Are followers satisfied with conscientious leaders? The moderating influence of leader role authenticity

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Summary

Leadership scholars have yet to identify a clear and consistent relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers' satisfaction with a leader. Drawing from socioanalytic theory and related personality research, we argue that the underlying motives of leader conscientiousness can manifest in systematically different behaviors aimed at team task accomplishment, ranging from rigid and order-driven to relatively more adaptable approaches. Importantly, we posit that the relationship between a leader's conscientiousness and adaptability is conditioned by role authenticity (i.e., the extent to which a leader believes a role permits expressions of her or his “true self”). Hence, we articulate a conditional indirect effects model whereby leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity jointly predict leader adaptability and, in turn, increasing levels of leader adaptability are positively associated with followers' shared satisfaction with their leader. Data from a sample of fire and rescue crews provide partial support for the model. Post hoc analyses suggest that the conditioning influence of leader role authenticity on leader conscientiousness is more informative when subfacets of conscientiousness are considered.

KEYWORDS

leader adaptability, leader conscientiousness, leader role authenticity, satisfaction with leader, teams
Scholars argue that leader traits affect follower attitudes by way of leader behaviors (Antonakis, Day, & Schyns, 2012; DeRue et al., 2011; Tuncdogan, Acar, & Stam, 2017). To this end, socioanalytic theories (Hogan, 1983, 1996; Hogan & Holland, 2003) suggest that conscientious individuals are generally motivated to behave in ways that maximize accomplishment, though the specific behavioral approaches they employ to do so can vary substantively. Namely, research indicates that conscientiousness can at times drive leaders toward rigid, order-driven approaches (i.e., low adaptability), but in other cases prompt leaders to adopt more flexible and adaptable approaches (e.g., Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Hogan & Ones, 1997; Judge et al., 2009). We posit that understanding the factors that influence these differences in behaviors is critical for understanding followers’ attitudinal reactions toward conscientious leaders. Extending work suggesting that the relationships between traits and behaviors can vary significantly as a result of one’s subjective appraisals of a situation (e.g., Rauthmann et al., 2014; Zaccaro, Green, Dubrow, & Kolze, 2018), we argue that the leader conscientiousness-leader adaptability relationship is conditioned by leader role authenticity (i.e., when a role allows someone to act in ways reflecting her/his “true self”; Sheldon, Ryan, Rawsthorne, & Ilardi, 1997).

In sum, our theoretical arguments integrate both the authenticity and personality literatures to explain the complex relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. The authenticity literature suggests that higher levels of role authenticity can reduce resource-depleting stress (Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis, 2003), which ultimately allows for more functional trait expressions (Sheldon et al., 1997). Separately, personality research indicates that stressful and demanding situations can push conscientious individuals away from adaptive responses toward more rigid approaches to task accomplishment (LePine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000; Martocchio & Judge, 1997). Taken together, we expect that at higher levels of role authenticity, conscientious leaders will exhibit greater levels of adaptability, and in turn, followers will report higher levels of satisfaction with the leader; and at lower levels of role authenticity, conscientious leaders will be more rigid (i.e., less adaptable), thereby eliciting less satisfactory follower reactions. Our conceptual model is depicted in Figure 1.

The present study has the potential to make several theoretical contributions. First, we devote more nuanced attention to the previously unclear relationship between leader conscientiousness and follower satisfaction with the leader. Acknowledging that leader conscientiousness may not have straightforward effects on followers’ satisfaction, we explore the possibility that other factors condition this relationship. To this end, a second contribution is that our study answers calls to identify other leader attributes (i.e., leader role authenticity) that interact with leader personality traits to predict both proximal and distal outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002; Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008; Tuncdogan et al., 2017; Zaccaro et al., 2018). Our focus on leader role authenticity (a boundary condition) and leader adaptability (a mediating mechanism) is particularly useful given that popular press attention for both constructs has so far outpaced scholarly investigations. Finally, our study adds to the relatively scant literature examining leader traits in team contexts (Burke et al., 2006; DeRue et al., 2011; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008) and, related, provides needed attention for how leaders affect the shared satisfaction of followers (Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011; Mathieu et al., 2008).

2 | THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

Conscientious leaders are typically described as analytical, cautious, dependable, diligent, disciplined, exacting, methodical, and organized (Judge et al., 2009). Although a leader’s conscientiousness substantially influences how he or she prioritizes and structures work (DeRue et al., 2011; Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Hogan & Ones, 1997; Judge et al., 2009; LePine et al., 2000), it does not appear to exert a clear main effect on followers’ satisfaction with the leader (DeRue et al., 2011; Smith & Canger, 2004). Below we build from socioanalytic perspectives to explore the underlying motives of conscientiousness that guide leader behaviors.

2.1 | Socioanalytic theory and the leader conscientiousness—Satisfaction with the leader relationship

Socioanalytic theory posits that individuals’ personality traits reflect differences in relatively enduring motives aimed at succeeding in social settings and/or group contexts (Hogan, 1983, 1996; Hogan & Holland, 2003), primarily getting along (i.e., cooperating and conforming with others in a group) and getting ahead (i.e., pursuing status and advancement over others). Researchers argue that conscientiousness reflects an orientation toward task accomplishment (i.e., Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013; Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002), which in organizational contexts is generally considered a means for getting ahead (Blickle et al., 2008; Hogan & Holland, 2003). In contrast to traits associated with getting along motives (i.e., agreeableness and emotional stability; Barrick et al., 2013, Hogan & Holland, 2003), which intuitively exhibit positive influence on followers’ satisfaction with a leader (DeRue et al., 2011), conscientiousness’s effects on followers’ attitudes likely depend on the specific behavioral approaches leaders take to accomplish team tasks.

