill the individual's expectations and to gain and retain the person as a member of the group. When a person is evaluated to contribute positively to the group, the group will be strongly committed to him/her in return. By contrast, the one who is expected to make negative contributions will be detached from the group. And, commitment results in *role transition*, which refers to the change of membership. Each membership has its own standard of commitment. When the group's commitment to the individual rises or falls to its standard, role transition will occur. The role transition will bring a new round of the evaluation process. From this perspective, a group's evaluation of a particular member's negative contributions will lead to a low level of commitment. However, efforts from the group and from the member may be put to improve the commitment level. A constant low level of commitment will eventually lead to social exclusion. By contrast, positive contributions can increase the level of commitment and eventually lead to social inclusion.

Dyadic Acceptance

Dyadic acceptance is defined as one being accepted and approved by *another person*. Unlike group acceptance, which are influenced by the shared beliefs and identity of the group, interpersonal acceptance conveys the dyadic relationship between two persons. A person may not be welcomed and popular among the entire group but he/she may be liked and accepted by some particular group members, *vice*

versa. After all, having a good interpersonal relationship and being popular require different social behaviors. For example, being narcissistic can lead to popularity at zero acquaintances (Back, Schmukle, & Egloff, 2010). However, from an interpersonal relationship perspective, such behavior is "over the long term, an ineffective interpersonal strategy" (Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995, p. 1161). Another example is the skill in handling role conflict. Employees have to commit to multiple roles in the work relationship, which are sometimes conflicted with each other (Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981). Thus, the skill in dealing with role conflict is needed in a work team. However, the role in a dyadic connection can be easily gauged by the contexts. In the current research, we will use *interpersonal liking* and *interpersonal inclusion* as the indicators of dyadic acceptance.

Interpersonal Liking. As a type of social acceptance, interpersonal liking refers to the overall attachment of one individual to another. Interpersonal liking has long been recognized as a significant force and powerful motivator to develop and maintain an interpersonal relationship (Altman, & Taylor 1973; Nicholson, Compeau, & Sethi, 2001). It is primarily an emotional connection one person feels toward another, which can be regarded as fondness or affection. However, liking is not limited to an affective fondness. Attitudinal and behavioral attachment will further be formed based on emotional affection (e.g., Nicholson et al., 2001). Therefore, we regard interpersonal liking as an affective, cognitive, and behavioral tendency from one individual toward another. As previously studied, liking not only helps establish a personal attachment and social relationship, but also increases information sharing and reinforces the economic bond, e.g., that in the sale-customer relationship (e.g., Hawke, & Heffernan, 2006). Interpersonal liking gradually develops into a relationship norm, which guides the processes of social exchange. The relationship norm of interpersonal liking

provides a heuristic that sheds positive light on the overall evaluation of the particular person and his/her behaviors.

Interpersonal Inclusion. Interpersonal inclusion is the behavioral manifestation of the process of social inclusion in interpersonal interactions. Social inclusion is a social process of transition of one's membership from outsider to insider. The process is often reflected in interpersonal behaviors among team members. Interpersonal inclusion can be manifested in behaviors such as showing care to a focal individual, inviting the focal individual to activities together, and talking with the individual (Leary, Cottrell, & Phillips, 2001).

Underlying Mechanism. Interpersonal acceptance and inclusion are implied in an interpersonal relationship, which can be developed, maintained, and changed during interpersonal interactions. Before an interpersonal relationship starts to develop, the interactions of the two parties have to meet three basic requirements. The first is *proximity*, which refers to the exposure of one to another's appearance, influence, and behaviors in a social network. Two persons must meet each other to develop an interpersonal relationship. In the organizational context, three types of proximity need to be considered: relational proximity, positional proximity, and spatial proximity. From the relational perspective, organization is a social network in which people interact and process resources and information in pursuit of specific goals (Scott, 2003). Relational proximity refers to the extent to which people interact and communicate with each other directly or indirectly. From a positional network view, the ones who have similar positions tend to be structurally proximate because they have similar sets of obligations and duties (Burt, 1980). Thus, positional proximity represents the structural equivalence in the organizational structure. Spatial proximity

refers to physical accessibility in the workplace. Living simply in the same space is sufficient to increase the chance to interact and communicate with each other.

The second requirement is *relationship duration*. Developing a close relationship in a short time is rare or even impossible at times. A close bond is often characterized by its high level of intensity, which is reflected with the history of the relationship (Turban, Dougherty, & Lee, 2002). A close relationship develops via a process of gradually disclosing personal information (Hruschka, 2010), which often requires time. Both interpersonal acceptance and interpersonal exclusion can be seen in a close relationship (Hazan, & Shaver, 1994; Downey, Freitas, Michaelis, & Khouri, 1998).

The third requirement is *complexity*, which refers to the number of different aspects that a relationship contains. A high level of complexity means that the two parties are connected in multiple activities. Complexity can be divided into activity complexity (the frequency of shared social actions) and connect complexity (the number of shared social issues the two can talk about). In a shallow relationship, conversations are often limited to a few topics or a few shared activities.

The aforementioned three preconditions are objective and external to an interpersonal relationship. However, even though the three requirements are all met, building up an interpersonally accepted relationship is still not guaranteed. A high level of interpersonal acceptance is often grounded on a foundation of mutual trust (e.g., Crosnoe, Cavanagh, & Elder, 2003; Giordano, 2003). In the organizational context, interpersonal trust often does not start at a "zero" point, which means without trust at all. Instead, interpersonal trust in an organization is often assumed to begin at a moderately high level. This is because organization context provides an institution-based structure, which ensures the protection of trusting behaviors (McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998). Meanwhile, the job role makes workers' behaviors

relatively predictable and requires one to adequately trust coworkers to complete interdependent tasks (Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996). In Lewicki and Bunker (1995; 1996)'s model of trust development, they proposed three types of trust, *namely,* calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust, and identification-based trust. These three types of trust range from a low level to a high level. Calculus-based trust refers to a calculation of "the outcomes resulting from creating and sustaining a relationship relative to the costs of maintaining or severing it" (Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006, p. 1007), whereas knowledge-based trust reflects the predictability of other's behavior based on sufficient knowledge of the other. Identification-based trust is grounded on the mutual understanding and identification with the other's desires and intentions. The relatively high level of initial trust in the workplace provides a high start point for calculus-based and knowledge-based trust. From a social exchange perspective, one party's trust in the other will lead to the other party's trust in the one. Therefore, high-level trust from one party in a relationship will further increase mutual trust.

Moreover, based on self-expansion model (Aron, & Aron, 1997; Aron, Norman, & Aron, 1998), people often carefully choose their friends. To create the optimal conditions for self-expansion, people tend to consider two aspects of the interpersonal relationship before starting a friendship: expected benefit and relationship stability. On the one hand, people will be attracted to those with high status, more resources, and desirable qualities to maximize the possibility of future benefits in interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, individuals are attracted to those who in their eyes are special and irreplaceable (Tooby, & Cosmides, 1996), and who value and like them. This situation occurs because their relationships with the two kinds of people are expected to be stable. By contrast, people tend to avoid those who want to take

advantage of them (Kurzban, & Leary, 2001) and do not value their relationship (Kenny, & Nasby, 1980).

In addition to the aforementioned factors, i.e., self-expansion considerations, interaction characteristics, and interpersonal trust, self-disclosure is one of the most important factors in increasing interpersonal liking (Collins, & Miller, 1994; Greene, Derlega, & Mathews, 2006). Self-disclosure refers to a deliberate or voluntary activity by which people reveal information, thoughts, and feelings about themselves to at least one other person during an interaction (Greene et al., 2006). Self-disclosure can increase interpersonal liking in both developing and developed relationships. In a meta-analytical review on the link between self-disclosure and interpersonal liking, Collins and Miller (1994) distinguished between receiving self-disclosure and giving self-disclosure, that is, whether a person tends to like the ones who disclose themselves (other's disclosure → liking) or the ones to whom the person discloses (own disclosure → liking). Despite the confusion between the two in many studies, Collins and Miller (1994) found support for both of the effects in their review. To understand the effects of self-disclosure on interpersonal liking, several theoretical models can be employed. Three theories are proposed to explain the effect of receiving self-disclosure on liking. First, receiving self-disclosure increases one's familiarity to the discloser. Thus, it further generates familiarity-based liking (Berscheid, & Reis, 1998). Second, from the uncertainty reduction perspective (Berger, & Calabrese, 1975), receiving self-disclosure decreases the uncertainty in dyadic interactions and produces positive feelings of certainty. Meanwhile, the disclosed information are often positive or in a favorable light. Therefore, it leads to positive beliefs toward the discloser. Third, receiving self-disclosure from other person is psychologically rewarding because the disclosure implies that he/she likes the other (Altman et al.,

1973). This act produces reciprocal liking (Lowe, & Goldstein, 1970). Two theoretical models are proposed to account for the effect of giving self-disclosure on interpersonal liking. First, the process of self-disclosure can be intrinsically gratifying and cathartic. Such positive feelings can be related toward the one who can be disclosed to. The related positive affect may further generate the feeling of liking. Second, self-perception theory (e.g., Bem, 1972) suggests that people make inferences about their own feelings from their behavior. Self-disclosure implies one's trust and liking to the other. Therefore, giving self-disclosure can increase interpersonal liking.

Furthermore, the positive association between attitudinal similarity and interpersonal liking has been consistently uncovered in psychological studies (e.g., Byrne 1971; Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001). The association can be demonstrated in two possible directions: attitudinal similarity leading to interpersonal liking and interpersonal liking leading to attitudinal similarity. Both causalities are supported by empirical evidence. In this review, we aim to explore the mechanism of interpersonal acceptance, *i.e.*, how interpersonal liking is generated in a relationship. Thus, we focus on the former causality: similarity leading to liking. In other words, people tend to like the person perceived to be similar with them. The effect has also been found in organizational contexts (e.g., Gallois, Callen, and Palmer 1992). Two theories have been proposed to explain the positive association. The first theory was proposed by Byrne (1971) and his colleagues. By using the reinforcement framework of learning theory, they suggested that similar attitudes can be perceived as reinforcing stimuli because the similarity conveys agreement and social approval. Given that positive reinforcements are associated with the person with a similar attitude, a positive affective response toward the person, that is interpersonal liking, will be generated. The second is self-categorization theory (Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper,

Julin, & Peyronnin, 1991; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). The theory argues that self-concept is determined by one's social categories, e.g., race, gender, and age. People often strive for a positive self-concept. To achieve positive self-identity, people often evaluate their in-groupers positively. Having similar attitudes with someone will produce a perception of in-group status. The desire for a positive self-identity makes people prefer those with similar attitudes, thereby producing interpersonal liking.

In this chapter, we reviewed the nature and characteristics of authenticity. Based on the review, we proposed our conceptualization of perceived authenticity. Then, we reviewed the literature on social acceptance, emphasizing the underlying mechanisms. Grounding on the literature review, we will further explore the effects of a focal employee's perceived authenticity on coworkers' social acceptance to the employee and their influence on his/her work-related interpersonal outcomes in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

As conceptualized in the previous chapter, authenticity is defined as the behavioral manifestations of being oneself. Particularly, perceived authenticity is conceptualized as behaviors based on a clear and unbiased understanding of one's own motives and values. Authentic behaviors are often suggested to be useful in improving one's own subjective wellbeing (Rogers, 1961; Yalom, 1980) and building up a high-quality intimate relationship (Brunell et al., 2010). Despite the positivity of the behaviors, authenticity may not always be accepted and welcomed in the workplace. Imagine this scenario. You are an employee strict on punctuality. Every morning you are the first arriving your office. You also want to leave your office on time in the evening. But, none of your coworkers leave before your supervisor does. It is a great pressure for you to be the first one leaving the office. However, your punctuality urges you to do so. What should you do?

Employees can sometimes be involved in such a dilemma in the workplace. This is because external expectations are not always the same with internal urges derived from being true to oneself (Neale, & Griffin, 2006). Thus, to clarify the complexity, we attempt to explore under what conditions authenticity may not be socially welcomed and appreciated in the workplace. To investigate coworkers' response to a focal employee's authenticity, we examine the phenomena by analyzing the social perceptions of the coworkers. Coworkers' responses to the focal employee's authenticity highly depend on the conveyed social meanings of the authentic behaviors.

To understand the focal employee's authentic behaviors, the coworkers often cast social meaning to observed behaviors. They do so by comparing observed behaviors with their understanding on such behaviors to evaluate their appropriateness (Zohar, & Luria, 2004). Then, they decide how to react to them. Therefore, coworkers' acceptance of a focal employee's authenticity highly depends on their behavioral expectations on authentic behaviors.

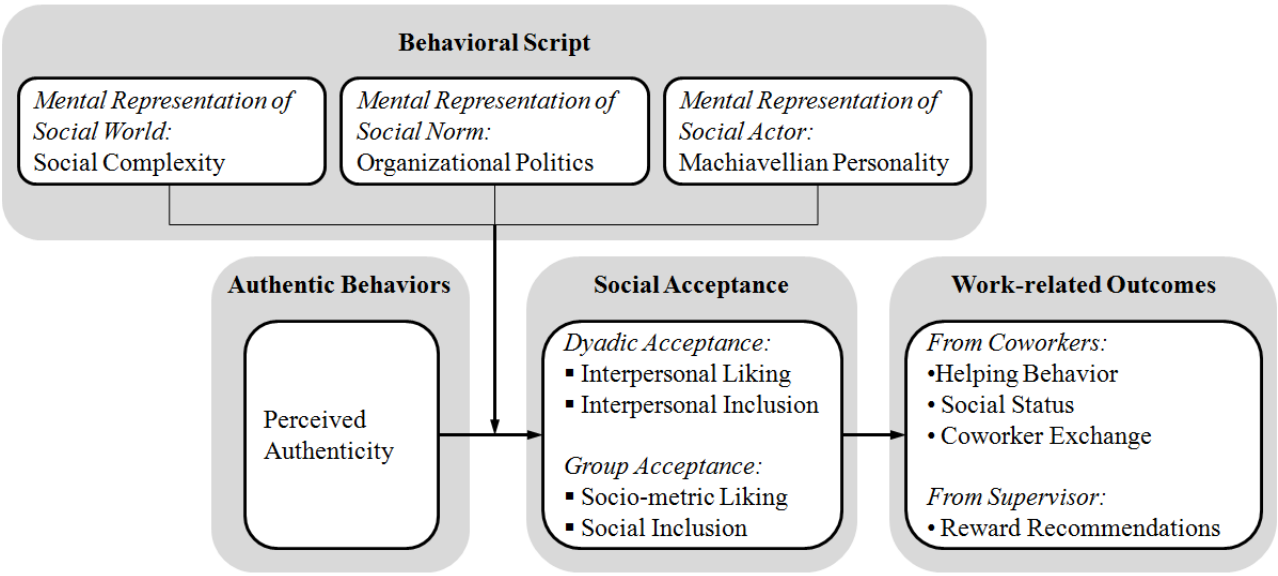


FIGURE 3-1

Theoretical Model of the Thesis

Given that authentic behaviors are demonstrated by self-acceptance, honesty, and openness in the interpersonal relationship (Heppner, Kernis, Nezlek, Foster, Lakey, & Goldman, 2008; Clapp-Smith et al., 2009), they often are helpful in building up mutual trust and fostering social acceptance. However, some situations may occur in which authenticity is considered inappropriate. As proposed by Gioia and Poole (1984), the behavioral expectations on particular behaviors can be shaped by behavioral scripts formed from three different sources: the observer's social beliefs, group norms, and the actor's personal traits. Therefore, we suggested that behavioral

scripts derived from the three sources can revise coworkers' expectations on authentic behaviors, thus changing their responses to such behaviors. Furthermore, coworkers' responses to such authentic behaviors provide an important relational context to shape the focal employee's work experiences (Grant et al., 2009). Therefore, we further propose that coworkers' responses will affect the focal employee's work-related interpersonal outcomes.

The theoretical model is depicted in Figure 3-1. In this chapter, we will elaborate the theoretical grounds and hypotheses of the research.

Behavioral Scripts and Social Acceptance to Authentic Behaviors

Social perception is essentially a sense-making process (Lord, & Maher, 1991). One's responses to a focal individual's behaviors in social context depend highly on the understood meanings of the behaviors in the specific context, rather than the behaviors, *per se.* Social meaning of a particular behavior is socially constructed and subjectively interpreted by the observers (Watson, 2011). To understand the social meanings of observed behavior, people often compare the behavior with expectations on such behavior in the particular social situation to evaluate its appropriateness (Price, & Bouffard, 1974). Expectations on a particular behavior are often derived from the behavioral script in the social context. A behavioral script is a *mental representation* to describe a behavior and/or a behavioral sequence in terms of its appropriateness in specific social situations and contexts (Schank, & Abelson, 1977; Gioia et al., 1985). For example, behavioral scripts can clearly specify the proper organizational behaviors and behavioral sequences in a formal meeting, selection interviews, and daily employee interactions. In organizational contexts, behavioral scripts can be used both to provide a guide for employee to follow (e.g., Avery, Richeson, Hebl, & Ambady, 2009) and for them to make sense out of a behavior in a specific situation (e.g., Zohar

et al., 2004). Grounded on behavioral script theory, the current study attempts to explore the effects of a focal employee's authenticity on coworkers' acceptance to him/her.

As described in the last chapter, we defined employee's authenticity, namely *perceived authenticity*, as *employees' behaviors to exhibit awareness and unbiased understanding of one's own motives, values and propensities, and to frankly express it in actions and in social relationships*. It can be reflected in four components of behavioral manifestation: self-awareness (*i.e.,* exhibiting a clear understanding of one's motives, values and propensities), unbiased processing (*i.e.,* admitting, accepting and embracing the shortcomings of one's own way of behaving), self-determined behaving (*i.e.,* behaving following internal and internalized behavioral principles and value rather than external pressure), and relational transparency (*i.e.,* showing one's true self, rather than a fake self, to others). Such behaviors conveyed a positive meaning in interpersonal relationships, and thus can lead to social acceptance from coworkers. Exchange between coworkers in a work team appreciates interpersonal trust (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Authentic behaviors are considered honesty and openness in the interpersonal relationship (Clapp-Smith et al., 2009), implying trust in coworkers. Thus, the focal employee's authenticity tends to be appreciated by coworkers. Research on authentic leadership found that authenticity promotes positive interpersonal relationships not only between leaders and followers but also between coworkers (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011). Therefore, we hypothesize that

Hypothesis 1: The focal employee's perceived authenticity is positively related to social acceptance toward the employee.

The Three Moderators

Although authenticity is often considered the bright side of human behaviors, social meanings conveyed in the behaviors are not necessarily always positive in the perception of the observers. To explore the boundary conditions under which authenticity may be unappreciated, we considered the behavioral scripts that may change employees' expectations on authentic behaviors. To estimate behavioral appropriateness, scripts on a specific behavior can be formed from three different sources of behavioral criteria (Gioia, et al., 1984): (1) cognitive script: the script derived from social beliefs and cognitions about the particular behavior; (2) normative script: the script decided by the normative behavioral requirements in the social context; (3) prototypical script: the script formed in accordance to the actor's behavioral pattern. Among the three types of behavioral scripts, the first is derived from the behavioral beliefs of the observer, the second is from the behavioral norms in the social context, and the third is from the behavioral patterns of the actor. Accordingly, we suggest that social response to the authentic behaviors is determined by social complexity of the observer, organizational politics of the work team, and Machiavellian personality of the actor.

Cognitive Script of the Observer

Social Complexity. Leung, Bond, de Carrasquel, Munoz, Hernandez, et al. (2002) suggested that there are some general social beliefs that people endorse and use to guide their behaviors among a variety of social contexts, targets, and periods. Such social beliefs are termed *social axioms*. Social axioms represent general social beliefs about how the social world works and about how others act (Bond, et al., 2004), providing a basis for the cognitive scripts about social behaviors and interpersonal interactions (Baldwin, 1992). Scholars found that people's behaviors are guided by

five common beliefs across different cultures, labeled as religiosity, social cynicism, fate control, reward for application, and social complexity (Leung, et al., 2002; Kurman, & Ronen-Eilon, 2004; Lai, Bond, & Hui, 2007). Among the five recognized axioms (e.g., Leung, et al., 2002; Lai et al., 2007), social complexity refers to the social beliefs that inconsistency among human behaviors is common thus no rigid rules exist to address social issues. Those with high social complexity assume that all behaviors are contingent responses to the current situation because there is no constant rule to guide human behaviors (Leung, et al., 2002; Lai et al., 2007). Leung and Bond (2004) argued that the evolutionary origin of social complexity is the striving to adapt to the changing social environment. The correlates between personality and social beliefs suggested that emotional stability tend to be negatively related to social complexity while openness to experience was positively related to social complexity (Chen, Fok, Bond, & Matsumoto, 2006).

In the workplace, employees with high social complexity consider observed behaviors, including authentic behaviors, as the actor's responses to specific circumstances rather than to be derived from the actor's internal values. Meanwhile, the individual with high social complexity believes that the behaviors in social context are sensitive to situational variability (Bond, et al., 2004). Such beliefs about behaviors in social contexts form into cognitive script, guiding the understanding and interpretation of observed behaviors. Based on this script, the observer tends to expect others to behave responsively to the situational requirements. However, authenticity implies fidelity to clear and resolute internal behavioral principles despite social pressures (Erikson, 1995). Thus, authentic behaviors are less likely to fit in the aforementioned cognitive script. Therefore, in the social cognitions of the observers with high social complexity, being true to a rigid principle in such a complicated

world can eventually introduce problems despite the positivity of authenticity. To avoid this potential trouble, coworkers with high social complexity may maintain distance from employees who are perceived high in authenticity.

Moreover, according to similarity-attraction association (Condon, & Crano, 1988; Graves, & Powell, 1995), people tend to be attracted to the others with similar beliefs. Therefore, the person with high social complexity is more likely to be attracted to those with high social complexity. However, in perceptions of observers with high social complexity, the focal employee's authentic behaviors, *i.e.*, sticking to personal principles, demonstrate behavioral inflexibility and lack of social competency, exhibiting low social complexity. The dissimilarity between the observer and the focal employee will lead to low levels of interpersonal attraction. Therefore, we hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 2: Observer's social complexity moderates the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's acceptance to the actor such that the relationship is less positive when the observer's social complexity is high.*

Normative Script of the Team

Organizational Politics. Organizational politics is a social-influence process strategically used to maximize short-term and/or long-term self-interest in the workplace (Ferris, Fedor, Chachere, & Pondy, 1989; Gandz, & Murray, 1980). Previous studies on politics in the workplace focused on two types of organizational politics: the occurrence of political behavior (e.g., Farrell, & Petersen, 1982; Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005) and perceived organizational politics (e.g., Hochwarter, Witt, & Kacmar, 2000; Maslyn, & Fedor, 1998). Research on organizational politics suggested that the influence of organizational politics on

employees' behaviors in the workplace depends more on their perceptions of organizational politics than on the occurrence of political behaviors (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995). More importantly, the occurrence of political behaviors is distal to employee's behavioral script, i.e., mental representation on behaviors, comparing to perceived organizational politics. Therefore, in the current study, we studied on the moderating effect of perceived organizational politics on the relationship between observed authentic behaviors and social responses. *Perceived organizational politics* refers to one's subjectively perceiving a work environment as political. Such a perception is fueled by the focal employee's experience of uncertainty and ambiguity about organizational decisions, procedures, and roles (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002; Parker et al., 1995). The perception constitutes a source of stress and tends to negatively influence the employee's job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008).

In a work team, perceived organizational politics provides an important situational cue for employees to understand and evaluate authentic behaviors. Once employees perceive the work team as political, they tend to expect the team members to utilize and accept political influence (Witt, Kacmar, Carlson, & Zivnuska, 2002; Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004). According to social information processing model, representation and interpretation of social information are determined primarily by contextual cues (e.g., Salancik, & Pfeffer, 1978; Crick, & Dodge, 1994). Such a contextual cue shapes the behavioral script in the specific context, labeled as normative script. We suggest that observers perceiving the work team high in politics tend to not appreciate the actor's authenticity. On the one hand, individuals with high perceived organizational politics tend to expect teammates to utilize political influence to *strategically* achieve their self-interests rather than *straightforwardly* express them

(Witt, et al., 2002). Thus, the focal employee's authentic behaviors, *i.e.*, openly sharing his/her thoughts and expressing the true self, tend to be seen as the manifestations of naivety and considered deviant from the scripts. On the other hand, organizational politics represent a social-influence process. Employees with high perceived organizational politics expect their coworkers to accept political influence. However, the focal employee's authenticity is exhibited as staying true to personal value and internal behavioral principles despite the prevailing political influences (Leroy, et al., 2012), which is thus considered incompliance with the norm. Compliance with social norms is assumed to contribute to keep society healthy-functioning (Kiyonari, & Barclay, 2008). Therefore, the one who breaks the established norms tends to be expelled for society's sake (Malhotra, & Bazerman, 2008; Parks, & Stone, 2010). Accordingly, we suggest that:

> *Hypothesis 3: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderate the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's acceptance to the actor such that the relationship is less positive when the observer's perceived organizational politics is high.*

Prototypical Script of the Actor

Machiavellian Personality. Niccolo Machiavelli in his 1513 book, *The Prince*, suggested that seizing and retaining political power justifies any possible effective tactics, including amoral, deceptive, and manipulative interpersonal strategies. Noticing that the suggestions actually parallel some people's behavioral patterns, Christie and Geis (1970) identified a personality syndrome, labeled as *Machiavellianism*. Machiavellianism is defined by three interrelated themes: (1) an avowed belief in the effectiveness of manipulative tactics, (2) a cynical view of human nature, and (3) a pragmatic orientation over morality. People who are high in

Machiavellianism (*high Mach* for short) tend to exploit their interpersonal relationship by thought manipulation, ingratiation, and lying (Kumar, & Beyerlein, 1991). High Machs tend to prioritize money, power and competition (Stewart & Stewart, 2006). Besides, they are often less satisfied with their jobs (Fehr, Samsom, & Paulhus, 1992) and focus on winning and achievement (Ryckman, Thornton, & Butler, 1994). From the beholder's perspective, high Machs can be considered as good debate partners (Wilson, Near, & Miller, 1998) and charismatic leaders (Deluga, 2001), but less desirable as business partners and friends (Wilson et al., 1998).

A high Mach often possesses a cynical worldview that leads them to not trust others (Gunnthorsdottir, McCabe, & Smith, 2002), aims to achieve an image of perfection (Sherry, Hewitt, Besser, Flett, & Klein, 2006), and have low ethical standards (Singhapakdi, & Vitell, 1991). Such observations form part of the observer's knowledge system of a high Mach, i.e., a person prototype. The prototypical script serves to identify the expectations and interpretations of the behaviors of such a person (e.g., Gioia, & Poole, 1984; Pavitt, & Haight, 1985). Based on the prototypical script, a high Mach is expected to be unlikely to engage in authentic behaviors, because authentic behaviors are contradictory to the prototype (see Table 3-1).

