

Leader Self-Disclosure Depth:
The Consequences of Leader's Personal Disclosure for Followers

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Abstract

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Self-disclosure, the act of sharing information about self to others, provides disclosers with many advantages such as higher intrinsic reward and improved interpersonal relations. Previous research on self-disclosure has mostly been developed within the context of close relationships (e.g., intimate partners) or strangers (e.g., who are not expected to interact again), neglecting the influence of self-disclosure on work relationships. Additionally, previous theory on self-disclosure has been mostly developed from the perspective of the discloser, neglecting the other significant half of the interaction—the recipient. In this work, I examine the consequences of leader self-disclosure depth, or the intimacy level of the information shared in leader's self-disclosure, from the perspective of follower recipients. Drawing from social exchange theory, I posit that receiving high depth information from a leader results in a follower recipient to

experience LMX or role overload as a function of the degree to which the information shared is scarce (i.e., information scarcity). Furthermore, I explain how these perceptions motivate leader-directed organization citizenship behavior and withdrawal behavior, respectively. In Study 1, I create and validate scales for leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity. Across Studies 2, 3, and 4, I test the hypotheses in the forms of a field study, a critical incident study, and an experiment. In sum, I discuss the implications of this dissertation for theoretical development and managerial relevance of leader self-disclosure within the workplace.

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According to a survey of 514 employees, more than 60% of the respondents indicated that they have at least “one co-worker who overshares once a week or more” (Shellenbarger, 2014). This finding suggests that it is extremely prevalent for employees to share personal details about themselves within the workplace through the means of self-disclosure, or the act of sharing information about oneself to another individual (Collins & Miller, 1994; Cozby, 1972; Dumas, Phillips, & Rothbard, 2013; Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015). The extant self-disclosure literature indicates that there are benefits that arise from self-disclosure from a sharer perspective and from the perspective of the relationship between the sharer and recipient. Focusing on the sharer perspective, previous literature finds that disclosing about the self to others provides sharers intrinsic satisfaction, activating the mesolimbic dopamine system, the same part of the brain that is activated when individuals receive money or other extrinsic rewards (Tamir & Mitchell, 2012). In considering the relationship between the sharer and the recipient, through the act of revealing personal information, self-disclosure allows for greater liking, feelings of closeness, and trust between the sharer and the recipient (Collins & Miller, 1994; Cozby, 1972; Jourard, 1959; Worthy, Gary, & Kahn, 1969). The abundance of this previous literature demonstrates positive effects from self-disclosure.

This previous work neglects, however, the recipient perspective and there are potential costs and benefits from this perspective (see Gibson, Harari, & Marr, 2018 for a notable exception). The recipient perspective is important to acknowledge because the recipient is the salient actor involved in the exchange of self-disclosures and failing to assess the recipient neglects the perspective of at least half of those involved. By focusing on the recipient, I am able to theoretically and empirically illuminate broader understanding of the consequences of self-disclosure depth in the workplace. The costs and benefits that recipients incur are important to

acknowledge because they impact not only recipients directly but also disclosers and the wider organization in how recipients behave towards disclosers and perform in the organization.

Understanding these consequences are vital in building and linking theory on self-disclosure and in better informing leaders what can happen when information is shared within the workplace.

The less considered aspect of self-disclosure from the recipient perspective is that recipients of self-disclosure are obligated to reciprocate to the sharer when receiving self-disclosure. After hearing self-disclosure from another person, the recipient is expected to disclose something in return that matches the level of depth, or the intimacy level of the information shared, or show care and responsiveness to meet the sharer's socioemotional needs (Derlega, Harris, & Chaikin, 1973; Rubin, 1975). However, this at times can be a strain to the recipient when the recipient does not find the disclosure appealing due to the nature of the disclosure (i.e., having high depth) or due to the nature of the relationship (i.e., with strangers or others that the recipient does not care to build or strengthen the relationship) (Chaikin & Derlega, 1974).

Moving away from the sharer-centric perspective, the costs from the recipient perspective are even more accentuated within the workplace, where relationships are formed involuntarily based on assignments and hierarchy as opposed to voluntarily formed relationships such as friendships and where the pursuit of instrumental goals takes precedence before socioemotional goals in the workplace (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). Due to the nature of workplace relationships, different from non-work close relationships such as family or friends where the goal is to build intimacy or strangers where repercussions of sharing something of high depth is negligible since chances of future interactions are minimal, it is vital to understand how self-

disclosure unfolds within the workplace and has consequences not only on the sharer but also on the recipient, which has been barely examined in the management literature.

To understand the implications of self-disclosure at work, I examine the effect leader self-disclosure depth has on follower recipient, impacting not only the quality of the relationship but also the performance behavior of the follower. I draw on theories of self-disclosure (Altman & Taylor, 1973; Kelly & McKillop, 1996) and social exchange theory (Homans 1961; Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976) to argue that leader self-disclosure depth has both benefits and costs to followers who receive the self-disclosure. First, through self-disclosure, followers perceive higher relationship quality with leaders, or LMX, in that followers appreciate that leaders chose them in particular to share personal information with. However, according to the social exchange view of self-disclosure, receiving high depth information also obliges followers to reciprocate by sharing something of equal depth or by showing responsiveness to the leader. This adds to the demands that followers have to perform in addition to the original job requirements and thus results in role overload. Furthermore, this tendency to view leader self-disclosure as a treat or a burden is dependent on how scarce the information is. When followers perceive that the information disclosed by their leaders is scarce, such as when they are the sole receivers of the information within the workplace, followers appreciate leader self-disclosure depth even more because it signifies that their leaders view the follower positively in sharing highly intimate information with. However, when followers find out that they are not the sole confidante, followers value leader self-disclosure depth less and thus adds to their role overload. Lastly, these perceptions of the self-disclosure have implications for followers' future behavior toward leaders. When information scarcity is high, leader self-disclosure depth will be positively related to leader-directed organizational citizenship behavior, mediated by LMX. Whereas when

information scarcity is low, leader self-disclosure depth will be positively related to leader-directed interaction avoidance, mediated by role overload.

By examining the consequences of leader self-disclosure depth on follower recipient, I aim to contribute to organizational research in several ways. First, by focusing on follower recipient's perception of and responses to leader self-disclosure depth, this paper speaks to the recipient perspective of self-disclosure. Most work on self-disclosure has predominantly focused on the sharer perspective, focusing on the sharer's gains and losses when they choose to disclose something personal. In contrast, this paper opens a new segment that was previously neglected in the self-disclosure work. This is important as the recipient is the other significant half of the exchange and the recipient has benefits and costs that arise from receiving the disclosure, separate from what was previously theorized and examined from the sharer perspective. It is also important as the recipient perspective has implications for their performance behavior. Second, this paper speaks to the leadership literature by focusing on leader self-disclosure depth. The question is not whether or not leaders should self-disclose but what kind of information they should self-disclose to their followers to be the most effective. Although there are benefits that arise from leader transparency, it is important to acknowledge that certain type of information can be beneficial or costly for leaders to reveal to their followers. Lastly, this paper strives to build on recent works that aim to explain the consequences of self-disclosure within organizational context (Phillips et al., 2009; Gibson, 2018; Gibson et al., 2018; Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). This is important because self-disclosure in organizational settings is different from that in non-work settings as there is the tension of organizational goals and socio-emotional goals within the workplace. As self-disclosure depth strengthens that tension between the two

goals, it is important to examine the effects of leader self-disclosure depth within the workplace to broaden our understanding of its consequences.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

Definition of Self-disclosure

Self-disclosure is defined as the act of sharing information about oneself to another person (Collins & Miller, 1994; Cozby, 1973). Information that is shared through self-disclosure can be descriptive and evaluative. It is descriptive in that individuals can share facts about themselves (i.e., the political or religious affiliation they belong to) or evaluative in that they can share opinions or attitudes they have (i.e., how one feels about particular religious or political affiliations) (Harris, Dersch, & Mittal, 1999). Finally, the information has to be shared to at least one other person.

A parameter of self-disclosure is depth, or the intimacy level of the information shared through the disclosure (Cozby, 1973). Self-disclosure is considered to be high in depth to the extent it is personal and private. Depth can be understood as layers of personal information which differs along a central-peripheral dimension (Morton, 1978). Normally, it takes time to reach the central layer, or high-depth information, through many series of interactions. This includes the core self or the most private information about the person, such as spiritual values, deep fear, hopes, goals, fantasies, and secrets. As a specific example, a detailed account of a one's marriage or sex life is considered to be very high in depth. Low depth information, or the outer layer, on the other hand can be reached almost instantly. It can be understood as the public image that is visible to many others. Examples include fairly shallow information such as likes and dislikes in clothing or music. The literature shows that self-disclosure depth is related to

others viewing the discloser more positively, such as being more friendly and warm (Ajzen, 1977).

Benefits of Self-disclosure

According to the previous literature, there are several benefits to self-disclosure. First, it is inherently rewarding to the share something about yourself to another person. It has been found that self-disclosure is rewarding as other rewards such as food and money (Tamir & Mitchell, 2012). The mesolimbic dopamine system, the part of the brain that is activated when food, money, or other rewards are provided, is activated when individuals are able to disclose information about themselves to others. It was found that individuals even surrendered on opportunities to earn money to disclose about the self and they show strong preference to answer questions about the self over other questions not about the self. Thus, from the sharer perspective, it is intrinsically rewarding to share information about the self.

Second, self-disclosure aids the development and maintenance of relationships. Traditional works on self-disclosure suggest that people feel closer to those who disclose information to them (e.g., Jourard, 1959; Jourard & Lasakow, 1958). According to the social exchange theory of self-disclosure, self-disclosure is considered as a rewarding or positive outcome for the recipient (Altman & Taylor, 1973). It communicates to the recipient that the discloser specifically chose the recipient to share the information to and that the discloser desires to develop a more intimate relationship with the recipient. Because disclosures are understood as something positive and rewarding, the recipient reciprocates the disclosure and relationships are then gradually developed through the exchanges of disclosures between the dyad. These exchanges can be viewed as a barometer of indicating closeness (Taylor, 1979). Specifically, Worthy, Gary, and Kahn (1969) found a positive relationship between disclosure across ten

exchanges and a final measure of attraction. Also, a previous meta-analysis found that recipients like disclosers after being disclosed to (Collins & Miller, 1994). In addition, this research found disclosers' initial liking of recipients predicts how much they disclose to the recipient and also their liking towards the recipient afterwards as a result of having to disclosed to them (Collins & Miller, 1994). Thus, from these studies, we can infer that giving and receiving self-disclosure is rewarding.

Costs of Self-disclosure

Though there are these benefits of self-disclosure found in the literature, there are also possible costs to sharing disclosure as viewed from the discloser's perspective. First, there are risks involved for the discloser in revealing information about oneself to another, such as "rejection by the listener, reduction of one's autonomy and personal integrity, loss of control or self-efficacy, and the possibility of hurting or embarrassing the listener" (Baxter & Montgomery, 1996, as cited in Omarzu, 2000, p. 177). Thus, there are inherent relational risks in sharing information about the self which involves a dilemma between whether to reveal or withhold information from others, resulting in a boundary problem of how much to share and to not share (Baxter & Montgomery, 1996; Omarzu, 2000; Petronio & Martin, 1986). For example, the work by Gibson and colleagues (2018) discusses the implications of self-disclosing a weakness at work. Regardless of whether the weakness is task-relevant or irrelevant, when higher status coworkers disclosed a weakness about themselves, receiver perceived the discloser's status to be lower compared to when the discloser did not share anything or shared a strength about themselves. This reduced status had negative implications for the discloser's influence and relationship quality and also resulted in increased task conflict between the sharer and the recipient. Additionally, the study on capitalization, or the process of sharing a positive work-

related event with others, found that in competitive settings, capitalization elicited envy in coworker recipients and motivated them to reduce interpersonal citizenship behavior and increase social undermining on the discloser (Watkins, 2021).