Figure 1: Conceptual model

Note. Bolded text indicates variables rated by leaders; non-bolded text indicates variables rated by followers. Dashed line indicates no expected main effect.
Interestingly, reviews of the leader trait literature suggest a range of possibilities for how conscientious leaders might pursue their motives for accomplishment and getting ahead (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Hogan & Ones, 1997; Judge et al., 2009; LePine et al., 2000). At one end of this range, conscientiousness may motivate leaders to pursue goals using rigid and controlling approaches that are extremely cautious, preoccupied with rules, and inflexible (Griffin & Hesketh, 2005; Judge et al., 2009). At the other end, conscientiousness may drive leaders to diligently and methodically consider multiple approaches toward their work and adapt their focus to maximize possible success (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Judge et al., 2009). Research further implies that the extent to which leaders employ rigid versus adaptable approaches can affect how followers view their leader, such that rigidity is seen as “micromanaging, unreasonably demanding, inflexible, curt, and generally difficult to deal with” (Witt, Burke, Barrick, & Mount, 2002, p. 165), whereas greater flexibility signals satisfactory attributes such as competence, persistence, and interpersonal fairness (Hogan & Holland, 2003; Judge et al., 2009). Below we argue that leaders’ subjective appraisals of their situation may inform which approach manifests and, hence, influence followers’ attitudes toward the leader.

2.2 Joint effects of leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity

Integrating socioanalytic theory and person-situation perspectives, Hogan and Roberts (2000) suggested that individuals’ behaviors are shaped by both the broad underlying motives of traits and the extent to which they believe a particular social role accommodates that pursuit. A substantive body of related scholarship similarly supports the notion that trait expressions vary as a function of individuals’ subjective appraisals of their role (Hooijberg, 1996; Rauthmann, Sherman, & Funder, 2015; Zaccaro et al., 2018). To this end, the degree to which individuals feel authentic in a specific role (i.e., role authenticity) is a potentially important factor shaping the relationships between traits and behaviors (Sheldon et al., 1997).

Authenticity refers to the judgment that one’s expressions are reflective of the true self (e.g., self-authored actions; Kernis, 2003; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Sheldon et al., 1997) rather than a response to other forces (e.g., pressure to fit a specific stereotype). Individuals occupy multiple roles in their lives (e.g., work and family) and can thus vary substantively in the degree to which they feel authentic in each of these roles (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Rogers, 1961; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009); and we focus on how formally appointed leaders view themselves in their current leadership role. Prior work suggests that role authenticity facilitates more functional trait expressions (Sheldon et al., 1997), whereas role inauthenticity acts as a stressor that depletes resources needed for self-awareness, self-regulation, and information processing (Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis, 2003).

Role authenticity has been examined in broad personality research (Fleeson & Wilt, 2010; Sheldon et al., 1997) and selectively in other contexts (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Ashforth & Tomiuk, 2000; Caza, Moss, & Vough, 2018; Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005) but has yet to be explicitly addressed in the leader trait literature and, thus, warrants some positioning relative to the concept of authentic leadership (e.g., Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Shamir & Elam, 2005). Leader role authenticity reflects the extent to which a leader truly feels authentic in a particular role (i.e., an inward-facing concept), whereas the literature on authentic leaders places more emphasis on how leaders behave in ways that are perceived as authentic by others (i.e., an outward-facing concept). As a result, authentic leadership can exhibit relatively straightforward relationships with follower outcomes (e.g., Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018), whereas role authenticity is better suited for understanding how leader personality traits translate into different leader behaviors (e.g., interactive effects; Sheldon et al., 1997).

At lower levels of role authenticity—that is, role inauthenticity—leaders experience resource-depleting stress that impair their ability to self-regulate and efficiently process information as they pursue their motivations toward task accomplishment. Research generally suggests that increased stress may prompt conscientious individuals to emphasize order, exhibit extreme caution, and respond aversely to critical suggestions (Cianci, Klein, & Seijts, 2010; LePine et al., 2000; Ng et al., 2008), which followers view as excessively critical, unfair, and closed-minded (e.g., Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Hogan & Ones, 1997; Judge et al., 2009). Related, when lacking the resources to efficiently process information, conscientious leaders may overanalyze problems and hesitate in making decisions that are important to followers (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Judge et al., 2009). Finally, lower levels of role authenticity also hinder social awareness (Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis, 2003). To this end, conscientious individuals who vigorously pursue task accomplishment without recognizing the social context may be seen as “vengeful, hostile, inconsiderate, uncooperative, or aloof” (Witt et al., 2002, p. 165). Accordingly, we expect the relationship between leader conscientious and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader to be negative at lower levels of leader role authenticity.

Conversely, when role authenticity is higher, leaders will experience relatively less stress and, thus, are able to preserve the internal resources needed to self-regulate, maintain social awareness, and process information (e.g., Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis, 2003; Kuhl, 1986; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). In this regard, higher role authenticity facilitates more functional and satisfying expressions of a leaders’ conscientiousness (Sheldon et al., 1997), including a willingness and ability to consider a broad set of options for best pursuing task accomplishment (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991). Supporting this position, role authenticity’s positive influence on self-awareness and self-regulatory resources (Kernis, 2003; Kuhl, 1986) should help conscientious leaders recognize and manage against an overreliance on order and control, extreme cautiousness, and other rigid and dissatisfying tendencies sometimes associated with conscientiousness. Similarly, when conscientious leaders are able to devote adequate resources toward information processing (i.e., a benefit of higher role authenticity; Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis, 2003; Sheldon et al., 1997), they can avoid excessively delayed decisions and “analysis paralysis” that frustrate followers; and, related, enhanced information processing may allow leaders to consider more feedback and ideas from followers. Ultimately, relatively high levels of role authenticity
will help conscientious leaders pursue the team’s task accomplishment in positive and constructive ways, which in turn will be viewed by followers as more competent, fair, accommodating, and generally satisfying (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Judge et al., 2009; Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, & Goldstein, 2007).

In sum, we predict that leader role authenticity will moderate the relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared attitudes toward the leader, such that leader conscientiousness is associated with more satisfactory reactions as leader role authenticity increases. Therefore,

Hypothesis 1. Leader role authenticity moderates the relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader, such that the relationship becomes increasingly positive as role authenticity increases and increasingly negative as role authenticity decreases.

2.3 The mediating role of leader adaptability

A major tenet of the prior arguments is that leader conscientiousness manifests differently, ranging from relatively rigid behavior to more open and flexible behavior, as a function of role authenticity; and these differences in behavioral approaches affect followers’ satisfaction with the leader. To better explicate this premise, we position leader adaptability (i.e., the willingness to consider multiple approaches to optimally meet job demands; Ashford, 1986; Jones, Rafferty, & Griffin, 2006) as a proximal outcome of the leader conscientiousness-leader role authenticity interaction and thus argue that it serves as a mediating mechanism that transmits the joint effects of leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity on followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader.