TABLE 3-1

Contradictions between Authenticity and Prototype of High Mach

Prototypical Script	Authentic Behaviors
Reluctant to disclose imperfection (*Sherry et al., 2006*)	Acknowledging one's own weakness (*Kernis, 2003*)
Not trusting others (*Gunnthorsdottir et al., 2002*)	Open and truthful in interpersonal relationships
Low ethical standards (*Singhapakdi, & Vitell, 1991*)	Relatively high ethical standards (*Gardner, et al., 2005*)

However, the fact is that high Machs can sometimes exhibit authentic behaviors because they tend to not hide their cynical worldview and pragmatic orientation (Christie & Geis, 1970); sometimes use authentic behaviors as a manipulative tactic (Liu, 2008). Therefore, observers may suffer cognitive dissonance when seeing high Machs exhibit authentic behaviors. Cognitive dissonance is an uncomfortable experience. To get rid of such dissonance, observers are likely to interpret the behaviors as a deceptive strategy (Stone, & Cooper, 2001). According to self-expansion model (Aron, et al., 1997; Aron, et al., 1998), people evaluate the expected benefit and the stability of an existing interpersonal relationship to decide whether to further build up a friendship. The estimate on these two aspects of the relationship can be lowered by the aforementioned interpretation of observed authentic behaviors. This act further decreases the possibility for the observer to socially accept the high Mach.

Furthermore, a high Mach often has a typical motive of cold selfishness and instrumentality (Jones, & Paulhus, 2009). When authentically manifested, behavioral principles can lead observers to devalue and disapprove of the actor (Kinias, Kim, Hafenbrack, & Lee, 2014) and interpret the actor's behaviors, such as authentic behaviors, in a negative light. Therefore, we suggest that:

> *Hypothesis 4: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's acceptance to the actor such that the relationship is less positive when the actor's Machiavellianism is high.*

From Interactive Perspective

Machiavellianism and Social Complexity. When the focal employee is a high Mach, the observer constructs the prototypical script about the particular person after observing his/her Machiavellian behavioral pattern. As suggested above, authentic

behaviors are incompatible with the prototypical script. As such, when seeing the authentic behaviors of a high Mach, the observer may experience cognitive dissonance. Thus, the observer interprets the behaviors as a manipulative tactic, which increases the dislike to the high Mach.

However, the interpretation of authentic behaviors of a high Mach can be conditional. We argue that the understanding of authenticity of a high Mach depends on the observer's social complexity. Social complexity represents one's social beliefs about the acceptability of behavioral inconsistency. As argued before, the observer with high social complexity has a large range of acceptance regarding behavioral inconsistency. The observer may even expect behavioral flexibility in different social contexts (Bond, et al., 2004). The expectations can be integrated into the prototypical script about the focal employee. Accordingly, the observer with high social complexity has a different behavioral script about the high Mach, in which authentic behaviors of high Mach are acceptable. Therefore, when a high Mach exhibits authentic behaviors, the observer with high social complexity is less likely to experience cognitive dissonance. Moreover, the one with high social complexity tends to be forgiving (Leung, Au, Huang, Kurman, Niit, & Niit, 2007) and open to change (Bond, et al., 2004). Therefore, when seeing the authentic behaviors of a high Mach, the observer with high social complexity is likely to believe that the high Mach has changed to be an ethical and trustworthy person. This behavioral attribution can decrease the dislike to the high Mach. Thus, we hypothesize that:

> *Hypothesis 5: Observer's social complexity moderates the effect of actor's Machiavellianism on the relationship between the observer perceived the actor's authenticity and the observer's acceptance to the actor such that the*

relationship is least positive when the actor's Machiavellianism is high and the observer's social complexity is low.

Machiavellianism and Organizational Politics. As suggested before, the consequential interpretations towards authenticity of a high Mach are conditional. In addition to social complexity, we propose that the observer's perceived organizational politics is an important boundary condition. Perceived organizational politics provides a strong basis for the observer to understand the work environment. Employees who perceive the work team as political tend to expect coworkers to utilize and accept political influence (Witt, et al., 2002; Zivnuska, et al., 2004). Moreover, organizational politics allows and justifies the possible, even unethical, strategies to achieve one's self-interest (Cavanagh, Moberg, & Velasquez, 1981). Accordingly, by expecting different kinds of political tactics, employees with high perceived organizational politics tend to have a broader range of acceptance of possible ways to strategically use political influence. When observing authentic behaviors of a high Mach, they are likely to interpret such behaviors as a political strategy to achieve self-interest. After all, deception is not the only way to gain political power; sometimes, authentic expressions can be used as a political tactic (Liu, 2008). Therefore, we suggest that:

Hypothesis 6: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderates the effect of actor's Machiavellianism on the relationship between the observer perceived the actor's authenticity and the observer's acceptance to the actor such that the relationship is least positive when the actor's Machiavellianism is high and the observer's perceived organizational politics is low.

Social Complexity and Organizational Politics. To observers with high social complexity, behavioral inconsistency is acceptable, or even expected, because they

believe that human behaviors are aim to adapt to various environments and changing situations (Bond et al., 2004). Therefore, they tend to dislike the behaviors that are considered socially inadaptable. The observers may keep a distance from persons who exhibit such inadaptable behaviors because of the potential trouble the persons may be involved in and the dissimilarity of social beliefs (Condon et al., 1988; Graves et al., 1995). As suggested before, authentic behaviors are likely to be interpreted as the demonstrations of social inflexibility. Thus, the focal employees exhibiting high authenticity tend to be less appreciated by coworkers with high social complexity. Furthermore, we suggest that the reaction is more likely to occur when the coworkers also perceive the work team as political. With high perceived organizational politics, using and accepting political influence tend to be expected. As argued before, authentic behaviors can be regarded as neither utilizing nor accepting the pervasive political influence. Therefore, from the perspective of the observers with high social complexity, authentic behaviors can be considered socially dysfunctional in the political work team. Accordingly, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 7: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderate the effect of social complexity on the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's acceptance to the actor such that the relationship is least positive when the actor's social complexity and perceived organizational politics are high.

Social Acceptance and Work-related Outcomes

A focal employee's authenticity, exhibited as authentic behaviors in the workplace, can make the employee be interpersonally trusted and socially accepted by coworkers, although the extent of social acceptance depends on their understanding and interpretation of the behaviors. Coworker's responses to such behaviors can further

lead to work-related outcomes to the focal employee because social surroundings and relational situations of an employee have a considerable impact in shaping the employee' experiences (Grant et al., 2009). To capture various aspects of employee's work outcomes, the current study investigates the effects of social responses on the focal employee's *received helping behavior from coworkers, exchange quality with coworkers, social influence to coworkers,* and *reward recommendations from the supervisor*. The first three indicators represent work-related resources obtained from coworkers, whereas the last reflects work-related resources distributed by the supervisor.

In the workplace, social acceptance is often manifested as a high level of popularity (Scott et al., 2009), interpersonal liking (Bell, & Mascaro, 1972; Scott et al., 2009), and social inclusion (Leary, Cottrell, & Phillips, 2001) among coworkers. Behaviorally, such acceptance can be reflected in the coworkers' support, trust, and empathic concern in the work relationship (Settoon, & Mossholder, 2002). Social acceptance in the workplace implies the meanings of not only interpersonal attraction and friendship, but also of influential power and information sharing (Dienesch, & Liden, 1986; Sparrowe, & Liden, 2005). The implications suggest a positive effect of social acceptance on work-related outcomes. Interpersonal attraction and friendship can influence interpersonal interactions and task cooperation, which can be exhibited as coworkers' social and instrumental support (Scott et al., 2009). Such support can be manifested as helping behaviors and improving the quality of coworker exchange. As suggested before, popularity is often highly related to social status, which is exhibited as the influential power in making team decisions. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 8: Social acceptance positively relates to work-related interpersonal outcomes such that social acceptance mediates the relation between perceived authenticity and work-related interpersonal outcomes.

Hypothesis 9b: Actor's Machiavellianism, observer's social complexity, and perceived organizational politics moderate the indirect effects of perceived authenticity on work-related interpersonal outcomes via social acceptance such that indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high, when the observer's social complexity is high, and when the observer's perceive organizational politics is high.

Outline of Three Studies

The aforementioned nine hypotheses are theoretical but not testable. Therefore, we first elaborate them into testable hypotheses. Before describing the testable hypotheses in detail, we must clarify the operationalization of the constructs in the research model. In this research, we tested the hypotheses in three studies.

In the three studies, we measured authenticity of a focal employee by asking each teammate to rate the focal employee. Thus, perceived authenticity can be both operationalized at dyadic level and at individual level. At the dyadic level, perceived authenticity is assessed as *observer perceived actor's authenticity*. We aggregated the ratings to each focal employee as *perceived authenticity*. In this research, we focused both on dyadic acceptance and group acceptance. Despite being team-level phenomena, group acceptance is essentially the group's responses towards a particular individual. The study regarded group acceptance as individual-oriented constructs and analyze them at individual level. Dyadic acceptance reflects the acceptance of a focal employee by a particular coworker. It is at the dyadic level. Thus, the data were analyzed both at dyadic and individual levels. We employed *interpersonal liking* and

interpersonal inclusion to indicate social acceptance towards a focal employee. At the dyadic level, interpersonal liking and inclusion were measured as an *observer's liking towards actor* and *observer's inclusion of the actor*, respectively. At the individual level, interpersonal liking and inclusion were operationalized to be *socio-metric liking* and *social inclusion*, respectively. Socio-metric liking suggests a focal employee's likability among peers while social inclusion refers to the focal employee's being cared and valued among the team.

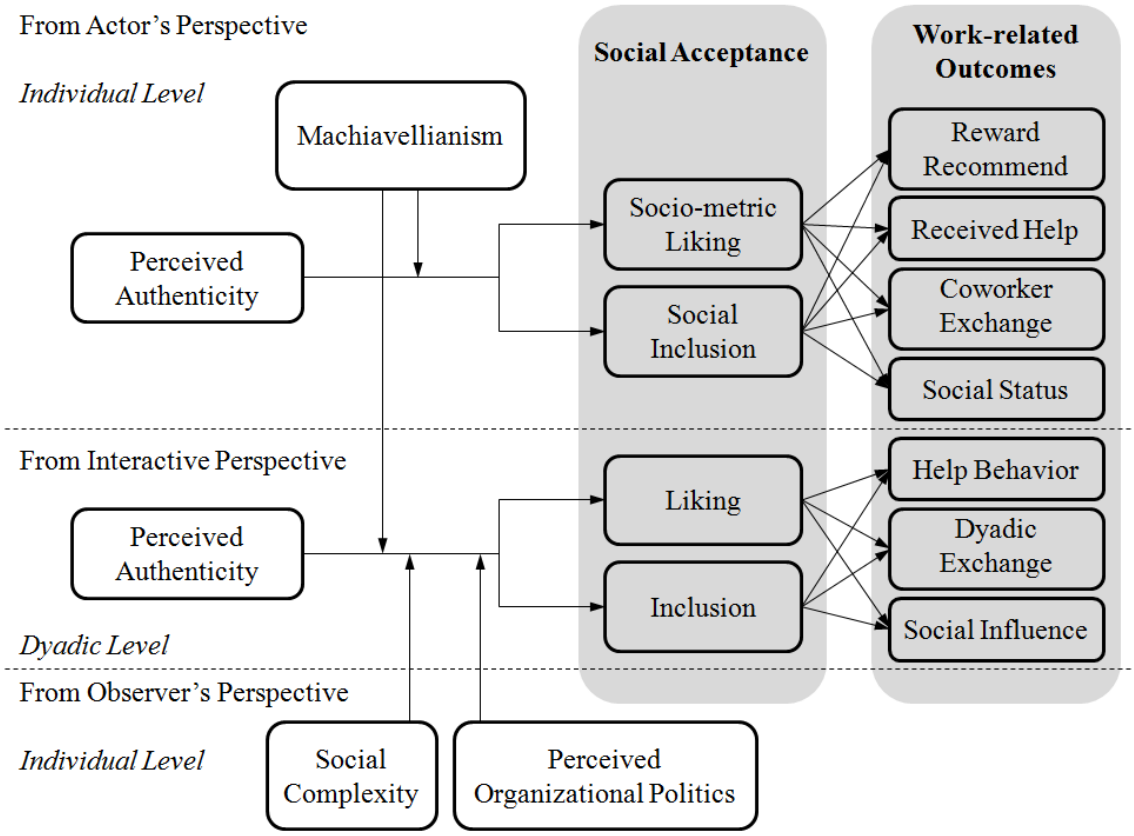


FIGURE 3-2

Overall Research Model of the Three Studies

Meanwhile, three out of the four outcome variables reflect work-related resources obtained from coworkers. They were measured at the dyadic level as an *observer's helping behavior to the actor, observer's exchange with the actor,* and *observer rated status of the actor.* These variables were aggregated to the individual level as *received*

help, coworker exchange, and *social status*. The other variable represents work-related resources distributed by the supervisor. *Reward recommendation* was measured by asking supervisors to rate the employees. The research model is shown in Figure 3-2. Accordingly, we propose the testable hypotheses, which will be specifically argued for in the later chapters.

Hypothesis 1a-b: Observer perceived actor's authenticity is positively related to the observer's liking towards the actor (H1a) and to the observer's inclusion of the actor (H1b).

Hypothesis 1c-d: Team members' perceived authenticity is positively related to the team's socio-metric liking to them (H1c) and to the team's social inclusion to them (H1d).

Hypothesis 2: Observer's social complexity moderates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor (H2a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H2b) such that the relationships are less positive when observer's social complexity is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 3: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor (H3a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H3b) such that the relationships are less positive when observer's perceived organizational politics is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 4a-b: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's

liking towards the actor (H3a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H3b) such that the relationships are less positive when actor's Machiavellianism is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 4c-d: Team members' Machiavellianism moderates the relationships between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking (H4c) and between perceived authenticity and social inclusion (H4d) such that the relationships are less positive when the team member's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 5: Observer's social complexity moderates the effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor (H5a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H5b) such that the relationships are least positive when the observer's social complexity is low and the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 6: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderates the effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor (H6a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H6b) such that the relationships are least positive when the observer's perceived organizational politics is low and the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 7: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderates the effect of the observer's social complexity on the relationships between the

observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor (H7a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H7b) such that the relationships are least positive when the observer's social complexity is high and political climate is high.

Hypothesis 8a: Observer's liking towards actor positively relates to observer's helping behavior to actor, observer rated status of actor, and observer's exchange with the actor such that the observer's liking towards the actor mediates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer's helping behavior to the actor (H8a$_1$), between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer rated status of actor(H8a$_2$), and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer's exchange with actor(H8a$_3$).

Hypothesis 8b: Observer's inclusion of the actor positively relates to the observer's helping behavior to the actor, observer rated status of actor, and observer's exchange with actor such that the observer's inclusion of the actor mediates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer's helping behavior to the actor (H8b$_1$), between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer rated status of actor(H8b$_2$), and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer's exchange with actor (H8b$_3$).

Hypothesis 8c: Socio-metric liking positively relates to received help, social status, coworker exchange, and reward recommendations such that socio-metric liking mediates the relationships between perceived authenticity and received help (H8c$_1$), between perceived authenticity and social status

(H8c$_2$), between perceived authenticity and coworker exchange (H8c$_3$), and between perceived authenticity and reward recommendations (H8c$_4$).

Hypothesis 8d: Social inclusion positively relates to received help, social status, coworker exchange, and reward recommendations such that social inclusion mediates the relationships between perceived authenticity and received help (H8d$_1$), between perceived authenticity and social status (H8d$_2$), between perceived authenticity and coworker exchange (H8d$_3$), and between perceived authenticity and reward recommendations (H8d$_4$).

Hypothesis 9a: Actor's Machiavellianism, observer's social complexity, and perceive organizational politics moderate the indirect effect of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on the observer's helping behavior to actor (H9a$_1$), observer rated status of actor (H9a$_2$), and observer's exchange with actor (H9a$_3$) through observer's liking towards actor such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high, when the observer's social complexity is high, and when the observer's perceive organizational politics is high.

Hypothesis 9b: Actor's Machiavellianism, observer's social complexity, and perceive organizational politics moderate the indirect effect of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on the observer's helping behavior to the actor (H9b$_1$), observer rated status of actor (H9b$_2$), and observer's exchange with actor (H9b$_3$) through the observer's inclusion of the actor such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high, when the observer's social complexity is high, and when the observer's perceive organizational politics is high.

Hypothesis 9c: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the indirect effects of the actor's perceived authenticity on received help ($H9c_1$), social status ($H9c_2$), coworker exchange ($H9c_3$), and reward recommendations ($H9c_4$) through socio-metric liking such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 9d: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the indirect effects of the actor's perceived authenticity on received help ($H9d_1$), social status ($H9d_2$), coworker exchange ($H9d_3$), and reward recommendations ($H9d_4$) through social inclusion such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Three studies were employed to test these hypotheses. Considering that no established scale measure perceived authenticity, we first developed the measurement, tested the hypotheses, and then validated the findings. In the below, we outline the three studies and the hypotheses tested in each studies (see Table 3-2).

TABLE 3-2

Summary of Three Studies

Hypotheses	**Study 1**	**Study 2**	**Study 3**
Hypotheses1	*H1a, H1c*	*H1a-d*	*H1a-d*
Hypotheses2		*H2a-b*	*H2a-b*
Hypotheses3	*H3a*	*H3a-b*	
Hypotheses4	*H4a, H4c*	*H4a-d*	*H4a-d*
Hypotheses5		*H5a-b*	*H5a-b*
Hypotheses6	*H6a*	*H6a-b*	
Hypotheses7		*H7a-b*	
Hypotheses8		*H8a-d_{1-2}*	*H8a-d_{3-4}*
Hypotheses9		*H9a-d_{1-2}*	*H9a-d_{3-4}*

Study 1 is a pre-study. The aims of Study 1 were to establish the instrument to measure employees' perceived authenticity and to preliminarily examine the relationship between perceived authenticity and social acceptance and the boundary conditions of such relationship. In this study, we evaluated the reliability and validity of our measure of perceived authenticity and preliminarily tested Hypotheses 1a, 1c, 3a, 4a, 4c, and 6a by using cross-sectional data collected from a relatively small sample.

After establishing the scale, we tested the majority of our hypotheses in Study 2. We also further validated the measure of perceived authenticity in this study. The objective of Study 2 is to examine the effects of perceived authenticity on social acceptance and further on work-related resources obtained from teammates. In Study 2, we tested the validity of short-version measures of perceived authenticity and tested Hypotheses 1a-d, 2a-b, 3a-b, 4a-d, 5a-b, 6a-b, 7a-b, 8a-$d_{1\text{-}2}$, and 9a-$d_{1\text{-}2}$.

After testing the hypotheses, we further attempt to replicate the findings in another sample by employing Study 3. The objectives of Study 3 were to validate the findings in Study 2 and further explore whether social acceptance of the focal employee can influence work-related resources distributed by the supervisor. In Study 3, we replicated certain findings in the previous two studies and examined the influence of perceived authenticity on work-related resources distributed by supervisors by testing Hypotheses 1a-d, 2a-b, 4a-d, 5a-b, 8a-$d_{3\text{-}4}$, and 9a-$d_{3\text{-}4}$.

In the following three chapters, we will present the three studies one by one in detail.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 1

From this chapter on, we describe in detail the three empirical studies used to test the hypotheses proposed in the last chapter. Study 1 is a pre-study. In this study, we attempt to examine the validity of the measure of perceived authenticity and to investigate the effects of employees' authenticity on social acceptance in a relatively small sample (7 teams, 28 individuals, 97 dyads).

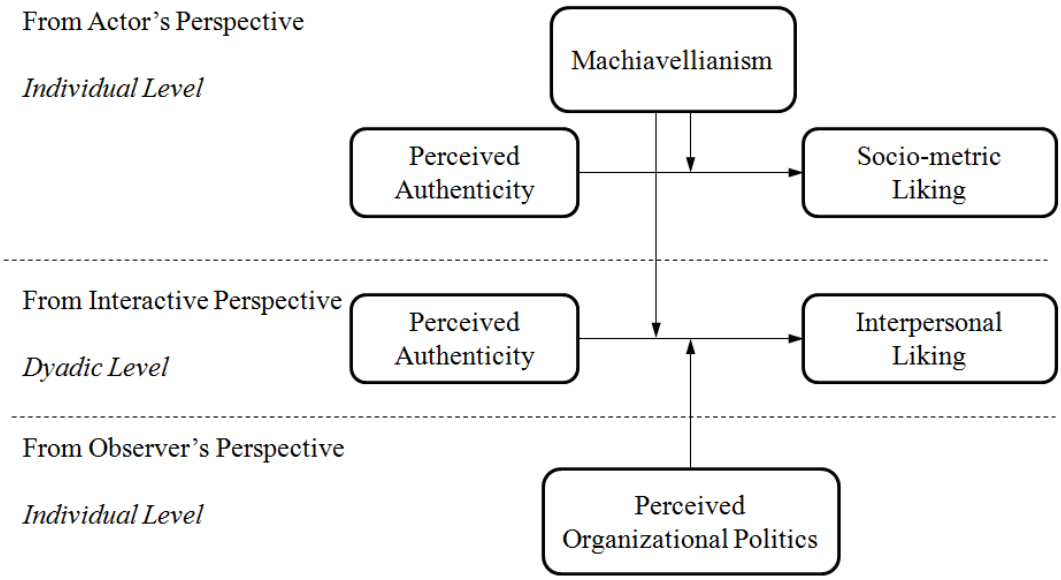


FIGURE 4-1

Research Model of Study 1

This study has three main objectives. First, the study aims to establish the instrument to measure employees' perceived authenticity. Second, the study aims also to investigate whether employees' perceived authenticity can influence coworkers' acceptance to them. The third objective of the study is to *preliminarily* explore the

boundary conditions of the influence. In this study, we attempt to explore the relationship between perceived authenticity and social acceptance, the moderating effect of observer's perceived organizational politics and actor's Machiavellianism on the relationship, and the interactive effect between observer's perceived organizational politics and actor's Machiavellianism. We analyzed the effects at the dyadic level, the individual level, and cross-level. Our research model is depicted in Figure 4-1.

Hypotheses

As conceptualized in the previous chapters, perceived authenticity refers to employees' behaviors to express their true self. As argued in the Chapter 3, we suggest that perceived authenticity can increase liking at both dyadic level and at individual level. At the dyadic level, perceived interpersonal authenticity can increase the observer's liking towards the actor for two reasons. First, because interpersonal relationships among a work team appreciate trust (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), the focal employee's authenticity, implying trusting and honesty, tends to be appreciated by coworkers. Second, perceived interpersonal authenticity implies one's disclosure of true self to others. Self-disclosure can increase the interpersonal liking between the discloser and the one who receives the disclosure.

At the individual level, employees' authenticity can increase socio-metric liking of the employee by the whole team. In addition to the aforementioned two reasons, authenticity suggests that the person can clearly be aware of his/her own emotions and accurately express them verbally or nonverbally. Accurately recognizing and expressing one's own emotions helps interpersonal communication because the expressions clarify the emotional undertone of the interaction rather than leaving the other guessing (Miller, Gouley, Seifer, Zakriski, Eguia, & Vergnani, 2005). Those

who can accurately recognize and express their own feelings tend to be easy to get along with and to be socio-metrically liked by the group (Aikins & Litwack, 2011).

Hypothesis 1a: Observer perceived actor's authenticity is positively related to the observer's liking towards the actor.

Hypothesis 1c: Team members' perceived authenticity is positively related to the team's socio-metric liking to them.

In this study, we test the moderating effects of observer's perceived organizational politics and actor's Machiavellianism on the proposed main effect. Perceived organizational politics provides a strong contextual cue for the team members to interpret authentic behaviors to be a manifestation of naivety, instead of interpersonal trust and self-disclosure. Thus, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3a: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderates the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor such that the relationship is less positive when observer's perceived organizational politics is high than when it is low.

Meanwhile, Machiavellianism is one of the dark triads of personality (the other two are narcissism and psychopathy). We suggest that the actor's Machiavellian personality can set off against the benefits of perceived authenticity both to interpersonal liking and socio-metric liking. In the dyadic context, authentically expressing the Machiavellian belief and value may not be able to build up interpersonal trust because of the belief's selfish and manipulative nature; after all, trust requires benevolence and integrity (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). In the team context, the inconsistency between Machiavellianism and authenticity can

largely set off against the clarity of emotional undertone due to the confusion it brings. Therefore, we suggest that:

Hypothesis 4a: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor such that the relationship is less positive when actor's Machiavellianism is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 4c: Team members' Machiavellianism moderates the relationship between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking such that the relationship is less positive when the team member's Machiavellianism is high.

In addition, we suggest that actor's Machiavellianism and observer's perceived organizational politics can interactively influence the relationship between perceived interpersonal authenticity and interpersonal liking. The observer with high perceived organizational politics tends to have a broader range of acceptance of the possible ways to strategically use political influence. When observing the authentic behaviors of a high Mach, the observers are likely to interpret such behaviors as a political strategy to achieve self-interest. After all, deception is not the only way to gain political power; sometimes, authentic expressions can be used as a political tactic (Liu, 2008). Therefore, we suggest that:

Hypothesis 6a: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderate the effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking towards the actor such that the relationship is least positive when the observer's perceived organizational politics is low and the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Procedure

In this study, we collected the data from a social work organization. Seven social work teams were invited to voluntarily participate in the study. We arranged the teams in a large meeting room and distributed our questionnaires. In the questionnaires, participants were asked to report their perceived organizational politics of the team, their own Machiavellianism, each other teammate's authenticity perceived by them, and their liking toward other teammates. All the distributed questionnaires were then collected. Among the collected 30 questionnaires, 28 were usable, yielding the usable rate of 93.3% and producing 97 dyads. Of the 28 participants, 21.4% were male, while 59.3% had bachelor degree or above. The mean age, organizational tenure, and team tenure were 29 years, 14.0 months, and 10.2 months, respectively.

Measures

All the measures were originally developed in English and translated into Chinese. Established scales were used to measure perceived organizational politics, Machiavellianism, and interpersonal liking. We developed two versions of the survey (Chinese and English versions) by carefully following the translation-back translation procedures (Brislin, 1970) to enhance the validity of the scales.

Perceived Authenticity. Most of the measures of authenticity in organizational study were adapted from the Authenticity Inventory (AUT), developed by Goldman and Kernis (2004). In the current study, we develop the measure of perceived authenticity also basing on the inventory. In the original scale, the 45 items were produced for self-report. We first rephrased the items of the original scale from an observer's perspective so that employees can use the measure to rate their coworkers. Moreover, we adapted 33 more items from Authentic Followership Questionnaire (Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, & Sels, 2012), Authentic Leadership Inventory (Neider &

Schriesheim, 2011), and Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). The 33 items were also rephrased from an observer's perspective. After adapting the 78 items, we then invited two PhD students who are specialized in Organizational Behavior to assess the content validity of each item. They evaluated the content validity by considering two major issues: 1) the extent to which the items accurately represent the conceptualization, and 2) the extent to which the described content of the item can be perceived from an observer's perspective. 12 items that they both rated as invalid were deleted. Then, we picked out the four most valid items for each dimension (self-awareness, unbiased processing, self-determined behaving, and relational transparency). As such, 16 items were included in our measure. The items are presented in the Appendix, including "knows clearly why he/she does the things he/she does" (self-awareness), "embraces the weakness of his/her own principles" (unbiased processing), "shows consistency between his/her beliefs and actions" (self-determined behaving), and "openly shares his/her thoughts with others" (relational transparency). In this study, all the team members were asked to report the extent to which they agree with the statements to describe the behavior of each teammate on a five-point Likert-type scale. This scale employed the anchor ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Cronbech's alpha was .84.