Alternatively, from the recipient perspective, the cost of receiving self-disclosure is also evident. From the recipient perspective, when they receive self-disclosure from another individual, they are expected to reciprocate and respond to the sharer's needs, even when the recipient is less inclined to reciprocate or respond to the sharer (Derlega, Harris, & Chaikin, 1973). According to the social exchange view of self-disclosure, self-disclosure results in reciprocity of disclosure between the sharer and the recipient, in which disclosure is the currency that is exchanged between the sharer and the responder.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange refers to the exchange of tangible or intangible activity between at least two persons that can be rewarding or costly (Homans, 1961). Because social exchange involves the exchange between at least two individuals, it is bidirectional. Though these exchanges are voluntary, through these interactions between the parties, a pattern can arise. These interactions consequently become interdependent, following the actions of each another (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976). Generally, these exchanges follow a norm of reciprocity, meaning that if one person provides a reward, the other party is motivated or even obligated at times to reciprocate by returning the favor (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Moreover, the form or the timing of how the benefit is returned may be unclear, but the expectation that the benefit will be returned at one point in the future is maintained by both parties (Gouldner, 1960). These interactions are always voluntary, but those who fail to reciprocate risk receiving sanctions such as distrust, negative reputation, and discontinuation of these favorable interactions (Gouldner, 1960). When such

favors are reciprocated, relationship can evolve into a trusting, high-quality relationship (Blau, 1964) in which exchanges are continued.

Applying social exchange theory to self-disclosure, receiving self-disclosure is a rewarding experience (Worthy et al., 1969). The depth, or the intimacy level, of disclosure is especially rewarding and promotes obligations to return the favorable treatment. Since recipients have received something of value, they feel obligated to return something of similar value. Through exchanges of rewards, relationships are strengthened and developed.

In the case of leader self-disclosure, applying the social exchange view of self-disclosure, followers can perceive leader self-disclosure depth as receiving positive treatment from the leader, an indication of the leader's liking and interest in the followers. This can have positive implications for leader-member exchange or LMX. LMX is a concept nested in social exchange theory indicating the quality of social exchange between leaders and followers. LMX indicates the extent to which the exchange between the leader and the follower is positive or negative and also whether the dyad has a high-quality, effective work relationship (Graen, 1976; Graen & Scandura, 1987). When one party offers something that the other party sees as valuable, LMX is strengthened. In other words, when one perceives that highly valued commodities, both tangible or intangible, are being exchanged, one appraises a higher quality LMX relationship (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). The literature shows that the quality of exchange is related to important leader and follower behaviors, such as job attitudes and performance evaluations (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997).

Because leader self-disclosure depth entails intimate or delicate information, followers may feel that the leader values them enough to be sharing intimate information. They could also interpret this gesture of self-disclosure depth from the leader as an effort to develop the

relationship quality between the dyad as self-disclosure depth is not mandatorily required for the leader. As previous research shows that followers report higher leader membership exchange (LMX) when effort is exerted by the other party (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001), it is likely that followers interpret this initiation from the leader as effort towards positive relationship building. When leader self-disclosure depth is low, the disclosure entails very superficial or shallow information that is easily visible and portrays the public self (Morton, 1978). As an example of low leader self-disclosure depth, leaders may share with followers their preference of food or color in which there is very little danger in sharing as it does not openly expose the utmost private part of the self. Though followers can still appreciate such self-disclosures from leaders, the value of low depth self-disclosures is much less than that of high depth self-disclosures as it does not strongly indicate the leader trusting the follower with sensitive information. Thus, leader self-disclosure depth is expected to be positively related to LMX as it is rewarding to receive.

Hypothesis 1: Leader self-disclosure depth is positively related to LMX.

Though self-disclosure depth can have positive implications, according to the social exchange view of self-disclosure, self-disclosure also creates an obligation in the listener to return the favor, either by disclosing something in equal value or by providing other benefits such as responsiveness to the discloser. This tendency to reciprocate is found, even when the recipient does not find the sharer attractive or likeable. The experiment by Derlega, Harris, and Chaikin (1973) shows this phenomenon of unwilling reciprocity when recipients receive high depth self-disclosure. Derlega and his colleagues paired a female participant with a female confederate who made one of the three types of disclosure to the participant: a conventional high depth disclosure, a less conventional high depth disclosure, or a low depth disclosure. In the

conventional high depth disclosure condition, the confederate disclosed about an incident in which she was caught by her mother in a sexual encounter with a male friend. The high depth less conventional disclosure condition was the same except that the friend was female and the encounter being a homosexual one. In the low depth disclosure condition, the confederate shared plans for summer vacation and a brief sketch of the members of the family. Participants revealed more information and more intimate information to both the conventional and the unconventional high depth disclosers than the superficial discloser. Thus, this experiment shows that individuals perceived an obligation to reciprocate when they received high depth disclosure. In other words, the unforeseen cost of self-disclosure is that it creates an obligation on the part of the recipient even when the disclosure is not initiated by the recipient.

Applying this finding to the relationship of a leader and a follower, leaders may self-disclose high depth information in order to become closer to the followers and to develop the relationship. They can also share high depth information about themselves to become more approachable to the followers. However, according to the norm of reciprocity of self-disclosure, followers are pressured to reciprocate to the disclosure by sharing something of similar depth (Derlega et al., 1973; Rubin, 1975). The more depth the leader shared in their self-disclosure, the more depth the follower is expected to return. Follower recipients are also expected to respond positively by showing care and responsiveness to the leader according to the norm of reciprocity. This could add an additional perceived responsibility to the follower. The follower not only has to meet the original job requirements but also has to meet the leader's socioemotional needs by reciprocating and responding to the disclosure. Thus, this extra duty that they have to perform once the leader discloses high depth information can lead to role overload, or when there are multiple roles or demands that an individual has to meet relative to the time or psychological

resources available (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964). When job demands—physical, social, or organizational characteristics of the job that require continuous physical or psychological effort—are high, role overload can be intensified (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). These demands can tax an individuals' personal and mental resources, which can lead to energy depletion and health problems. It can also lead to a sense of burden and role strain, greater job distress, and decreased job satisfaction (Creary & Gordon, 2016).

When the leader discloses high depth information, it adds to the role demands that the follower has to meet for the following reasons. First, leader's high depth self-disclosure can take away the time that the follower would like to focus on work rather than receiving and sharing high depth disclosures. Because high depth information carries significance and weight to the sharer because it is intimate information, the follower has to show responsiveness to the leader and this might add to the role demands that the follower has to perform, in addition to the primary work role that the follower performs. Because followers are not the ones who initiated the intimate disclosure, we cannot assume that followers would welcome such disclosures. Taking the time away from work and responding back to the leader's high depth self-disclosure can be a source of extra weight that the follower has to carry. Second, such intimate disclosure from the leader also demands more effort from the follower, because the follower has to use their socioemotional skills to respond to the high depth self-disclosure and also because the reputation of the follower is at stake. According to the norm of reciprocity, when individuals share something of high depth, recipients are expected to respond by sharing something of equal depth. However, followers who received high depth information may be uncomfortable sharing some high depth information back to the leader because the leader is the authority figure who evaluates the follower formally while the leader is freer from such evaluations. This dilemma casted on the

follower regarding how to respond to the leader and what to share back to the leader creates additional role demands that is not part of the original role description that the follower has to perform. Thus, I argue that this added pressure on the recipients to respond to the leader even when they may not find the interaction desirable creates role overload for the followers.

When the leader shares low depth information, the follower is much less likely to experience role overload. Low depth self-disclosures require much less time and effort than high depth self-disclosures. Because low depth self-disclosures entail trivial information about the leader such as the leader's new hobby or a new restaurant visit, it takes much less effort and time to attend to such superficial information compared to very high depth topics such as the leader's personal issues. There are also less emotions to attend compared to when the leader is sharing highly intimate information. In terms of reciprocation, low depth self-disclosure also requires less effort in reciprocating. Because there is very little risk in the follower sharing back to the leader about their new hobby or their new restaurant visit, this also adds much less demands to the role that the follower has to perform.

Hypothesis 2. Leader self-disclosure is positively related to role overload.

The Moderating Role of Information Scarcity

According to commodity theory (Brock, 1968), scarcity enhances the value (or desirability) of any commodity, which can be tangible objects such as products for sale (Cialdini, 2001) or even information provided from one person to another (Knishinsky, 1982).

Consequently, the scarcity of the commodity has an effect on the exchange between the sender and the recipient since the scarcity of the commodity enhances the gain of the exchange (Brock, 1968). In self-disclosure, information that is perceived to be scarce will be valued more highly than information that is perceived to be widely prevalent. Information scarcity is defined as the

perceived unavailability of information in which there is a relatively low number of recipients, or people who received the information (Brock, 1968; Petty & Mirels, 1981). Scarcity enhances the value, or desirability, of the information due to several reasons. First, individuals have a need for uniqueness, or the desire to be different and unique compared to others (Fromkin, 1972; Snyder & Fromkin, 1980). Having a commodity that is scarce fulfills their need for uniqueness; therefore, individuals value scarce commodities over easily acquirable commodities. Supporting this logic, it was found that individuals react negatively to information that they are highly similar to others (Fromkin 1972). Second, having a scarce commodity also enhances the individuals' status (Veblen, 1965). The possession of unavailable resources can also be a source of power (Emerson, 1962) and can be used as a point of downward comparison against those who do not possess the scarce commodity (Wills, 1981).

Applying the commodity theory to the relationship of a leader and a follower, information scarcity of the self-disclosure can determine whether the benefits outweigh the costs, or vice versa. When information scarcity is higher, then the follower is more likely to deem personal or intimate information of the leader as relevant information to evaluate the relationship that they share with the leader. Because the information is scarce and not widely available with other followers, the follower is more likely to interpret leader self-disclosure depth to indicate that they have received more from the leader. The leader sharing more unique information (when information is scarce) will strengthen the positive relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX. When information scarcity is lower, leader self-disclosure depth will have less of an influence on LMX because the information is shared widely – to know this information does not provide salient information about the relationship with the leader. Instead, it could indicate that the leader is merely an oversharer or that self-disclosure depth is a regular tactic

used by the leader to build rapport between the leader and followers. Because this information provides less information about the nature of the relationship the follower has with the leader, the relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX is weakened.

Hypothesis 3: The positive association between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX is stronger when information scarcity is higher vs. lower.

Information scarcity is expected to have a different effect on the relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and role overload. When information scarcity is lower, leader self-disclosure depth will have a stronger influence on role overload. According to commodity theory, if the information is no longer scarce and widely available with others, then the positive value of the information is diminished and the negative value is accentuated (Cialdini, 2001). Because the value of the information has depreciated while the strong need to reciprocate still remains, the demands of having to respond exceeds the resources or the benefits provided by receiving the information, resulting in a stronger relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and role overload when information scarcity is lower. Rather than perceiving that the relationship they have with the leader is special or particularly strengthened, followers will feel that listening to the leader's widely available self-disclosure is costly to their resources. When information scarcity is higher, self-disclosure depth will have a weaker influence on role overload. Because scarce information is more valuable than common information, followers will perceive that the gain of receiving high depth self-disclosure outweighs the costs of having to reciprocate or respond. In other words, the psychological resources or benefits gained by receiving scarce information is greater than the demands of having to respond to the information, resulting in a weaker relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and role overload.

Hypothesis 4: The positive association between leader self-disclosure depth and role overload is stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher.

Having these positive or negative perceptions of the leader's self-disclosure, in turn, will also have consequences for how the follower behaves towards the leader. When perception of leader self-disclosure depth is positive, or in other words when the follower perceives high levels of LMX, follower recipient is prompted to engage in organizational citizenship behavior-individuals (OCB-I) towards the leader, and this will be more likely when information scarcity is higher versus lower. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is "individual behavior that is discretionary, not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ 1988, p.4). There are two broad categories of OCB depending on whom the behavior is directed at. Of the two categories, organizational citizenship behavior-individuals (OCB-I) includes behaviors that immediately benefit other individuals in the organization and also indirectly benefit the organization, such as helping coworkers when necessary and taking a personal interest in them (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Due to the social exchange nature of self-disclosure, when followers perceive that the self-disclosure provided by the leader is a positive gain to them, they are obligated to reciprocate the reward to the leader. One way to reciprocate is by engaging in OCB-I towards the leader.

After leaders share intimate information, relationships are characterized by high levels of LMX. These relationships characterized by high levels of LMX, indicative of closeness and support, are known elicit exchange of both material and non-material benefits, beyond the basic requirements of the job (Illies, Nahrgan, & Morgeson, 2007). Because followers want their social exchange with their leaders to be balanced and equitable, when they judge their relationship to be a high quality one after receiving high depth information from the leaders, followers are more likely to go over and beyond their rudimentary job description by helping their leaders (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). Empirical evidence supports these claims. Meta-analyses

have highlighted a strong positive relationship between LMX and OCB-I (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden Brouer, & Ferris, 2002; Illies et al., 2007).