In addition to our theoretical arguments offered in support of Hypothesis 1, work in related domains provides some insight into why the relationship between leader conscientiousness and leader adaptability will vary as a result of leader role authenticity. For example, research implies that stressors (e.g., low role authenticity) prompt conscientious leaders to strive for order and discipline at the possible expense of overlooking more reasonable approaches (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Judge et al., 2009; Ng et al., 2008). For example, LePine et al. (2000) found that conscientiousness was negatively associated with adaptive performance as task demands increased. Similarly, Cianci et al. (2010) observed that increased pressures can drive highly conscientious individuals to increase their efforts toward a preexisting strategy that has not demonstrated success rather than pursuing alternatives. To this end, the adoption of overly controlling approaches in response to stressors like role inauthenticity may serve as a common coping response for conscientiousness individuals (Martocchio & Judge, 1997). Additionally, lower levels of role authenticity also prohibit leaders from detecting and processing meaningful social and environmental cues (e.g., low self-awareness and reduced information processing; Goldman & Kernis, 2002; Kernis, 2003; Kuhl, 1986; Sheldon et al., 1997) should help conscientious leaders interpret the social and contextual information needed to determine when and how to revise goals and related objectives (for related arguments, see Witt et al., 2002). Taken together, we expect that when leader role authenticity is low, conscientious leaders will exhibit lower levels of adaptability; and when leader role authenticity is high, conscientious leaders will adopt more adaptive approaches. Thus,

Hypothesis 2. Leader role authenticity moderates the relationship between leader conscientiousness and leader adaptability, such that the relationship becomes increasingly positive as role authenticity increases and increasingly negative as role authenticity decreases.

Research on the relationship between leader adaptability and followers’ shared satisfaction with a leader is not well developed, although prior work does offer some conceptual support for a positive relationship. For example, having a more adaptive leader can help followers jointly frame their context in more positive ways because it conveys to them that their leader is realistic about current situations but is simultaneously optimistic that a more positive situation can be achieved and will work toward that goal (Calcaro & Gurvis, 2006). Similarly, adaptability indicates that a leader is genuinely concerned with finding viable solutions rather than simply identifying problems (Goleman, 1998), which should lead to more positive follower reactions. Indeed, related work indicates that followers are more likely to be satisfied when they trust that their leader is honestly pursuing better approaches (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

In addition to helping followers more positively frame their shared context, adaptive leaders are likely more open to considering followers’ concerns about current approaches and suggestions for improvement (Calcaro & Gurvis, 2006). Consistent with theories of self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985), followers will be more satisfied with their leader when they are permitted to have a greater influence at work. To this end, the consideration of followers’ ideas has been extensively and positively linked to their satisfaction (see, e.g., DeRue et al., 2011; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Tyler, Rasinski, & Spodick, 1985). In contrast, relatively closed-minded approaches may leave followers feeling voiceless (Bedelian & Day, 2004) or disempowered (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999), both of which would be viewed as less satisfactory.

Hypothesis 3. Leader adaptability is positively associated with followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader.

2.4 An integrated model

In Hypotheses 1 and 2, we theorized that leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity would interactively predict followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader and leader adaptability, respectively. In Hypothesis 3, we argued that leader adaptability would positively predict followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. Because leader behaviors—including adaptability—are a theoretically more
proximal outcome of leader traits than are followers’ attitudinal reactions (Antonakis et al., 2012; DeRue et al., 2011; Tuncdogan et al., 2017), we expect that leader adaptability will mediate the interactive effect of leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity on followers’ shared sense of satisfaction with the leader (a conditional indirect effect; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Therefore,

Hypothesis 4. The indirect effect of leader conscientiousness on followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader via leader adaptability is conditional upon leader role authenticity, such that the indirect effect becomes increasingly positive as role authenticity increases and increasingly negative as role authenticity decreases.

3 | METHOD

3.1 | Sample and procedure

We collected data from fire and rescue captains (i.e., leaders) and their crews (i.e., followers) in the southern United States. Administrative personnel accompanied the first author to fire stations in each department over the course of multiple days, where we administered paper-based surveys. We collected useable responses from each team the first author visited. Although no teams willfully opted out of survey participation, the time intensive nature of the data collection prevented us from surveying all fire and rescue crews in each department; and, likewise, we were unable to survey a small number of crews due to factors beyond the research team’s control (e.g., emergency calls). In total, we collected data from approximately 60% of the crews working in each department during the survey administration period.

The average actual crew size (including the leader) was seven members (SD = 1.70). All captains completed the leader survey and, on average, five crew members (SD = 1.75) completed the follower survey for a mean within-team response rate of 85% (median = 85%). All but five crews had a within-team response rate that was equal to or greater than 67%, and the minimum within-team response rate was 50%. Following recent suggestions (e.g., Biemann, Cole, & Voelpel, 2012), we did not remove any crews from our analyses.\(^2\)

Leaders completed surveys in a different room from their crew members. Ninety-eight percent of leaders in our sample were male, 94% identified as White (2% Hispanic, 2% African American, and 2% unidentified), the average age was 48.5 years (SD = 5.67), 96% reported having at least some college education (63% held an associate’s degree or higher), and the average tenure with the current team was 4.35 years (SD = 3.18 years). A majority of followers (98%) were male, 19% identified as non-White, the average age was 38 years old (SD = 8.27), 97% reported having at least some college education (52% held an associate’s degree or higher), and the average team tenure was 3.28 years (SD = 3 years).

\(^2\)We obtained consistent results when only teams with 67% or higher within-team response rates were used in the analyses described below.

3.2 | Measures

Leaders provided self-ratings of their conscientiousness and role authenticity. Each leader was appointed to oversee a single crew; hence, there were no concerns regarding a possible lack of independence. Followers provided ratings of leader adaptability and satisfaction with the leader. Unless specifically noted, we utilized a 7-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

3.2.1 | Leader conscientiousness

Leaders completed a 10-item (α = 0.81) measure of their trait-level conscientiousness (Goldberg, 1992). Sample items include “I am always prepared” and “I am exacting in my work.”