Interpersonal Liking. Team members were required to report their liking towards each other on a 4-item scale ($\alpha = .94$) developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990). The original items were developed to measure a supervisor's liking to his/her subordinates. We adapted the items into the worker-coworker context. Team members were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with the statements to describe their relationships with a specific teammate on five-point Likert scale. The 4 items are "I get along well

with the person", "I think this person would make a good friend", "Working with the person is a pleasure", and "How much do you like this person?" In the original scale, the anchors for the first three items ranged from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, whereas the anchor for the last item ranged from *dislike very much* to *like very much*. Socio-metric liking to a focal team member was calculated by averaging all other members' ratings on the focal member. Interrater agreement suggested that the ratings of liking to a specific teammate stay relatively consistent among different raters (ICC (1) = .46; ICC (2) = .74; F (27, 67) = 3.88, $p < .01$). All the focal members, except one, have the $r_{wg(j)}$ values greater than .70 (Mean = .92, range from .67 to .99).

Perceived Organizational Politics. In this study, perceived organizational politics was measured with the Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale developed by Kacmar and Ferris (1991) and validated by Kacmar and Carlson (1997). We further adapted the items into the context of the study. Among the three subscales (*general political behavior, go along to get ahead, pay and promotion policies*), we did not use the *pay and promotion policies* subscale because the items were not applicable in our research context. The remaining 9 items ($\alpha = .83$), e.g., "agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this work team", "telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth", and "people in the team attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down", were used to evaluate perceived organizational politics within the group. Respondents were asked to report the extent to which the statement is suitable to describe the work team on a five-point Likert-type scale, employing the anchors ranging from *very much unsuitable* to *very much suitable*.

Machiavellianism. To assess Machiavellianism, we used the four-item Machiavellianism subscale ($\alpha = .82$) adapted from Dark Triad Dirty Dozen developed by Jonason and Webster (2010). The sample items are "I tend to manipulate others to

get my way" and "I tend to exploit others towards my own end". Team members were asked to report the extent to which the four statements are suitable to describe themselves on the five-point Likert scale from *very much unsuitable* to *very much suitable*.

Control Variables. Participants were asked to report their gender (1 = male; 0 = female), age, educational level (1 = bachelor's degree or above; 0 = no bachelor's degree), team tenure, and organizational tenure.

Analytic Strategy

The round-robin data collected in this study has a complex nested structure. Specifically, the dyadic relationship with other team members nested within the individual, while individuals nested within teams. To test the hypotheses, we must first consider the analytic level of the hypotheses, that is, whether the hypotheses were at a dyadic level, individual level, or cross-level. Hypotheses 1a and 6a were proposed at a dyadic level. Hypotheses 1c and 4c were proposed at an individual level. Lastly, Hypotheses 3a and 4a were cross-level hypotheses. To test the dyadic level and cross-level hypotheses, we employed social relations model by using MLwin 1.1 [for technical details, see Snijders & Kenny (1999)].

To test individual level hypotheses, i.e., Hypotheses 1c and 4c, we used multiple linear regression in SPSS 19.0. Given the significant team variance of socio-metric liking ($F (6, 21) = 2.81$, $p < .05$; ICC (1) = .31; ICC (2) = .64), we employed mixed model analyses to control for the team-level variance.

Results

To assess the validity of the newly developed scale of perceived authenticity with the four dimensions, namely, self-awareness, unbiased processing, self-determined behaving, and relational transparency, we conducted confirmatory factor analysis to

test four different models. The results showed that the four-factor structure (Model 1 and Model2 in Table 4-1) demonstrated a good fit with the data (first-order: χ^2 (98) = 169.01, RMSEA = .087, CFI = .901, IFI = .906, TLI = .862; second-order: χ^2 (100) = 170.17, RMSEA = .085, CFI = .902, IFI = .907, TLI = .867). In the four-factor measurement model (Model 1), all the items were loaded on the corresponding factors, 4 items on each factor, with correlations among the factors. We then compared the measurement model to a two-factor model, Model 3. In Model 3, the items of self-awareness and unbiased processing were loaded on one factor, whereas the items of self-determined behaving and relational transparency were loaded on one factor with correlation between the two factors. The measurement model was also compared to a one-factor model, Model 4, in which all the items were loaded on one factor. The results of nested model comparisons (see Table 4-1) suggested that the four-factor model was superior to the two nested models (compared with Model 3: $\Delta\chi^2$ (5) = 41.49, $p < .01$; compared with Model 4: $\Delta\chi^2$ (6) = 115.75, $p < .01$). The second order four-factor structure of the measurement is presented in Figure 4-2. Our research interest in the study lies in perceived authenticity both at dyadic level and at individual level. To estimate a team member's authenticity among the work team, we aggregated all other members' observations toward the same focal member to capture his/her authenticity in the work team (Bliese, 2000). Inter-rater agreement supported the aggregation decision (all rwg(j) >.70, Mean = .98, range from .86 to 1.00; ICC (1) = .20; ICC (2) = .46).

Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients (α), and bivariate correlations among all the variables at individual level and dyadic level are presented in Table 4-2.

TABLE 4-1

Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	CFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA(CI90)
1 First-Order Four-Factor Model	169.01 (98)		.901	.906	.862	.087 [.064, .109]
2 Second-Order Four-Factor Model	170.17 (100)		.902	.907	.867	.085 [.063, .107]
3 Two-Factor Model	210.50 (103)	41.49 (5)**	.850	.857	.802	.104 [.084, .124]
4 One-Factor Model	284.76 (104)	115.75 (6)**	.748	.758	.670	.135 [.116, .153]
5 8-item Second-Oder Model	29.99 (16)		.965	.963	.917	.095 [.039, .147]

Note: Models 2, 3, and 4 were compared with Model 1. CFI is comparative fit index. IFI is incremental fit index. TLI is Tucker-Lewis coefficient, also known as non-normed fit index (NNFI). RMSEA is root mean square error of approximation

** $p < .01$

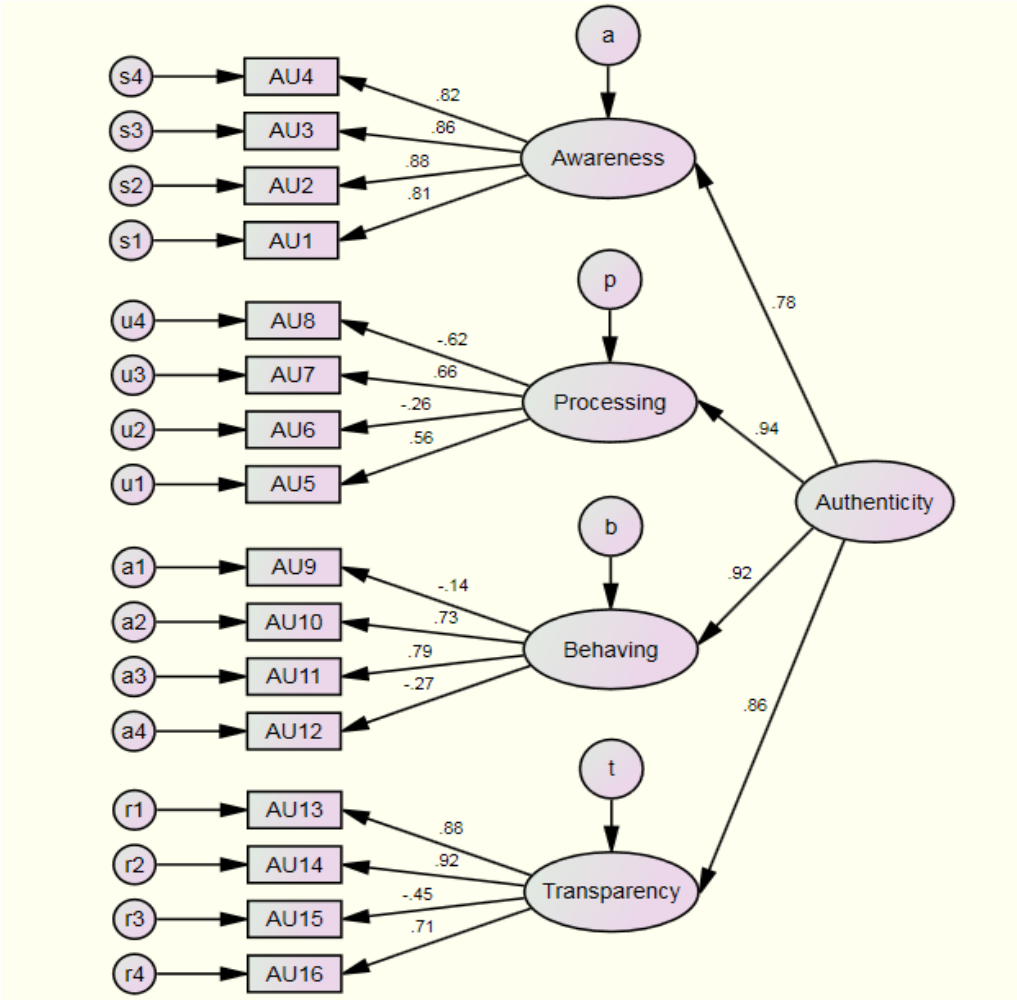


FIGURE 4-2

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Second-Order Four-Factor Model

TABLE 4-2

Mean, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations

		Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	O's Gender	21.43%	.42		.08	-.20	.01	-.10	.23								
2	O's Education	59.26%	.50	.14		.23	-.05	.13	-.24								
3	O's Age	29.00	6.71	-.16	.23*		.10	.23	-.03								
4	O's Organizational Tenure	14.04	12.46	.00	-.06	.11		.61**	.06								
5	O's Team Tenure	10.22	8.97	-.09	.14	.25*	.59**		-.10								
6	O's Perceived Politics	2.48	.62	.22*	-.24*	-.06	.05	-.14	(.83)								
7	A's Gender	21.43%	.42	-.08	-.17	.03	.06	-.01	-.01		.08	-.20	.01	-.10	.24	-.08	-.02
8	A's Education	59.26%	.50	-.17	.10	-.08	.01	.04	-.37**	.14		.23	-.05	.13	-.34	.27	.02
9	A's Age	29.00	6.71	.03	-.08	-.14	-.11	-.11	.05	-.15	.25*		.10	.23	-.18	.15	.00
10	A's Organizational Tenure	14.04	12.46	.06	.01	-.11	-.24**	-.17	-.04	-.02	-.09	.13		.61**	.03	-.01	.11
11	A's Team Tenure	10.22	8.97	-.01	.04	-.11	-.17	-.21	-.04	-.11	.13	.29**	.58**		-.06	.06	-.01
12	A's Machiavellianism	2.28	.69	-.04	-.19	.02	-.01	.04	.28**	.22*	-.33**	-.15	.06	-.07	(.82)	-.15	-.04
13	O Perceived A's Authenticity	3.67	.42	-.22*	.16	.11	.13	.18	-.53**	-.07	.25*	.12	.00	.06	-.13	(.84)	.68**
14	O's Liking towards A	4.00	.82	.10	.13	.11	.13	.09	-.06	-.08	.07	.04	.10	.01	-.04	.49**	(.94)

Note: N_{dyad} = 89-97, $N_{individual}$ = 26-30. Along the diagonal, reliability coefficients (alpha) are given in parentheses; Coefficients above the diagonal are at individual level; Coefficients below the diagonal are at dyadic level.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Considering that the hypotheses were at different analytic levels, we tested them separately based on their level of analysis. The dyadic level and cross-level hypotheses, i.e., Hypotheses 1a, 3a, 4a, and 6a, were tested using social relations model. The individual level hypotheses, i.e., Hypotheses 1c and 4c, were tested by employing mixed model analysis.

Dyadic Level and Cross-level Hypotheses Test

First, we tested the Hypotheses 1a, 3a, 4a, and 6a. Given that Mlwin1.1 does not allow missing values, we deleted the dyads that have missing values in key variables, i.e., O[‡]'s perceived organizational politics, A's Machiavellianism, A's authenticity perceived by O, and O's liking toward A. We then replaced the missing value of the control variables with series means. To test the hypotheses, we regressed O's liking toward A on both O's and A's demographic variables, A's authenticity perceived by O, O's perceived organizational politics, A's Machiavellianism, their two-way interaction terms and three-way interaction terms. Before testing the hypotheses, a null model was calculated to partition the observer, actor, dyadic, and team variance of O's liking toward A (see Table 4-3). Approximately 35.1% of the total variance in O's liking toward A was located at the dyadic level, suggesting that the largest influence on O's liking toward A was from the dyad between coworker O and A.

The results of social relations models (see Table 4-4) revealed a significant main effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on O's liking toward A (B = .39, SE = .11, $p < .01$). Such a result supported Hypothesis 1a. The results also demonstrated a significant cross-level moderating effect of O's perceived organizational politics on the main effect (B = -.16, SE = .08, $p < .05$). The interaction pattern was plotted in

[‡] O represents the coworkers who are playing the role of Observer; A represents the coworkers who are playing the role of Actor. Each team member is playing the role of both Observer and Actor at the same time.

Figure 4-3. As predicted in Hypothesis 3a, the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's liking toward A was significant when O's perceived organizational politics was low (B = .55, t = 4.44, p < .01), but not significant when it is high (B = .23, t = 1.64, *ns*). Inconsistent with Hypothesis 4a, the cross-level moderating effect of A's Machiavellianism on the main effect was not significant (B = -.12, SE = .09, *ns*). The three-way interactive effects of O's perceived organizational politics, A's Machiavellianism, and A's authenticity perceived by O on O's liking toward A was not significant (B = -.05, SE = .04, *ns*). As such, Hypothesis 6a was not supported.

TABLE 4-3

Variance Partitioning for O's Liking towards A

Source of Variance[§]	**O's Liking towards A**	
	B (%)	**SE**
Team Variance	.196 (28.2)	.172
Observer Variance	.110 (15.8)	.069
Actor Variance	.146 (21.0)	.081
Dyadic Variance	.244 (35.1)	.058
Deviance	159.78	

Note: N = 26 individuals in 78 dyads within 7 teams; B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

[§] Team variance is the variance portion that comes from team membership. Observer variance comes from the tendency of the observer in rating other members. Actor variance arises from the tendency of the actor receiving similar ratings from others. Dyadic variance refers to the variance portion because of the particular relationship between the observer and the actor.

TABLE 4-4

Social Relations Model Analyses for O's Liking towards A

Steps and Variables	O's Liking towards A									
	M1		M2		M3		M4		M5	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables										
O's Gender	.23	.24	.43	.23	.42*	.21	.45*	.23	.46*	.21
O's Education	-.04	.24	-.07	.23	-.07	.20	-.09	.22	-.14	.21
O's Age	-.02	.11	-.05	.11	-.13	.11	-.06	.11	-.12	.11
O's Organizational Tenure	.24*	.11	.20	.11	.13	.10	.19	.10	.08	.11
O's Team Tenure	-.23*	.12	-.24*	.11	-.22*	.11	-.25*	.11	-.21*	.11
A's Gender	-.35	.26	-.27	.24	-.25	.24	-.23	.26	-.22	.24
A's Education	.20	.26	.18	.24	.23	.23	.19	.26	.19	.24
A's Age	.01	.12	-.03	.12	-.07	.12	-.03	.12	-.08	.12
A's Organizational Tenure	.25*	.12	.22	.12	.20	.12	.21	.12	.19	.12
A's Team Tenure	-.16	.13	-.15	.13	-.15	.13	-.16	.13	-.12	.13
Independent Variables										
A's Authenticity Perceived by O (AAPO)			.27**	.09	.34**	.10	.27**	.09	.39**	.11
O's Perceived Organizational Politics (OPOP)					.21	.11			.23*	.11
A's Machiavellianism (AM)							.01	.11	-.07	.10

2 Way Interactions										
AAPO × OPOP					-.14*	.07			-.16*	.08
AAPO × AM							-.05	.06	-.12	.09
AM × OPOP									-.15	.09
3 Way Interaction										
AAPO × AM × OPOP									-.05	.04
	$\Delta\chi^2$	12.0		8.9**		6.2*		5.8		5.8

Note: N = 78 dyads. AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OPOP = O's Perceived Organizational Politics, AM = A' Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

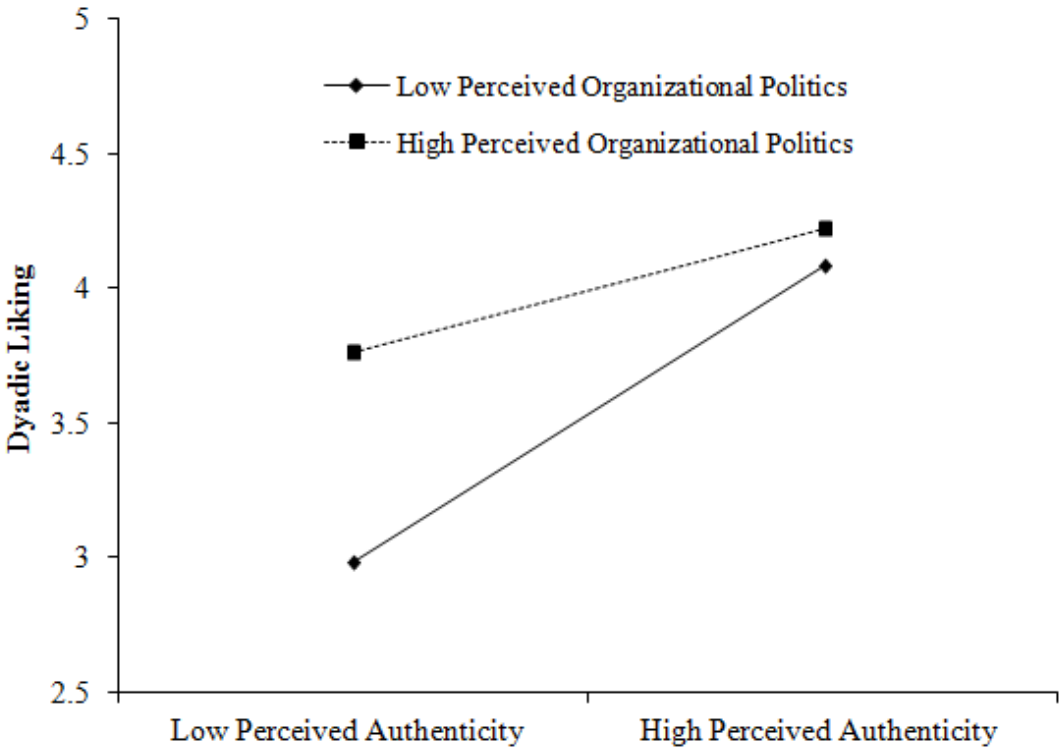


FIGURE 4-3

Interaction Pattern of O's Perceived Organizational Politics and A's Authenticity Perceived by O on O's Liking towards A

Individual Level Hypotheses Test

Next, we tested Hypotheses 1c and 4c by using mixed model analyses. All other team members' perceived authenticity of and liking towards a focal member were aggregated to calculate perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking of the focal member. Socio-metric liking was regressed on perceived authenticity, Machiavellianism, and the interaction between perceived authenticity and Machiavellianism. The results are presented in Table 4-5. As shown in the table, the main effect of perceived authenticity on socio-metric liking is significantly positive (B = .47, SE = .09, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1c. However, the interactive effect is

not significant (B = -.09, SE = .09, *ns*), suggesting that Hypothesis 4c was not supported.

TABLE 4-5

Multiple Mixed-Model Regressions on Socio-metric Liking

Variables	Socio-metric Liking							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
Gender	-.32	.23	.06	.21	.06	.22	.09	.22
Education	.13	.22	-.21	.19	-.21	.20	-.20	.20
Age	.05	.10	-.02	.10	-.02	.10	-.01	.10
Organizational Tenure	.19	.11	.15	.11	.15	.11	.13	.11
Team Tenure	-.13	.12	-.12	.12	-.12	.12	-.17	.12
Independent Variables								
PA			.47**	.09	.47**	.09	.47**	.09
MA					.00	.09	.01	.09
Interaction Term								
PA × MA							-.09	.09
-2 Log-likelihood	28.7		28.9		28.9		28.1	

Note: N = 25. PA = perceived authenticity, MA = Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

** $p < .01$

Discussion

Study 1 was designed first to establish the measure of perceived authenticity. In this study, we developed the measure following a sophisticated procedure. In our conceptualization, four components of perceived authenticity are considered: self-awareness, unbiased processing, self-determined behaving, and relational transparency. In the measure, the first 4 items were adopted to assess the extent to which the focal member shows a clear understanding of his/her motives, values, and propensities, i.e.,

self-awareness. The second 4 items were used to assess the extent to which the focal member admits, accepts, and embraces the shortcomings of his/her behaviors, i.e., unbiased processing. The third 4 items were employed to evaluate the extent to which the focal member behaves according to internal and internalized behavioral principles and values, instead of external pressure, i.e., self-determined behaving. The last 4 items were used to assess the extent to which the focal member shows his/her true self to coworkers, i.e., relational transparency. The results indicated that the measure had a four-factor structure, as conceptualized.

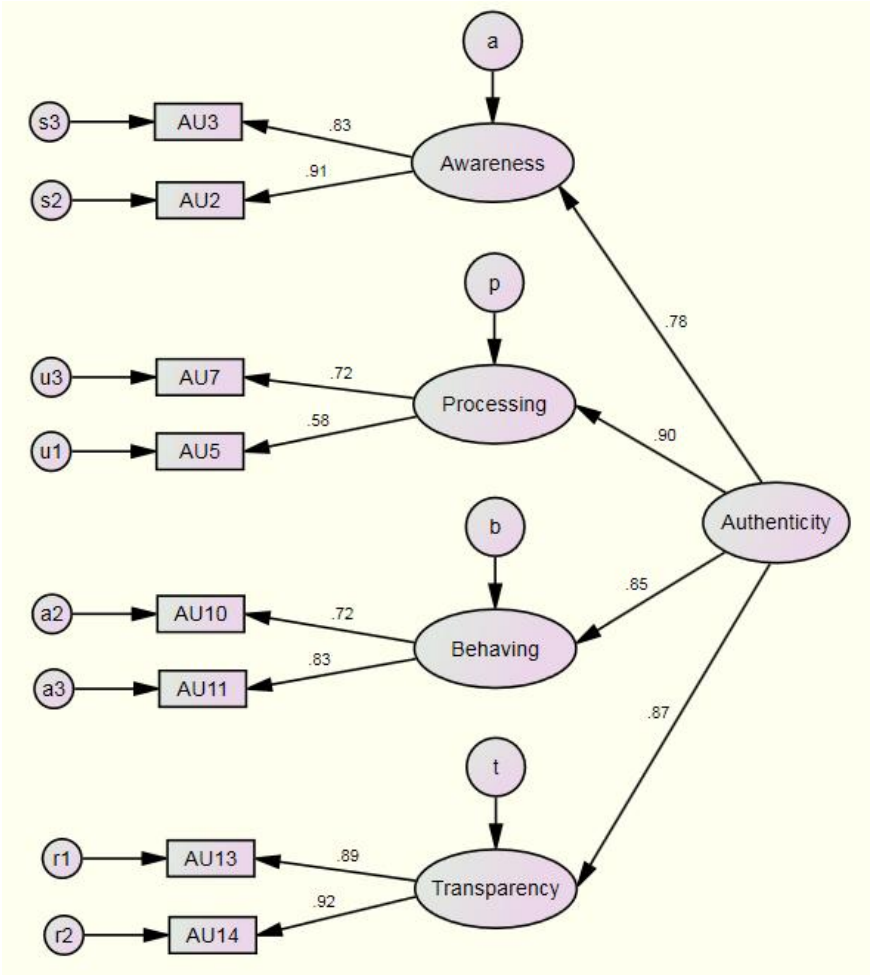


FIGURE 4-4

Factor Loadings of 8-item Second-Order Measurement Model

Because the current measure of authenticity uses the round-robin survey, too many items will largely increase the burden of the respondents. A concise measure may be needed in the future studies. Thus, we further analyzed the data in attempt to condense the measure of authenticity. As shown in Figure 4-2, some of the items were more representative of the corresponding components of authenticity. As such, the scale may be compressed by using the most representative items. A confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the fit of an eight-item model. In this model, the two most representative items of each component were loaded on the corresponding factor, whereas the four factors loaded on a second-order factor. The factor-loading of the model was presented in Figure 4-4. The results (see in Table 4-1) demonstrated a good model fit (χ^2 (16) = 29.99, RMSEA = .095, CFI = .965, IFI = .963, TLI = .917), suggesting good construct validity. However, because of the relatively small sample size (n = 97 dyads), the measurement models require to be further validated.

We employed a null model of social relations model to partition the variance of perceived interpersonal authenticity. Inter-rater agreement of different raters on the same member's authenticity suggested that different raters had rather consistent evaluations on the same rate despite their differences. The finding is consistent with our theory on perceived authenticity, which stated that authenticity can be reflected both in the actor's personality and in specific interpersonal contexts. Furthermore, the study aimed to preliminarily examine the effect of perceived authenticity on social acceptance and its boundary conditions. In this research, we analyzed the effects of perceived authenticity both at dyadic level and at individual level. The aforementioned results confirmed the validity of such an analytical strategy. The results of this study demonstrated that perceived authenticity was positively associated with liking both at dyadic level and at individual level. The findings are consistent with our hypotheses,

suggesting that an employee exhibiting high authenticity tends to be socially accepted by coworkers.

With respect to the boundary conditions of the aforementioned effect, the results suggested that a coworker's perceived organizational politics can influence the effect such that the focal employee is more likely to be liked by coworkers with low perceived organizational politics. Furthermore, the results demonstrated that the observer's perceived organizational politics had a significant main effect on interpersonal liking (B = .23, SE = .11, $p < .05$). The results suggest that coworkers perceived high in organizational politics tend to like their teammates more. Both the mixed-model analyses and social relations model analyses demonstrated no moderating effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived authenticity and social acceptance toward the actor. Overall, the results suggested a positive relationship between perceived authenticity and social acceptance, in addition to the moderating effect of the observer's perceived organizational politics, but not the actor's Machiavellianism. However, the findings are only preliminary because of small sample size, especially the results of individual level analyses (N = 28 individuals). Therefore, further studies were designed to examine the effects of perceived authenticity on social acceptance and to explore the boundary conditions of such effects.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 2

In Study 1, we established the measure of perceived authenticity and preliminarily investigated its effects on liking at both the dyadic level and the individual level. In this study, we attempt to validate the measure and further examine the effects of employees' perceived authenticity on social acceptance and their boundary conditions. If social acceptance derived from perceived authenticity cannot be translated into work-related resources, it may not help focal employees much. As such, we further explore the effects of perceived authenticity via social acceptance on work-related interpersonal outcomes and examine the boundary conditions of such effects.