This tendency for the follower recipient to engage in OCB-I via LMX after receiving leader self-disclosure depth is more likely when information scarcity is higher as opposed to lower. As previously stated, when the information shared by the leader is scarce, the follower is more likely to interpret this piece of information as evidence of the positive relationship they have with their leader. Because the leader specifically shared the intimate information with this follower at not with many others, the follower recipient is more likely to interpret of having a high-quality relationship with their leader. Thus, followers who are exposed to higher levels of both leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity are more likely to experience LMX, and these higher levels of LMX is more likely to prompt followers to engage in OCB-I towards the leader in order to repay the leader's positive contribution towards their relationship. When information scarcity is lower, the follower is less likely to interpret the information to be indicating high-quality relationship between the dyad. Rather than interpreting the widely available information to reflect a high exchange relationship, the follower is more likely to interpret the gesture as a regular norm or tactic used by the leader without having special meanings or favorable treatment to the follower. Because followers are less likely to perceive higher levels of LMX when information scarcity is lower, they are less likely to engage in OCB-I as they have less to repay back. Thus, when information scarcity is lower, it weakens the positive relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX, thereby weakening the relationship with OCB-I. By extension, I expect the interplay between leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity to indirectly impact OCB-I through LMX.

Hypothesis 5: The positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB-I mediated by LMX is stronger when information scarcity is higher vs. lower.

However, when perception of leader self-disclosure depth is negative, or when followers perceive that the self-disclosure depth results in more role overload than LMX, followers are more likely to withdraw from the leader in forms of interaction avoidance or ostracism. This tendency to withdraw from the leader is more likely when the information scarcity is lower, strengthening the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth via role overload.

Follower recipients are likely to engage in the following withdrawal behaviors directed towards leaders when they perceive role overload resulting from leader self-disclosure depth. The first is interaction avoidance, a form of withdrawal behavior in which one tries to avoid or minimize contact or interaction with a coworker (Nifadkar, Tsui, & Ashforth, 2012; Woolum, Foulk, Lanaj, & Erez, 2017). Examples of interaction avoidance include avoiding contact with the targeted individual unless absolutely necessary or required by the job characteristics and maintaining a strictly business-like relationship with the target. Another behavior followers may engage in is ostracism, the extent to which one ignores or excludes others (Williams, 2007). A subtle form of deviant behavior, ostracism consists of less detectable behaviors such as avoiding eye contact or giving the silent treatment (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008). These two forms of behavior are likely to be used to withdraw from the leader as hierarchical differences exist between leaders and followers. Because the target followers are interacting with is their leader, who evaluates and holds influence over them, it is impractical for followers to directly confront or tell leaders that followers do not welcome leader self-disclosure depth. It is also unwise to retaliate against their leaders by using more aggressive forms of deviant behavior due to the nature of this hierarchical difference. Thus, it is more likely for followers to withdraw by

engaging in interaction avoidance and ostracism after they experience role overload stemming from leader self-disclosure depth.

When followers perceive that leader self-disclosure depth is a source of role overload, they are more likely to withdraw from their leaders. As role overload occurs when there are more role demands required from the individual relative to the resources available to them, one way to react to role overload is to reduce the demands one has to perform. By withdrawing from their leaders by minimizing contact with them or excluding them, followers are able to reduce their role demands since it reduces the chances of having to listen to more high depth disclosures from leaders. If there are fewer interactions with leaders, then self-disclosures followers have to hear are evidently reduced, and so is the time and effort spent on responding to those self-disclosures.

This tendency to engage in withdrawal behavior in response to leader self-disclosure depth via role overload is more likely when information scarcity is lower versus higher. When followers perceive that the information is not scarce, followers are more likely to experience role overload because widely available information has less value than scarce information. Because the information is lower in value while the costs of having to reciprocate to leaders still remain, leaders' contribution toward the dyadic exchange becomes negative to followers. In other words, when information scarcity is lower, the demands of having to respond to leader self-disclosure depth exceeds the gain that followers receive by listening to leader self-disclosure depth, therefore strengthening the positive relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and role overload. Higher levels of role overload subsequently prompt followers to engage in leader-directed withdrawal behavior. By excluding their leaders or minimizing contact with them, followers are able to reduce the possibility of having to receive even more self-disclosure depth and of having to endure role overload. By doing so, they are able to adjust the ratio of demands

to resources they receive from their leaders. On the other end of the spectrum, when information scarcity is higher, the value of the information is intensified. The value of receiving leader self-disclosure depth now exceeds the costs of having to respond, thus making the social exchange positive for followers. Because the resources received from leader self-disclosure depth surpasses the demands that arise from responding and reciprocating to the self-disclosure, follower are less likely to experience role overload, and thus less likely to engage in leader-directed withdrawal behavior. By extension, I expect the interplay between leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity to indirectly impact leader-directed withdrawal behavior through role overload.

Hypothesis 6a: The positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed interaction avoidance mediated by role overload is stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher.

Hypothesis 6b: The positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed ostracism mediated by role overload is stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher.

METHOD

There is no established scale to measure self-disclosure depth or self-disclosure information scarcity. I therefore constructed my own instruments relying on the tutorial suggested by Hinkin (1998). In Study 1, measures of self-disclosure depth and information scarcity were developed and validated, establishing construct validity. In Study 2, I recruited full-time employees and examined their leader's self-disclosure depth and how it influenced the follower recipients as it naturally unfolded in the workplace by utilizing the validated scale from Study 1. In Study 3, I employed an experimental design using the critical incident method to test the causal role of leader self-disclosure depth and to exhibit internal validity in testing my

predictions. In Study 4, I employed an experimental design using electronic confederates in a virtual team setting to further establish internal validity.

STUDY 1A

In constructing my own instruments for leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity, I followed Hinkin's framework (1998). Hinkin's (1998) methods consist largely of six steps. The first stage is item generation in which items are created to assess the intended construct. Items, developed deductively or inductively, are then subjected to the content validity assessment, in which respondents are asked to rate on a Likert-type scale the extent to which each item corresponds to the construct. The second stage is questionnaire administration. In this stage, researchers use the items that passed the threshold for the content validity and collect data from a sample of their interest, such as employees of an organization. The third stage is initial item reduction in which exploratory factor analysis is performed on the data collected from the previous stage and allows for the reduction of the observed variables to a more parsimonious representation (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). The number of factors preserved in this stage should depend on both theory and quantitative results. Theory should predict the number of factors to be retained but the quantitative results of loadings should confirm it. Additionally, only items that load clearly on a single appropriate factor should be retained and items that cross-load on multiple factors should be removed. Internal consistency is also assessed in this stage, thorough measures such as through Cronbach's alpha (Price & Mueller, 1986). The fourth stage is confirmatory factor analysis, in which the goodness of fit of the factor structure found in the previous stage is assessed through indices such as chi-square statistic, CFI, and RNI. The fifth stage is establishing convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity refers to the extent to which the created measurement correlate with other measures designed to assess similar

constructs, and discriminant validity refers to the extent to which the created measurement does not correlate with dissimilar measures. Criterion validity is also established in this stage by examining relationships between the new measures and variables that are hypothesized to relate to, resulting in a nomological network. The final sixth stage is replication with a new sample in which fourth and fifth stages are repeated to ascertain the finding of consistent results, which includes confirmatory factor analysis and assessment of internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and criterion-related validity.

In Study 1A, I followed the steps of Hinkin (1998) in using a deductive approach to generate a pool of items per the definition of self-disclosure depth and another pool of items in per the definition of information scarcity. In this process, I tried to compose an adequate number of items to demonstrate content validity and repeated this process until I was no longer generating unique items that matched the definition of the constructs in examination. In the end, I produced 10 items for self-disclosure depth and 10 items for information scarcity.

I subsequently presented the combined 20 items and the definition of self-disclosure depth and the definition of information scarcity to 50 full-time working employees recruited via the online survey platform Prolific for a small monetary incentive of 1.34 US dollars. These individuals rated how accurately each item reflected the definitions of self-disclosure depth and information scarcity, respectively (1 = "Item does an extremely bad job of measuring the concept" to 7 = "Item does an extremely good job of measuring the concept"; Colquitt, Sabey, Rodell, & Hill, 2019; Hinkin, 1998). Self-disclosure depth was defined as the intimacy level of the disclosed information, and information scarcity was defined as the perceived unavailability of information in which there is a relatively low number of recipients, or people who received the information. After aggregating the ratings (intraclass correlation = .88), five items were

highly representative of self-disclosure depth ($M_s \geq 6.00$) and five items were highly representative of information scarcity ($M_s \geq 5.92$). The mean and the standard deviation of each item are provided in Tables 1 and 2. The *htc* (Hinkin Tracey correspondence) for the five self-disclosure depth items was .86, indicating moderate support that the items represent the definition of self-disclosure depth. The *htc* for the five information scarcity items was .85, also indicating moderate support that the items represent the definition of information scarcity (Colquitt et al., 2019). The *htd* (Hinkin Tracey distinctiveness) for the five self-disclosure depth items was .29, indicating strong support that the items rate more highly on the intended construct of self-disclosure depth than on the orbiting unintended construct of information scarcity. The *htd* for the five information scarcity items was .28, indicating strong support that these items rate more highly on the intended construct of information scarcity than on the unintended orbiting construct of self-disclosure depth (Colquitt et al., 2019).

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here

STUDY 1B

In this step, I explored the factor structure of the five items of self-disclosure depth and the five items of information scarcity. I recruited 150 participants from the online survey platform Prolific in exchange for a small monetary incentive of 0.40 US dollars (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1998; Hinkin, 1998). I constrained my sample to those who work full-time in the United States and have a direct supervisor they interact with regularly. To ensure data integrity, I constrained my survey to those with at least a 95% approval rating on Prolific, which is calculated based on their previous participation in other Prolific studies and indicates that their data met the researchers' standards in at least 95% of their previous studies. Furthermore, I

included an attention check question (i.e., “Please select ‘Strongly disagree’ for this statement”) that would assist in screening out inattentive participants. After removing two inattentive participants, the final sample included 148 participants. Fifty-three participants (36%) were female, and the mean age was 35.30 ($SD = 8.66$). Participants were mostly Caucasian (83%; 12% Asian/Pacific Islander; 5% Hispanic; 4% African American) and had many years of experience ($M = 13.60$; $SD = 7.93$).

Results and Discussion

I conducted principal components exploratory factor analysis with promax rotation to test the underlying factor structure of the items. This analysis confirmed that the five items of self-disclosure depth loaded on one factor and the five items of information scarcity loaded on another factor. All items exhibited high loadings of at least .73 on their corresponding factor, and there were no cross-loadings (see Table 3). The leader self-disclosure depth scale ($\alpha = .95$) and the information scarcity scale ($\alpha = .93$) each demonstrated superior reliability and together explained 81 percent of the overall variance; no other component reached an Eigenvalue of greater than one. Study 1b therefore provides initial construct validity of the leader self-disclosure depth scale and the information scarcity scale.

Insert Table 3 about here

STUDY 1C

I conducted Study 1c to accomplish four objectives. First, to confirm the two separate factors underlying the five self-disclosure depth items and the five information scarcity items. Second, to establish a nomological net by considering how leader self-disclosure depth and

information scarcity are each associated with other constructs that are similar in nature. Third, to test for convergent validity by testing whether self-disclosure depth and information scarcity are each related to and distinct from conceptually related constructs. Fourth, to test for discriminant validity by testing whether self-disclosure depth and information scarcity are each not related to constructs that are expected to be conceptually unrelated constructs. To complete this task, I recruited from Prolific 215 full-time employees who have direct supervisors for a monetary incentive of 2 US dollars. To ensure data integrity, I constrained my survey to those with at least a 95% approval rating on Prolific, which is calculated based on their previous participation in other Prolific studies and indicates that their data met the researchers' standards in at least 95% of their previous studies. Furthermore, I included two attention check questions (i.e., "Please select 'Strongly disagree' for this statement" and "Please select 'Not at all' for this item") that would assist in screening out inattentive participants. After removing 11 inattentive participants, the final sample consisted of 204 participants. The average age of the participants was 30.96 ($SD = 8.35$) with an average organizational tenure of 10.40 years ($SD = 8.26$). The sample was largely male (55%) and Caucasian (72%; 14% Asian; 10% African American; 5% Hispanic; 2% other).