3.2.2 | Leader role authenticity

Leaders rated their role authenticity using five items (α = 0.84) developed by Sheldon et al. (1997) and adapted for a leadership role. Items were prefaced by the phrase “Tell us how you feel about your role as a team/crew leader ....” A sample item reads “I experience this aspect of my life as an authentic part of who I am.”

3.2.3 | Leader adaptability

Followers provided ratings of leader adaptability using three items (α = 0.89) developed by Jones et al. (2006). We prefaced items with the phrase “Please rate the extent to which your crew leader engages in each activity (in general);” items were anchored on a frequency scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (always). A sample item includes “Adapts his/her personal approach to the situation at hand.” Given that multiple followers assessed each leader’s adaptability, we aggregated responses to reflect a single “leader level” score. Several commonly used indicators supported this decision. Namely, analysis of variance indicated that a significant portion of variance in leader adaptability was explained by crew membership, \(F(53, 200) = 3.80, p < 0.01,\) and the corresponding ICC\(_1\) was 0.37 and ICC\(_2\) was 0.74. Following Biemann et al. (2012) recommendations, we computed a lower and upper bound estimate of within-team agreement by considering two null distributions in the \(r_{wqij}\) equation. For the lower bound, we used a moderately skewed distribution because a positive leniency in responses was expected, and we used a rectangular distribution to yield an upper bound estimate of agreement. The mean \(r_{wqij}\) scores ranged from 0.68 to 0.87.

Followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. Followers provided ratings of satisfaction with their leader using a modified three-item measure (α = 0.99) from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). We used a referent-shift composition model (Chan, 1998) because we were interested in followers’ shared perception of satisfaction. A sample item reads “Overall, my team members like working for this team leader.” Analysis of variance results demonstrated that a significant portion of variance in ratings of satisfaction with the leader was explained by crew membership, \(F(53, 200) = 6.96, p < 0.01,\) and the ICC\(_1\) and ICC\(_2\) statistics were 0.56 and 0.86, respectively.
computed a lower and upper bound estimate of within-team agreement using a moderately skewed distribution and a rectangular distribution (Biemann et al., 2012). The \( r_{\text{eff}} \) estimates ranged from 0.79 to 0.91. Based on these results, we aggregated members’ ratings to reflect followers’ shared perceptions of satisfaction with their leader.

### 3.2.4 | Control variables

We collected data relating to potential covariates as possible controls. The first study covariate was team size. Prior work notes team size can potentially influence the quality of leader-follower interactions (e.g., Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010) and the communication patterns among team members (Whitman et al., 2010). We also considered leaders’ openness to experience (i.e., a dispositional tendency to be intellectually curious and open to new ideas; Barrick & Mount, 1991) as a covariate given that it might significantly influence individuals’ approaches to changing situations (e.g., adaptability; LePine et al., 2000). As such, we reasoned that controlling for these two factors helps mitigate alternative explanations for the proposed relationships. We collected data on team size from organizational records, whereas leaders’ openness to experience was collected from leaders’ responses to 10 items (\( \alpha = 0.74 \)) from Goldberg’s (1992) personality inventory.

### 3.3 | Analytical strategy

We used multiple ordinary least squares regression to test Hypotheses 1–3. We entered main effects first, then the centered interaction term, and finally the mediating variable. We used PROCESS to test our integrated model (i.e., Hypothesis 4), which is a first-stage moderated mediation model. We inspected the path estimates and used an inferential test known as the “index of moderated mediation” (Hayes, 2015) to examine whether the overall indirect effect depends linearly on our theoretical moderator. According to Hayes (2015), just because one of the indirect (mediated) effect linkages is moderated by another variable (in our case “path a”) does not mean that the overall indirect effect is moderated by the same variable.

### 4 | RESULTS

Table 1 provides the means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations for all study variables. Consistent with prior work (DeRue et al., 2011), leader conscientiousness did not exhibit a significant correlation with followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader (\( r = -0.19; p = 0.166 \)). An inspection of the correlations reveals a relative absence of association between the potential controls and focal study variables. Consequently, we excluded these two factors from further analyses, not only to provide maximum power for the following statistical tests, but because analyses that include unnecessary control variables may yield biased parameter estimates (Becker, 2005). Nevertheless, we followed best practice recommendations (e.g., Becker et al., 2016; Bernerth, Cole, Taylor, & Walker, 2018) and compared results with and without control variables, observing minimal differences between the two sets of results (i.e., no study conclusions were significantly impacted).

Prior to executing our hypothesis tests, we investigated the empirical distinctiveness of our four focal variables by specifying seven confirmatory factor analysis models following the procedures outlined by Chen, Mathieu, and Bliwise (2004). The first analysis tested a four-factor measurement model that allows the factors to freely correlate. Fit indices suggested this model was a relatively good fit to the observed data, \( \chi^2 (df = 84, n = 54) = 163.2, p < 0.01; \text{CFI} = 0.90; \text{SRMR} = 0.098 \). Next, we tested six alternative three-factor models in which we set the correlation between two factors to 1.0. Results from chi-square difference tests indicated that each alternative model with unity constraints was a significantly worse fitting model. Thus, we concluded that the focal constructs were distinct.

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2CFAs were conducted at the team level so leader-rated variables could be examined with follower’s aggregated variables. We used four randomly constructed parcels as indicators for the leader conscientiousness latent variable due to sample size-to-indicator ratio concerns (Bentler & Chou, 1987). No cross-loadings or correlated disturbance terms were permitted.

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### Table 1 | Means, standard deviations, coefficient alphas, and intercorrelations among variables

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<th>Mean</th>
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<td>1. Team size</td>
<td>6.78</td>
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<td>2. Leader openness</td>
<td>5.07</td>
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<td>3. Leader conscientiousness</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.31**</td>
<td>(0.81)</td>
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<td>4. Leader role authenticity</td>
<td>5.84</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>(0.84)</td>
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<td>5. Leader adaptability</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>(0.86)</td>
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<td>6. Shared satisfaction with leader</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.77***</td>
<td>(0.99)</td>
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<td><strong>Post hoc variables</strong></td>
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<td>7. Leader conscientiousness (order)</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
<td>0.98***</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>(0.78)</td>
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<td>8. Leader conscientiousness (achieve)</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.28**</td>
<td>0.61***</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-0.18</td>
<td>-0.26*</td>
<td>0.54***</td>
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Note. \( n = 54 \) teams. Coefficient alphas are provided in parentheses on the diagonal.