From the interpersonal perspective, both parties and the nature of social context can influence dyadic interaction. Thus, we investigated the moderating effects of observer's beliefs of social complexity, actor's Machiavellianism, and organizational politics on the relationship between actor's authenticity and social acceptance, indicated by liking and inclusion. We used *observer's perceived organizational politics* to represent the politics in the work team because the study focuses on the perception of the observers. Similar to the analyses in Study 1, the current study analyzed the effects at dyadic level, individual level, and cross-level. Our research model of Study 2 is depicted in Figure 5-1.

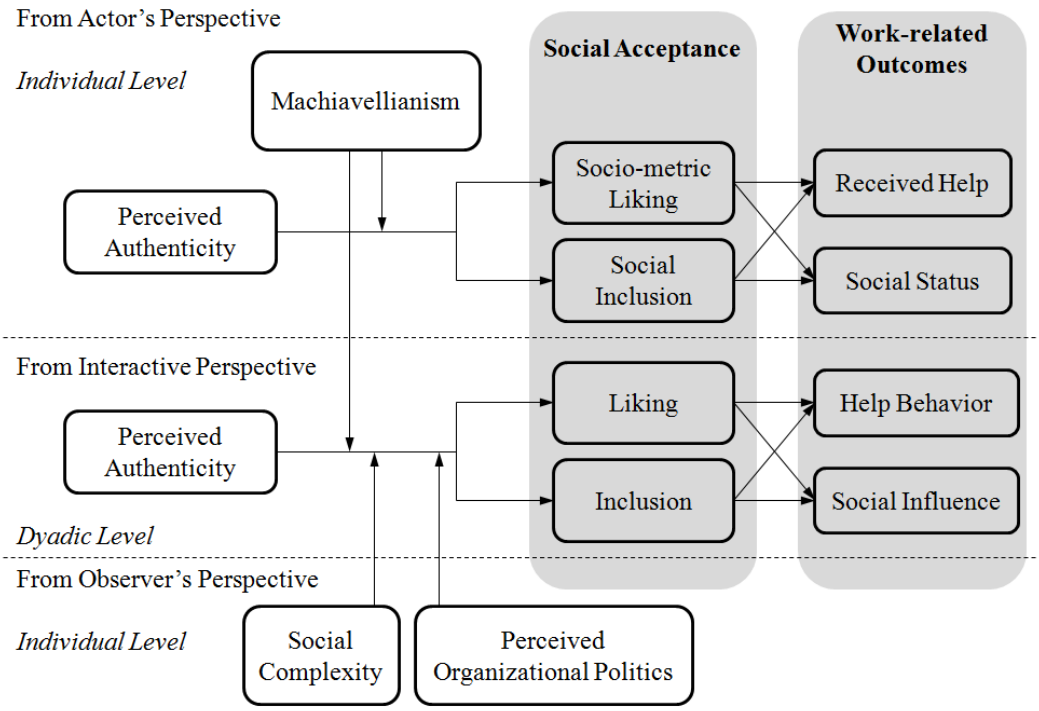


FIGURE 5-1

Research Model of Study 2

Hypotheses

In addition to the effect of perceived authenticity on liking as suggested in the last chapter, we propose that perceived authenticity can increase inclusion at both the dyadic and individual levels. At the dyadic level, perceived interpersonal authenticity can facilitate interpersonal inclusion as authenticity increases the opportunities for the observer to choose the actor as a friend. People tend to consider two aspects of an interpersonal relationship before starting a friendship: expected benefit/harm and relationship stability (Aron, & Aron, 1997; Aron et al., 1998). First, as argued before, authentic behaviors conveyed interpersonal trust, honesty, and openness during interpersonal interactions. The appreciable quality decreases the expected harm and increases the expected benefit from building up the relationship. Second, authenticity implies consistency among the actor's behaviors in different contexts. The consistency

makes the actor look reliable such that the relationship with him/her tends to be stable. At the individual level, beyond the aforementioned two reasons, employees' authenticity may increase social inclusion of the employee by the whole team because of the open sharing of his/her information. As conceptualized, authenticity suggests that the person tends to share his/her information openly. The open sharing of information positively contributes to the team. From group boundary control perspective (Levine, et al., 2005), the positive contribution can improve the team's commitment to the employee. Thus, such contribution increases his/her social inclusion. Thus, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1a-b: Observer perceived actor's authenticity is positively related to the observer's liking to the actor (1a) and the observer's inclusion of the actor (1b).

Hypothesis 1c-d: Team members' perceived authenticity is positively related to socio-metric liking (1c) and social inclusion (1d).

The interpretation of perceived authenticity is conditional, depending on observer's belief of social complexity, observer's perceived organizational politics, and actor's Machiavellianism. The observer with high social complexity believes that there is no consistent rule to guide social behaviors and address social issues. This observer interprets authentic behaviors (behaving according to consistent personal principles) as insensitivity to social contexts. Thus, the observer tends to expect that the actor may eventually encounter trouble in such a complicated social world and to keep distance from the employee.

Hypothesis 2: Observer's social complexity moderates the effects of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on the observer's liking toward the

actor (2a) and on the observer's inclusion of the actor (2b) such that the effects are less positive when observer's social complexity is higher.

Similar with the argument in the last chapter, we argued that the observer's perceived organizational politics and the actor's Machiavellianism can influence the interpretation of perceived authenticity. Thus, the effect of perceived authenticity on social acceptance may be moderated. Accordingly, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderates the effects of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on the observer's liking toward the actor (3a) and on the observer's inclusion of the actor (3b) such that the effects are less positive when observer's perceived organizational politics is higher.

Hypothesis 4a-b: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the effects of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on the observer's liking toward the actor (4a) and on the observer's inclusion of the actor (4b) such that the effects are less positive when actor's Machiavellianism is higher.

Hypothesis 4c-d: Team members' Machiavellianism moderates the effects of perceived authenticity on socio-metric liking (4c) and on social inclusion (4d) such that the effects are less positive when the team member's Machiavellianism is higher.

In addition, the three moderators may interact with each other in moderating the effect of perceived authenticity on social acceptance. A high Mach tends to exhibit a behavioral pattern that the observers consider to be inconsistent with authentic behaviors. The effects of the actor's Machiavellianism on the observer's interpretation of authentic behaviors depend on the observer's social complexity and perceived

organizational politics. The observer with high social complexity has a high tolerance of behavioral inconsistency. In addition, perceived organizational politics may lead the observer to interpret such behaviors as a strategy for political influence. Furthermore, authentic behaviors can be interpreted as the exhibition of behavioral inflexibility in the eyes of the observer with high social complexity. Such interpretations are more likely to occur when the observer perceives the work team as political. Therefore, we suggest that:

Hypothesis 5: Observer's social complexity moderates the effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking toward the actor (H5a), as well as between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H5b) such that the relationships are least positive when the observer's social complexity is low and the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 6: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderate the effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking toward the actor (H6a), as well as between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H6b) such that the relationships are least positive when the observer's perceived organizational politics is low and the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 7: Observer's perceived organizational politics moderates the effect of the observer's social complexity on the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking toward the actor (H7a), as well as between the observer perceived actor's authenticity

and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H7b) such that the relationships are least positive when the observer's social complexity is high and political climate is high.

Interpersonal liking in the workplace is often exhibited as providing social support. This support can be reflected in helping behaviors in the workplace (Scott et al., 2009). Meanwhile, when a focal employee (*the actor*) is liked by his/her coworker (*the observer*), the coworker is more likely to be open to the persuasion of the focal employee. As such, he/she is more likely to accept social influence from the employee (Wood, 2000). Accordingly, we suggest that interpersonal liking in the workplace may be translated into helping behaviors and social influence. The same arguments apply to interpersonal inclusion (Qiu, Lin, & Leung, 2013). Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 8a: Observer's liking toward actor positively relates to the observer's helping behavior to the actor and the actor's social influence on the observer such that the observer's liking toward the actor mediates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's helping behavior to the actor (H8a$_1$), as well as between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer rated status of the actor (H8a$_2$).

Hypothesis 8b: Observer's inclusion of actor positively relates to the observer's helping behavior to actor, observer rated status of actor, and observer's exchange with actor such that the observer's inclusion of the actor mediates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer's helping behavior to the actor (H8b$_1$), as well as between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer rated status of the actor (H8b$_2$).

Hypothesis 9a: Actor's Machiavellianism, observer's social complexity, and perceive organizational politics moderate the indirect effect of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on the observer's helping behavior to the actor (H9a$_1$) and observer rated status of actor (H9a$_2$) through the observer's liking toward the actor such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high, when the observer's social complexity is high, and when the observer's perceive organizational politics is high.

Hypothesis 9b: Actor's Machiavellianism, observer's social complexity, and perceive organizational politics moderate the indirect effect of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on the observer's helping behavior to the actor (H9b$_1$) and observer rated status of actor (H9b$_2$) via the observer's inclusion of the actor such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high, when the observer's social complexity is high, and when the observer's perceive organizational politics is high.

Socio-metric liking reflects the focal employee's popularity (Cillessen & Rose, 2005). Popular workers in a work team often receive more coworkers' social and instrumental support (Scott et al., 2009). The support can be manifested as coworkers' helping behaviors toward the focal employee. Meanwhile, popular members in a team tend to have more power to attract teammates' attention and to exert social influence, implying high social status. The similar effects may occur to the included members. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 8c: Socio-metric liking positively relates to received help and social status such that socio-metric liking mediates the relationships

between perceived authenticity and received help (H8c$_1$), as well as between perceived authenticity and social status (H8c$_2$).

Hypothesis 8d: Social inclusion positively relates to received help, social status, coworker exchange, and reward recommendations such that social inclusion mediates the relationships between perceived authenticity and received help (H8d1), as well as between perceived authenticity and social status (H8d2).

Hypothesis 9c: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the indirect effects of the actor's perceived authenticity on received help (H9c$_1$) and social status (H9c$_2$) via socio-metric liking such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 9d: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the indirect effects of the actor's perceived authenticity on received help (H9d1) and social status (H9d2), through social inclusion such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Procedure

We recruited participants from two primary schools and two kindergartens in a South-East Chinese city. The teachers in the four institutions were invited to voluntarily attend the study. The participating teachers worked in subject teams. In a subject team, the teachers who teach the same subject work in the same office, discuss issues in teaching, and have regular meetings together. After communicating with the principals, we were permitted to conduct the survey in these institutions. In exchange, we gave the principals a report for their institutions after the study. The principals were asked to encourage the teachers to participate in the study. The data were collected in three waves, each approximately one month apart. Every time the survey

was administered, the institution arranged all participating teachers in a meeting room. The questionnaires were distributed and collected in the meeting room. In the first wave, all participants were asked to report their perceived organizational politics, to measure their own social complexity and Machiavellianism, and to rate each teammate's perceived authenticity. In the second wave, they were asked to report their interpersonal liking toward and interpersonal inclusion of each teammate. They also reported their helping behavior to each teammate. In the third wave, participants were required to rate each teammate's social status in the team.

All the distributed questionnaires were collected. Among 202 teachers who participated in the study, 195 usable sets of questionnaires were returned, yielding the usable rate of 96.5%. The 195 teachers were from 47 teams, with 3 to 5 teachers in each team, producing 615 dyads. Among the participants, most were female, whereas only 4% were male. 50.3% had bachelor's degree or above. The mean age, organizational tenure, and team tenure were 34.7, 8.04 and 3.68 years, respectively, at the time of the first wave.

Measures

Perceived Authenticity. We assessed perceived authenticity on the same sixteen-item measure ($\alpha = .81$) of perceived authenticity used in Study 1. To explore the possibility of a concise measure, we conducted a supplementary analysis and found that the measure using eight representative items had construct validity as good as the sixteen-item measure. Thus, in this study, we also compare the eight-item construct and sixteen-item construct in confirmatory factor analyses. The results demonstrated that the eight-item construct had a better model fit (eight-item construct: χ^2 (14) = 35.47, RMSEA = .050, CFI = .992, IFI = .992, TLI = .979; sixteen-item construct: χ^2 (98) = 812.85, RMSEA = .109, CFI = .857, IFI = .858, TLI = .801). Besides, the

results of authenticity-related hypotheses testing had similar patterns by using eight-item measure and by using sixteen-item measure. Therefore, we used the eight-item construct in the study (α = .88). In the study, perceived authenticity was analyzed both at the dyadic level and at the individual level. To estimate a team member's perceived authenticity, we aggregated all teammates' observations towards the focal member to capture his/her authenticity in the work team. Inter-rater agreement support the aggregation decision (99% $r_{wg(j)}$ >.70, Mean = .96; ICC (1) = .17; ICC (2) = .38, F (200, 414) = 1.60, $p < .01$).

Perceived Organizational Politics. The measure was the same as that used in Study 1. Respondents reported the suitability of the description on the prevalence of organization politics on a five-point Likert-type scale from *very much unsuitable* to *very much suitable*. Reliability is .81.

Social Complexity. The social complexity subscale of the Social Axiom Survey developed by Leung, Bond, and colleagues (2002, 2004) was used to measure the participants' social complexity. The respondents were asked to report their general social beliefs along the eight items (α = .71, e.g., "People may have opposite behaviors on different occasions") on the five-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disbelieve* to *strongly believe.*

Machiavellianism. The measure was the same as that used in Study 1. Respondents reported their own Machiavellianism on a five-point Likert-type scale from *very much unsuitable* to *very much suitable*. Reliability is .79.

Interpersonal Liking. The measure was the same as that used in Study 1. Reliability is .97. Interpersonal liking was analyzed both at the dyadic level and individual level. As in Study 1, socio-metric liking was calculated by averaging all teammates' ratings on the focal member. Interrater agreement suggested that ratings of

socio-metric liking to different members were significantly different (ICC (1) = .12; ICC (2) = .30; F (198, 396) = 1.42, $p < .01$). A total of 91.2% of the focal members have the $r_{wg(j)}$ values greater than .70 (Mean = .81).

Interpersonal Inclusion. Participants were required to report their inclusion of each teammate on three items (α = .94) developed by Leary, Cottrell, and Phillips (2001). In the original measure, participants reported others' inclusionary behaviors toward them. In the current study, we rephrased the items from the perspective of those who initiate inclusionary behaviors. Teammates were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with the statements to describe their behaviors toward the specific focal teammate on a five-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The items are "I often invite him/her to do things together", "When he/she looks lonely, I would talk to him/her", and "I show my care to him/her". In this study, interpersonal inclusion was analyzed both at the dyadic level and individual level. We calculated *social inclusion* of the focal employee, i.e., being included by the team, by averaging all other members' ratings of the focal member. However, inter-rater agreement on interpersonal inclusion was pretty low (ICC (1) = .01; ICC (2) = .03; $Mean_{rwg(j)}$ = .76). We believe that the low inter-rater agreement is due to the nature of inclusionary behavior. Inclusionary behavior, by nature, is an interpersonal behavior. But, the behavior has its team implications. For example, when a new member is cared and valued by an old member of the team, the new experiences being included not only by the old member but also by the team. Therefore, the average of interpersonal inclusion by the teammates represents not only the overall inclusionary behaviors of the teammates but also social inclusion of the team to a focal employee.

Helping Behavior. The items developed by Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) were adopted in the study. Seven items in the original scale were used to

measure employees' helping behavior in a work team. In this study, we focused on helping behavior in work-coworker relationship, and thus deleted three items that cannot capture it, such as "try to act like peacemaker when other crew members have disagreements". The remaining four items were adopted into our research context. Participants were asked to rate the frequency in which they exhibit the described behaviors toward the specific teammate on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from *never* to *always*. The four items ($\alpha = .94$) are "help him/her out if he/she fall behind in his/her work", "willingly share my expertise with him/her" "give my time to help him/her with work-related problems", and "help him/her in his/her work". In this study, helping behavior was analyzed both at dyadic and individual levels. Similar to the operation of evaluating *social inclusion*, we calculated a focal member's *received help* from all other teammates by averaging all other members' ratings on the focal member regardless of the inter-rater agreement. Received help represents the overall help a focal member received from all other teammates.

Social Status. A social status measure developed by Anderson, John, Keltner and Kring (2001) was employed to evaluate each member's status in the work team. We used this measure because it focused on the informal status instead of authorized status. Participants were asked to answer three questions ($\alpha = .96$) regarding a specific team member: "How well respected is the person in the team?", "How valuable are this person's contributions to the team?", and "How much influence does this person exert over decisions in the team?" on a five-point scale. Social status in the study was analyzed both at the dyadic level and individual level. Dyadic status represents each teammate's admission to a focal member's influence. Social status was also calculated by aggregating all teammates' ratings on the focal member. Inter-rater agreement

supports the aggregation decision (81.8% $r_{wg(j)}$ >.70, Mean = .79; ICC (1) = .10; ICC (2) = .26, F (198, 345) = 1.34, $p < .01$).

Control Variables. Participants were asked to report their gender (1 = male; 0 = female), age, educational level, organizational tenure, and team tenure.

Analytic Strategy

Similar with the analytic strategy in Study 1, we first considered the analytic level of the hypotheses due to the complexity of the nested structure. Hypotheses 1a-b, 5a-b, 6a-b, and 7a-b were proposed to be tested at the dyadic level. Hypotheses 1c-d and 4c-d were proposed to be tested at the individual level. Hypotheses 2a-b, 3a-b, and 4a-b pertain to cross-level effects and were proposed to be tested using multilevel analyses. We employed social relations model to test dyadic level and cross-level hypotheses by using MLwiN1.1.

Meanwhile, the individual-level hypotheses, i.e., H1c-d and 4c-d, were tested by using mixed model analysis in SPSS 19.0. We employed mixed model analyses because the data have a nested structure (195 teachers in 47 teams, 3 to 5 members each) and have significant team variances for socio-metric liking (F (46, 148) = 3.55, $p < .01$; ICC (1) = .38; ICC (2) = .72), social inclusion (F (46, 148) = 2.06, $p < .01$; ICC (1) = .20; ICC (2) = .51), helping behavior (F (46, 148) = 4.08, $p < .01$; ICC (1) = .43; ICC (2) = .75), and social status (F (46, 145) = 4.40, $p < .01$; ICC (1) = .45; ICC (2) = .77).

Hypotheses 8a-d_{1-2} and 9a-d_{1-2} constituted moderated mediation models and were tested *at their associated levels,* following Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007)'s procedure by using the Monte Carlo bootstrapping tests for indirect effect.

Results

To test the validity of the measure of perceived authenticity, confirmatory factor analyses were employed to compare five different models. In Model 1, each two items were loaded on the associated four factors with correlations among the factors. Model 2 was the same as the first order four-factor model in Study 1. Model 3 was second order four-factor model, in which all four factors in Model 1 were loaded on a second order factor. In Model 4, the items of self-awareness and unbiased processing were loaded on one factor, whereas the items of self-determined behaving with relational transparency were loaded on another factor with a correlation between the two factors. In Model 5, we loaded all the items on one major factor. The results of nested model comparisons (see Table 5-1) demonstrated that the eight-item four-factor models, including the first order model and second order model, were superior to the two nested models (comparing Model 4 with Model 1: $\Delta\chi^2$ (5) = 409.61, $p < .01$; comparing Model 5 with Model 1: $\Delta\chi^2$ (6) = 719.65, $p < .01$).

To illustrate the structure of the measurement, we presented the factor-loading of Model 3 in Figure 5-2.

TABLE 5-1

Confirmatory Factor Analyses on the Measure of Perceive Authenticity

	Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	CFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA(CI90)
1	First-Order Measurement Model	35.47 (14)		.992	.992	.979	.050 [.030, .071]
2	16-item Measurement Model	812.85 (98)		.857	.858	.801	.109 [.102, .116]
3	Second-Order Measurement Model	47.19 (16)		.988	.988	.973	.056 [.038, .075]
4	Two-Factor Model	445.08 (19)	409.61 (5)**	.836	.837	.689	.191 [.176, .207]
5	One-Factor Model	755.12 (20)	719.65 (6)**	.717	.719	.491	.245 [.230, .260]

Note: Models 3, 4 and 5 were compared with Model 1. CFI is comparative fit index. IFI is incremental fit index. TLI is Tucker-Lewis coefficient, also known as non-normed fit index (NNFI). RMSEA is root mean square error of approximation

** $p < .01$

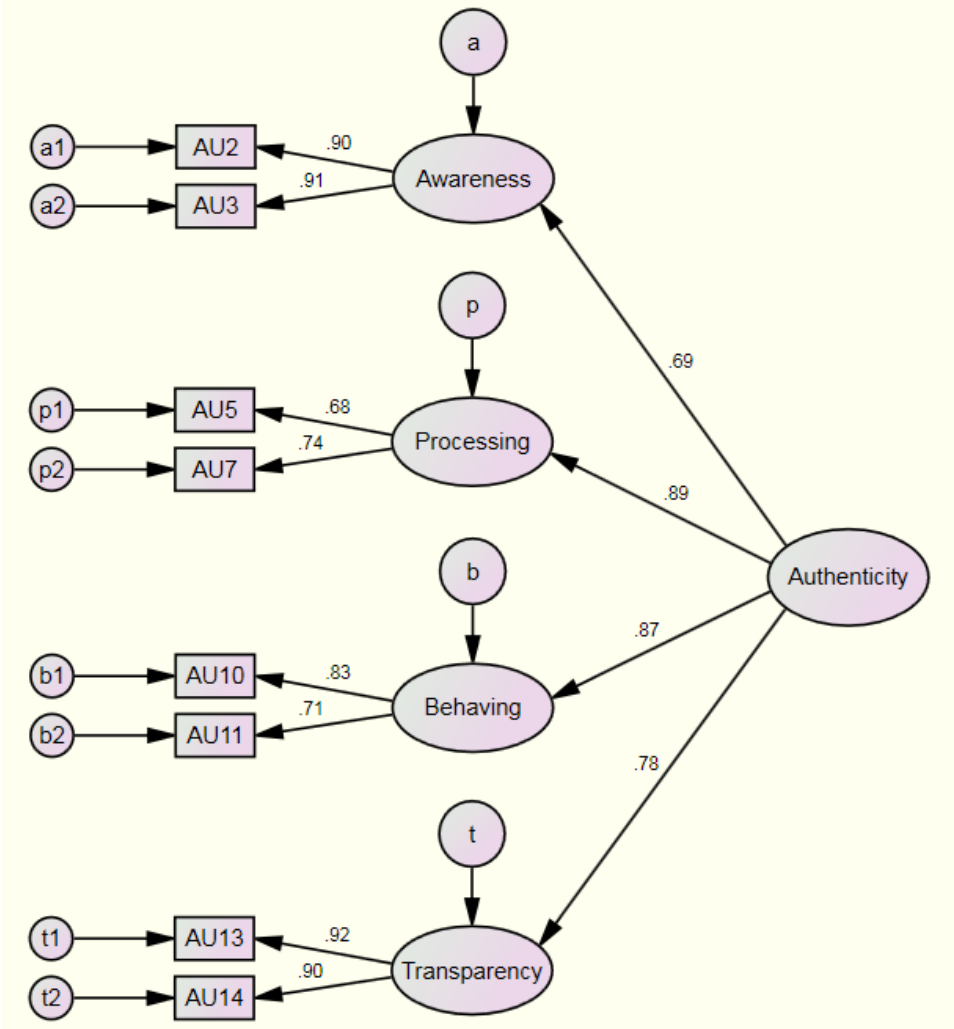


FIGURE 5-2

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Second-Order Measurement Model

Before testing the hypotheses, confirmatory factor analyses were used to assess the validity of the substantive dyadic constructs. We compared five nested models. In the measurement model (Model I), we loaded each item on their associated five factors (perceived authenticity, interpersonal liking, interpersonal inclusion, helping behavior, and social status) with correlations among the factors. For the measure of perceived authenticity, we used the second order measurement model (Model 3 in the aforementioned analysis). The measurement model was compared with three four-factor models: Model II, in which the items of interpersonal liking and interpersonal inclusion were loaded on one factor; Model III, in which the items of interpersonal inclusion and helping behavior were loaded on one factor; and Model IV, in which the items of helping behavior and social status were loaded on one factor. The measurement model was also compared with one three-factor model, Model V, in which the items of interpersonal liking and interpersonal inclusion were loaded on one factor and the items of helping behavior and social status were loaded on another factor. The results showed that the five-factor structure demonstrated good fit with the data (χ^2 (195) = 472.50, RMSEA = .048, CFI = .978, IFI = .978, TLI = .971). Nested model comparisons (see Table 5-2) suggested that the five-factor measurement model was significantly superior to the other four nested models ($\Delta\chi^2$ (4) = 1441.96, 1089.56, 1864.52, $\Delta\chi^2$ (7) = 3306.14, respectively, all $p < .01$). We then computed the various constructs by taking the average of their corresponding items. Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients (α), and bivariate correlations among all the variables at both the dyadic level and individual level are presented in Table 5-3.

TABLE 5-2

Confirmatory Factor Analyses for Dyadic Constructs

	Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	CFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA(CI90)
I	Five Factor Model	472.50 (195)		.978	.978	.971	.048 [.043, .054]
II	Combined Interpersonal Liking and Interpersonal Inclusion	1914.46 (199)	1441.96 (4)**	.863	.863	.825	.118 [.114, .123]
III	Combined Interpersonal Inclusion and Helping Behavior	1562.06 (199)	1089.56 (4)**	.891	.891	.861	.106 [.101, .111]
IV	Combined Helping Behavior and Social Status	2337.02 (199)	1864.52 (4)**	.829	.829	.782	.132 [.127, .137]
V	Combined Mediators and Outcomes	3778.64 (202)	3306.14 (7)**	.713	.715	.641	.170 [.165, .175]

Note: Models III, IV, and V were compared with Model I. CFI is comparative fit index. IFI is incremental fit index. TLI is Tucker-Lewis coefficient, also known as non-normed fit index (NNFI). RMSEA is root mean square error of approximation

** $p < .01$

TABLE 5-3

Mean, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations

		Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	O's Gender (T1)	3.91%	.19		.09	.13	.16*	.20**	-.03	.06											
2	O's Education (T1)	50.28%	.50	.07		.11	.12	.22**	.11	.04											
3	O's Age (T1)	34.66	9.79	.16**	.15**		.63**	.32**	-.05	.23**											
4	O's Organizational Tenure (T1)	8.04	7.09	.21**	.14**	.61**		.51**	.09	.34**											
5	O's Team Tenure (T1)	3.68	4.87	.26**	.22**	.31**	.51**		-.05	.13											
6	O's Social Complexity (T1)	4.04	.45	-.03	.04	-.04	.06	-.03	(.71)	.01											
7	O's Perceived Organizational Politics(T1)	2.80	.61	.08	.03	.26**	.32**	.12**	.03	(.81)											
8	A's Gender (T1)	3.91%	.19	.13**	.15**	.04	.09*	.12**	.06	.01		.09	.13	.16*	.20**	.09	-.05	.08	.01	.02	.03
9	A's Education (T1)	50.28%	.50	.16**	.26**	.07	.14**	.09*	.03	.06	.10*		.11	.12	.22**	.06	.03	.12	.08	.15*	.06
10	A's Age (T1)	34.66	9.79	.01	.04	.30**	.22**	.08	-.05	.08	.12**	.11**		.63**	.32**	-.11	-.02	-.11	-.25**	.05	.08
11	A's Organizational Tenure (T1)	8.04	7.09	.04	.12**	.23**	.28**	.13**	-.01	.06	.18**	.12**	.61**		.51**	-.02	.00	.00	-.11	.03	.09
12	A's Team Tenure (T1)	3.68	4.87	.13**	.09*	.07	.10*	.14**	-.01	.00	.24**	.21**	.33**	.53**		.17*	-.04	-.01	-.01	-.02	.10
13	A's Machiavellianism (T1)	1.79	.60	.02	-.05	-.06	-.03	.05	-.05	-.01	.08*	.07	-.16**	-.05	.16**	(.79)	.01	.03	.04	-.05	-.01
14	A's Authenticity Perceived by O (T1)	3.73	.33	-.04	-.02	-.06	-.05	-.09*	.09*	-.29**	-.05	-.02	.00	.00	-.07	-.04	(.88)	.18*	.39**	.12	.38**
15	O's Inclusion of A (T2)	3.05	.57	.03	.10*	.13**	.05	.01	.07	-.03	.05	.08	-.08	.00	-.02	.01	.24**	(.94)	.64**	.69**	.35**
16	O's Liking towards A (T2)	3.91	.55	.14**	-.02	.01	.02	-.04	.05	-.04	.01	.08	-.15**	-.05	-.02	.01	.39**	.56**	(.97)	.50**	.56**
17	O's Helping Behavior to A (T2)	3.13	.52	.06	.13**	.13**	.07	.03	.13**	.03	.02	.10*	.01	.02	-.01	-.03	.19**	.65**	.47**	(.94)	.26**
18	A's Status Rated by O (T3)	3.85	.56	.13**	.00	.00	.06	-.02	.09*	-.20**	.02	.06	.08	.11*	.03	-.09	.39**	.26**	.42**	.22**	(.96)

Note: N_{dyad} = 543-615, $N_{individual}$ = 167-195. Along the diagonal, reliability coefficients (alpha) are given in parentheses; Coefficients above the diagonal are at individual level; Coefficients below the diagonal are at dyadic level.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As in Chapter 4, we tested the proposed hypotheses in different models based on their level of analysis. The dyadic level and cross-level hypotheses, i.e., Hypotheses 1a-b, 2a-b, 3a-b, 4a-b, 5a-b, 6a-b, 7a-b, 8a-$b_{1\text{-}2}$, and 9a-$b_{1\text{-}2}$, were first tested by using social relations model. The individual level hypotheses, i.e., Hypotheses 1c-d, 4c-d, 8c-$d_{1\text{-}2}$, and 9c-$d_{1\text{-}2}$, were then tested by employing mixed model analysis.