Measures

All measures are provided in Appendix A.

Leader self-disclosure depth. I measured leader self-disclosure depth with the five items derived from Studies 1a and 1b (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). The scale exhibited high reliability ($\alpha = .93$).

Information scarcity. I measured information scarcity with the five items derived from Studies 1a and 1b (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). The scale exhibited high reliability ($\alpha = .91$).

Convergent Validity Measures

Control of Depth. Control of depth refers to the extent to which the individual perceives they can control the depth or intimacy of what is disclosed Wheelless (1976; 1978). Though it is not entirely identical to the depth of self-disclosure as depth concerns with what is actually disclosed and control of depth concerns with the extent to which the discloser intended to share such things, I expect the two to be correlated as intention to disclose will be related to the behavior of disclosing. On the other hand, I expect control of depth to be unrelated to information scarcity because control of depth is unassociated with the perceived unavailability of the information shared in the disclosure. Leaders could control their depth with certain individuals or with all members of the organization; thus, it is unrelated. Control of depth was measured with the Revised Self-Disclosure Scale developed by Wheelless (1976; 1978), an earlier measure of self-disclosure that has the weakness of not going through all the steps of construct validation advised by Hinkin (1998). The items were adapted to address a supervisor's propensity to control the depth level of their self-disclosure. A sample item is, "My supervisor sometimes does not control their self-disclosures of personal or intimate things they tell about themselves." (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .89$).

Authentic leadership. Authentic leader is a leader who promotes positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate through the four components of leader self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). Out of these four dimensions, relational

transparency is expected to correlate with leader self-disclosure depth as it is defined as presenting one's authentic self (as opposed to a fake or distorted self) to others through the means of openly sharing one's true thoughts and feelings while minimizing displays of inappropriate emotions (Kernis, 2003). However, leader self-disclosure depth and relational transparency are distinct in that leader self-disclosure depth does not consider whether the leader communicates appropriate emotional displays and relational transparency does not consider the depth of the information communicated by the leader. Leader self-disclosure depth is expected to be not related to the other three dimensions—leader self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. Self-awareness refers to understanding one's strengths and weaknesses and being aware of one's impact on the world and on others (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This is distinct from leader self-disclosure depth because self-disclosure depth is associated with what the leader communicates to the follower, not how the leader makes sense of themselves. Internalized moral perspective refers to a form of self-regulation that is guided by moral standards and values as opposed to group, organizational, and societal pressures (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This is also distinct from leader self-disclosure depth because leader self-disclosure depth does not consider the moral aspects of that the leader internalizes but the intimacy level of the information, and internalized moral perspective does not consider what information the leader shares to the follower. Lastly, balanced processing refers to leaders objectively analyzing all relevant data before coming to a decision, even if that data may challenge their deeply held values (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). This is also distinct from leader self-disclosure depth for leader self-disclosure is associated with what the leader communicates, not how the leader collects and makes sense of data.

For information scarcity, on the other hand, it is expected that authentic leadership is unrelated to it. First, relational transparency does not consider how unavailable the information about the leader is. For example, a leader who is very relationally transparent could choose to share information about themselves to very few others or to many others in the organization. Second, self-awareness does not consider the unavailability of the information about the leader but how the leader makes sense of themselves. Third, internalized moral perspective takes into account how the leader is guided by moral standards and not how unavailable the information about the leader is. Lastly, balanced processing is associated with how the leader processes information, not how the leader shares the information regarding availability. Authentic leadership was measured with the scale by Walumbwa and colleagues (2008). Sample items include “Says exactly what he or she means” (relational transparency; $\alpha = .85$), “solicits views that challenge his or her deeply held positions” (balanced processing; $\alpha = .78$), “demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions” (internalized moral perspective; $\alpha = .87$), and “seeks feedback to improve interactions with others” (self-awareness; $\alpha = .91$). Responses were based on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (frequently, if not always).

Feeling trusted. Followers feel trusted when they believe their supervisor is willing to accept vulnerability to the followers’ actions (Mayer et al., 1995). When leaders disclose high depth information to the followers, leaders are allowing themselves to be vulnerable since high depth information can include sensitive or potentially embarrassing information (Howell & Conway, 1990). Thus, leader self-disclosure depth is expected to correlate highly to followers feeling trusted. However, the two are distinct in that there are other ways of feeling trusted other than leader self-disclosure depth. For example, followers can feel trusted when leaders delegate important or challenging work to followers, with leaders taking a more hands-off leadership style

(Baer, Dhensa-Kahlon, Colquitt, Rodell, Outlaw, & Long, 2015). At the same time, it is also possible for a leader to disclose depth but for the follower to not feel trusted by the leader. For example, if the leader has a tendency to be oversharing at work to many others, then leader self-disclosure depth does not always necessarily correlate to the follower feeling trusted. In other words, leader self-disclosure depth is one subset of influencing followers to feel trusted.

Information scarcity can also highly correlate to feeling trusted. However, for the same reason as above, information scarcity is not the only way of how a follower can feel trusted by a leader; for example, the follower can feel trusted when the leader puts them charge of an assignment. Thus, the two are expected to be distinct. Sample items include sample item is “My supervisor doesn’t feel the need to ‘keep an eye on’ me,” and “My supervisor lets me have significant influence over how I do my job” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .90$; Baer et al., 2015).

Supervisory mentoring. Mentoring refers to a relationship between a senior, more-experienced employee (mentor) and a junior, less experienced individual (protégé) where the mentor provides support of largely two functions—career and psychosocial—to help the protégé's career development within the organization (Kram, 1983; 1985). Career support can involve coaching, assigning challenging assignments, increasing exposure and visibility by providing opportunities for protégés, and also protecting protégés from controversial situations. Psychosocial support includes the mentor serving as a role model or as a counselor to whom proteges can discuss their personal concerns and fears, which may lead to informal exchanges of informal regarding work and nonwork experiences. Leader self-disclosure depth can correlate with career support as mentors may share histories of their own careers (O’Neill, 2005; Scandura, 1992; Shen & Kram, 2001), which can be of depth in order to help followers advance with their own careers. However, leader self-disclosure depth and career support are distinct

because career support encompasses a larger scope of activities than leader self-disclosure depth. For example, mentors can publicly advocate their protégés to increase protégés' exposure and visibility, provide performance feedback to aid protégés' learning, or also share information of depth that is not about the leader but about the organization (O'Neill, 2005; Scandura, 1992; Shen & Kram, 2001). Leader self-disclosure depth can also correlate with psychological support since leader self-disclosure depth can provide a platform for protégés to also communicate in-depth information about themselves. However, they are distinct in that while the purpose of mentoring is to aid the followers' career development, leader self-disclosure depth may not always arise from such purpose. Leaders can also share high depth self-disclosures for their own benefit of being heard and supported by their followers. Mentoring can also correlate with information scarcity as followers need to be selected as protégés in order to have a mentoring relationship with their supervisor, and supervisor sharing scarce information with the follower solely can indicate that the follower has a special mentoring relationship with the supervisor. However, information scarcity and mentoring are distinct in that mentoring encompasses much more than the supervisor sharing scarce information. It can encompass anything that aids followers or protégés in their career development or navigation within the organization, such as nominating them for promotions (Noe, 1988). Sample items include "Mentor takes a personal interest in my career" (career development; $\alpha = .90$) and "I consider mentor to be a friend" (psycho-social support; $\alpha = .86$; 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; Scandura & Ragins, 1993).

Leader extraversion. Extraverted individuals are talkative, sociable, bold, assertive, and dominant (Goldberg, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1987). Extraverts are more expected to engage in leader self-disclosure depth because sharing information about self to others pertains to being

social with one's coworkers. An extraverted leader should find self-disclosure depth to be relatively easy compared to less assertive, withdrawn, introverted leaders. On the other hand, extraverted leaders will be more likely to share information about themselves to many others than to a very small number of individuals. Thus, extraverts will be negatively inclined toward information scarcity. Leader extraversion was measured by asking followers to rate their leaders on ten adjectives (e.g., talkative, extraverted, reserved; $\alpha = .91$; 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; Mount, Barrick, & Strauss, 1994).

Leader warmth and competence. In judging others, individuals use the dimensions of warmth and competence to determine how positive or negative others' intent are and whether they are likely to act on those intentions (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). Though warmth and competence judgments should be independent of each other in theory (Wojciszke, 2005), in reality they are often negatively correlated, so that individuals or groups are stereotyped to be warm but incompetent, or competent but cold (Judd, James-Hawkins, Yzerbyt, & Kashima, 2005; Kervyn, Yzerbyt, & Judd, 2010). I expect leader self-disclosure depth to be positively related to leader warmth but negatively related to leader competence. Because leader self-disclosure depth entails sharing very personal information that can include potentially embarrassing or controversial information, I expect followers to perceive leader to be more sincere and warm. However, because leaders sharing very personal information to followers can betray the expectation that leaders should be on professional terms, I expect leader self-disclosure depth to be negatively related to leader competence. For information scarcity, I expect it to be related to warmth but not competence. If followers perceive that their leaders shared the information only with them, this could enhance the belief that leaders have positive intentions toward followers. However, I expect information scarcity to be unrelated to leader competence

because the extent to which leaders choose to share information about themselves to a small or large number of people does not impact followers' perception of leaders' capability. Leader warmth ($\alpha = .90$) and competence ($\alpha = .77$) was be measured by scales developed by Fiske et al. (2002).

Leader humility. Humility is defined including the following three aspects: (a) a willingness to view oneself accurately, (b) an appreciation of others' strengths and contributions, and (c) teachability, or openness to new ideas and feedback (Owens, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2013). The first aspect of humility—willingness to view oneself accurately—could be related to leader self-disclosure depth as sharing very intimate information about self to others can indicate strong willingness to not only view oneself accurately but also convey to others accurate representation of the self. It can also be related to the second aspect of appreciating others because individuals are more likely to share intimate self-disclosures to those they appreciate than to those they do not appreciate (Collins & Miller, 1994). However, at the same time, leader humility is expected to be distinct from leader self-disclosure depth because the third aspect of leader humility concerns with how much the leader is open to feedback from others. A leader could disclose very intimate information about the self but may not wish to be corrected or hear suggestions from followers. They could rather want to be supported and confirmed for their beliefs. Concerning information scarcity, I expect leader humility to be distinct from information scarcity. Though information scarcity could be related to the third aspect of how one appreciates others' contributions, because individuals are more likely to share information that is widely unavailable to those they appreciate than to those they do not, information scarcity at the same time does not concern how accurate the information is or whether one is open to feedback from others. To measure leader humility, the scale by Owens and Hekman (2016) was utilized, adapted from the

expressed humility scale by Owens et al. (2013). Sample items include “actively seeks feedback, even if it’s critical” (a willingness to view oneself accurately; $\alpha = .83$), “takes notice of others’ strengths” (an appreciation of others’ strengths and contributions; $\alpha = .86$), and “shows a willingness to learn from others” (teachability; $\alpha = .92$).

Discriminant Validity Measures

Leader creativity. Creativity in the workplace is defined as the production of novel and useful ideas or solutions (Amabile, 1988; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Zhou & George, 2001, 2003). I expect neither leader self-disclosure depth nor information scarcity to be related leader creativity rated by follower because what the leader discloses to the follower is independent of how the leader performs their creative jobs. Whether the leader discloses personal information to just one follower or many followers also does not have an effect on how the leader performs their job. Leader creativity was measured with the scale by Zhou and George (2003; $\alpha = .95$).

Abusive supervision. Abusive supervision refers to “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000). I expect leader self-disclosure depth to be unrelated to abusive supervision because leaders sharing very personal information can be understood as both abusive and not abusive depending on the follower. Leader self-disclosure depth can be perceived as abusive behavior if followers perceive the disclosure to be highly inappropriate, but they could also see it as a positive behavior from their leaders if they understand leader self-disclosure depth to be a sign of closeness. Thus, I expect there to be a null relationship between the two. I also expect information scarcity of be unrelated to abusive supervision because the extent to which leader shares discrete information about themselves to a

small or large number of people is unrelated hostile behavior such as public criticism, rudeness, and inconsiderate actions. Abusive supervision was measured with the scale by Tepper (2000; $\alpha = .94$).

