THE IMPACT OF LEADER EMOTIONAL LABOR ON LEADERS' AND FOLLOWERS' WELL-BEING: THE ROLE OF AUTHENTICITY AND ATTACHMENT ORIENTATIONS

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Declaration

I confirm that no portion of the work referred to in this thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification at this or any other university or institution of learning.

Dedication

To my dad, thank you for having faith in me and infusing me with love and freedom.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisors, Prof. Ana Sanz Vergel and Dr Annilee Game. Their friendly guidance, their optimism and belief in me, and their tremendous support and consultation have been essential to the completion of the research. They will remain brilliant role models whom I aspire to live up to for the rest of my academic career. Thank you for opening doors to the academic world to me! I also owe my gratitude to Dr Roberta Fida for her involvement in the third year of the PhD and her insightful comments on the data analysis chapter.

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Abstract

Emotional Labor, the idea of regulating emotions as part of the work role, was conceptualized in the early 1980s by sociologist Arlie Hochschild (1983). Three decades after its introduction as a concept, emotional labor became a focal area of study in the organizational behavior (OB) and organizational psychology (OP) in recent years (Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Although key researchers across a variety of theoretical approaches have reasoned that leaders use emotional labor, almost all empirical studies on emotional labor have focused on service workers.

This study contributes to current literature by using a two-wave longitudinal design to examine how leader emotional labor relates to leader authenticity and subsequently, to leader and follower well-being. Specifically, the present study incorporates three emotional labor dimensions, namely leader surface acting, leader deep acting and leader genuine emotion. Each type of leader emotional labor is proposed to have different effects on leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, which in turn, impact the extent of leader and follower well-being, respectively. The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory developed by Hobfoll (1989, 1998) is used to explain this mediating process and why this process is important in understanding the effect of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being. I look at emotional exhaustion, recovery, leader-member relationship and work-family enrichment as key well-being outcomes. Additionally, the current study draws on attachment theory (Bowlby, 1982) to propose that the strength of the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leader well-being through the mechanism of leader felt authenticity is contingent on levels of leader attachment orientations. Also, the strength of the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being through the mechanism of follower perceived leader authenticity is contingent on levels of leader and follower attachment orientations.

Tests of related hypotheses, with a sample of 202 UK leader-follower dyads who completed online surveys at 2 time points, over a 3-week period, supported some of the hypotheses. Theoretical contributions, practical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are discussed.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Many scholars have acknowledged that leadership is inherently an emotional process. Indeed, emotions are implicitly – if not explicitly – intricately intertwined in various leadership theories and approaches, including transformational leadership (e.g., Arnold et al., 2015; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005), authentic leadership (e.g., Avolio et al., 2004; Gardner et al., 2011; Ilies et al., 2005), charismatic leadership (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006), and leader–member exchange (e.g., Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Fisk & Friesen, 2012). It is perhaps not surprising then, that new and exciting research extends emotional labor to leadership (see Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016, for a review).

Hochschild (1983, p. 7) was the first to study emotional labor, and she conceptualized emotional labor as the "*management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display*." Although most of the research on emotional labor has been on service industry (see Grandey & Melloy, 2017, for a comprehensive review of the literature), studies in related areas suggest the utility of expanding emotional labor research beyond service or caring occupations (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). One area where progress has been made is the growing popularity of studying leader emotional labor. Leading with emotional labor is a phrase coined by Humphrey (2008). Researchers have theoretically examined how leaders use emotional labor tactics (e.g., Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey, 2008, 2012; Humphrey et al., 2008) not only to manage their own moods, but also to improve the moods of their followers. In line with this recognition of the emotional labor aspect of the leadership role, some qualitative studies (e.g., Burch, Humphrey, & Batchelor, 2013; Clarke et al., 2007) have been published. Empirical research, for example, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) surveyed both leaders and followers from a variety of industries and found that leaders regulate their feelings as frequently as sales/service and social service workers did.

However, unlike many caring occupations (e.g., nurses and health care providers) and service occupations (e.g., retail employees, airline attendants, and sales agents) where observable emotional displays are often quite restricted (e.g., airline attendants are expected to manage their emotional displays to provide service with a smile), leaders involve in different work situations with complex emotional demands and thus are required to display a wide variety of emotions, ranging from friendliness to sympathy and support, to irritation and anger (Iszatt-

White, 2009, 2012; Newman, Guy, & Mastracci, 2012). For example, leaders may have to portray optimism, confidence, hope, and resiliency to their followers when the leaders experience the same frustrations, obstacles, and confidence shattering events that distress followers (Luthans, Van Wyk, & Walumbwa, 2004; Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Emotional displays have been shown to play a powerful role in work relationships because they provide crucial information about individuals' feelings (Scherer, 1986), intentions (Fridlund, 1992), and orientation toward the relationships (Knutson, 1996). Newcombe and Ashkanasay (2002) revealed in an experimental study that leaders' emotional displays are even more important than the actual content of their verbal messages. It is clear that leaders are expected to show appropriate emotions to their followers at a particular time as part of the leadership role—the very reason why leaders engage in effortful emotion management (i.e., emotional labor)—and research reveals leader emotional labor as having significant consequences for both leaders and followers.

A handful of studies have examined leader emotional labor as the indicator of leader impaired well-being, for example, drawing on the full-range model of leadership and Conservation of Resources (COR) theory, Arnold et al. (2015) provided empirical evidence for indirect effects of leadership styles on leader burnout through leaders' use of emotional labor strategies. Leader emotional labor was also shown to relate to subjective health complaints among leaders (Glasø & Einarsen, 2008). Additionally, research on leader emotional labor emphasized its negative effects on performance outcomes. Results from a multiwave, multisource leader–follower dyadic study in the service and sales industries provided support for the implications of leader surface acting for leaders' abusive behaviors (Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Yam et al., 2015). These results are consistent with other research that has documented harmful effects of emotional labour (Goodwin, Groth, & Frenkel, 2011; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Hoon Lee & Chelladurai, 2017; Thomas et al., 2017).

Moreover, leader emotional labor demonstrated that it is a valuable antecedent of positive outcomes for leaders. High levels of suppression and faking correlated negatively with the experienced quality of leader-member exchange relationship and job satisfaction among both leaders and followers (Glasø & Einarsen, 2008). In a similar vein, Huyghebaert et al. (2018) offered a more thorough examination of surface acting's adverse effects on managers' positive attitudes in the form of work engagement and job satisfaction. Their findings provide

insight into the longitudinal influence of leader surface acting on leaders' optimal functioning and corroborate the distinct role of psychological need satisfaction and thwarting. Nevertheless, emotional labor has a bright side that can be beneficial for leaders (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). van Knippenberg and van Kleef (2016) concluded in their review of previous research that effective emotional labor strategies (e.g., deep acting) is essential to leadership effectiveness. Empirical studies also integrate emotional labor theory to leadership effectiveness. A field experiment by Edelman and Van Knippenberg (2017) showed that leader deep acting can be trained, and the training resulted in improved leadership effectiveness.

Furthermore, the effectiveness of leaders' emotional labor with their followers depends on the influence that their emotion regulation has on their followers (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). While service employees manage their observable emotional displays to influence customers (Grandey et al., 2005), leaders use emotional labor to exert influence on followers in order to evoke specific emotional (i.e. emotional contagion; Tee, 2015) and behavioral reactions (Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015).

Followers' initial reactions may influence many important organizational variables in the short term. How leaders use emotional labor strategies triggers followers' use of emotional labor (Tang, Gu, & Cui, 2017; Thomas et al., 2017), which can result in followers' burnout (Carlson et al., 2012) and their service performance (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Moon, Hur, & Choi, 2018; Wang & Seibert, 2015). In his dissertation, Wang (2011) found that leader surface acting was negatively associated with follower perceived transformational leadership, which in turn was negatively related to followers' attitude (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational identification) and followers' behavior (e.g., task performance and organizational citizenship). He also found that leader deep acting and genuine emotion were positively related to followers' emotional engagement, which in turn were positively related to job satisfaction, organizational identification, and organizational citizenship behavior. Fisk and Friesen (2012) further examined how different forms of emotional labor, as engaged in by leaders, influence follower job attitudes and behaviors. Their results indicated that leader deep acting had a positive impact on job satisfaction for followers who had low-quality relationships with their leaders, while leader surface acting negatively affected organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) of followers in high-quality exchange relationships to a greater

degree than those in low-quality exchange relationships. Nevertheless, their analyses might be potentially susceptible to common-method bias because all of their study variables were rated by followers solely (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Contrary to findings of Fisk and Friesen (2012), Kafetsios and colleagues (2012, 2014) found that directors' self-reported reappraisal (i.e., deep acting; Grandey & Melloy, 2017) was negatively related to subordinates' job satisfaction. Interestingly, leaders' use of suppression (i.e., surface acting; Grandey & Melloy, 2017) has been linked to increased levels of followers' positive affect, however, leaders' suppression interacted with group cohesion predicted followers' negative affect (Kafetsios, Nezlek, & Vassilakou, 2012). Of the research that has examined emotional labor at the group level, researchers have shown that leader emotional labor influences whole group affect through leaders' transmitting their own emotions to their subordinates through emotional contagion (Li et al., 2019; Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005).

These are important short- term effects, yet the long-term impacts of leader emotional labor may be considerably more significant. Leader emotional labor strategies provide interpersonal cues that can engender positive or negative perceptions about the nature and quality of leader-follower relationships (Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016).
Perceived emotional management efforts by leaders to attend to followers' needs and emotions, such as reframing events or modifying the experience, could foster follower perceptions that leaders cared about their goal accomplishment and were positively associated with follower assessment of leader-member exchange relationship, organizational citizenship behaviors and job satisfaction (Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016). Leader deep acting also exhibited higher level of followers' affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Moin, 2018). In contrast, leader surface acting signals to followers that their leaders do not care and value them. As a result, followers' expectations are not be fulfilled and they are less likely to give back (i.e., organizational commitment; Moin, 2018). Indeed, follower perceived leader emotional sincerity positively affected their trust in a leader, which in turn positively influenced their performance (Caza, Zhang, Wang, & Bai, 2015). The importance of leader emotional displays is also demonstrated by a study of small business owners. The study found that leaders who effectively used emotional labor had employees with higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions, and had firms with higher performance (Batchelor, Humphrey, & Burch, 2012). These studies suggest that leader emotional labor strategies influence follower behavior and attitudes in a different way, and perhaps, one emotional labor strategy may be better than other in certain circumstances.

As the brief review above reflects, there are both theoretical rationale and empirical studies supporting the view that leader emotional labor can have substantial impact on both leaders and followers. However, this field is still in its early stages, and, as described in more detail below, scholars studying the link between leader emotional labor and outcomes of leaders and followers have urged to investigate both mediators and moderators explaining this link (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009; Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016).

Responding to the calls for further empirical examination, the present study fills two gaps in the literature that, if tightened, should contribute to a better understanding of how and when surface acting, deep acting and genuine emotion, identified as three forms of leader emotional labor, have different effects on leaders' and followers' well-being. The present study looks at leaders' and followers' emotional exhaustion, recovery, leader-member exchange relationship and work-family enrichment as key well-being outcomes. Next section follows a brief description of how the two research gaps will be addressed in the following chapters.

1.1 Research Gaps

Research Gap 1: The Mediation Role of Leader Authenticity

Leader emotional labor is a multifaceted construct which has been argued to have beneficial as well as detrimental impact on both leader and follower outcomes (e.g., see Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016, for a review). Well-being outcomes are differentially influenced by leader surface acting, deep acting and genuine emotional display (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). Various mechanisms have been proposed to explain the differential associations of emotional labor strategies with well-being outcomes in the service sector. For example, interactional mechanisms (e.g., employees' satisfaction with clients' responses) and intrapersonal mechanism (e.g., psychological effort) were examined to explain how the use of different emotion regulation strategies with patients relates to doctors' emotional exhaustion (Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). Further, Hülsheger and Schewe's (2011) meta-analysis revealed four mechanisms that may be the key reasons to expect different relationships between emotional labor and two distinct aspects of well-being, namely general indicators of personal ill-being and job-related aspects of well-being. Specifically, they suggested that ego depletion, felt inauthenticity, negative emotions, and impairment of social interactions may

be the mechanisms driving the link between surface acting and well-being outcomes; ego depletion, authentic expression of emotions, positive emotions, and enhancement of social interactions may be the mechanisms driving the link between deep acting and well-being outcomes. Gardner, Fisher, and Hunt (2009) extended the conceptual work and empirical studies of emotional labor in the service sector by presenting a fundamental mechanism for the effect of leader emotional labor on leader well-being and follower trust in leader. Their study is the first to provide a conceptual model of leader emotional displays that recognizes the mediating effect of leader authenticity. Further, drawing on self-determination theory, Huyghebaert et al. (2018) explored the role of psychological need satisfaction and thwarting in explaining the influence of managers' surface acting on managers' job satisfaction and work engagement. Against their expectations, the result did not support the mediating role of psychological need thwarting.

Despite the theoretical perspectives and evidence showing mechanisms involved in emotional labor, further empirical investigation into potential mediating mechanisms through which leader emotional labor influence leader and follower well-being outcomes remain desired (Fisk & Friesen, 2012). In particular, the calls for leader authenticity as a mediator that have grown so loud (e.g., McCauley & Gardner, 2016; Moon, Hur, & Choi, 2018). In addition, researchers recommend that longitudinal and experimental studies will be preferable to gain a deeper understanding of the mechanisms that account for leader emotional labor's influence on well-being (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). To address this void, and to further enhance theory and research on leader emotional labor, the present study employs a two-wave longitudinal design to examine the presumed mediating role of leader authenticity between leader emotional labor and well-being of leaders and followers. Conservation of Resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) is used to explain this mediating process and why this process is important in understanding the leader emotional labor–well-being link. Importantly, this research also goes beyond earlier studies of leader emotional labor and negative side of health and well-being (e.g., burnout; Arnold et al., 2015), by taking into account both positive and negative health-related indicators. In addition, this study responds the calls (Carlson et al., 2012; Cheung & Tang, 2009) by clarifying the mechanism owing to leader emotional labor impacts both work-related and non-work related well-being of leaders and followers, namely leaders' and followers' perceptions of leader-member exchange relationship, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and work-family enrichment.

A growing body of evidence has demonstrated that leader authenticity is an effective way of enduring follower welfare (e.g., Braun & Nieberle, 2017; George et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2014). Luthans and Avolio (2003) defined leader authenticity as a process that draws from the leader's positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context that encourages greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates. The present study links Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) with the crossover literature (Westman, 2001) to explain the influence of leader authenticity on follower well-being.

According to Westman's (2001) crossover theory, crossover effects may occur because individuals share the same environment. For example, a common stressful work event can lead to a synchronization of individuals' stress levels. Moreover, individuals can transmit stressors and strains between each other (Debus & Unger, 2017). This may occur immediately through empathetic reactions and perspective taking or through a mediator. In other words, crossover literature suggests that people tend to experience the same threats or stress when they share the same environment or are very closely related. In addition, according to COR, there can be resource gain. From that perspective, if the leader is authentic, the follower perceives that authenticity and can benefit from it (Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015).

COR theory suggests that people strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster valued resources and minimize any threats of resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). Resources are anything that individuals personally value. One of the sub-principles of COR theory posits that individuals with greater resources are less vulnerable to resource loss and more capable of resource gain (Hobfoll, 2001). Empirical research has found these gain cycles are plausible because gaining resources tend to be cumulative—those who have more resources are more likely to gain more, whether the resources are material, psychological, or social (Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008; Hülsheger, Walkowiak, & Thommes, 2018). In line with this reasoning, the present study explores whether followers' initial resource gain (i.e., follower perceived leader authenticity) begets future gain, which triggers a gain spiral resulting in better interaction with the leader (LMX), reduced emotional exhaustion, higher recovery, and positive synergy among work and family domains.

Research Gap 2: The Moderating Role of Attachment Orientations

Although using emotional labor can have detrimental effects on leader and follower well-being (e.g., Li et al., 2019; Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016), this is likely to be precise when there is poor person-job fit, or when leaders use the ineffective form of emotional labor (i.e., surface acting) instead of the more effective forms (i.e., deep acting and genuine emotion; Humphrey et al., 2015). The somewhat muddled picture that arises from the emotional labor literature seems to suggest that looking at individual differences as potential moderators may advance the understanding of the effectiveness of leader emotional labor strategies (e.g., Damen, Van Knippenberg, & Van Knippenberg, 2008; Pisaniello, Winefield, & Delfabbro, 2012). Thus, a consideration of a wider range of personality traits and competencies that might influence leaders' abilities to perform emotional labor and respond effectively to affective events in the workplace is warranted (Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016).

To date, broad traits (e.g., the Big Five and affectivity) have been the focal point of examining the influence of individual attributes on individual behavior at work in most studies (e.g., Gross & John, 2003; Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011; Wang et al., 2011). Despite the importance of these factors, consideration of individual characteristics can provide new insights into the nature of individual functioning at work. Adult attachment is one such characteristic (Leiter, Day, & Price, 2015). Researchers have started to draw upon insights from adult attachment theory to investigate phenomena in the workplace (e.g., Kafetsios et al., 2016; Richards & Schat, 2011). Individual differences in attachment are caused by early experiences of the availability and responsiveness of attachment figures (Bowlby, 1973). The availability and responsiveness of attachment figures prompts individuals to develop a sense of attachment security (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). In contrast, the absence or unresponsiveness of others prompts the development of anxious or avoidant attachment, respectively (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). In adulthood, individuals possess a dominant attachment working model that tends to remain relatively stable (Baldwin et al., 1996; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). This internal working model of attachment in adulthood represents personality features that reflects how people view themselves and others, as well as how they think about and behave toward others throughout the life span (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). More recent research incorporates attachment theory in workplace relationships (e.g., Davidiovitz et al., 2007; Harms, 2011). Compared to broad traits studied in previous research, adult attachment

is a unique individual difference attribute that may enhance the understanding of individual behavior in leader-follower relationships (Harms, Bai, & Han, 2016).

In the current research, leader and follower characteristics are proposed to inform responses to leader emotional labor. Specifically, I will zoom in on the role of leaders' and followers' attachment orientations as moderators of leader emotional labor in engendering leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, which in turn relates to leader and follower well-being outcomes, namely leader-member exchange relationship, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and work-family enrichment.

1.2 Structure of the Thesis

Following this introduction, Chapter 2 presents a critical view of the literature and forms the basis for the development of hypotheses. Chapter 2 is structured in four parts. First part of Chapter 2 presents a review of emotional labor literature and explicates the overarching themes of leader emotional labor: specifically, the notion of surface acting and deep acting, as well as genuine emotion have been identified as three forms of leader emotional labor. Part one also introduces and defines leader authenticity, demonstrating the research linking leader authenticity to leader emotional labor. Subsequently, attachment theory and its application to workplace are reviewed. Based on the literatures, second part of Chapter 2 specifies hypotheses on the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leaders' and followers' well-being, mediated by leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, respectively. Next, third part of Chapter 2 focuses on the moderation hypotheses and illustrates rationales for how two attachment orientations moderate the relationship between leader emotional labor and leader authenticity. Part three also combines the mediation and moderation effects that suggests moderated mediation hypotheses in the present study. Finally, the overall research model is presented in fourth part of Chapter 2.

In Chapter 3, the thesis sets out the research methodology adopted in order to investigate the research questions. The chapter explains the choice of quantitative longitudinal design and details study participants, research procedures and instrumentations. Chapter 3 also outlines the ethical considerations and describes the analytical approach that will be applied for data analysis.

Chapter 4 of the thesis presents research analyses results and findings. The analyses intend to provide evidence for how leader authenticity mediates the effect of leader emotional labor on both leader and follower well-being as well as for possible moderation effects of attachment orientations on the indirect relationships. I follow the two-step approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) in that I first test the fit of measurement model and then test the hypothesized model. Therefore, this chapter is laid in two parts. The first part of this chapter is devoted to descriptive statistics and measurement model assessments. The second part presents details of the analyses of research model employing structural equation modeling technique. The second part of Chapter 4 comprises three sections to present the results of the hypotheses tests. Specifically, the three subsections are: (1) results of mediation research model, (2) results of moderation model and (3) results of moderated mediation model.

Chapter 5 discusses the findings from previous chapter and explains the theoretical contribution that the present thesis makes to current literature. Chapter 5 also elaborates the theoretical and practical implications of this thesis. The chapter concludes with the strengths and limitations of the present study and addresses recommendations for future research.

The upcoming chapter will present the review of the leader emotional labor, leader authenticity and attachment theory literature as well as outline the development of the research hypotheses in the present study.

Table 1. 1 A List of Hypotheses

Mediation Hypothesis	**Leader authenticity mediates the effect of leader emotional labor on leaders' and followers' well-being**
H1a	leader surface acting is negatively related to leader felt authenticity.
H1b	leader surface acting is negatively related to follower perceived leader authenticity.
H2a	leader deep acting is positively related to leader felt authenticity.

H2b	leader deep acting is positively related to follower perceived leader authenticity.
H3a	leader genuine emotion is positively related to leader felt authenticity.
H3b	leader genuine emotion is positively related to follower perceived leader authenticity.
H4a	leader felt authenticity is positively related to leader perception of LMX.
H4b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader perception of LMX.
H4c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader perception of LMX.
H4d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader perception of LMX.
H5a	follower perceived leader authenticity is positively related to follower perception of LMX.
H5b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower perception of LMX.
H5c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower perception of LMX.
H5d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower perception of LMX.
H6a	leader felt authenticity is negatively related to leader emotional exhaustion.
H6b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader emotional exhaustion.
H6c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader emotional exhaustion.
H6d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader emotional exhaustion.
H7a	follower perceived leader authenticity is negatively related to follower emotional exhaustion.
H7b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower emotional exhaustion.
H7c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower emotional exhaustion.

H7d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower emotional exhaustion.
H8a	leader felt authenticity is positively related to leader recovery.
H8b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader recovery.
H8c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader recovery.
H8d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader recovery.
H9a	follower perceived leader authenticity is positively related to follower recovery.
H9b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower recovery.
H9c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower recovery.
H9d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower recovery.
H10a	leader felt authenticity is positively related to leader WFE.
H10b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader WFE.
H10c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader WFE.
H10d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader WFE.
H11a	follower perceived leader authenticity is positively related to follower WFE.
H11b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower WFE.
H11c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower WFE.
H11d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower WFE.

Moderation Hypothesis	**Attachment orientations moderates the effect of leader emotional labor on leader authenticity**
H12a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on leader felt authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high anxious attachment.
H12b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader deep acting on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.
H12c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.
H13a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on leader felt authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high avoidant attachment.
H13b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader deep acting on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.
H13c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.
H14a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high anxious attachment.
H14b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.
H14c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.

H15a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity, such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high avoidant attachment.
H15b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.
H15c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.
H16a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for followers with high anxious attachment.
H16b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high anxious attachment.
H16c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high anxious attachment.
H17a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for followers with high avoidant attachment.
H17b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high avoidant attachment.
H17c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high avoidant attachment.
Moderated Mediation	**Leader attachment orientations moderates the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leader well-being via leader felt authenticity**

H18a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.
H18b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.
H18c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.
H18d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.
H19a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.
H19b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.
H19c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.
H19d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.
H20a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.
H20b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.
H20c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.
H20d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.
H21a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.
H21b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.
H21c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.
H21d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.

H22a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.
H22b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.
H22c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.
H22d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.
H23a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.
H23b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.
H23c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.
H23d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.
Moderated Mediation	**Leader attachment orientations moderates the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity**
H24a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H24b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H24c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H24d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H25a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H25b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H25c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H25d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H26a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H26b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H26c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H26d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H27a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H27b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H27c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H27d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H28a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H28b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H28c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H28d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H29a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H29b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H29c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H29d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
Moderated Mediation	**Follower attachment orientations moderates the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity**
H30a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H30b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H30c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H30d	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H31a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H31b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H31c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H31d	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H32a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H32b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H32c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H32d	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H33a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H33b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H33c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H33d	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H34a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H34b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H34c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H34d	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H35a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H35b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H35c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.
H35d	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.

Chapter 2 Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

This chapter is structured in four parts. Part one provides definitions and literature review regarding leader emotional labor, leader authenticity and attachment orientations. Next part of this chapter specifies the hypotheses on the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being, mediated by leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, respectively. In part three, I focus on the moderation hypotheses and outline theoretical rationales for why attachment orientations moderate the relationship between leader emotional labor and leader authenticity. Part three also combines the mediation and moderation effects that suggests moderated mediation hypotheses in this study. Finally, the overall research model is presented in part four. Below I will provide more details what is investigated in each of the parts.

2.1 Theoretical Background

2.1.1 Emotional Labor History

Emotions and the expression of emotions in the workplace have become an increasingly popular area of research. One area within the emotional arena receiving particular research attention is emotional labor. A prominent contribution was sociologist Arlie Hochschild's (1983) qualitative research of flight attendants and bill collectors, which shed light on how employees at work engage in emotional labor. She argued that customer service agents perform emotional labor when they express socially desired emotions as part of their job role, as illustrated by her interviews and observations of flight attendants and bill collectors (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labor referred specifically to the efforts undertaken by employees to manage their emotional displays to provide services with a smile or to show emotions appropriate to their role such as care and concern, for example restaurant waiters might earn more tips by smiling and joking with customers. In the decades since Hochschild coined the term, emotional labor has become an important topic in the organizational behavior and organizational psychology literatures, usually studied within the construct of emotional labor (for recent reviews, see Grandey & Melloy, 2017; Grandey & Gabriel, 2015; Xu, Cao, & Huo, 2020).

Emotional Labor Construct

Researchers differ somewhat in their conceptualization of emotional Labor. Originally, emotional labor was defined as "*the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display*" (Hochschild, 1983, p. 7). Following Hochschild's (1983) original conceptualization of emotional labor, several others have been advanced. Generally, the varying theoretical perspectives of emotional labor focusing on three approaches: internal states, internal processes, and external behavioral displays (Glomb & Tews, 2004). The internal state theme emphasizes emotional dissonance, a state of incongruence between felt and expressed emotion (Morris & Feldman, 1997). The internal process theme, in contrast, focuses on specific self-regulatory processes involved in creating emotional expression (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998; Gross, 1998). The regulatory strategies are typically regarded as surface acting (faking an emotion) and deep acting (attempting to really feel an emotion) (Grandey, 2000). Grandey and Melloy's (2017) revised model of emotional labor as emotion regulation (Grandey, 2000) provides a new way of thinking about this topic that leads researchers to focus on how individuals actively regulate their emotions in response to the increasingly interpersonal nature of work. Finally, the external behavioral display theme concerns the observable emotional expression because these are what they perceived to be occupationally required to display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) define this theme as a "*focus on behavior rather than on the presumed emotions underlying behavior*" (p. 90), and they defined emotional labor is the act of displaying the appropriate emotions in compliance with display rules.

Although these conceptual perspectives differ in focus, each conceptualization has in common the underlying assumption that emotional labor involves regulating emotions and emotional expressions to be consistent with occupational or organizational display rules, defined as expectations about appropriate observable emotional expressions (Glomb & Tews, 2004). The varying theoretical perspectives are not in opposition and can be viewed as complementary. For instance, job display rules may motivate an individual to experience an internal state of incongruence between felt and expressed emotion, requiring the individual to engage in self-regulation processes, resulting in behavioral emotional displays (Scott, Lennard, Mitchell, & Johnson, 2020). Furthermore, emotional labor can be viewed not only as emotion work specifically required as part of work role, but also more broadly as involving conscious efforts by individuals to manage emotions in the service of the self at

work (Barry, Olekalns, & Rees, 2018). This could be something as simple as showing sympathy or a variety of other emotions made to smooth interactions at work, or something more complex in the domain of conflict management, for instance, a leader assuming a particular emotional tone in order to manage arguments between followers in a meeting.

Emotional Labor Strategies

After establishing the argument that emotional labor exists and that employees perform emotional labor in their jobs, Hochschild (1983) described two strategies in which workers perform emotional labor: surface acting and deep acting. When employees make no efforts to truly feel the emotions they are displaying and "paste on" expected emotional expression, while suppressing the display of their felt emotions, they are practicing surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998). When individuals engage in surface acting, they are simply going through the motion of following what they perceive to be the appropriate display rules expected by their job position or organization (Hochschild, 1983). Waiters, for example, are expected to serve with a smile, and express friendly and positive emotions even in unpleasant working conditions such as rude customers.

In contrast, when employees attempt to actually feel the emotions they are displaying, they are practicing deep acting. Deep acting separates itself from surface acting in that individuals deliberately try to summon up the emotion they want to portray, and they then let the emotions they have elicited animate their outward emotional expression (Grandey, 2003). Hochschild (1983) identified two ways of achieving deep acting. First, workers can use attentional deployment to actively focus towards the required emotions. Or second, employees can use previous memories and/or imagination to evoke similar emotions to comply with the situational display rules (i.e., cognitive change). For example, employees who use cognitive change approach may try to put themselves in a happy and friendly mood by recalling previous pleasant experiences. Hochschild's (1983) description of emotional labor implies that workers exert efforts to either fake the appropriate emotional response (surface acting) or attempt to feel the desired emotion (deep acting).

Research has culminated in several meta-analyses showing that surface acting is positively associated with detrimental outcomes such as work withdrawal, job burnout, poor

performance, and work-family conflict whereas deep acting is negatively related to these outcomes (e.g., Deng, Walter, & Guan, 2020; Huppertz, Hülsheger, De Calheiros Velozo, & Schreurs, 2020; Lyddy et al., 2021; Scherer, Zapf, Beitler, & Trumpold, 2020; Scott et al., 2020; Wu, Chen, & Umstattd Meyer, 2020).

Later researchers identified a third distinct dimension of emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). These scholars reasoned that genuine, spontaneous, and natural emotional display that are in line with job display rules is also another way to perform emotional labor (Diefendorff, Croyle, & Gosserand, 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004). A study by Glomb and Tews (2004) was among the first to provide evidence for all three types of emotional labor. In their impressive study using different samples in a great variety of industries, Glomb and Tews found that workers reported using faking, suppression, and genuine displays of a wide range of emotions. Furthermore, they found that the use of genuine emotion matched the various display rules for the employees' particular occupations. For example, hospital doctors may frequently respond with authentic feelings of sympathy to sick or injured patients. In these instances, no additional effort is needed to confirm organizational expectations. This reasoning has been verified by subsequent scholars such as Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005) whose empirical studies confirmed that "*the display or naturally felt emotions is distinct from surface acting and deep acting as a method of displaying organizationally desired emotions*" (p. 339). Diefendorff et al. argued that genuine emotion may actually be quite common, reporting that it was the most endorsed of the three emotional labor strategies. Research has continued to support the validity of spontaneous and genuine emotional labor (e.g., Arnold et al., 2015; Deng, Walter, & Guan, 2020; Scherer, Zapf, Beitler, & Trumpold, 2020; Scott et al., 2020). These studies have generally concluded that genuine emotion is more beneficial than either surface acting or deep acting. For example, Scott et al. (2020) found that displaying genuine emotion was most beneficial in terms of effects on emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and work withdrawal. This finding is in agreement with Diefendorff et al. (2005), who noted that displaying naturally felt emotions "*should not be associated with the negative effects often attributed to emotional labor*" (p. 340).

Emotional Labor in Occupational Contexts

Emotional labor has been explored within a number of specific occupational contexts, including art (Davidson & Poor, 2015), bank tellers (Chau, Dahling, Levy, & Diefendorff, 2009), border enforcement (Rivera, 2015), call center employees (Newman, Guy, & Mastracci, 2009; Totterdell & Holman, 2003), debt collectors (Sutton, 1991), flight attendants (Hochschild, 1983), law (Lively, 2002), media (Hesmondhalgh & Baker, 2008), nurses and care workers (Diefendorff et al., 2011), public administration (Guy et al., 2008), sales (Humphrey & Ashforth, 2000), tourism (Guerrier & Adib, 2003), and waiters and waitresses (Pugh, 2001; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). As a result of this abundant and increasing body of research, a complete picture of who performs emotional labor, when and why they engage in such behavior, and how it influences them, and their organizations is presented. Further, studies suggest that emotional labor is not only performed in the service sector to external customers, but also used with colleagues, with the supervisor or even with family (e.g., Sanz-Vergel et al., 2012). Interestingly, although managers are the primary proponents of emotional labor, few studies examine leaders. This is surprising given research has advanced from an initial preoccupation with whether there was any emotional labor performed within a given profession (Hochschild, 1983) to the acknowledgment that a wide variety of roles (leaders, as well) engage in emotional labor (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016). Therefore, this present study aims to provide new and important insights into the nature of emotional labor in the leadership context.

2.1.2 Emotional Leadership

Leadership and Emotions

In the last two decades or so, an increasing scholarly awareness has emerged that emotions play a pervasive influence in the leadership process (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). Inevitably, people in leadership positions display their feelings—facially, vocally, and in more subtle nonverbal communication (Visser et al., 2013). Leaders involve in different work situations with complex emotional demands and thus are required to display a wide variety of emotions, ranging from friendliness, to sympathy and support, to anger (Newman, Guy, & Mastracci, 2012). For instance, when a follower shows up late at work due to personal issues, a leader needs to decide between

expressing sympathy for the follower's personal problems and showing irritation and anger for the lateness. Studies by Luthans and his colleagues have also demonstrated that leaders may have to portray optimism, confidence, hope, and resiliency to their followers when the leaders experience the same frustrations, obstacles, and confidence shattering events that distress their followers (Luthans, 2002; Luthans, Van Wyk, & Walumbwa, 2004; Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Leaders have to use judgment about which emotion to display at a particular time as emotional displays are argued to influence leader-follower interactions by providing crucial information about leaders' feelings (Scherer, 1986), intentions (Fridlund, 1992), and attitude toward the leader-follower relationship (Knutson, 1996). Newcombe and Ashkanasay (2002) revealed in an experimental study that leaders' emotional displays are even more important than the actual content of their verbal messages.

Koning and Van Kleef (2015) examined the effects of happy and angry expressions of leaders on followers' organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Their two experiments (a scenario and a laboratory experiment) showed that leaders displaying anger can have a detrimental effect on OCB compared to leaders displaying happiness. Moreover, leaders' positive emotional expressions were linked to mood states of simulated followers (Bono & Ilies, 2006). Likely, Glasø, Ekerholt, Barman, and Einarsen (2006) reported from a qualitative study that emotional display rules play an important part when leaders and followers interact. For example, the expectations of suppressing anger or expressing a positive attitude towards each other are shared between leaders and followers, despite their inner negative feelings such as boredom or irritation. Several other studies also demonstrated that leaders have substantial influence over group members' moods and emotional states, and that this influence can either help or hinder employee performance (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Pescosolido, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002; Wang & Seibert, 2015). In addition, Bono and Ilies (2006) found leaders' emotional expressions is linked to ratings of leader effectiveness and followers' attraction to the leader. Later, van Knippenberg and van Kleef (2016) concluded in their review of previous research that leader's emotional display is essential to leadership effectiveness. In fact, many papers reviewing findings on affect and emotion emphasize that leaders' emotional expressions play a central role in leadership processes and need to be addressed in research (for a review of relevant literature, see Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010), which is further underlined by empirical findings (e.g., Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Gaddis et al., 2004; van Kleef et al., 2012).

Leader Emotional Labor

The literature reviewed above emphasizes that managers' emotional expression can have a profound influence on employees' attributions about the managers' motivation, trustworthiness, charisma, intelligence, and overall leadership abilities (Bono & Vey, 2005; Bono & Ilies, 2006; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Humphrey, 2013; Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006; Riggio & Reichard, 2008). Thus, leaders must exercise considerably more judgment about which emotions to display (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), and this is not always easy to do. While service employees use emotional labor to smile and express friendly and positive emotions to customers, ensure customer satisfaction and to make them request organizational services again in the future (Hochschild, 1983; Grandey et al., 2013), emotional labor could be understood as a strategic instrument that may also help leaders summon the emotions needed to exert influence on followers (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey, 2008). Some authors even argue that leaders lead by doing emotional labor (Humphrey, 2008, 2012; Humphrey et al., 2008).

Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) performed one of few studies that included managers in their research of emotional labor; they surveyed both managers and employees from a variety of industries and found that managers reported engage in emotional labor as frequently as service employees (e.g., sales/service workers and human service workers). Their research indicates that emotional labor is an important part of what managers and other leaders do. Brotheridge and Lee (2003) subsequently developed widely used emotional labor scale based on the theories of Hochschild (1983) and Morris and Feldman (1996) that emotional labor can be conceptualized in terms of its frequency, intensity, variety, and duration, along with surface acting and deep acting. Although these measures were developed for service employees, they have been applied just as well to the type of emotional labor performed by leaders (e.g., Arnold et al., 2015; McCauley & Gardner, 2016).

Theoretical Research in Leader Emotional Labor

Scholars developed a theoretical examination on leaders using emotional labor (e.g., Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gardner et al., 2009; Haver, Akerjordet, & Furunes, 2013; Humphrey, 2008, 2012; Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). These theorists reasoned that leaders use emotional labor strategies to help them manage their own moods and motivations.

Leaders are often exposed to a wide variety of emotional workplace events. Emotional labor strategies such as deep acting may help leaders maintain an appropriate mood throughout working days. For example, under frustrating work conditions, leaders may need to use emotional labor strategies and regulation tactics to support them gain control of their own emotions (Humphrey, 2012).

Humphrey and his colleagues were the first to introduce the phrase "leading with emotional labor" and to develop a systematic model that differentiates the type of emotional labor used by leaders from that performed by the three main types of service workers (customer service, caring professions, and social control) (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Humphrey, 2002, 2012; Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). Leaders are expected to display a wide range of emotions from anger to empathy in order to lead the actions and emotions of others (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008). Therefore, they must exercise considerable judgment and discretion when deciding which emotions to display, such as anger at slackers, or enthusiasm for good performance (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002, 2006).

Equally important, leaders use "*emotional labor and emotional displays to influence the moods, emotions, motivations, and performance of their subordinates or followers*" (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008, p. 153). Leaders may influence their subordinates' moods through a process of emotional contagion. When leaders handle crisis situations or frustrating problems, they may use emotional labor to take control of their own emotions so they can motivate their followers, role-model the right emotional displays (Hannah & Luthans, 2008). Through emotional contagion, followers feel their leaders' emotions and may even pass on the emotions to other group members or to customers. In line with this, Kiel and Watson (2009), along with Newman, Guy, and Mastracci (2009), suggest how public service leaders display confidence (through surface acting) to role-model confidence and create optimistic feelings among their followers even if they privately share the same worries and anxieties of their followers. Leaders may also attempt to use deep acting strategy to boost their own confidence and try to experience the emotions they want to display.

Empirical Research in Leader Emotional Labor

Empirical studies have been exploring the importance of leader emotional labor underline the need to integrate emotional labor and leadership research. For example, Glasø and Einarsen

(2008) investigated the extent to which leaders and followers express, suppress or fake their emotions during leader-follower interaction, and they provided evidence for that leaders express, fake and suppress (i.e., emotional labor; see Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998) more emotions than their followers. Moreover, they concluded that high levels of emotion regulation (suppressing and faking emotions) correlated negatively with leader-member exchange relationship and job satisfaction, and positively with bad health among both leader and follower groups. Later, Fisk and Friesen (2012) examined how different forms of emotion regulation, as engaged in by those in leadership roles, influence follower job attitudes and behaviors. They found that "*deep acting was positively associated with job satisfaction for members in low-quality leader-member exchanges, while surface acting negatively affected participation in prosocial acts for individuals in high-quality leader-member exchanges*" (p. 1). Similarly, Kafetsios and colleagues (2012) used Gross's emotion regulation strategies model (Gross, 1998) to examine relationships between emotion regulation and work affect and job satisfaction in both leaders and subordinates. The focal point of their study was the cross-level relationships between leaders' emotion regulation strategies and subordinates' work affect and satisfaction. Their findings demonstrated that leaders' self-reported emotion regulation strategies are related to subordinates' emotions and attitudes at work. Quite interestingly, the results showed that emotion suppression strategies were associated with subordinates' higher positive emotion, however, supervisors' higher emotion reappraisal strategies had a negative effect on subordinates' positive affect and job satisfaction.

Wang and Seibert (2015) integrated Emotion As Social Information (EASI) theory (van Kleef, 2009) with attribution theory to explore boundary conditions of the relationships between the frequency of leader emotional displays and follower performance. Their results showed that leader surface acting as a boundary condition, neutralized the impacts of the frequencies of positive and negative leader emotional displays toward followers on the followers' performance. Moreover, in her doctoral dissertation, Kampa (2016) explored a conceptual framework on how leaders' emotional labor could be related to employee outcomes, such as employees' emotional labor, service performance, and exhaustion. In her three empirical studies, she found that the fundamental role of authentic leadership and procedural justice as linking variables between leader emotional labor and follower outcomes. Recently, Edelman and van Knippenberg (2017) integrated emotional labor theory to leadership effectiveness. Their field experiment represents the first evidence that leader

emotional labor skills can be trained, showing improved emotional labor results in greater leadership effectiveness.

Building on the leader emotional labor and well-being literatures, the present study aims to provide a more complete picture and comprehensive understanding of the impacts of three leader emotional labor strategies (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion) on both leader and follower well-being. This research opens up a new direction for theory building concerning well-being in organizations, by investigating that leader emotional labor strategies may have significant influences not only on those targeted (followers), but also on those performing such behaviors (leaders). Further, the present research goes beyond earlier studies of leader emotional labor and work-related well-being indicators (e.g., burnout; Arnold et al., 2015), by taking into account both work-related and non-work related health and well-being outcomes, namely leaders' and followers' perceptions of leader-member exchange relationship, emotional exhaustion, recovery from work stress, and work-family enrichment.