Dyadic Level and Cross-level Hypotheses Test

Social relations models were employed to analyze the effect of perceived authenticity on social acceptance from the interactive perspective. Before testing the hypotheses, we first calculated null models to partition the variance of O's liking toward A, O's inclusion of A, O's helping behavior to A, and A's status rated by O into observer, actor, dyadic and team variance. The results are shown in Table 5-4. As demonstrated in the table, 40.8% of total variance in O's liking toward A, 54.6% of total variance in O's inclusion of A, 48.5% of total variance in O's helping behavior to A, and 28.8% of total variance in A's status rated by O were located at the dyadic level. The results suggested that the specifics of the relationship between coworker O and coworker A have a strong influence on O's liking toward, inclusion of, helping behavior to, and rated status of A, justifying our further analyses. The results of social relations model analyses for O's liking toward A (see Table 5-5) revealed a significant main effect of A's Authenticity Perceived by O on O's liking toward A (B = .38, SE = .03, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1a.

TABLE 5-4

Variance Partitioning for O's Liking towards A, O's Inclusion of A, O's Helping Behavior to A, and A's Status Rated by O

Source of Variance	O's Liking towards A		O's Inclusion of A		O's Helping Behavior to A		A's Status Rated by O	
	B (%)	SE	B (%)	SE	B (%)	SE	B (%)	SE
Team Variance	.028 (4.1)	.037	.000 (0.0)	.000	.044 (5.7)	.038	.054 (8.1)	.042
Observer Variance	.344 (50.1)	.058	.379 (43.7)	.059	.351 (45.4)	.063	.386 (57.9)	.060
Actor Variance	.035 (5.1)	.022	.015 (1.7)	.029	.003 (0.4)	.023	.035 (5.3)	.016
Dyadic Variance	.280 (40.8)	.029	.474 (54.6)	.046	.375 (48.5)	.037	.192 (28.8)	.020
Deviance	1149.51		1346.83		1248.99		959.84	

Note: N = 167-195 individuals in 488-542 dyads within 47 teams; B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

TABLE 5-5

Social Relations Model Analyses for O's Liking towards A

Steps and Variables	O's Liking towards A							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
O's Gender	.60*	.29	.59*	.27	.59*	.27	.60*	.26
O's Education	-.03	.11	-.04	.10	-.05	.10	-.09	.10
O's Age	-.02	.07	.01	.06	.00	.06	.02	.06
O's Organizational Tenure	.05	.08	.05	.07	.04	.07	.05	.07
O's Team Tenure	-.07	.06	-.04	.06	-.04	.06	-.05	.06
A's Gender	-.07	.17	.00	.14	-.01	.14	-.01	.14
A's Education	.01	.07	.01	.06	.01	.06	.01	.06
A's Age	-.14**	.04	-.16**	.04	-.15**	.04	-.14**	.04
A's Organizational Tenure	.06	.05	.04	.04	.03	.04	.03	.04
A's Team Tenure	.01	.04	.01	.03	.01	.03	.02	.03
Independent Variables								
A's Authenticity Perceived by O (AAPO)			.37**	.03	.38**	.03	.38**	.03
Moderators								
O's Perceived Organizational Politics (OPOP)					.07	.05	.10	.05

O's Belief of Social Complexity (OBSC)	.00	.05	.00	.05
A's Machiavellianism (AM)	.02	.03	.03	.03
2 Way Interactions				
AAPOXOPOP	-.05	.03	-.07*	.04
AAPOXOBSC	-.02	.03	-.01	.04
AAPOXAM	-.01	.03	-.02	.03
OBSCXOPOP			-.10*	.04
AMXOPOP			-.02	.03
AMXOBSC			-.01	.03
3 Way Interactions				
AAPOXOPOPXAM			.06*	.02
AAPOXOBSCXAM			-.01	.03
AAPOXOBSCXOPOP			.00	.03
$\Delta\chi^2$	15.8	109.2**	4.9	12.4

Note: N = 542 dyads. AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OPOP = O's Perceived Organizational Politics, OBSC = O's Belief of Social Complexity, AM = A' Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

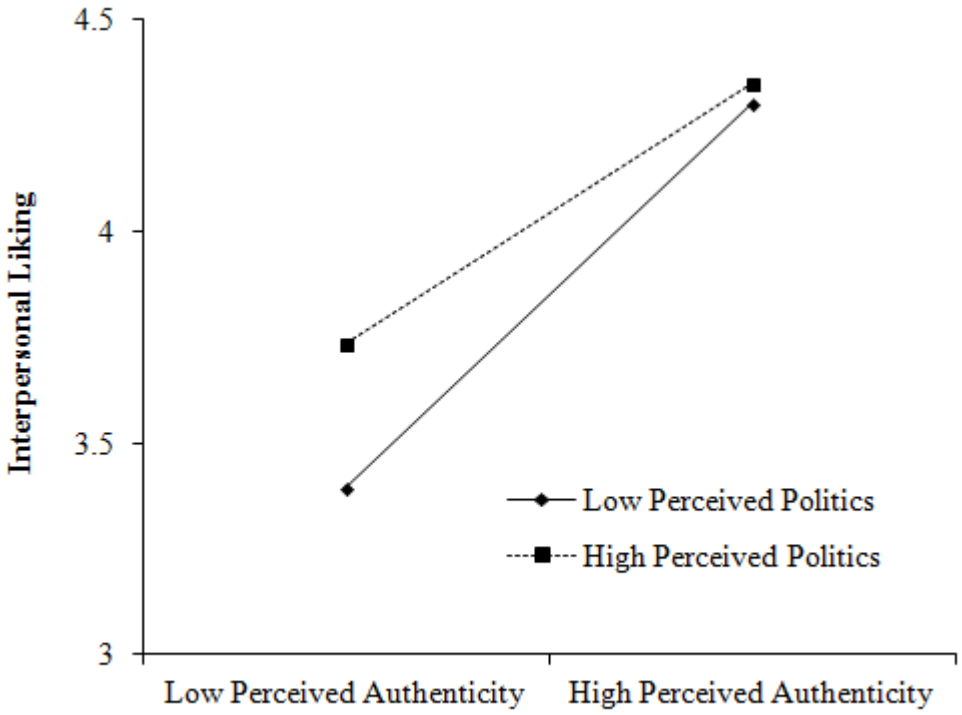


FIGURE 5-3

Interaction Pattern of O's Perceived Organizational Politics and A's Authenticity Perceived by O on O's Liking towards A

Furthermore, the results demonstrated a significant cross-level moderating effect of O's perceived organizational politics on the aforementioned effect (B = -.07, SE = .04, $p < .05$). The interaction pattern was plotted in Figure 5-3. A's authenticity perceived by O had a stronger effect on O's liking toward A when O's perceived organizational politics was low than when it was high (low: B = .45, $t = 9.50$, $p < .01$; high: B = .31, $t = 6.19$, $p < .01$). The results support Hypothesis 3a. However, the cross-level moderating effects of A's Machiavellianism and O's belief of social complexity on the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's liking toward A were not significant (A's Machiavellianism: B = -.02, SE = .03, *ns;* O's belief of social

complexity: B = -.01, SE = .04, *ns*), suggesting that Hypotheses 2a and 4a were not supported.

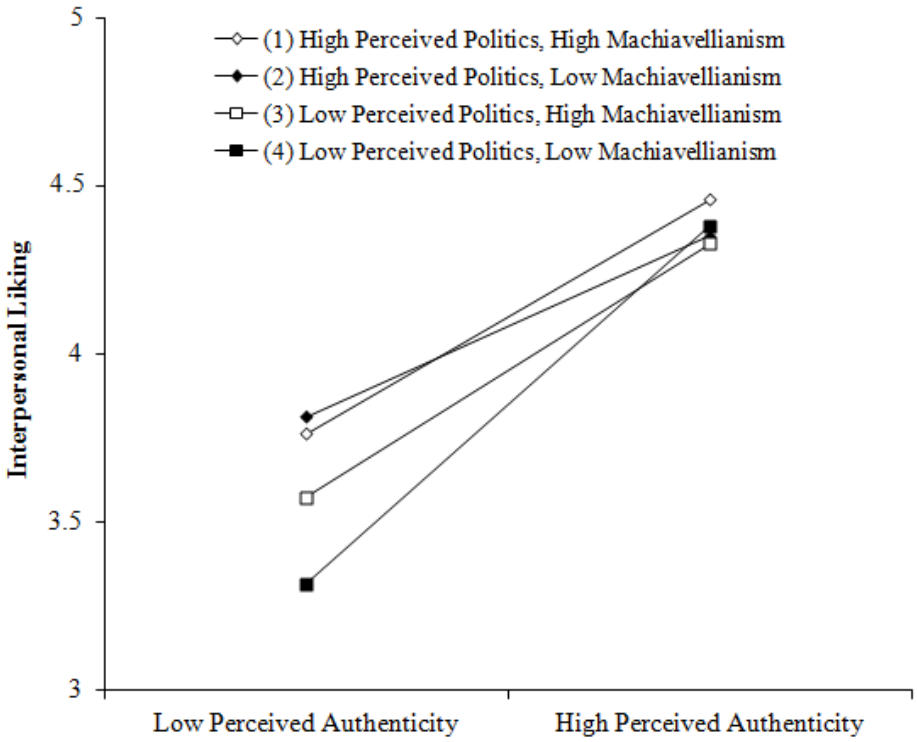


FIGURE 5-4

Interaction Pattern of O's Perceived Organizational Politics, A's Machiavellianism and A's Authenticity Perceived by O on O's Liking towards A

The three-way interactive effects of O's perceived organizational politics, A's Machiavellianism, and A's authenticity perceived by O on O's liking toward A were significant (B = .06, SE = .02, $p < .05$). We plotted the three-way interaction in Figure 5-4. Simple slope tests were employed to compare the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's liking toward A under different conditions. Simple slopes were tested by following the procedure suggested by Dawson and Richter (2006). The results demonstrated that the relationship reaches its strongest when O's perceived organizational politics and A's Machiavellianism were both low,

whereas the relationships were not significantly different among other conditions (Comparisons: (1) and (2): t = 1.11, *ns*; (1) and (3): t = -0.38, *ns*; (1) and (4): t = -2.01, $p < .05$; (2) and (3): t = -1.16, *ns;* (2) and (4): t= -2.79, $p < .01$; (3) and (4): t = -1.92, *ns*). This result is different from our prediction in H6a. However, the interactive effects of O's belief of social complexity with A's Machiavellianism and O's perceived organizational politics on the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's liking toward A were not significant (with A's Machiavellianism: B = -.01, SE = .03, *ns;* with O's perceived organizational politics: B = .00, SE = .03, *ns*), suggesting that Hypotheses 5a and 7a were not supported.

Following a similar procedure, social relations models were employed to test Hypotheses 1b, 2b, 3b, 4b, 5b, 6b, and 7b. The results (see Table 5-6) demonstrated a significant main effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on O's inclusion of A (B = .31, SE = .04, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1b. The interaction between O's perceived organizational politics and A's authenticity perceived by O also had a significant effect on O's inclusion of A (B = -.11, SE = .04, $p < .05$). The interaction pattern was plotted in Figure 5-5. As predicted in Hypothesis 3b, A's authenticity perceived by O had a stronger effect on O's inclusion of A when O's perceived organizational politics was low than when it is high (low: B = .42, $t = 6.85$, $p < .01$; high: B = .21, $t = 3.25$, $p < .01$). However, Inconsistent with our predictions in Hypotheses 4b and 2b, the cross-level moderating effects of A's Machiavellianism (B = .03, SE = .04, *ns*) and O's belief of social complexity (B = -.01, SE = .05, *ns*) on the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's inclusion of A were not significant. The three-way interactive effects among all three moderators, on the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's inclusion of A were not significant. These results suggest that Hypotheses 5b, 6b, and 7b were not supported.

TABLE 5-6

Social Relations Model Analyses for O's Inclusion of A

Steps and Variables	O's Inclusion of A							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
O's Gender	-.02	.30	-.01	.30	.02	.30	.01	.30
O's Education	.17	.12	.15	.11	.11	.12	.10	.12
O's Age	.14	.07	.17*	.07	.16*	.07	.17*	.07
O's Organizational Tenure	-.04	.08	-.04	.08	-.03	.08	-.02	.08
O's Team Tenure	-.04	.07	-.01	.07	-.01	.07	-.01	.07
A's Gender	.29	.19	.35	.18	.34	.19	.35	.19
A's Education	.12	.08	.13	.08	.13	.08	.13	.08
A's Age	-.12*	.05	-.13**	.05	-.13*	.05	-.12*	.05
A's Organizational Tenure	.05	.05	.03	.05	.02	.05	.01	.05
A's Team Tenure	-.03	.05	-.02	.04	-.01	.05	.00	.05
Independent Variables								
A's Authenticity Perceived by O (AAPO)			.31**	.04	.32**	.04	.31**	.04
Moderators								
O's Perceived Organizational Politics (OPOP)					.04	.06	.05	.06

O's Beliefs of Social Complexity (OBSC)	.03	.05	.04	.05
A' Machiavellianism (AM)	.01	.04	.02	.04
2 Way Interactions				
AAPOXOPOP	-.08*	.04	-.11*	.04
AAPOXOBSC	-.01	.04	-.01	.05
AAPOXAM	.05	.04	.03	.04
OBSCXOPOP			-.01	.05
AMXOPOP			-.03	.04
AMXOBSC			-.04	.04
3 Way Interactions				
AAPOXOPOPXAM			.06	.03
AAPOXOBSCXAM			.01	.04
AAPOXOBSCXOPOP			.01	.04
$\Delta\chi^2$	16.2	49.7**	6.0	4.8

Note: N = 542 dyads. AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OPOP = O's Perceived Organizational Politics, OBSC = O's Belief of Social Complexity, AM = A' Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

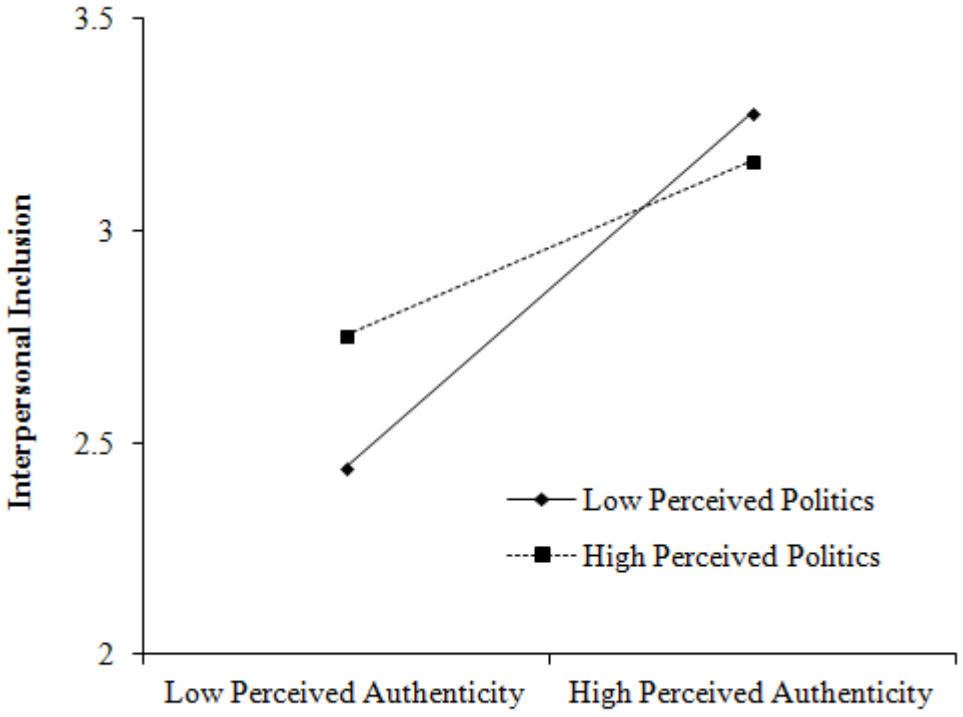


FIGURE 5-5

Interaction Pattern of O's Perceived Organizational Politics and A's Authenticity Perceived by O on O's Inclusion of A

To further test Hypotheses 8a-b_1 and 9a-b_1, we used social relations models to test the effects of interpersonal liking and interpersonal inclusion on helping behavior. The results (see Table 5-7) demonstrated that O's helping behavior to A significantly regressed on A's authenticity perceived by O (B = .21, SE = .04, $p < .01$) before O's liking toward A and O's inclusion of A were added in the model. In M4, O's liking toward A and O's inclusion of A were added and significantly regressed on O's helping behavior to A (liking: B = .23, SE = .04, $p < .01$; inclusion: B = .41, SE = .04, $p < .01$). Meanwhile, the effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on O's helping behavior to A significantly decreased from in M3 to in M4, suggesting an indirect relationship between them through O's liking toward A and O's inclusion of A.

TABLE 5-7

Social Relations Model Analyses for O's Helping Behavior to A

Steps and Variables	O's Helping Behavior to A							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
O's Gender	.16	.30	.14	.30	.19	.30	.02	.24
O's Education	.24*	.12	.22	.11	.20	.12	.17	.09
O's Age	.13	.07	.15*	.07	.15*	.07	.08	.06
O's Organizational Tenure	-.02	.08	-.02	.08	-.05	.08	-.05	.06
O's Team Tenure	-.04	.07	-.02	.07	-.01	.07	.01	.05
A's Gender	-.04	.17	.00	.17	-.02	.17	-.17	.13
A's Education	.08	.07	.09	.07	.09	.07	.04	.06
A's Age	-.06	.05	-.07	.05	-.05	.05	.04	.04
A's Organizational Tenure	.04	.05	.02	.05	.01	.05	.00	.04
A's Team Tenure	-.03	.04	-.02	.04	-.01	.04	-.02	.03
Independent Variables								
A's Authenticity Perceived by O (AAPO)			.21**	.04	.21**	.04	-.03	.04
Moderators								
O's Perceived Organizational Politics (OPOP)					.08	.06	.03	.05

O's Beliefs of Social Complexity (OBSC)					.10	.05	.08	.04
A' Machiavellianism (AM)					.02	.04	.00	.03
Interactions								
AAPOXOPOP					-.06	.04	.00	.03
AAPOXOBSC					.00	.04	.01	.03
AAPOXAM					-.01	.04	-.02	.03
OBSCXOPOP					.01	.05	.05	.04
AMXOPOP					-.01	.03	.01	.03
AMXOBSC					.04	.03	.06*	.03
AAPOXOPOPXAM					.05	.03	.01	.02
AAPOXOBSCXAM					.00	.04	-.01	.03
AAPOXOBSCXOPOP					-.03	.04	-.03	.03
Mediators								
O's Liking towards A							.23**	.04
O's inclusion of A							.41**	.04
	$\Delta\chi^2$	12.6		27.1**		11.6		259.4**

Note: N = 542 dyads. AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OPOP = O's Perceived Organizational Politics, OBSC = O's Belief of Social Complexity, AM = A' Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 5-8

Bootstrapping Results for Test of Indirect Effects

Indirect Relationship	Conditions		Indirect Effect	CI (95%)	
				Lower	Upper
AAPO → OLTA → OHTA	OPOP	-1 SD	.103	.064	.148
		Mean	.086	.055	.122
		+1 SD	.070	.040	.106
	-1 SD AM	-1 SD OPOP	.121	.073	.176
		+1 SD OPOP	.061	.029	.100
	+1 SD AM	-1 SD OPOP	.085	.049	.129
		+1 SD OPOP	.079	.044	.120
AAPO → OIFA → OHTA	OPOP	-1 SD	.173	.119	.233
		Mean	.129	.089	.173
		+1 SD	.085	.034	.140
AAPO → OLTA → ORSA	OPOP	-1 SD	.117	.076	.163
		Mean	.098	.065	.135
		+1 SD	.079	.047	.118
	-1 SD AM	-1 SD OPOP	.137	.086	.194
		+1 SD OPOP	.069	.033	.112
	+1 SD AM	-1 SD OPOP	.097	.058	.143
		+1 SD OPOP	.090	.053	.134

Note: AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OLTA = O's Liking towards A; OIFA = O's inclusion of A; OHTA = O's Helping behavior to A; ASRO = A's Status Rated by O; OPOP = O's Perceived Organizational Politics, AM = A' Machiavellianism. Bootstrapping is conducted on the basis of the Monte Carlo method with 20,000 repetitions.

To specifically test the indirect effect and conditional indirect effects, Monte Carlo bootstrapping approach was employed using the estimates from the results of the abovementioned social relations models (Selig & Preacher 2008). Table 5-8 presents the results of the bootstrapping tests. As shown in the table, the indirect effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on O's helping behavior to A both through O's liking toward A and through O's inclusion of A were significant under all conditions. The findings supported Hypotheses $8a_1$ and $8b_1$. The indirect effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on O's helping behavior to A through O's liking toward A reached its largest when A's Machiavellianism and O's perceived organizational politics were both low (B = .121, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.073, .176]). By contrast, that through O's inclusion of A reached its largest when O's perceived organizational politics was low (B = .173, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.119, .233]). The findings suggested that Hypotheses $9a_1$ and $9b_1$ were partially supported.

To test Hypotheses 8a-b_2 and 9a-b_2, social relations models were employed to test the effects of interpersonal liking and interpersonal inclusion on social influence. As shown in Table 5-9, the results demonstrated that A's status rated by O significantly regressed on A's authenticity perceived by O (B = .19, SE = .03, $p < .01$) in M3. In M4, after adding O's liking toward A and O's inclusion of A, O's liking toward A were significantly regressed on A's status rated by O (B = .26, SE = .04, $p < .01$), whereas the effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on A's status rated by O largely decreased (M3: B = .18, SE = .03; M4: B = .09, SE = .03). These results suggest significant indirect effects between A's authenticity perceived by O and A's status rated by O through O's liking toward A.

TABLE 5-9

Social Relations Model Analyses for A's Status Rated by O

Steps and Variables	A's Status Rated by O							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
O's Gender	.67*	.31	.66*	.29	.68*	.29	.50	.26
O's Education	.01	.12	.00	.11	.00	.11	.04	.10
O's Age	-.09	.07	-.07	.07	-.05	.07	-.07	.06
O's Organizational Tenure	.04	.08	.05	.08	.09	.08	.10	.07
O's Team Tenure	-.06	.07	-.05	.07	-.06	.07	-.07	.06
A's Gender	-.13	.17	-.08	.16	-.08	.16	-.11	.15
A's Education	-.02	.07	.00	.06	.00	.06	.02	.06
A's Age	.02	.04	.03	.04	.04	.04	.08	.04
A's Organizational Tenure	.05	.05	.03	.04	.03	.04	.03	.04
A's Team Tenure	.03	.04	.02	.04	.01	.04	.00	.03
Independent Variables								
A's Authenticity Perceived by O (AAPO)			.19**	.03	.18**	.03	.09**	.03
Moderators								
O's Perceived Organizational Politics (OPOP)					-.16**	.06	-.18**	.05

O's Beliefs of Social Complexity (ABSC)					.04	.05	.03	.05
A' Machiavellianism (AM)					.01	.03	-.01	.03
Interactions								
AAPOXOPOP					.03	.03	.04	.03
AAPOXABSC					.02	.03	.01	.03
AAPOXAM					-.02	.03	.00	.03
ABSCXOPOP					-.03	.05	.00	.05
AMXOPOP					-.06*	.03	-.05*	.03
AMXABSC					.00	.03	-.01	.03
AAPOXOPOPXAM					.01	.02	-.01	.02
AAPOXABSCXAM					.02	.03	.01	.03
AAPOXABSCXOPOP					-.02	.03	-.01	.03
Mediators								
O's Liking towards A							.26**	.04
O's Inclusion of A							.01	.04
	$\Delta\chi^2$	12.4		35.2**		17.7		57.8**

Note: N = 488 dyads. AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OPOP = O's Perceived Organizational Politics, OBSC = O's Belief of Social Complexity, AM = A' Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Monte Carlo bootstrapping approach was employed to assess the significance of indirect effect and conditional indirect effects using the estimates from the results of the abovementioned social relations models. As shown in Table 5-8, the indirect effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on A's status rated by O through O's liking toward A was significant under all conditions. These results suggest that Hypothesis $8a_2$ was supported. The indirect effect reached its largest when O's perceived organizational politics and A's Machiavellianism were both low (B = .137, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.086, .194]). The finding suggested that Hypothesis $9a_2$ was partially supported. However, we did not test the indirect effect as the effect of O's inclusion of A on A's status rated by O was not significant (B = .01, SE = .04, *ns*, see Table 5-9), suggesting that Hypotheses $8b_2$ and $9b_2$ were not supported.