Informational justice. Information justice regards whether information was adequately provided by supervisors regarding why certain procedures were used or why outcomes were distributed in a certain way within the organization (Colquitt, 2001). I expect informational justice to be unrelated to both leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity because both leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity is associated with information about the leader, not information regarding procedures used or outcomes distributed within the organization. Informational justice was measured with the scale by Colquitt (2001; $\alpha = .87$).

Results

To establish construct validity of leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity, respectively, I performed a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to confirm the factor structure of leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity. I tested a two-factor model with leader self-disclosure depth items and information scarcity items loading on separate factors. The model fit indices ($\chi^2(34) = 234.65, p < .001$; CFI = .88; SRMR = .07) were somewhat supportive of the two-factor model (Hu & Bentler, 1999).¹ Additionally, the model fit the data significantly better than did an alternative model of a single-factor in which self-disclosure depth items and information scarcity items load onto the same factor ($\chi^2(35) = 830.93, p < .001$; CFI = .53; SRMR = .23).

¹ When removing item 2 from leader self-disclosure depth scale and removing item 2 from information scarcity scale based on modification indices greater than 3.84, the model fit indices improved ($\chi^2(19) = 73.47, p < .001$; CFI = .95; SRMR = .05), further providing strong support of the two-factor model.

Table 4 depicts the bivariate relationships between leader self-disclosure depth, information scarcity, and other theoretically related constructs. As expected, leader self-disclosure depth was related to information scarcity ($r = .35, p < .01$), control of depth ($r = .72, p < .01$), supervisory mentoring career support ($r = .29, p < .01$), supervisory mentoring psychosocial support ($r = .44, p < .01$), leader extraversion ($r = .21, p < .01$), and leader warmth ($r = .18, p < .05$) but unrelated to relational transparency of authentic leadership, feeling trusted, leader competence, and leader humility. Leader self-disclosure depth was also unexpectedly related to leader creativity ($r = .18, p < .05$) and informational justice ($r = .16, p < .05$), suggesting that leaders who share intimate self-disclosures are more likely to be rated as more creative and exhibiting more informational justice by their followers.

For information scarcity, as expected, it was related to supervisory mentoring career support ($r = .34, p < .01$), supervisory mentoring psychosocial support ($r = .48, p < .01$), and leader warmth ($r = .16, p < .05$) but unrelated to feeling trusted. Information scarcity was also unexpectedly related to control of depth ($r = .40, p < .01$) and leader creativity ($r = .26, p < .01$), suggesting that leaders who share scarce information are more likely to be perceived as having higher intention in sharing high depth information and as more creative by their followers. Though there were some unexpected findings, these analyses indicate nomological validity as it shows that leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity each reflects a construct that fits within a network of related constructs.

 Insert Table 4 about here

Due to the sheer number of constructs, there might have been common method variance, or shared variance among measured variables that arises when the variables are assessed using a

common method (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Due to the possibility of systematic shared variance, leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity were each regressed by all the constructs that were predicted to converge with and diverge from. Control of depth was excluded from the analysis because leader self-disclosure depth scale was developed upon the control of depth scale and including control of depth into the regression would inflate the shared variance. The results of the regression can be found in Table 5. Supervisory mentoring psychosocial support ($b = .65$, $s.e. = .13$, $p < .001$), leader extraversion ($b = .29$, $s.e. = .09$, $p < .01$), leader warmth ($b = .27$, $s.e. = .15$, $p < .10$), and abusive supervision ($b = .51$, $s.e. = .20$, $p < .05$) were positively and significantly associated with leader self-disclosure depth. Leader competence ($b = -.35$, $s.e. = .15$, $p < .05$) was negatively and significantly associated leader self-disclosure depth. As for information scarcity, supervisory mentoring career support ($b = .28$, $s.e. = .15$, $p < .10$) and psychosocial support ($b = .57$, $s.e. = .11$, $p < .001$) were positively and significantly associated. The results of the regression help refine the relationships between leader self-disclosure depth and related constructs and those between information scarcity and other constructs. The results indicate that leader self-disclosure depth's significant correlation with leader creativity and informational justice, and information scarcity's significant correlation with leader creativity largely arose from shared method variance because they were no longer found to be significant in the regression when all the variables were included as predictors.

Insert Table 5 about here

To test the discriminant validity of leader self-disclosure depth and that of information scarcity, I conducted CFAs to ensure that leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity, respectively, are separable from related constructs (constructs with significant correlation

coefficients; see Yu & Zellmer-Bruhn, 2018). For leader self-disclosure depth, CFAs was conducted to ensure that it is separable from control of depth, supervisory mentoring career support, supervisory mentoring psycho-social support, leader extraversion, leader warmth, leader creativity, and informational justice. For information scarcity, CFAs was conducted to ensure that it is separable from control of depth, supervisory mentoring career support, supervisory mentoring psycho-social support, leader warmth, and leader creativity. I assessed whether a single-factor model (covariance between leader self-disclosure depth and other construct factor was set to 1.0) provided better fit to the data than did a two-factor model for which leader self-disclosure depth and other construct factor were allowed to covary freely. For information scarcity, I assessed whether a single-factor model (covariance between information scarcity and other construct factor was set to 1.0) provided better fit to the data than did a two-factor model for which information scarcity and other construct factor were allowed to covary freely. Leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity, respectively, would be distinguishable from other constructs when the model fit was significantly worse for the single-factor model than for the two-factor model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). For all constructs, a two-factor model provided a significantly better fit than did a model where the variance between the two latent factors were set to 1.0. The results of discriminant validity assessment for leader self-disclosure depth are displayed in Table 6, and the results of discriminant validity assessment for information scarcity are displayed in Table 7. Specifically, the results indicated that leader self-disclosure depth is related to, but distinct from, control of depth ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 186.77$); supervisory mentoring career support ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 590.06$); supervisory mentoring psycho-social support ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 300.19$); leader extraversion ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 359.7$); leader warmth ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 519.02$); leader creativity ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 810.44$); and informational justice $\Delta\chi^2(1,$

$n = 204$) = 459.24. Additionally, the results indicated that information scarcity is related to, but distinct from, control of depth ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 515.16$); supervisory mentoring career support ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 594.07$); supervisory mentoring psycho-social support ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 307.94$); leader warmth ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 528.78$); and leader creativity ($\Delta\chi^2(1, n = 204) = 804.84$).

Discussion

Studies 1a, 1b, and 1c utilized distinct samples to establish the content, nomological, and discriminant validity of the five-item leader self-disclosure depth scale and the five-item information scarcity scale. Both scale items consistently exhibited strong factor loadings and reliability. Both leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity were moderately correlated with, yet distinct from, conceptually related constructs. The fit indices were also supportive of the predicted model, supporting the distinctiveness of leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity. I therefore proceeded to test the predictive validity of leader self-disclosure depth, along with information scarcity, with confidence in the validated measures.

 Insert Tables 6 and 7 about here

STUDY 2

The objective of Study 2 was to examine the consequences of self-disclosure depth in a natural field setting. To accomplish this objective, 500 full-time employees located in the United States who have regular interactions with their supervisor were recruited via Prolific for a monetary incentive of 3 US dollars. To ensure data integrity, I constrained my survey to those with at least a 95% approval rating on Prolific, which is calculated based on their previous

participation in other Prolific studies and indicates that their data met the researchers' standards in at least 95% of their previous studies. Data was collected at two different time points to minimize common method biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In the initial survey, participants completed measures of leader self-disclosure depth, information scarcity, and control variables. Of the 500 responses, 34 inattentive responses that did not pass the two attention check questions (i.e., "Please select 'Strongly disagree' for this item" and "Please choose 'Strongly agree' for this item") were removed. A week later, a second survey was sent out to the remaining 466 participants to get their measures of LMX, role overload, interpersonal citizenship behavior, and interaction avoidance. Of the 466 participants, 310 participants responded back. Of those responses, 52 inattentive responses that did not pass the two attention check questions (i.e., "Please select 'Very false 1' for this item" and "Please choose 'Always' for this item") were removed. The final sample consisted of 258 participants (55% overall completion rate of 466 participants), which exceeded the threshold for detecting medium effect size ($d = .3$; Cohen, 1998) based on Monte Carlo simulations (Marsh et al., 1988, 1996, 1998; Westland, 2000). Participants were mostly female (66%), had a mean age of 30.39 ($SD = 7.21$), and had a mean work experience of 10.25 years ($SD = 7.28$). Ethnicity-wise, they were mostly Caucasian (79%; 9% African American; 6% Asian/Pacific Islander; 6% Hispanic).

Measures

Leader self-disclosure depth. Respondents reported the extent to which their leader engaged in self-disclosure depth in the last six months by completing the five items developed and validated in Study 1 (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .94$).

Information scarcity. Respondents reported the extent to which the information they received from their leader's self-disclosure in the last six months was scarce by completing the

five items developed and validated in Study 1 (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .88$).

Leader-member exchange. The 12-item LMX-MDM scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) was used to measure leader-member exchange. Example items included “I respect my manager’s knowledge of and competence on the job,” and “My manager is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend” (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .94$).

Role overload. The 5-item role overload scale by Peterson et al. (1995) was used in the study. Sample items included “There is a need to reduce some parts of my role,” and “I feel overburdened in my role” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .88$).

OCB-I. Participants noted their leader-directed OCB-I in the last six months via the 7-item scale by Williams and Anderson (1991). These items included, “Help your supervisor when s/he has been absent,” and “Go out of way to help your supervisor” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .89$).

Interaction avoidance. Participants were asked to indicate their leader-directed interaction avoidance via the 8-item scale by Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashforth (2012). Items included “I don’t speak with my supervisor unless absolutely necessary,” and “I avoid initiating contact with my supervisor” (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .95$). As another way of measuring interaction avoidance, I also asked participants’ 4-item scale measuring their intention to leave their supervisor. A sample item is “At this time in your career, would you want to have a different supervisor if it were possible?” (1= to a very small extent to 5 = to a very large extent; $\alpha = .85$).

Ostracism. Participants were asked to indicate their leader-directed ostracism via the 10-item scale (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008). These items included, “You ignored your

supervisor at work,” and “You left the area when your supervisor entered” (1 = never to 7 = always; $\alpha = .88$).

Controls. I controlled for other factors that may confound the relationships between the focal variables. First, I controlled for relationship tenure, or how long this follower has been working with this supervisor, as self-disclosure may operate differently based on the length of the dyadic relationship. Second, I controlled for the followers’ initial liking towards the supervisor via the 4-item scale used by Hamstra and colleagues (2013; $\alpha = .94$) to provide evidence that the effects found is not an artifact of the followers’ initial impression of the leader but an artifact of the leader self-disclosure depth. Third, I also controlled for the followers’ predisposition towards eliciting self-disclosure from others, measured by the 10-item scale by Miller and colleagues (1983; $\alpha = .88$) as “openers” who elicit self-disclosure may be more accepting of others’ intimate self-disclosures. This scale, however, has a weakness in that it did not go through all the steps of construct validation advised by Hinkin (1998). Fourth, I also controlled for the gender of the leader for previous research shows that individuals are more accepting of females’ self-disclosure depth than males’ (Chelune, 1976; Derlega & Chaikin, 1976). Fifth, I controlled for the valence of the disclosure with a 4-item measure created for this study asking the participants to indicate the extent to which the disclosure was generally positive or negative: “On the whole, my supervisor’s disclosures about themselves are more positive than negative” (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .74$). Lastly, I controlled for the context by asking for the climate of authenticity developed by Grandey et al (2012; $\alpha = .85$). I tested my hypotheses first without and then with control variables and report the findings below.

Insert Tables 8 and 9 about here

Results

The zero-order correlations for the study variables are displayed in Table 8. All the hypotheses and related results without and with controls are summarized in Table 9. To test the direct effects and interactions hypothesized in this paper, I used ordinary least squares regression analyses (Cohen, Cohen, Aiken, & West, 2008). When examining interactions, I mean-centered the predictor variables prior to including them in the regression equation in order to facilitate interpretation of the coefficients (Dalal & Zickar, 2012). To test the hypothesized moderated mediation effects, I followed a structural equation modeling (SEM) path analysis including the relevant interaction terms in the equation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2018; Wright, 1921). The results of the path analysis are reported without and with the inclusion of the control variables in Tables 10 and 11.