\*p \leq 0.10 (two-tailed tests). **p \leq 0.05 (two-tailed tests). ***p \leq 0.01 (two-tailed tests).
4.1 Tests of hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 argued that leader role authenticity would moderate the relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader, such that the slope of the relationship would be relatively strong and positive (negative) at higher (lower) levels of role authenticity. As shown in Model 1, Step 2 of Table 2, the cross-product between leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity was significantly related to followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader ($B = 0.31, p = 0.036$). Following best practice recommendations, we employed the Johnson-Neyman (J-N) technique to gain a more complete understanding of the interaction (Bauer & Curran, 2005; Gardner, Harris, Li, Kirkman, & Mathieu, 2017; Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006). In contrast to “pick a point” or “simple slopes” approaches (which typically compare slopes at only a few arbitrary values of the moderator, e.g., ±1SD from the mean), the J-N technique indicates the specific regions of moderator values whereby predictor-outcome relations are significantly different from zero (Preacher et al., 2006).

The horizontal axis in Figure 2 depicts leader role authenticity within a range of three values from the mean (i.e., leader role authenticity is mean centered); the vertical axis depicts slope estimates (with a 95% confidence band that correspond to the relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. For values of the moderator in which the confidence bands do not contain zero, the effect of leader conscientiousness on followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader is statistically significantly different from zero (at alpha = 0.05). Results demonstrated that the confidence band crosses zero at a value of 0.53 below the mean of role authenticity, which is depicted in Figure 2 as a dashed vertical line marking the boundary between regions of significance (i.e., left of dashed line) and insignificance (i.e., right of dashed line). Hence, for values of leader role authenticity that are 0.53 or lower than the mean, the slope of the leader conscientiousness—followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader relationship is negative and significantly different from zero (at the –0.53 threshold, $B = –0.318, SE[B] = 0.16, t = –2.01, p = 0.05$). Contrary to expectations, there was no upper bound estimate within the observed data (i.e., the value beyond which the slope is significantly positive). This is depicted graphically in that the confidence band does not cross zero at higher levels of leader role authenticity. Hence, Hypothesis 1 is partially supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the relationship between leader conscientiousness and leader adaptability is moderated by leader role authenticity, such that the anticipated relationship is positive (negative) as leader role authenticity increases (decreases). As shown in Model 2, Step 2 of Table 2, the cross-product between leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity was significantly related to leader adaptability ($B = 0.27, p = 0.020$). Figure 3 illustrates the pattern of relationships using the J-N technique. As illustrated, the lower bound estimate shows that the confidence band crosses zero at a value of 1.20 below the mean of leader role authenticity. Hence, for values of leader role authenticity that are 1.20 or lower than the mean (left of the dashed vertical line), the slope of the leader conscientiousness–leader adaptability relationship is significantly different from zero (at the –1.20 threshold. $B = –0.325, SE[B] = 0.16, t = –2.01, p = 0.05$). Figure 3 also indicates a region of significance for values of leader authenticity that are 2.59 greater than the mean (right of the solid vertical line), though this upper bound estimate is outside the range of observed data. As such, Hypothesis 2 is partially supported.

Hypothesis 3 argued that leader adaptability would positively predict followers’ shared satisfaction with a leader. In line with this expectation, results from Model 1, Step 3 of Table 2 indicate that leader adaptability was positively and significantly associated with followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. For values of leader role authenticity that are 1.50 or lower than the mean, the slope of the leader conscientiousness—followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader relationship is negative and significantly different from zero (at the –1.50 threshold, $B = –0.318, SE[B] = 0.16, t = –2.01, p = 0.05$). Contrary to expectations, there was no upper bound estimate within the observed data (i.e., the value beyond which the slope is significantly positive). This is depicted graphically in that the confidence band does not cross zero at higher levels of leader role authenticity. Hence, Hypothesis 1 is partially supported.

**TABLE 2** OLS regression results (Hypotheses 1–3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Model 2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Shared satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>Leader adaptability</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>with leader</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Step 1</td>
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<td></td>
<td>$B$ $t$</td>
<td>$B$ $t$</td>
<td>$B$ $t$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>7.22*** (1.08)</td>
<td>6.71</td>
<td>6.27*** (1.13)</td>
<td>5.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main effects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Leader conscientiousness (LC)</td>
<td>–0.25 (0.16)</td>
<td>–1.50</td>
<td>–0.16 (0.16)</td>
<td>–0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader role authenticity (LRA)</td>
<td>0.08 (0.11)</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.15 (0.11)</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.31** (0.14)</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.05 (0.10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Leader adaptability</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.94*** (0.12)</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.13**</td>
<td>0.62***</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.08**</td>
<td>0.49***</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>2.45*</td>
<td>19.88***</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $n = 54$ teams. Unstandardized coefficients are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.

$p \leq 0.10$ (two-tailed tests). **$p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed tests). ***$p \leq 0.01$ (two-tailed tests).
satisfaction with the leader over and above the other study variables ($B = 0.94$, $p = 0.000$). Because followers rated both leader adaptability and shared satisfaction with the leader, we were concerned about confounds associated with common source bias. We thus employed a split sample technique whereby we computed leader adaptability using a random half of the crew member responses, and we computed satisfaction with the leader using the other half (thereby removing within-person overlap between the measures; e.g., Ostroff, Kinicki, & Clark, 2002). Correlations between the split variables indicated a positive and significant relationship between leader adaptability and shared satisfaction with the leader, though smaller in magnitude than the nonsplit variables ($r = 0.40$, $p = 0.00$ for leader adaptability$_{\text{subset-1}}$ and shared satisfaction with leader$_{\text{subset-2}}$; $r = 0.48$, $p = 0.00$ for leader adaptability$_{\text{subset-2}}$ and shared satisfaction with leader$_{\text{subset-1}}$). We then

Note: Dashed vertical line reflects the lower bound point at which the confidence band crosses zero (−1.20), implying that the slope between leader conscientiousness and leader adaptability is negative and significantly different from zero for centered leader authenticity values of −1.20 and below. Solid vertical line reflects the upper bound point at which the confidence band crosses zero (2.59), implying the slope between leader conscientiousness and leader adaptability is positive and significantly different from zero at this point and higher. We note that the latter region of significance is not within the range of observed data and is presented for informational purposes only.