2.1.3 Leader Authenticity

Authenticity

Initial theoretical perspectives used in developing the concept of leader authenticity begin with the construct of authenticity, tracing it back to philosophy (Harter, 2002; Heidegger, 1962) and psychology (Rogers, 1959, 1963). The roots of the construct of authenticity dates back to Greek philosophy *("To thine own self to be true")*. Erickson (1995) and Harter (2002) provided comprehensive literature reviews on the origins and history of authenticity within the fields of philosophy and psychology. Erickson (1995) emphasized the core of authentic self as *"existing wholly by the laws of its own being"* (p. 320). Erickson's definition recognizes the introspective and self- referential nature of authenticity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Drawing from the positive psychology literature (Seligman, 2002), Harter (2002) describes authenticity is *"one acts in accord with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings"* (p. 382). Thus, authenticity involves both owning one's personal experiences (one's thoughts, emotions, needs, desires, or beliefs) and behaving in accordance with the true self by expressing what one genuinely thinks and

believes (see Harter, 2002, for a historical review). Recent conceptualizations of authenticity are also influenced by the self-determination theory (Deci, 1980; Deci & Ryan, 1985) which emphasizes that people are authentic when their actions reflect their true or core self, that is, when they are self-determining and autonomous (Deci & Ryan, 1995). Authenticity is achieved when one is guided by internalized self-regulation processes instead of external social pressures (Ryan & Deci, 2003).

Researchers have provided impressive empirical evidence that an increased sense of personal authenticity predicts positive consequences of physical and psychological well-being (e.g., Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Similarly, Kernis' (2003) work provided a more empirically grounded perspective on authenticity as part of a larger theory on the nature of optimal self-esteem. Kernis stresses authenticity as a psychological construct which reflects *"the unobstructed operation of one's true, or core, self in one's daily enterprise"* (p. 13). Later, four components of authenticity (i.e., self-awareness, unbiased processing of self-relevant information, behavior in line with one's true values, and relational orientation) were identified by Kernis and Goldman (2006).

Authentic Leadership

The topic of authentic leadership has received considerable attention in recent leadership research (e.g., Avolio et al., 2004; Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005; Dinh et al., 2014; Gardner et al., 2011; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Macik-Frey, Quick & Cooper, 2009) and practice (e.g., George, 2003; George, Sims, McLean, & Mayer, 2007; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). Authentic leadership finds its conceptual roots in the extant social psychological theory and study on authenticity (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Kernis, 2003). Leadership scholars built upon these roots to further develop the construct. Although a variety of definitions of authentic leadership have been advanced over the years, conceptualizations focus on issues of truth and honest to the oneself, as captured in phrases such as "being true to oneself" (Gardner et al., 2011). In line with historical definitions of authenticity (Kernis & Goldman, 2006), authentic leadership generally describes a leader's behavior which is characterized by a high consistency of thoughts, feelings and behaviors. The hallmark of authentic leaders is their capacity to effectively process information about themselves (their values, beliefs, goals, and feelings), and ability to adjust their behavior in

leadership in accordance with their own self (Avolio et al., 2004). A model by Avolio and colleagues integrates early approaches to authentic leadership, offering what is now the most widely tested conceptualization of authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio et al., 2004; Gardner et al., 2005; Ilies et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

The authentic leadership concept by proposed Avolio and colleagues consists of four dimensions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Neider & Schriesheim, 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Authentic leadership's dimensional structure bears a close resemblance to Kernis' conceptualization of authenticity as encompassing four key components (Kernis & Goldman, 2006). In accordance with Neider and Schriesheim (2011) and Walumbwa and colleagues (2008), leader authenticity involves self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective.

Self-awareness refers to the heart of authentic leadership: being true to oneself. It is a process *"whereby one comes to reflect on one's unique values, identity, emotions, goals, knowledge, talents and/or capacities"* (Gardner et al., 2005, p. 349). Thus, authentic leaders are people who work to show and understand the multifaceted nature of themselves such as their strengths and weaknesses (Kernis, 2003), and their leadership should reflect an awareness of their inner thoughts and emotions (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Leaders' higher self-awareness is thus expected to enhance their ability to derive meaning of their world and how that meaning process influences both their leadership and their leadership's impact on leading followers (Hannah, Wool-folk, & Lord, 2009).

Relational transparency involves a presentation of one's true self (rather than a fake or distorted self) to others (Gardner et al., 2005). Authentic leaders' relational transparency, which demonstrates high levels of openness, self-disclosure, and truthfulness in close relationships, fosters positive social exchange (Ilies et al., 2005). Such leadership behavior promotes trust through personal disclosures that involve openly sharing information and expressing inner thoughts and feelings with followers and relevant others while trying to minimize displays of inappropriate emotions (Kernis, 2003).

Balanced processing describes leaders who show that they take others' opinions and relevant information into account using an objective lens before coming to a decision, which means collecting data without prejudice and considering self-relevant information whether it is

positive or negative in nature (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Such leaders solicit views that challenge their deeply held positions to achieve accurate and well-balanced self-assessments and social comparisons (Swann, Rentfrow, & Guinn, 2003).

Finally, internalized moral perspective is based on an internalized and integrated form of self-regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2003), which is rooted in internal moral standards and values rather than external social norms or pressures such as that from peers, as well as organizational and societal pressures (Gardner et al., 2005). It results in consistency between leaders' own moral beliefs and their actions, in that their leadership behavior is in line with inner attitudes (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011).

Taken together, the brief review of authentic leadership theory suggests that leader authenticity is demonstrated in congruency between leaders' internal selves (including their feelings and emotions) and their external actions and behaviors. Therefore, *"authentic leaders are expected to be relatively immune to situational pressures that call for conformance to emotional display rules, choosing instead to present their true inner emotions"* (Gardner et al., 2009, p. 468). Emotions and emotion management are a frequent topic within leader authenticity literature (Michie & Gooty, 2005). In previous work on leader emotional labor, it has been discussed that leader authenticity should be expected to vary systematically with leader's emotional behaviors (Gardner et al., 2009). To date, research addressing issues such as how leader authenticity can be achieved and which leader emotional behaviors pay into it, has been scant.

The present study makes a promising contribution by exposing that leader emotional labor as a specific set of behaviors and emotion regulation tactics does indeed relate to leader authenticity. Specifically, using a longitudinal design, this present study examines the presumed mediating role of leader authenticity to gain a deeper understanding of the mechanism that accounts for the impact of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being. Conservation of Resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) is employed to explain this mediating process and why this process is important in understanding the leader emotional labor–well-being link.

2.1.4 Attachment Orientations

Attachment Theory

Founded in the work of Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1982), attachment theory suggests that individuals are innately predisposed to seek out comfort and safety with attachment figures, and naturally express behaviors that attract and maintain proximity with the attachment figures to protect themselves in response to threats (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). According to Ainsworth (1989), there are two essential components related to the function of the attachment system: to help provide security in times of distress and to help promote independence. Depending on the consistency of care in times of stress, individuals develop relatively stable and enduring schemas (i.e., internal working models) of close relationships. The availability and responsiveness of attachment figures prompts individuals to develop a sense of attachment security (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). In contrast, the absence or unresponsiveness of others prompts the development of anxious or avoidant attachment, respectively (Hazan & Shaver, 1990).

Although the attachment behavioral system is crucial during the early years of life, Bowlby (1988) also proposed that it is active over the entire life span and, is demonstrated in adults' tendencies to attract and maintain proximity to protect against psychological or physical threats when the individuals are in distress (Hazan & Zeifman, 1999). Many studies have also indicated that the attachment behavioral system is indeed active during adulthood and affects many aspects of psychological and social functioning (e.g., Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2011; Mikulincer, Gillath, & Shaver, 2002; Mikulincer et al., 2001; Mikulincer et al., 2000). As children grow into adulthood, their attachment behavioral system is gradually shaped by experiences of the availability and responsiveness of attachment figures and memories of these experiences in the form of working models of self and others (Collins, Guichard, Ford, & Feeney, 2004; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). In adulthood, individuals possess a dominant attachment working model that tends to remain relatively stable (Baldwin et al., 1996; Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Lopez & Brennan, 2000; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). This internal working model of attachment in adulthood represents a person's characteristic pattern that affects cognitions, affective experience and regulation, and other behaviors throughout the life span (Collins et al., 2004; Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003).

Attachment Dimensions

Empirical research—beginning with Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall (1978) and continuing through recent works of social psychologists (see Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007, for a review)—indicates that measures of attachment have evolved from a categorical typology to a dimensional approach (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000). The dimensional approach operationalizes attachment as two dimensions of insecure attachment—avoidance and anxiety (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Fraley & Waller, 1998). Secure attachment is not directly measured but can be inferred that individuals who are on the lower end of both dimensions are described as more securely attached (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

Attachment avoidance develops when attachment figures repeatedly give improper care and feedback or reject requests to be attached (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988). To deal with this rejecting environment, individuals tend to adopt deactivating strategies to keep the attachment system downregulated, thereby avoiding further distressed by attachment figures' frequent unavailability or disapproval of one's needs (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988). Over time, this results in the denial of attachment needs and the dismissal of threat-related signals. It also prompts the suppression of distressing thoughts and memories, and the avoidance of emotional involvement, intimacy, or dependency in relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Consequently, avoidantly attached individuals view others as unavailable, unresponsive, or punishing (Bowlby, 1973; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005).

Attachment anxiety, on the other hand, is associated with a negative model of the self (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Attachment anxiety develops when attachment figures inconsistently give care and feedback, which results in greater anxiety with regard to whether their attachment figures are available and responsive to them (Brennan et al., 1998). In this inconsistent caregiving environment, individuals tend to adopt hyperactivating strategies—heightens efforts to obtain greater proximity, support, and love combined with lack of confidence that they will be provided (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Over time, those high in attachment anxiety tend to intensify distress experiences (Dozier & Lee, 1995) to elicit others' involvement and support through demanding, clinging, and controlling behaviors (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Furthermore, they are overdependent on relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005) and hypervigilant to social and emotional cues from others

(Fraley et al., 2006), and perception of themselves as relatively helpless and incompetent at regulating emotions (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

Low scores on both orientations indicate a person who is securely attached (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Securely attached individuals possess well-developed internal working models of comfort providing attachment figures (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). Because of the secure internal model, a securely attached person typically exhibits positive views of the self and others in relationships, and confidence in proximity-seeking strategies for coping with threats and regulating distress (Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2011).

Attachment at Work

While the foundational attachment research started in caregiver–child relationships, later research has explored its implications for adults, love relationships (Simpson, Rholes, Oriña, & Grich, 2002; Stackert & Bursik, 2003), friendships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Grabill & Kerns, 2000), and in more recent research, workplace relationships (Harms, 2011), such as co-workers (Geller & Bamberger, 2009), leaders (Davidiovitz et al., 2007; Keller, 2003; Popper, Mayseless, & Castelnovo, 2000; Popper, 2002; Popper & Mayseless, 2003; Popper & Amit, 2009) and leader-follower relationships (Simmons, Gooty, Nelson, & Little, 2009).

Hazan and Shaver (1990) were among the first to apply attachment theory to the workplace. They found that avoidant individuals were most likely to prefer to work alone and to use work as a way to avoid socializing and anxious individuals expected to be undervalued by co-workers. In contrast, securely attached individuals had higher levels of overall work satisfaction (see also Hardy & Barkham, 1994; Krausz, Bizman, & Braslavsky, 2001) and were more confident that others evaluated them favorably (see also Frazier, Gooty, Little, & Nelson, 2015). Further, insecure attachment was positively related to social dysfunction and negatively related to individuals' physical and psychological well-being (Joplin, Nelson, & Quick, 1999). Other organizational research also indicates that both avoidant and anxious attachment orientations have been associated with more negative outcomes, including burnout (Pines, 2004), poor adjustment (Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Krausz, Bizman, & Braslavsky, 2001), reduced citizenship behavior (Richards & Schat, 2011), lower

organizational commitment (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007), relationship difficulties (Hardy & Barkham, 1994), and higher turnover intentions (Richards & Schat, 2011).

In another study, Mikulincer, Shaver and Pereg (2003) found that avoidant and anxious attachment orientations involve distinct behavioral and cognitive rules and strategies that constitute basic forms of emotion regulation, which in turn have consequences for interpersonal interactions and relationships. This interpretation is congruent with research that indicate that attachment orientations are consistently and uniquely associated with emotion-related competencies (e.g., emotion regulation, coping strategies, Karreman & Vingerhoets, 2012; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Richards & Hackett, 2012), affect outcomes (e.g., Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014; Little et al., 2011; Richards & Schat, 2011; Wei, Vogel, Ku, & Zakalik, 2005) and the importance of emotion in leader–follower interactions (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Humphrey, 2002; Keller, 2003; Mayseless, 2010).

Furthermore, studies have documented consistent connections between leaders' attachment orientations and leadership style (Popper et al., 2004; Ronen & Zuroff, 2017), including transformational leadership (Popper et al., 2000), socialized charismatic leadership (Popper, 2002), authentic leadership (Hinojosa et al., 2014; Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015), and relationship-oriented leadership (Davidovitz et al., 2007). Consistent with these findings, Harms et al. (2016), and Keller (2003) described how attachment can help account for individual differences in implicit leadership theories. Additionally, prior research has shown that that attachment orientations are associated with leadership effectiveness (Davidovitz et al., 2007; Molero, Moriano, & Shaver, 2013; Popper et al., 2000; Popper, 2002), leadership qualities (Popper et al., 2004), and work outcomes (Popper & Mayseless, 2003; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012; Wu & Parker, 2017).

Building on the voluminous and compelling literature, it is obvious that individual attachment orientations are unique individual difference attributes that reflect how individuals view themselves and others, and how they regulate their emotions and behave toward others at work. Broad traits (e.g., the Big Five) have been the main concern in previous personality research in organizational settings (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Salgado, 2002). Compared to the broad traits, attachment orientations as unique individual differences in adult attachment trait-like

characteristics have the potential to enhance the understanding of individual functioning at work (Albert et al., 2015). The present study draws upon insights from adult attachment theory to investigate the impact of leader emotional labor strategies on leader and follower well-being. Specifically, I will look at the role of leaders' and followers' attachment orientations as moderators of leader emotional labor in engendering leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, which in turn influences leader and follower well-being outcomes.

In sum, the integrative review above synthesizes research on leader emotional labor, leader authenticity and attachment orientations. On the basis of Conservation of Resources theory, the current study assumes leader authenticity acts as a mediator in the relationships between three forms of leader emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion) and well-being of leaders and followers. The present study also aims to provide a richer and broader understanding of leader emotional labor theory by exploring the link between leader emotional labor to both work-related and non-work related well-being outcomes of leaders and followers (i.e., leaders' and followers' perceptions of leader-member exchange relationship, emotional exhaustion, recovery from work stress, and work-family enrichment). Additionally, the present study draws on attachment theory (Bowlby, 1982) to examine how attachment orientations moderate the effect of leader emotional labor on leader authenticity and, subsequently on leader and follower well-being. The consecutive parts in this chapter will then provide theoretical rationale for mediation hypotheses, moderation hypotheses, as well as moderated mediation hypotheses in the present study.

2.2 Mediation Hypotheses: The Role of Leader Authenticity

The following part focuses on the indirect effects of leader emotional labor on leaders' and followers' well-being through leader authenticity. Specifically, three dimensions of leader emotional labor are identified: surface acting, deep acting and genuine emotion. Using a two-wave longitudinal design, each type of leader emotional labor (Time 1) is proposed to have different effects on leader felt authenticity (Time 1) and follower perceived leader authenticity (Time 1), which will, in turn impact leaders' and followers' well-being (Time 2), respectively. I look at leader-member exchange relationship, emotional exhaustion, recovery and work-family enrichment as key well-being outcomes.

2.2.1 Emotional Labor and Leader Authenticity

Leader Surface Acting and Leader Authenticity

In order to achieve the display of an appropriate emotion, one emotional labor strategy can be employed: surface acting (Grandey, 2000, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting refers to an emotion regulation strategy in which physiological or observable signs of emotion are modified (Grandey, 2000), specifically, it *"involves simulating emotions that are not actually felt, which is accomplished by careful presentation of verbal and nonverbal cues, such as facial expression, gestures, and voice tone"* (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993, p. 92). The essence of surface acting is *"disguising what we feel"* and/or *"pretending to feel what we do not"* (Hochschild, 1983, p. 33). When leaders engage in surface acting, they do not attempt to change their internal emotional state. Rather, they "choke down" unwanted feelings and display the outward expression that matches their desired display, which can create dissonance between their felt and expressed emotions. As surface acting is characterized by prototypical *"acting in bad faith"* (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987, p. 32), in that the emotions shown are intended to deceive other people about what the actor actually feels (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). It not only results in emotional dissonance and therefore, high levels of stress and burnout for the actors, but appears phony to observers (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Erickson & Wharton, 1997; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000).

The fact that leaders may use surface acting to express emotions that they are not actually feeling raises issues about leader felt authenticity. Hochschild (1983) has suggested that dissonance between felt and expressed emotions would generate feelings of separation from self. In support of her assertion, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) were among the first management scholars to argue that surface acting can cause a loss of one's sense of authentic self. Later, Brotheridge and Lee (2002) have explored this issue in considerable depth. One of their significant findings was that a loss or potential loss of resources through surface acting has a great negative impact on one's sense of personal authenticity. This finding is consistent with other research in illustrating that the use of surface acting leads to lower self-authenticity as one's behavior is not authored by the self (Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000; Burch, Batchelor, & Humphrey, 2013; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Grandey, 2003; Goldberg & Grandey, 2007; Shulei & Miner, 2006; Simpson & Stroh, 2004). These researchers have offered the reason why leader surface acting has such harmful effects is because it requires

the display of leaders' emotional façade and provides little support for leaders' authentic self-expression.

Furthermore, followers also reacted negatively to their leaders' surface acting (Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Kafetsios et al., 2012). The results of Moin's (2018) work underline that followers can detect when leaders show inconsistencies between their behavior and their actual self, which includes when leaders are portraying emotions rather than exhibiting true feelings (Grandey et al., 2005; Frank, Ekman, & Friesen, 1993). In such situations, followers are more likely to view leaders as "acting," resulting in unwanted impressions that leaders are callous, insincere and manipulative (Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Thomas et al., 2017). Those leaders are also expected to be perceived as being inauthentic (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Shulei & Miner, 2006), should hinder them in building close and authentic relationships with their followers (Humphrey, 2012; Ilies et al., 2005). Indeed, previous research on emotional labor strategies in the service industry have verified that surface acting is generally ineffective in generating desired audience impressions (Beal et al., 2006; Bono & Vey, 2007; Groth, Hennig-Thurau, & Walsh, 2009). Customers respond more negatively to employees who engage in an inauthentic emotional display (Grandey et al., 2005). Therefore, one might assume that followers will form an unfavorable impression of leaders who use the emotional labor strategy of surface acting and perceive such leaders as more inauthentic and having a more dishonest overall character (Gardner et al., 2009).

Leader Deep acting and Leader Authenticity

Another performance of emotional labor by an individual is deep acting, in which the individual exerts effort to modify underlying feelings to match desired emotional display (Grandey, 2000, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). In contrast to surface acting, which involves deceiving others, deep acting stems from the induction of the required emotion in the self—by change the actual experience of the emotion in terms of taking the observers' perspective (Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983). This form of emotional labor is usually accomplished either through cognitive change approach (i.e., using previous memories and/or imagination to evoke similar emotional experience to that which is desired; Gross, 1998) or through attentional deployment (i.e., shifting attentional focus towards or away from particular aspects of a situation; Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1998). When deep acting, leaders proactively change their feelings to elicit an authentic emotional expression that is consistent with desired

display. For example, when a leader expects to promote a follower, the leader may deliberately reflect on positive thoughts to elicit a positive mood, which subsequently generates natural displays of happiness and enthusiasm. Deep acting has consequently been described as ‘‘acting in good faith” because the display is genuinely linked to inner emotional experiences (Grandey, 2000).

In field and experimental research, deep acting is shown to have little effect on impaired well-being outcomes associated with surface acting (see Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015, for a review). In their meta-analysis, Hülsheger and Schewe (2011) found that deep acting was unrelated to psychological strain or feelings of depersonalization. Further, the meta-analysis indicated that people who engaged in deep acting were also more likely to feel a sense of personal accomplishment. Other researchers also reported positive outcomes related to deep acting such as healthier patterns of affect and social functioning (Bono & Vey, 2005; Grandey, 2003; Wang et al., 2011). Furthermore, in contrast to surface acting, theoretical arguments and empirical findings suggest a positive relationship between leader deep acting and leader felt authenticity (Gardner et al., 2009). In line with Gardner et al.’s propositions, studies have shown the use of deep acting may affirm and reinforce the sense of authenticity (Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000; Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Similarly, Shulei and Miner (2006), and Brotheridge and Lee (2002) revealed that engaging in deep as opposed to surface acting was significantly and positively related to actor feelings of authenticity. Leaders who engage in deep acting try to align required and true feelings. To achieve this goal, leaders can use either attentional deployment or cognitive change to decrease discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions (Grandey, 2000). Consequently, the deep acting strategies result in genuine emotional displays of the required emotions. Although deep acting involves an effortful regulatory process, it does not only result in a resource loss but also in a resource gain (i.e., self-authenticity and rewarding social interactions; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Holman et al., 2008; Hülsheger et al., 2010; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). In addition, a lack of emotional dissonance (implied by deep acting) would be a psychologically protective factor (Zapf, 2002). Therefore, leaders’ sense of authenticity is not compromised.

Furthermore, researchers have argued followers have similar reactions (Humphrey, Ashforth & Diefendorff, 2015), with evidence suggesting that emotions conveyed through deep acting can appear quite genuine to observers (Hunt, Gardner, & Fischer, 2008; Kampa, 2016; Moon,

Hur, & Choi, 2018). As noted previously, deep acting is the process by which leaders try to actually experience the emotions they wish to display (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Subsequently, leader deep acting results in a higher level of display authenticity than leader surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). The high levels of emotional authenticity have been found more effective in fostering favorable audience impressions (Beal et al., 2006; Grandey, 2003; Shulei & Miner, 2006). For example, employees who engage in deep acting have been noted to engender co-worker trust, respect, and positive emotions (Grandey, 2003). These findings suggest that leaders who deep act are more likely to garner favorable impressions from followers and higher levels of perceived authenticity. Two theoretical explanations support this assertion (Moin, 2018). The first explanation is supported by social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976). This theory offers an idea that people are likely to give back favors and kind treatments. In deep acting, leaders' emotional authenticity will signal to followers that leaders are caring and interpersonally sensitive characteristics that trigger liking and in turn, followers' favorable perceptions of leader (i.e., high perceived leader authenticity). The second theoretical explanation is derived from Social Interaction Model of Emotion Regulation (Côté, 2005) and Emotion as Social Information Model (EASI; Van Kleef, 2009, 2010). The two models put forward that leader emotions provide an insight and information to followers about leaders' feelings, attitudes and intentions. Those emotions could also produce an affective reaction to followers in either unfavorable or favorable way depending on how the followers understand and interpret the motives and social situations underlying leader emotions (Moin, 2018). Therefore, if followers interpret leader emotions as authentic it will garner positive reaction from followers. Consequently, followers may show favorable attitudes toward leaders and perceive high levels of leader authenticity.

Leader Genuine Emotion and Leader Authenticity

Finally, whereas surface and deep acting may be used to help leaders when they cannot spontaneously display their appropriate emotions, the possibility remains that naturally occurring emotions can meet display expectations (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Diefendorff and Gosserand (2003) argued that individuals normally express their genuine emotions, and only when this cannot achieve emotional display they desire, they engage in surface acting or deep acting. Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005) developed items to measure the expression of naturally felt emotions, and they found that their items factored

appropriately. Their study extended the structure of emotional labor and incorporated expression of naturally felt emotions as an additional emotional labor strategy, which is different from the originally developed two dimensions: surface acting and deep acting. Diefendorff and colleagues defined genuine expression –as the process of spontaneously experiencing appropriate emotions without efforts. In other words, individuals adopt the expression of naturally felt emotions strategy use their genuine emotion when interacting with others without changing their inner emotion. In the leadership role, for example, a project manager may truly care about instilling an interest in business plan to employees by showing genuine excitement for a new project in a project launch meeting. Researchers have found individuals reported expressing naturally felt emotions more often than they used either surface acting or deep acting (Dahling & Perez, 2010).

Previous research has consistently demonstrated that genuine expression should be negatively related to indicators of impaired well-being (Hoon & Chelladurai, 2017; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007; Zapf, 2002), because the process generates no emotional dissonance (Grandey, 2000), psychological efforts (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015), or a feeling of inauthenticity (Grandey, 2000). In a sample of professors, Mahoney, Buboltz, Buckner and Doverspike (2011) found that professors who express both genuine positive emotions and negative emotions at work tend to experience more positive (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment) and less negative (e.g., emotional exhaustion) work outcomes. Similarly, another study of authentic emotion found no association with emotional exhaustion (Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Genuine emotional display, as an unconscious strategy operating on naturally felt and hence authentic emotions, also facilitates a sense of authenticity (Humphrey, Ashforth & Diefendorff, 2015). Gardner et al.'s (2009) model clarifies that leaders may feel more authentic when engaging in deep acting, but they will still not reach the high levels of felt authenticity when they engage in genuine emotional displays. Parallel to this, empirical findings have confirmed that genuine emotional displays were significantly and positively related to actor feelings of authenticity (McCauley & Gardner, 2016).

Furthermore, followers will also respond most positively to leader display of naturally felt emotion (Humphrey, 2008; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005) observed that leaders genuinely feel emotions consistent with organizational display demands and, in those circumstances, such natural emotions displays are likely to be viewed by followers as genuine and appropriate, resulting in favorable follower impressions along

with high perceived leader authenticity (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2015). Although research on genuine emotional display in leadership is limited (Arnold, Connelly, Walsh, & Martin Ginis, 2015), there are a few interesting results in service context to share. Grandey et al. (2005) found evidence that the expression of naturally felt emotions by employees yields clients' perceptions of friendliness and satisfaction. They also suggested that high levels of perceived friendliness and satisfaction from clients will improve client reaction toward the service encounter and produce a more positive response (Côté, 2005). Furthermore, in a field research, service providers who reported being authentically positive in interactions with their customers engendered higher ratings on their interpersonal demeanor (i.e., friendliness) than their colleagues who were less authentic (Grandey, 2003). Additional support was provided by Hennig-Thurau and colleagues (2006), who demonstrated that employees' authentic emotional display produced high levels of positive affect among clients.

In short, emotional labor enables a leader to develop a differentiated picture of the self and at the same time aids in credibly conveying this picture to followers. The sense of the true self of leaders thus contributes to leader authenticity. Specifically, the present study examines how emotional labor (Time 1) helps leaders to experience a sense of felt authenticity (Time 1), as well as how followers assess leader authenticity based on different emotional labor strategies performed by their leaders (Time 1). Thus:

H1a-b: leader surface acting is negatively related to (H1a) leader felt authenticity and (H1b) follower perceived leader authenticity.

H2a-b: leader deep acting is positively related to (H2a) leader felt authenticity and (H2b) follower perceived leader authenticity.

H3a-b: leader genuine emotion is positively related to (H3a) leader felt authenticity and (H3b) follower perceived leader authenticity.

2.2.2 Leader Authenticity and Leader-Member Exchange Relationship

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

As originally proposed by Graen and colleagues (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden & Graen, 1980), leader–member exchange (LMX) theory is based on the notion that leaders develop unique types of relationships with each of their followers through a series of work-related exchanges. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) noted that *"LMX clearly incorporates an operationalization of a relation-based approach to leadership"* (p. 109), one founded on social exchanges that are mutually beneficial to both leader and follower parties (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Social exchanges can be differentiated from other forms of exchange in that they are voluntary actions that the agent expects to be reciprocated (Blau, 1964). The degree to which each party perceives the exchanges to be fair and equitable ultimately determines the quality of the relationship (Wayne, Shore, & Linden, 1997). Several studies have applied the concept of reciprocity and social exchange theory when investigating the LMX relationship (e.g. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). The social exchange view of LMX suggests that leader-follower interactions lay the foundation for perceptions of the quality of the exchange relationship between leaders and followers (Blau, 1964). The perceptions of LMX held by leaders and followers reflect the expectation that voluntary actions on their part will be reciprocated by the other party in some way (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2007). The history of leader-follower interactions shapes leaders' and followers' perceptions of the nature and quality of those relationships. This history also explains the relationship a leader has with one follower and differentiates it from the relationships that leader has with others (Liden et al., 1997).

In its infancy, LMX researchers categorized the relationship leaders could have with their followers into two groups: the in-group and out-group, more recently referred to as high-quality and low-quality exchanges, respectively (Liden et al., 1997). The quality of LMX depends on the level of confidence leaders and followers have in the other, their level of shared respect, and their perceptions of mutual obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Low-quality exchange relationships are characterized by economic exchange based on formally agreed on, immediate, and balanced reciprocation of tangible assets, such as employment contracts focusing on pay for performance (Blau, 1964). In low-quality exchange

relationships, extra benefits are not provided by the leader. In contrast, high-quality exchange relationships tend to be characterized by high levels of mutual trust and are composed of mutual respect, positive affect and loyalty. Members of high-quality relationships expect mutual exchange, and the exchange of both material and non-material goods extends beyond what is required by the employment contract (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Much research has been conducted, and findings on LMX have shown the value of high-quality leader–member relationships in organizations (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2012). Indeed, the quality of the leader–follower relationship has been found to predict various positive work-related outcomes, including work attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Fisk & Friesen, 2012), and job performance (e.g., Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gooty & Yammarino, 2016).

Leader Authenticity and LMX

Avolio and Gardner (2005) proposed that leaders who are authentic strive for open and truthful relationships in which they behave in accordance with their convictions and beliefs. Their interpersonal behavior is characterized by high levels of integrity, respectability, and truthfulness. These characteristics constitute the central elements of high-quality exchange relationships (Avolio et al., 2004). Similarly, Ilies, Morgeson and Nahrgang (2005) demonstrated that an intimate, trusting and cooperative leader-member relationship is not possible without authenticity. Leader authenticity reflects an interactive and genuine relationship that develops between a leader and a follower, which can nourish positive social exchanges by virtue of building credibility and winning the respect and trust (Ilies et al., 2005).

Leader authenticity theory contends that leader authenticity enables leaders to influence the development and maintenance of leader-follower relationships (Hsiung, 2012; Weischer et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014), where such relationships are based on the principles of social exchange (Morgeson & Hofmann, 1999; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). A social exchange involves the perceived obligations of followers to reciprocate high-quality relationships with their leaders (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). In a theoretical position, leader authenticity focuses on the behaviors of leaders (Gardner et al., 2011); The LMX theory focuses on the mutual relationship between leaders and followers (Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2007). However, whether a leadership behavior is effective should be tested by the leader–member relationship and the performance of employees (Howell & Hall-Merenda 1999; Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010). Leader–follower relationships are

developed in three stages, previously identified by LMX researchers: role taking, role making, and role routinization (Bauer & Green, 1996; Cropanzano, Dasborough, & Weiss, 2017; Graen & Scandura, 1987).

The role taking stage is an iterative process of leader role sending and follower behavior. Leaders try to discover the skills and motivations of their followers. The initial leader-follower interactions are influenced by their attributions (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Gardner et al., 2019). It is during this stage that leader authenticity will begin to become salient to followers (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). The exhibition of leader authenticity can be expected to foster trust between leaders and followers, a pivotal element that must be in place for the development of positive social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964). During the initial role-taking stage, leaders and followers start to refine how they will interact in different social situations and environments, thereby determining the progress of further relationship development.

After this opening encounter, leaders and followers enter the role-making stage, during which both parties undergo a series of transactions. Authentic leaders build integrity and benevolence with their followers by showing consistency between their works and internal moral standards, treating followers sincerely, encouraging open communication, and sharing critical information (Avolio et al., 2004). This should lead to the development of respect, positive affect, and trust–key components of high-quality leader–follower relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Furthermore, research suggests that leaders transparently convey their attributes, values, aspirations, and weaknesses to followers, and encourage followers to do likewise (Robins & Boldero, 2003). Followers who perceive high levels of leader authenticity are theorized to develop of their own capacities for authenticity and engagement in their work (Gardner et al., 2005). As a result, followers of authentic leaders will reciprocate by engaging in behaviors that are consistent with the behaviors and values of their leader (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Such reciprocation will lead to increasingly high levels of intimacy, trust, and goal alignment between leaders and followers, even to the extent of leaders and followers willingly going above and beyond the call of duty (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). In other words, higher quality relationships will be facilitated.

Finally, in the role routinization stage, the LMX relationship is often stable. Mutual expectations become implicitly or explicitly agreed upon and reciprocated gestures of goodwill in the relationships will be largely unaffected by changes in corporate policies or

environmental changes (Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010). In addition, high levels of congruence between the attributes, values, and aspirations of both leader and follower parties helps to maintain high-quality LMX relationships over time (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Robins & Boldero, 2003). Thus, the nature of the relationship between authentic leaders and their followers will be of a stable enduring nature.

The key outcome arising from leader emotional labor is the level of leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity (Gardner et al., 2009). The ability to display true emotions and to be oneself is commonly found in high-quality interpersonal relationships, whereas inauthenticity is more characteristic of low-quality relationships (Clark & Brissette, 2000). It can be argued that leader authenticity associated with leader deep acting and genuine emotions should lead to higher LMX relationship quality. Leaders have been encouraged to use deep acting and genuine emotional display strategies to appear authentic to followers (Gardner et al., 2009). This is also important to members of high-quality leader-member relationships who expect more "real" interactions (Fisk & Friesen, 2012). Consistent with this reasoning, theory and research describes leaders and followers in high-quality exchange relationships as being psychologically close, suggesting that a leader will be less likely to fake or suppress emotions when interacting with followers he or she shares a positive connection with (Clark & Finkel, 2004; Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Glasø & Einarsen, 2008). As a result, leader authenticity will produce higher levels of trust and report higher quality relationships as followers come to see the leader as a genuine and reliable person (Gardner et al., 2005). In contrast, surface acting and its associated inauthenticity and suppression may result in low-quality relational connections between leaders and followers (Semmer, Messerli, & Tschan, 2016). Indeed, inauthenticity is more common in interactions with strangers or those with whom one shares weak relational ties (Clark & Brisette, 2000). Such inauthenticity directly reduces satisfaction (Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Grandey, 2003; Grandey et al., 2005) and perception of relationship quality (Caza, Zhang, Wang, & Bai, 2015; Liu & Perrewe, 2006). That is to say, depending on leader emotional labor strategies, leaders and followers can experience either high or low levels of leader authenticity, which then impact their perceptions of LMX quality. Therefore:

H4 a: leader felt authenticity (Time 1) is positively related to leader perception of LMX (Time 2).

H4 b-d: leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader perception of LMX (H4b), the relationship between leader deep acting and leader perception of LMX (H4c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader perception of LMX (H4d).

H5 a: follower perceived leader authenticity (Time 1) is positively related to follower perception of LMX (Time 2).
H5 b-d: follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower perception of LMX (H5b), the relationship between leader deep acting and follower perception of LMX (H5c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower perception of LMX (H5d).

2.2.3 Leader Authenticity and Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional Exhaustion Theory

Freudenberger (1974) first refers to the excessive energy, strength or resource requirements on individuals, which cause individuals to fail, wear out or become exhausted as burnout. Maslach and Jackson (1981) observed that burnout is a state of physical and psychological exhaustion. The classic conceptualization of burnout proposed by Maslach and colleagues has been widely used, who defined burnout as a syndrome consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996). Emotional exhaustion refers to *"feelings of being overextended and depleted of one's emotional and physical resources"* (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 399). People who are emotionally exhausted feel psychologically and emotionally drained, and may experience physical fatigue (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). In interpersonal interactions, it reflects to excessive emotional demands on individuals during the interactions, which the individual is unable to manage, leading to exhaustion of emotional resources (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Depersonalization refers to feelings of cognitive distance, indifference, or cynicism toward one's job service recipients (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). That is, individuals either pay no heed to people who they interact at work, or view them as objects, producing indifference or emotional distance. Finally, reduced personal accomplishment involves

feelings of inefficacy to successfully complete work demands and a missing sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981).

Among the three components of burnout, emotional exhaustion is *"the central quality of burnout and the most obvious manifestation of this complex syndrome"* (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001, p. 402). It has often been positioned to emerge in the initial development of burnout, thus in turn leading to diminished feelings of personal accomplishment and higher levels of depersonalization (Maslach et al., 1996, 2001). In addition, compared to the other two dimensions of burnout, emotional exhaustion has been found to present the most consistent relations with job-related outcomes (e.g., Goodwin, Groth, & Frenkel, 2011; Laschinger & Fida, 2014). With respect to the psychological and behavioral outcomes of emotional labor, emotional exhaustion is one of the most frequently cited negative consequences of emotional labor strategies (Bono & Vey, 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Therefore, when exploring leaders' and followers' work-related burnout of leader emotional labor, only leaders' and followers' emotional exhaustion will be studied in the present research.

Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory

Because emotional exhaustion can be conceptualized as the loss of resources necessary to respond to work demands (see Schaufeli et al., 2009), Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998) is an appropriate framework for its study (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). As a resource-based theory of stress, COR provides a theoretical explanation for whether, and most importantly how, emotion labor employed in leader-follower interactions contributes to leaders' and followers' emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). COR theory suggests that people strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster valued resources and minimize any threats of resource loss. Resources are anything that individuals personally value; they can be classified into four categories: objects (e.g., house, phone), conditions (e.g., stable employment, good health), personal characteristics (e.g., optimism, self-efficacy), and energies (e.g., vitality). Negative outcomes (e.g., emotional exhaustion) occur when these valued resources are threatened or lost, are considered inadequate to deal with demands or do not yield anticipated returns (Hobfoll, 2002). Although emotional labor may involve an effortful regulatory process (i.e., a resource loss; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002), this present study is to examine the extent to which COR theory enriches the understanding of

how leaders and followers may incorporate social and personal resources (e.g., leader authenticity) into their role performances as means of coping with actual or anticipated resource loss.

Leader Authenticity and Emotional Exhaustion

Leaders play an essential role in shaping work environments which has an important impact on leaders' and followers' experiences with their work, and subsequent their job and health-related outcomes (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008; Schermuly & Meyer, 2016; Yam et al., 2015). For example, leaders' authentic behavior has shown promising results in promoting healthy work conditions such as an authentic climate, higher self-awareness and an internalized moral perspective, all of which subsequently produce more balanced information treatment and higher transparency and relational work in the workplace (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This positive environment, in turn, prevent emotional exhaustion by ensuring that adequate resources are in place to accomplish work goals and that the social climate is conducive to effective working relationships (Baran et al., 2016; Grandey et al., 2012; Laschinger & Fida, 2014; Weiss et al., 2018). Accordingly, the present research builds on Conservation of Resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002) to explain the underlying psychological processes that govern the association between leader authenticity and emotional exhaustion of leaders and followers.

The consistency of leaders' behaviors with their inner thoughts and feelings, and hence being oneself is crucial for leaders' own well-being. Specifically, leader mental depletion is an important mechanism through which authentic leadership behaviors unfolds its positive effect on leaders' mental well-being (Weiss et al., 2018). Individual mental resources leaders can invest in managing their emotions and behaviors, are limited (Baumeister et al., 1998). Thus, the more leaders exert active control over themselves, the more these mental resources deplete (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000).

Generally, the attributes of inauthentic leaders have been shown to increasingly promote certain values to their followers that are not congruent with their own values in impression management efforts (Algera & Lips-Wiersma, 2012). These leaders have a greater need or desire to portray a self that is inconsistent with own inner self. In this regard, a leader who does not act authentically, and who therefore is more likely to engage in impression

management behaviors at work, drain his or her mental resources as the leader experience a strong dissonance from the incongruence of internal states and required displays (Gardner et al., 2009; Grandey, Rupp, & Brice, 2015; Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). As a consequence, this depleting of mental resources leads to perceived emotional exhaustion because work demands are felt to exceed their available resources (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2001). This accords with Weiss et al.'s (2018) multilevel study, which revealed that enacting authentic leadership could reduce leaders' stress.

Furthermore, leader emotional exhaustion is also likely to be influenced by the extent to which they interact with their followers. Followers of authentic leaders are posited to engage in behaviors that are consistent with the behaviors and values of their leader (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). The high levels of congruence between the attributes, values, and aspirations of both parties helps to develop an intimate, trusting and cooperative leader-follower relationship (Avolio et al., 2004; Gardner et al., 2005). Such reciprocal relationship promotes leaders to reduce their own mental and physical efforts and conserve their resources in the smooth and effective interactions. Additionally, leader may even shore up their resources from the positive relationship with followers as the leaders feel more comfortable and empowered to delegate more job responsibilities to the followers (Avolio et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2005).