 Insert Tables 10 and 11 about here

Hypothesis 1 predicted that leader self-disclosure depth would be positively related to LMX. In examining the effect of leader self-disclosure depth on LMX, the direct effect was significant without ($b = .22, p < .001$) and with the presence of control variables ($b = .10, p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 predicted that leader self-disclosure depth would be positively related to role overload. In examining the effect of leader self-disclosure depth on role overload, the direct effect was not significant without ($b = .01, p = .826$) and with ($b = .04, p = .361$) the presence of control variables. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the association between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX would be stronger when information scarcity is higher vs. lower. In examining the moderating effect of information scarcity, the interaction between leader self-disclosure depth

and information scarcity was not statistically significant in predicting LMX without ($b = .00, p = .894$) or with ($b = -.02, p = .219$) the presence of control variables. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Hypothesis 4 predicted that the association between leader self-disclosure depth and role overload would be stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher. The interaction between leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity was significant in predicting role overload without ($b = -.08, p = .035$; see Figure 2a) and with the presence of control variables ($b = -.08, p = .022$; see Figure 2b). In Figure 2a, simple slope tests revealed that leader self-disclosure depth was positively yet not significantly associated with role overload when information scarcity was lower ($b = .08, t = 1.20, p = .232$) but marginally negatively associated with role overload when information scarcity is higher ($b = -.13, t = -1.80, p = .073$), providing some initial support for Hypothesis 4. In Figure 2b, with the control variables included, simple slope tests revealed that leader self-disclosure depth was more strongly and marginally positively associated with role overload when information scarcity is lower ($b = .12, t = 1.66, p = .098$) vs. higher ($b = -.09, t = -1.34, p = .181$), providing marginal support for Hypothesis 4 that leader self-disclosure depth is more likely to be positively related to be role overload when information scarcity is lower vs. higher.

 Insert Figures 2a and 2b about here

Hypothesis 5 predicted that the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB-I mediated by LMX would be stronger when information scarcity is higher vs. lower. Without the presence of control variables, the indirect effects of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB-I at higher ($ab = .08, SE = .03, 95\% CI [.023, .137]$) and lower ($ab = .09, SE = .03, 95\% CI [.026, .145]$) levels of information scarcity were significant. The

difference in these indirect effects, however, was not significant (difference = .01, 95% CI [-.073, .084]). With the presence of control variables, the indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB-I was significant at lower ($ab = .07$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [.027, .115]) level but not at higher ($ab = .04$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [-.001, .079]) level of information scarcity. The difference between these indirect effects was not significant (difference = .03, 95% CI [-.023, .091]). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6a predicted that the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed interaction avoidance (intent to leave) mediated by role overload would be stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher. Without the presence of control variables, the indirect effects of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed interaction avoidance at lower ($ab = .02$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [-.016, .059]) and higher ($ab = -.03$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [-.070, .006]) levels of information scarcity were not significant. The difference in the indirect effects (difference = .05, 95% CI [-.002, .108]) was not significant. With the presence of control variables, the indirect effects of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed interaction avoidance at lower ($ab = .00$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [-.009, .016]) and higher ($ab = .00$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [-.013, .007]) levels of information scarcity were not significant. The difference in the indirect effects (difference = .01, 95% CI [-.016, .029]) was also not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 6a was not supported for interaction avoidance.

Without the presence of control variables, the indirect effects of leader self-disclosure depth on intent to leave at lower level of information scarcity was positive yet not significant ($ab = .03$, $SE = .03$, 95% CI [-.024, .084]) and at higher level of information scarcity was negative yet not significant ($ab = -.04$, $SE = .03$, 95% CI [-.101, .009]). More importantly, the difference in indirect effects (difference = -.03, 95% CI [-.053, -.003]) was significant, providing initial

support for Hypothesis 6a. Additionally, with the presence of control variables, the indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on intent to leave at lower level of information scarcity was positive yet not significant ($ab = .02$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [-.003, .057]) and at higher level of information scarcity was negative yet not significant ($ab = -.02$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [-.057, .010]). More importantly, the difference in indirect effects (difference = $-.02$, 95% CI [-.032, -.003]) was significant, which supported Hypothesis 6a for intent to leave.

Hypothesis 6b predicted that the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed ostracism mediated by role overload would be stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher. Without the presence of control variables, the indirect effects of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed ostracism at lower level of information scarcity was positive yet not significant ($ab = .01$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [-.008, .031]) and at higher level of information scarcity was negative yet not significant ($ab = -.02$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [-.041, .002]). More importantly, the difference in indirect effects (difference = $-.01$, 95% CI [-.021, -.001]) was significant, providing support for Hypothesis 6b. With the presence of control variables, the indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on intent to leave at lower level of information scarcity was positive yet not significant ($ab = .01$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [-.002, .021]) and at higher level of information scarcity was negative yet not significant ($ab = -.01$, $SE = .01$, 95% CI [-.019, .003]). The difference in indirect effects (difference = $.01$, 95% CI [-.004, .027]), however, was not significant, not providing support Hypothesis 6b in the presence of control variables.

Discussion

The results of Study 2 provide support for some of the predictions. Specifically, leader self-disclosure depth was found to be positively related to LMX but not to role overload. With

the addition of information scarcity, the positive effect of leader self-disclosure depth on LMX was unaffected but the positive effect of leader self-disclosure depth on role overload was marginally strengthened when information scarcity was lower vs. higher. Additionally, these perceptions had implications for follower behaviors. Though the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB-I via LMX was not moderated by information scarcity, the indirect effect itself was significant, supporting the notion that leader self-disclosure depth has implications for positive behaviors directed toward the leader through increased perceptions of LMX. Moreover, it was supported that the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on intent to leave and leader-directed ostracism via role overload is strengthened when information scarcity is lower vs. higher.

These findings indicate that leader self-disclosure depth has both positive and negative implications for the follower recipients, in how it influences their perceptions regarding the relationship they have with their leader and how much stress feel about the job. Furthermore, it is interesting to find that while their perception of LMX is not influenced by how scarce the information they received is, they are more likely to experience role overload if the information they received is widely available in the workplace. These perceptions of followers also influence how they behave toward their leader. Followers are more likely to engage in helping behavior toward their leader if they experience LMX whereas they are more likely to ostracize the leader or have intent of leaving the team led by the leader if they experience role overload, and this is more likely when information scarcity is lower vs. higher. Thus, these results indicate that leaders should be especially cautious in sharing highly personal information to many individuals within the workplace, as this can have negative consequences for the followers who are

recipients of that information and also negative consequences for the leader and the team as followers are more likely to withdraw and disengage.

Overall, Study 2 allows for some claims of generalizability and external validity as it examines leader self-disclosure depth in real workplace settings. However, Study 2 is limited in evidencing the causal role of leader self-disclosure depth. Therefore, I subsequently conducted two experiments to provide such evidence.

STUDY 3

The objective of Study 3 was to provide causal evidence of self-disclosure depth via an experimental study. I conducted an experiment to provide such evidence. Study 3 utilized the critical incident method (Flanagan, 1954), a widely used method within the organizational literature that has the advantage over surveys when examining discrete events (e.g., Lian, Li, Pan, Du, & Zhao, 2022; Taylor, Butts, Cole, & Pounds, 2021; van Dyck, Frese, Baer, & Sonnentag, 2005; Wellman, Mayer, Ong, & DeRue, 2016). I utilized a 2 (leader self-disclosure depth: low versus high) X 2 (information scarcity: low versus high) between-subjects design and randomly assign participants into one of four conditions. I recruited 250 participants via Prolific for a monetary incentive of 2 US dollars. To ensure data integrity, I constrained my survey to those with at least a 95% approval rating on Prolific, which is calculated based on their previous participation in other Prolific studies and indicates that their data met the researchers' standards in at least 95% of their previous studies. Furthermore, I included three attention check question (i.e., "Please select 'Very false 1' for this item", "Please choose 'Always' for this item", and "Please select 'Very true 7' for this item") that would assist in screening out inattentive participants. Through this process, twelve cases were removed. Additionally, I read through the critical incidents that participants provided to make sure the anecdotes they provided matched

their assigned conditions. Thirty-four participants that failed to provide critical incidents consistent with their manipulated conditions were removed from the analyses. Of these 34 cases, the fewest cases ($N = 2$) were dropped from the low depth and low scarcity condition while relatively more cases were dropped from high depth and high scarcity condition ($N = 9$), high depth and low scarcity condition ($N = 12$), and low depth and high scarcity condition ($N=11$). Additionally, the results of a binary logistic regression indicated that high depth and high scarcity condition cases were 5.4 times more likely, high depth and low scarcity condition cases 7.5 times more likely, and low depth and high scarcity condition cases 7.2 times more likely to be removed from the final sample compared to low depth and low scarcity condition cases, indicating that it was the easiest to recall the low depth and low scarcity condition. Consequently, the final sample consisted of 204 participants. Of these, 104 participants were male (51%), and the average age was 36.81 years old ($SD = 10.75$).

Leader Self-disclosure Depth Manipulation

I manipulated leader self-disclosure depth by presenting participants with the following prompt. I instructed participants assigned to high depth condition to “think of a time when your direct supervisor shared something highly intimate and personal....” In the low depth condition, I asked the participants to “think of a time when your supervisor shared something very trivial and insignificant about themselves....”

Information Scarcity Manipulation

Immediately following the leader self-disclosure depth manipulation, I presented participants with the information scarcity manipulation. In the high information scarcity condition, I asked participants to share something “that was not widely available. For example, the supervisor shared this information only with you.” In the low information scarcity condition,

I asked participants to share something “that was widely available. For example, the supervisor has shared this information with many others in the workplace.”

This resulted in the following 4 conditions:

High leader self-disclosure depth and high information scarcity. Think of a time when your direct supervisor shared something highly intimate and personal that was not widely available. For example, the supervisor shared something intimate and personal such as their values and lifelong goals and shared this information with limited others or only with you.

High leader self-disclosure depth and low information scarcity. Think of a time when your direct supervisor shared something highly intimate and personal that was widely available. For example, the supervisor shared something intimate and personal such as their values and lifelong goals and shared this information with many others in the workplace.

Low leader self-disclosure depth and high information scarcity. Think of a time when your direct supervisor shared something very trivial and insignificant about themselves that was not widely available. For example, the supervisor shared something very trivial and insignificant such as what they had for lunch and shared this information with limited others or only with you.

Low leader self-disclosure depth and low information scarcity. Think of a time when your direct supervisor shared something very trivial and insignificant about themselves that was widely available. For example, the supervisor shared something very trivial and insignificant such as what they had for lunch and shared this information with many others in the workplace.

Following the manipulations, I asked participants to provide more information about their critical incident. I asked them to describe the information that their supervisor shared, who their supervisor shared it with, how they knew that the information was shared with that (those) individual(s) in the workplace, and any other details they thought relevant.

Measures

LMX, role overload, interpersonal citizenship behavior, and interaction avoidance were measured with the same instruments as in Study 2. However, I asked participants to indicate how they feel “at this moment,” imagining they just heard the self-disclosure from their leader.

Leader-member exchange. I used the 12-item LMX-MDM scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) to measure leader-member exchange. I asked participants to indicate how they feel at this moment about the leader (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .97$).

Role overload. I used the 5-item role overload scale used in Study 1 by Peterson et al. (1995). I asked participants to indicate how they feel about their job at this moment (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .95$).

OCB-I. With the 7-item OCB-I scale by Williams and Anderson (1991), I asked participants to indicate how willing they are to help their leader at this moment, imagining they just heard the disclosure (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .95$).

Interaction avoidance. Participants were asked to indicate how willing they are to engage in leader-directed interaction avoidance via the 8-item scale by Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashforth (2012), imagining they just heard the disclosure (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .97$). I also asked participants to indicate how much intent they have in leaving the leader (1= to a very small extent to 5 = to a very large extent; $\alpha = .93$).

Ostracism. Participants were asked to indicate their leader-directed ostracism via the 10-item scale (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008). These items included, “You ignored your supervisor at work,” and “You left the area when your supervisor entered” (1 = never to 7 = always; $\alpha = .95$).

Controls. A design incorporating random assignment allows for the ruling out of alternative explanations based on participant characteristics. Nevertheless, I controlled for the same variables controlled in Study 2, which are relationship tenure with the leader, follower's initial liking towards the leader before hearing the self-disclosure, follower's predisposition to being an opener, the gender of the leader, the climate of authenticity within the work team, and the valence of the disclosure. Additionally, I controlled for the recency of the conversation (1 = not at all recent to 5 = extremely recent) and also the communication method used when receiving the self-disclosure from the leader (0= in-person; 1= other).