Note: Dashed vertical line reflects the lower bound point at which the confidence band crosses zero (−0.53), implying that the simple slope between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader is negative and significantly different from zero for centered leader authenticity values of −0.53 and below.
repeated the regression analyses from Model 1, Step 3 of Table 2 using the split sample variables. Results indicated that the relationship between leader adaptability and satisfaction with the subscale-1 remained significant and in the same direction as our initial test ($B = 0.39$, SE$[B] = 0.15$, $t = 2.63$, $p = 0.011$); and this pattern held for the relationship between leader adaptability and satisfaction with the subscale-2 ($B = 0.55$, SE$[B] = 0.15$, $t = 3.55$, $p = 0.001$). Taken together, results indicate support for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 argued that leader adaptability would mediate the joint effects of leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity on followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. Our tests of Hypotheses 1–3 provide preliminary support for this proposition. For example, as depicted in Table 2, we note that the interaction between leader conscientiousness and leader role authenticity on satisfaction with the leader ($B = 0.31$, $p = 0.036$; Model 1, Step 2) was substantively diminished once leader adaptability was entered into the model ($B = 0.05$, $p = 0.625$; Model 1, Step 3). We verified these findings via the PROCESS macro. More specifically, the path coefficients obtained from PROCESS (Hayes, 2013) were identical to those found when testing Hypotheses 2 and 3 (see Table 2). The advantage of PROCESS is that it allows one to test a fully integrated model via the index of moderated mediation (Hayes, 2015). Put differently, we evaluated whether the overall indirect effect (i.e., also known as “ab”) of leader conscientiousness on satisfaction with the leader (through leader adaptability) is conditional on values of leader role authenticity. The estimate for the index of moderated mediation was statistically significant (coefficient $= 0.26$, boot SE $= 0.21$, boot lower CI$95\% = .03$, boot upper CI$95\% = .88$), providing empirical evidence that the relationship between the indirect effect and the moderator (leader role authenticity) is not zero. This finding is consistent with our claims that leaders’ role authenticity plays a key role in conditioning the effects of leaders’ conscientiousness on their adaptive behaviors, which, in turn, influences followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is generally supported.

### 4.2 Supplementary post hoc analyses

Heeding calls in related research (Hough, 1992; Roberts, Chernyshenko, Stark, & Goldberg, 2005; Smith, Hill, Wallace, Recendes, & Judge, 2018), we conducted supplementary analyses to explore whether examining leader conscientiousness at the subfacet level might further inform our model. Although our hypotheses did not specify first-order dimensions of conscientiousness, our arguments did imply that leader role authenticity acts as a hedge against conscientious leaders’ tendencies to pursue order, which then affects their adaptability. If this were the case, one would expect to see that leader role authenticity exhibits a stronger moderating effect on the orderliness subfacet of conscientiousness, relative to other subfacets.

Because our leader conscientiousness measure (Goldberg, 1992) did not specify subfacets, we asked 19 subject matter experts to complete a short exercise whereby each of the conscientiousness items were classified into three categories: orderliness, achievement, or other. Though other subfacet conceptualizations exist (e.g., Roberts et al., 2005), we felt order and achievement best matched our theoretical focus. Results indicated that eight of the 10 items were most often rated as reflecting the orderliness dimension, whereas only two were most often rated as achievement. We note specific item classifications in Appendix A. Taken together, our measure of conscientiousness appears to be skewed toward the orderliness dimension and, thus, might bias the interpretations of our main hypothesis tests. To explore this possibility further, we computed two-way interaction terms to reflect the order X leader role authenticity and achievement X leader role authenticity interactions. After entering all relevant main effects (i.e., orderliness, achievement, and leader role authenticity), ordinary least squares regression results indicated that the two interaction terms together explained a significant amount of incremental variance in leader adaptability ($\Delta R^2 = 0.17$, $p = 0.009$). Because the orderliness and achievement variables were correlated at 0.54 ($p = 0.000$) and the two interaction terms were correlated at 0.58 ($p = 0.000$), which can produce suppression effects (Ganzach, 1997), we examined the interactions separately.

We found that the interaction between achievement and leader role authenticity was not a significant predictor of followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader ($B = 0.05$, SE$[B] = 0.13$, $t = 0.41$, $p = 0.684$) or leader adaptability ($B = 0.01$, SE$[B] = 0.09$, $t = 0.12$, $p = 0.907$), whereas the interaction between order and leader role authenticity was a statistically significant predictor of followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader ($B = 0.30$, SE$[B] = 0.13$, $t = 2.30$, $p = 0.026$) and leader adaptability ($B = 0.27$, SE$[B] = 0.11$, $t = 2.57$, $p = 0.013$). The J-N technique further indicated that the interactive effects of order and leader role authenticity on followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader and leader adaptability were largely similar in nature to our main hypothesis test results (Hypotheses 1 and 2), which is not surprising given that our overall conscientiousness measure was so heavily skewed toward items reflecting the orderliness dimension. Nevertheless, the difference between the two interaction effects does provide some suggestive evidence that the conditioning effects observed for leader role authenticity may come by way of altering manifestations of leaders’ orderliness more so than other subfacets (e.g., achievement).

### 5 DISCUSSION

In the present study, we theorized that conscientiousness may prompt leaders to adopt different behavioral approaches toward their team’s task accomplishment—ranging from rigid to adaptable—depending on the extent which he or she feels authentic in the leadership role (i.e., leader role authenticity). And, moreover, we argued that followers’ would experience greater levels of shared satisfaction with the leader when leaders employed adaptable (versus rigid) behavioral approaches. Consistent with our predictions, results indicate that the relationship between leader conscientiousness and leader adaptability becomes more strongly negative as leader role authenticity decreases.
and leader adaptability positively predicts followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader. Our findings offer several theoretical implications.