While leader authenticity has been shown to provide a particularly important protection for leaders themselves against emotional exhaustion (Weiss et al., 2018), leaders' capacity to effectively process information about themselves (their values, beliefs, goals, and feelings) and ability to adjust their behavior in leadership in accordance with their own self (Avolio et al., 2004) also has important consequences for followers' mental well-being. (e.g., Peus et al., 2012). Previous research presents some intriguing evidence that work conditions affect individual emotional exhaustion (Borgogni et al., 2012; Schermuly & Meyer, 2016; Thomas & Lankau, 2009) and found that positive interactions at work even affect employees' physiological systems such as immune, cardiovascular, and neuroendocrine systems (see Heaphy & Dutton, 2008, for a review). Empirical evidence from previous research in healthcare have supported that authentic behavior of nursing leaders was important to nurses' perceptions of conditions in their work environments and contributed to lower levels of emotional exhaustion (e.g., Laschinger et al., 2014, 2015; Vem, Gomam, & Wurim, 2017).

"A supervisor's exemplary behaviors empower subordinates to believe that they can behave in a like manner" (Conger & Kanungo, 1998, p. 479). Social learning theory suggests that individuals learn from observation, and their new behaviors are guided by the consequences of previous behavior (experience) and social learning (Bandura, 1977). As such, the process of social learning describes a potentially powerful mechanism through which leaders' behaviors can influence followers' behaviors (Weiss, 1977). Authentic leaders are likely to represent particularly prominent behavioral role models for followers. As a result of working with authentic leaders, followers will take on the attributes of their leaders via social learning, thereby shape their work behavior to behave in a more authentic manner (Ilies et al., 2005). For that reason, followers who begin to behave and act authentically in the same way as their leaders, and who less involve intense and ongoing efforts to portray a self that is inconsistent with their inner self, conserve their existing stocks of mental resources and thus mitigates follower emotional exhaustion.

In short, the fact that authentic leaders encourage open communication and adhere to their moral values and principles (Walumbwa et al., 2008), which reduces leaders' and followers' mental efforts and conserves their resources in their effective interactions, and thus safeguards work environment against emotional exhaustion (Laschinger et al., 2014, 2015; Weiss et al., 2018). This present study employs COR model (Hobfoll, 1998, 2002) to explore the enriching potential of personal resources in preventing leader and follower emotional exhaustion, augmenting the theory about the mutual gains of leaders and followers from leader authentic behaviors (Laschinger & Fida, 2014).

Integrating the fact that the manner in which leaders performing emotional labor has implications for leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, the following study hypotheses are derived:

H6 a: leader felt authenticity (Time 1) is negatively related to leader emotional exhaustion (Time 2).
H6 b-d: leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader emotional exhaustion (H6b), the relationship between leader deep acting and leader emotional exhaustion (H6c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader emotional exhaustion (H6d).

H7 a: follower perceived leader authenticity (Time 1) is negatively related to follower emotional exhaustion (Time 2).
H7 b-d: follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower emotional exhaustion (H7b), the relationship between leader deep acting and follower emotional exhaustion (H7c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower emotional exhaustion (H7d).

2.2.4 Leader Authenticity and Recovery

Recovery Theory

Recovery is an important concept in the context of job stress and strain. Generally, the process of working requires investing physical and mental resources and regulating the amount of effort expended in order to complete job tasks; inevitably this causes strain reactions, such as fatigue or low positive affect (Totterdell, Wood, & Wall, 2006). As a result of job stress and strain, it is natural for individuals to need a period of recovery to recharge their batteries after a day of work (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Recovery represents a process opposite to the strain processes. The recovery process repairs the negative strain effects. More specifically, recovery refers to a process during which individual functional systems return to pre-stressor levels and in which strain is decreased in restoration of a status of physiological and psychological performance readiness (Meijman & Mulder, 1998; Sonnentag & Natter, 2004).

Recovery may take place during time periods when no further demands are put on the person (Meijman & Mulder, 1998) or when new internal resources (e.g., feelings of control or positive affect) are built up (Hobfoll, 1998). The mechanisms helping recovery are called recovery experiences by Sonnentag and Fritz (2007), and among the four restorative experiences, researchers recognize that two diversionary strategies (i.e., psychological detachment and relaxation) are most relevant and promising for work stress recovery as they aim at avoiding negative or stressful events and at seeking distraction from it (Parkinson & Totterdell, 1999; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005).

Detachment is used to describe an *"individual's sense of being away from the work situation"* (Etzion, Eden, & Lapidot, 1998, p. 579). Psychological detachment implies not

only to be physically absent from work but also to be mentally disengaged in work-related issues or problems (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Empirical evidence reveals that individuals who successfully detached themselves physically and psychologically during off-job time, experienced better mood, less negative affect, and less fatigue (e.g., Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag et al., 2008). Relaxation is another diversionary strategy and is characterized by a low activation and increased positive affect (Stone, Kennedy-Moore, & Neale, 1995). Relaxation may be either a result of deliberately chosen strategies aimed at the relaxation of body and mind such as meditation (Grossman, Niemann, Schmidt, & Walach, 2004), or relaxation may result from less deliberate activities that provide uplift experiences (Kanner et al., 1981). Relaxation is a positive experience at the physical and mental level and should therefore put few social demands on individuals (Tinsley & Eldredge, 1995). According to the Effort-Recovery Model (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), both psychological detachment and relaxation aid recovery because no further demands are made on the functional systems called upon during work.

Furthermore, recovery may take place both at work and after work (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006). The former is known as internal recovery and occurs during time periods which individuals are working (Trougakos, Beal, Green, & Weiss, 2008). The latter is referred to as external recovery and may occur during non-work hours, such as free evenings (Rook & Zijlstra, 2006), weekends (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005), and longer periods of rest like vacations (Westman & Eden, 1997). When it comes to predictors of recovery experiences, empirical studies have mainly focused on activities pursued during non-work hours (see, Sonnentag, Venz, & Casper, 2017, for a review). Despite the insights offered by recovery research emphasize job factors have an impact on if and how people succeed in unwinding and recharging energy (e.g., Kim, Park, & Niu, 2017; Park et al., 2015; Sianoja et al., 2018; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006), less is known about leadership as a key job factor that enables or hinders the recovery process (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). The present study opens a new window into understanding how leader authenticity helps leaders and followers to recuperate and unwind in the context of work and non-work.

Leader Authenticity and Recovery

Job stressors are crucial factors for recovery because they represent the external load that causes negative strain during and after work (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005; Sonnentag, Kuttler,

& Fritz, 2010). It is the load reactions that need to be alleviated during non-work time (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). In another words, what happens at work largely influences the recovery process during off-work time (Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006; Sluiter et al., 1999). Studies have shown that job stressors predicted not only a decrease in psychological detachment over time (Cropley & Purvis, 2003; Grebner, Semmer, & Elfering, 2005; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015), but also a decrease in relaxation recovery experience (Brosschot et al., 2005; Vrijkotte, Van Doornen, & De Geus, 2000). Turning attention to the impact of leader authenticity on leaders' and followers' recovery is necessary for the study of recovery to advance and to further understand the psychological pathway that links mental effort expenditure at work to recovery from work stress.

Authentic leaders' values and behaviors displayed in their organizations accord with their own fundamental values, the risk of cognitive dissonance and the depletion of resources minimized (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Humphrey et al., 2015). That is to say that authentic leaders may experience less job stress than inauthentic leader (Weiss et al., 2018). Furthermore, leader authenticity theory contends that followers of authentic leaders engage in behaviors that are consistent with the behaviors and values of their leader (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Such followers are also unlike to exert active control over themselves to manage their actual and desired communication content, behaviors, and emotions, thereby reducing load reactions such as fatigue or high physiological activation (Sonnentag, 2001). When conditions at work are such that leaders and followers act authentically based on their own values and beliefs, they will have low strain reactions (Ilies et al., 2005; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015; Weiss et al., 2018), thereby finding it easy to detach from work and arrive at a state of relaxation during off-job time (Demerouti et al., 2009; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Put differently, low effort expenditure at work resulting from leader authenticity will be favorably related to leaders' and followers' recovery process during non-work time.

Although job stressors impede leaders' and followers' recovery during and after work, job resources facilitate it: the more resources, the more recovery. Such relationships have been confirmed in diary studies (e.g., Rau, 2006; Sonnentag & Zijlstra, 2006) as well as studies beyond the daily level (e.g., Demerouti et al., 2001; Hawkes, Biggs, & Hegerty, 2017). Drawing upon Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1998, 2002), the present study explores the beneficial effects of leader authenticity as a personal resource on subsequent leaders' and followers' recovery. Such research points to the existence of gain

spirals (Chen, Westman, & Hobfoll, 2015; Hobfoll, 1989) of COR theory associated with leader authenticity. The tenet of gain spirals involves that resources can reinforce each other over time and yield growing resource gains. That is, an initial resource gain (i.e., leader authenticity) leads to a greater availability of resources, which enables future investments of resources and subsequently, generate future resource gains.

Authentic leaders are characterized by high positive psychological capacities of confidence, optimism, hope, and resiliency (Gardner et al., 2011; Luthans & Avolio 2003). They experience more positive affective states through self-awareness and relational orientation than inauthentic leaders (Kernis, 2003). Through social learning (Bandura, 1977) and emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), followers of authentic leaders will develop positive psychological capital and experience more positive affective states, compared to followers of inauthentic leaders (Ilies et al., 2005). That is, authentic leaders not only experience positive moods themselves, but also deliver and contribute to positive moods for their employees (Hsiung, 2012). Such positive psychological capacities and positive moods should reduce psycho-physiological activation, in turn, it will facilitate recovery as mood repair which is one of the core functions of recovery (Fuller et al., 2003). In addition, positive emotions help individuals to restore and generate resources including energy which they can be used in the future to recover from negative emotions and stress (Fredrickson, 2001).

Finally, leader authenticity enables leaders communicate and act upon their fundamental values to shape an environment in which followers can be authentic (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Leroy et al., 2015), and develop positive social exchanges and high-quality work relationships (Ilies et al., 2005). Such social support stemming from authenticity promotes positive, work-related experiences (Heaphy & Dutton, 2008). These work experiences help leaders and followers to generate increasing personal resources (i.e., a sense of authenticity) and reinforce resources over time (Ilies et al., 2005; Weiss et al., 2018), thereby finding it easy to detach from work and arrive at a state of relaxation during off-job time.

Alongside the effects of leader emotional labor on leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity (see Hypotheses 1- 3), the following hypotheses are proposed:

H8 a: leader felt authenticity (Time 1) is positively related to leader recovery (Time 2).

H8 b-d: leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader recovery (H8b), the relationship between leader deep acting and leader recovery (H8c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader recovery (H8d).

H9 a: follower perceived leader authenticity (Time 1) is positively related to follower recovery (Time 2).
H9 b-d: follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower recovery (H9b), the relationship between leader deep acting and follower recovery (H9c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower recovery (H9d).

2.2.5 Leader Authenticity and Work-Family Enrichment

Work-Family Enrichment Theory

The intersection of work and family lives over the past few decades have garnered increasing attention in how individuals manage multiple role memberships (e.g., Barling & Sorensen, 1997; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). The majority of work–family research has focused on a conflict perspective (see review by Eby et al., 2005), which assumes that participating in multiple roles will inevitably cause resource drain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Recently, a growing number of researchers recognize the positive side of the work–family interface (e.g., Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Frone, 2003; Hammer, 2003; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Although numerous constructs have been offered to capture the mechanism of the positive work–family interface, Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) work–family enrichment (WFE) is the most comprehensive frameworks to reflect how work and family benefit each other.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) conceptualized WFE as *"the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role"* (p. 73). More specifically, they identified five types of resources (i.e., skills and perspectives, psychological and physical resources, social-capital resources, flexibility, material resources) that may be acquired in a role, and they also specified two pathways (i.e., an instrumental path and an affective path) by which work and family resources may travel to provide enrichment for the other role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Enrichment occurs when resources gained from role A either

directly promote improved individual performance in role B, referred to as the instrumental path, or indirectly improve performance in role B through positive affect, referred to as the affective path. Based on the theoretical foundation and definition of WFE as laid out by Greenhaus and Powell (2006), Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, and Grzywacz (2006) captured three forms of WFE as how family roles benefit from work roles through psychosocial capital, positive affect, and developmental resources derived from involvement in work.

Work–Home Resources (W-HR) Model

Drawing from work–home resources model (W-HR model, ten Brummelhuis & Bakker 2012), the present research develops a model that links leader authenticity to leaders' and followers' experience of WFE. The W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) uses Conservation of Resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989; 2002) as a starting point for building a theoretical framework regarding the interface between work and home. As a resource-based theory of stress, COR suggests that people strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster valued resources and minimize any threats of resource loss. Resources represent *"those objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies that are valued by the individual"* or that serve as means for their attainment (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Specifically, the W-HR model examines four categories of resources: contextual resources are located outside the self and can be found in the social context (e.g., objects like a house, or social support); personal resources are proximate to the self (e.g., skills, knowledge); key resources are stable management resources that facilitate the selection, alteration, and implementation of other resources (e.g., self-efficacy, self-esteem, optimism); Macro resources relate to characteristics of the larger system (e.g., social and cultural system) (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). The W-HR model applies the general resource gain processes to work and private life domains and defines WFE as when an individual takes the resources created at work and transfers them to the private life domain, generating further positive outcomes in the private life domain (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Build on this view, the present study is concerned with the question of how leader authenticity as a personal resource operates resource generating functions across domains and thereby contributes to leaders' and followers' WFE.

Leader Authenticity and Work-Family Enrichment

With its roots in positive psychology, leader authenticity has been proposed to foster leaders' and followers' health and well-being in organizations (Ilies et al., 2005; Macik-Frey et al., 2009; Weiss et al., 2018). As *"authenticity has a substantial influence on how one lives one's life"* (Ilies et al., 2005, p. 374), extending leader authenticity research to non-work related consequences is possible (Braun & Peus, 2016; Braun & Nieberle, 2017).

First, authentic leaders experience more positive affective states through self-awareness and relational orientation (Kernis, 2003), and tend to frequently express positive other-directed emotions toward inside and outside organizational stakeholders (Michie & Gooty, 2005). Authentic leaders displaying positive emotions are likely to promote positivity not only in themselves, but also among their followers (Johnson, 2008). Through constant interaction and emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), positive emotions experienced by authentic leaders may spread and reverberate to facilitate the emotional and cognitive development of followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ilies et al., 2005). Indeed, studies have shown authentic leaders' positive emotions were especially infectious and created positive upward spirals in organizational learning and transformation (Frederickson, 2003), and closely linked to the affective tone of their work group (Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005). Research on the affective dimension of WFE indicates that positive moods and emotions at work can facilitate individuals' other roles (Carlson et al., 2006), that is, *"when involvement in work results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual to be a better family member"* (Carlson et al., 2006, 140). The W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012) further explains that accumulating personal resources at work increases the likelihood that WFE occurs. That is to say, authentic leaders and followers with positive emotion generation at work are more likely to share positive emotions with their family members (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2014), have an optimistic outlook at home (Cassell, 2002; Frijda, Manstead, & Bem, 2000; Masuda, McNall, Allen, & Nicklin, 2012), thereby facilitating the process of WFE.

Second, conceptually rooted in positive psychology, positive psychological resources are inherent qualities of authentic leaders (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Luthans and Avolio (2003) described authentic leaders as leaders who are *"confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and give priority to developing associates to be*

leaders" (p. 242). Above and beyond leaders' own positive psychology, authentic leaders instil key resources in followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio et al., 2004). The notion has received support in empirical studies (e.g., Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Rego et al., 2012; Rego, Sousa, Marques, & Cunha, 2014). For example, a study by Laschinger et al. (2015) found that authentic leaders foster new graduate nurses' professional confidence and occupational coping self-efficacy by providing them with a supportive and healthy work environment. Furthermore, Avolio et al. (2004) and Ilies et al. (2005) pointed out that the influence of authentic leadership on work attitudes is powerful and motivational through personal and organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), which improve work engagement (Laschinger et al., 2015). Leaders and followers who are engaged in their work are able to fully and happily concentrate on their family tasks (Siu et al., 2010). In line with the stated findings and the W-HR model, the present study argues that leader authenticity nurtures leaders' and followers' key resources (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience; Luthans & Avolio, 2003) at work, thereby enriching their individual private life domains (Carlson et al., 2006).

Third, leader authenticity contributes to positive self- development of leaders and followers through *"a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate"* (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 94). Authentic leaders lead by example (i.e., role modeling) as they display honesty, integrity, and high ethical standards, thereby influencing followers' feelings of identification with the leader and the organization (Avolio et al., 2004). Followers' personal and organizational identification will influence followers to act more authentic themselves (Avolio et al., 2004; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). This authentic manner holds not only for a narrower job context, but also for life in general. Behaviors engaged or experienced at work have been found to directly influence individual performance in private life. As an example, it has been demonstrated that followers who suffer abusive supervision at work are more likely to engage in acts of displaced aggression such as undermining family members in the private life domain (Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Consistently, the results of Sanz-Vergel, Rodríguez-Muñoz, Bakker, and Demerouti's (2012) multilevel analyses show that daily surface acting at work has an indirect relationship with daily well-being through daily surface acting at home. The instrumental path of WFE also recognizes that behaviors accumulated at work can directly promote high performance at home (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Thus, authentic leaders and followers can be expected to

display high levels of transparency, integrity, and moral standards at home. In doing so it promotes positive and growth-related experiences between work and private life domains.

In addition, leader authenticity results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and followers (Ilies et al., 2005), stimulating an enrichment resource for leaders and followers that will guide them in the quest for work–life enrichment. In line with this reasoning, evidence from a correlational field study and an experimental study supported that authentic leaders are capable of promoting their own and others' self-awareness and self-regulated action for the management of work–life balance (Braun & Peus, 2016). Further, leader authenticity acts as a vital resource for leaders and followers in creating supportive work environments (Avolio et al., 2004; Gardner et al., 2005), for example, authentic leaders tend to support followers who seek to establish a positive balance between needs of their private and professional life domains. By providing with different types of social support at work, both leaders and followers feel supported to extend their own resources to successfully pursue their roles and responsibilities in their private life domain (Braun & Nieberle, 2017).

To summarize, in this section I apply W-HR model to frame leader authenticity as a resource, and then link leader authenticity to leaders' and followers' positive perceptions of WFE. Integrating the effect of leader emotional labor on leader authenticity, I therefore propose:

H10 a: leader felt authenticity (Time 1) is positively related to leader WFE (Time 2).
H10 b-d: leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader WFE (H10b), the relationship between leader deep acting and leader WFE (H10c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader WFE (H10d).

H11 a: follower perceived leader authenticity (Time 1) is positively related to follower WFE (Time 2).
H11 b-d: follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower WFE (H11b), the relationship between leader deep acting and follower WFE (H11c), and the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower WFE (H11d).

2.3 Moderated Mediation Hypotheses: The Role of Attachment Orientations

In the following part, I detail how leaders' and followers' two attachment orientations (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) will interact with the effect of leader emotional labor somewhat differently in influencing leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity. Specifically, this part is laid in four sections: (1) the moderating effects of leader attachment orientations in the relationship between leader emotional labor and leader felt authenticity, (2) the moderating effects of leader attachment orientations in the relationship between leader emotional labor and follower perceived leader authenticity, (3) the moderating effects of follower attachment orientations in the relationship between leader emotional labor and follower perceived leader authenticity, and (4) addressing moderated mediation hypotheses.

2.3.1 Leader Attachment as Moderators between Leader EL and Leader Felt Authenticity

The section aims to demonstrate how attachment theory can be utilized to better understand the interactive nature of leader emotional labor and leaders' sense of authentic self. In extending the implications of attachment for emotional labor-leader authenticity, the present study is guided by existing research that acknowledges emotion processes and correlates of leaders' attachment orientations especially within leader–follower interactions (e.g., Kafetsios, Athanasiadou & Dimou, 2014; Richards & Hackett, 2012). Furthermore, studies have repeatedly discovered associations between individual differences in attachment-system functioning and an individual's perceptions of oneself (e.g., what one thinks about one's ability to handle challenges and threats, one's own value in relationships, one's "likability"; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). Accordingly, the present section extends this line of research by examining the joint effects of leaders' attachment orientations (anxious and avoidant attachment) and leader emotional labor on leader self-reported personal authenticity.

Leader Attachment Anxiety as a Moderator

Leader attachment anxiety is integral part of a leader's regulatory efforts, and individual differences in attachment system functioning influence how a leader appraises emotion-eliciting events and regulate the experience and enactment of emotions (Shaver et al., 1987).

Attachment-related differences in the experience of emotions have been noted in studies of the emotion expression. For example, Sonnby-Borgstrom and Jonsson (2003) exposed people to pictures of happy and angry faces, measured the activity of the participants' smile and frown muscles, and found that anxiously attached individuals had more active "frown" muscles when viewing either happy or angry faces. Further, using Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS), several studies found that attachment anxiety is associated with lower positive affect scores (e.g., Barry, Lakey, & Orehek, 2007; Mikulincer & Rom, 2003; Wearden, Lamberton, Crook, & Walsh, 2005). In the same vein, leaders' anxious attachment orientation is associated with lower job satisfaction and higher negative affect at the workplace (Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014). This pattern of results was also observed in other studies (e.g., Pines, 2004; Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2009; Ronen & Baldwin, 2010; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012).

In addition, adult attachment researchers found that anxious individuals tend to hyperactivate the attachment system and over-emphasize needs for support (Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2011). Specifically, attachment anxiety, reflects the degree to which individuals worry that other people will not be available in times of distress and therefore engage in hyperactivating attachment strategies (e.g., an insatiable need for care and support from others) as a means of regulating distress and coping with threats (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). Hence, leaders who score high on measures of anxious attachment may amplify their negative emotions in hopes of gaining others' attention and support, and in so doing they are likely to inhibit adaptive emotion regulation strategies (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016).

Indeed, research on the link between attachment anxiety and emotional labor reveals that anxious individuals are postulated to increase hyper-activation of the attachment system (Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2011), and rely on emotion regulation strategies such as hypervigilance (Ben-Naim et al., 2013; Mayseless, 2010; Mikulincer, Dolev, & Shaver, 2004). That is to say, leaders high on attachment anxiety likely appraise threats as extreme, ruminate on disturbing thoughts, and often unable to effectively regulate their own negative thoughts and feelings at work. This interpretation is congruent with findings that show that leaders' anxious attachment orientation was positively associated with own emotion suppression (surface acting; Kafetsios et al., 2014; Richards & Hackett, 2012) and negatively associated with emotion reappraisal (deep acting; Karreman & Vingerhoets, 2012; Kafetsios et al., 2014).

Furthermore, anxiously attached leaders tend to be preoccupied with relationships and with meeting their job requirements (Hardy & Barkham, 1994; Hazan & Shaver, 1990), adopting behaviors aimed at eliciting affection and support from others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). These preoccupations absorb their discretionary time and effort, in turn may result in limited capacity or motivation to engage in discretionary behaviors that are beneficial to others (Collins & Feeney, 2000; Gillath et al., 2005; Mikulincer & Rom, 2003; Richards & Schat, 2011; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012). Davidovitz et al. (2007) extended this rationale to leadership and contended that leaders' attachment anxiety was associated with more self-serving leadership motives. That is, leaders scoring high on attachment anxiety tended to seek the role of leader as a means of satisfying their unfulfilled needs for support and their desires to be accepted and reassured. Anxious leaders' need to obtain security and to care for themselves can override their need to identify and engage in effective emotional labor strategies that may be helpful to followers.

Additionally, attachment orientations are related to individuals' beliefs and expectations about their ability to resist stress or cope effectively with threatening events. Studies have consistently shown that anxiously attached individuals tend to over-emphasize the threatening aspects of stressful events and to perceive themselves as unable to cope effectively with threats (see Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016, for a review). They also have difficulty constructing an authentic and stable sense of self-worth (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). Anxious individuals are consistently found to hold relatively negative self-evaluations (Srivastava & Beer, 2005) and low self-esteem (Schmitt & Allik, 2005; Wu, 2009). For example, leaders who are high on the anxious attachment dimension demonstrated lower levels of social self-efficacy (Gecas, 1989), and consequently, engaged in higher levels of abusive supervision (Robertson, Dionisi, & Barling, 2018). For this reason, I expect anxiously attached leader will lack confidence in being able to manage their emotions during leader-follower interactions. These leaders may have difficulty staying focused on goals, controlling impulsive behaviors, and distinguishing, acknowledging, and accepting their emotions during times of adversity. The notion accords with previous research establishing attachment anxiety as a foundation for ineffective emotion regulation (Kafetsios et al., 2016; Karreman & Vingerhoets, 2012; Richards & Hackett, 2012) and linking maladaptive emotion regulation with negative leadership perception (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009).

In brief, anxiously attached leaders tend to experience greater negative emotions because of their hyper-vigilance and their inability to effectively manage distress through internal resilience. Also, anxious leaders have a negative view of themselves and lack of confidence in their own leadership abilities. These suggest leader attachment anxiety represents the degree to which leaders are attuned to followers and situational demands for emotional and expressive behaviors. Therefore, I propose that leader attachment anxiety will influence their effectiveness in selecting and executing emotional displays that promote their felt authenticity:

H12 a-c: leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on leader felt authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger when leader attachment anxiety is high (H12a); the effect of leader deep acting on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment anxiety is high (H12b); the effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment anxiety is high (H12c).

Leader Attachment Avoidance as a Moderator

The emotion regulation aspects of attachment strategies have been studied with respect to the way individuals experience, appraise, and emotionally react to a wide variety of stressful events (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). Like anxious people, who tend to experience greater negative emotions and amplify their negative emotions, avoidantly attached individuals typically experience more negative emotions and exaggerating the impact of stressful events (see, Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016, for a review). Further measures of attachment avoidance has been negatively correlated with measures of positive affect. For example, attachment avoidance was associated with fewer positive emotions during group interactions (Mikulincer & Rom, 2003). Also, when videotaping participants during an emotion-induction procedure, avoidantly attached people expressed less joy according to coded facial expressions (Magai, Hunziker, Mesias, & Culver, 2000). Similarly, Cohen and Shaver (2004) studied hemispheric asymmetries associated with adult attachment, discovering that avoidant people reported positive emotion less intensely and had difficulty processing positive attachment-related information in the right hemisphere. Likewise, as applied to work contexts, leaders' avoidant attachment orientation was associated with lower job satisfaction and higher negative affect (Kafetsios, Athanasiadou & Dimou, 2014; Richards & Hackett, 2012).

With regard to threat appraisals, most studies have found that avoidant people, like anxious people, often appraise stressful events as highly threatening (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). Reizer et al. (2010) found that avoidantly attached people tend to appraise stressful events in catastrophic ways among couples living in life-endangering areas of Israel. This is reminiscent of a longitudinal study by Berant, Mikulincer, and Florian (2001) showing that attachment avoidance predicted increasingly pessimistic appraisals of negative events over a 1-year period. However, unlike anxious people, who view negative emotions as congruent with attachment goals and therefore amplify their negative emotions in hopes of capturing others' attention, avoidant people tend to perceive these emotions as goal-incongruent states that should be suppressed (Cassidy, 1994). Avoidant attachment is organized around deactivating strategies (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988)—involve denial of attachment needs and avoidance of emotional involvement, intimacy, or dependency in relationships. For avoidant people, emotions are best suppressed rather than used flexibly in the regulation of behavior, presumably because they learned from previously inattentive and unresponsive interactions that proximity seeking will result in disappointment or even punishment (Mikulincer et al., 2009). Therefore, avoidant individuals do not allow emotion to flow freely and be acknowledged consciously. They inhibit emotional states that are incongruent with the goal of keeping the attachment system deactivated (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). In fact, avoidantly attached people have been described as defensive about emotional experiences; they exhibit evidence of directing attention away from threatening information (i.e., pre-emptive defences; Fraley, Garner, & Shaver, 2000) and suppressing activation of attachment-related thoughts (Fraley & Shaver, 1997; Gentzler & Kerns, 2006).

As implied above, the deactivation of the attachment system is particularly relevant to the tendency of avoidant leaders to manufacture emotional displays (Mikulincer et al., 2003). For example, leaders who score high on attachment avoidance are more likely to use surface acting (Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014; Richards & Hackett, 2012) as they are prone to distancing themselves from experiencing emotions (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003; Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Specifically, avoidant leaders' coping strategies are organized around *"a rapid fight–flight schema"* (Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2011, p.3). They involve rapid self-protective responses to stressful events without examining their own emotions, thus, surface act in order to make the rapid self-protective responses (Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2011; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Furthermore, the avoidant approach to emotion regulation interferes with support providing and reappraisal. Avoidant leaders are often described as inattentive to their followers and ineffective in providing emotional support (Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012). They prefer to avoid closeness and interdependence, and use work to avoid social interaction, thereby inhibiting their opportunity to notice and response to followers' emotional needs (Harms, Bai, & Han, 2016; Keller & Cacioppe, 2001; Leiter et al., 2015). Additionally, avoidant leaders are characterized by a belief that others are not worth engaging in relationships with and consequently, are unlikely to see the value in supporting followers (Harms, Bai, & Han, 2016). Moreover, they may have difficulty with more functional emotional labor strategies (e.g., deep acting), because the cognitive strategy requires recognizing threats and errors that avoidant people prefer to deny. Avoidant leaders' regulatory strategies consist of suppressing emotion-related thoughts and memories, diverting attention from the emotional aspects of difficult experiences (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003; Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002), which may circumvent their opportunity to deep act and display genuine emotions. Put differently, leaders high on attachment avoidance are inclined to leaving unacknowledged their emotions and therefore they are presented with fewer opportunities to employ effective emotional labor strategies (Richards & Hackett, 2012).

Together, the above findings suggest that leader attachment avoidance will impede leaders' selecting and executing of more functional emotional labor strategies (i.e., avoidant leaders tend to engage in surface acting, and disengage in deep acting and genuine emotion) that influences their self-perceptions of authenticity. Formally, I hypothesize that leader attachment avoidance will serve as a moderator of leader emotional labor to a leader's sense of authentic self:

H13 a-c: leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on leader felt authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger when leader attachment avoidance is high (H13a); the effect of leader deep acting on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment avoidance is high (H13b); the effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment avoidance is high (H13c).

2.3.2 Leader Attachment as Moderators between Leader EL and Follower Perceived Leader Authenticity

This section reasons that leader attachment will be an especially powerful influence on the relationship of leader emotional labor and follower perceived leader authenticity. This prediction derives from recent studies, which analyzed leadership from an attachment perspective (e.g., for reviews, see Fein, Benea, Idzadikhah, & Tziner, 2020). The first argument for an alignment between attachment orientations and leadership is based upon the idea that leadership processes involve individual differences in adult attachment trait-like characteristics (i.e., attachment orientations) and the effects those individual differences have for leader–follower interactions and follower perceptions (e.g., Ben-Naim et al., 2013; Kafetsios, Athanasiadou & Dimou, 2014; Kafetsios et al., 2016; Richards & Hackett, 2012). The second argument is that attachment plays a key role in the type of leadership one adopts and the quality of support this person can provide to followers (e.g., Davidovitz et al., 2007; Harms, Bai, & Han, 2016; Hinojosa et al., 2014; Popper & Amit, 2009; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012). In brief, those seminal attempts to apply attachment theory to the leadership domain suggest that the attachment orientations of leaders could act as moderators of leader emotional labor–follower perceived leader authenticity. Below, I elaborate the moderation hypotheses for leader attachment anxiety and avoidance.

Leader Attachment Anxiety as a Moderator

In order to support followers to achieve organizational goals, leaders are supposed to manage their emotions in the planning, directing, and motivating processes with emotional labor (Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016). According to control theory of emotional labor (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003), anxious leaders are more likely to be ineffective in managing their emotional expressions and providing adequate support and care for followers.

First, it might be too effortful for anxious leaders to express expected emotions. Anxious attachment orientation involves distinct behavioral and cognitive rules and strategies that constitute basic forms of emotional labor (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Those attachment differences in emotional labor capabilities have consequences for interpersonal interactions and leadership perceptions (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009). Research on the link between attachment anxiety and emotional labor reveals that individuals scoring high on attachment-related anxiety are postulated to increase hyper-activation of the attachment

system (Ein-Dor, Mikulincer, & Shaver, 2011; Mikulincer, Birnbaum, Woddis, & Nachmias, 2000), rely on emotion regulation strategies such as hypervigilance (Ben-Naim et al., 2013; Mayseless, 2010; Mikulincer, Dolev, & Shaver, 2004), and involve emotional and hypersensitive proximity-seeking reactions (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991; Reizer, Ein-Dor, & Possick, 2012). That is, in stressful situations, anxiously attached leaders therefore exaggerate appraisals of threat and react to threats before others do, and often unable to use effective emotional labor strategies (e.g., deep acting) to regulate their own negative thoughts and feelings, thereby disclosing them indiscriminately to their others. As mentioned before, leaders' anxious attachment orientation was positively associated with surface acting (Kafetsios et al., 2014; Richards & Hackett, 2012) and negatively related to deep acting (Karreman & Vingerhoets, 2012; Kafetsios et al., 2014; Kafetsios et al., 2016). However, evidence for anxiety attachment orientation differences in emotional labor at work, and as leadership characteristics in particular, is limited. This current study sheds light on the possible moderating role of leader attachment anxiety. Based on the reviewed literature, leader attachment anxiety represents a crucial element of how leaders convey emotions to their followers. Therefore, I expect that leader attachment anxiety represents a boundary condition for the relation between leader emotional labor and follower perceived leader authenticity.

Second, anxious leaders may be unwilling to commit to emotional labor. As mentioned before, the internal working model of anxious individuals is characterized by uncertainty as to whether other people will be available, responsive, or helpful when called upon (Mikulincer, 1998). At work, anxiously attached leaders tend to be preoccupied with relationships and with meeting their job requirements (Hardy & Barkham, 1994; Hazan & Shaver, 1990), adopting behaviors aimed at eliciting affection and support from others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). These preoccupations absorb their discretionary time and effort, in turn may result in limited capacity or motivation to engage in discretionary behaviors that are beneficial to followers (Davidovitz et al., 2007). Previous studies have indicated that high level of attachment anxiety is related to limited and ineffective caregiving (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000; Gillath et al., 2005; Mikulincer et al., 2005; Mikulincer & Rom, 2003; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012), and that anxious individuals exhibit less instrumental help to co-workers (Geller & Bamberger, 2009).

Leader emotional labor is motivated by the need to avoid negative consequences or to acquire positive outcomes in followers (Diefendorff & Croyle, 2008). Likewise, in current study, when leader emotional displays are honest and authentic and lack of manipulative motives, they will bring a positive affective reaction among followers (Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005). Anxious leaders' need to obtain security and to care for themselves can override their need to provide help and assistance to their followers, thereby compromising their ability to consider the concerns of followers or identify and engage in emotional labor that may be helpful to followers. For this reason, I examine the effect of leader emotional labor on follower perceived leader authenticity will be moderated by leader attachment anxiety.

Another explanation for the moderating effect of leader attachment anxiety, could be that leaders' hyperactivating strategy has implications for followers' perceptions of the leaders (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). Leaders high in attachment anxiety are characterized by low self-esteem, indecisiveness, and unassertiveness (Lopez & Gormley, 2002; Mikulincer & Shave, 2007; Neustadt et al., 2006) Their negative models of self reveal their lack of confidence in their own leadership abilities (Davidovitz et al., 2007). In turn, leaders' attachment anxiety and self-doubts erode followers' confidence in leaders' abilities (Keller, 2003; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Further, there is evidence that anxiously attached leaders tend to overtly disclose their inner feeling of weakness and helplessness to others (e.g., Keelan, Dion, & Dion, 1998; Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991; Pistole, 1993). Overdisclosure can impede relationship formation (Collins & Miller, 1994; Kirrane et al., 2019) and decrease followers' likability (Srivastava & Beer, 2005). Indeed, anxious leaders are likely to focus on their own disclosures, without fully listening to or responding to the disclosures of their followers, the resultant leader-follower relationship will be lack of reciprocal transparency found in authentic relationships (Hinojosa et al., 2014). Other work, although limited, has also attempted to examine the effect of leader attachment anxiety on follower work experience (e.g., manifesting follower's job satisfaction; Hudson, 2013; Kafetsios et al., 2014; Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012). Together, the argument here is that leader attachment anxiety represents a key moderator of the impact of leader emotional labor on follower perceived leader authenticity:

H14 a-c: leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger when leader attachment anxiety is high (H14a); the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived

leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment anxiety is high (H14b); the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment anxiety is high (H14c).

Leader Attachment Avoidance as a Moderator

Another route of leader emotional labor on followers' perception of leader authenticity may depend on leader attachment avoidance. Leader attachment avoidance can critically moderate leaders' behaviors, traits, and emotional effects on followers' leadership perceptions (for reviews, see Fein, Benea, Idzadikhah, & Tziner, 2020). As has been effectively argued (Kafetsios, 2004) attachment is related to emotion management abilities in the general population. Avoidantly attached individuals desire to deactivate proximity seeking because a negative view of others results in expectations that proximity seeking will result in disappointment or even punishment (Mikulincer et al., 2009). Therefore, avoidant attachment orientation is typically associated with the deactivation of the attachment system and with suppressing and limiting accessibility to emotional memories and thoughts (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). It is likely then, that avoidantly attached individuals often employ surface acting (Gross & John, 2003) and related research found that leaders' avoidant attachment orientation is associated with own emotion suppression (surface acting; Richards & Schat, 2011; Richards & Hackett, 2012). Further, as attachment avoidant individuals are inclined to divert their attention from or to deny the emotional aspects of difficult experiences (Mikulincer et al., 2003; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002) which may circumvent the opportunity to use deep acting (Karreman & Vingerhoets, 2012; Richards & Hackett, 2012). These findings are consistent with the predictions of control theory of emotional labor (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003) that imply avoidant leaders are likely to be ineffective in employing emotional labor strategies and providing adequate support and care for followers.

Leadership theory suggests that authentic leadership behavior depends fundamentally upon leaders' social capabilities or relational competencies that include behaviors such as guidance and support provision to followers (e.g., Humphrey, 2012; Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2013). Supportive behaviors of leaders can be evident in such contexts as managing their emotional displays to foster the proper state of mind in followers and call for a coordination of mind and feelings (Humphrey, Burch, & Adams, 2016). Recent findings indicate that

followers' perception of leader emotional displays as appropriate and authentic to serve in a leadership position is a strong predictor of followers' perception of leader authenticity (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009).

As mentioned before, avoidant leaders are often described as inattentive to their followers and ineffective in providing emotional support (Ronen & Mikulincer, 2012). In the workplace, avoidant leaders may prefer to focus on their own task performance, disengage from social activities, and use work to avoid social interaction (Hardy & Barkham, 1994; Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Richards & Schat, 2012). Such detachment behaviors will inhibit their opportunity to notice and response to followers' needs. In another words, caring and supportive behaviors require a social context for their initiation and execution that is likely unavailable to the avoidant leaders. In addition, avoidantly attached individuals are characterized by a belief that others are not worth engaging in relationships with and, as a result, are unlikely to see the value in supporting others (Harms, Bai, & Han, 2016; Little et al., 2011). These findings parallel the negative association between avoidance and helping observed in nonwork contexts (Geller & Bamberger, 2009; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003, 2007). For example, Shaver, Mikulincer, and Shemesh-Iron (2009) found that attachment avoidance is related to a nonoptimal caregiving orientation - deactivation of caregiving behaviors, which means they emotionally detach themselves from situations that require caregiving behaviors. Taken together, avoidant leaders' negative models of others may keep them isolated from followers and ignore followers' emotional needs, which in turn may result in followers feeling disenfranchised with such leaders and reporting low level of leader authenticity.

As implied earlier, avoidantly attached individuals tend not to trust others as a result of their earlier experiences of caregivers' non-responsiveness (Harms, Bai, & Han, 2016; Leiter et al., 2015; Shaver, Collins, & Clark, 1996). Such cognitions hamper these individuals to build healthy relationships in a variety of social situations, including work (Keller & Cacioppe, 2001). Indeed, avoidant leaders are unreceptive to developing high-quality LMX relationships with their followers (Kirrane et al., 2019; Richards & Hackett, 2012). These results were explained with reference to avoidant leaders' rigid disinterest in relationships in general and lack of engagement in sense-making (Keller, 2003). Consequently, such leaders are viewed by followers as distant and unworthy of respect, affect and relationship building contributions that strengthen leader-follower relationship (Richards & Hackett, 2012).

Moreover, avoidant leaders are preoccupied with demonstrating their self-reliance and superiority and are usually controlling and self-serving (Cassidy & Shaver, 2008). Accordingly, these leaders may ignore the caring and supportive responsibilities of their leadership role (Johnston, 2000; Riley, 2011). This interpretation is congruent with Davidovitz et al.'s (2007) findings that show avoidant leaders enjoy a power advantage, avoid close interaction and relational transparency, and put their own interests ahead of their followers' needs (Davidovitz et al., 2007). Emotional traits signifying psychological distance are related to viewing those individuals of high status expressing them as less effective (Kafetsios, Nezlek, & Vassiou, 2011). Hence, low level of follower perceived leader authenticity in this case stems from avoidant leaders exhibit low level of effective emotional support. In addition, Davidovitz et al. (2007) found in the Israeli military that avoidant officers' lack of socialised leadership behaviors and their poor dealings with soldiers' emotional needs have a detrimental effect upon soldiers' group cohesion. They suggest that officers' avoidant attachment may alienate and demoralise soldiers, reduce their enthusiasm for each other and for team tasks, and leave soldiers feeling dissatisfied. Altogether, although the interaction effect of leader attachment avoidance and leader emotional labor on leader authenticity has not previously been examined, above studies provide evidence that pave the way for related hypotheses:

H15 a-c: leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity, such that the negative relationship is stronger when leader attachment avoidance is high (H15a); the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment avoidance is high (H15b); the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when leader attachment avoidance is high (H15c).