Individual Level Hypotheses Test

Mixed model analyses were employed to test individual-level hypotheses, Hypotheses 1c-d and 4c-d. We first aggregated all teammates' perceived authenticity of, liking toward, inclusion of, helping behaviors to, and rated status of a focal team member to *perceived authenticity*, *socio-metric liking*, *social inclusion*, *received help*, and *social status* of the focal member. Then, we regressed socio-metric liking and social inclusion on perceived authenticity, Machiavellianism, and the interaction between perceived authenticity and Machiavellianism. The results are presented in Table 5-10. As shown in the table, the main effect of perceived authenticity on socio-metric liking and social inclusion were both significantly positive (socio-metric liking: B = .21, SE = .04, $p < .01$; social inclusion: B = .12, SE = .04, $p < .05$), supporting Hypotheses 1c and 1d. The results revealed that the interaction between perceived authenticity and Machiavellianism was significantly associated with socio-metric liking (B = -.10, SE = .04, $p < .05$), which is consistent with Hypothesis 4c. However,

this pattern was not found with social inclusion (B = -.02, SE = .05, *ns*), suggesting that Hypothesis 4d was not supported.

TABLE 5-10

Mixed Model Analyses for Socio-metric Liking and Social Inclusion

Variables	Socio-metric Liking				Social Inclusion			
	M1		M2		M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
Gender	-.03	.17	-.06	.17	.24	.21	.24	.21
Education	.06	.07	.04	.07	.14	.09	.14	.09
Age	-.14**	.05	-.14**	.04	-.10	.05	-.10	.05
Organizational Tenure	.00	.05	.01	.05	.04	.06	.04	.06
Team Tenure	.02	.04	.01	.04	-.03	.05	-.04	.05
Independent Variables								
PA	.21**	.04	.21**	.04	.12*	.05	.12*	.05
MA			.01	.04			.00	.05
Interaction Term								
PAXMA			-.10*	.04			-.02	.05
-2 Log Likelihood	194.1		188.5		248.2		248.0	

Note: N = 160. PA = Perceived Authenticity, MA = Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

The interaction pattern was plotted in Figure 5-6. As predicted in Hypothesis 4c, perceived authenticity was significantly associated with socio-metric liking when Machiavellianism is low, but not significantly associated when Machiavellianism is high (low Mach: B = .31, t = 5.12, $p < .01$; high Mach: B = .11, t = 1.83, *ns*).

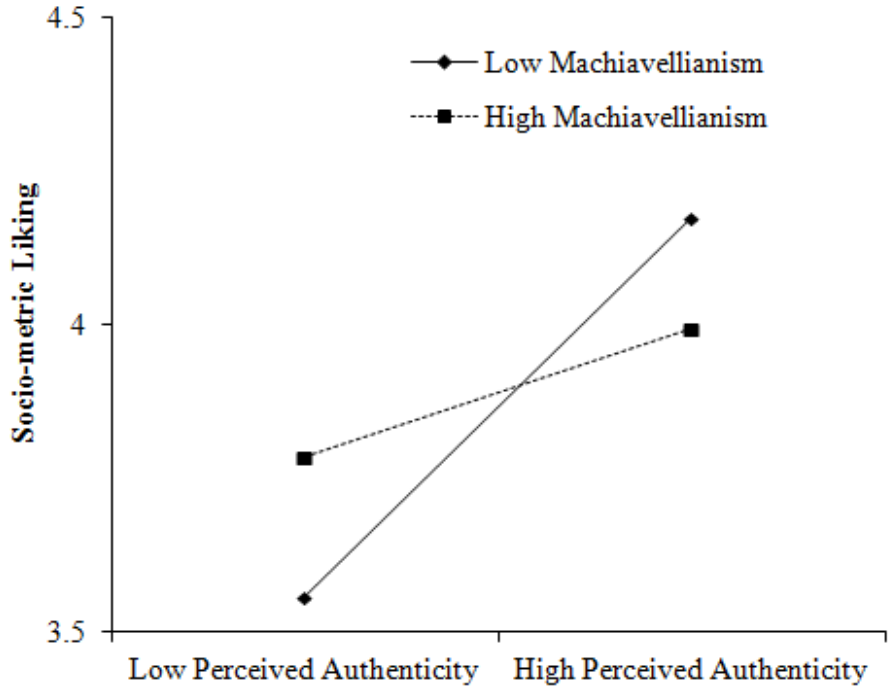


FIGURE 5-6

Interaction Pattern of Perceived Authenticity and Machiavellianism on Socio-metric Liking

Mixed model analyses were used to test the effects of socio-metric liking and social inclusion on received help and social status. The results (see Table 5-11) demonstrated that socio-metric liking (B =.13, SE = .04, $p < .01$) and social inclusion (B = .26, SE = .03, $p < .01$) were both significantly regressed on received help. However, only socio-metric liking (B = .27, SE = .05, $p < .01$) was significantly regressed on social status. In addition, the results showed that the effects of perceived authenticity on received help and social status became weaker when socio-metric liking and social inclusion were added in the model, suggesting significant indirect effects of perceived authenticity on received help and social status.

TABLE 5-11

Mixed Model Analyses for Received Help and Social Status

Variables	Received Help				Social Status			
	M1		M2		M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
Gender	.00	.18	-.09	.13	-.17	.16	-.09	.14
Education	.08	.08	.01	.06	.01	.07	.01	.06
Age	-.03	.05	.06	.03	.06	.04	.12**	.04
Organizational Tenure	.02	.05	.00	.04	-.01	.05	-.01	.04
Team Tenure	-.04	.04	-.03	.03	.03	.04	.02	.04
Independent Variables								
PA	.07	.04	-.04	.03	.21**	.04	.12**	.04
MA	-.01	.04	-.02	.03	.04	.04	.03	.03
PAXMA	.02	.05	.05	.03	-.08**	.04	-.04	.04
Mediators								
Socio-metric Liking			.13**	.04			.27**	.05
Social Inclusion			.26**	.03			-.04	.04
-2 Log Likelihood	204.0		97.5		186.3		147.8	

Note: N = 160. PA = Perceived Authenticity, MA = Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

To specifically test the indirect effects, *i.e.*, to test hypotheses 8c-$d_{1\text{-}2}$ and 9c-$d_{1\text{-}2}$, we further employed Monte Carlo bootstrapping approach to assess the significance of the indirect effect and conditional indirect effects using the estimates from the results of mixed model analyses. Table 5-12 presents the results of the bootstrapping tests. As shown in the table, perceived authenticity significantly related to both received help (effect size = .026, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.009, .047]) and social status (effect size = .056, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.030, .131]) indirectly through socio-metric liking. These results support Hypotheses $8c_1$ and $8c_2$. Meanwhile, perceived authenticity had a significant

effect on received help (effect size = .032, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.007, .059]) indirectly through social inclusion, supporting Hypothesis $8d_1$. However, non-significant result was found regarding social status (effect size = -.004, *ns*, 95% CI = [-.016, .005]), suggesting that Hypothesis $8d_2$ was not supported.

TABLE 5-12

Bootstrapping Results for Test of Indirect Effects

Indirect Relationship	Machiavellianism	Effect Size	CI (95%)	
			Lower	Upper
	-1 SD	.039	.013	.071
PA → SL → RH	Mean	.026	.009	.047
	+1 SD	.013	-.001	.032
PA → SI → RH		.032	.007	.059
	-1 SD	.084	.045	.131
PA → SL → SS	Mean	.056	.030	.086
	+1 SD	.028	-.003	.063
PA → SI → SS		-.004	-.016	.005

Note: PA = Perceived Authenticity, SL = Socio-metric Liking, SI = Social Inclusion, RH = Received Help, SS = Social Status. Bootstrapping is conducted based on the Monte Carlo method with 20,000 repetitions.

Consistent with our predictions, the indirect effects of perceived authenticity on received help and social status through socio-metric liking were significant only when Machiavellianism is low (received help: effect size = .039, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.013, .071]; social status: size = .084, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.045, .131]), but not when it is high (received help: effect size = .013, *ns*, 95% CI = [-.001, .032]; social status: size = .028, *ns*, 95% CI = [-.003, .063]). As such, Hypotheses $9c_1$ and $9c_2$ were supported. However, the moderating effect of Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived authenticity and social inclusion was not significant, indicating that the moderated mediations were not significant (Hypotheses $9d_1$ and $9d_2$ were not

supported). Therefore, the associated conditional indirect effects were not specifically tested.

Discussion

One objective of the study is to validate the findings in Study 1. First, to validate the measure of perceived authenticity, we compared different measurement models and found that the measure exhibited a four-factor structure, as was revealed in the sample of Study 1. This finding is consistent with our conceptualization. Meanwhile, the eight-item measurement model demonstrated a better fit than the sixteen-item measurement model, suggesting that the eight items are representative of their associated components. Therefore, we recommended using the eight-item measure of perceived authenticity in future studies both for simplicity and accuracy.

Second, by using a longitudinal design and a large sample, we replicated the findings of Study 1. On the one hand, as in Study 1, the results of the study demonstrated that perceived authenticity was positively related both to interpersonal liking at the dyadic level and to socio-metric liking by the whole team. On the other hand, the relationship between perceived authenticity and interpersonal liking are moderated by perceived organizational politics of the observer such that the relationship is stronger when the observer perceived the team as low in organizational politics. The replication provided strong evidence for the validity of the findings.

Except for replicating certain findings of Study 1, this study demonstrated an inconsistent finding with that of Study 1. That is, the actor's Machiavellian personality can moderate the effect of perceived authenticity on socio-metric liking in Study 2, but not in Study 1. The sample used in Study 1 to test the moderating effect is small (N =26), which lessens the statistical power of the test. By contrast, the present study employed a larger sample to test the moderating effect (N =160), suggesting that the

results in Study 2 had more statistical power. Moreover, we measured perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking one month apart, avoiding the contamination of common method biases. Therefore, comparing the inconsistent results on the moderating effect in Study 1 with those in Study 2, the finding of Study 2 is more reliable. However, to validate such a finding, further replication is needed in future study (Study 3).

Another objective of the study is to examine the effects of perceived authenticity on social resources the focal employee obtained from coworkers. Help and status are the two most salient work-related social resources flowing within a work team (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In this study, we examined these two types of resources. To understand such a relationship, we suggested that social acceptance is a key intermediating mechanism. In this study, we used interpersonal liking and inclusion as the indicators of social acceptance. As hypothesized, perceived authenticity is positively related to interpersonal liking and inclusion. Moreover, interpersonal liking was positively associated with helping behavior and status, whereas interpersonal inclusion was positively related to helping behavior, but not social status. The tests of indirect effects demonstrated that perceived authenticity can increase helping behavior indirectly through interpersonal liking and inclusion and also enhance social status indirectly through interpersonal liking. The results at the dyadic level were the same with those at the individual level. Overall, the findings suggested that perceived authenticity can increase the focal employee's received helping behavior and social status in the work team as a result of being included and liked.

The study also explored the boundary conditions of the aforementioned effects. In this study, we examined all the moderating effects of the boundary conditions

proposed in our theory, that is, observers' belief of social complexity, perceived organizational politics, actor's Machiavellian personality, and the interactions between each two of the three factors. The results of individual-level analyses from the actor's perspective demonstrated that a focal employee's Machiavellian personality can moderate the relationship between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking in the work team. This moderation is such that the relationship was stronger when the focal employee's Machiavellian personality was low than when it was high. Furthermore, the moderating effect can influence the indirect relationships between perceived authenticity and social resources, i.e., received help and social status, such that the indirect relationships was stronger when the focal employee's Machiavellian personality was lower. However, the moderating effect of the focal employee's Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived authenticity and dyadic acceptance were not significant. This result suggests that the mechanisms underlying dyadic response and group response toward the authentic behaviors of a high Mach are different.

As seen in the results, perceived organizational politics of the observers moderated the relationship between perceived authenticity and interpersonal liking and inclusion such that the relationship is stronger when the observer's perceived organizational politics was low than when it was high. In addition, the moderating effect appeared in the indirect relationship between perceived authenticity and helping behaviors through interpersonal liking and inclusion. Such an effect also appeared in the indirect relationship between perceived authenticity and social status via interpersonal liking, such that indirect relationships were stronger when the observer's perceived organizational politics was low. Furthermore, the moderating effects can be influenced by the actor's Machiavellian personality such that the aforementioned relationships

reach their strongest when both the observer's perceived organizational politics and the actor's Machiavellian personality were low.

We did not find significant results in testing the moderating effects of the observer's belief of social complexity and its interaction with the two other factors. However, it is still premature to conclude that the observer's social complexity has no effect on the relationship between perceived authenticity and social acceptance. The sample we used in the study was from the teachers in primary schools and kindergartens. Students in primary schools and kindergartens are young and under discipline, making the work context relatively simple such that social complexity does not heavily influence the context. As such, to eliminate an alternative explanation, further study using another sample (Study 3) is needed.

CHAPTER 6

STUDY 3

In Study 2, we examined the effects of authenticity on social acceptance and, in turn, on the obtained work-related social resources from teammates. The objective of the current study is two-fold. The first objective is to replicate the findings in Study 2. The second is to explore whether social acceptance from teammates because of authenticity can influence a team leader's distribution of work-related resources.

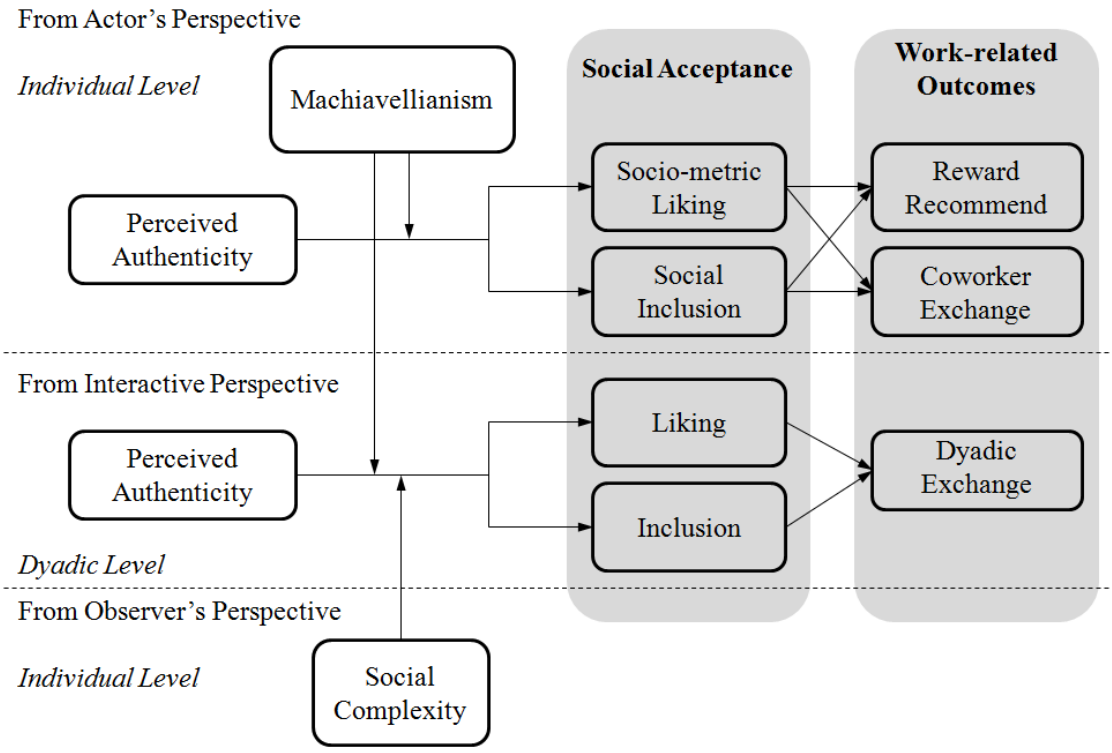


FIGURE 6-1

Research Model of Study 3

In this study, we use coworker exchange to comprehensively indicate the work-related social resources exchanged with coworkers. Reward recommendations were

employed to indicate the work-related resources distributed by supervisors. We did not examine the moderating effects of perceived organizational politics in this study because the findings were replicated in Study 1 and 2. Our research model of Study 3 is shown in Figure 6-1.

Hypotheses

We test the hypotheses mentioned below, which were argued in the last two chapters:

Hypothesis 1a-b: Observer perceived actor's authenticity is positively related to the observer's liking toward the actor (H1a) and to the observer's inclusion of the actor (H1b).

Hypothesis 1c-d: Team members' perceived authenticity is positively related to the team's socio-metric liking to them (H1c) and to the team's social inclusion of them (H1d).

Hypothesis 2: Observer's social complexity moderates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking toward the actor (H2a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H2b) such that the relationships are less positive when observer's social complexity is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 4a-b: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking toward the actor (H3a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H3b) such that the relationships are less positive when actor's Machiavellianism is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 4c-d: Team members' Machiavellianism moderates the relationships between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking (H4c) and between perceived authenticity and social inclusion (H4d) such that the relationships are less positive when the team member's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 5: Observer's social complexity moderates the effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationships between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's liking toward the actor (H5a) and between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and the observer's inclusion of the actor (H5b) such that the relationships are least positive when the observer's social complexity is low and the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

In addition to the aforementioned hypotheses, we argue that liking and inclusion can enhance the focal employee's coworker exchange and increase his/her received reward recommendations from the supervisor such that the employee's authenticity can positively influence coworker exchange and reward recommendations through liking and inclusion. Interpersonal liking in the workplace is often manifested as providing social support and resources. However, social resources in the workplace often do not flow in just one direction, but are reciprocally given and taken in the form of social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, interpersonal liking encourages the coworker (*the observer*) to provide social support to the focal employee (*the actor*). This relationship flourishes the exchange between them. A similar argument also applies to interpersonal inclusion. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 8a-b$_3$: Observer's liking toward and inclusion of actor positively relates to the observer's exchange with the actor such that the observer's liking toward (H8a$_3$) and inclusion of (H8b$_3$) the actor mediates the relationship between the observer perceived actor's authenticity and observer's exchange with the actor.

Hypothesis 9a-b$_3$: Actor's Machiavellianism and observer's social complexity moderate the indirect effect of the observer perceived actor's authenticity on observer's exchange with the actor through the observer's liking toward (H9a$_3$) and inclusion of (H9b$_3$) the actor such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high and the observer's social complexity is high.

Socio-metric liking implies the focal employee's popularity (Cillessen & Rose, 2005). Popular workers in a work team often have more chances to connect to coworkers. Thus, they are likely to be in a central position of the team network to exchange with many coworkers (Scott et al., 2009). Meanwhile, supervisors need to recognize "good employees" to gear toward the effective functioning of the work team. They often make reward recommendations for such subordinates (Allen & Rush, 1998). Socio-metrically liked employees are more likely to be recognized for two reasons. On the one hand, employees are often rewarded not only for their task performance, but also for their social relationships (Sims, Gioia, & Longnecker, 1987). Socio-metrically liked employees exhibited good interpersonal relationships among the work team. Thus, they are likely to be recognized. On the other hand, socio-metrically liked employees tend to be in the central position of social network of the team such that supervisors can obtain more useful information about ongoing projects and feedback from them. Therefore, they are likely to be recognized. A similar

argument also applies to social inclusion. Accordingly, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8c: Socio-metric liking positively relates to coworker exchange and reward recommendations such that socio-metric liking mediates the relationships between perceived authenticity and coworker exchange (H8c$_3$) and between perceived authenticity and reward recommendations (H8c$_4$).

Hypothesis 8d: Social inclusion positively relates to coworker exchange and reward recommendations such that social inclusion mediates the relationships between perceived authenticity and coworker exchange (H8d$_3$) and between perceived authenticity and reward recommendations (H8d$_4$).

Hypothesis 9c: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the indirect effects of the actor's perceived authenticity on coworker exchange (H9c$_3$) and reward recommendations (H9c$_4$) through socio-metric liking such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Hypothesis 9d: Actor's Machiavellianism moderates the indirect effects of the actor's perceived authenticity on coworker exchange (H9d$_3$) and reward recommendations (H9d$_4$) via social inclusion such that the indirect effects are less pronounced when the actor's Machiavellianism is high.

Procedure

We recruited participants by communicating with team leaders from different companies in Hong Kong. The companies are in various industries, such as in finance, insurance, and real estate. To encourage their participation, a coupon valued at HKD 150 was promised to be provided to each participant after the survey. After communication, we distributed the questionnaires in 45 work teams (151 employees, 3 to 5 members in each team), including the administrative team and sales team. We

collected the data in two waves with one month apart. The questionnaires were distributed by the team leaders. Team leaders were required to distribute the questionnaires in a quiet room with all the participants and to ensure that the questionnaires can be completed independently. The leaders were asked to fill their own questionnaires after distributing the questionnaires to team members. The respondents were instructed to seal their completed questionnaires in the envelopes provided. These envelopes were then either collected by our research assistants or mailed directly back to the research team within a week after distributing the questionnaires. In the first wave, all the participants were asked to report their beliefs of social complexity and their personality of Machiavellianism and to rate the designated teammates' perceived authenticity. In the second wave, they were asked to report their interpersonal liking and interpersonal inclusion to each designated teammate. They also reported their exchange quality with each of the teammates. Meanwhile, team leaders were asked to rate the reward recommendations for each designated team member. The designated team members are those who participated in the study.

Among all the distributed 151 questionnaires, 150 were collected in the first wave (response rate: 99.3%), and 146 (response rate: 96.7%) were collected in the second wave. Among the 146 sets of questionnaires, 143 were usable, yielding the usable rate of 97.9%. The 143 employees generated 343 dyads. Among the final sample, 64% were male, 50% had bachelor degree or above, and 52.9% were above 35 years old. The mean organizational tenure and team tenure were 85.0 and 65.7 months, respectively, at the time of the first wave.

Measures

Perceived Authenticity. Employees' perceived authenticity were assessed with the eight-item measure validated in Study 2 ($\alpha = .84$). Confirmatory factor analysis was also employed to evaluate the construct validity. We compared the four-factor measurement model (Model 1 in Table 6-1, the same as Model 1 in Study 2) to a two-factor model, Model 3, in which the items of self-awareness and unbiased processing were loaded on one factor, whereas the items of self-determined behaving and relational transparency were loaded on the other factor, and to one factor model, Model 4, in which all the items were loaded on one factor. The results of comparisons of nested models (see Table 6-1) demonstrated that the 4-factor model is superior to the other two models ($\Delta\chi^2$ (5) = 202.94, $p < .01$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ (6) = 278.38, $p < .01$). The four-factor structure fit well with the data using both the first order model and second order model. In the study, perceived authenticity was analyzed both at the dyadic level and individual level. To estimate a focal employee's perceived authenticity, we aggregated all coworkers' observations toward the focal employee to capture his/her authenticity in the work team. Inter-rater agreement support the aggregation decision (97.2% $r_{wg(j)} > .70$, Mean = .94; ICC (1) = .08; ICC (2) = .18).

Social Complexity. The measure was the same as that used in Study 2. Respondents reported their social belief on a five-point Likert-type scale from *strongly disbelieve* to *strongly believe*. Reliability is .62.

Machiavellianism. The measure was the same as that used in the previous two studies. Respondents evaluated the suitability of the four statements to describe themselves on a five-point Likert-type scale from *very much unsuitable* to *very much suitable*. Reliability is .81.

TABLE 6-1

Confirmatory Factor Analyses on the Measure of Perceive Authenticity

	Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	CFI	IFI	NNFI	RMSEA(CI90)
1	First-Order Measurement Model	23.17 (14)		.992	.992	.983	.044 [.000, .074]
2	Second-Order Measurement Model	36.50 (16)		.981	.981	.967	.061 [.035, .088]
3	Two-Factor Model	226.11 (19)	202.94 (5)**	.809	.811	.719	.179 [.158, .200]
4	One-Factor Model	301.55 (20)	278.38 (6)**	.741	.742	.637	.203 [.183, .223]

Note: Models 3 and 4 were compared with Model 1. CFI is comparative fit index. IFI is incremental fit index. TLI is Tucker-Lewis coefficient, also known as non-normed fit index (NNFI). RMSEA is root mean square error of approximation

** $p < .01$

Interpersonal Liking. The measure was the same as that used in the previous two studies. Reliability is .93. It was analyzed both at the dyadic and individual levels. As in previous studies, socio-metric liking was calculated by averaging all coworkers' ratings on the focal employee. Interrater agreement suggested that the ratings of socio-metric liking to the same members (ICC (1) = .16; ICC (2) = .32; F (143, 195) = 1.46, $p < .01$) were consistent among different raters. A total of 89.9% of the focal members have the $r_{wg(j)}$ values greater than .70 (Mean = .86).

Interpersonal Inclusion. The measure was the same as that used in Study 2. Reliability is .86. In this study, interpersonal inclusion was analyzed both at the dyadic and individual levels. Similar with the operation in Study 2, we calculated a focal member's *social inclusion*, i.e., inclusion by all other teammates, by averaging all other members' ratings on the focal member.

Coworker Exchange. Like Sherony and Green (2002), we measured coworker exchange quality by adapting the LMX-7 measure developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). The item "How well does your leader recognize your potential?" was dropped because it does not fit the context of coworker relations. The remaining six items ($\alpha = .87$) were rephrased to assess the quality of coworker-coworker exchange. The measure *per se* was in the dyadic context. In the current study, the quality of coworker exchange was analyzed both at the dyadic level and individual level. Similar to the operation of evaluating *social inclusion*, we calculated a focal employee's coworker exchange, i.e., the quality of exchange between the focal employee and other teammates, by averaging all coworkers' ratings on the focal employee regardless of the inter-rater agreement. Coworker exchange represents the overall exchange between the focal member and all other teammates.

Reward Recommendations. Reward recommendations were assessed by using the five-items (α = .83) developed by Allen and Rush (1998). Team leaders were asked to rate the extent to which they would recommend the designated subordinates for five kinds of rewards (salary increase, promotion, high-profile project, public recognition, and opportunities for professional development) when opportunities arise. They reported on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from *definitely not recommend* to *definitely recommend*.

Control Variables. Employees were asked to report their gender (1 = male; 0 = female), age, educational level, organizational tenure, and team tenure.

Analytic Strategy

The analytic strategy used in this study was similar with those used in the previous studies. We first considered the level of analyses for our proposed hypotheses. Hypotheses 1a-b and 5a-b were proposed and must be tested at the dyadic level. Hypotheses 1c-d and 4c-d were proposed and must be tested at an individual level. Meanwhile, Hypotheses 2a-b and 4a-b were cross-level hypotheses and must be tested using cross-level analyses. Using MLwiN1.1, social relations models were employed to test dyadic level and cross-level hypotheses, Hypotheses 1a-b, 2a-b, 4a-b, and 5a-b.

To test Hypotheses 1c-d and 4c-d, we used mixed model analyses in SPSS 19.0 because of the nested structure of the data. The team variances of socio-metric liking ($F(42, 98) = 3.32$, $p < .01$; ICC (1) = .42; ICC (2) = .70), social inclusion ($F(42, 98) = 3.96$, $p < .01$; ICC (1) = .48; ICC (2) = .75), and coworker exchange ($F(43, 98) = 2.38$, $p < .01$; ICC (1) = .30; ICC (2) = .58) were significant.

Hypotheses 8a-$d_{3\text{-}4}$ and 9a-$d_{3\text{-}4}$ constituted moderated mediation models and were tested at their associated analytic level, following the Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007)'s procedure by using the Monte Carlo bootstrapping tests for indirect effects.