5.1 | Theoretical implications

First, our study integrates arguments from the personality, authenticity, and leadership literatures to provide new insights into the complex relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ satisfaction with their leader. Conscientiousness positively predicts individuals’ emergence into leadership positions and, to a more modest extent, their general leadership effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002; Marinova et al., 2013), but prior research has reported a null and sometimes negative relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ satisfaction with a leader (e.g., DeRue et al., 2011; Smith & Canger, 2004). Thus, conscientiousness appears to generally be an asset for leaders in terms of task performance but may in some circumstances act as a liability when considering followers’ shared attitudes (Judge et al., 2009). This represents a potential paradox, especially in more complex contexts where follower attitudes and emergent states play prominent roles in driving higher level effectiveness outcomes (i.e., Ostroff, 1992; Whitman et al., 2010). Our study provides an important step toward reconciling this phenomenon by highlighting a boundary condition and mediating mechanism that drive the relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader.

Our theorizing suggests that although conscientious leaders may share commonality in their general motivations to pursue task accomplishment, there are systematic differences in the specific behavioral approaches leaders take to do so. Our study is not the first to posit that leader conscientiousness can manifest in different ways (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Judge et al., 2009), but our findings are important in that they inform when these differences emerge. Specifically, we find that leader conscientiousness is more likely to manifest in orderly and dissatisfying approaches (i.e., “annoying fastidiousness”; LePine, 2003, p. 31) when leader role authenticity is relatively low (vs. high).

Importantly, our findings did exhibit some nuances and we must caution against overinterpretation. Namely, results show that the relationship between leader conscientiousness and leader adaptability is significantly negative at lower levels of role authenticity; but the relationship only becomes significantly negative at lower levels of role authenticity (Judge et al., 2002; Shamir & Elam, 2005), leader role authenticity reflects leaders’ own psychological appraisals of the connection between their leadership role and their true selves (Sheldon et al., 1997). In this regard, role authenticity is not a leadership “style,” but rather a property of leaders that more subtly affects leader behavior. Our theory implies that role authenticity can reduce harmful stress and resource depletion, which may ultimately allow conscientious leaders’ to employ more adaptable approaches as they pursue task accomplishment.

Beyond our own findings, we suspect role authenticity may modify other important relationships in the leadership domain (e.g., how leader traits and styles relate to performance and attitudinal criteria), and thus, we encourage more investigations. Similarly, understanding followers’ perceptions of their own role authenticity may explain how they respond to different leader attributes, which could add value to related streams of research (e.g., followership theory).

Third, albeit related to the previous contribution, our study’s results carry meaningful implications for the literature on contextual variation in trait expressions. Although research has long suggested that conscientiousness can be expressed uniquely across roles (Roberts & Donahue, 1994; Sheldon et al., 1997), our work highlights the possibility of within-role variation. Our study implies a new wrinkle for understanding how situational pressures—which are often conceptualized as task-driven (e.g., complexity and work demands; LePine et al., 2000; Ng et al., 2008) rather than role-driven (e.g., role authenticity)—affect relationships between leader traits and subsequent behaviors. Namely, our study indicates that even if two leaders share a similar level of conscientiousness in the same job, they may respond differently based on their perceived level of role authenticity.

Finally, our study positions leader adaptability in the nomological network of leader behaviors that link leader traits to more distal leadership outcomes, namely follower attitudes. To date, scholarly investigations into the antecedents and outcomes of leader adaptability have been modest in quantity relative to popular press attention (e.g., Griffin & Hesketh, 2005; Kaiser & Overfield, 2010; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004), despite the presumed importance of adaptability in today’s increasingly complex environments (Kirkman & Harris, 2017; Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2017). Our study suggests that adaptable leader approaches may be in part explained by leader traits, but only when situational attributes (e.g., role authenticity) are considered. And in contrast to studies exploring adaptability and task-oriented outcomes (Burke, Pierce, & Salas, 2006; LePine et al., 2000; Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000), our study is one of the first to link leader adaptability to follower attitudes. In the same vein, our work also represents one of the relatively few attempts to examine how leader traits affect team-level attitudes and, thus, contributes to a better understanding of overall team functioning (Hackman, 1987; Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; Mathieu et al., 2008).
5.2 Practical implications

Organizations may be able to better reconcile the well-known positive aspects of leader conscientiousness (e.g., staying on task and being dependable) with its potential dark sides (e.g., taking rigid and inflexible approaches toward interdependent tasks; Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Judge et al., 2009) by assessing, and hopefully enhancing, the role authenticity of current leaders. Although a modest degree of authenticity may be attributed to stable, trait-like properties (Wood, Linley, Maltby, Baliousis, & Joseph, 2008), role authenticity is largely dynamic because it is grounded in an individual’s assessment of a particular context (Caza et al., 2018; Sheldon et al., 1997; van den Bosch & Taris, 2014). As such, organizations could be well served to help leaders craft their environments, or even assist leaders in better understanding how they can reframe perceptions of their environments (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Several interventions have been shown to enhance role authenticity, including encouraging authentic expressions (vs. primarily emphasizing skill acquisition and enculturation) while onboarding new leaders (Cable, Gino, & Staats, 2013), designing (or redesigning) roles for greater autonomy (van den Bosch & Taris, 2014), and training leaders to routinely engage in reflection that fosters positive connections between their work and personal identities (e.g., Cardador, 2014).

Beyond training and development initiatives designed to foster role authenticity, our study can potentially inform how organizations select individuals for leadership assignments. Namely, organizations that heavily weigh an individual’s conscientiousness should also consider the extent to which a prospective leader will feel authentic in the role. There are several ways that organizations might approach the assessment of a leadership candidate’s prospective role authenticity, including the self-report measure advanced by Sheldon et al. (1997) and used in our study. Yet we note that any survey-type measure of role authenticity should be framed to reflect a specific role and, in a selection context, may require respondents to speculate on a role they may know relatively little about. Alternatively, providing prospective leader candidates with an opportunity to express their perceived role authenticity in relation to an actual job assignment (e.g., in-basket exercise; Fiedler, 1996) may help candidates and the employing organization form a more accurate view of candidates’ potential to experience role authenticity.