2.3.3 Follower Attachment as Moderators between Leader EL and Follower Perceived Leader Authenticity

An emerging literature has applied attachment theory, one of the more comprehensive frameworks for interpersonal functioning, to understand leader–follower dynamics (Yip et al., 2018). Researchers have shown that individuals' internal working models of attachment associated with individual differences in processing social information (Dykas & Cassidy,

2011). Organizational research further highlights that attachment orientations of followers may influence their relationships with leaders (see Fein et al., 2020, for a review) and can even serve as a perceptual filter to shape leadership perceptions (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2004; Game & Crawshaw, 2017). For example, one exploratory laboratory study found that follower attachment needs distorted leadership perceptions, whereby followers reported transformational leadership, even though it was absent (Hansbrough, 2012). In addition, the interaction of supervisor support and worker adult attachment orientations significantly predicted work-related strain (Schirmer & Lopez, 2001). Yet, existing research has neglected leader emotional labor and correlates of follower attachment to leader authenticity (Hinojosa et al., 2014; Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015; Richards & Hackett, 2012). The section extends this line of research by exploring the extent to which leader emotional labor to follower perceived leader authenticity is related may vary for followers with different attachment orientations.

Follower Attachment Anxiety as a Moderator

Attachment anxiety is characterized by a tendency to be hypersensitivity to social and emotional cues from others (Fraley et al., 2006). Anxious individuals exaggerate threat appraisals and heightens focus on negative emotions, which can create more negative views of others (Mikulincer et al., 2003). Since much of leadership is a process of social interaction in which leaders attempt to engender desired emotions and behaviors from followers (Yukl, 2002), how leaders display their emotions (i.e., emotional labor) becomes an important consideration (Humphrey, 2012). Furthermore, Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) found that leader emotional labor are typically more important to followers than the objective content of their communication. What must be kept in mind, however, is that followers' attitudinal and behavioral responses are not only influenced by the valence of leader emotional displays, but also by the follower's own perceptions and understanding of the motives underlying those displays (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002).

In general, anxious adults have shown more hostile attributions of others' behaviors (Mikulincer, 1998; Pereg & Mikulincer, 2004). As applied to non-work contexts, attachment anxiety has been linked to reduced relationship satisfaction (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007; Pereg & Mikulincer, 2001). Collins and Feeney (2004), for example, reported that increases in attachment anxiety were associated with a greater likelihood that adults would perceive

ambiguous forms of social support from real-life romantic partners as less helpful and less well intended. Extending this research to the workplace, anxiously attached followers may also hold a negative view of others (Ding et al., 2018; Mikulincer et al., 2003). This suggestion is supported by Mikulincer and Rom (2003) who found that adults with an anxious attachment held negative expectations of group interaction. Additionally, findings by Schirmer and Lopez (2001) indicated that when followers rated their leader as lacking in supportive behavior, anxiously attached followers reported significantly more stress and lower job satisfaction. These findings lend considerable support to the notion that followers perceive leaders in a schematically biased way as a function of attachment. That is, rather than taking in the full picture of their leaders' ability, integrity and benevolence, anxious followers are likely to recall specific instances where their leader emotional labor (e.g., surface acting) demonstrated inauthenticity and use that information to shape their general leader authenticity perceptions.

Furthermore, adults with anxious attachment orientation have a strong desire for interpersonal closeness (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Boatwright, Lopez, Sauer, VanDerWege, and Huber (2010), using data collected from 617 workers in a retail organization, examined attachment orientations and leadership behavior preferences, and found that both anxiously attached workers and securely attached workers expressed significantly strong ideal preferences for relationship-oriented leadership. Consistent with this, anxiously attached followers are more likely to desire a sense of closeness with leaders at work (Kirrane et al., 2019; Popper et al., 2000). Research indicates that when attempts to win closeness at work fail, followers with anxious attachment orientation report more work difficulties such as higher negative perceptions of group cohesion and support from leaders (Davidovitz et al., 2007) and lower ratings of LMX quality (Richards & Hackett, 2012). To the extent closeness is traditionally associated with truth and honesty, leader emotional labor, particularly surface acting and its associated inauthenticity will directly conflict with the kind of expressions anxiously attached followers might expect to receive from their leader (Fisk & Friesen, 2012). As such, when followers are paired with leaders who are not willing to provide emotional warmth and connectedness (e.g., inauthentic displays), followers with high level of attachment-related anxiety could be expected to react more negatively to the poor interpersonal treatments than followers with low level of attachment-related anxiety. This signifies that leader emotional labor will exert a

more negative influence on follower perceived leader authenticity when follower attachment anxiety is high.

Importantly, Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) suggested that the motivations behind anxiously attached followers' preference for close relationships is not based on a positive view of others, but rather on a belief that others will not be there for them in times of need. Put differently, while anxious followers may be over reliant on their leaders, it is not based on trust but rather on fear of abandonment. Hazan and Shaver (1990) reported that anxious employees tend to invest heavily in their relationships, an action that leads to unrealistic expectations of reciprocation from others. As a result, because of their tendency to look for signs of rejection and mistrust signs of acceptance, they expected their leaders to be inconsistent in their responsiveness, supportiveness and attentiveness, and to undervalue their performance (Keller & Cacioppe, 2001; Keller, 2003). Consistent with the notion that the lower propensity to trust characteristic of high attachment anxiety may adversely impact the trusting relationship building process, Richards and Hackett (2012) found that in sensing their followers' negative perceptions towards them, a leader may, over time, decide that such followers belong in their "out group". LMX theory describes leaders and followers in "out group" as being psychologically distant, suggesting that leaders will be more likely to fake or suppress emotions when interacting with followers they share a low-quality relationship with (Glasø & Einarsen, 2008).

Moreover, in pursuit of closeness, anxious followers may become over-dependent on leaders' support, tending to 'cling' to them (Harms, 2011; Popper, Mayseless, & Castelnovo, 2000; Richards & Schat, 2011). In the context of leadership relationship, leaders of anxiously attached followers might be overwhelmed by the intense demands of reassurance and complex sense of interpersonal anxiety (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), and end up distancing themselves from the burdensome followers (e.g., employing surface acting to psychologically alienate followers) (Caza et al., 2015; Hansbrough, 2012). Consequently, leaders inadvertently confirm anxious followers' negative expectations (Keller, 2003; Lavy et al., 2009) and prompts followers to further perceive violations of trust in relationships (Mikulincer, 1998), stimulating negative leadership perceptions. In sum, attachment anxiety may influence how leader behaviors are perceived by followers and, therefore, follower attachment anxiety is situated as a moderator of the leader El –follower perceived leader authenticity:

H16 a-c: follower attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger when follower attachment anxiety is high (H16a); the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when follower attachment anxiety is high (H16b); the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when follower attachment anxiety is high (H16c).

Follower Attachment Avoidance as a Moderator

High attachment avoidance is developed in childhood when attachment figures repeatedly give improper care and feedback or reject requests to be attached (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988). Over time, avoidant individuals develop a relational strategy of self-reliance aimed at avoiding the distress of the unavailable attachment figure and preventing potential harm due to rebuffed attachment requests (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Consistent with this disposition, the work behaviors of avoidant workers are motivated by the goal of maintaining independence and emotional distance (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). Followers high on attachment avoidance will behave in ways aimed at verifying their self-concept of a socially distant "lone wolf". Studies indicate attachment avoidance is related to a preference for working alone (Hazan & Shaver, 1990), the use of work to avoid socializing and reduced support seeking (Richards & Schat, 2011). In turn, avoidant workers reported greater dissatisfaction and conflict in relationships with work colleagues (Hardy & Barkman, 1994; Hazan & Shaver, 1990; Towler & Stuhlmacher, 2013). Moreover, followers with an avoidant attachment orientation may distance themselves from the love and support of others (Mayseless, 2010; Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015; Schirmer & Lopez, 2001), and engage less in organizational citizenship behavior (Desivilya et al., 2006; Little et al., 2011; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Similar predictions have been made by Hinojosa and colleagues (2014). Consequently, avoidant followers are unlikely to appreciate or to even notice the efforts of leaders such as leader authenticity in the enactment of leading.

Furthermore, avoidant attachment in followers, presented more distinct challenges for developing leader-follower relationships, and its consistent negative effects were estimated within some of the highest quality studies (e.g., Davidovitz et al., 2007; Harms et al., 2016; Popper et al., 2004; Richards & Hackett, 2012). For avoidant individuals, disengagement

from interaction with others is also a symptom of their unwillingness to show vulnerability (Collins & Read, 1990). Since trust-based relationships with one's leader require a willingness to be vulnerable to the leader, avoidant followers will be negatively related to trust in their leaders (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), especially score high on affective trust (Harms et al., 2016), which reflects that followers have not formed a close bond with their leaders (McAllister, 1995). For this reason, avoidant followers in the workplace will limit meaningful interactions with their leaders, therefore, it is common for avoidant followers to remain at the purely transactional stage of LMX and experience fewer supports from their leaders (Cropanzano, Dasborough, & Weiss, 2016; Richards & Hackett, 2012).

Emotions have been likened to a form of social currency such that when they are expressed within the boundaries of some social interactions, leaders use them to make inferences about their relationship with the other person (Liden & Graen, 1980). Accordingly, for those who share weak relational ties, leaders will be less likely to display high levels of openness and self-disclosure (i.e., display true emotions and be oneself) (Glasø & Einarsen, 2008)—all of which may further be perceived being self-consumed and manipulative and lower the level of trust followers place in the leader (Gardner et al., 2009). I thus propose that high level of follower attachment avoidance will strengthen the negative effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity, as well as weaken the positive effects of leader deep acting and leader genuine emotions on follower perceived leader authenticity.

Finally, attachment avoidance predisposes individuals to habitually negative attributions for others' behavior as a result of previous experiences of consistently unresponsive and unsupportive interactions from attachment figures (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). That is, individuals with an avoidant attachment orientation are more suspicious the motives of others (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005), who are more likely to project negative self-traits on others (Collins & Feeney, 2004; Frazier et al., 2015). In organizational settings, Keller (2003) found that employees with avoidant attachment use their pre-existing negative views of others in evaluations of their leaders, while typically resisting new information when forming judgements (Green-Hennessy & Reis, 1998). Davidovitz et al. (2007) also noted that follower attachment avoidance was related to more negative appraisals of leaders' abilities and more negative perceptions of leaders as a source of support, irrespective of their actual leadership. Therefore, follower high on attachment-related avoidance will report stronger negative perceptions of leaders who surface act as being callous, insincere and manipulative—all of

which could be expected to report lower level of follower perceived leader authenticity (Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Hunt et al., 2008). Additionally, attachment theory suggests that the attachment system regularly impact behavior (Fraley & Shaver, 2000). That is to say that individuals' attachment orientation will still influence how they approach and engage in relationships regardless of whether an appropriate attachment figure is present. Therefore, avoidant followers' inherent tendency to make negative attributions will result in a low level of perceived leader authenticity, even when the leaders do deep act or display genuine emotions.

Taken together, drawing from existing theory and research suggest that follower attachment avoidance may serve as a subjective lens which predisposes individuals to perceive and evaluate others in ways that confirm negative expectations (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007), I expect the link between leader emotional labor and follower perceived leader authenticity can be moderated by follower attachment avoidance:

H17 a-c: follower attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger when follower attachment avoidance is high (H17a); the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when follower attachment avoidance is high (H17b); the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker when follower attachment avoidance is high (H17c).

2.3.4 Moderated Mediation Hypotheses

The logic I have outlined in Section 2.2 and Section 2.3 implies a special case of moderated mediation, in which *"an interaction between an independent and moderator variable affects a mediator variable that in turn affects an outcome variable"* (Edwards & Lambert, 2007, p. 7). Section 2.2 describes that leader felt authenticity mediates the relationships between three forms of leader emotional labor (surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion) and leader well-being (LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery from stress, and work-family enrichment). Section 2.3 illustrates that leader attachment anxiety and avoidance will serve as moderators of leader emotional labor to influence leader felt authenticity. Specifically, high level of leader attachment anxiety will strengthen the negative effect of leader surface acting on

leader felt authenticity, as well as weaken the positive effects of leader deep acting and leader genuine emotions on leader felt authenticity. Also, high level of leader attachment avoidance will strengthen the negative effect of leader surface acting on leader felt authenticity, as well as weaken the positive effects of leader deep acting and leader genuine emotions on leader felt authenticity. Combining both the mediation and moderation hypotheses, I therefore articulate additional moderated mediation hypotheses. Specifically, I expect leader attachment orientations to interact with the three forms of leader emotional labor in influencing leader felt authenticity; that leader felt authenticity should in turn impact leader perception of LMX, leader emotional exhaustion, leader recovery from stress, and leader work-family enrichment. This model would also be consistent with what Preacher et al. (2007) refer to as conditional indirect effects. That is, there are conditional indirect effects of leader emotional labor on leader well-being outcomes through leader felt authenticity, and these indirect effects vary in strength conditional on values of moderator variables (leader avoidant attachment and leader anxious attachment). In summary, I expect to find:

H18 a-d: Leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader perception of LMX (H18a), leader emotional exhaustion (H18b), leader recovery (H18c), and leader WFE (H18d) through leader felt authenticity.

H19 a-d: Leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader perception of LMX (H19a), leader emotional exhaustion (H19b), leader recovery (H19c), and leader WFE (H19d) through leader felt authenticity.

H20 a-d: Leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader perception of LMX (H20a), leader emotional exhaustion (H20b), leader recovery (H20c), and leader WFE (H20d) through leader felt authenticity.

H21 a-d: Leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader perception of LMX (H21a), leader emotional exhaustion (H21b), leader recovery (H21c), and leader WFE (H21d) through leader felt authenticity.

H22 a-d: Leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader perception of LMX (H22a), leader emotional exhaustion (H22b), leader recovery (H22c), and leader WFE (H22d) through leader felt authenticity.

H23 a-d: Leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader perception of LMX (H23a), leader emotional exhaustion (H23b), leader recovery (H23c), and leader WFE (H23d) through leader felt authenticity.

Furthermore, Section 2.2 asserts that follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between three forms of leader emotional labor (surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion) and follower well-being (LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery from stress, and work-family enrichment). Section 2.3 shows that leader attachment anxiety and leader attachment avoidance represent boundary conditions for the relation between leader emotional labor and follower perceived leader authenticity. High level of leader attachment anxiety will strengthen the negative effect of leader surface acting on perceived leader authenticity, as well as weaken the positive effects of leader deep acting and leader genuine emotions on perceived leader authenticity. Also, high level of leader attachment avoidance will strengthen the negative effect of leader surface acting on perceived leader authenticity, as well as weaken the positive effects of leader deep acting and leader genuine emotions on perceived leader authenticity. Combining the mediation and moderation models, a moderated mediation model is addressed. That is, leader emotional labor and leader attachment orientations will have interactive effects on follower perceived leader authenticity, and these effects in turn influence follower perception of LMX, follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery from stress, and follower work-family enrichment. The following moderated mediation hypotheses are put forward:

H24 a-d: Leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX (H24a), follower emotional exhaustion (H24b), follower recovery (H24c), and follower WFE (H24d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H25 a-d: Leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX (H25a), follower emotional exhaustion (H25b), follower recovery (H25c), and follower WFE (H25d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H26 a-d: Leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX (H26a), follower emotional exhaustion (H26b), follower recovery (H26c), and follower WFE (H26d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H27 a-d: Leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX (H27a), follower emotional exhaustion (H27b), follower recovery (H27c), and follower WFE (H27d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H28 a-d: Leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX (H28a), follower emotional exhaustion (H28b), follower recovery (H28c), and follower WFE (H28d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H29 a-d: Leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX (H29a), follower emotional exhaustion (H29b), follower recovery (H29c), and follower WFE (H29d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

Finally, as mentioned above, follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationships of leader emotional labor (leader surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion) with follower perception of LMX, follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery and follower work-family enrichment. In addition, I proposed that the extent to which leader emotional labor to follower perceived leader authenticity is related may vary according to different levels of follower attachment orientations. Specifically, high level of follower attachment anxiety will strengthen the negative effect of leader surface acting on perceived leader authenticity, as well as weaken the positive effects of leader deep acting and leader genuine emotions on perceived leader authenticity. Similarly, high level of follower attachment avoidance will strengthen the negative effect of leader surface acting on perceived leader authenticity, as well as weaken the positive effects of leader deep acting and leader genuine emotions on perceived leader authenticity. Taken the mediation and moderation hypotheses together, I therefore articulate additional hypotheses, which describes the strength of indirect effects of leader emotional labor on the four follower well-being outcomes

through follower perceived leader authenticity is contingent on levels of follower attachment orientations.

H30 a-d: Follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX (H30a), follower emotional exhaustion (H30b), follower recovery (H30c) and follower WFE (H30d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H31 a-d: Follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX (H31a), follower emotional exhaustion (H31b), follower recovery (H31c) and follower WFE (H31d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H32 a-d: Follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX (H32a), follower emotional exhaustion (H32b), follower recovery (H32c) and follower WFE (H32d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H33 a-d: Follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX (H33a), follower emotional exhaustion (H33b), follower recovery (H33c) and follower WFE (H33d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

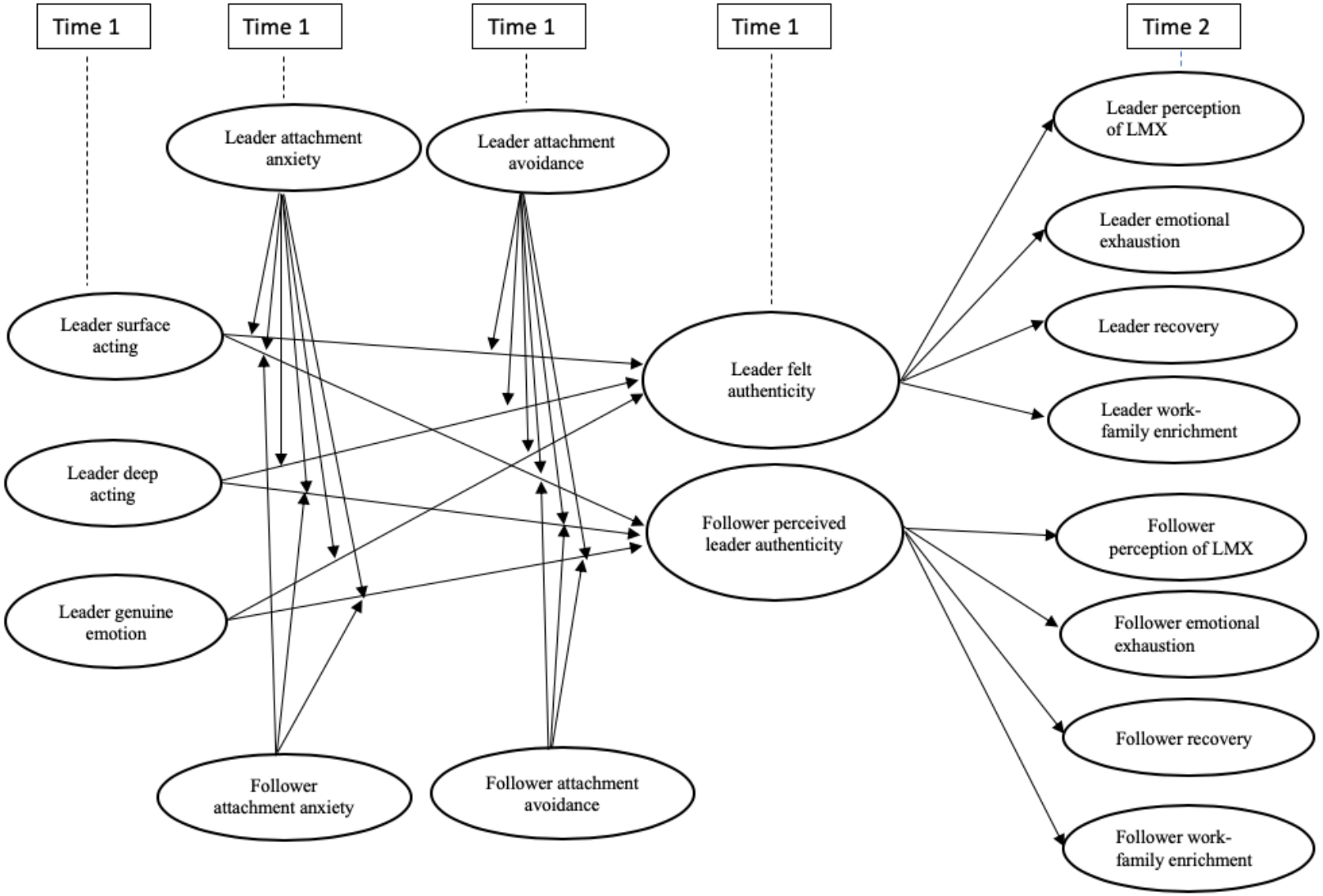
H34 a-d: Follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX (H34a), follower emotional exhaustion (H34b), follower recovery (H34c) and follower WFE (H34d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

H35 a-d: Follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX (H35a), follower emotional exhaustion (H35b), follower recovery (H35c) and follower WFE (H35d) through follower perceived leader authenticity.

2.4 Research Framework

This part presents the proposed conceptual model for the present study (see Figure 2.1). The present longitudinal study investigates the mediating effect of leader authenticity in the relationship between leader emotional labor and well-being of leaders and followers. Specifically, three forms of leader emotional labor are studied, namely surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion. Each type of leader emotional labor is proposed to have different effects on leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, which in turn, impact leader and follower well-being, respectively. The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory developed by Hobfoll (1989, 1998) is employed to explain this mediating process. Resources may both directly and indirectly influence health-related well-being (Ito & Brotheridge, 2003). In the present study, a personal resource derived from leader emotional labor, like leader authenticity, can influence both leader and follower well-being outcomes, namely, leader-member exchange relationship, emotional exhaustion, recovery from stress, and work-family enrichment. Also, the study draws on attachment theory (Bowlby, 1982) to examine how attachment orientations (i.e., attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance) moderate the relationship between leader emotional labor and leader authenticity. Combining both the mediation and moderation effects, moderated mediation effects are illustrated. That is, the conditional indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being, through leader authenticity, differs in strength at low and high levels of attachment orientations.

Figure 2. 1 Hypothesized Research Model



Chapter 3 Research Method

The purpose of this study is to examine whether leader authenticity mediates the effect of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being. The purpose of this study is also to examine how attachment orientations moderate the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being through leader authenticity. Based on that, hypotheses were developed from literature about the possible relationships between them. This chapter outlines the research methodology that has been adopted in addressing the research aims and objectives, specifically in terms of study design, participants, research procedure and instrumentations. The chapter also outlines the ethical considerations and describes the analytical approach that will be applied for data analysis.

3.1 Research Design and Rationale

Study design is a general plan of how the research questions will be answered. It contains clear objectives derived from the research hypotheses and specifies the sources from which data will be collected (Saunders et al., 2012). The present study design is considered through its associations to research philosophy as well as research strategies, and it helps to decide how the method is used in a coherent way to address the research questions.

First, the research questions are considered through a philosophical lens. Research philosophy involves important assumptions about the way in which researchers view the world (Saunders et al., 2012). There are two major ways of thinking about research philosophy: epistemology and ontology. Epistemology is a branch of philosophy which concerns the question of what is regarded as acceptable knowledge in a field of study (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). Positivism is an epistemological position that supports the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality (Bryman & Bell, 2015). One of principles that positivism depends on is the purpose of theory is to generate hypotheses that can be tested and that will allow explanations of laws to be assessed (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Ontology concerns the nature of social phenomena as entities (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). The central issue in this context is the question of whether the social world is considered as something external to people, or as something that social actors

are in the process of constructing (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The current research reflects the philosophy of positivism as hypotheses are developed from the reading of academic literature and these hypotheses can be confirmed through statistical inference.

Given the way in which philosophical assumptions influences methodological choice (Saunders et al., 2012), quantitative methodology was used to collect data to test the present study. Also, all study variables in this research can be measured through validated instruments that are quantitative in nature. Quantitative research examines relationships between variables, which are measured with numbers and analyzed using a range of statistics (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Quantitative methodology is principally connected to survey research strategy, and in this methodology, a survey research is often conducted through the use of questionnaires (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). They are intended to discovering relationships between variables and concepts. The usual starting point for surveys is to separate the variables that appear to be engaged and decide what appears to be causing what (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). In other words, researchers need to identify the main dependent variables and independent variables: it is the latter that are hypothesized to be causing the former. Administering online surveys is becoming a popular tool for gathering information in organizational psychology research (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Online surveys are easy to administer, can save time and money, as well as provide immediate results. In this study, Qualtrics survey software is used to design the online surveys.

3.2 Sample and Procedure

3.2.1 Population

Although multilevel theory has been an area of burgeoning research in Organizational Behavior (OB) in recent years (Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu, 2007; Mathieu & Chen, 2011), studies focusing on dyadic relationships at work are scarcer compared to work focusing on individual, team and organizational relationships (Gooty & Yammarino, 2011; Krasikova & LeBreton, 2012; Tse & Ashkanasy, 2015 for reviews). Even though a member might belong to more than one dyad and/or the dyad may be nested within a higher level (e.g. groups/teams, organizations), the focal attention must nonetheless be upon the dyadic relationship between only two members (Tse & Ashkanasy, 2015). This study provides new insights to OB research by collecting data on the impact of leader emotional labour on

authenticity and well-being from the perspective of both leaders and followers in different dyads.

3.2.2 Data Collection Process

The snowball sampling technique was used to recruit leader–follower dyads in organizations to take part in this study, that is, individuals known to the researcher were asked to forward the study invitation via email to people they know (e.g., Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Gooty & Yammarino, 2016; Little et al., 2016; Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002). This strategy was chosen because the study design was complex and demanding for participants (i.e., two measurement time points, collect data from both leaders and followers). This well-established technique made it possible to collect data from inaccessible respondents. A diversity of contacts was approached in the recruitment process in an effort to achieve a representative sample. Furthermore, in order to reduce drop-out rates, a follow-up reminder email was sent after distributing each survey to encourage participants to complete the confidential surveys. This recruitment strategy has been previously used in organizational behavior research as it allows researchers to have access to a wide variety of leader-follower dyads, spread across different organizations, which facilitates generalizability of findings (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006; Tepper, 1995).

The data collection procedure included the following steps.

Contacts of the researcher were initially asked to take part in the study via email, phone, social media, or in person. Many of these contacts were either managers or business owners who also were asked to recommend the study to their organizations and outside contacts. When leaders expressed their voluntariness of participation, they were asked to provide contact information (i.e., name, organization, email, and phone number) of themselves as well as one of their direct reports (i.e., followers) who were randomly selected by the leaders. Potential leader and follower participants received an email from the researcher providing general information about the purpose of the study and criteria for inclusion and informing data collection procedure (see appendix 1 recruitment letter). For instance, they were told that in order to be considered eligible for participation, they had to be 18 years of age or older, be employed in the UK, and have regular leader-follower interactions. If individuals expressed interest in participating in the study, they were contacted again and instructed to provide their

names and email addresses for each of the leaders and their followers to the researcher (see appendix 2 participant information form).

Eligible leaders and followers received an email from the researcher providing each recipient the option to follow a link to Qualtrics survey site, which then recorded survey responses. The follower participants received only the follower survey links, and the leader participants received only the leader survey links. Recipients who chose not to follow the link did not participate in this research. Recipients who clicked the link were directed to a web page showing survey cover letter with the informed consent sheet. Only those indicating "I agree to participate in this survey" on the informed consent sheet were allowed to complete the survey. Completion of the Time 1 survey took approximately 10–15 minutes and completion of the Time 2 survey took approximately 5-10 minutes (see appendix 3 for leader online surveys and appendix 4 for follower online surveys). Reminder emails were sent the first week after distributing each survey encouraging participants to complete the confidential surveys. To protect the confidentiality of participants, I assigned random identification numbers to each participant so that I could later match leaders' and followers' responses. For example, personal survey code "1A" was created for both leader 1 and follower 1 in company A in order to identify the dyad. Moreover, to ensure anonymity, all surveys were returned to the researcher directly.

The researcher noted on the questionnaires that the "leader" in the surveys holds a position of manager (or supervisor/ team leader) and the "follower" is the leader's direct report one level below (e.g. team member, subordinate, or employee). The interval of three weeks was chosen to collect data about dependent and independent/mediating/moderating variables from different time points, which minimizes biases relating to single sources and common methods (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The initial responses from participants also supported the study method. Further, previous studies on leader-follower interaction provided evidence that the effects of leader behaviors on leader and follower outcomes can occur within a three-week period (i.e. three week formal and informal interactions in a daily and/or weekly basis would be sufficient to demonstrate the effects of leader actions on work outcomes) (e.g. Arnold, Connelly, Walsh, & Martin Ginis, 2015; Huyghebaert et al., 2018; Little, Gooty & Williams, 2016). Therefore, the three-week intervals between measurement points were sufficient for the effect of leader emotional labor on leader authenticity and, subsequently, leader and follower well-being to unfold.

3.2.3 Sample Characteristics

At Time 1, in addition to demographic information, 458 leader participants were invited to provide ratings of leader attachment orientations, leader emotional labor and leader felt authenticity. 338 leader responses were returned, yielding an initial response rate of 74%. 458 follower participants were also asked to provide demographic information, ratings of follower attachment orientations and follower perceived leader authenticity. 314 follower responses (69% response rate) at Time 1 were received. At Time 2, three weeks after Time 1 survey, leader well-being and follower well-being were rated by the leaders and followers, respectively. 312 leader responses (68% response rate) and 272 follower responses (59% response rate) were received.

After deleting invalid and incomplete cases as well as unmatched leaders-follower pairs, 202 matched leader-follower dyads (44% response rate) who met the eligibility criterion completed the time 1 and time 2 surveys. The 202 dyads constituted the final sample for this study and the final research sample consisted of 158 men (39%) and 246 women (61%). Respondents were between the ages of 20 and 68 years. The mean age of the leader participants was 46 years (SD=9.0) and the mean age of the follower participants was 39 years (SD=11). 73.5% respondents married or lived together with their partners. 64.4% respondents had at least one child at home. Most of the sample was British (388), with 3 American, 1 Danish, 1 French, 2 Italian, 3 Australian, 1 Dutch, 1 German, 1 Greek, 1 Irish, 1 Lithuanian and 1 Swedish. Eighty-two percent of respondents worked full-time, with 95.3% of the sample holding a university degree. 41.6% of the sample had a senior manager position and 22.5% of the sample had a line manager position. On average, they worked 41.56 hours per week (SD=9.15). The leader average tenure with the company was 120 months (SD = 112 months), and the follower average tenure with the company was 89 months (SD = 88 months). The length of the average leader-follower relationship was 52 months (SD = 59 months, range: 1 months to 600 months). Finally, various employment sectors were represented, including industry(7.9%), construction(7.9%), trade(3%), transport(2%), financial institution(5.9%), business services(8.4%), communication(2%), government(2%), education(41.6%), health and welfare(1.5%), culture and leisure(3%), agricultural sector (0.5%) and other sectors(14.4%).

3.3 Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

All variables were measured using well-validated measures from previous research and had acceptable reliabilities. All measures were collected at the individual level using leaders and followers as sources of information and referents. Variables were collected at 2 time points, over a 3-week period (see Table 3.1).

Table 3. 1 Measures Collection

Data Collection Time Point	Leader Measures	Follower Measures
Time 1	attachment anxiety attachment avoidance surface acting deep acting genuine emotion felt authenticity	attachment anxiety attachment avoidance perceived leader authenticity
Time 2	leader-member exchange relationship emotional exhaustion recovery work-family enrichment	leader-member exchange relationship emotional exhaustion recovery work-family enrichment

3.3.1 Emotional Labor

Two dimensions of leader emotion labor were measured using scales from Brotheridge and Lee (2003). Leaders were asked to rate, on a scale from 1 (never) to 5 (always), how frequently they had to engage in each behavior during working hours. Surface acting ($\alpha = .74$) (was measured with three items: "I resist expressing my true feelings," "I pretend to have emotions that I don't really have," and "I hide my true feelings about a situation." Deep acting ($\alpha = .86$) was measured with three items: "I make an effort to actually feel the

emotions that I need to display to others," "I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show," and "I really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job." A measure of leader genuine emotion (α = .85) from Diefendorff et al. (2005) was also used. Leaders were asked to think about their behaviors during working hours and to indicate the extent of agreement with the following three items on a scale of 1 = strongly disagree through 5 = strongly agree: "The emotions I express to employees are genuine," "The emotions I show employees come naturally," and "The emotions I show employees match what I spontaneously feel."

3.3.2 Attachment Orientations

Attachment orientations were measured with two subscales: attachment anxiety (5 items; e.g., "I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.") and attachment avoidance (5 items; e.g., "I make close friendships at work." (Reverse coded); "I like to have close personal relationships with people at work." (Reverse coded); "A close friendship is a necessary part of a good working relationship." (Reverse coded); "I work hard at developing close working relationships." (Reverse coded); "I don't need close friendships at work.") from 'Short Attachment at Work' scale (Leiter, Day & Price, 2015). Participants rated each item using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "not at all like me"; 5 = "very much like me"). Cronbach's Alpha of attachment anxiety is at .64 and .73 for leaders and followers, respectively. Cronbach's Alpha of attachment avoidance is at .79 and .81 for leaders and followers, respectively. Although leader attachment anxiety showed an Alpha of .64, it is well known that Alpha is a nonoptimal index of internal coherence (Barbaranelli et al., 2014, 2015). In this study, reliability was also tested with factor score determinacy coefficients that were adequate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), ranging from .87 to .98.

3.3.3 Leader Authenticity

Both leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity were measured with Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI), a 14-item scale with four sub dimensions (self-awareness, balanced processing, internalized moral perspective and relational transparency) developed by Neider and Schriesheim (2011). (Sample item: "My leader clearly states what he/she means.") In terms of leader self-perceptions of authentic leadership, the items were adapted to concern one's own authenticity (for example, "I clearly states what I mean."). This

study followed the approach taken by previous studies and combined authentic leadership dimensions into one common core construct (e.g. Walumbwa et al., 2010). Four domain-representative parcels were created for leader authenticity followed the recommendations of past research (Helfrich & Dietl, 2019; Little et al., 2002; Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012a; Leroy et al., 2012b). Participants responded on 5-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to the 14 items. Cronbach Alpha of leader rated ALI is .79 and Cronbach Alpha of follower rated ALI is .93.

3.3.4 Leader-Member Exchange Relationship

The Leader–Member Exchange Inventory (LMX 7) (Paglis & Green, 2002) was used. This measures the quality of the working relationship between leaders and followers. LMX 7 is a seven-item questionnaire measuring three dimensions of the leader–follower relationship: respect, trust, and obligation.

The LMX 7 consists of two versions, one for followers and one for leaders. An example of follower version is: ‘‘How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?’’ Leaders completed a mirror version of the LMX-7 (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001; Schriesheim, Castro, & Yammarino, 2000), worded to report what the leader receives from the follower in the relationship (vs. previous approaches that have primarily reflected what the follower receives from the leader). I used the mirror version to capture the exchange in the dyadic relationship between a leader and a follower, which reports how the leader treats the follower. Sample items include “Do you know where you stand with this follower … do you usually know how satisfied this follower is with what you do?” “How well does this follower understand your job problems and needs?” “Regardless of the amount of formal authority your follower has, what are the chances that he/she would ‘bail you out’ at his/her expense?” and “What are the chances this follower would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?” Response categories were matched to the wording of each item. The respondents rated each of the seven items on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, ranging from 1 = ‘‘not a bit’’ to 5 = ‘‘a great deal’’, or from 1 = ‘‘rarely’’ to 5 = ‘‘very often’’. Cronbach Alpha of leader rated LMX is .85 and Cronbach Alpha of follower rated LMX is at .90.

3.3.5 Emotional Exhaustion

I assessed emotional exhaustion with the three highest loading items from the emotional exhaustion scale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). An example item is "I feel emotionally drained from my work". Leaders and followers rated their emotional exhaustion on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach Alpha of leader emotional exhaustion is .92 and Cronbach Alpha of follower emotional exhaustion is .90.

3.3.6 Recovery

Recovery experience – psychological detachment, relaxation – were measured using the Recovery Experience Questionnaire (REQ; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). All scales originally included four items. Leaders and followers rated on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Typical items of this scale are "During my non-working time, I forget about work." (Psychological detachment); "During my non-working time, I kick back and relaxed." (Relaxation). Cronbach Alpha of leader recovery is .88 and Cronbach Alpha of follower recovery is .86.

3.3.7 Work-Family Enrichment

Kacmar, Crawford, Carlson, Ferguson, and Whitten's (2014) shortened Work-Family Enrichment Scale (WFE; derived from Carlson et al., 2006) was used to measure participant perceptions of work-family enrichment. Six highest loading items from the Work-Family Enrichment Scale were used. The Work-Family Enrichment Scale covers enrichment in terms of (1) competence development (e.g., "My involvement in my work helps me to acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member"), (2) positive affect (e.g., "My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member"), and (3) psychological resources (e.g., "My involvement in my work helps me to feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member"). Leaders and followers rated their WFE on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach Alpha of leader WFE is at .90 and Cronbach Alpha of follower WFE is .91.

3.3.8 Control Variables

I tested the models in the analyses using a number of control variables which might offer alternative explanations for the results. In relation to follower outcomes, I controlled for leader age, leader gender, follower age, follower gender and dyadic tenure. In relation to leader outcomes, I controlled for leader age, leader gender and dyadic tenure. Age and gender were included as control variables in all analyses, as existing literature reported significant correlations between these demographic variables and leader emotional labor, attachment orientations, and leader authenticity (Chen et al., 2012; Dahling & Perez, 2010; Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Age was self-reported in number of years. Furthermore, characteristics of the interpersonal relationship between a leader and a follower might bias the proposed relationships. With increasing familiarity, for example, people's perceptions of and behaviors toward others may change (Deng, Walter, & Guan, 2020; Hinojosa et al., 2014; Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016; Malik & Dhar, 2017; Richards & Hackett, 2012). Hence, dyadic tenure between a leader and a follower was included as a control variable, representing the time a leader has worked with a follower. Dyadic tenure was measured using the number of months leaders reported having worked with their followers. Because age and gender produced no significant relationships with the variables of interest in the study, I report the results with only dyadic tenure included in the analyses (Becker, 2005; Crawford et al., 2016).

3.4 Ethical Procedure and Data Protection

The research was approved by Norwich Business School Research Ethics Committee (see appendix 5) and Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee (see appendix 6) prior to the process of conducting the study, which judged not only whether the research was sensitive to participants but also whether the methodology was sound and appropriate for the study in question. The ethics committees guided the actions in the field as well as protect the rights of participants in research. This research adhered the concept of informed consent. This means that those surveyed should give their permission in full knowledge of the purpose of the study, the data collection procedure and the consequences for them of taking part (Piper & Simons, 2005). The informed consent is a part of the surveys' cover letter and was provided to each respondent surveyed, not simply the major gatekeeper in the organizations. Participants who chose to follow the link in the survey email invitation were directed to survey cover letter. Only those indicating "I agree to participate in

this survey" on the informed consent sheet were allowed to complete the survey. Research respondents were informed the confidentiality in the process of conducting the research and the anonymization of individuals in reporting. Despite the fact that demographic information was provided by participants, no personal identification information was collected. The researcher created a random identification survey code and participants were requested to enter the survey code to start the surveys. The design of survey code is to help the researcher match anonymous surveys from leaders and followers.

3.5 Analytical Approach

After screening the data, the two-stage approach for the assessment of research model is used in this study: first, the fit of a measurement model was tested; second, hypothesized structural models were tested.

3.5.1 Handling Missing Information

A drop-out can be classified as unit nonresponse when it happens prior to viewing any questions or as item nonresponse when it occurs after providing answers to those questions displayed but give up prior to completing the survey (Brosnjak & Tuten, 2001). In this study, invalid and incomplete cases as well as unmatched leaders-follower pairs were deleted. Further, full information maximum likelihood estimation treatment was used to provide effective remedies to the potential problems caused by random missing information in this study (Little & Rubin, 2012).

3.5.2 Measurement Model

The first stage of the two-stage approach for the assessment of research model addresses measurement model. The main purpose of a measurement model is to demonstrate how well the observed indicator variables serve as a measurement instrument for the underlying latent variables. Measurement models are usually assessed by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

3.5.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To assess the distinctiveness of study construct, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) with Mplus 8 were conducted to compare the fit of the hypothesized seventeen factor model against alternative models. Two traditional assessments of model fit were used: the test of comparative fit of a model and the test of absolute fit of a model. Assessments of comparative fit deals with whether the hypothesized model is better than other competing models. The question of absolute fit is concerned with the ability of a model to reproduce the correlation or covariance matrix (Kelloway, 2015). Two indexes of comparative fit were produced in Mplus: Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI). Both CFI and TLI range between 0 and 1, with values exceeding 0.90 indicating a good fit to the data (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Two indexes of absolute fit were also produced in Mplus: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). SRMR ranges between 0 to 1, with values less than 0.08 indicating a good fit to the data (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested a cutoff of 0.06 for the RMSEA to indicate a good fit to the data. Hu and Bentler (1999) further offer a "combination rule" for absolute fit indices (i.e., RMSEA and SRMR) that should be favored as evidence for model fit in cases where both RMSEA and SRMR values simultaneously meet or exceed these noted cutoffs. The parameters were estimated using maximum-likelihood estimation with robust standard errors to take into account the effect of any non-normality in the study variables (MLR estimator; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). The default setting for handling missing values in Mplus was used, which took into account all observations in the data without imputing the data (Muthén & Muthén, 2017).