Results

Before testing the hypotheses, confirmatory factor analysis was employed to assess the construct validity of the substantive dyadic constructs. By following item parceling approach (Williams, & Anderson, 1994), we parceled items as indicators for the constructs that were measured with more than five items. Specifically, we parceled each two items of one dimension of perceived authenticity into one indicator, whereas each two items of coworker exchange were randomly chosen to parcel into one indicator. The results showed that the four-factor structure demonstrated a good fit (χ^2 (71) = 192.08, RMSEA = .071, CFI = .960, IFI = .960, TLI = .940). In the four-factor measurement model (Model 1 in Table 6-2), we loaded all the indicators on the associated factors. The model were compared with three three-factor models: Model 2, in which the indicators of interpersonal liking and inclusion were loaded on one factor; Model 3, in which the indicators of perceived authenticity and interpersonal liking were loaded on one factor; and Model 4, in which the indicators of interpersonal inclusion and coworker exchange were loaded on one factor. The measurement model was also compared with a two-factor model: Model 5, in which the indicators of perceived authenticity and interpersonal liking were loaded on one factor whereas the indicators of interpersonal inclusion and coworker exchange on another. Nested model comparisons (see Table 6-2) suggested that the measurement model was significantly superior to the other four models ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 305.14, 264.91, 197.40, $\Delta\chi^2$ (5) = 460.24, respectively, all $p < .01$). We then computed the various constructs. Means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients (α), and bivariate correlations among all the variables at both the dyadic level and individual level are presented in Table 6-3.

TABLE 6-2

Confirmatory Factor Analyses for Dyadic Constructs

	Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df)$	CFI	IFI	NNFI	RMSEA(CI90)
1	Four-Factor Measurement Model	192.08 (71)		.960	.960	.940	.071 [.059, .083]
2	Combined Interpersonal Liking and Inclusion	497.22 (74)	305.14 (3)**	.859	.860	.800	.129 [.119, .140]
3	Combined Interpersonal Liking and Authenticity	456.99 (74)	264.91 (3)**	.872	.873	.819	.123 [.112, .134]
4	Combined Coworker Exchange and Inclusion	389.48 (74)	197.40 (3)**	.895	.896	.851	.112 [.101, .123]
5	Two-Factor Model	652.32 (76)	460.24 (5)**	.808	.810	.734	.149 [.138, .160]

Note: Models 2, 3, 4 and 5 were compared with Model 1. CFI is comparative fit index. IFI is incremental fit index. TLI is Tucker-Lewis coefficient, also known as non-normed fit index (NNFI). RMSEA is root mean square error of approximation

** $p < .01$

TABLE 6-3

Mean, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations

		Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	O's Gender	64.3%	0.48		-.24**	-.05	.04	.10	-.02											
2	O's Education	50.0%	0.50	-.22**		.17*	-.14	-.12	.16											
3	O's Age	52.9%	0.50	-.03	.20**		-.54**	-.38**	.09											
4	O's Organizational Tenure	84.95	81.06	.01	-.17**	-.57**		.80**	.06											
5	O's Team Tenure	61.71	69.69	.10	-.15**	-.42**	.80**		-.04											
6	O's Social Complexity	4.02	0.39	-.03	.12*	.07	.06	-.03	(.62)											
7	A's Gender	64.3%	0.48	.28**	-.05	-.10	.08	.06	-.05		-.24**	-.05	.04	.10	-.37**	.02	.09	.11	.07	.02
8	A's Education	50.0%	0.50	-.04	.30**	.08	-.05	-.06	.11*	-.25**		.17*	-.14	-.12	.23**	.10	-.06	-.03	-.10	.03
9	A's Age	52.9%	0.50	-.10	.09	.25**	-.28**	-.27**	-.06	-.03	.20**		-.54**	-.38**	.20*	.02	.16	.18*	.16	.03
10	A's Organizational Tenure	84.95	81.06	.09	-.03	-.30**	.35**	.36**	.05	.01	-.16**	-.55**		.80**	-.23**	-.06	-.05	-.18*	-.02	-.05
11	A's Team Tenure	61.71	69.69	.06	-.05	-.32**	.37**	.38**	.01	.09	-.14*	-.39**	.79**		-.25**	-.19*	-.12	-.14	-.07	-.15
12	A's Machiavellianism	2.03	0.69	-.09	.18**	.22**	-.23**	-.24**	-.06	-.34**	.25**	.18**	-.18**	-.24**	(.81)	.08	.07	.09	.13	-.01
13	O Perceived A's Authenticity	3.53	0.52	.00	-.06	.19**	-.16**	-.22**	.06	.00	.06	.03	-.05	-.14*	.09	(.84)	.46**	.27**	.39**	.27**
14	O's Liking towards A	3.54	0.74	.05	.00	.14**	-.12*	-.09	.02	.07	-.04	.13*	-.06	-.11*	.10	.45**	(.93)	.59**	.67**	.28**
15	O's Inclusion to A	2.65	0.83	.03	.08	.07	-.14*	-.17**	.04	.07	-.01	.14*	-.14*	-.11*	.08	.31**	.60**	(.86)	.58**	.13

16	O's Exchange with A	3.02	0.71	-.09	.02	.16**	-.15**	-.13*	.05	.06	-.06	.12*	-.04	-.06	.12*	.40**	.66**	.61**	(.87)	.25**
17	A's Reward Recommendations	3.63	0.64	-.06	-.04	.15**	-.06	-.10	-.02	.03	.00	.04	-.08	-.16**	-.04	.17**	.18**	.06	.15**	(.83)

Note: N_{dyad} = 337-343, $N_{individual}$ = 140-143. Along the diagonal, reliability coefficients (alpha) are given in parentheses; Coefficients above the diagonal are at individual level; Coefficients below the diagonal are at dyadic level.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

As in the previous studies, we first used social relations model to test the dyadic level and cross-level hypotheses, Hypotheses 1a-b, 2a-b, 4a-b, 5a-b, 8a-b_3, and 9a-b_3, and then test the individual level hypotheses, Hypotheses 1c-d, 4c-d, 8c-$d_{3\text{-}4}$, and 9c-$d_{3\text{-}4}$, by employing mixed model analysis.

Dyadic Level and Cross-level Hypotheses Test

To test Hypotheses 1a, 2a, 4a, and 5a, social relations models were employed. Before testing the hypotheses, we calculated null models to partition the variance of O's liking toward A, O's inclusion of A, and O's exchange with A. As shown in the results (see Table 6-4), 60.0% of total variance in O's liking toward A, 61.0% of total variance in O's inclusion of A, and 64.5% of total variance in O's exchange with A were located at the dyadic level. The results suggested that the dyadic relationship between coworker O and coworker A has a strong influence on O's liking toward, inclusion of, exchange with A, supporting our further analyses. Then, we tested the hypotheses. The results (see Table 6-5) demonstrated a significant main effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on O's liking toward A (B = .29, SE = .04, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1a. However, the interactive effects of O's social complexity, including both the two-way interaction and three-way interaction, were not significant (O's belief of social complexity: B = -.01, SE = .03, *ns*; O's belief of social complexity and A's Machiavellianism: B = .02, SE = .03, *ns*). Therefore, Hypotheses 2a and 5a were not supported. However, the moderating effect of A's Machiavellianism on the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's liking toward A was significant (B = -.07, SE = .03, $p < .05$). The interaction pattern was plotted in Figure 6-2. As predicted in Hypothesis 4a, the relationship between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's liking toward A is less positive when A's Machiavellianism is high (B = .22, $t = 4.37$, $p < .01$) than when it is low (B = .36, $t = 7.57$, $p < .01$).

TABLE 6-4

Variance Partitioning for O's Liking towards A, O's Inclusion of A, O's Exchange with A

Source of Variance	O's Liking towards A		O's Inclusion of A		O's Exchange with A	
	B (%)	SE	B (%)	SE	B (%)	SE
Team Variance	.073 (13.0)	.042	.052 (7.6)	.046	.004 (0.8)	.028
Observer Variance	.152 (27.0)	.038	.217 (31.5)	.050	.178 (34.7)	.041
Actor Variance	.000 (0.0)	.000	.000 (0.0)	.000	.000 (0.0)	.000
Dyadic Variance	.338 (60.0)	.035	.420 (61.0)	.044	.331 (64.5)	.035
Deviance	696.24		765.51		677.01	

Note: N = 138-140 individuals in 336-339 dyads within 44 teams; B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

TABLE 6-5

Social Relations Model Analyses for O's Liking towards A

Steps and Variables	O's Liking towards A							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
O's Gender	.08	.11	.09	.10	.08	.10	.08	.10
O's Age	.06	.13	.00	.11	.00	.12	.00	.12
O's Education	-.03	.11	.07	.10	.04	.10	.05	.10
O's Organizational Tenure	-.05	.09	-.07	.08	-.07	.09	-.07	.09
O's Team Tenure	.01	.09	.09	.08	.11	.08	.10	.08
A's Gender	.11	.09	.06	.08	.10	.09	.10	.09
A's Age	.10	.09	.14	.09	.11	.08	.12	.08
A's Education	-.08	.09	-.13	.08	-.15	.08	-.16*	.08
A's Organizational Tenure	.15*	.07	.07	.06	.04	.06	.04	.06
A's Team Tenure	-.17*	.07	-.08	.06	-.06	.06	-.06	.06
Independent Variables								
A's Authenticity Perceived by O (AAPO)			.29**	.04	.29**	.04	.29**	.04
O's Belief of Social Complexity (OBSC)					.03	.05	.04	.05
A' Machiavellianism (AM)					.07	.04	.07	.04

2 Way Interactions								
AAPO ×OBSC					-.01	.03	-.01	.03
AAPO ×AM					-.07*	.03	-.07*	.03
AM ×OBSC							.00	.04
3 Way Interaction								
AAPO ×OBSC ×AM							.02	.03
	$\Delta\chi^2$	12.0		51.0**	7.6		8.0	

Note: N = 339 dyads. AAPO = A Perceived A's Authenticity, OBSC = O's Belief of Social Complexity, AM = A' Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

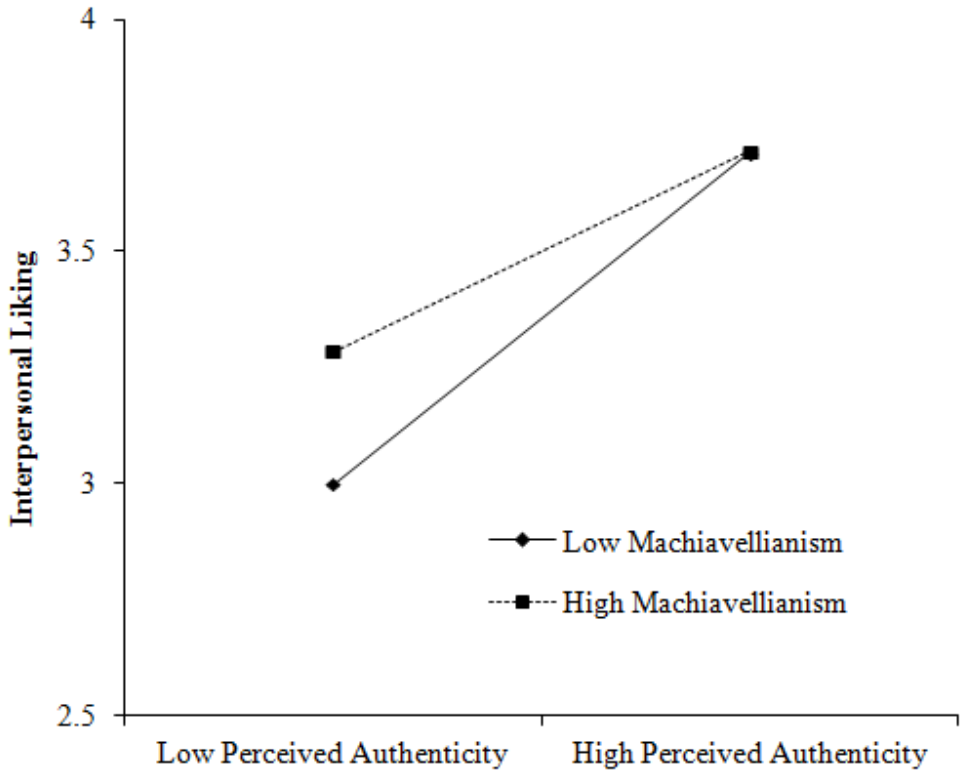


FIGURE 6-2

Interaction Pattern of A's Machiavellianism and A's Authenticity Perceived by O on O's Liking towards A

By following a similar procedure, social relations models were employed to test Hypotheses 1b, 2b, 4b, and 5b. The results (see Table 6-6) revealed that A's authenticity perceived by O was significantly related to O's inclusion of A (B = .21, SE = .04, $p < .01$). The results support Hypothesis 1b. However, the interactive effects, including both two-way and three-way interactions, were not significant (O's belief of social complexity: B = -.03, SE = .04, *ns*; A's Machiavellianism: B = -.03, SE = .04, *ns*; O's belief of social complexity and A's Machiavellianism: B = -.02, SE = .03, *ns*). As such, Hypotheses 2b, 4b, and 5b were not supported.

TABLE 6-6

Social Relations Model Analyses for O's Inclusion of A

Steps and Variables	O's Inclusion of A							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
O's Gender	.11	.12	.13	.12	.12	.12	.13	.12
O's Age	-.03	.14	-.10	.14	-.11	.14	-.10	.14
O's Education	.15	.12	.22	.12	.20	.12	.21	.12
O's Organizational Tenure	.05	.10	.03	.10	.02	.10	.00	.10
O's Team Tenure	-.16	.10	-.10	.09	-.08	.09	-.06	.09
A's Gender	.07	.10	.04	.10	.06	.10	.07	.10
A's Age	.10	.10	.12	.10	.12	.10	.11	.10
A's Education	-.12	.10	-.16	.09	-.18	.09	-.16	.09
A's Organizational Tenure	.01	.08	-.05	.07	-.06	.08	-.06	.07
A's Team Tenure	-.08	.07	-.03	.07	-.02	.07	-.01	.07
Independent Variables								
A's Authenticity Perceived by O (AAPO)			.21**	.04	.21**	.04	.20**	.04
O's Beliefs of Social Complexity (OBSC)					.06	.06	-.07	.06
A' Machiavellianism (AM)					.04	.05	.05	.05

2 Way Interactions								
AAPO ×OBSC					-.02	.04	-.03	.04
AAPO ×AM					-.03	.04	-.03	.04
AM ×OBSC							.09*	.04
3 Way Interaction								
AAPO ×OBSC ×AM							-.02	.03
	$\Delta\chi^2$	12.3		20.4**		1.9		6.6

Note: N = 339 dyads. AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OBSC = O's Belief of Social Complexity, AM = A's Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

We further employed social relations models to test the effects of interpersonal liking and interpersonal inclusion on coworker exchange. As shown in Table 6-7, the results demonstrated that O's exchange with A significantly regressed on O's perceived A's authenticity (B = .24, SE = .04, $p < .01$) before O's liking toward A and O's inclusion of A were added in the model. In M4, after adding O's liking toward A and O's inclusion of A, O's liking toward A (B = .24, SE = .04, $p < .01$) and O's inclusion of A (B = .29, SE = .04, $p < .01$) significantly regressed on O's exchange with A. The effect of A's authenticity perceived by O on O's exchange with A were largely reduced from in M3 to in M4 (M3: B = .24, SE = .04, $p < .01$; M4: B = .07, SE = .03, $p < .05$). These results suggest significant indirect relationships between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's exchange with A through O's liking toward A and O's inclusion of A.

To test Hypotheses 8a-b_3 and 9a-b_3, Monte Carlo bootstrapping approach was employed to assess the significance of the indirect effect using the estimates from the results of the aforementioned social relations models (M4 in Table 6-6 & Table 6-7). The results (see Table 6-8) suggested that indirect effects between A's authenticity perceived by O and O's exchange with A through O's liking toward A (B =.084, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.056, .116]) and O's inclusion of A (B =.049, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.026, .076]) were both significant, as suggested in Hypotheses $8a_3$ and $8b_3$. The indirect effect through O's liking toward A was smaller when A's Machiavellianism is high (B =.063, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.033, .098]) than when it low (B =.104, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.069, .144]). These results suggest that Hypothesis $9a_3$ was partially supported. However, Hypothesis $9b_3$ was not supported.

TABLE 6-7

Social Relations Model Analyses for O's Exchange with A

Steps and Variables	O's Exchange with A							
	M1		M2		M3		M4	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
O's Gender	-.16	.11	-.14	.10	-.16	.10	-.23**	.07
O's Age	.14	.12	.06	.11	.06	.11	.07	.08
O's Education	-.04	.10	.03	.10	.00	.10	-.09	.07
O's Organizational Tenure	-.06	.09	-.08	.08	-.07	.08	-.05	.06
O's Team Tenure	-.01	.08	.05	.07	.07	.08	.04	.06
A's Gender	.15	.09	.11	.08	.17*	.09	.11	.07
A's Age	.13	.09	.15	.08	.13	.08	.05	.06
A's Education	-.10	.08	-.14	.08	-.17*	.08	-.07	.06
A's Organizational Tenure	.11	.07	.05	.06	.01	.06	.02	.05
A's Team Tenure	-.08	.06	-.02	.06	.01	.06	.03	.05
Independent Variables								
O Perceived B's Authenticity (AAPO)			.24**	.04	.24**	.04	.07*	.03
O's Beliefs of Social Complexity (OBSC)					.06	.05	.03	.04
A' Machiavellianism (AM)					-.01	.03	.00	.03

Interaction Terms								
AAPOXOBSC					.09*	.04	.04	.03
AAPOXAM					-.06*	.03	-.03	.03
AMXOBSC					-.01	.04	-.04	.03
AAPOXOBSCXAM					.04	.03	.04	.02
Mediators								
O's Liking towards A							.29**	.04
O's Inclusion of A							.24**	.04
	$\Delta\chi^2$	16.5		36.6**	11.3		182.2**	

Note: N = 336 dyads. AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OBSC = O's Belief of Social Complexity, AM = A' Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE 6-8

Bootstrapping Results for Test of Indirect Effects

Indirect Relationship	Conditions		Indirect Effect	CI (95%)	
				Lower	Upper
AAPO → OLTA → OEWA	AM	-1 SD	.104	.069	.144
		Mean	.084	.056	.116
		+1 SD	.063	.033	.098
AAPO → OIFA → OEWA			.049	.026	.076

Note: AAPO = A's Authenticity Perceived by O, OLTA = O's Liking towards A; OIFA = O's Inclusion of A; OEWA = O's Exchange with A; AM = A' Machiavellianism. Bootstrapping is conducted on the basis of the Monte Carlo method with 20,000 repetitions.

Individual Level Hypotheses Test

Mixed model analyses were then employed to test Hypotheses 1c-d and 4c-d. We first aggregated coworkers' perceived authenticity of, liking toward, inclusion of, exchange with a focal employee to be *perceived authenticity*, *socio-metric liking*, *social inclusion*, and *coworker exchange* of the employee. Then, we regressed socio-metric liking and social inclusion on perceived authenticity, Machiavellianism, and the interaction between perceived authenticity and Machiavellianism. The results are presented in Table 6-9. As shown in the table, the main effect of perceived authenticity on socio-metric liking and social inclusion were both significant (socio-metric liking: B = .21, SE = .04, $p < .01$; social inclusion: B = .11, SE = .04, $p < .01$), supporting Hypotheses 1c and 1d. In addition, the interaction between perceived authenticity and Machiavellianism had a significant effect on socio-metric liking (B = -.08, SE = .04, $p < .05$), but not on social inclusion (B = -.02, SE = .04, *ns*). Therefore, Hypothesis 4d was not supported. To illustrate the moderating effect of Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking, we plotted the interaction pattern in Figure 6-3. As illustrated in the figure, perceived authenticity has

a stronger effect on socio-metric liking when Machiavellianism is low than when it is high, which is consistent with Hypothesis 4c. Simple slope tests suggested that the positive effect of perceived authenticity on socio-metric liking was significant only when Machiavellianism is low (high: B = .11, t = 1.81, *ns*; low: B = .27, t = 5.32, $p < .01$).

TABLE 6-9

Mixed Model Analyses for Socio-metric Liking and Social Inclusion

Variables	Socio-metric Liking				Social Inclusion			
	M1		M2		M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
Gender	.04	.09	.05	.09	.06	.09	.07	.10
Education	-.15	.09	-.16	.09	-.18*	.09	-.19*	.09
Age	.18	.09	.16	.09	.12	.09	.11	.09
Organizational Tenure	.09	.07	.07	.07	-.04	.07	-.05	.07
Team Tenure	-.09	.07	-.08	.07	-.02	.06	-.02	.06
Independent Variables								
PA	.21**	.04	.19**	.04	.11**	.04	.10*	.04
MA			.04	.04			.01	.04
Interaction Term								
PAXMA			-.08*	.04			-.02	.04
-2 Log Likelihood	175.3		170.8		175.1		174.7	

Note: $N = 138$. PA = Perceived Authenticity, MA = Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

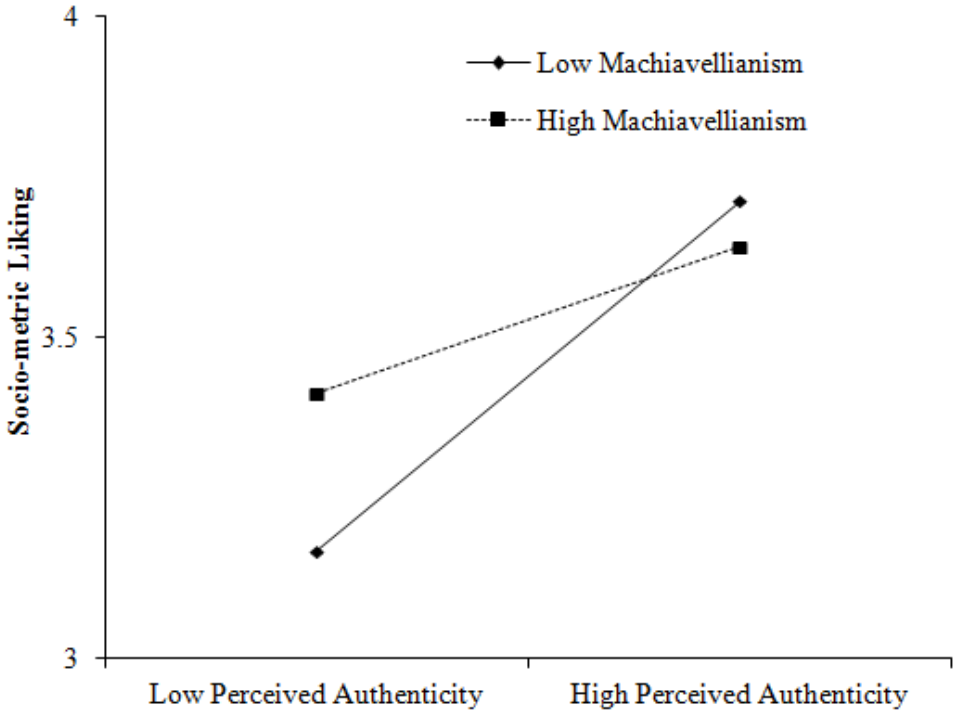


FIGURE 6-3

Interaction Pattern of Perceived Authenticity and Machiavellianism on Socio-metric Liking

We used mixed model analyses to further test the effects of socio-metric liking and social inclusion on coworker exchange and reward recommendations. The results (see Table 6-10) demonstrated that socio-metric liking (B = .23, SE = .04, p < .01) and social inclusion (B = .14, SE = .04, p < .01) were both significantly associated with coworker exchange. However, only socio-metric liking (B = .15, SE = .07, p < .05) was significantly related to reward recommendations. In addition, the results indicated that the effects of perceived authenticity on coworker exchange (before: B = .16, SE = .04, *p* < .01; after: B = .05, SE = .03, *ns*) and reward recommendations (before: B = .15, SE = .05, *p* < .01; after: B = .10, SE = .05, *ns*) decreased from significant to insignificant when socio-metric liking and social inclusion were added in the model.

These results implied significant indirect effects of perceived authenticity on coworker exchange and reward recommendations through socio-metric liking and social inclusion.

TABLE 6-10

Mixed Model Analyses for Coworker Exchange and Reward Recommendations

Variables	Coworker Exchange				Reward Recommendations			
	M1		M2		M1		M2	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Control Variables								
Gender	.12	.09	.05	.07	.05	.12	.04	.12
Education	-.16*	.08	-.08	.06	.05	.11	.10	.11
Age	.19*	.09	.09	.07	-.07	.12	-.11	.11
Organizational Tenure	.07	.07	.06	.06	.04	.09	.02	.09
Team Tenure	-.03	.06	.00	.05	-.11	.08	-.09	.08
Independent Variables								
AU	.16**	.04	.05	.03	.15**	.05	.10	.05
MA	.08	.04	.05	.03	-.07	.05	-.08	.05
AUXMA	-.05	.04	-.01	.03	.03	.05	.05	.05
Mediators								
Socio-metric Liking			.23**	.04			.15*	.07
Social Inclusion			.14**	.04			.01	.07
-2 Log Likelihood	160.8		93.3		235.5		229.1	

Note: *N* = 137-138. PA = Perceived Authenticity, MA = Machiavellianism, B = unstandardized coefficients, SE = standard errors.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

To test Hypotheses 8c-$d_{3\text{-}4}$ and 9c-$d_{3\text{-}4}$, Monte Carlo bootstrapping approach was employed to test the indirect effect and conditional indirect effects using the estimates from the results of mixed model analyses. Table 6-11 presents the results of the tests. As demonstrated in the table, the indirect effects of perceived authenticity on both

coworker exchange (effect size = .045, p < .05, 95% CI = [.022, .072]) and reward recommendations (effect size = .028, p < .05, 95% CI = [.001, .061]) indirectly through socio-metric liking were significant. These results support Hypotheses $8c_3$ and $8c_4$. In addition, perceived authenticity was significantly related to coworker exchange (effect size = .014, p < .05, 95% CI = [.002, .029]), but not to reward recommendations (effect size = .001, ns, 95% CI = [-.014, .017]), indirectly through social inclusion. These results suggest that Hypothesis $8d_3$ was supported but hypothesis $8d_4$ was not supported.

TABLE 6-11

Bootstrapping Results for Test of Indirect Effects

Indirect Relationship	Machiavellianism	Effect Size	CI (95%)	
			Lower	Upper
	-1 SD	.063	.033	.099
PA → SL → CWX	Mean	.045	.022	.072
	+1 SD	.026	-.002	.058
PA → SI → CWX		.014	.002	.029
	-1 SD	.040	.002	.084
PA → SL → RR	Mean	.028	.001	.061
	+1 SD	.017	-.002	.047
PA → SI → RR		.001	-.014	.017

Note: PA = Perceived Authenticity, SL = Socio-metric Liking, SI = Social Inclusion, CWX = Coworker Exchange, RR = Reward Recommendations. Bootstrapping is conducted on the basis of the Monte Carlo method with 20,000 repetitions

As predicted in Hypotheses $9c\text{-}d_{3\text{-}4}$, perceived authenticity had significant indirect effects through socio-metric liking on coworker exchange (low Mach: effect size = .063, *p* < .05, 95% CI = [.033, .099]; high Mach: effect size = .026, *ns*, 95% CI = [-.002, .058]) and reward recommendations (low Mach: effect size = .040, *p* < .05, 95%

CI = [.002, .084]); high Mach: effect size = .017, *ns*, 95% CI = [-.002, .047]) only when Machiavellianism is low, but not when it is high.