An important consideration is whether forward-looking projections of role authenticity will negatively impact the chances of promotion for female or minority leader candidates (i.e., disparate impact). For example, although male and female leaders are equally effective, societal and cultural views that conflate leadership roles with stereotypically male qualities may cause females to experience role conflict (e.g., Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989) and/or elicit prejudiced reactions from colleagues (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Similar arguments regarding pressures to conform to majority norms have been advanced to explain why minority leaders are viewed as less legitimate (Eagly & Chin, 2010; Ospina & Foldy, 2009). As a result, these reactions may lower female and minority leaders’ role confidence (Heilman, Simon, & Repper, 1987) and thus their perceived role authenticity. Yet, importantly, it may also be the case that women and minorities adopt leadership styles that are viewed as more adaptive and open (for discussions of this possibility, see Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Ospina & Foldy, 2009), which could result in weaker associations between conscientiousness and the rigid behavioral approaches we observed in the low role authenticity conditions of our study (which consisted predominantly of White males). In light of these possibilities, we urge practitioners to think carefully before selecting leaders based on role authenticity and instead encourage efforts to cultivate role authenticity.

Finally, our results suggest that organizations could enhance followers’ affective beliefs by training and developing leaders to be more adaptable when approaching a team’s task. To this end, studies indicate that one’s adaptability can be developed vis-à-vis learned cognitive schemas and behavioral repertoires (Banks, 2006; Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge, 1997; Kaiser & Overfield, 2010; Zaccaro, 2002) as well as engaging in active learning opportunities that encourage novel problem-solving with others (Smith, Ford, & Kozlowski, 1997; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004). Taken together, helping conscientious leaders develop more adaptive styles may provide a pathway for enhancing followers’ attitudes about the leader and, likewise, may be especially important in promoting both team task and attitudinal outcomes concurrently.

5.3 Limitations and future directions

We acknowledge several limitations and opportunities for future research. To begin, we drew our conclusions from a specific context (i.e., fire and rescue crews), which raises questions of generalizability. As implied in the discussion above, one concern is that leaders in our study were predominantly White males (common in U.S. fire departments; e.g., Welsh, 2015). Another important consideration is that the fire and rescue crew leaders typically face a number of distinct, nonroutine tasks in uncertain environments, which are characteristics that likely favor more adaptive leaders (e.g., Waller, 1999; Waller, Gupta, & Giambatista, 2004). Thus, our hypothesized relationships should be tested in a more diverse sample.

Like most field researchers, we were forced to make tradeoff decisions in our study design to ensure organizational participation. Namely, we collected data at a single time point and thus cannot rigorously establish causality. However, prior research does support our proposed variable ordering. For example, conscientiousness (a generally stable trait) is often viewed as a proximal antecedent of leader behaviors, which in turn drive followers’ reactions (DeRue et al., 2011; Tuncdogan et al., 2017). A related limitation is that our measures of leader adaptability and satisfaction with the leader were both rated by followers, which introduces common method bias concerns (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). We are encouraged, however, that a split sample analysis matched our main findings (Ostroff et al., 2002). Future work can more explicitly account for and rule out these concerns.

Finally, we encourage researchers to treat the conclusions drawn from our study’s findings with appropriate caution. For example, our study relied on a global measure of conscientiousness, though post hoc tests suggested that examining lower order dimensions of conscientiousness may shed additional light on the main relationships. To this end, we echo others in noting that trait measures designed to
capture narrower subfacets may provide meaningful clarity (e.g., Roberts et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2018). We likewise note that our study found a complex relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader (i.e., a team-level construct). Although studies often exhibit analogous relationships across levels of analysis (Morgeson & Hofmann, 1999), future work should explicitly consider other levels of analysis.

6 | CONCLUSION

Our study advanced a model whereby the relationship between leader conscientiousness and followers’ shared satisfaction with the leader is more strongly negative at lower levels of leader role authenticity. Further, we found that leader adaptability mediated these joint effects, such that conscientious leaders were less likely to take adaptive approaches when they experienced lower role authenticity, which in turn led to less satisfactory appraisals. Our findings provide insight into the previously ambiguous leader conscientiousness—follower satisfaction relationship and, in doing so, highlight the importance of considering leaders’ subjective role appraisals (e.g., role authenticity) when considering how their traits manifest toward specific behavioral approaches toward a team.

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REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

MAIN STUDY VARIABLE SURVEY ITEMS

Leader conscientiousness (leader-rated; Goldberg, 1992)

We would like to obtain a picture of the characteristics you believe you possess and to see how you describe yourself. There are no right or wrong answers so try to describe yourself as accurately and honestly as you can.

1. Am always prepared.
2. Leave my belongings around (reverse-coded).
3. Pay attention to details.
5. Get chores done right away.
6. Often forget to put things back in their proper place (reverse-coded).
7. Like order.
8. Shirk my duties (reverse-coded).
9. Follow a schedule.
10. Am exacting in my work.

Note. SMEs rated items 1–7 and 9 as orderliness; items 8 and 10 were classified as achievement.

Leader role authenticity (leader-rated; modified from Sheldon et al., 1997)

Tell us how you feel about your role as a team/crew leader.

1. I experience this aspect of my life as an authentic part of who I am.
2. This aspect of my life is meaningful and valuable to me.
3. I have freely chosen this way of being.
4. I am only this way because I have to be (reverse-coded).
5. I feel tense and pressured in this part of my life (reverse-coded).

Leader adaptability (member-rated; modified from Jones et al., 2006)

Please rate the extent to which your team leader engages in each activity (in general).

1. Adapts well to changes in his/her leadership role.
2. Adjusts well to new equipment, processes, or procedures in our team's tasks.
3. Adapts his/her personal approach to the situation at hand.

Followers' shared satisfaction with leader (member-rated; modified from Cammann et al., 1983)

We would like to know about your team's feeling toward your leader. Please rate the following:

1. All in all, my team members are satisfied with our team leader.
2. In general, my team members like this team leader.
3. Overall, my team members like working for this team leader.