3.5.2.2 Item Parceling

All scale items were used as indicators of their respective construct. Because of a large number of indicators for the study variables, which can cause correlated residuals and cross-loadings, parameter instability, and increased standard errors (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998), a parceling procedure is recommended by Little, Cunningham, Shahar, and Widaman (2002), consistently with recent leadership studies (e.g. Hsiung, 2012; Jin, Seo, & Shapiro, 2016; Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015; Weischer, Weibler, & Petersen, 2013). Cunningham, Preacher and Banaji (2001) also pointed out estimating a latent construct with each individual item as an indicator might cause numerous difficulties in the analyses of CFA and structural equation

modeling (SEM). In such instances, parceling would be recommended (Bandalos & Finney, 2001). Further, if the relations among latent constructs but not the exact relations among individual items are of focus interest, parceling is more strongly recommended (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). Therefore, parcels were formed by grouping items within each scale to serve as indicators of the latent variable when the number of items for the variable exceeded four in the present study for both CFA and SEM (Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999).

This study adopted procedures used by previous researchers (e.g., Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Crawford, Shanine, Whitman, & Kacmar, 2016; Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012) to reduce the number of items by creating three or four indicators for each construct. For unidimensional scales, the factorial algorithm (Rogers & Schmitt, 2004) was based on standardized loading from a unidimensional exploratory factor analysis. In this approach, I balanced the factor loadings within each item parcel (e.g., having one strong loading, one weak loading, and/or moderate loading in each parcel). This approach seems to obtain better results in terms of overall model fit (Kelloway, 2015; Rogers & Schmitt, 2004). Thus, I created three parcels for attachment anxiety, three parcels for attachment avoidance, three parcels for leader-member exchange relationship, four parcels for recovery and three parcels for work-family enrichment. For multifaceted scales (i.e., leader authenticity), I used the domain representative approach (Kelloway, 2015; Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002; Williams & O'Boyle, 2008), in which constructs item parcels using items from the subdimensions of each construct. Specifically, I constructed four parcels for leader authenticity. Creating parcels in this way results in indicators that include the broad latent variable and is consistent with previous research (e.g., Helfrich & Dietl, 2019; Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, & Sels, 2015; Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012).

3.5.2.3 Alternative Measurement Models

A series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) was conducted to detect the severity of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) among the seventeen latent variables. One procedure to assess the severity of method variance is to conduct confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) on competing models that increase in complexity (Grandey, Chi, & Diamond, 2013). If common method variance is a serious problem, then a one-factor model (i.e., all items loaded on a common factor) would fit the

data better than the proposed seventeen-factor model. Moreover, although the data were collected from two sources (i.e., leaders and followers) at two time points, some of the variables were collected from the same source at the same time. To ensure that the measures assessed from the same source (leader or follower) at each point of measurement represented different constructs, items of the same source and the same time point was set to load on a common factor and then their theoretical constructs (Helfrich & Dietl, 2019). This is the rationale behind the choice of different measurement models tested (please see Table 3.2).

Table 3. 2 Measurement Models

Measurement models	**Rationale**
Model 1 A one-factor model was tested.	Model 1 consists of the combination of all study variables, whereby all the items of independent variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, and leader genuine emotion), mediators (leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity), moderators (leader attachment anxiety, leader attachment avoidance, follower attachment anxiety, and follower attachment avoidance), and dependent variables (leader rated leader-member exchange relationship, leader emotional exhaustion, leader recovery, leader work-family enrichment, follower rated leader-member exchange relationship, follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery, and follower work-family enrichment) loaded on to a singer factor.
Model 2 A three-factor model was assessed.	Model 2 consists of the combination of independent variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, and leader genuine emotion), the combination of moderators, mediator, and dependant variables collected from leaders (leader attachment anxiety, leader attachment avoidance, leader felt authenticity, leader rated leader-member exchange relationship, leader emotional exhaustion, leader recovery, and leader work-family enrichment), and the combination of moderators, mediator, and dependant variables collected from followers (follower attachment anxiety, follower attachment avoidance, follower perceived leader authenticity, follower rated

	leader-member exchange relationship, follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery, and follower work-family enrichment).
Model 3 A five-factor model was tested.	Model 3 consists of the combination of independent variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, and leader genuine emotion), the combination of moderators collected from leaders (leader attachment anxiety and leader attachment avoidance), the combination of moderators collected from followers (follower attachment anxiety and follower attachment avoidance), the combination of mediator and dependant variables collected from leaders (leader felt authenticity, leader rated leader-member exchange relationship, leader emotional exhaustion, leader recovery, and leader work-family enrichment), and the combination of mediator and dependant variables collected from followers (follower perceived leader authenticity, follower rated leader-member exchange relationship, follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery, and follower work-family enrichment).
Model 4 A seven-factor model was assessed.	Model 4 consists of the combination of independent variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, and leader genuine emotion), the combination of moderators collected from leaders (leader attachment anxiety and leader attachment avoidance), the combination of moderators collected from followers (follower attachment anxiety and follower attachment avoidance), the mediator collected from leaders (leader felt authenticity), the mediator collected from followers (follower perceived leader authenticity), the combination of dependant variables collected from leaders (leader rated leader-member exchange relationship, leader emotional exhaustion, leader recovery, and leader work-family enrichment), and the combination of dependant variables collected from followers (follower rated leader-member exchange relationship, follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery, and follower work-family enrichment).
Model 5 A nine-factor model was tested.	Model 5 consists of the combination of independent variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, and leader genuine emotion), the combination of moderators collected from leaders (leader attachment anxiety and leader attachment avoidance), the combination of

	moderators collected from followers (follower attachment anxiety and follower attachment avoidance), the mediator collected from leaders (leader felt authenticity), the mediator collected from followers (follower perceived leader authenticity), a dependant variable collected from leaders (leader rated leader-member exchange relationship), a dependant variable collected from followers (follower rated leader-member exchange relationship), the combination of the rest of dependant variables collected from leaders (leader emotional exhaustion, leader recovery, and leader work-family enrichment), and the combination of the rest of dependant variables collected from followers (follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery, and follower work-family enrichment).
Model 6 An eleven-factor model was assessed.	Model 6 consists of the combination of independent variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, and leader genuine emotion), the combination of moderators collected from leaders (leader attachment anxiety and leader attachment avoidance), the combination of moderators collected from followers (follower attachment anxiety and follower attachment avoidance), the mediator collected from leaders (leader felt authenticity), the mediator collected from followers (follower perceived leader authenticity), a dependant variable collected from leaders (leader rated leader-member exchange relationship), a dependant variable collected from followers (follower rated leader-member exchange relationship), a dependant variable collected from leaders (leader emotional exhaustion), a dependant variable collected from followers (follower emotional exhaustion), the combination of the rest of dependant variables collected from leaders (leader recovery and leader work-family enrichment), and the combination of the rest of dependant variables collected from followers (follower recovery and follower work-family enrichment).
Model 7 A thirteen-factor model was tested.	Model 7 consists of the combination of independent variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, and leader genuine emotion), the combination of moderators collected from leaders (leader attachment anxiety and leader attachment avoidance), the combination of

	moderators collected from followers (follower attachment anxiety and follower attachment avoidance), the mediator collected from leaders (leader felt authenticity), the mediator collected from followers (follower perceived leader authenticity), a dependant variable collected from leaders (leader rated leader-member exchange relationship), a dependant variable collected from followers (follower rated leader-member exchange relationship), a dependant variable collected from leaders (leader emotional exhaustion), a dependant variable collected from followers (follower emotional exhaustion), a dependant variable collected from leaders (leader recovery), a dependant variable collected from followers (follower recovery), a dependant variable collected from leaders (leader work-family enrichment), and a dependant variable collected from followers (follower work-family enrichment).
Model 8 The hypothesized seventeen-factor measurement model was assessed.	Model 8 distinguishes all study variables (leader surface acting, leader deep acting, leader genuine emotion, leader attachment anxiety, leader attachment avoidance, follower attachment anxiety, follower attachment avoidance, leader felt authenticity, follower perceived leader authenticity, leader rated leader-member exchange relationship, follower rated leader-member exchange relationship, leader emotional exhaustion, follower emotional exhaustion, leader recovery, follower recovery, leader work-family enrichment, and follower work-family enrichment).

3.5.3 Structural Equation Modeling

The second stage the two-stage approach for the assessment of research model addresses structural models. I tested the hypotheses with latent structural equation modeling (SEM) using Mplus 8. In latent structural equation modeling, unobservable latent variables are estimated from observed indicator variables. This latent SEM approach takes into account measurement error in the observed indicator variables involve in a model, which results in a more accurate examination of the relationship between structural model components. That is, it provides a flexible and powerful ways of simultaneously examining the quality of measurement and estimating predictive relationships among constructs (Wang & Wang,

2012). Such analyses offer the considerable advantage of estimating predictive relationships among "pure" latent variables that are uncontaminated by measurement error (Kelloway, 2015). Latent SEM is also concerned with the ability to simultaneously model multiple latent independent variables each measured by multiple indicators, and multiple dependent variables each with multiple indicators; the ability to test overall fit, direct and indirect effects, complex and specific hypotheses (Wang & Wang, 2012).

3.5.3.1 Mediation Test

To test the hypotheses that the indirect relationships between leader emotional labor and well-being of leaders and followers are mediated by leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, I tested the mediation structural model using Mplus 8. Mediation analysis is a statistical method used to help answer the question as how a predictor variable(s) (X) transmits its indirect effect on an outcome(s) (Y) through a third variable(s), called a mediator variable(s) (M) (Hayes, 2013). When calculated using unstandardized coefficients, the indirect effect represents that part of the change in Y caused by a 1-unit change in X, that is due to the effect of X on M, and M in turn influencing Y.

To evaluate the inference of indirect effects, bootstrap confidence intervals were conducted in this study. Bootstrapping is a non-parametric method for assessing indirect effects without imposing the assumption of normality of the sampling distribution (MacKinnon et al., 2002; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). In mediation analysis, bootstrapping is used to generate an empirically derived representation of the sampling distribution of the indirect effect, and this empirical representation is used for the construction of a bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (Hayes, 2013). Bootstrapped confidence intervals do not relay on any distributional assumptions. They use estimates from many samples of the data, collected by repeatedly sampling with replacement from the original sample, and calculate the indirect effects. They then line these estimates up from lowest to highest and use the percentiles of these estimates as the confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013). Further, MacKinnon, Lockwood, and Williams (2004) reported that the bootstrap confidence intervals adjusted for bias exhibited the highest levels of statistical power, comparing with other bootstrapping methods of constructing confidence intervals. Therefore, in this study, bias-corrected confidence intervals (10,000 resamples) were calculated to assess the significance of the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leader

and follower well-being through leader authenticity (Hayes, 2013; MacKinnon et al., 2002). This method produces 95% confidence intervals for the indirect effects, with a significant effect indicated by intervals that do not contain zero. Specifically, the bootstrapping approach with the aid of Mplus developed by Stride et al. was used to test mediation hypotheses (Stride, Gardner, Catley, & Thomas, 2015).

3.5.3.2 Moderation Test

The moderator effects of attachment orientations were tested using Klein and Moosbrugger's (2000) latent moderated structural equations method in Mplus 8 (see Moosbrugger et al., 2009). Moderation occurs when the effect of an independent variable(s) on a dependent variable(s) varies according to the levels of a third variable(s), termed a moderator variable(s), which interacts with the independent variable(s) (Hayes, 2013). In other words, it refers to models in which researchers hypothesize that the strength and/or sign of the relationship(s) between an independent variable(s) and a dependent variable(s) differs according to the levels of one or more moderating variables. Inferentially, it aims to test whether the regression (i.e., slope) coefficient indicating the strength/sign of the relationship between a predictor X and an outcome Y differs significantly across different levels defined by a moderator W.

In this study, latent moderated structural equations models were estimated with the XWITH command in Mplus. Mplus allows researchers to calculate and implement interactions between pairs of latent variables, or between a latent variable and an observed variable, using the XWITH keyword (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). To enable the relationships between leader emotional labor and leader authenticity to differ between different levels of attachment orientations, I created latent interaction terms between predictors (leader emotional labor) and moderators (attachment orientations) as additional predictors in the statistical model, as well as the main effects of predictors (leader emotional labor) and moderators (attachment orientations), and then regress these on outcomes (leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity). When testing the moderation hypotheses, six statistical test models were constructed for each moderator in order to observe each interaction. Testing a single moderator at a time can avoid possible convergence problems as the entire statistical model has more parameters than can be estimated from the data.

As the predictors and moderators are continuous variables in this study, they were standardized before computing the interaction terms and running the moderation analyses. In Mplus, I set the metric in the latent predictors and moderators by fixing the factor variance at 1, then in effect these latent variables were standardized. Further, I plug in the values of 1, 0 and -1 to represent 1 standard deviation above the mean, the mean, and 1 standard deviation below the mean of the moderators. The high, medium, and low values of the moderators were used to enable probing of the moderation effects via simple slopes tests and plots. Standardizing predictors and/or moderators can aid the interpretation of main effects of predictors and moderators in the model. It also makes probing, interpreting and plotting the moderation effects much easier. However, the standardizing does not affect the significance or effect size of the interaction effect (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000).

As the model includes latent interactions, the type of analysis needed to be set to allow random slopes, and estimates were calculated through numerical integration, using the distribution of the latent variables to control for the nonlinear effects implied by the latent interactions. Models were estimated using the maximum likelihood estimator with robust standard errors (MLR) in all moderation analyses. Significant interactions were probed using simple slope tests, with high, medium and low values defined as one standard deviation above the mean, the mean, and one standard deviation below the mean of moderators.

3.5.3.3 Moderated Mediation Test

In evaluating conditional indirect effects, a latent moderated mediation approach can be used to test whether the indirect effect of an independent variable(s) on a dependent variable(s) through a mediator(s) differs according to the levels of a moderator(s), or in other words, moderated mediation occurs when mediation relations are contingent on the level of a moderator(s) (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher, Rucke, & Hayes, 2007).

In this study, the hypothesized model fits into the first-stage moderated mediation model (i.e., model 2: $X \times Z \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$) discussed by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007). Following their approach, conditional indirect effects of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being through leader authenticity were calculated at low (−1 SD), mean, and high (+1 SD) levels of attachment orientations. Similar to the mediation and moderation test,

significance of the moderated indirect effects was evaluated using bias corrected confidence intervals based on 5000 bootstrap resamples with replacement (Hayes, 2013). Further, all manifest variables were standardized prior to analyses to put them on a common scale.

3.6 Summary

This chapter discussed the study design and rationale, the methodology, ethical procedure, and data analysis procedure. Online survey design was used to collect data from organizations in the UK. All scales used in this thesis have been used in multiple studies and have strong reliability and validity. Also, the variables in this study have adequate Cronbach Alphas. Qualtrics survey software was used to collect survey data, and the data were transformed and cleaned using IBM SPSS Statistics version 25 software packaged. Structural equation modelling technique was used to test the study model and all hypotheses tests were performed in Mplus version 8. The results of the preliminary analysis and structural equation modeling are displayed in the Next Chapter.

Chapter 4 Results

Chapter 4 of the thesis presents research analyses results and findings. The analyses intend to provide evidence for how leader authenticity mediates the effects of leader emotional labor on both leader and follower well-being as well as for possible moderation effects of attachment orientations on the indirect relationships. I followed the two-step approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) in that I first tested the fit of measurement models and then tested the hypothesized model. Therefore, this chapter is laid in two parts. The first part of this chapter is devoted to descriptive statistics and measurement model assessments. The second part presents details of the analyses of research models employing structural equation modeling technique. The second part of this chapter comprises three sections to present the results of the hypotheses tests. Specifically, the three subsections are: (1) results of mediation research model, (2) results of moderation model, and (3) results of moderated mediation model. I tested the hypothesized relations in a latent structural equation model with the Mplus 8 program (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2017) using a robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimator to accommodate any minor sources of non-normality among the measured variables (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). The hypotheses included indirect effects as well as moderation. I applied bootstrapping with 10,000 draws to determine the significance of the indirect effects (Hayes, 2013; Helfrich & Dietl, 2019). To test the moderation effects, I conducted Klein and Moosbrugger's (2000) Latent Moderated Structural Equation Modeling (LMS) approach. In line with Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007), I analyzed the conditional indirect effects at high and low values of the moderators (± one standard deviation). I also ran separate CFAs for the specific mediation and moderation test models to evaluate the discriminant validity of the key study measures.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Measurement Model

Sufficient validity and reliability of measurement models are a prerequisite for analyzing structural models. Thus, this part of the chapter begins with descriptive statistics, including correlations among study variables. The subsequent section offers measurement model assessments as being valid if the items measure what they intend to measure, and as being reliable if the items are basically free from random errors (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations of all study variables are presented in Table 4.1. Both Cronbach α and factor score determinacy coefficients are reported in the table to demonstrate the quality of the scales used in this study. In the present study, the internal consistency of these instruments was satisfactory as measured by Cronbach α and factor score determinacy coefficients.

A review of the correlations indicates that leader surface acting was negatively correlated to leader felt authenticity ($r = -0.25$, $p < 0.01$), and leader genuine emotion was positively related to leader felt authenticity ($r = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$). On the contrary, the correlation between leader deep acting and leader felt authenticity was not statistically significant. Further, leader felt authenticity was positively correlated to leader rated leader-member exchange relationship ($r = 0.38$, $p < 0.01$), leader recovery ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$) and leader work-family enrichment ($r = 0.42$, $p < 0.01$). Leader felt authenticity was also found to negatively correlate to leader emotional exhaustion ($r = -0.24$, $p < 0.01$). It is noteworthy that leader emotional labor was not statistically associated with follower perceived leader authenticity, while follower perceived leader authenticity was positively correlated to follower rated leader-member exchange relationship ($r = 0.72$, $p < 0.01$), follower recovery ($r = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$) and follower work-family enrichment ($r = 0.42$, $p < 0.01$). Finally, the correlation between follower perceived leader authenticity and follower emotional exhaustion was statistically negative ($r = -0.22$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4. 1 Descriptive Statistics, Reliability and Correlations among All Study Variables

		Mean	SD	FDS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1	**leader gender**	1.53	0.50	-																						
2	**leader age**	46.00	8.95	-	-0.08																					
3	**follower gender**	1.69	0.46	-	.33**	-0.03																				
4	**follower age**	38.77	11.03	-	0.03	.27**	0.11																			
5	**dyadic tenure**	52.46	58.90	-	-0.03	.21**	0.09	.21**																		
6	**LT1. anx**	1.80	0.63	0.87	-0.09	-0.11	-.18**	-0.08	-0.12	(.64)																
7	**LT1. avoid**	2.97	0.85	0.91	-0.09	.20**	0.06	0.08	0.10	0.00	(.79)															
8	**LT1. sa**	2.48	0.62	0.90	-0.01	0.08	0.03	0.00	-0.08	.23**	.30**	(.74)														
9	**LT1. da**	2.90	0.92	0.98	.16*	-0.14	0.06	0.05	-0.06	0.03	-.23**	0.00	(86)													
10	**LT1. ge**	4.03	0.67	0.94	0.09	0.07	-0.03	-0.04	0.07	-.15*	-.34**	-.46**	0.01	(.85)												
11	**LT1. authen**	4.08	0.35	0.92	0.08	0.13	0.02	.16*	0.09	-.32**	-.19**	-.25**	0.13	.37**	(.79)											
12	**LT2. lmx**	4.12	0.53	0.93	0.05	0.10	0.06	.18*	.25**	-.23**	-.18*	-.15*	0.10	.19**	.38**	(.85)										
13	**LT2. emex**	2.88	1.10	0.96	.20**	-.17*	0.08	-.16*	-0.09	.38**	-0.01	.33**	0.08	-.15*	-.24**	-.21**	(.92)									
14	**LT2. recovery**	3.17	0.67	0.96	-0.01	0.08	0.04	0.10	0.03	-.30**	-0.03	-.20**	-0.06	.15*	.32**	.15*	-.43**	(.88)								
15	**LT2. wfe**	3.62	0.73	0.96	0.05	-0.02	.17*	.16*	0.07	-.28**	-.20**	-.19**	0.06	.25**	.42**	.18*	-.38**	.39**	(.90)							
16	**FT1. anx**	1.85	0.69	0.90	0.06	-0.08	-0.06	-.22**	-0.03	.16*	-0.08	0.01	0.10	0.01	-0.10	-0.12	.19**	-0.08	-.21**	(.73)						
17	**FT1. avoid**	2.86	0.86	0.92	-0.10	0.10	-0.08	0.14	-0.04	.18**	.16*	0.02	-0.08	0.01	-0.08	-0.13	-0.04	0.01	-0.03	0.03	(.81)					
18	**FT1. authen**	4.02	0.64	0.92	0.05	-0.02	0.02	-0.05	0.03	-0.09	-0.10	0.04	-0.06	-0.01	0.04	.22**	-0.01	0.04	0.04	-.26**	-.17*	(.93)				
19	**FT2. lmx**	4.15	0.70	0.96	0.00	0.04	0.03	-0.01	0.10	-0.13	-0.11	0.04	-0.01	-0.03	0.09	.39**	-0.07	-0.05	0.01	-.28**	-0.13	.72**	(.90)			
20	**FT2. emex**	2.75	0.99	0.96	0.04	-0.13	-0.10	-.17*	0.06	.16*	0.00	0.09	0.00	-0.03	-0.07	-.15*	.29**	-0.05	-.19**	.46**	-0.06	-.22**	-.32**	(.90)		
21	**FT2. recovery**	3.39	0.65	0.96	-0.07	0.04	0.09	0.03	-0.02	0.04	0.07	0.00	-0.06	-0.05	-0.08	0.12	-.17*	.18*	0.10	-.18**	0.06	.18*	.20**	-.41**	(.86)	
22	**FT2. wfe**	3.59	0.74	0.97	0.02	0.00	0.10	0.04	-0.06	-.21**	-0.11	-0.10	-0.03	0.02	.15*	.15*	-0.11	0.00	.14*	-.25**	-.29**	.42**	.41**	-.37**	0.04	(.91)

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed);

pairwise deletion N=202 participants;

FDS = Factor score determinacy; LT1. = leader Time 1; LT2. = leader Time 2; FT1. = follower Time 1; FT2. = follower Time 2;

anx = attachment anxiety; avoid = attachment avoidance; sa = surface acting; da = deep acting; ge = genuine emotion;
authen = leader authenticity; lmx = leader member exchange relationship; emex = emotional exhaustion; wfe = work family enrichment;

Internal consistency reliabilities (α) are in parentheses on the diagonal.

4.1.2 Measurement Model

This subsection presents details on the assessment of the measurement models. In this regard, leaders provided ratings of leader attachment orientations, leader emotional labor and leader felt authenticity, leader well-being outcomes. Followers rated follower attachment orientations, follower perceived leader authenticity and follower well-being outcomes. Following recommendations by Podsakoff and colleagues (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012), I used the independent variable (leader emotional labor) from the first time point of measurement and the dependent variable (leader well-being and follower well-being) from the second time point of measurement. The mediation variables (leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity) and moderation variables (attachment orientations) were assessed at the first time point of measurement. Although measured at different time points and from two sources, study variables may suffer from a variety of rating biases, which may threaten their discriminant validity. I therefore conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) with Mplus 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017) to examine the discriminant validity of the multi-item variables in the study. Table 4.2 shows the results of model fit comparisons, compared with all alternative models, the hypothesized seventeen factor model produced a good fit to the data: $\chi 2$ (1294) = 1849.44, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.92; TLI = 0.91; RMSEA = 0.05; SRMR = 0.05. These results provided support for the discriminant validity of the key constructs in this study.

In addition, common method variance was tested using Harman's one-factor test by entering all seventeen variables into an unrotated exploratory factor analysis using SPSS and forcing a 1-factor solution (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). The results indicated that the single factor accounted for only 20.8% of the variance. This would suggest that common method bias is not of major concern. Taken together, the results of the construct assessment procedures exhibit sound operationalization and indicate no limitations for further analyses of the structural model.

Table 4. 2 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses

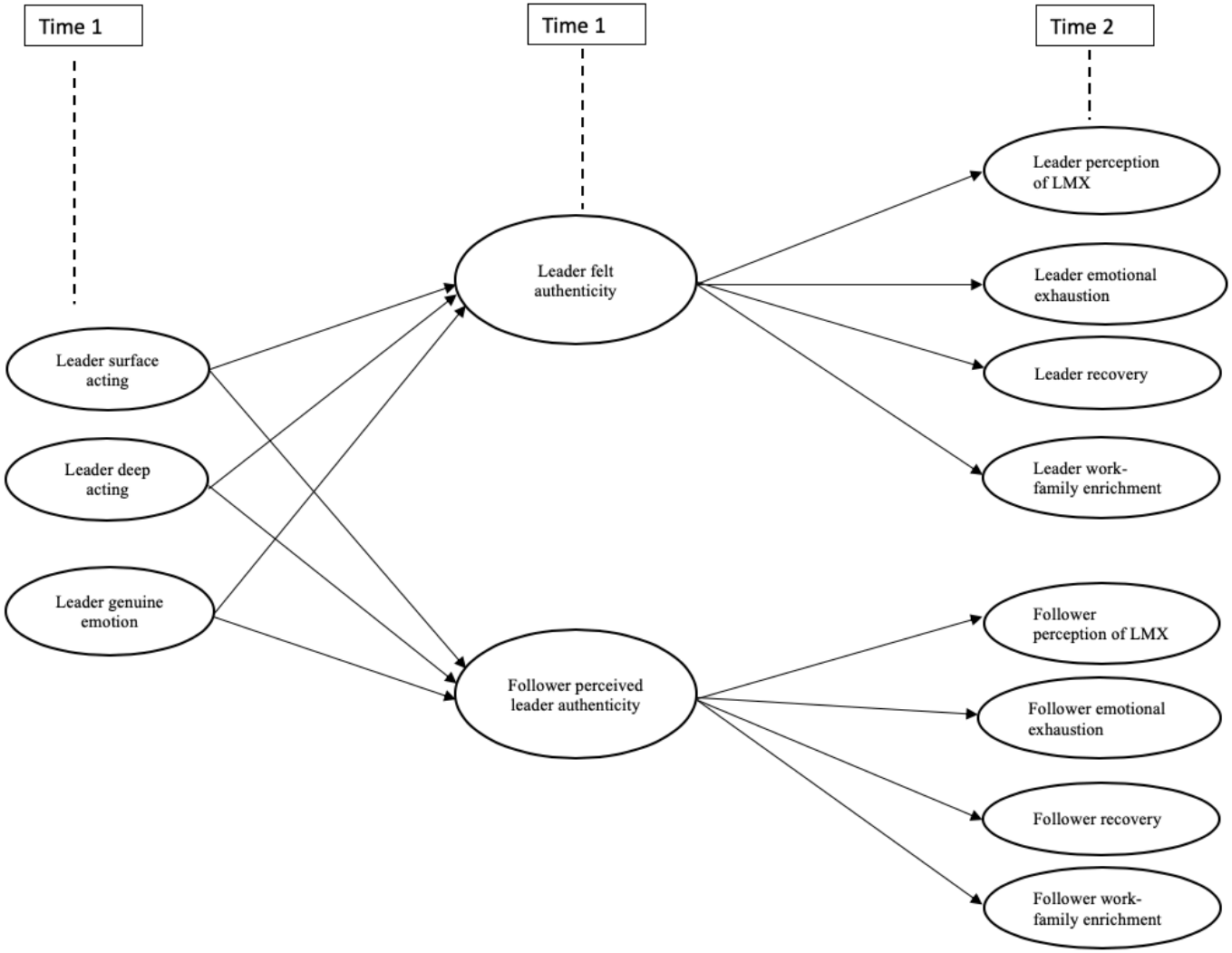
Model Number	Model	χ2	df	p	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
1	1 factor model	7177.49	1430	<0.001	0.18	0.15	0.16	0.14
2	3 factor model	5840.70	1427	<0.001	0.37	0.35	0.13	0.12
3	5 factor model	5590.55	1420	<0.001	0.41	0.38	0.13	0.12
4	7 factor model	5199.72	1409	<0.001	0.46	0.43	0.13	0.12
5	9 factor model	4590.44	1394	<0.001	0.55	0.52	0.11	0.11
6	11 factor model	3841.17	1375	<0.001	0.65	0.62	0.11	0.09
7	13 factor model	2852.64	1352	<0.001	0.79	0.77	0.09	0.07
8	17 factor model	1849.44	1294	<0.001	0.92	0.91	0.05	0.05

Note. *χ2 = the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic; df = degree of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis Index (Tucker & Lewis, 1973); SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation (Steiger, 1990); All factor models are described in section 3.5.2.3 of Chapter 3 of the thesis.*

4.2 Mediation Results

Bootstrapping approach with the aid of Mplus developed by Stride et al. was used to test mediation hypotheses (Stride, Gardner, Catley, & Thomas, 2015). Because I hypothesized that leader authenticity mediates the effect of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being, I ran the model indirect with 10,000 bootstrapped resamples by using the three subdimensions of leader emotional labor as the independent variables; leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity as the mediators; leader and follower well-being outcomes as the dependent variables; and dyadic tenure as the control variable (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4. 1 Hypothesized Mediation Model



Note: LMX = leader-member exchange relationship.

4.2.1 Assessment of Mediation Measurement Model

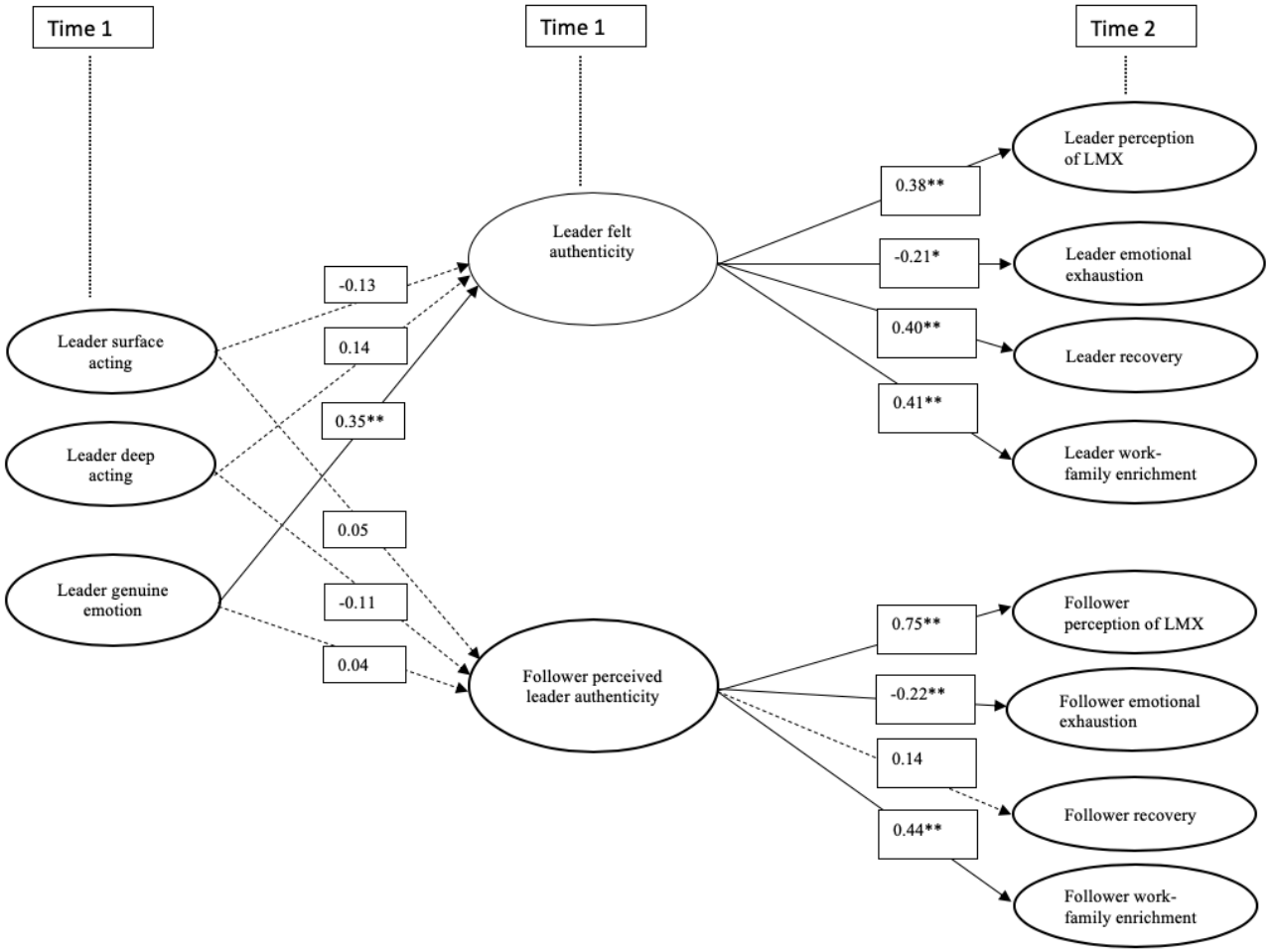
To test the mediation hypotheses, I estimated all indirect effects in one model (see Figure 4.1) The model consisted of thirteen latent factors, which exhibited an acceptable fit to the data: $\chi 2$= 1056.08 (782), $p < .001$; CFI=.95; TLI=.95; RMSEA=.04; SRMR=.05.

4.2.2 Path Coefficients

Figure 4.2 depicts the standardized path estimate results yielded by structural equation model (SEM) for the mediation model, which shows that leader surface acting did not significantly predict either leader felt authenticity (β= -0.13, SE = 0.13, p = 0.30) or follower perceived leader authenticity (β= 0.05, SE = 0.13, p = 0.72), in contrast with Hypotheses 1a-b. Contrary to Hypotheses 2a-b, the results further show that leader deep acting did not significantly predicted either leader felt authenticity (β= 0.14, SE = 0.07, p = 0.05) or follower perceived leader authenticity (β= -0.11, SE = 0.08, p = 0.17). Thus, Hypotheses 2a-b were not supported. In addition, leader genuine emotion was positively related to leader felt authenticity (β= 0.35, SE = 0.11, p < 0.01), in support of Hypothesis 3a, whereas leader genuine emotion did not significantly predict follower perceived leader authenticity (β= 0.04, SE = 0.14, p = 0.78), in contrast with Hypothesis 3b.

In line with Hypotheses 4a and 5a, leader felt authenticity positively predicted leader perception of LMX (β= 0.38, SE = 0.09, p < 0.01), and follower perceived leader authenticity positively predicted follower perception of LMX (β= 0.75, SE = 0.05, p < 0.01). Moreover, leader felt authenticity was negatively related to leader emotional exhaustion (β= -0.21, SE = 0.11, p = 0.04), and follower perceived leader authenticity negatively predicted follower emotional exhaustion (β= -0.22, SE = 0.08, p < 0.01). The results offered support for Hypotheses 6a and 7a. Supporting Hypothesis 8a, leader felt authenticity was positively related to leader recovery (β= 0.40, SE = 0.09, p < 0.01). Turning to the hypothesis 9a, follower perceived leader authenticity did not significantly predict follower recovery (β= 0.14, SE = 0.08, p = 0.09). Finally, as it is evident from Figure 4.2, leader felt authenticity positively predicted leader WFE (β= 0.41, SE = 0.08, p < 0.01), and follower perceived leader authenticity positively predicted follower WFE (β= 0.44, SE = 0.08, p < 0.01). Hypotheses 10a and 11a thus received support.

Figure 4. 2 Path Estimates of Hypothesized Mediation Model



*Note: 1) N=202. Reported values are standardized path estimates. LMX = leader-member exchange relationship. 2) Solid lines represent significant paths and dashed lines indicate non-significant paths. 3) *p< .05; **p < .01.*

4.2.3 Indirect Effects

To further and directly examine the proposed mediating effects of leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, I conducted an indirect effect test with SEM using Mplus 8. Standardized estimation, standard errors, t values, and 95% bias corrected confidence intervals (95% BCCI) from 10,000 bootstrap iterations are presented in Table 4.3.

As shown in Table 4.3, the mediated pathway from leader surface acting to leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity included zero. Thus, Hypothesis 4b was not supported. In support of hypothesis 4c, the indirect effect of leader deep acting through leader felt authenticity on leader perception of LMX is 0.05 at the 95% significance level (the bias corrected bootstrap 95% confidence interval around the indirect effect did not contain zero [>0, 0.13]). In addition, the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion through leader felt authenticity on leader perception of LMX is 0.13 at the 95% significance level (the bias corrected bootstrap 95% confidence interval around the indirect effect did not contain zero [0.05, 0.28]). This test provided support for the mediating hypothesis 4d.

Hypothesis 5b proposed that follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower perception of LMX. However, the mediating effect was not significant, and thus hypothesis 5b was not supported. Moreover, in contrast to Hypotheses 5c and 5d, both the indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity, and the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity were not significant.

Table 4.3 shows leader felt authenticity did not mediate both the relationship between leader surface acting and leader emotional exhaustion and the relationship between leader deep acting and leader emotional exhaustion. Thus, Hypotheses 6b and 6c were not supported, whereas the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion through leader felt authenticity on leader emotional exhaustion is -0.07 (95% BCCI [-0.20, -0.01]), indicating Hypothesis 6d was supported.

Further, the mediated pathway from leader surface acting to follower emotional exhaustion via follower perceived leader authenticity included zero. Thus, Hypothesis 7b was not

supported. Also, contrary to Hypotheses 7c and 7d, both the mediated pathway from leader deep acting to follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity, and the mediated pathway from leader genuine emotion to follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity included zero.

In addition, the mediated pathway from leader surface acting to leader recovery through leader felt authenticity included zero, and thus Hypothesis 8b was not supported. In support of hypothesis 8c, the indirect effect of leader deep acting through leader felt authenticity on leader recovery is 0.06 at the 95% significance level (the bias corrected bootstrap 95% confidence interval around the indirect effect did not contain zero [>0, 0.14]). In addition, the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion through leader felt authenticity on leader recovery is 0.14 at the 95% significance level (the bias corrected bootstrap 95% confidence interval around the indirect effect did not contain zero [0.06, 0.28]). This is consistent with the mediating hypothesis 8d.

Hypothesis 9b stated that follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower recovery. However, the indirect effect was not significant, and thus hypothesis 9b was not supported. Moreover, contrary to Hypotheses 9c and 9d, both the indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity, and the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity were not significant.

Table 4.3 shows the mediated pathway from leader surface acting to leader work-family enrichment through leader felt authenticity included zero. Thus, Hypothesis 10b was not supported, whereas the indirect effect of leader deep acting through leader felt authenticity on leader work-family enrichment is 0.06 (95% BCCI [>0, 0.14]), and the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion through leader felt authenticity on leader work-family enrichment is 0.14 (95% BCCI [0.06, 0.27]), providing support for the mediating hypotheses 10c and 10d.

Finally, the mediated pathway from leader surface acting to follower work-family enrichment via follower perceived leader authenticity included zero. Thus, Hypothesis 11b was not supported. Also, contrary to Hypotheses 11c and 11d, both the mediated pathway from leader deep acting to follower work-family enrichment through follower perceived leader

authenticity, and the mediated pathway from leader genuine emotion to follower work-family enrichment through follower perceived leader authenticity included zero.