Manipulation checks. To assess the efficacy of the leader self-disclosure depth manipulation, participants responded to the five-item leader self-disclosure depth scale developed in Study 1 (e.g., My supervisor disclosed intimate information about themselves in their self-disclosure). To assess the efficacy of the information scarcity manipulation, participants responded to the five-item information scarcity scale developed in Study 1 (e.g., It is unique that my supervisor has shared this information with me).

Results

Manipulation checks. Participants in the high depth condition ($M = 5.73$, $SD = 1.05$) rated the five leader self-disclosure manipulation check items higher than participants in the low depth condition ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 1.36$, $F_{(1,205)} = 164.89$, $p < .001$), suggesting that the manipulation was effective. Participants in the high information scarcity condition ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 1.21$) rated the five information scarcity manipulation check items higher than participants in the low information scarcity condition ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.19$, $F_{(1,205)} = 141.23$, $p < .001$), suggesting that the manipulation was effective.

Hypothesis testing. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables are presented in Table 12. All the hypotheses and related results are summarized in Table 13. To test the front end of the model, I conducted analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) tests. In testing the indirect effects of leader self-disclosure depth on the behavioral dependent variables, I followed the recommendations of Preacher and Hayes (2008; see also Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Hayes, 2009) and conducted bias-corrected bootstrapping analyses (5,000 samples).

 Insert Tables 12 and 13 about here

Without control variables included, leader self-disclosure depth did not have a significant direct effect on LMX, $F_{(1,202)} = .67, p = .414$. However, after controlling for the control variables, leader self-disclosure depth had a significant positive direct effect on LMX, $F_{(1,195)} = 4.69, p = .032$. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported with control variables and not supported without the control variables. Leader self-disclosure depth did not have a significant direct effect on role overload without ($F_{(1,204)} = .66, p = .416$) or with the presence of control variables ($F_{(1,192)} = .02, p = .881$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity did not exhibit a significant interaction on LMX without ($F_{(1,202)} = .01, p = .905$) or with the presence of control variables ($F_{(1,190)} = .47, p = .492$), not supporting Hypothesis 3. Leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity did not exhibit a significant interaction on role overload without ($F_{(1,204)} = .43, p = .513$) or with the presence of control variables ($F_{(1,190)} = 1.47, p = .226$), not supporting Hypothesis 4. When information scarcity was higher, leader self-disclosure depth did not indirectly predict OCB-I without ($ab = .09, SE = .19, 95\% CI$

[-.273, .468]) or with control variables ($ab = .07$, $SE = .09$, 95% CI [-.112, .259]), not supporting Hypothesis 5. When information scarcity was lower, leader self-disclosure did not indirectly predict interaction avoidance without ($ab = .15$, $SE = .14$, 95% CI [-.126, .442]) or with control variables ($ab = .01$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [-.021, .075]). Additionally, when information scarcity was lower, leader self-disclosure did not indirectly predict intent to leave without ($ab = .12$, $SE = .10$, 95% CI [-.089, .326]) or with control variables ($ab = .01$, $SE = .02$, 95% CI [-.021, .075]). Thus, Hypothesis 6a was not supported. When information scarcity was lower, leader self-disclosure did not indirectly predict leader-directed ostracism without ($ab = .06$, $SE = .07$, 95% CI [-.063, .215]) or with control variables ($ab = .01$, $SE = .03$, 95% CI [-.030, .077]), not supporting Hypothesis 6b.

Supplemental Analyses

To examine if the indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB via LMX is replicated in Study 3, as found in Study 2, additional analyses were conducted utilizing bias-corrected bootstrapping analyses (5,000 samples; Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Hayes, 2009). The indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on OCB-I was not significant without the inclusion of control variables (*Indirect effect* = .11, $SE = .13$, 95% CI [-.139, .385]) but was significant after the inclusion of conclusion variables (*Indirect effect* = .14, $SE = .07$, 95% CI [.010, .284]).

Discussion

The results of Study 3 partially replicate the result of Study 2. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 was consistently replicated across Studies 2 and 3, which predicted that leader self-disclosure depth is positively related to LMX. However, the other hypotheses that were supported in Study 2 (i.e., Hypotheses 4, 6a, and 6b) were not supported in this study. Interestingly, the unsupported

hypotheses were all related to the negative pathway arising from leader self-disclosure depth. These unsupported findings could have arisen from methodological issues of the critical incident study which depend on recall of their emotions and behaviors following the critical incident. As participants worked with their current supervisor for an average of four years, they could have been especially vulnerable to retrospective bias (Reis & Gable, 2000). Additionally, the long average relationship tenure with the supervisor could indicate that many of the participants have more positive than negative experiences with their leader, explaining why the hypothesis regarding LMX was supported while the hypotheses regarding role overload, interaction avoidance, and ostracism were unsupported. Thus, to address the limitations of a critical incident study, I conducted an additional study that maintained full control over leader self-disclosure depth while examining its effects in a real-time virtual team task with a leader.

STUDY 4

The objective of Study 4 was to examine a controlled episode of leader self-disclosure depth, along with controlling information scarcity. Accordingly, I devised manipulations of leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity. This study utilized a 2 (leader self-disclosure depth: low versus high) X 2 (information scarcity: low versus high) between-subjects design and randomly assign participants into one of four conditions. Two-hundred sixty-nine university students participated in the experiment for course credit. To increase data integrity, I included three attention check questions that would assist in screening out inattentive participants (i.e., “Please choose ‘Strongly disagree’ for this item”, “Please select ‘6’ for this item”, and “Please choose ‘Strongly agree’ for this item”), which screened out 44 inattentive cases. Additionally, one question was asked to confirm that participants read and remembered the manipulations, which were leader’s messages in this study (i.e., “In your leader’s messages

(private and public combined), did your leader share anything about their life outside of work?”). Twenty-one participants who did not recall these messages were removed from the analyses, resulting in a final sample of 204 participants. Of these, 104 participants were female (50.7%), and the average age was 21.33 years old ($SD = 1.63$). Participants reported their ethnicity as White (46%), Asian (43%), Hispanic (14%), American Indian (2%), African American (1%), and other (1%).

This study utilized an online creativity game titled “Synergize!” that has been shown to effectively elicit team processes (see Erez, Schilpzand, Leavitt, Woolum, & Judge, 2015; Levitt, Qiu, & Shapiro, 2019; Schilpzand et al., 2016). The main task of Synergize is to generate creative uses for a brick while collaborating with other members of the team. Participants were told as a cover story that the aim of this study was to assess how virtual teams work effectively. They were also told that they would be placed in a four-member team with one designated leader and tasked with generating creative uses for a brick collaboratively. In reality, apart from the participant, the other three members in the team, including the leader, were electronic confederates.

At the start of the game, participants selected an avatar and a username to use in the game. Then, after a procedural delay which was included to enhance believability that the team was being assembled live with other individuals also partaking in the study, participants were placed in a four-person team. Participants were told that as a team they should generate as many creative uses for a brick within a ten-minute span. There was one designated leader for each team, who was not the participant. The leader did not partake in coming up with creative uses for a brick but was responsible managing the team throughout the task. When the game started, each player, excluding the leader, had to give a unique creative use for a brick when it was their turn,

which lasted ten seconds each. Participants were told that the leader would choose the first player to start off the game. In reality, the order of the players was predetermined, starting from focal participant and going counterclockwise until ten minutes was up.

In addition to coming up with creative uses for a brick, players were also given opportunities to message their team members during their turns. In their turns, players could send a brief message to the team before giving a creative use for a brick. By entering the word 'chat' in the answer box, they could enable the chat function. The message would be displayed for a few seconds and then players had the opportunity to enter a use for a brick. Thus, they did not lose their turn for communicating with teammates as the ten second rule started again after the message disappeared. If a player was successful at giving a use for a brick in the ten-second time span, a score was added to the team's total score, which was indicated on top of the screen during the game and also at the end of the game. After the game, participants answered questions about their leader and the task in general.

Experimental Manipulations

Except for the focal participant, the other three players in the game, including the leader, were electronic confederates, appearing to be real participants (Erez et al., 2015). The responses and the 'chat' comments the confederates gave were pre-scripted. However, to enhance the realism of the study, the answers and the comments provided by the electronic confederates included misspellings, abbreviations, and informal language. In some instances, electronic confederates also mentioned the focal participant's username or commented specifically on other players' answers to boost believability. Response lags were also included to vary within and across players to heighten realism. While confederates' creative uses for a brick were kept

constant across all conditions, the ‘chat’ comments of the leader varied to manipulate leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity.

Utilizing a 2 (leader self-disclosure depth: low versus high) X 2 (information scarcity: low versus high) between-subjects design, participants were randomly assigned by the computer to one of four conditions. In all four conditions, participants were given two messages from the leader—one at the beginning of the Synergize! game and the second message around the midpoint of the game as part of the manipulation. Leader self-disclosure depth was manipulated by changing the content of the messages per condition, and the content was pretested using a separate sample.² Information scarcity was manipulated by sending the two messages from the leader as private messages to just the focal participant in the high information scarcity condition or as public messages available to the entire team in the low information scarcity condition. Other than these two manipulated messages from the leader, all participants received the same non-manipulated messages from the leader directed toward the team (e.g., “we dont have much time left”) and the same non-manipulated answers and chat messages (e.g., "this is hard i'm running out of good ideas..") from the other two non-manipulated electronic confederates across all four conditions. The messages from the manipulated leader as well as the two non-

² The leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity manipulations were pretested using a separate sample of 34 participants (86.1% female, $M_{age} = 28.56$ years ($SD_{age} = 8.13$)) recruited online via Prolific. Participants imagined working on a task in a four-person virtual team and that their supervisor sent these two messages. They were randomly assigned to one of four conditions and received the messages accordingly. Based on their reading of the messages, participants were asked to rate the leader-self disclosure depth scale ($\alpha = 0.93$) and information scarcity ($\alpha = 0.83$) scales developed in Study 1 (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Results indicated that participants in the high leader self-disclosure depth condition ($M = 6.05$, $SD = 0.91$) rated the messages higher in depth than those in the low leader self-disclosure depth condition ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 1.54$), $F(1,32) = 10.01$, $p = .003$. In addition, participants in the high information scarcity condition ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 1.15$) rated the messages higher in information scarcity than those in the low information scarcity condition ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 0.99$), $F(1,32) = 5.73$, $p = .023$.

manipulated electronic confederates are provided in Appendix B. Additionally, I provide the manipulation per condition below. The italicized texts indicate the manipulated portion of the messages.

High leader self-disclosure depth X high information scarcity manipulation. “Good start [*participant’s username*]! FYI I just came straight in after having a *very serious* talk with my partner so I'm still switching gears. Anyways lets keep this going!”; “Nice work [*participant’s username*]! This is better than what I have to do afterwards. I need to go back and discuss things with my partner... My inlaws are *about to file for bankruptcy* so its been very stressful”

High leader self-disclosure depth X low information scarcity manipulation. “Good start *everyone*! FYI I just came straight in after having a *very serious* talk with my partner so I'm still switching gears. Anyways lets keep this going!”; “Nice work *team*! This is better than what I have to do afterwards. I need to go back and discuss things with my partner... My inlaws are *about to file for bankruptcy* so its been very stressful”

Low leader self-disclosure depth X high information scarcity manipulation. “Good start [*participant’s username*]! FYI I just came straight in after having a *quick* talk with my partner so I'm still switching gears. Anyways lets keep this going!"; "Nice work [*participant’s username*]! This is better than what I have to do afterwards. I need to go back and discuss things with my partner... My inlaws *lost their keys* so its been stressful”

Low leader self-disclosure depth X low information scarcity manipulation. “Good start *everyone*! FYI I just came straight in after having a *quick* talk with my partner so I'm still

switching gears. Anyways lets keep this going!"; "Nice work *team!* This is better than what I have to do afterwards. I need to go back and discuss things with my partner... My inlaws *lost their keys* so its been stressful"

Measures

Leader-member exchange. I used the 12-item LMX-MDM scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) to measure leader-member exchange. I asked participants to indicate how they feel right now about the leader (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = 0.82$).

Role overload. I used the 5-item role overload scale used in the study by Peterson et al. (1995). I asked participants to indicate how they feel about their task right now (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = 0.80$).