Discussion

In this study, we first replicated the findings of previous studies by using a heterogeneous sample. First, the results showed that perceived authenticity can increase social exchange with coworkers by improving the focal employee's social acceptance in the work team both at dyadic and individual levels. The findings were consistent with those in previous studies, implying a high external validity of the findings. Second, in this study, we found that the actor's Machiavellian personality can moderate the relationship between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking such that the relationship is stronger when the actor's Machiavellian personality is low than when it is high. The results were consistent with those in Study 2 but not with those in Study 1. As discussed in Study 2, the results of individual level analyses in Study 1 were lack of statistic power because of the small sample size and common method biases. Therefore, the replication of the results in Study 3 and Study 2 suggested that the moderating effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking is reliable and valid.

In addition to the replications of significant results, Study 3 replicated certain non-significant results. On the one hand, the moderating effects of the observer's social complexity on the relationship between perceived authenticity and social acceptance were not significant in the studies. In the discussion of Study 2, we proposed some alternative explanations for the non-significant results. In the current study, the results were replicated using another sample, implying that alternative explanations are eliminated. Therefore, social complexity may not play such an important role in

changing one's response to authenticity, as was first proposed. However, the influence of the observer's social complexity may appear in some extreme circumstances. For example, in a gangsterdom where people lie to get their way, social complexity may significantly influence the relationship between perceived authenticity and social inclusion. On the other hand, the moderating effect of the actor's Machiavellian personality on the relationship between perceived authenticity and social inclusion were not significant in the studies. However, the moderating effect of the actor's Machiavellian personality on the relationship between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking was significant. The results implied that liking and inclusion represented different aspects of social acceptance, which will be further discussed in the next chapter. However, a result inconsistent with that in Study 2 was found. In Study 2, the moderating effect of the actor's Machiavellianism on the relationship between the observer perceived the actor's authenticity and the observer's liking toward the actor was not significant. However, the effect was significant in Study 3. The inconsistency implies that the external validity of the finding is questionable. As such, further investigations are needed to improve our understanding on the result.

We also explored the effect of perceived authenticity on work-related social resources distributed by the supervisor, i.e., a supervisor's reward recommendations for the focal employee. Considering that reward recommendations was an individual-level variable, the analyses on the effect was at the individual level. As shown in the results, perceived authenticity was positively associated with socio-metric liking. Socio-metric liking was positively related to supervisor's reward recommendations for the focal employee. These results suggested that perceived authenticity can influence a team leader's distribution of social resources by increasing coworkers' liking toward the focal employee. However, the relationship between perceived authenticity and

reward recommendations was not mediated by social inclusion, because social inclusion is not significantly related to reward recommendations. These results suggest that being included by coworkers may not influence the supervisor's distribution of social resources. Moreover, the indirect relationship between perceived authenticity and reward recommendations through socio-metric liking can be moderated by the focal employee's Machiavellian personality. The indirect relationship is significant only when the focal employee is low in Machiavellianism. The theoretical implications of the findings will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7

GENERAL DISCUSSION

To understand the relational implications of authenticity in the workplace, we developed a research model to investigate the extent to which a focal employee's authenticity perceived by coworkers enhances his/her social acceptance in a work team which in turn contributes to his/her work-related interpersonal outcomes. We hypothesized a facilitating effect of a focal employee's authenticity on coworkers' acceptance of him/her, and proposed that such a facilitating effect may be moderated by three factors: coworkers' belief of social complexity, coworkers' perceived organizational politics, and the focal employee's Machiavellian personality. Moreover, we postulated that coworkers' acceptance can be translated into work-related social resources. To test the proposed research model, three empirical studies were employed to examine the hypothesized effects. In the last three chapters, we have described each study in each chapter. In this chapter, we further discuss the findings of our research. Given that the results of the empirical studies are complicated, we first summarize the findings for clarification before further exploring their theoretical implications.

Summary of the Findings

In the three empirical studies, we examined forty-six testable hypotheses unfolded from the nine theoretical hypotheses proposed in Chapter 3. In Study 1, we tested Hypotheses 1a, 3a, 4a, 6a, 1c, and 4c, among which the results supported Hypotheses 1a, 3a, and 1c.

TABLE 7-1

Summary of the Results of Hypotheses Tests

Analytic Level	Proposed Effects			Hypotheses	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3
Dyadic-Level	A's Authenticity Perceived by B → B's Acceptance to A	Moderated by	B's Social Complexity	*H1a*	Supported	Supported	Supported
				H1b		Supported	Supported
				H2a		Not	Not
				H2b		Not	Not
			Organizational Politics Perceived by B	*H3a*	Supported	Supported	
				H3b		Supported	
			A's Machiavellianism	*H4a*	Not	Not	Supported
				H4b		Not	Not
				H5a		Not	Not
				H5b		Not	Not
			3-way Interactions	*H6a*	Not	Supported	
				H6b		Not	
				H7a		Not	
				H7b		Not	
	A's Authenticity Perceived by B → B's Acceptance to A → Interpersonal Outcomes	Indirect to	B's Helping to A	*H8a1*		Supported	
				H8b1		Supported	
			A's Influence on B	*H8a2*		Supported	
				H8b2		Not	
			B's Exchange with A	*H8a3*			Supported
				H8b3			Supported
		Conditional Indirect to	B's Helping to A	*H9a1*		Partially	
				H9b1		Partially	

Individual-Level	Perceived Authenticity → Social Acceptance	Moderated by	A's Influence on B	*H9a2*		Partially	
				H9b2		Not	
			B's Exchange with A	*H9a3*			Partially
				H9b3			Not
			Machiavellianism	*H1c*	Supported	Supported	Supported
				H1d		Supported	Supported
				H4c	Not	Supported	Supported
				H4d		Not	Not
	Perceived Authenticity → Social Acceptance → Work-related Outcomes	Indirect to	Received Help	*H8c1*		Supported	
				H8d1		Supported	
			Social Status	*H8c2*		Supported	
				H8d2		Not	
			Coworker Exchange	*H8c3*			Supported
				H8d3			Supported
			Reward Recommendation	*H8c4*			Supported
				H8d4			Not
		Conditional Indirect to	Received Help	*H9c1*		Partially	
				H9d1		Not	
			Social Status	*H9c2*		Partially	
				H9d2		Not	
			Coworker Exchange	*H9c3*			Partially
				H9d3			Not
			Reward Recommendation	*H9c4*			Partially
				H9d4			Not

Note: "*Supported*" indicates that the hypothesis was supported in the specific study; "*Not*" indicates not supported; "*Partially*" indicates partially supported. Hypotheses with the subscript "*a*" present the effects on or through interpersonal liking; hypotheses with the subscript "*b*" present those on or through interpersonal inclusion; hypotheses with the subscript "*c*" present those on or through socio-metric liking; hypotheses with the subscript "*d*" present those on or through social inclusion.

In Study 2, we tested the Hypotheses 1a-d, 2a-b, 3a-b, 4a-d, 5a-b, 6a-b, 7a-b, 8a1-2, 8b1-2, 8c1-2, 8d1-2, 9a1-2, 9b1-2, 9c1-2, and 9d1-2. The results of Study 2 lent support to Hypotheses 1a-d, 3a-b, 4c, 6a, 8a1-2, 8b1, 8c1-2, 8d1, 9a1-2, 9b1, and 9c1-2. In Study 3, Hypotheses 1a-d, 2a-b, 4a-d, 5a-b, 8a3, 8b3, 8c3-4, 8d3-4, 9a3, 9b3, 9c3-4, and 9d3-4 were tested. Among them, Hypotheses 1a-d, 4a, 4c, 8a3, 8b3, 8c3-4, 8d3, 9a3, and 9c3-4 were supported or partially supported by the results. Table 7-1 shows the summary of the results of hypotheses testing. First, the results consistently supported the hypothesized main effects of perceived authenticity on social acceptance, which was operationalized in terms of interpersonal liking, interpersonal inclusion, socio-metric liking, and social inclusion. Interpersonal liking refers to one person's attachment toward another, demonstrated as enjoying being together and being friends (Nicholson et al., 2001; Hawke, & Heffernan, 2006). Interpersonal inclusion reflects one's bonding with another, often manifested as social behaviors such as showing cares and having talks (Leary et al., 2001). Socio-metric liking represents that a focal member is widely liked by teammates, implying popularity. Social inclusion refers to teammates' inclusionary behaviors toward a focal member, reflecting the willingness of a team to bring the focal member into the team. Overall, the results demonstrated that employees' authenticity can increase coworkers' acceptance toward them.

Second, we hypothesized that the coworker's social complexity moderates the relationship between perceived interpersonal authenticity and interpersonal acceptance, that is, interpersonal liking and interpersonal inclusion. In addition, we hypothesized that the coworker's social complexity can interact with other moderators, i.e., organizational politics of the team and Machiavellianism of the actor, to influence the relationship between perceived interpersonal authenticity and interpersonal acceptance. However, we found no support to any of these effects among all empirical studies.

This finding suggests that coworkers' social complexity have no significant influence in moderating the effect of a focal employee's authenticity on their acceptance.

Third, we proposed that perceived organizational politics moderates the relationship between perceived interpersonal authenticity and interpersonal acceptance. We tested the hypotheses in Study 1 and 2, but not in Study 3. We found the same results in both Studies 1 and 2, supporting the hypothesized moderating effect of perceived organizational politics. Perceived interpersonal authenticity had a stronger effect on interpersonal liking and inclusion when the coworker perceived the work team as low in organizational politics.

Fourth, regarding the moderating effect of employee's Machiavellianism, we found that: 1) the hypothesized moderating effect of Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived authenticity and socio-metric liking were consistently supported; 2) its moderating effect on the relationship between perceived interpersonal authenticity and interpersonal liking was significant in Study 3, but not in Study 1 and 2; and 3) its moderating effects on the relationship between perceived authenticity and interpersonal inclusion and social inclusion were not supported among all the studies.

Fifth, the studies revealed that the indirect effects of perceived authenticity on work-related interpersonal outcomes through interpersonal liking and socio-metric liking were consistently supported. However, those indirect effects through interpersonal inclusion and social inclusion were partially supported. In testing the conditional indirect effects, we found that all the moderators have influences of the same pattern on the associated indirect effects as they were in moderating the relationship between employee's authenticity and coworker's acceptance.

Theoretical Implications

Responding to the objective of the research, that is, to explore relational implications of authenticity in the workplace, the aforementioned findings contributed a meaningful advancement in our understanding on employees' authenticity.

Social Benefits of Employee's Authenticity

By focusing on the relational aspects of authenticity, the study conceptualized authenticity, namely, perceived authenticity, as *employees' behaviors to exhibit awareness and unbiased understanding of one's own motives, values, and propensities, and to frankly express it in actions and in social relationships*. By following Kernis and Goldman (Kernis, 2003; Goldman et al., 2002; Kernis et al., 2006)'s definition, we proposed that authenticity contains four related but distinct components, i.e., self-awareness, unbiased processing, self-determined behaving, and relational transparency. Factor analyses in the empirical studies demonstrated, in the measure of perceived authenticity, four correlated but different factors corresponding to the aforementioned four components. Meanwhile, analyses on the inter-rater agreement of coworkers' ratings to a focal employee demonstrated that the ratings of different raters to the same employee are rather consistent, though varied. The finding conveyed two important theoretical implications. On the one hand, authenticity is observable in the workplace, although scholars often theorized it as a subjective experience (Yalom, 1980; Sheldon et al., 1997). On the other hand, authenticity was previously regarded either as an individual trait or as a variable state (Yagil, & Medler-Liraz, 2013; Roberts, et al., 2009). These results demonstrated that authenticity is relatively consistent within a person and varied among different interpersonal contexts. This finding suggests that both of the assumptions were supported.

Regarding the social consequences of employee's authenticity in the workplace, previous studies assumed that authenticity may be unappreciated in the workplace. This lack of appreciation may occur because employees are socialized and encouraged to perform their work roles in an externally required manner (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Gagné & Deci, 2005; Roberts, 2005). To achieve the desirable perceptions of others, employees often manipulate their ways of self-presentations, such as through self-promotion, opinion conformity (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008), and acting (Grandey, 2003). The manipulative self-presentations indeed pay off. They are often rated better in performance appraisals (Wayne & Liden, 1995), have higher potential to be promoted (Thacker & Wayne, 1995), and are associated with higher customer satisfaction and loyalty (Tsai & Huang, 2002). The consequential rewards lead employees to believe that authentic self-presentation may be unwelcomed in the workplace. This premise also influences the studies on organizational behaviors such that little attention was previously paid to authentic self-presentation. In this study, we test such premise. The findings of the present study demonstrated that the focal employee's authenticity facilitate coworkers' acceptance of him/her. In addition, such acceptance in a work team can be translated into work-related social resources, such as social status, received help, and coworker exchange. The findings suggest that employee's authenticity can be socially beneficial in the workplace. Accordingly, the aforementioned premise has been proven false in the studies.

Coworker's Perception of Employee's Authenticity

Although the findings suggested that authenticity bring social benefits to the focal employee, it can be hasty to put authenticity in a completely positive light because of the spur of positive psychology. After all, authenticity is only a way of self-display behavior. The current research suggested that social meanings projected to employee's

authenticity highly depend on the perception of coworkers. By drawing on behavioral script theory, we proposed that three key factors may shape coworkers' perception. The factors are social complexity of coworkers, Machiavellian personality of the focal employee, and organizational politics of the work team. When testing the influences of the three factors on coworkers' understanding of the focal employee's authentic behaviors, the findings are mixed, providing a rather complicated implication.

First, the results demonstrated that coworkers' social complexity had no significant moderating effect on the relationship between perceived authenticity and coworkers' responses. Thus, contrary to our prediction, coworkers with a high belief of social complexity did not appear to dislike the focal employee perceived to be authentic. However, concluding that coworkers' social complexity has no influence on their perceptions of the focal employee's authenticity may still be too soon. Two possible reasons may cause the non-significant finding. On the one hand, those with a high belief of social complexity tend to have a large range of acceptance of different behaviors as a result of the assumptions of a complicated social world (Bond, et al., 2004). The large range of acceptance may increase their acceptance of authentic behaviors, even though the behavioral strategy is thought to be not optimal in a complicated social world. On the other hand, social complexity implies being open to different possibilities (Bond, et al., 2004; Leung et al., 2007). Even though those with a high belief of social complexity generally consider authenticity to be a bad strategy in a complicated social world, they may not decide that it is non-adaptive in all social situations. They can be open to the possibility that authentic behaviors can be suitable to some situations. Therefore, coworkers' social complexity may have a mixed and complicated influence on their perceptions of the focal employee's authenticity.

Second, we found that the focal employee's Machiavellianism had a significant moderating effect on the relationship between perceived authenticity and liking such that perceived authenticity had a weaker positive effect on liking when the employee is high in Machiavellianism. The findings suggested that the focal employee's Machiavellianism can influence coworkers' understanding of his/her authenticity, which is consistent with our postulation that coworkers may interpret authentic behaviors of the high Machiavellian employee as deceptive tactics. In addition to the expected finding, some differences among the results of the moderating effect between in a dyadic relationship and in a work team were found. First, in a dyadic relationship, perceived interpersonal authenticity still had a significant effect on interpersonal liking even when the focal employee is high in Machiavellianism. However, in the team context, the focal employee's authenticity had no significant effect on socio-metric liking when he/she is high in Machiavellianism. Second, in a dyadic relationship, the moderating effect was only found significant in Study 3, but not in Study 2, whereas the effect is consistent in a team context. Overall, the differences implied that the moderating effects of a focal employee's Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived authenticity and liking is stronger in a team context than in a dyadic context. Two possible reasons may explain these differences. First, Machiavellian tactics may be easier to be detected in a team context because of the different perspectives in the crowd. Second, when seeing an employee of high Machiavellianism behaving authentically, coworkers tend to suffer cognitive dissonance and interpret the behaviors as a deceptive strategy (Stone & Cooper, 2001). Such cognitive dissonance more likely occurs when in a team context because in dyadic context, the coworker may attribute the authentic behaviors to the quality of the *unique* interpersonal relationship.

Third, for team members with low perceived organizational politics, perceived interpersonal authenticity had a stronger positive effect on interpersonal liking and inclusion. This result suggests that the team members who perceive the work team as non-political tend to like and include those perceived high in authenticity. The finding suggested that employee's authenticity may be inappropriate in the work context where organizational politics is pervasive. In a work team with high politics, members of the team tend to expect their teammates to utilize and accept political influence (Witt et al., 2002; Zivnuska et al., 2004). Thus, in such a context, coworkers tend to regard authenticity as a behavioral manifestation of naivety. In addition to the predicted results, the studies revealed an unexpected finding. The team members with high perceived organizational politics tend to consistently have a relatively high level of interpersonal inclusion and liking toward others, no matter whether the others exhibit a high or low level of authenticity. One possible explanation of this finding is that those who perceive the work team as political may consider interpersonal relationships with teammates as a political resource (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewé, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007). Thus, they strive to build up good interpersonal relationships with all teammates. After all, exerting social influence is important in achieving a political goal (Witt et al., 2002). Therefore, they tend to exhibit a relatively high level of liking toward their coworkers.

In addition, we proposed a joint moderating effect of a coworker's perceived organizational politics and the focal employee's Machiavellianism on the relationship between perceived interpersonal authenticity and interpersonal acceptance. The results lent some support to the existence of the moderating effect on the relationship between authenticity and interpersonal liking, but not of the moderating effect on the relationship between authenticity and interpersonal inclusion. Although the

moderating effect on the relationship between perceived interpersonal authenticity and interpersonal liking is significant, the pattern of the moderation is not the same as what we predicted. In the hypothesis, we predicted that the relationship is least pronounced when the coworker's perceived organizational politics is high and the focal employee's Machiavellianism is low. However, the results demonstrated that the strength of the relationship was not different between when the focal employee's Machiavellianism is high and when it is low under the condition when the coworker's perceived organizational politics is high. The relationship is most pronounced when both the coworker's perceived organizational politics and the employee's Machiavellianism is low. The finding suggested that coworkers tend to project the strongest positive light on the focal employee's authenticity when the coworker perceives the work team as non-political and the employee's Machiavellianism is low. We believe that the reason why the effect is different from the prediction is the same as that of the unexpected finding mentioned in the previous paragraph. Coworkers with high perceived organizational politics endeavor to build up a good interpersonal relationship with all coworkers. Therefore, under the condition when coworker perceives the work team as political, the coworker's liking toward the focal employee tends to be relatively high regardless of whether the employee is high or low in Machiavellianism. By contrast, when the coworker perceives the work team as non-political, he/she is more likely to like those who are low in Machiavellianism and behave authentically.

Differences between Liking and Inclusion

In this research, we employed liking and inclusion as the indicators of social acceptance. In theoretical arguments, we simply divided social acceptance into dyadic acceptance and group acceptance. Liking and inclusion were considered to be

equivalent because our propositions focused on social acceptance implied in both liking and inclusion. However, the results consistently demonstrated that liking and inclusion are different in terms of their antecedents and outcomes. These differences suggest that the two represent different social processes. In this section, we discuss the two social processes separately.

Interpersonal inclusion demonstrates one's social bonding with another, often reflected in social behaviors, such as showing cares and having talks (Leary et al., 2001). Interpersonal inclusion reflects an individual's willingness to build a relationship with another. Meanwhile, social inclusion reflects the willingness of a team to bring a focal member into the team from the margin to the center. This willingness is manifested by the transition of membership. However, social inclusion of a member into a team must be exhibited in the interpersonal behaviors of the teammates. Thus, in operationalization, we aggregated teammates' interpersonal inclusionary behaviors toward a focal member to calculate social inclusion of the member. By considering work-related outcomes of inclusion, we found that coworkers' inclusion of a focal employee can increase coworkers' helping behavior and social exchange toward the employee. However, such inclusion has no significant effect on social status and reward recommendations from the supervisor. Helping behavior and coworker exchange reflect the exchange processes among the in-group members (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Those who are admitted as an in-group member of the team tend to be included in the loop of exchange processes. By contrast, social status and reward recommendations are often given to those who are considered to be important to the team. Therefore, inclusion indicates a person's in-group membership to the team but not his/her social standing.

Comparatively, interpersonal liking refers to a person's attachment to another. The attachment is reflected not only in emotional connection, such as enjoying being together, but also in behavioral tendencies, such as being a friend (Nicholson et al., 2001; Hawke, & Heffernan, 2006). In addition, socio-metric liking suggests that a focal member is widely liked by his/her teammates, implying popularity within the team (Cillessen, & Rose, 2005). Thus, in empirical studies, we operationalize socio-metric liking by aggregating the teammates' interpersonal liking toward the focal member. By considering work-related outcomes of liking, the findings demonstrated that coworkers' liking toward a focal employee can increase helping behavior from and social exchange with the coworkers, the employee's social status in the team, and even reward recommendations from the supervisor. Helping behavior and coworker exchange reflect the exchange processes among the in-group members (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Status and reward recommendations reflect social standing within the work team. Therefore, liking suggests both the person's in-group membership and social standing in the team.

Limitations

Despite the sophisticated design of the three empirical studies, the present research still has several limitations. First, to assess social inclusion of the focal employee in a work team, we aggregated teammates' interpersonal inclusion of the focal member. However, although a team's inclusion is demonstrated in team members' interpersonal behaviors, interpersonal inclusion is an interpersonal behavior, which does not necessarily reflect the team's willingness of social inclusion (Leary et al., 2001). Moreover, inter-rater analyses of interpersonal inclusion suggest that no apparent agreement occurs for different coworkers' interpersonal inclusion to a focal member (Study 2: $F (198, 396) = 1.03$, $p > .05$; Study 3: $F (143, 195) = 0.96$, $p > .05$), lending

some support to the conjecture. Thus, we suggest that to precisely capture a work team's social inclusion of a focal employee, other instruments must be developed and employed to measure the variable.

Second, the research aimed to explore the relational implications of authenticity by examining the facilitating effect of perceived authenticity on social acceptance. However, the familiarity between teammates can have a strong influence on their perceptions and social acceptance (Scott & Judge, 2009). In the studies, we did not consider that variable. The effects of familiarity on perceived authenticity and on social acceptance can be investigated in future studies.

Third, although the average team tenure of the three samples are not short (Study 1: 10.2 months; Study 2: 3.68 years; Study 3: 65.7 months), a few of the participants reported that they are newcomers to the team. They did not know the teammates well enough to evaluate their authenticity. To deal with the issue, we deleted those data in our analyses. However, newcomers may bring some change to interpersonal interactions among a work team. Research attention must be paid to the influence of newcomers in a work team.

Future Studies

The present study provided a profound implication on the influence of authenticity among interpersonal relationships in the workplace. Thus, this study significantly contributed to the literature regarding this topic. However, extensive areas of research on authenticity remain in need of investigation. In this section, we highlight possible directions for future studies that will serve to improve our understanding.

First, to understand social influences of authenticity, the present study focused on employees' authenticity perceived by their coworkers. Perceived authenticity emphasizes on employees' behaviors that coworkers perceive to be authentic.

However, people may learn to consider certain behaviors authentic. To be specific, in this study, coworkers may be socialized to consider certain behaviors as self-awareness, unbiased processing, self-determined behaving, and relational transparency despite the authentic experience of the focal employee. Thus, one research question is to what extent employees' authenticity perceived by coworkers is consistent with the employees' psychological experience of authenticity. This experience may be labeled *subjective authenticity*. Perceived authenticity is conceptualized to capture the observable behavioral manifestation of authenticity. By contrast, subjective authenticity is used to represent employees' subjective experience of authenticity. Such experience may be biased because of social desirability, especially for the employees with a low level of self-awareness and unbiased processing. The two perspectives of authenticity are quite different. This similar differentiation can also be applied to authentic leadership. A similar research question is whether the leadership can still be effective when leader is considered to be authentic by followers but experiences inauthenticity, or vice versa. These issues await to be addressed.

Second, by focusing on the effect of employees' authenticity on coworkers' acceptance in the workplace, this study took a relational perspective and mainly emphasized on exploring how coworkers react to a focal employee's authentic behaviors. By taking the perspective of the coworkers, the present research focused on the observers' perception of authenticity. The substantial function of authenticity in facilitating the communication of a work team has largely been ignored, although alluded to in some of the theoretical arguments. Authenticity suggests conveying clear information in communication and implies trusting, which can help build up an honest communication among a work team. In future studies, we can pay much more attention to the social function of authenticity in communication among a work team.

For example, employees' authenticity in a work team may be able to improve the team's cohesion because authenticity implies self-disclosure and thus increase their liking toward each other. In addition, authenticity may contribute in constructing an open sharing knowledge system of the work team, thereby facilitating the innovation capability of the team.

Third, in the present study, we examined employees' authenticity among coworkers and analyzed its influences on interpersonal relationship in the context of a work team. Aside from a team context, many different social contexts exist in the workplace. Future studies can investigate employees' authenticity embedded in other organizational contexts, such as in the leader-follower context and in the employee-customer context. One of the research questions can be whether leader/customer likes a follower/employee when perceiving the follower/employee to be authentic. In this study, we argued that employees' authenticity is appreciated by their teammates because authenticity is considered a desirable quality in a work team context. However, the same interpretation can be invalid in a leader-follower context as leaders may appreciate the submissiveness of the follower and in an employee-customer context as customers may value the service provided. Future studies may be conducted to address the issue.

In addition to the three aforementioned research directions, our understanding in the topic can be further advanced in other directions. For example, we can extend the scope of our research beyond a social perspective, such as examining the motivational implication of authenticity and exploring the factors that facilitates an employee to be authentic. Moreover, the present study opens a new possibility for future studies by examining the observable manifestations of authenticity.

Conclusion

In conclusion, our findings suggest that a focal employee's authenticity makes him/her welcomed by coworkers such that he/she can obtain additional social resources. In addition, this positive effect of authenticity is weaker when coworkers perceive the work context as political, and/or when the focal employee is a Machiavellian person.

APPENDIX

Measure of Perceived Authenticity

1. clearly decides what is personally important and what is not
2. *knows clearly about his/her motives and personal values*
3. *knows clearly why he/she does the things he/she does*
4. clearly knows his/her own beliefs
5. *embraces the weakness of his/her own principles*
6. does not distort his principles even when noticing the limitations and shortcomings
7. *encourages others to voice opposing points of view*
8. covers his/her weakness and mistakes (R) [**]
9. acts in a manner that is consistent with his/her personally held values, even if others criticize or reject him/her for doing so
10. *shows consistency between his/her beliefs and actions*
11. *resists pressures on him/her to do things contrary to his/her beliefs*
12. does things that he/she doesn't want to do merely not to disappoint people (R)
13. *openly shares information with others*
14. *openly shares his/her thoughts with others*
15. idealizes him-/herself rather than objectively expresses him/her as he/she truly is (R)
16. honestly states to others what he/she wants

In short version, we used items 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 11, 13, and 14.

[**] R = reversed code item

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