Table 4. 3 Indirect Effect Estimates with Bias Corrected 95% Confidence Intervals

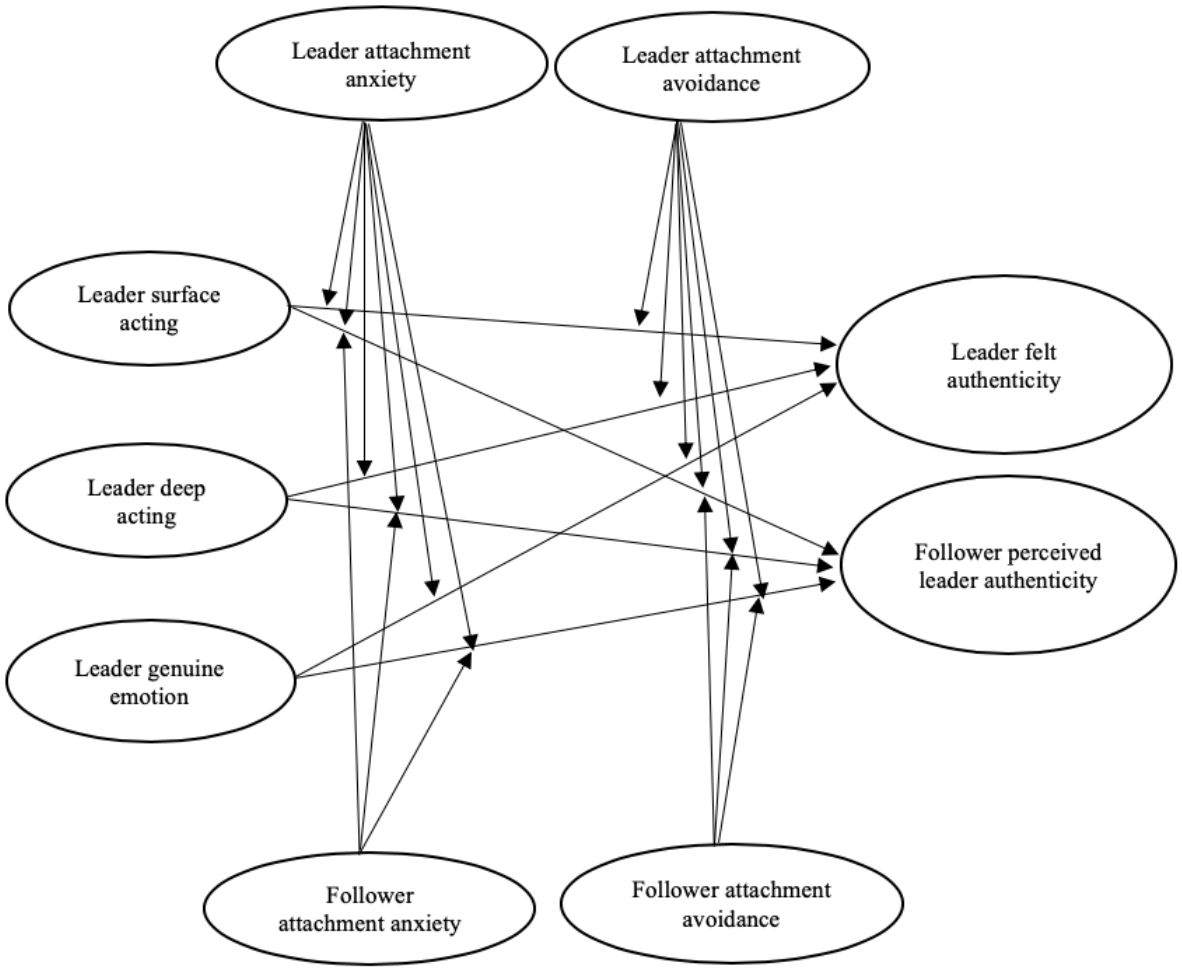
					Lower 2.5%	Estimate	Upper 2.5%	S.E.	Est./S.E.
Hypothesis	**effects from leader emotional labor to leader outcomes**								
	mediator: leader felt authenticity								
H4b	SA →	felt authenticity	→	leader rated LMX	-0.15	-0.05	0.04	0.05	-1.02
H4c	DA →	felt authenticity	→	leader rated LMX	>0	0.05	0.13	0.03	1.68
H4d	GE →	felt authenticity	→	leader rated LMX	0.05	0.13	0.28	0.06	2.33
H6b	SA →	felt authenticity	→	leader emotional exhaustion	-0.01	0.03	0.12	0.03	0.85
H6c	DA →	felt authenticity	→	leader emotional exhaustion	-0.10	-0.03	0.00	0.02	-1.27
H6d	GE →	felt authenticity	→	leader emotional exhaustion	-0.20	-0.07	-0.01	0.05	-1.53
H8b	SA →	felt authenticity	→	leader recovery	-0.17	-0.05	0.04	0.05	-0.98
H8c	DA →	felt authenticity	→	leader recovery	>0	0.06	0.14	0.03	1.67
H8d	GE →	felt authenticity	→	leader recovery	0.06	0.14	0.28	0.06	2.52
H10b	SA →	felt authenticity	→	leader work family enrichment	-0.17	-0.05	0.04	0.05	-1.00
H10c	DA →	felt authenticity	→	leader work family enrichment	>0	0.06	0.14	0.03	1.71
H10d	GE →	felt authenticity	→	leader work family enrichment	0.06	0.14	0.27	0.05	2.65
	effects from leader emotional labor to follower outcomes								
	mediator: follower perceived leader authenticity								
H5b	SA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower rated LMX	-0.16	0.04	0.23	0.10	0.36
H5c	DA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower rated LMX	-0.19	-0.08	0.04	0.06	-1.40
H5d	GE →	perceived authenticity	→	follower rated LMX	-0.17	0.03	0.24	0.11	0.29
H7b	SA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower emotional exhaustion	-0.08	-0.01	0.05	0.03	-0.31
H7c	DA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower emotional exhaustion	-0.01	0.02	0.08	0.02	1.12
H7d	GE →	perceived authenticity	→	follower emotional exhaustion	-0.09	-0.01	0.05	0.04	-0.25
H9b	SA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower recovery	-0.03	0.01	0.07	0.02	0.29
H9c	DA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower recovery	-0.06	-0.02	>0	0.02	-1.02
H9d	GE →	perceived authenticity	→	follower recovery	-0.03	0.01	0.07	0.02	0.24
H11b	SA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower work family enrichment	-0.09	0.02	0.15	0.06	0.35
H11c	DA →	perceived authenticity	→	follower work family enrichment	-0.13	-0.05	0.02	0.04	-1.30
H11d	GE →	perceived authenticity	→	follower work family enrichment	-0.10	0.02	0.16	0.07	0.28
Note: N=202. Bias corrected bootstrap 95% confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013) was used to examine the possible mediation effects.									
Table estimates are standardized parameter estimates.									
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion; LMX = leader-member exchange relationship.									
felt authenticity = leader felt authenticity; perceived authenticity = follower perceived leader authenticity.									

In summary, the above path estimates results provided initial results for the mediating role of leader felt authenticity in the leader emotional labor–leader well-being linkage and the mediating role of follower perceived leader authenticity in the leader emotional labor–follower well-being linkage specified in hypotheses 1-11. The further indirect effect test showed that leader felt authenticity did not mediate the relationship between leader surface acting and leader well-being. Thus, hypotheses 4b, 6b, 8b and 10b were not supported. As predicted in hypotheses 4c, 8c and 10c, leader felt authenticity mediated the effect of leader deep acting on leader rated leader-member exchange relationship, leader recovery, and leader work-family enrichment. However, the mediating effect of leader felt authenticity for leader emotional exhaustion proposed in hypothesis 6c was not supported. Furthermore, the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion on leader well-being through leader felt authenticity were significant. Thus, hypotheses 4d, 6d, 8d and 10d received support. Finally, turning to the effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity, hypotheses 5b-d, 7b-d, 9b-d, and 11b-d concerning the mediation effects were not confirmed.

4.3 Moderation Results

The moderating effects of attachment orientations were tested using Klein and Moosbrugger's (2000) latent moderated structural equations method in Mplus 8 (see Moosbrugger, Schermelleh-Engel, Kelava, & Klein, 2009). Figure 4.3 presents the hypothesized moderation model. When testing all moderation hypotheses, I specified six moderation statistical models for each moderator in order to observe interactions between each moderator and the independent variables. When a significant interaction was observed, I plotted the interaction at high and low values of the moderator (± one standard deviation) (Preacher, Pucker, & Hayes, 2007). Any significant moderator effects were probed using simple slopes analysis (as discussed in Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Results of those moderation analyses are presented in Table 4.4-4.9. The tables contain the standardized estimates, standard errors, t values and p values.

Figure 4. 3 Hypothesized Moderation Model



4.3.1 Assessment of Moderation Measurement Model

As latent moderated structural equations method does not produce indices of absolute model fit in Mplus, I initially confirmed that the measurement model – containing the latent study variables fit the data well. The moderation model measurement model consisted of nine latent factors and it exhibited an acceptable fit to the data: $\chi 2 = 482.83$ (341), $p < .001$; CFI=.94; TLI=.93; RMSEA=.05; SRMR=.06.

4.3.2 Interaction Effects of Leader Emotional Labor and Leader Attachment Orientations on Leader Felt Authenticity

The results for the moderating hypotheses presented in Table 4.4 indicate no support for Hypotheses 12a-12c. Leader attachment anxiety was negatively related to leader felt

authenticity, but leader surface acting and leader attachment anxiety did not interact to predict leader felt authenticity (Hypothesis 12a). Also, contrary to the expectations, Table 4.4 shows that both the interaction between leader deep acting and leader attachment anxiety did not significantly predict leader felt authenticity (Hypothesis 12b), and the interaction between leader genuine emotion and leader attachment anxiety did not significantly predict leader felt authenticity (Hypothesis 12c).

Moreover, as shown in Table 4.5, findings did not support the hypothesized moderating effect of leader attachment avoidance on the relationship between leader emotional labor and leader felt authenticity. The interaction between leader attachment avoidance and leader surface acting was not significantly related to leader felt authenticity. Thus, Hypothesis 13a was not supported. Hypothesis 13b proposed that leader deep acting and leader attachment avoidance would interact to predict leader felt authenticity. However, in contrast to the expectation, Table 4.5 shows that the interaction between leader deep acting and leader attachment avoidance did not significantly predict leader felt authenticity. Also, Hypothesis 13c cannot not be supported because leader attachment avoidance did not moderate the effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity.

Table 4. 4 Results of Moderation Model 1

Hypothesis	Model 1 outcome: leader felt authenticity	Est.	S.E.	Est. /S.E.	P
	Dyadic tenure	0.05	0.09	0.52	0.60
	leader surface acting	-0.02	0.13	-0.15	0.88
	leader deep acting	0.13	0.07	1.89	0.06
	leader genuine emotion	0.34**	0.10	3.46	<.01
	leader attachment anxiety	-0.34**	0.10	-3.43	<.01
	leader attachment avoidance	-0.04	0.11	-0.34	0.74
H12a	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety	0.11	0.09	1.16	0.25
H12b	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety	-0.05	0.08	-0.65	0.52
H12c	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety	-0.05	0.11	-0.46	0.65
Note: N=202. Table estimates are standardized parameter estimates.					
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion.					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 4. 5 Results of Moderation Model 2

Hypothesis	Model 2 outcome: leader felt authenticity	Est.	S.E.	Est. /S.E.	P
	Dyadic tenure	0.05	0.10	0.54	0.59
	leader surface acting	< 0.00	0.14	-0.03	0.98
	leader deep acting	0.16*	0.07	2.24	0.03
	leader genuine emotion	0.32**	0.09	3.61	<.01
	leader attachment anxiety	-0.35**	0.10	-3.69	<.01
	leader attachment avoidance	-0.05	0.11	-0.48	0.63
H13a	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance	0.02	0.14	0.12	0.91
H13b	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance	-0.03	0.09	-0.36	0.72
H13c	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance	0.04	0.12	0.32	0.75
Note: N=202. Table estimates are standardized parameter estimates.					
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion.					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

4.3.3 Interaction Effects of Leader Emotional Labor and Leader Attachment Orientations on Follower Perceived Leader Authenticity

The results of the analyses for Hypotheses 14a-14c are presented in Table 4.6. Regarding Hypothesis 14a, the interaction between leader surface acting and leader attachment anxiety was not significantly related to follower perceived leader authenticity. Thus, Hypothesis 14a was not supported. Additionally, the results are not supportive of Hypothesis 14b. In contrast to the hypothesis, leader attachment anxiety did not moderate the relationship between leader deep acting and follower perceived leader authenticity. The results are supportive of Hypothesis 14c that leader attachment anxiety moderates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower perceived leader authenticity (β= 0.44, SE = 0.17, $p < 0.01$) (see Table 4.6 and Figure 4.4). The plot of the relationship reveals significant negative slopes for leader genuine emotion at low levels of leader attachment anxiety (- 1 SD; b = -0.38, $p < 0.01$). At medium (mean, b = -0.10, p = 0.16) and high (+ 1 SD; b = 0.18, p = 0.14) levels of leader attachment anxiety, however, the relation between leader genuine emotion and follower perceived leader authenticity was not significant.

The findings for Hypotheses 15a-15c are reported in Table 4.7. The interaction of leader surface acting and leader attachment avoidance was not significant with respect to follower perceived leader authenticity. Thus, Hypothesis 15a was not supported. In Hypothesis 15b, I predicted the interaction effect of leader deep acting and leader attachment avoidance on

follower perceived leader authenticity. This hypothesis found support, as summarized in Table 4.7 (β= -0.18, SE = 0.07, p = 0.01). The nature of the interaction is shown in Figure 4.5. Simple slope analysis indicates that leader deep acting was negatively related to follower perceived leader authenticity when leader attachment avoidance was high (+ 1 SD; b = -0.19, p < 0.01), but was not significantly related to follower perceived leader authenticity when leader attachment avoidance was medium (mean, b = -0.08, p = 0.07) and low (- 1 SD; b = 0.04, p = 0.53). Furthermore, the interaction of leader genuine emotion and leader attachment avoidance was not significantly related to follower perceived leader authenticity. Thus, Hypothesis 15c regarding the moderating effect of leader attachment avoidance on the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower perceived leader authenticity was not supported.

Table 4. 6 Results of Moderation Model 3

Hypothesis	Model 3 outcome: follower perceived leader authenticity	Est.	S.E.	Est. /S.E.	P
	Dyadic tenure	0.02	0.06	0.25	0.80
	leader surface acting	0.15	0.11	1.40	0.16
	leader deep acting	-0.13	0.07	-1.77	0.08
	leader genuine emotion	-0.15	0.11	-1.43	0.15
	leader attachment anxiety	-0.19	0.11	-1.70	0.09
	leader attachment avoidance	-0.29**	0.11	-2.78	<.01
	follower attachment anxiety	-0.29**	0.09	-3.30	<.01
	follower attachment avoidance	-0.12	0.08	-1.53	0.13
H14a	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety	0.17	0.20	0.87	0.39
H14b	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety	-0.05	0.10	-0.53	0.60
H14c	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety	0.44**	0.17	2.63	<.01
Note: N=202. Table estimates are standardized parameter estimates.					
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion.					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 4. 7 Results of Moderation Model 4

Hypothesis	Model 4 outcome: follower perceived leader authenticity	Est.	S.E.	Est. /S.E.	P
	Dyadic tenure	0.02	0.06	0.31	0.76
	leader surface acting	0.10	0.15	0.64	0.52
	leader deep acting	-0.12	0.07	-1.84	0.07
	leader genuine emotion	< 0.00	0.12	< 0.00	1.00
	leader attachment anxiety	-0.08	0.10	-0.81	0.42
	leader attachment avoidance	-0.17	0.12	-1.46	0.15
	follower attachment anxiety	-0.30**	0.09	-3.30	<.01
	follower attachment avoidance	-0.15	0.08	-1.77	0.08
H15a	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance	-0.25	0.20	-1.24	0.22
H15b	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance	-0.18*	0.07	-2.45	0.01
H15c	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance	-0.33	0.24	-1.35	0.18
Note: N=202. Table estimates are standardized parameter estimates.					
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion.					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Figure 4. 4 Interaction of Leader Genuine Emotion and Leader Attachment Anxiety to Predict Follower Perceived Leader Authenticity

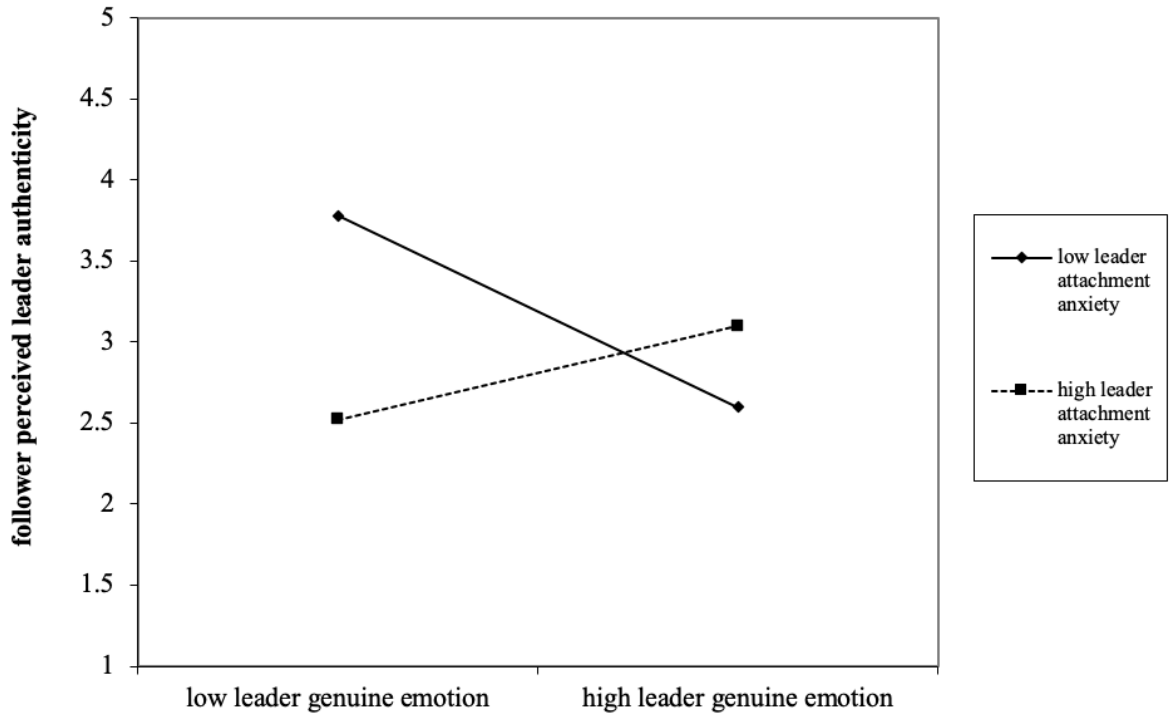
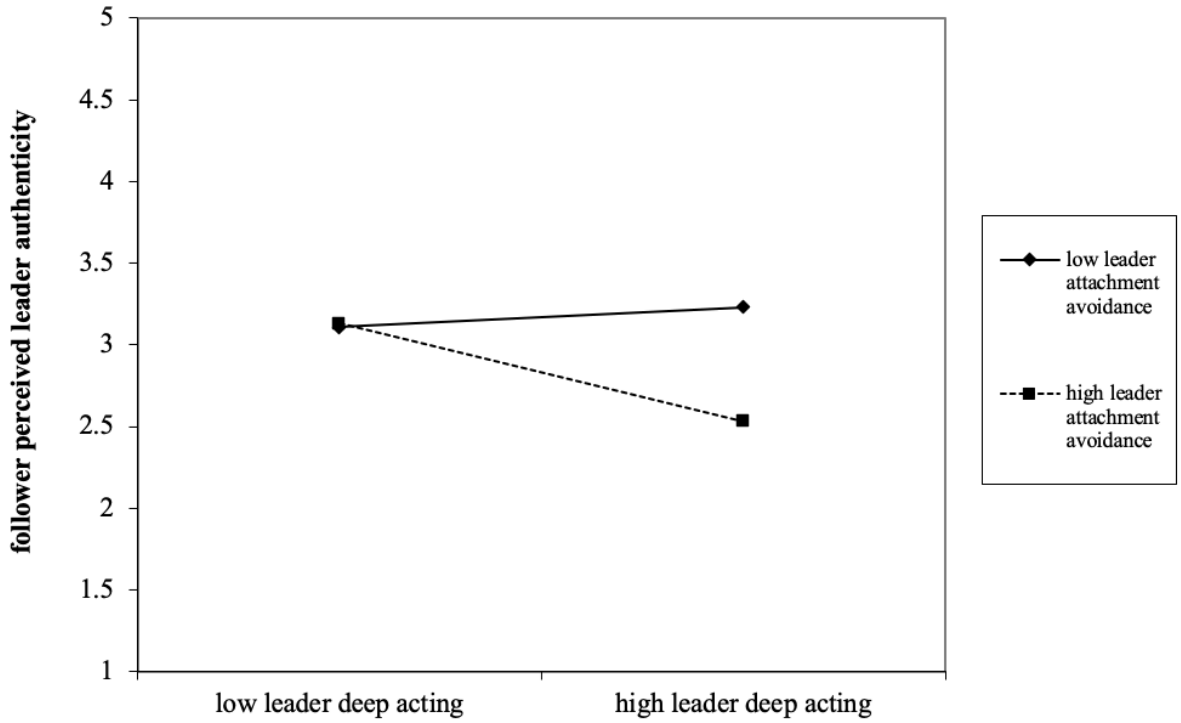


Figure 4. 5 Interaction of Leader Deep Acting and Leader Attachment Avoidance to Predict Follower Perceived Leader Authenticity



4.3.4 Interaction Effects of Leader Emotional Labor and Follower Attachment Orientations on Follower Perceived Leader Authenticity

The results (depicted in Table 4.8) show that follower attachment anxiety did not moderate the relationship between leader emotional labor and follower perceived leader authenticity. Follower attachment anxiety was negatively related to follower perceived leader authenticity, but the interaction between leader surface acting and follower attachment anxiety did not significantly predict follower perceived leader authenticity, and thus this was not in keeping with Hypothesis 16a. Also, contrary to the expectations, the interaction of leader deep acting and follower attachment anxiety did not significantly predict follower perceived leader authenticity (Hypothesis 16b). In Hypothesis 16c, I predicted the interaction effect of leader genuine emotion and follower attachment anxiety on follower perceived leader authenticity. In contrast, Table 4.8 shows that the interaction was not significant. Thus, the prediction was not supported.

With respect to testing the Hypotheses 17a-17c, first, the results did not support the moderating effect of follower attachment avoidance on the relationship between leader

surface acting and follower perceived leader authenticity (see Table 4.9, Hypothesis 17a). However, the moderating role of follower attachment avoidance on the relationship between leader deep acting and follower perceived leader authenticity did receive support (Hypothesis 17b). As predicted, Table 4.9 shows that the interaction between leader deep acting and follower attachment avoidance was significantly related to follower perceived leader authenticity (β= -0.21, SE = 0.07, $p < 0.01$) in the collected data. The interaction is illustrated in Figure 4.6. To examine the interaction further, I conducted a simple slope test. The relationship between leader deep acting and follower perceived leader authenticity was significantly negative at high level of follower attachment avoidance (+ 1 SD; b = -0.21, $p < 0.01$). At medium (b = -0.07, p = 0.08) and low (- 1 SD; b = 0.06, p = 0.33) levels of follower attachment avoidance, however, the relation between leader deep acting and follower perceived leader authenticity was not significant. Finally, contrary to the Hypothesis 17c, Table 4.9 shows that the interaction term between leader genuine emotion and follower attachment avoidance was not significantly related to follower perceived leader authenticity. In short, these results provide evidence for Hypothesis 17b, but not for Hypotheses 17a and 17c.

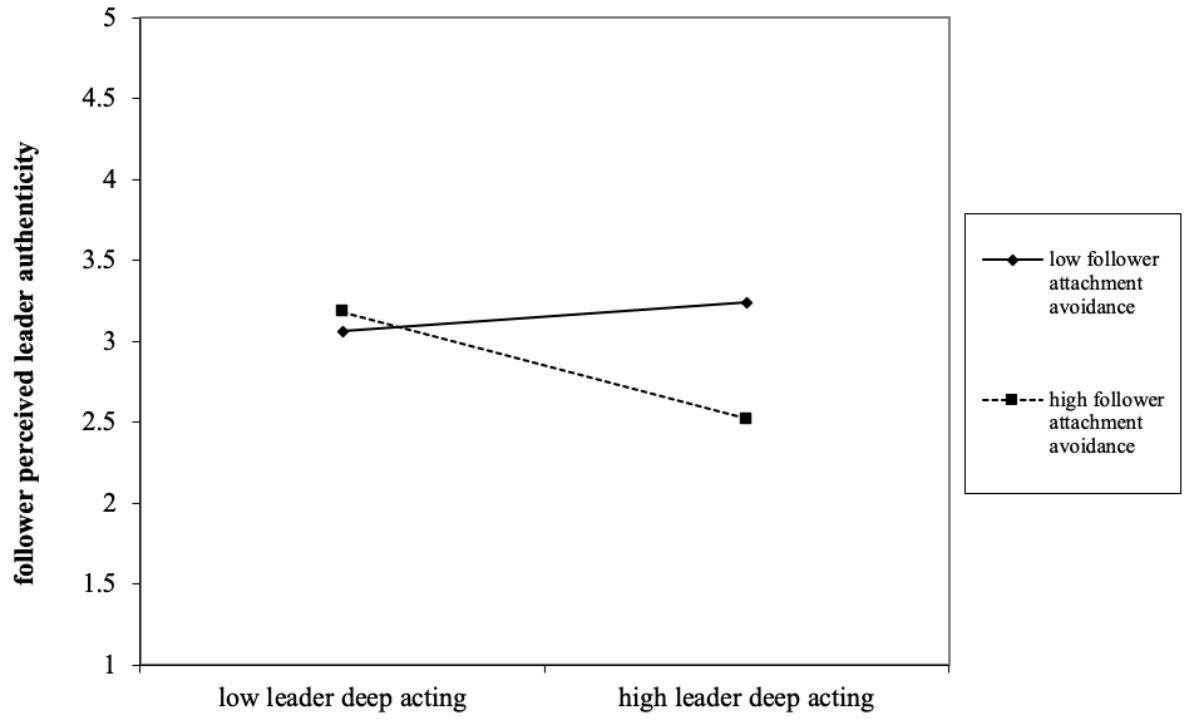
Table 4. 8 Results of Moderation Model 5

Hypothesis	Model 5 outcome: follower perceived leader authenticity	Est.	S.E.	Est. /S.E.	P
	Dyadic tenure	0.02	0.06	0.38	0.71
	leader surface acting	0.18	0.11	1.56	0.12
	leader deep acting	-0.09	0.07	-1.23	0.22
	leader genuine emotion	< 0.00	0.12	-0.03	0.98
	leader attachment anxiety	-0.09	0.10	-0.89	0.38
	leader attachment avoidance	-0.22*	0.11	-1.97	0.05
	follower attachment anxiety	-0.33**	0.10	-3.45	<.01
	follower attachment avoidance	-0.16*	0.09	-1.93	0.05
H16a	SA **X** follower attachment anxiety	0.18	0.19	0.96	0.34
H16b	DA **X** follower attachment anxiety	0.07	0.08	0.84	0.40
H16c	GE **X** follower attachment anxiety	0.31	0.25	1.23	0.22
Note: N=202. Table estimates are standardized parameter estimates.					
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion.					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 4. 9 Results of Moderation Model 6

Hypothesis	Model 6 outcome: follower perceived leader authenticity	Est.	S.E.	Est. /S.E.	P
	Dyadic tenure	> 0.00	0.07	0.04	0.97
	leader surface acting	0.18	0.12	1.49	0.14
	leader deep acting	-0.12	0.07	-1.79	0.07
	leader genuine emotion	-0.01	0.12	-0.05	0.96
	leader attachment anxiety	-0.09	0.09	-0.95	0.34
	leader attachment avoidance	-0.21	0.11	-1.82	0.07
	follower attachment anxiety	-0.28**	0.09	-3.19	<.01
	follower attachment avoidance	-0.15	0.10	-1.53	0.13
H17a	SA **X** follower attachment avoidance	-0.20	0.15	-1.33	0.18
H17b	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance	-0.21**	0.07	-3.10	<.01
H17c	GE **X** follower attachment avoidance	-0.27	0.20	-1.34	0.18
Note: N=202. Table estimates are standardized parameter estimates.					
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion.					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Figure 4. 6 Interaction of Leader Deep Acting and Follower Attachment Avoidance to Predict Follower Perceived Leader Authenticity



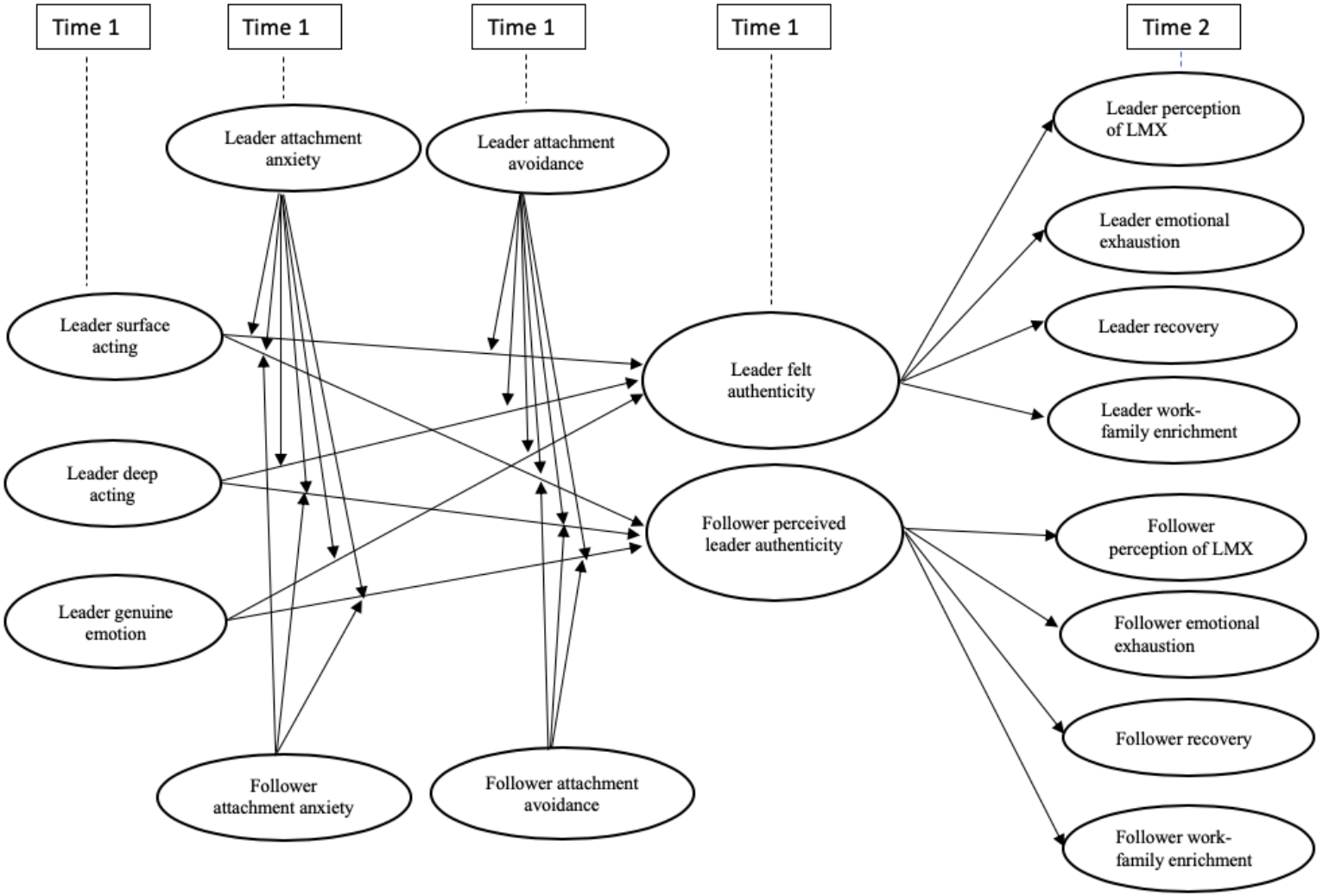
In conclusion, hypotheses 12a-12c and 13a-13c for leader felt authenticity were not supported, demonstrating that leader attachment orientations did not moderate the relationship between leader emotional labor and leader felt authenticity. As predicted in hypothesis 14c, the interaction between leader genuine emotion and leader attachment

anxiety on follower perceived leader authenticity was significant. However, both the interaction between leader surface acting and leader attachment anxiety, and the interaction between leader deep acting and leader attachment anxiety was not related to follower perceived leader authenticity. Thus, hypotheses 14a-b were not supported. Furthermore, the interaction of leader deep acting and leader attachment avoidance was significantly related to follower perceived leader authenticity, in support of hypothesis 15b. However, both the interaction of leader surface acting and leader attachment avoidance, and the interaction of leader genuine emotion and leader attachment avoidance were not related to follower perceived leader authenticity. The results did not offer support for hypothesis 15a and hypothesis 15c. Similarly, the interaction between leader emotional labor and follower attachment anxiety did not predict follower perceived leader authenticity. Hypotheses 16a-16c thus did not receive support. Finally, Hypothesis 17b regarding the interaction effect of leader deep acting and follower attachment avoidance was supported, but hypotheses 17a and 17c were not.

4.4 Moderated Mediation Results

To test hypothesized moderated mediation (see Figure 4.7), I added interactions among the latent independent variables (leader emotional labor and attachment orientations) to the latent structural equation model that contained the latent mediators (leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity) and outcomes (leader well-being and follower well-being) so that the indexes of moderated mediation could be calculated. Moderated mediation results are summarized in Table 4.10-4.14.

Figure 4. 7 Hypothesized Moderated Mediation Model



Note: LMX = leader-member exchange relationship.

4.4.1 Conditional Indirect Effects on Leader Well-being at Varying Levels of Leader Attachment Orientations

Table 4.10 presents the results of the conditional indirect effects of leader emotional labor to leader well-being through leader felt authenticity. Leader attachment anxiety did not moderate the indirect relationships between leader emotional labor and leader well-being through leader felt authenticity, indicating Hypotheses 18a-d, 19a-d and 20a-d were not supported. Similarly, inconsistent with Hypothesized relations 21a-d, 22a-d and 23a-d, the results did not support the hypotheses that the indirect relationships between leader emotional labor and leader well-being through leader felt authenticity were moderated by leader attachment avoidance.

Table 4. 10 Moderated Mediation Results for Leader Outcomes

					Lower 2.5%	Estimate	Upper 2.5%	S.E.	Est./S.E.
Hypothesis	**Outcome: leader rated leader-member relationship**								
H18a	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	LMX	-0.01	0.03	0.07	0.02	1.44
H19a	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	LMX	-0.07	-0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.87
H20a	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	LMX	-0.08	-0.02	0.01	0.02	-1.13
H21a	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	LMX	-0.04	-0.00	0.05	0.02	-0.09
H22a	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	LMX	-0.05	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.05
H23a	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	LMX	-0.04	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.15
	Outcome: leader emotional exhaustion								
H18b	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	EMEX	-0.10	-0.03	0.00	0.03	-1.24
H19b	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	EMEX	-0.01	0.02	0.09	0.02	0.81
H20b	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	EMEX	-0.01	0.03	0.12	0.03	0.94
H21b	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	EMEX	-0.05	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.08
H22b	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	EMEX	-0.06	-0.00	0.04	0.02	-0.05
H23b	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	EMEX	-0.05	-0.00	0.03	0.02	-0.14
	Outcome: leader recovery								
H18c	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	recovery	-0.00	0.03	0.08	0.02	1.35
H19C	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	recovery	-0.08	-0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.81
H20c	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	recovery	-0.08	-0.02	0.01	0.02	-1.08
H21c	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	recovery	-0.04	-0.00	0.05	0.02	-0.08
H22c	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	recovery	-0.04	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.05
H23c	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	recovery	-0.04	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.14
	Outcome: leader work-family enrichment								
H18d	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	WFE	-0.01	0.04	0.09	0.03	1.47
H19d	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	WFE	-0.09	-0.02	0.02	0.03	-0.88
H20d	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	leader felt authenticity →	WFE	-0.11	-0.03	0.02	0.03	-1.09
H21d	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	WFE	-0.06	-0.00	0.06	0.03	-0.09
H22d	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	WFE	-0.05	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.06
H23d	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	leader felt authenticity →	WFE	-0.05	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.15

Note: N=202. 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals (CIs) (Hayes, 2013) was used to examine the possible moderated mediation effects.
Table estimates are unstandardized parameter estimates.
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion; LMX = leader member exchange; EMEX = emotional exhaustion; WFE = work family enrichment.

4.4.2 Conditional Indirect Effects on Follower Well-being at Varying Levels of Leader Attachment Orientations

Results for the moderated mediation effects (leader attachment orientations moderate the indirect effects of leader emotional labor to follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity) are reported in Table 4.11. Non-significant conditional indirect effects were found for the hypotheses 24a-d, 25a-d and 26a-d, suggesting that leader attachment anxiety did not moderate the indirect effects of leader emotional labor to follower well-being through follower perceived leader authenticity.

Furthermore, results for Hypotheses 27a-d indicate that leader attachment avoidance did not significantly moderate the mediation relationship between leader surface acting and follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity.

To determine whether the indirect effect of leader deep acting to follower rated LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity was contingent on leader attachment avoidance (H28a), the index of the moderated mediation was calculated. Table 4.11 shows that the confidence intervals for the index of the moderated mediation did contain zero (index = -0.10, SE = 0.05, 95% BC CI: [-0.20, 0.00]). However, I then investigated conditional indirect effects at varying levels of leader attachment avoidance. Results reported in Table 4.12 indicate that the indirect effect existed at high level of leader attachment avoidance (indirect effect = -0.18, SE = 0.07, 95% BC CI: [-0.32, -0.04]). The indirect effect was not, however, significant at low and medium levels of leader attachment avoidance.

Table 4.11 also shows that leader attachment avoidance moderated the indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity (index = 0.04, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [>0, 0.10]). This offers support for Hypothesis 28b. As can be seen in Table 4.12, the 95% confidence intervals around the indirect effects did not include zero at medium (i.e., mean, indirect effect = 0.03, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [>0, 0.09], Table 4.12) and high (i.e., +1 SD, indirect effect = 0.07, SE = 0.05, 95% BC CI: [0.01, 0.18], Table 4.12) levels of leader attachment avoidance but included zero at low (i.e., -1 SD, indirect effect = -0.01, SE = 0.04, 95% BC CI: [-0.07, 0.04]) level of leader attachment avoidance.

The confidence intervals for Hypothesis 28c did contain zero (index = -0.02, SE = 0.01, 95% BC CI: [-0.05, 0.00], Table 4.11), suggesting that leader attachment avoidance did not moderate the indirect effect on follower recovery. Examination of the conditional indirect effects at varying levels of leader attachment avoidance in Table 4.12 revealed that the indirect effect from leader deep acting through follower perceived leader authenticity to follower recovery was significant when leader attachment avoidance was high (indirect effect = -0.03, SE = 0.02, 95% BC CI: [-0.08, <0]), but not medium (indirect effect = -0.01, SE = 0.01, 95% BC CI: [-0.04, 0.00]) and low (indirect effect = 0.00, SE = 0.01, 95% BC CI: [-0.02, 0.03]).

Similarly, I found a significant conditional indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity (H28d) (index = -0.05, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [-0.12, <0], Table 4.11). In Table 4.12, I compared the conditional indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower WFE for leader attachment avoidance at one SD above the mean (indirect effect = -0.10, SE = 0.05, 95% BC CI: [-0.20, -0.02]), at the mean (indirect effect = -0.04, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [-0.11, 0.00]) and at one SD below the mean (indirect effect = 0.01, SE = 0.04, 95% BC CI: [-0.06, 0.07]). The conditional indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity was only significant for high level of leader attachment avoidance.

According to Hypotheses 29a-d, leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX (H29a), follower emotional exhaustion (H29b), follower recovery (H29c) and follower WFE (H29d) through follower perceived leader authenticity. Table 4.11 shows that the confidence intervals did contain zero. Therefore, there were no evidence to support Hypotheses 29a-d.

Table 4. 11 Moderated Mediation Results for Follower Outcomes

				Lower 2.5%	Estimate	Upper 2.5%	S.E.	Est./S.E.
Hypothesis	**Outcome: follower rated leader-member relationship**							
H24a	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.14	-0.03	0.07	0.06	-0.45
H25a	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.10	-0.01	0.08	0.05	-0.20
H26a	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.05	0.12	0.30	0.09	1.29
H27a	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.13	-0.02	0.10	0.06	-0.24
H28a	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.20	-0.10	0.00	0.05	-1.92
H29a	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.18	-0.05	0.08	0.07	-0.78
	Outcome: follower emotional exhaustion							
H24b	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.03	0.01	0.07	0.03	0.43
H25b	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.03	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.20
H26b	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.16	-0.05	0.02	0.04	-1.15
H27b	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.04	0.01	0.06	0.03	0.23
H28b	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	>0	0.04	0.10	0.03	1.54
H29b	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.03	0.02	0.09	0.03	0.72
	Outcome: follower recovery							
H24c	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.03	-0.00	0.01	0.01	-0.40
H25c	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.02	-0.00	0.01	0.01	-0.19
H26c	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.00	0.02	0.07	0.02	0.96
H27c	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.03	-0.00	0.02	0.01	-0.21
H28c	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.05	-0.02	0.00	0.01	-1.28
H29c	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.04	-0.01	0.01	0.01	-0.69
	Outcome: follower work-family enrichment							
H24d	SA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.08	-0.01	0.04	0.03	-0.46
H25d	DA **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.06	-0.01	0.04	0.03	-0.20
H26d	GE **X** leader attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.02	0.06	0.18	0.05	1.25
H27d	SA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.07	-0.01	0.06	0.03	-0.24
H28d	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.12	-0.05	<0	0.03	-1.76
H29d	GE **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.11	-0.03	0.04	0.04	-0.76

Note: N=202. 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals (CIs) (Hayes, 2013) was used to examine the possible moderated mediation effects.
Table estimates are unstandardized parameter estimates.
SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion; LMX = leader member exchange; EMEX = emotional exhaustion; WFE = work family enrichment.

Table 4. 12 Unstandardized Indirect Effect Estimates at Varying Levels of Leader Attachment Avoidance

Hypothesis	Interaction effect: leader deep acting X leader attachment avoidance			Lower 2.5%	Estimate	Upper 2.5%	S.E.	Est./S.E.
H28a	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX	-0.20	-0.10	0.00	0.05	-1.92
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX (low L.avoid)	-0.10	0.02	0.14	0.06	0.26
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX (medium L.avoid)	-0.17	-0.08	0.00	0.05	-1.74
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX (high L.avoid)	-0.32	-0.18	-0.04	0.07	-2.43
H28b	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX	>0	0.04	0.10	0.03	1.54
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX (low L.avoid)	-0.07	-0.01	0.04	0.04	-0.18
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX (medium L.avoid)	>0	0.03	0.09	0.03	1.04
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX (high L.avoid)	0.01	0.07	0.18	0.05	1.65
H28c	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery	-0.05	-0.02	0.00	0.01	-1.28
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery (low L.avoid)	-0.02	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.19
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery (medium L.avoid)	-0.04	-0.01	0.00	0.01	-1.01
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery (high L.avoid)	-0.08	-0.03	<0	0.02	-1.40
H28d	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE	-0.12	-0.05	<0	0.03	-1.76
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE (low L.avoid)	-0.06	0.01	0.07	0.04	0.26
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE (medium L.avoid)	-0.11	-0.04	0.00	0.03	-1.53
	DA **X** leader attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE (high L.avoid)	-0.20	-0.10	-0.02	0.05	-2.06

Note: N=202. Bias corrected bootstrap 95% confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013) was used to examine the possible moderated mediation effects.

Table estimates are unstandardized parameter estimates.

DA = leader deep acting; L.avoid = leader attachment avoidance.

F.LMX = follower rated leader-member exchange relationship; F.EMEX = follower emotional exhaustion; F.WFE = follower work family enrichment.

4.4.3 Conditional Indirect Effects on Follower Well-being at Varying Levels of Follower Attachment Orientations

Table 4.13 presents results from tests of the moderated mediation of leader emotional labor to follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity at follower attachment orientations. The pattern of coefficients did not provide evidence for the hypothesized relations (Hypotheses 30a-d, 31a-d and 32a-d), and the 95% CI did include zero. These results imply that follower attachment anxiety did not moderate the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being through follower perceived leader authenticity.

Additionally, as shown in Table 4.13, follower attachment avoidance neither moderated the indirect effect of leader surface acting on follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity nor the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion on follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity. Thus, there were no evidence for moderated mediation Hypotheses 33a-d and 35a-d.

The default unstandardized estimates produced by Mplus, in Table 4.13, indicating that follower attachment avoidance moderated the indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower rated LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity (H34a). Specifically, the confidence intervals for the index of the moderated mediation did not contain zero (index = -0.13, SE = 0.04, 95% BC CI: [-0.22, -0.04]). I then investigated the conditional indirect effects at varying levels of follower attachment avoidance. Results indicate that the indirect effect existed at high level of follower attachment avoidance (indirect effect = -0.20, SE = 0.06, 95% BC CI: [-0.33, -0.09], Table 4.14). The indirect effect was not, however, significant at low and medium levels of follower attachment avoidance.

Table 4.13 also shows that follower attachment avoidance moderated the indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity (index = 0.05, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [0.01, 0.11]), consistent with Hypothesis 34b. Table 4.14 shows the 95% confidence intervals around the indirect effects did not include zero at medium (mean, indirect effect = 0.03, SE = 0.02, 95% BC CI: [>0, 0.09]) and high (+1SD, indirect effect = 0.08, SE = 0.04, 95% BC CI: [0.02, 0.18]) levels of follower attachment avoidance but included zero at low (-1 SD, indirect effect = -0.02, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [-0.08, 0.02]) level of follower attachment avoidance.

Furthermore, I found that the confidence intervals for Hypothesis 34c did not contain zero (index = -0.02, SE = 0.01, 95% BC CI: [-0.05, <0], Table 4.13), suggesting that follower attachment avoidance moderated the indirect effect on follower recovery. In Table 4.14, examination of the conditional indirect effects at varying levels of follower attachment avoidance revealed that the indirect effect from leader deep acting through follower perceived leader authenticity to follower recovery was significant when follower attachment avoidance was high (indirect effect = -0.03, SE = 0.02, 95% BC CI: [-0.08, <0]), but not medium (indirect effect = -0.01, SE = 0.01, 95% BC CI: [-0.04, 0.00]) and low (indirect effect = 0.01, SE = 0.01, 95% BC CI: [-0.01, 0.04]).

Similarly, I found a significant conditional indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity (H34d) (index = -0.07, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [-0.13, -0.03], Table 4.13). In Table 4.14, I compared the conditional indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower WFE for follower attachment avoidance at one SD above the mean (indirect effect = -0.11, SE = 0.04, 95% BC CI: [-0.21, -0.05]), at the mean (indirect effect = -0.04, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [-0.10, 0.00]) and at one SD below the mean (indirect effect = 0.03, SE = 0.03, 95% BC CI: [-0.04, 0.09]). The conditional indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity was only significant for high levels of follower attachment avoidance.

Table 4. 13 Moderated Mediation Results for Follower Outcomes

				Lower 2.5%	Estimate	Upper 2.5%	S.E.	Est./S.E.
Hypothesis	**Outcome: follower rated leader-member relationship**							
H30a	SA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.11	-0.01	0.08	0.05	-0.15
H31a	DA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.09	0.00	0.07	0.04	0.10
H32a	GE **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.09	0.06	0.19	0.07	0.82
H33a	SA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.12	0.01	0.14	0.07	0.12
H34a	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.22	-0.13	-0.04	0.04	-2.90
H35a	GE **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	LMX	-0.24	-0.08	0.08	0.08	-0.95
	Outcome: follower emotional exhaustion							
H30b	SA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.04	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.13
H31b	DA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.04	-0.00	0.04	0.02	-0.09
H32b	GE **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.11	-0.03	0.03	0.04	-0.72
H33b	SA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.07	-0.00	0.05	0.03	-0.11
H34b	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	0.01	0.05	0.11	0.03	2.08
H35b	GE **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	EMEX	-0.02	0.03	0.13	0.04	0.84
	Outcome: follower recovery							
H30c	SA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.03	-0.00	0.01	0.01	-0.13
H31c	DA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.09
H32c	GE **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01	0.68
H33c	SA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.02	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.11
H34c	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.05	-0.02	<0	0.01	-1.59
H35c	GE **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	recovery	-0.06	-0.01	0.01	0.02	-0.79
	Outcome: follower work-family enrichment							
H30d	SA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.06	-0.00	0.05	0.03	-0.15
H31d	DA **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.06	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.10
H32d	GE **X** follower attachment anxiety →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.05	0.03	0.11	0.04	0.80
H33d	SA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.07	0.00	0.08	0.04	0.12
H34d	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.13	-0.07	-0.03	0.03	-2.61
H35d	GE **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	WFE	-0.15	-0.04	0.04	0.05	-0.92

Note: N=202. 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals (CIs) (Hayes, 2013) was used to examine the possible moderated mediation effects.

Table estimates are unstandardized parameter estimates.

SA = leader surface acting; DA = leader deep acting; GE = leader genuine emotion; LMX = leader member exchange; EMEX = emotional exhaustion; WFE = work family enrichment.

Table 4. 14 Unstandardized Indirect Effect Estimates at Varying Levels of Follower Attachment Avoidance

Hypothesis	Interaction effect: leader deep acting X follower attachment avoidance			Lower 2.5%	Estimate	Upper 2.5%	S.E.	Est./S.E.
H34a	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX	-0.22	-0.13	-0.04	0.04	-2.90
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX (low F.avoid)	-0.07	0.05	0.17	0.06	0.89
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX (medium F.avoid)	-0.16	-0.07	0.00	0.04	-1.80
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.LMX (high F.avoid)	-0.33	-0.20	-0.09	0.06	-3.36
H34b	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX	0.01	0.05	0.11	0.03	2.08
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX (low F.avoid)	-0.08	-0.02	0.02	0.03	-0.84
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX (medium F.avoid)	>0	0.03	0.09	0.02	1.45
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.EMEX (high F.avoid)	0.02	0.08	0.18	0.04	2.18
H34c	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery	-0.05	-0.02	<0	0.01	-1.59
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery (low F.avoid)	-0.01	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.74
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery (medium F.avoid	-0.04	-0.01	0.00	0.01	-1.30
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.recovery (high F.avoid)	-0.08	-0.03	<0	0.02	-1.70
H34d	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE	-0.13	-0.07	-0.03	0.03	-2.61
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE (low F.avoid)	-0.04	0.03	0.09	0.03	0.89
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE (medium F.avoid)	-0.10	-0.04	0.00	0.03	-1.60
	DA **X** follower attachment avoidance →	follower perceived leader authenticity →	F.WFE (high F.avoid)	-0.21	-0.11	-0.05	0.04	-2.74

Note: N=202. Bias corrected bootstrap 95% confidence intervals (Hayes, 2013) was used to examine the possible moderated mediation effects.

Table estimates are unstandardized parameter estimates.

DA = leader deep acting; F.avoid = follower attachment avoidance.

F.LMX = follower rated leader-member exchange relationship; F.EMEX = follower emotional exhaustion; F.WFE = follower work family enrichment.

Taken together, hypotheses 18a-d, 19a-d and 20a-d were not supported, indicating leader attachment anxiety did not moderate the indirect relationships between leader emotional labor and leader well-being via leader felt authenticity. Also, non-significant moderated mediation effects were found for hypotheses 21a-d, 22a-d and 23a-d, suggesting that the indirect effects of leader emotional labor on leader well-being via leader felt authenticity were not moderated by leader attachment avoidance. Similarly, inconsistent with hypothesized relations 24a-d, 25a-d and 26a-d, leader attachment anxiety did not moderate the conditional indirect effects on follower well-being. Further, the results did not support hypotheses 27a-d and 29a-d concerning the moderated mediation effects of leader surface acting on follower well-being and the moderated mediation effects of leader genuine emotion on follower well-being. Hypotheses 28a and 28c were also not supported because the confidence intervals for the index of the moderated mediation did contain zero, but the moderated mediation effects were significant at high level of leader attachment avoidance. As predicted in hypotheses 28b and 28d, the indirect effects were significant for follower emotional exhaustion and follower work-family enrichment. The results further showed that follower attachment anxiety did not moderate the mediating effects on follower well-being. Therefore, there were no evidence to support hypotheses 30a-d, 31a-d and 32a-d. Moreover, non-significant moderated mediation effects were found for hypotheses 33a-d and 35a-d, indicating follower attachment avoidance did not moderate the indirect effects of leader surface acting and leader genuine emotion on follower well-being. Finally, in line with hypotheses 34a-d, the moderated mediation effects of leader deep acting on follower well-being though follower perceived leader authenticity were significant at high levels of follower attachment avoidance.

4.5 Summary

Chapter 4 presented the preliminary findings of the current study including descriptive statistics and measurement model assessments. Furthermore, the results of the hypotheses tests partially supported my hypotheses. A detailed discussion of the above findings is presented in the next Chapter. Also, theoretical contributions, practical implications, strengths and limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 4. 15 Hypotheses Test Results

Mediation Hypothesis	**Leader authenticity mediates the effect of leader emotional labor on leaders' and followers' well-being**	**Result**
H1a	leader surface acting is negatively related to leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H1b	leader surface acting is negatively related to follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H2a	leader deep acting is positively related to leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H2b	leader deep acting is positively related to follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H3a	leader genuine emotion is positively related to leader felt authenticity.	**Supported**
H3b	leader genuine emotion is positively related to follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H4a	leader felt authenticity is positively related to leader perception of LMX.	**Supported**
H4b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader perception of LMX.	Not supported
H4c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader perception of LMX.	**Supported**
H4d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader perception of LMX.	**Supported**
H5a	follower perceived leader authenticity is positively related to follower perception of LMX.	**Supported**
H5b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower perception of LMX.	Not supported

H5c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower perception of LMX.	Not supported
H5d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower perception of LMX.	Not supported
H6a	leader felt authenticity is negatively related to leader emotional exhaustion.	**Supported**
H6b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H6c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H6d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader emotional exhaustion.	**Supported**
H7a	follower perceived leader authenticity is negatively related to follower emotional exhaustion.	**Supported**
H7b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H7c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H7d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H8a	leader felt authenticity is positively related to leader recovery.	**Supported**
H8b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader recovery.	Not supported
H8c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader recovery.	**Supported**
H8d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader recovery.	**Supported**

H9a	follower perceived leader authenticity is positively related to follower recovery.	Not supported
H9b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower recovery.	Not supported
H9c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower recovery.	Not supported
H9d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower recovery.	Not supported
H10a	leader felt authenticity is positively related to leader WFE.	**Supported**
H10b	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and leader WFE.	Not supported
H10c	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and leader WFE.	**Supported**
H10d	leader felt authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and leader WFE.	**Supported**
H11a	follower perceived leader authenticity is positively related to follower WFE.	**Supported**
H11b	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader surface acting and follower WFE.	Not supported
H11c	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader deep acting and follower WFE.	Not supported
H11d	follower perceived leader authenticity mediates the relationship between leader genuine emotion and follower WFE.	Not supported

Moderation Hypothesis	**Attachment orientations moderates the effect of leader emotional labor on leader authenticity**	
H12a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on leader felt authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high anxious attachment.	Not supported
H12b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader deep acting on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.	Not supported
H12c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.	Not supported
H13a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on leader felt authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high avoidant attachment.	Not supported
H13b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader deep acting on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.	Not supported
H13c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.	Not supported
H14a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high anxious attachment.	Not supported

H14b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.	Not supported
H14c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high anxious attachment.	**Supported**
H15a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity, such that the negative relationship is stronger for leaders with high avoidant attachment.	Not supported
H15b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.	**Supported**
H15c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for leaders with high avoidant attachment.	Not supported
H16a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for followers with high anxious attachment.	Not supported
H16b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high anxious attachment.	Not supported
H16c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high anxious attachment.	Not supported

H17a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader surface acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the negative relationship is stronger for followers with high avoidant attachment.	Not supported
H17b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader deep acting on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high avoidant attachment.	**Supported**
H17c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship is weaker for followers with high avoidant attachment.	Not supported
Moderated Mediation	**Leader attachment orientations moderates the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on leader well-being via leader felt authenticity**	
H18a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H18b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H18c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H18d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H19a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported

H19b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H19c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H19d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H20a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H20b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H20c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H20d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H21a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H21b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H21c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H21d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported

H22a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H22b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H22c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H22d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H23a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader perception of LMX through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H23b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader emotional exhaustion through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H23c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader recovery through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
H23d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on leader WFE through leader felt authenticity.	Not supported
Moderated Mediation	**Leader attachment orientations moderates the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity**	
H24a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported

H24b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H24c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H24d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H25a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H25b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H25c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H25d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H26a	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H26b	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H26c	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported

H26d	leader attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H27a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H27b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H27c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H27d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H28a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H28b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	**Supported**
H28c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H28d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	**Supported**
H29a	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported

H29b	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H29c	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H29d	leader attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
Moderated Mediation	**Follower attachment orientations moderates the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being via follower perceived leader authenticity**	
H30a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H30b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H30c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H30d	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H31a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H31b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported

H31c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H31d	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H32a	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H32b	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H32c	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H32d	follower attachment anxiety moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H33a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H33b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H33c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H33d	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader surface acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported

H34a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	**Supported**
H34b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	**Supported**
H34c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	**Supported**
H34d	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader deep acting on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	**Supported**
H35a	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower perception of LMX through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H35b	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower emotional exhaustion through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H35c	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower recovery through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported
H35d	follower attachment avoidance moderates the indirect effects of leader genuine emotion on follower WFE through follower perceived leader authenticity.	Not supported

Chapter 5 Discussion

Mirroring the two research gaps addressed in Chapter 1, the overall research question in this dissertation is: How and when is leader and follower well-being influenced by leader emotional labor? Specifically, drawing on the Conservation of Resources theory, I investigated whether leader authenticity as a key mechanism mediates the relationship of leader emotional labor with leader and follower well-being outcomes, namely Leader-Member Exchange relationship (LMX), emotional exhaustion, recovery and Work-Family Enrichment (WFE). In addition, leader and follower attachment orientations were examined as moderators to test the boundary conditions of these relationships. Results partially supported my hypotheses. This chapter focuses on the interpretation of the findings, and the analysis of how the findings relate to the current literature on leader emotional labor, leader authenticity, attachment orientations, and well-being. This chapter will also discuss the overall theoretical contribution of this study in light of the two research gaps. Then practical implications are discussed, before strengths, limitations and proposed venues for future research are outlined. Finally, an integrative summary of current work is presented.

5.1 Interpretation of the Findings

The aim of the current study was twofold. First, I aimed to investigate how leader authenticity may mediate the effect of leader emotional labor on leader and follower well-being. Specifically, the present study incorporated three emotional labor dimensions, namely leader surface acting, leader deep acting and leader genuine emotion. Based on Conservation of Resources model (COR; Hobfoll, 2002), each type of leader emotional labor was proposed to have different effects on leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, which in turn, impacted the extent of leader and follower well-being, respectively. Second, I examined the interaction effects of leader emotional labor and attachment orientations on leader felt authenticity and follower perceived leader authenticity, and subsequently, on leader and follower well-being. In this section I will interpret the effect of each form of leader emotional labor (i.e., surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion) and clarify the possible explanations for the results in terms of why these occurred in the view of current research and literature.

5.1.1 Effect of Leader Surface Acting on Leader and Follower Outcomes

Although I succeeded in conforming the second path of the indirect effect of leader surface (the path from leader authenticity to leader and follower well-being), I did not find statistically significant coefficients for the first path from leader surface acting and leader authenticity.

Contrary to my predictions, the results point out that none of the hypotheses for surface acting were supported. However, the results found that leader surface acting was directly and positively related to leader emotional exhaustion, as well as directly and negatively related to leader recovery, even though the direct effects of leader surface acting on leader well-being outcomes were not hypothesized in the present study. These findings are consistent with previous studies found that leader surface acting creates emotional exhaustion due to resource depletion and emotional dissonance (e.g., van Gelderen, Konijn, & Bakker, 2017; Yam et al., 2015). Also, when leader surface act, it leaves leaders in a weakened state, thereby finding it difficult to detach from work and arrive at a state of relaxation during off-job time (Demerouti et al., 2009; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). The results align with loss spirals (Hobfoll, 1989) of COR theory associated with leader surface acting. The tenet of loss spirals entails that continued resource depletion has an accelerated negative effect on ongoing loss spirals (Hobfoll, 2001). When preforming surface acting depletes leaders' initial resource, leaders become increasingly vulnerable to ongoing loss. Thus, leader surface acting increases leader emotional exhaustion and impedes their recovery processes.

Further, leader surface acting was directly and negatively related to follower work-family enrichment. Leadership theory contends that followers engage in behaviors that are consistent with the behaviors and values of their leader through social learning (Bandura, 1977; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). That is, followers are likely to engage in surface acting when their leaders always surface act. Performing emotional labor holds not only for a narrower job context, but also for life in general (Sanz-Vergel et al, 2012). The instrumental path of WFE recognizes that behaviors accumulated at work can directly influence performance at home (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Empirically, a multilevel study of Sanz-Vergel, Rodríguez-Muñoz, Bakker, and Demerouti (2012) showed that daily surface acting at work has an indirect relationship with daily well-being through daily surface acting at home. Further, studies found that followers who suffer abusive supervision at work are more likely to engage

in acts of displaced aggression in the private life domain (Carlson, Ferguson, Hunter, & Whitten, 2012; Hoobler & Brass, 2006). The present study contributes to this literature by showing for the first time that leader emotional labor can be transferred to followers' home domain. Future research should take into account that emotional labor strategies used at work may trespass into the private life domain.

Turning attention to hypotheses in the present study, some emotional labor scholars have implied that the insignificant findings associated with surface acting may be due to the multicollinearity between surface acting and genuine emotion resulting in large standard errors (Lindley, 1987; Wang, 2011). In this study, all forms of leader emotional labor (surface acting, deep acting, and genuine emotion) were reported by leaders using online surveys. The common source (i.e., all leader emotional labor measures were only provided by leaders) and common method (i.e., the three leader emotional labor dimensions were measured using online surveys at same time point) biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003) may lead to the highly negative correlation between leader surface acting and leader genuine emotion. For future research, different sources and different methods should be used to measure surface acting and genuine emotion to reduce potential biases. For instance, leaders can be asked to self-rate the extent to which they engage in surface acting and followers can be surveyed to indicate the extent to which their leaders display genuine emotions using experience sampling and diary methods (Ohly et al., 2010; Wang, 2011). Nevertheless, the correlation patterns of the three basic types of emotional displays among leaders are similar to the correlation patterns among social workers (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005). One possible explanation is the strong negative correlation between leader surface acting and leader genuine emotion may reflect the fact that leaders express naturally felt emotions more often than they use either surface acting or deep acting emotional labor strategies (Dahling & Perez, 2010).

This study provides an empirical clarification concerning how leader authenticity influences leader and follower well-being consisting of LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and WFE. First, as predicted, leader authenticity is significant and positively related to leaders' and followers' perception of LMX. These results imply that leaders' displays of authenticity toward their followers improve the quality of leaders' relationships with their followers as perceived by both leaders and followers. The findings support previous studies which suggest that high-quality connections between individuals are likely are characterized by high levels

of mutual trust and are composed of mutual respect, empowerment, positive affect and loyalty (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Further, this research adds to the knowledge of the effectiveness of leader authenticity and supports the importance of adopting a relationship-based perspective in leadership research, which is in line with previous results, as indicated by Hsiung (2012) and Wang et al. (2014). These authors empirically studied the influence of leader authenticity on LMX and supported authentic leaders are more capable of developing positive social exchanges with their followers and spreading positive affective states. These social exchange processes and emotion contagion form and strengthen good social relationships, becoming one of the protective factors against leader and follower psychological health issues at work (Schermuly & Meyer, 2016). Here I replicated and strengthened previous field research to better understand the role of leader authenticity in an LMX context by employing a rigorous longitudinal study design.

Second, the negative relationships between leader authenticity and emotional exhaustion of leaders and followers were identified. Consistent with predictions, the results indicate that leader authentic behavior can serve as a helpful resource that protect leaders and followers from developing career burnout. This could be attributed to the fact that authentic leaders encourage open communication and adhere to their moral values and principles (Walumbwa et al., 2008), which reduces leaders' and followers' mental efforts and conserves their resources in their effective interactions, and thus safeguards work environment against negative effects (Weiss et al., 2018). Additionally, the findings have important theoretical implications for research on job burnout. This research is in agreement with recent extensions of COR model (Hobfoll, 1998, 2002) revealing the enriching potential of personal resources in preventing job burnout, augmenting the theory about the mutual gains of leaders and followers from leader authentic behaviors (Laschinger et al., 2015; Laschinger & Fida, 2014). Advancing understanding of these issues is important, given the enormous relevance of work stress-related health problems for companies and society as a whole (Hassard et al., 2017). Moreover, this research heeds the call (Gill & Caza, 2015) to investigate positive and destructive outcomes of leader authenticity. My investigation of leader and follower emotional exhaustion with authentic leaders provides the basis for an expanded appreciation of the protection of leader behavior against negative work outcomes (Inceoglu et al., 2018).

Third, analyses identified that leader authenticity demonstrated a significant relationship to recovery of leaders, but not to recovery of followers. Leaders, who felt more authentic,

indicated higher levels of recovery from work stress. Research on recovery from work stress has mainly focused on recovery during free evenings, weekends, and longer periods of rest like vacations. This research investigated what happens at work influences the recovery process during off-work time. Work conditions shape recovery levels at the end of the workday by either using up or preserving and gaining resources (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Despite myriads of insightful studies, I believe that this research is among the first to provide empirical insights into leader authenticity as a personal resource for leaders' recovery process. Supporting the hypothesis, when conditions at work were such that leaders act authentically based on their own values and beliefs, they had low strain reactions (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015; Weiss et al., 2018; Ilies et al., 2005), thereby finding it easy to detach from work and arrive at a state of relaxation during off-job time. Therefore, this study extends the existing recovery research by demonstrating that personal resources facilitate recovery from work stress as explained in the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1998, 2002).

Finally, the findings indicated that leader authenticity was significantly and positively associated with leaders' and followers' work–family enrichment. It appears that the positive affective state, positive psychological capacities, and self-development that result from authentic leader-follower interactions could penetrate the work– family border to help leaders and followers effectively perform their family roles and facilitate private life. The contribution of this research lies within the application of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002) and the W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012), indicating leader authenticity reduces resource losses and increases resource gains between work and family life domains (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). For example, authentic leaders and followers with positive emotion generation at work tend to share positive emotions with their family members (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2014) and have an optimistic outlook at home (Masuda, McNall, Allen, & Nicklin, 2012). The present study also aligns with increasing numbers of studies supporting positive emotions and behaviors can be inter-individually transmitted (Bakker et al., 2009), and that leadership plays a significant role in influencing leaders' and followers' abilities to manage the work-family interface (e.g., Braun & Nieberle, 2017; Braun & Peus , 2016; Laschinger, et al., 2015). This research complements the picture by shedding light on the relations that leader authenticity has with variables beyond work. In order to advance the understanding of both concepts, future research needs to respond to the call for more integrated models of leadership and work- family (Li, McCauley, & Shaffer, 2017).

5.1.2 Effect of Leader Deep Acting on Leader and Follower Outcomes

Grounded in COR theory (Hobfoll, 1998, 2002), this study provides a new understanding of how leader deep acting improves leader and follower outcomes. The data supported the hypotheses that leader felt authenticity mediated the positive relationships between leader deep acting and leader well-being outcomes (leaders' perception of LMX, leader recovery, and leader WFE), independent of leader attachment orientations. The indirect effect of leader deep acting on leader emotion exhaustion through leader felt authenticity was not found. The results further showed that follower perceived leader authenticity mediated the relationships between leader deep acting and all follower well-being outcomes (followers' perception of LMX, follower emotional exhaustion, follower recovery, and follower WFE) when leader and follower attachment avoidance was high.

Investigations that identify and examine mediating processes not only contribute to leader emotional labor research but also provide guidance to organizations for improving the bright side of leader emotional labor on leaders and followers. The results suggest a plausible model of how intrapersonal mechanism mediate the effect of emotional labor on well-being, namely LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and WFE. I applaud recent empirical advances in indicating leader authenticity as a personal resource gained from emotional labor for leaders' and followers' health and well-being (e.g., Braun & Nieberle, 2017; Weiss et al., 2018). This intrapersonal mechanism leads to the question whether leader authenticity is also an important mediator for other relationships such as the relationship between leader emotional sincerity and well-being variables (Caza et al., 2015). The mechanism that I identified might also be important for the consequences of other forms of positive leadership. For example, the distinction between pseudo-transformational and authentic transformational leaders laid out by Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) implies how "authenticity can serve as a moral compass by which the intentions of transformational leaders can be determined" (Sparrowe et al., 2005).

Further, I found that the indirect relationships between leader deep acting and all follower outcomes (followers' perception of LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and WFE) through follower perceived leader authenticity was impacted by leader attachment avoidance, but not by leader attachment anxiety. When examining conditional indirect effects, the indirect effects were significant at very high level of leader attachment avoidance, but not at

very low level. These findings suggest that leader attachment avoidance does indeed predispose leaders to employ less deep acting, whereas this effect does not necessarily exist for those who score very low in avoidant attachment. This is in line with existing research linking attachment insecurity to emotion regulation (e.g., Davidovitz et al., 2007; Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014). Paralleling similar work in the romantic relationships research (e.g. Simpson & Rholes, 2012), when leaders are high on avoidant attachment, they are unable or unwilling to provide adequate emotional support and care for followers. It also could be that avoidant leaders' rigid disinterest in relationships and lack of engagement in sense-making have a detrimental effect upon followers' leadership perceptions (Davidovitz et al., 2007; Keller, 2003). This supports the limited research which has indicated associations between leaders' individual differences in personality (leader attachment orientations) and leadership perceptions (e.g., Hinojosa et al., 2014; Kirrane et al., 2019). The findings have a clear practical implication that organizational interventions are needed to target at fostering leaders' emotional responsiveness and supportiveness to their followers. It also would be an interesting question for future research to see if service employees' insecure attachment (attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance) influences how their emotional labor is perceived by customers by replicating the results back to the service context.

Additionally, I succussed in identifying follower attachment avoidance as a moderator since I found the indirect effect from leader deep acting on all follower outcomes (followers' perception of LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and WFE) via follower perceived leader authenticity was contingent on follower attachment avoidance, but not on follower attachment anxiety. Specifically, the indirect effects were strongest and significant at very high level of follower attachment avoidance. The results show the relationship between leader deep acting and follower perceived leader authenticity was significantly negative when follower attachment avoidance was high. Empirical evidence has shown that individuals differ in their ability to recognize others' emotions (e.g., Rubin et al, 2005). Avoidant followers tend to distance themselves from the love and support of others (Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015). This suggests that the moderating effect of follower attachment avoidance to detect leader deep acting (Gardner et al., 2009; Humphrey et al., 2008). Moreover, not only the recognition of leader deep acting implies important interpersonal consequences for followers' leadership perceptions, but the characteristic of followers can lead to leadership devaluations. In this study, avoidant followers are more suspicious the motives of leaders and likely to project negative self-traits on leaders. This supports the view that an internal

working model characterizing attachment avoidance may server as a negative perceptual filter in followers' interpersonal transaction with leaders (Game & Crawshaw, 2015). A fruitful avenue for future research is to investigate followers' view of leader emotional labor. Followers could estimate how frequently they believe leaders surface act, deep act, and engage in genuine emotional displays. The followers' perspective may add insight into the complex nature of leader emotional labor in organizational settings.

Results from this study did not support most moderation hypotheses. Despite the insignificant findings, the potential moderating role of leader attachment orientations should not, however, be discarded prematurely. Previous research suggested that leader attachment orientations may operate differently at different levels of analysis (e.g., Davidovitz et al., 2007; Harms et al., 2016; Richards & Hackett, 2012), and highlighted that attachment orientations are dynamic constructs involving interpersonal dynamics in emotional labor (Kafetsios et al., 2014). The focal unit of this present study was the individual, thus all study variables was theorized and analyzed as individual-level variables as well as hypotheses were tested at the individual level. Although the data of the present study included independent dyads consisting of a unique leader and follower pair, this study did not involve reciprocal relationships, which suggested dyadic analysis was not warranted. Future research with different analytic strategy is needed to discover the merits of these hypotheses. For instance, a systematic review by Fein et al. (2020) suggests that dyadic and multilevel methods could be paired with longitudinal designs, particularly concerning the joint contribution of leaders' and followers' interpersonal affect dynamics (Hofmans et al., 2019). In addition, although the link between emotional labor, attachment orientations, and leader authenticity has been studied in previous research (Harms et al., 2016; Richards & Hackett, 2012), the causal direction of relationships between these variables is still not demonstrated. A logical next step for future research is to provide insights into the causal nature of relationships between these study variables.

One theoretical explanation put forth by researchers to explain the non-significant moderation effects is that environmental context may be involved in attachment orientations and emotional labor. Unlike romantic and other non-work relationships, organizational culture, norms, and role expectations may limit what is regarded as appropriate in respect of leaders' emotional expression and behavior (Fein et al., 2020). This study was conducted in different organizations and dyadic tenure between some leaders and followers was less than six

months. Therefore, organizational culture context effects could have come into play, for instance, different baselines in types of leadership behaviour due to differences in organizational culture and different levels of personal contact between leaders and followers. Future research should make efforts to establish the potential context effects in the workplace or at least be aware of its potential effects. Also, national culture could play a primary role in determining the types of emotional displays that followers expect from their leaders (Gardner et al., 2009). For example, individuals from more collectivist cultures, where leaders are expected to be supportive and paternalistic, may be more likely to form attachment relationships between leaders and followers than people in individualist cultures. In the era of globalisation, where cross-cultural relationships are increasingly an everyday reality for leaders and followers, these are promising avenues to explore. Especially, it is not yet known what circumstances may mitigate the negative effects of insecure attachment orientations and improve the positive effects of secure attachment. Research along these lines should distinguish between the omnibus context, which "refers to the context broadly considered" and the discrete context, which "refers to the particular contextual variables or levers that shape behavior or attitudes" (Johns, 2006, p. 391). Key elements of the omnibus context previous research identify as being relevant to leader emotional labor include national and organizational culture, industry and organizational structure (Gardner et al., 2009). The discrete context is nested within the omnibus context. Specific components of the discrete context that help to define the situation and the leader's role within it include: the leader's position and the nature of the event (Gardner et al., 2009).

Nevertheless, the lack of significant interaction effects between leader emotional labor and attachment orientations may also be attributable to the fact that attachment orientations are not particularly relevant to leaders' emotional displays. A number of other individual difference variables are recognized to account for variance in the extent to which leaders' emotions are aligned with display rules, as well as their ability to produce effective emotional displays that match up to follower expectations. For example, researchers suggest that emotion regulation ability theory holds significant promise as another perspective in understanding the emotional labor processes (Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Scherer, Zapf, Beitler, and Trumpold's (2020) multilevel results found that emotion regulation ability moderated relationships of the three different emotional labor strategies with exhaustion. The construct of emotion regulation ability was overlapping with other concepts that have been studied such as trait self-control. The individual difference captured by trait self- control

refers to an individual's general capacity to regulate his or her behavior across a range of domains and contexts (Kiewitz et al., 2012). Yam et al. (2015) drew from ego-depletion theory to develop and test a model that explained the relationship between leader surface acting and abusive supervision. To the extent that self-control resource availability is an important underlying driver of abusive supervision. Construal level is another important variable to consider in organizational settings (Lennard, Scott, & Johnson, 2019). Construal level theory suggests that the way individuals mentally conceptualize or represent a given state or action alters how the individuals interpret and respond to that state or action (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Lennard et al.'s findings have confirmed that certain managers are better at handling the challenges of surface acting and its potential adverse effects by examining personality moderators of the relationships between manager surface acting and manager well-being.

Moreover, depending on their epistemic motivation, individuals' approach toward social information processing may differ markedly. Followers with relatively low epistemic motivation may pay little attention to their social environment and tend to process information in a rather shallow and unsystematic manner (Kruglanski & Mayseless, 1988). On this basis, followers with lower epistemic motivation are less likely to identify a leader's surface-acted emotion displays as insincere (Deng, Walter, & Guan, 2020). The tendency toward inattentiveness and shallow information processing may also prevent followers with low epistemic motivation from recognizing the authentic emotionality expressed through a leader's deep acting and genuine emotional display.

Finally, future research could also explore the role of relationship-relevant constructs. For example, according to past research, relationship quality may influence how leader behaviors are perceived by followers (Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, it is possible that leader-member relationship is situated as a moderator of the leader emotion labor–leader and follower outcome relationship. Taken together, future research could widen the scope of this study by examining other variables that matter when studying leader emotional labor and its relationships.

5.1.3 Effect of Leader Genuine Emotion on Leader and Follower Outcomes

Consistent with the expectation, I found a positive effect of leader genuine emotion on leader felt authenticity. Furthermore, the associations between leader genuine emotion and all leader well-being outcomes (leaders' perception of LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and WFE) were indirect through leader felt authenticity, independent of leader attachment orientations. Interestingly, the result further showed that leader attachment anxiety moderated the effect of leader genuine emotion on follower perceived leader authenticity such that the positive relationship was weaker when leader attachment anxiety is low.

Empirically, these findings provide the evidence that leaders use emotional labor as a strategic instrument that help them summon the emotions needed to exert influence on followers (Humphrey, 2008, 2012; Humphrey et al., 2008). Further, I echo Gardner et al. (2009) in that leaders can spontaneously and sincerely feel the appropriate emotions, with little prompting and managing of emotions. This extends the study of emotional labor by incorporating genuine emotion as a third emotional labor strategy that goes beyond studies on surface acting and deep acting. That is, leaders' natural emotional displays to workplace events are often appropriate and in line with display rules and thus can be considered a form of emotional labor. Some leaders are naturally enthusiastic, energetic, and confident. Although some emotional labor scholars have addressed the important role of 'genuine emotion' (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Dahling & Perez, 2010; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Glomb & Tews, 2004), or the term 'automatic regulation' (Beal & Trougakos, 2013; Hülsheger et al., 2015), most empirical studies in emotional labor did not incorporate genuine emotion (for exceptions, see Arnold et al., 2015; Burch, Humphrey, & Batchelor, 2013; Mahoney et al., 2011). Researchers still adhere to the belief that, when displaying genuine emotions, no emotion management per se is required to align the leader's emotional display with display rules, hence leader genuine emotion cannot be incorporated as a dimension of emotional labor. Based on the ongoing debate regarding whether genuine emotion should be considered as emotional labor (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015), researchers should continue to explore the genesis and dynamics of this dimension of emotional labor. Additionally, this research confirmed previous theoretical predictions (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009) that using genuine emotional labor produces the best results: a sense of authenticity was directly predicted when leaders use natural and genuine emotional labor. A sense of leader authenticity, in turn, predicted improved levels of leader and follower well-being (i.e., better

leader-member exchange relationship, less emotional exhaustion, higher recovery, and greater work-family enrichment).

It can be noted that leader genuine emotion was more strongly associated with leader well-being through leader felt authenticity, whereas leader deep acting was less strongly associated with leader well-being through leader felt authenticity; a difference clarifies that the two emotional labor strategies involve similar mechanisms, and they associate with same consequences at different levels (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). The results empirically flesh out that individuals feel authentic when involving in deep acting, but they will still not reach the levels of one's sense of authenticity experienced when they use genuine emotion emotional labor strategy (Gardner et al., 2009; McCauley & Gardner, 2016). Further, this research provides evidence in support of the bright side of emotional labor despite the focus of harmful effects of emotional labor in previous studies (e.g., Sanz-Vergel et al., 2012; Yam et al., 2015). It tested and confirmed the notion that the sunny picture of leader emotional labor relates to leaders' work attitudes and behaviors beyond bottom line success (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015), not only as to provide protection against negative outcomes (e.g., burnout; Arnold et al., 2015; Grandey et al., 2012), but to promote positive aspects and well-being (e.g., recovery from work stress, LMX, WFE; Cheung & Tang, 2009; Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Montgomery et al., 2006).

Emotional labour can be simultaneously considered as a demanding process that drains mental resources and as a process for gaining and restoring social and personal resources (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). The overall effect of emotional labor on work outcomes depends on the balance of these two processes. For deep acting and genuine emotion, little effort is demanded but valued resources such as a sense of authenticity and rewarding social relationships are gained (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007), thereby leading to an improvement in well-being (better leader-member exchange relationship, less emotional exhaustion, higher recovery, and greater work-family enrichment). Research opportunities on the beneficial effect of emotional labor are abundant (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). Also, researchers could further study other intrapersonal and interpersonal mechanisms that explain how leader emotional labor has a bearing on leaders' and follower' mental health and well-being (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007).

Interestingly, in this study leader genuine emotion was negatively associated with follower perceived leader authenticity when leader attachment anxiety is low. This finding runs contrary to evidence regarding leader–follower interaction that shows a general positive effect of leaders' more functional emotion regulation strategy and the effect was conditional on special values of leader attachment anxiety, in that the positive effect increased with low value of leader attachment anxiety (Kafetsios et al., 2014). One possible explanation is that the relationship of leader genuine emotion with follower perceived leader authenticity is complicated. Wang (2011) found that leader genuine emotion had the most positive relationship with follower transformational leadership perception when followers perceived low levels of negative emotions expressed by leaders and when followers perceived high levels of positive emotions expressed by leaders. Thus, it is reasonable to argue that leaders who display genuine emotions, particularly negatives ones, may appear to be careless of followers' feelings and emotional needs (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011), and therefore can play a role in the generation of followers' negative leadership perceptions. In addition, Gardner, Fischer, and Hunt (2009) proposed that emotional labor will tend to yield more positive follower impressions when they are aligned with display rules because they appear to be more attuned to the affective events. This suggests that leader emotional labor research needs to take emotional display rules into account because the relationship of leader emotional labor and follower leadership perception may vary depending on the extent to which the emotion displayed by leaders is consistent with display rules. Thus, more research is needed on these potential moderators and how they influence the impact of leader emotional labor.

Further, I did not find evidence that the indirect effect of leader genuine emotion to be conditional on special values of leader attachment avoidance and follower attachment orientations. As mentioned above, while the failure to find the moderation effects could be attributable to the methodological limitations (e.g., a small sample size and analytic strategy), another possibility is that the causal relationships of the model could be reversed. Future research employing different methods and study designs is necessary to address the causal direction of the proposed associations.

All in all, the results of current study confirm the mediation effects from effective leader emotional labor strategies (i.e., leader deep acting and leader genuine emotion) to leader well-being (i.e., leaders' perception of LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and WFE) via

leader felt authenticity were strong and significant. Additionally, the indirect effects of leader deep acting and genuine emotional display to follower well-being (i.e., followers' perception of LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery, and WFE) via follower perceived leader authenticity were influenced by leaders' and followers' attachment orientations, as the data revealed significant interaction effects. By developing a moderated mediation model, this study highlights the importance of integrating potential mediation variables and moderation variables into one theoretical emotional labor framework to disentangle the complexity. This study provides a new understanding of how effective leader emotional labor strategies improve leaders' and followers' work-related and non-work related outcomes through intrapersonal mechanism (Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016). Additionally, this study suggests that targeting the development of attachment security can increase individuals' ability in performing effective emotional labor and facilitate rational perception of self and others at work (Kafetsios et al., 2014).

5.2 Theoretical Contributions

This study has several theoretical contributions. First, this study contributes to the emotional labor literature in several ways. Scholars have called for more research on emotional labor in occupations other than front line service work (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) and, more specifically, within the leadership role (Humphrey, 2008; 2012; Humphrey et al., 2008). This research answers the call by focusing on leadership and explores how leader emotional labor, in conjunction with leader authenticity, impact leader and follower well-being outcomes. Moreover, this study incorporates genuine emotion as the third emotional labor strategy that goes beyond studies on surface acting and deep acting, and provides evidence that leaders feel authentic when involving in deep acting, but they will still not reach the levels of felt authenticity when they perform genuine emotion (Gardner et al., 2009). The extension of emotional labor to leadership offers a wide range of research opportunities. For example, scholars have called for more studies on how leader emotional labor is related to leadership styles (e.g., Arnold et al., 2015) and leader effectiveness (e.g., Edelman & Van Knippenberg, 2017). Nevertheless, the research method and design of this study is still insufficient as the results contain contradictions and few questions remain unanswered. For instance, it is unclear whether leader surface acting influences leader and follower well-being outcomes through leader authenticity. More empirical studies with using different research methods and analytical strategies should be conducted to investigate these relationships.

Second, to the very best of my knowledge, this is the first empirical study to examine how the concept of leader emotional labor relates to leader authenticity, and subsequently four leader and follower well-being outcomes (LMX, emotional exhaustion, recovery from stress, and WFE). This complements the research on the consequences of leader emotional labor for followers (e.g., Little et al., 2016; Wang & Seibert, 2015; Yam et al., 2015) and illustrates that effective emotional labor strategies employed by leaders entails a double dividend of benefits, for leader themselves as well as for followers. Importantly, this research goes beyond earlier studies of emotional labor and negative side of health and well-being (e.g., burnout; Arnold et al., 2015), by taking into account both positive and negative health-related indicators. In addition, the study provides initial empirical evidence to link leader emotional labor to both work-related and non-work related well-being outcomes of leaders and followers, namely their perceptions of leader-member exchange relationship, emotional exhaustion, recovery from work stress, and work-family enrichment.

Third, the contribution of this research lies within the application of conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002), showing that leader authenticity as a personal resource is beneficial for leaders' and followers' health and well-being at work and after work. Supporting gain spirals (Chen, Westman, & Hobfoll, 2015; Hobfoll, 1989) of COR theory, the current study revealed that leaders' and followers' initial resource gains (e.g., leader authenticity) lead to a greater availability of resources, which enables future investments of resources in order to yield increasing resource gains. While many studies have focused on gain spirals concerning work engagement or job resources (Hakanen et al., 2008; Weigl et al., 2009), the present study sheds light on leader authenticity, a personal resource that may trigger reciprocal gain spirals. The findings further suggest that resource acquisition at work enables leaders and followers create a positive gain spiral across domains (Hobfoll, 2001). This study supports the importance of leader authenticity as a resource for leaders and followers at the work-family interface and tested its potential to promote resource gains at work, which in turn affects the private life domain in beneficial ways, that is, work-family enrichment. In addition to the direct relationship, the current study also found that this personal resource is the mechanism that explain the relationship between leader emotional labor and leader well-being outcomes. Answering the call of Gardner and colleagues (2009, 2011), this study found supports for previously theorized relationships between effective emotional labor strategies (i.e., deep acting and genuine emotion) and leader authenticity,

which in turn, impact leader well-being consisting of better leader-member exchange relationship, less emotional exhaustion, higher recovery, and greater work-family enrichment.

The final contribution of the current study is the investigation of two previously unexamined moderators in the relationship between leader emotional labor, leader authenticity, and well-being of leaders and followers. The indirect effect of leader deep acting on follower well-being outcomes was found to be contingent on leader attachment avoidance and follower attachment avoidance. The findings support the possible role leaders' and followers' attachment avoidance can have in the connections between leader behavior and follower outcomes. Similarly, other studies also found that the avoidant dimension of insecure attachment is more important than anxious attachment in leader-member interactions (see Fein et al., 2020, for a review). Research on adult attachment orientations in work relationships and in organizational settings more broadly is limited, despite growing calls for its importance (e.g., Fein et al., 2020). Given there is promising theory and research linking attachment orientations to emotional labor capabilities (e.g., Kafetsios et al., 2016; Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014; Richards & Hackett, 2012) and self- and interpersonal perception (e.g., Srivastava & Beer, 2005), further exploration of the implications of attachment theory as a new lens for understanding the factors that contribute to leader–follower relations is warranted.

5.3 Practical Implications

Current study offers important implications for the organizational leaders and HR practitioners.

Emotional Labor Training Programs

The main findings of this study are that leader deep acting and genuine emotion have significant indirect effects on both leaders' and followers' well-being through leader authenticity. Since the findings highlight leaders' responsibilities as gatekeepers of work related and non-work related outcomes, it may be advantageous for business to consider ways to develop leader emotional labor.

Previous studies have indicated that experience and learning can develop one's skills in recognizing and regulating own emotions (Côté & Miners, 2006), and theses could be covered in leadership coaching, mentoring, and development programs. For example, leaders could be offered emotion management training in order to better handle emotional expression. Specifically, organizations are recommended to have training courses that teach leaders the techniques to experience the emotion that is appropriate for a given situation (i.e., deep acting) and experience and express the appropriate emotions naturally (i.e., genuine emotional display), instead of suppressing emotions and faking expressions (i.e., surface acting). This may help leaders to practice and master effective emotional labor display strategies and avoid detrimental psychological effects linked to surface acting. It may not be realistic for leaders to avoid surface acting completely, as some work interactions may require quick responses. Nevertheless, by increasing individual resources for more effective emotional labor strategies, leaders can become more flexible and skilled in their emotional responses, without investing high self-regulatory efforts (Hülsheger et al., 2015; Scherer, Zapf, Beitler, & Trumpold, 2020). Furthermore, targeted training in emotional labor is recommended to specially support those who are low in the emotion regulation ability to experience less detrimental outcomes from emotional efforts. Research on the effectiveness of emotional intelligence training or coaching suggest it holds great promise (e.g., Chagnon, 2013).

In addition, raising leaders' awareness of leader behavior –well-being link could be included in the programs. Leaders should recognize that their way of regulating emotions may influence themselves and their followers, and just as important, overall business performance. Such programs could follow Edelman and Van Knippenberg (2017), and Wagstaff, Hanton, and Fletcher's (2013) interventions that have provided the field of leadership development practitioners with evidence that leader emotional labor can be trained and guidelines on how to do so. However, this training and development area is in its early stages, the present work could be a useful step toward the development of theoretical understanding and foundations in terms of operationalizing effective leader emotional labor strategies. It might be promising for leaders to add emotional labor as a key element to their behavioural set. I therefore encourage organizations to invest in such training and development programs.

Further, I encourage the training of follower emotional labor, that is, rather than depending on their leaders, followers should have better training in how to express their emotions effectively in leader–follower interactions and beyond. Mastering the basic skills behind deep acting and genuine emotional display may make the workplace more enjoyable and productive for both leaders and followers. From the organizational point of view, the present research yields another important implication for organizations. Results indicated that genuine emotional display is the most desirable mean of emotional labor. This suggests a need for organizations to improve working climates and conditions, with more opportunities for leaders and followers to experience authentic emotions at work (Grandey, Rupp, & Brice, 2015). To establish a healthy working environment, one recommendation is to replace organizational display rules with humanistic practices that create a genuinely positive workforce (Grandey et al., 2015). For example, organizations that wish to practice humanistic forms of emotional labor can engage in fair policies that recognize and support the efforts that are needed by emotional labor.

Attachment Interventions

This study also found support for a conditional process model in which anxious and avoidant attachment moderated the indirect effect of leader emotional labor on follower well-being through leader authenticity. Consistent with previous literature (e.g., Yip et al., 2018), the results point in particular to the negative consequences of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. To reduce the negative consequences of leaders' and followers' attachment insecurities in ways that are both cost-effective and ethically sound, organizations first should assess leaders' and followers' attachment orientations. Such attachment assessments make leaders and followers aware of their own attachment orientations and provides them the necessary insights into social events within their workgroups. From an organizational perspective, assessing and acknowledging securely attached leaders and followers increases appreciations that these individuals have the necessary skills to perform more functional emotion management strategies (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). These assessments and recognition can help top managements manage their organizations in areas such as recruitment, promotion, and staff retention and can help to achieve greater personal and organizational outcomes. For example, organizations can consider attachment security as part of a broader set of criteria in their selection and promotion systems. Selection schemes may

also benefit by information on the matching between attachment orientations and emotion regulation capabilities of leaders and followers.

Although attachment orientations are relatively stable (Bowlby, 1973), previous research has shown that it is feasible to help insecurely attached leaders and followers develop relational security, and that the intervention training is associated with elevated positive mood and prosocial behaviours (e.g., Drake, 2009; Gillath, Selcuk, & Shaver, 2008; Mikulincer et al., 2001, 2005). Self-reflection is recommended to be critical to the development of attachment security (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

Bowlby (1988) suggested that something must trigger self-reflection before individuals consider a change in attachment orientations. In the context of a leader or follower development program, when leaders and followers are required to engage in self-reflective processes, they may be unlikely to truly embrace such processes unless they believe their interaction partners (e.g., coaches) will provide a secure base help them interpret and adjust to the self-discovery (Hinojosa et al., 2014). The interaction partners (e.g., dyadic members, other participants, or external trainers facilitating a leader or follower development program) should serve the safe haven function, positively model self-exploration practices, and establish a sense of psychological safety to such trainings. Consequently, it creates a secure and encouraging environment for self-revelation and facilitates any further development in secure attachment within leader-follower relationships. For avoidantly attached leaders and follower who possess a general resistance of closeness and lack of trust, self-observation practices such as journaling and mindfulness may help soothe them into self-reflection (Hinojosa et al., 2014).

5.4 Strengths, Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The current study has several strengths that should be recognized. The first strength of the present study is that the constructs of interest were assessed at two points of measurement. Independent variables, moderators and mediators were surveyed at the first point of measurement. Dependent variables were assessed at both points of measurement, separated by few weeks to reduce biases pertaining to data collection methods (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Another strength of this study is that it gathered data from two rating

sources, leaders and followers, to counteract biased findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Leaders completed questionnaires that included measures of leader emotional labor, leader attachment orientations, leader felt authenticity, four leader well-being outcomes, and leader demographics. Followers evaluated follower attachment orientations, perceived leader authenticity, four follower well-being outcomes, and follower demographics. Research data collected from different time points and different sources reduced the common method variance effect in the research model.

Despite its theoretical contributions, practical implication, and strengths, this study has a number of limitations that should be addressed in future research. First, while this study broadens the network of leader emotional labor theory and proves the consequences of leader emotional labor from individual level at work and after work, it does not include organizational level outcome indicators. Given the significant role of leaders' values and behaviors in shaping organizational culture (Tee, 2015), future study should expand analysis unit by investigating the consequences of leader emotional labor in the wider organizational and societal context.

Second, leader emotional labor measures were only reported by leaders. The limitation here is that followers' perception of leader emotional labor may be differ from emotional labor actually performed by leaders. The lack of a direct measure of followers' reaction to leaders' use of emotional labor could cover up the influence of other factors responsible for the effect of leader emotional labor on follower perceived leader authenticity, and subsequently follower well-being. Thus, future research needs to include data from followers when measuring leader emotional labor, which would provide an additional perspective on the complex nature of leader emotional labor. In addition, using the COR perspective, future studies should investigate how leader emotional labor strategies shift over time and how the evolving in perspective from job demands to resources occur. Further, general level of leader affect was not controlled in this research. Previous studies have shown it is useful to do so. For instance, Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) found positive affectivity was strongly linked to surface acting and deep acting. Grandey, Fisk, and Steiner (2005) found negative affectivity was related to surface acting. Interestingly, Côté and Morgan (2002) found emotional expressivity had no relationship with suppression of emotions when they controlled emotional expressivity. Nonetheless, the fact that the present study did not address positive and negative affectivity is a limitation of this research.

Third, there is a possible opportunity to examine current study at dyadic level (Gooty & Yammarino, 2011), given the data of this study included independent dyads consisting of a unique leader and follower pair. Nonetheless, employing dyadic approach was not warranted because this study did not involve reciprocal relationships. Future research could extend current research model from individual leader–follower relationships to group and organizational levels. For example, it is possible to propose that a general climate of authenticity can occur at organizational level (Grandey et al., 2012; Hannah et al. 2011) through social identification (Kark & Shamir, 2002) and emotional contagion processes (Frederickson, 2003).

Fourth, the survey design of this study made it very difficult to detect causal relationships, despite all study hypotheses were developed based on theory and thus causality was inferred. For example, although leader genuine emotion was proposed to predict high level of leader authenticity. It is reasonable to argue that authentic leaders are more likely to display genuine emotions compared with inauthentic leaders. Therefore, experimental design and longitudinal design with more measurement points are needed to test the causal relationship between leader emotional labor, leader authenticity, and well-being of leaders and followers. For example, previous studies have used experiments to examine plausible causal relationships between leader emotions and follower outcomes (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Damen et al., 2008; Sy et al., 2005). In addition, it may sometimes be possible that a statistically significant result cannot support that a research hypothesis is correct. Thus, it is important to acknowledged that there is the possibility of a Type I error (i.e., false positive) given the high number of statistical tests in this present study. Also, because a p-value is based on probabilities, it is possible that some hypotheses could be significant by chance or sampling error. Further, although research data were collected from two time points, independent variables and mediators in the present study were measured at the same time. Future research should measure independent variables at Time 1, mediators at Time 2, and outcomes at Time 3 in order to test mediation effects more robustly.

Fifth, although this study gathered data from both leaders and followers, some study variables (leader emotional labor, attachment, and well-being) examined in this study were measured by self-report, thus there was a possibility of common method variance from a methodological point of view (Podsakoff et al., 2012). However, following recommendations

by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003), I separated the measures of predictors, moderators, mediators, and outcomes at two different time points. Therefore, it is less likely that the relations observed in this study were contaminated by common method bias. Over and above this, self-report measures are the most appropriate for measuring psychological health such as emotional exhaustion and recovery from work stress. Nevertheless, in future research endeavors, studies may also use other-reports (e.g., expert-reports of attachment orientations) to replicate the current findings. Regarding leader emotional labor, it would be possible to combine the self-report measures with follower ratings of leaders' behavior in leader-follower interactions to further minimize potential common method bias. In addition, using the COR perspective, future studies can employ diary methodology (Ohly et al., 2010) to explore how leader emotional labor evolves over time. That is, how leader surface acting develops into leader deep acting, and then into leader genuine emotional display. Such research should investigate how the shift in perspective from job demands to resources occur. This is especially important given the dynamic nature of leader emotional labor (Diestel, Rivkin, & Schmidt, 2015; Wagner, Barnes, & Scott, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2018).

Sixth, the current study drew upon sample from populations of UK. This calls for caution when considering the generalizability of the results across nationalities and cultures. Prior research has revealed that the nature and scope of leader emotional behavior might differ depending on culture (e.g., individualism and collectivism culture), as well as its effect on leader and follower well-being can vary according to the culture (e.g., Allen, Diefendorff, & Ma, 2014; Eid & Diener, 2001; Masuda et al., 2008). Nonetheless, this study sets the stage for further research and theory by showing that leader emotional labor can contribute to well-being outcomes in organizations. It could be interesting if leader emotional labor researchers further target more diverse samples. Also, this study was carried out with leaders and followers from different organizations in UK. Organizational characteristics, such as organizational culture, were not controlled. Although the inclusion of different organizations enlarges the generalizability of the findings, this might have biased the findings, given that organizational culture has the potential to influence behavioral outcomes and results (Reis, Trullen, & Story, 2016). For example, McCauley and Gardner (2016) suggested that ethical culture virtues exert especially strong influence on leader emotional labor within the context of religious organizations. Thus, future research should incorporate national and organizational culture to further examine the hypotheses and attempt to replicate the current findings in different occupational groups and in different nations.

Finally, the data collection technique of this study is another limitation. Although using snowball sampling technique to recruit participants has been widely used in organizational behavior research (Gooty & Yammarino, 2016; Gosserand & Diefendroff, 2005), this recruitment strategy provided little control over the data collection and who actually took part in the study. I attempted to reduce this issue by contacting all participants to validate their identity and employment, and willingness to participate in the study via email prior to starting the surveys. Nonetheless, a better starting point for data collection, such as having a personal meeting with participants to build trust and exchange information prior to the survey, can achieve higher quality of study findings. Additionally, since the leaders selected and invited their followers to take part in the research, there could be restriction of range in the quality of relationships within the dyads. In future, a better approach is researchers randomly select leaders and one of his/her followers.

5.5 Conclusion

Scholars have long called for more empirical evidence on a dilemma that leaders perform emotional labor to influence employees to pursue desired goals while simultaneously strive to achieve leader authenticity (Gardner, Fischer, & Hunt, 2009). Answering this call, this study draws on conservation of resources theory to examine the mediating effect of leader authenticity on the relationships of leader emotional labor with leader and follower well-being. The findings suggest that when leaders deep act and display genuine emotions, high levels of leader authenticity may accrue, which in turn, impact leader and follower well-being consisting of better leader-member exchange relationship, less emotional exhaustion, higher recovery, and greater work-family enrichment. Such findings contribute to both emotional labor literature and leadership literature from theoretical and empirical perspectives and highlight important implications for leader emotion regulation and leader authenticity. Given the positive influences of leader emotional labor that the present study investigated, future research could focus on the bright side of emotional labor to provide insights into how leaders are able to regulate their emotions in a manner that simultaneously enhance personal, follower, and organizational outcomes. Further investigation into the influences of leader emotional labor on leaders' and followers' non-work related outcomes, such as work-family interference, remains desired. In addition, current research illustrates that the role of the individual differences in attachment orientations on leaders' abilities to

perform emotional labor and on individual perceptions of leadership. The findings highlight the need for further research to investigate the potential of attachment theory for understanding individual behavior in organizational settings. In sum, this study reveals that leader emotional labor has significant associations with leader and follower well-being, and leader emotional labor and attachment orientations are relevant variables. Extending this line of research, adding experimental and longitudinal design with more measurement points targeting more diverse samples from other geographical regions or nations could be helpful in reducing method biases and making the findings of the current study more generalizable.

Chapter 6 References

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Chapter 7 Appendices

Appendix 1 Participant Recruitment Letter

Emotional Leadership and Wellbeing

Research Aim
This research is to explore the effects of leader management strategies on individuals' wellbeing in the workplace. Through your participation, I eventually hope to get an insight into how the functioning of effective management works.

Leading with Emotions
The ability to understand and manage one's own emotions, and to recognise and influence others' emotions, is a critical leadership skill. The term 'leading with emotions' refers to leaders who use emotion management strategies to influence the moods, emotions, motivations and performance of their employees.

The crucial aspect of managing emotions for leaders is using their judgement wisely to produce the right emotional expressions to influence their employees. The emotions of a leader can either motivate employees, or move them to disassociate from the organisational goal and passively comply. Leaders who engage the capabilities and intellect of their employees but fail to engage their minds and emotions will find that there is a missing link to maximizing work performance.

We all know leaders who demonstrate poor emotional regulation skills. These are the ones who appear insecure, lack empathy, are far more task-focused and less people-focused, or lack sufficient relationship-building skills. The damage that their behavior has on the employees and the organization is obvious because it is the subject of frequent conversation. These are the leaders that no one wants to work for, present to, or interact with.

Effective leaders strike a balance between tasks and people. This means that leaders demonstrate that they care about and can connect with others, and they are able to focus on building relationships with their employees to enable creativity, innovation, participation, and engagement. Employees should not only understand the process for accomplishing their work. Leaders need to connect with them at an emotional level, so that employees understand why their work is important and how they add value.

Can leader emotion management strategies boost wellbeing at work?
Leader emotion management strategies can have important impacts on both leaders and employees. I look at leader and employee wellbeing as key outcomes. Wellbeing is being recognised as not simply a nice to have but as a significant performance-driver. Improvement in wellbeing will result in improved workplace performance: in profitability (financial performance), labour productivity and the quality of outputs or services.

In working to get the very best out of their organisation, many managers are choosing to adopt practices to increase workplace wellbeing. Evidence shows that there are a number of simple, cost effective ways to support workplace wellbeing, for example, managing leader

emotional performance at work. Leaders can make a positive contribution to wellbeing by creating the right and relaxing work environment.

5 Reasons Why This Research Is Important

Effectively leading with emotions

This research is to discover several key ways to help leaders appropriately use emotional regulation strategies. Emotional regulation strategies are the processes by which leaders influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions.

Improving leader wellbeing

An understanding of how emotional regulation can help leaders manage their energy throughout the day, as well as whether and how various emotional regulation strategies can boost leader wellbeing or increase stress.

Improving employee wellbeing

Leaders play a key role in creating work environment that optimize employee workplace wellbeing. Leader emotional performance shapes the quality of the immediate work environment which has an important impact on employees' experiences with their work and subsequent wellbeing.

Leader-member relationship quality

A better understanding of how the choice of leader emotional regulation strategies influences the quality of the one to one relationships between managers and employees. Leaders should prioritize the interpersonal relationships in a team before addressing the work to be accomplished. This includes building a foundation of trust, self-awareness, concern for others, and appreciation for others' capabilities, understanding individual motivations, teambuilding, and providing inspiration.

Healthier people drive healthier businesses

Happy and healthy employees are the driving force behind every successful business. Creating a culture of high wellbeing is vital to an organisation's success. When we are mentally healthy, we are more likely to fulfill our potential, function well, cope with and enjoy work and to make healthy choices about our lives. Employees who feel that the employer they work for cares about their overall health and wellbeing are more likely to be motivated, engaged and are less likely to leave.

Participating Information

Participant requirements:

- Participants should be working in the UK.
- This research focus on one to one leader and follower relationship, so both manager and one of his/her direct reports are requested to participate in the research.

  Please note that the "leader" in this research is immediate manager (or supervisor / team leader) and the "follower" is the leader's direct reports (e.g. subordinate, team member, and employee). Participants include both leaders and followers in an organisation, to represent both perspectives of their interactions. These managers, supervisors and team leaders are considered to be "leaders" as they have influence over the employees directly below them in the organizational hierarchy, and their behaviors are considered to be significant by their employees.

What participants need to do?

- All participants will be requested to answer online surveys 2 times, three weeks apart of each wave of data collection. The first survey takes about 10 minutes to complete; 3 weeks later, the second survey takes less than 5 minutes to complete.

Survey distribution (if applicable)

- First, the researcher will email a survey link to a team of your organisation (e.g. HR director).
- Then, the team will distribute the survey link to all participants via email, and participants will be asked to answer the survey on that day.

What participants will receive?

- Participants will receive a summary report of the research results. The report session will be held after all data collection is completed.

Researcher Information

Hui Zhang, Doctoral Student
Norwich Business School
University of East Anglia

If you have any questions or concerns about the research and participation, you may contact me at hui.zhang@uea.ac.uk.

Supervision team
Professor Ana Sanz Vergel (A.Sanz-Vergel@uea.ac.uk)
Doctor Annilee Game (a.game@uea.ac.uk)

Appendix 2 Participant Information Form

Participant Information Form Note 1 one person can only be in one research group, for example, Andy (leader) and Katy (follower) are in research group 1, both Andy and Kate cannot be in another group such as group 3. Note 2 The "leaders" in this research are immediate managers (or supervisors / team leaders) in your organisation and the "followers" are the leaders' direct reports one level below (e.g. subordinates, team members, employees).				
Research Group (each group consists of one leader and one of his/her followers)	name of leader	email address of the leader	name of follower	email address of the follower
1	Andy (example)		Kate (example)	
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				

Appendix 3 Leader Online Surveys

Leader Time 1 Online Survey

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Hui Zhang and I am currently doing a PhD at the University of East Anglia. My research interests focus on organisational psychology in the workplace. I would like to invite you to participate in my leadership and wellbeing research. The objective of this research is to explore the effects of management strategies on workplace wellbeing within the UK. Therefore, I am hoping to recruit managers and their team members to participate in my research. Through your participation, I hope to get an insight into how the function of effective management works. The findings of this research will support leadership and management development. This research focuses on one to one relationships, as such; both managers and one of their team members are requested to take part in the research.

Surveys will be distributed to you at two points in time, across a period of 3 weeks. The first survey takes about 10 minutes to complete; 3 weeks later, the second survey takes less than 5 minutes to complete.

We believe, other than the time it takes to complete the surveys, there are no risks. You are requested to enter a survey code to start the surveys. The design of survey code is to help the researcher match surveys from managers and team members. You will only be identified by the code, and I will not know who you are; I will not share the codes of people who complete the surveys with your organisation, so complete anonymity is guaranteed.

While you are not identifiable, the surveys you answer will greatly help in the continued understanding of effective management and managerial practices.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the survey or about participating in this research, you may contact me at hui.zhang@uea.ac.uk. This research is approved by the NBS Research Ethics Committee in October, 2017.

Sincerely,

Hui Zhang
Norwich Business School
University of East Anglia

Supervision team
Professor Ana Sanz Vergel (A.Sanz-Vergel@uea.ac.uk)
Doctor Annilee Game (a.game@uea.ac.uk)

○ **I agree to participate in this survey**

○ **I disagree to participate in this survey**

Survey code You are requested to insert a survey code to start the surveys. **Your personal survey code can be found in the Survey Code Information Form and the Form is attached in the email invitation**. The design of survey code is to help the researcher match surveys from managers and team members. You will only be identified by the code, and I will not know who you are; I will not share the codes of people who complete the surveys with your organisation, so complete anonymity is guaranteed.	.....

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1	What is your nationality?	..... (please insert here)	
2	What is your gender?	□	Male
		□	Female
3	What is your age? (please insert the number)	……..... Years	
4	What is your marital status?	□	Living together or married, no children at home
		□	Living together or married, with children at home
		□	Single, no children at home
		□	Single, with children at home
		□	Other
5	How many children do you have? (please insert the number)	.....	From 0 to 3 years
		.....	From 4 to 12 years
		.....	Of 13 years and older
6	What is the highest education you have completed?	□	Below high school
		□	High school
		□	Some college/university
		□	Certificate/diploma
		□	Bachelor's degree
		□	Master's degree
		□	Ph.D
7	What is your contract type?	□	Part time contract
		□	Full time contract
8	What is your job position in the company?	□	Employee
		□	Line manager
		□	Senior manager
9	Average hours worked/per week	.....	Hours/week (please insert the number)
10	How often do you have interactions with this followerr? (E.g. face to face, Skype, email, phone call, etc.)	□	Never
		□	Rarely
		□	Sometimes
		□	Often
		□	Always
11	For how many years have you and this follower been working together in the company?	.....	Month(s) (please insert the number)
12	For how many years have you been working in the company?	.....	Month(s) (please insert the number)
13	In which sector of the labor market do you work?	(Please tick one box)	
	□ industry (1)	□	communication (8)
	□ construction (2)	□	government(9)
	□ trade (3)	□	education (10)
	□ catering (4)	□	health and welfare (11)
	□ transport (5)	□	culture and leisure (12)
	□ financial institution (6)	□	agricultural sector (13)
	□ business services (7)	□	Other

Q1 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours,</u>

	not at all like me	slightly like me	somewhat like me	a lot like me	very much like me
I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.					
I worry that I won't measure up to other people at work.					
I fear that friends at work will let me down.					
Others are often reluctant to be as close as I would prefer at work.					
I'm afraid to reveal too much about myself to people at work.					
I make close friendships at work.					
I like to have close personal relationships with people at work.					
A close friendship is a necessary part of a good working relationship.					
I work hard at developing close working relationships.					
I don't need close friendships at work.					

Q2 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours,</u>

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
My workplace does not expect me to express positive emotions.					
I am expected to suppress my bad moods or negative reactions while on the job.					

Q3 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours</u>,

	never	rarely	sometimes	often	always
I resist expressing my true feelings.					
I pretend to have emotions that I don't really have.					
I hide my true feelings about a situation.					
I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display to others.					
I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show.					
I really try to feel the emotions I have to show as part of my job.					

Q4 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours</u>,

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
The emotions I express to employees are genuine.					
The emotions I show employees come naturally.					
The emotions I show employees match what I spontaneously feel.					

Q5 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours</u>,

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
I clearly state what I mean.					
I show consistency between my beliefs and actions.					
I ask for ideas that challenge my core beliefs.					
I describe accurately the way that others view my abilities.					
I use my core beliefs to make decisions.					
I carefully listen to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion.					
I show that I understand my strengths and weaknesses.					
I openly share information with others.					
I resist pressures on myself to do things contrary to my beliefs.					
I objectively analyze relevant data before making a decision.					
I am clearly aware of the impact I have on others.					
I express my ideas and thoughts clearly to others.					
I am guided in my actions by internal moral standards.					
I encourage others to voice opposing points of view.					

Leader Time 2 Online Survey

Dear Sir/Madam,

Hope you are having a good week!

The time 2 survey is finally here! This survey takes about 5 minutes to complete.

We truly appreciate your time and efforts in supporting this leadership and wellbeing development research.

Sincerely,

Hui Zhang
Norwich Business School
University of East Anglia

Supervision team
Professor Ana Sanz Vergel (A.Sanz-Vergel@uea.ac.uk)
Doctor Annilee Game (a.game@uea.ac.uk)

- ○ **I agree to participate in this survey**
- ○ **I disagree to participate in this survey**

Q1 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours,</u>

Do you know where you stand with this follower … do you usually know how satisfied this follower is with what you do?

rarely	occasionally	sometimes	fairly often	very often
○	○	○	○	○

How well does this follower understand your job problems and needs?

not a bit	a little	a fair amount	quite a bit	a great deal
○	○	○	○	○

How well does this follower recognise your potential?

not at all	a little	moderately	mostly	fully
○	○	○	○	○

Regardless of how much formal authority this follower has built into his/her position, what are the chances that this follower would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

none	small	moderate	high	very high
○	○	○	○	○

Regardless of the amount of formal authority this follower has, what are the chances that he/she would 'bail you out' at his/her expense?

none	small	moderate	high	very high
○	○	○	○	○

I have enough confidence in this follower that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○

How would you characterize your working relationship with this follower?

extremely ineffective	worse than average	average	better than average	extremely effective
○	○	○	○	○

Q2 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during non-working hours</u>,

	totally disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	totally agree
I feel emotionally drained from my work.					
I feel used up at the end of the workday.					
I feel burned out from my work.					

Q3 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during non-working hours,</u>

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
During my non-working time, I forget about work.					
During my non-working time, I do not think about work at all.					
During my non-working time, I distance myself from my work.					
During my non-working time, I get a break from the demands of work.					
During my non-working time, I kick back and relaxed.					
During my non-working time, I do relaxing things.					
During my non-working time, I use the time to relax.					
During my non-working time, I take time for leisure.					

Q4 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during non-working hours</u>,

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member.					

Appendix 4 Follower Online Surveys

Follower Time 1 Online Survey

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Hui Zhang and I am currently doing a PhD at the University of East Anglia. My research interests focus on organisational psychology in the workplace. I would like to invite you to participate in my leadership and wellbeing research. The objective of this research is to explore the effects of management strategies on workplace wellbeing within the UK. Therefore, I am hoping to recruit managers and their team members to participate in my research. Through your participation, I hope to get an insight into how the function of effective management works. The findings of this research will support leadership and management development. This research focuses on one to one relationships, as such; both managers and one of their team members are requested to take part in the research.

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Sincerely,

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University of East Anglia

Supervision team
Professor Ana Sanz Vergel (A.Sanz-Vergel@uea.ac.uk)
Doctor Annilee Game (a.game@uea.ac.uk)

○ **I agree to participate in this survey**

○ **I disagree to participate in this survey**

Survey code You are requested to insert a survey code to start the surveys. **Your personal survey code can be found in the Survey Code Information Form and the Form is attached in the email invitation**. The design of survey code is to help the researcher match surveys from managers and team members. You will only be identified by the code, and I will not know who you are; I will not share the codes of people who complete the surveys with your organisation, so complete anonymity is guaranteed.	.....

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1	What is your nationality?	..... (please insert here)	
2	What is your gender?	□	Male
		□	Female
3	What is your age? (please insert the number)	……..... Years	
4	What is your marital status?	□	Living together or married, no children at home
		□	Living together or married, with children at home
		□	Single, no children at home
		□	Single, with children at home
		□	Other
5	How many children do you have? (please insert the number)	..... From 0 to 3 years	
		..... From 4 to 12 years	
		..... Of 13 years and older	
6	What is the highest education you have completed?	□	Below high school
		□	High school
		□	Some college/university
		□	Certificate/diploma
		□	Bachelor's degree
		□	Master's degree
		□	Ph.D
7	What is your contract type?	□	Part time contract
		□	Full time contract
8	What is your job position in the company?	□	Employee
		□	Line manager
		□	Senior manager
9	Average hours worked/per week	..... Hours/week (please insert the number)	
10	How often do you have interactions with this leader? (E.g. face to face, Skype, email, phone call, etc.)	□	Never
		□	Rarely
		□	Sometimes
		□	Often
		□	Always
11	For how many years have you and this leader been working together in the company?	..... Month(s) (please insert the number)	
12	For how many years have you been working in the company?	..... Month(s) (please insert the number)	
13	In which sector of the labor market do you work?	(Please tick one box)	
	□ industry (1)	□	communication (8)
	□ construction (2)	□	government(9)
	□ trade (3)	□	education (10)
	□ catering (4)	□	health and welfare (11)
	□ transport (5)	□	culture and leisure (12)
	□ financial institution (6)	□	agricultural sector (13)
	□ business services (7)	□	Other

Q1 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours,</u>

	not at all like me	slightly like me	somewhat like me	a lot like me	very much like me
I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.					
I worry that I won't measure up to other people at work.					
I fear that friends at work will let me down.					
Others are often reluctant to be as close as I would prefer at work.					
I'm afraid to reveal too much about myself to people at work.					
I make close friendships at work.					
I like to have close personal relationships with people at work.					
A close friendship is a necessary part of a good working relationship.					
I work hard at developing close working relationships.					
I don't need close friendships at work.					

Q2 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your leader's behavior during working hours</u>,

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
My leader clearly states what he/she means.					
My leader shows consistency between his/her beliefs and actions.					
My leader asks for ideas that challenge his/her core beliefs.					
My leader describes accurately the way that others view his/her abilities.					
My leader uses his/her core beliefs to make decisions.					
My leader carefully listens to alternative perspectives before reaching a conclusion.					
My leader shows that he/she understands his/her strengths and weaknesses.					
My leader openly shares information with others.					
My leader resists pressures on him/her to do things contrary to his/her beliefs.					
My leader objectively analyzes relevant data before making a decision.					
My leader is clearly aware of the impact he/she has on others.					
My leader expresses his/her ideas and thoughts clearly to others.					
My leader is guided in his/her actions by internal moral standards.					
My leader encourages others to voice opposing points of view.					

Follower Time 2 Online Survey

Dear Sir/Madam,

Hope you are having a good week!

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Sincerely,

Hui Zhang
Norwich Business School
University of East Anglia

Supervision team
Professor Ana Sanz Vergel (A.Sanz-Vergel@uea.ac.uk)
Doctor Annilee Game (a.game@uea.ac.uk)

- ○ **I agree to participate in this survey**
- ○ **I disagree to participate in this survey**

Q1 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during working hours,</u>

Do you know where you stand with your leader … do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

rarely	occasionally	sometimes	fairly often	very often
○	○	○	○	○

How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

not a bit	a little	a fair amount	quite a bit	a great deal
○	○	○	○	○

How well does your leader recognise your potential?

not at all	a little	moderately	mostly	fully
○	○	○	○	○

Regardless of how much formal authority your leader has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

none	small	moderate	high	very high
○	○	○	○	○

Regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would 'bail you out' at his/her expense?

none	small	moderate	high	very high
○	○	○	○	○

I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
○	○	○	○	○

How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

extremely ineffective	worse than average	average	better than average	extremely effective
○	○	○	○	○

Q2 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during non-working hours</u>,

	totally disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	totally agree
I feel emotionally drained from my work.					
I feel used up at the end of the workday.					
I feel burned out from my work.					

Q3 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during non-working hours,</u>

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
During my non-working time, I forget about work.					
During my non-working time, I do not think about work at all.					
During my non-working time, I distance myself from my work.					
During my non-working time, I get a break from the demands of work.					
During my non-working time, I kick back and relaxed.					
During my non-working time, I do relaxing things.					
During my non-working time, I use the time to relax.					
During my non-working time, I take time for leisure.					

Q4 Please rate and tick following items thinking of <u>your behavior during non-working hours</u>,

	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.					
My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member.					

Appendix 5 Norwich Business School Research Ethics Committee

NBS-REC / E1

UNIVERSITY OF EAST ANGLIA
NORWICH BUSINESS SCHOOL
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

RESEARCH ETHICS CHECKLIST

This form should be completed by all staff and students planning to conduct research that involves collecting data from human participants.

Before completing this form please read the University research ethics principles at:

https://portal.uea.ac.uk/en/ren/research-integrity/research-ethics/research-ethics-policy

Students should also discuss the ethical aspects of their proposed research with their supervisor before completing the form.

1. Applicant Details

Name: HUI ZHANG

Student no. (if applicable): 100184842

Status (circle appropriate): PGT student / PGR student / Staff / Other

Course (if applicable): Management

Contact telephone number: 0787 390 6691

E-mail address: hui.zhang@uea.ac.uk

Primary supervisor's name (if applicable): Ana Sanz Vergel

2. Project Details

Title of project: Emotional leadership: leader authenticity boosts well being

3. Research Ethics Checklist

Please answer all questions by ticking the appropriate box:

	Yes	No
1. Does the study involve participants who are particularly vulnerable or unable to give informed consent? (e.g. people under 18; people with learning disabilities; students you teach/assess)		✓
2. Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their informed consent at the time? (e.g. covert observation)		✓
3. Will any financial inducements (other than reasonable expenses / compensation for time) be offered to participants?		✓
4. Will the study involve discussion of sensitive topics in a personal, social, cultural, or commercial sense? (e.g. sexual activity, bereavement, drug use, illegal activities, whistleblowing)		✓
5. Could the study place participants at risk of physical or psychological harm, distress, or negative consequences beyond the risks encountered in normal life?		✓
6. Will the research involve any appreciable threat to the health and safety of the researcher(s)?		✓
7. Will the study involve any incitement to, encouragement of, or participation in, an illegal act? (by participant or researcher)		✓
8. Will the study involve recruitment of patients or staff through the NHS?		✓
9. Will participants be informed about the purpose of the research and the nature of the research procedures?	✓	
10. Will participants be debriefed after taking part in the research?	✓	
11. Will arrangements be made to ensure that data obtained from/about participants remains confidential?	✓	
12. Will participants be informed about the use to which the data will be put?	✓	
13. Will the consent of participants be obtained?	✓	
14. Will it be made clear to participants that they are free to withdraw from the research at any time, without negative consequences?	✓	

If you ticked a **WHITE** box for **ALL** questions in the checklist, further ethical approval from the NBS Research Ethics Committee is not required. Simply sign and return this form as indicated on page 3.

If you ticked a GREY (i.e. shaded) box for ANY question, you will also need to complete form E2: NBS ETHICAL APPROVAL FORM. The form asks you to provide more information about how you plan to deal with the 'grey area' ethical issues raised by your research. This does not mean that you cannot do the research but your proposal will have to be considered and approved by the NBS Research Ethics Committee.

Important: Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University research ethics principles and any relevant academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study. **This includes providing participants with appropriate information sheets and consent forms, and ensuring confidentiality in the use and storage of data in accordance with the Data Protection Act.** Any significant change in the research question or design of the study may require completion of new E1 and/or E2 forms.

4. Signatures

Signature of Applicant:

Date: 18/09/2017

Supervisor declaration (for student research only)
Please tick as appropriate:

- ☑ I have discussed the checklist and ethical implications of the proposed research with the student and am satisfied that the study does not raise ethical problems that must be considered by the NBS Research Ethics Committee.
- ☐ I have discussed the checklist and ethical implications of the proposed research with the student. One or more potential ethical issues have been identified which require completion of form E2: Ethical Approval Form for consideration by the NBS Research Ethics Committee.

Signature of Supervisor:

Date: 22/09/2017

Submitting your Form(s)

PLEASE PHOTOCOPY THIS FORM FOR YOUR OWN RECORDS AND SUBMIT THE ORIGINAL

IF YOU ALSO NEED TO COMPLETE AN ETHICAL APPROVAL FORM (E2), PLEASE SUBMIT IT WITH THIS FORM (E1)

Please return your completed form(s) as follows:

PGT Students: NBS Teaching Office/Module Organizer

PGR Students: SSF Postgraduate Research Office/Chair of the NBS-REC

NBS Staff: Chair of the NBS-REC

Appendix 6 Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Hui Zhang
(NBS)

Research & Innovation Services
Floor 1, The Registry
University of East Anglia
Norwich Research Park
Norwich, NR4 7TJ

Email: fmh.ethics@uea.ac.uk

Web: www.uea.ac.uk/researchandenterprise

20.04.18

Dear Hui,

Project Title: Emotional leadership: leader authenticity boosts wellbeing

Reference: 2017/18 – 82

Thank you for your email notifying us of the amendments you would like to make to your above proposal. These have been considered and we can now confirm that your amendments have been approved.

Please can you ensure that any further amendments to either the protocol or documents submitted are notified to us in advance, and also that any adverse events which occur during your project are reported to the Committee.

Please can you also arrange to send us a report once your project is completed.

Yours sincerely,

Professor M J Wilkinson
Chair
FMH Research Ethics Committee

CC Supervisor
Project officer & REN project code (if we have this information)