OCB-I. With the 7-item OCB-I scale by Williams and Anderson (1991), I asked participants to indicate how willing they are to engage in each of the OCB-I behaviors towards their leader if they have an opportunity to work again with this leader (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .89$).

Interaction avoidance. Participants were asked to indicate how willing they are to engage in leader-directed interaction avoidance right now via the 8-item scale by Nifadkar, Tsui, and Ashforth (2012; 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree; $\alpha = .92$). Modifying the intent to leave supervisor scale from Rosin & Korabik (1991), I also asked participants to indicate their intent to leave their leader if it had been possible (e.g., "To what extent did you want to have a different leader if it had been possible?; 1 = to a very small extent to 7 = to a very large extent; $\alpha = .88$).

Ostracism. Participants were asked to indicate how willing they are to engage in leader-directed ostracism right now via the 10-item scale (Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008). These items included, “You would ignore my leader at work,” and “You would leave the area when my leader entered” (1 = never to 7 = always; $\alpha = .95$).

Controls. A design incorporating random assignment allows for the ruling out of alternative explanations based on participant characteristics. As such, I did not control for the variables controlled in the previous studies, such as relationship tenure with the leader and follower’s initial liking towards the leader as the leader is someone participants did not have prior interactions before this study. I also kept the leader’s username gender neutral to rule out the effect of leader gender on the dependent variables of interest.

Manipulation checks. To assess the efficacy of the leader self-disclosure depth manipulation, participants responded to the five-item leader self-disclosure depth scale developed in Study 1 (e.g., My supervisor disclosed intimate information about themselves in their self-disclosure). To assess the efficacy of the information scarcity manipulation, participants responded to the five-item information scarcity scale developed in Study 1 (e.g., It is unique that my supervisor has shared this information with me).

Results

Manipulation checks. Participants in the high depth condition ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.54$) rated the five leader self-disclosure depth manipulation check items higher than participants in the low depth condition ($M = 4.60, SD = 1.72, F_{(1,202)} = 19.70, p < .001$), suggesting that the manipulation was effective. Participants in the high information scarcity condition ($M = 4.25, SD = 1.40$) rated these five items higher than participants in the low information scarcity condition ($M = 3.59, SD = 1.05, F_{(1,202)} = 14.61, p < .001$), suggesting that the manipulation was effective.

Hypothesis testing. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables are presented in Table 14. All the hypotheses and related results are summarized in Table 15. To test the front end of the model, I conducted analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests. In testing the indirect effects of leader self-disclosure depth on the behavioral dependent variables, I followed the recommendations of Preacher and Hayes (2008; see also Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Hayes, 2009) and conducted bias-corrected bootstrapping analyses (5,000 samples).

 Insert Tables 14 and 15 about here

Leader self-disclosure depth did not have a significant direct effect on LMX, $F_{(1,202)} = .79, p = .377$. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Leader self-disclosure depth did not have a significant direct effect on role overload, $F_{(1,202)} = .14, p = .714$. Thus Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity did not exhibit a significant interaction on LMX ($F_{(1,200)} = .38, p = .539$) or role overload ($F_{(1,200)} = .20, p = .653$), not supporting Hypotheses 3 and 4. When information scarcity was higher, leader self-disclosure depth did not indirectly predict OCB-I ($ab = -.02, SE = .15, 95\% CI [-.317, .300]$), not supporting Hypothesis 5. When information scarcity was lower, leader self-disclosure depth did not indirectly predict interaction avoidance ($ab = .11, SE = .03, 95\% CI [-.034, .076]$), or intent to leave ($ab = .001, SE = .01, 95\% CI [-.022, .029]$). Thus, Hypothesis 6a was not supported. When information scarcity was lower, leader self-disclosure depth did not indirectly predict leader-directed ostracism ($ab = .02, SE = .03, 95\% CI [-.034, .104]$). Thus, Hypothesis 6b was not supported.

Discussion

Study 4 aimed to increase the internal validity by utilizing an experiment with electronic confederates. However, none of the hypotheses were supported. These findings could have arisen from methodological issues. First, though the manipulations were pre-tested and also found to be effective in manipulating leader self-disclosure depth through the manipulation checks, the messages regarding partner issues and in-laws might have been lacking in realism or relevance to student participants who are on average 21 years old. Supplemental analyses of the optional comments left by the participants indicated that 7 out of 204 participants felt that their teammates in the virtual team task were not real people but AIs or bots. In future studies, operationalizing the messages to be more relevant to the school setting could perhaps help increase the relevance and realism to undergraduate student participants and increase the chances of finding support for the hypotheses. Second, the design of the study could have been taxing to participants in which there were many aspects they had to pay attention to in a limited 10-minute span, thereby limiting the effect of the manipulations. Though the final sample consisted of only those who recalled the manipulations in the form of leader's messages, supplemental analyses of the optional comments left by these same participants indicated that fourteen participants found the study complicated for they had to think of creative uses for a brick while reading the messages sent by their leader and their teammates. As these comments left by the participants were optional, it is possible that more participants found the study less realistic or more complex than reported. Third, the high average of perceived leader self-disclosure depth ($M = 5.11$) across both low and high depth conditions indicates that a leader sharing something that is not directly relevant to the task during a 10-minute time span tends to be perceived by participants as having high depth in general. This number is higher than the average perceived leader self-disclosure depth of Study 2 ($M = 3.93$) and Study 3 ($M = 4.59$). Moreover, in Study 4, even participants in

the low depth condition reported on average of perceiving 4.60 level of leader self-disclosure depth out of a 7-point scale. Therefore, even though the difference of the leader self-disclosure depth manipulation check was statistically significant across the two conditions, the high ceiling effect could be another reason why I was not able to find the predicted effects across two conditions.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Theoretical Implications

This dissertation aimed to develop and validate a scale for leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity in order to empirically test a recipient-based model of self-discourse within the leader-follower dyad in a work setting. In particular, this paper examined how leader self-disclosure depth impacts followers who are the recipients of self-disclosure in both positive and negative ways. Moreover, it was examined how these positive and negative perceptions of leader self-disclosure impact followers' behaviors in the forms of leader-directed OCB-I and interaction avoidance, respectively. Consistent with the Hypothesis 1, the data supported the notion that leader self-disclosure depth has a positive relationship with LMX. This was replicated across Studies 2 and 3. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported in two out of three studies. Interestingly, the main positive effect of leader self-disclosure depth on role overload was not found to be significant. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported in all three studies. Additionally, Hypothesis 3 which predicted that information scarcity moderates the positive relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX was not found to be significant in all three studies. However, the interaction between leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity was found to significantly predict role overload in that the positive effect of leader self-disclosure depth on role overload was strengthened when information scarcity was lower (vs.

higher), supporting Hypothesis 4 in one out of three studies. Hypothesis 5, which predicted that the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB-I via LMX is stronger when information scarcity is higher vs. lower, was not found to be significant in all three studies. However, Hypothesis 6a, which predicted that the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on intent to leave—an ultimate form of interaction avoidance—mediated by role overload is stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher, was supported in one out of three studies. Lastly, Hypothesis 6b, which predicted that the positive indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed ostracism mediated by role overload would be stronger when information scarcity is lower vs. higher, was supported in one of three studies.

Given that little evidence was found of the proposed relationships across studies, the contributions of this research are complicated. Even though the predictions were not supported, this dissertation makes several significant theoretical contributions. First, this paper extends the literature by focusing on the recipient's perspective of the self-disclosure process, which have been previously undertheorized. Existing models on workplace self-disclosure have predominantly theorized only on how self-disclosure affects the discloser (Mohr et al., 2019; Toth & Dewa, 2019), and this limited focus on the discloser might indicate that the recipient is not influenced by self-disclosure. In contrast, this dissertation theorizes that self-disclosure impacts the recipient in a way that is distinct from that of the discloser, and that this has consequences in how the follower perceives and behaves toward the leader. Overall, by theorizing on the recipient-based perceptual and behavioral reactions of self-disclosure within the workplace, this paper contributes to the self-disclosure and the broad management literature.

Additionally, this paper broadens our understanding of self-disclosure within a work context where relationships are involuntarily formed and are instrumental-based rather than

socio-emotional-based (Pillemer & Rothbard, 2018). In voluntarily formed non-work relationships such as romantic partnerships or friendships, the benefits of self-disclosure depth outweigh the negatives, if there are any, as the goal of these non-work relationships is to promote affinity between the parties (Derlega, Harris, & Chaikin, 1973). Also, in these voluntary relationships, there is more room for showing truthful reactions to received self-disclosure as the recipient has more volition and independence in these voluntary relationships to retreat from or even discontinue the relationship. In contrast, the implications are very different in involuntarily formed work relationships, especially in a leader-follower dyad as the follower is asymmetrically more dependent on the leader due to the nature of their working relationship (Keltner et al., 2003). Therefore, this paper proposes that in a work setting, self-disclosure depth not only has the benefits of increasing the relationship quality between the discloser and the recipient but also adds to the roles and demands that recipients have to perform in response to having received high depth information from the leader discloser, especially more so when the received information is widely available in the workplace. This paper thus speaks to how important it is to understand not only the benefits but also the obligatory nature of self-disclosure depth in involuntarily formed work relationships, especially between a leader and a follower where the hierarchical difference makes it especially more difficult for the follower to display candid reactions to leader-initiated high depth self-disclosure.

Furthermore, this paper reframes our understanding of leadership and how they can be effective communicators to their followers. Though the vast literature on leadership has revealed the benefits of leader transparency (Avolio et al., 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008), this paper proposes an important boundary condition to leader transparency: information scarcity. Though leader transparency in the form of leader self-

disclosure depth may have benefits of increasing LMX in followers, this paper proposes that when the high depth information is made widely available in the workplace, the net result may be less positive as followers are more likely to experience role overload over LMX. Additionally, this negative perception is more likely to be positively related to followers' intent to leave the team and ostracizing the leader. Thus, this paper reconsiders our understanding of leader transparency on how leaders should be disclosing to their followers to be effective leaders.

Moreover, this paper has an important theoretical and practical contributions in that it includes the development and the validation of two novel scales: leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity. Through utilization of different samples, I established the content, nomological, and discriminant validity of leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity scales, finding that each are related with but distinct from theoretically relevant constructs. Future avenues of research can utilize these new measurements in the areas of leader communications and information sharing in the workplace, examining previously unexplorable relationships now possible due to the creation of these measurements.

Finally, although it can be difficult to interpret nonsignificant results, I believe that the juxtaposition of hypotheses that were supported and those that were not help us better understand the complexities of leader self-disclosure depth and allow us to move forward as a field. For example, Hypothesis 1 which predicted a positive relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX was supported across two studies. Also, the vast body of evidence in the self-disclosure literature support this claim that there is a positive effect of self-disclosure depth on relationship building (for a review, Collins & Miller, 1994). Thus, with the replicated empirical evidence from this paper and from previous streams of research, I have faith in the validity of Hypothesis 1.

Conversely, it is somewhat puzzling that two hypotheses were supported in one but not all of the studies. Hypothesis 4, which predicted information scarcity to moderate the positive relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and role overload, was supported in Study 2, and Hypothesis 6, which predicted the indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed avoidance behavior via role overload to be moderated by information scarcity was also supported in Study 2. Unfortunately, as these two hypotheses were not supported in the two subsequent studies, these results should be viewed with some skepticism. That said, the underlying argument about the obligatory nature of leader self-disclosure depth that causes strains on follower recipients based on the review of the literature and theoretical reasoning is sound. In light of these mixed results, perhaps the more appropriate construct in place of role overload would be role conflict, which occurs when demands associated with one role interfere with one's ability to satisfy the demands of another role (Kahn et al., 1964). Based on role conflict theory, it is plausible that leader self-disclosure results in role conflict as high depth leader self-disclosures create situations in which follower recipients are required to meet the competing demands of the being a productive employee to the organization and being a supportive and collegial follower who responds to the leader's socio-emotional needs, which takes time, energy, and resources away from meeting the primary goal. Whereas role overload is more general in that there can many causes to role overload other than leader self-disclosure depth, such as heavy workload with limited resources or long working hours, role conflict might be the more appropriate construct adjacent to leader self-disclosure depth that captures the dilemma between meeting the incompatible, challenging demands of the organization versus the leader.

Finally, it is important to note that I did not find any support for three of the hypotheses. Even though the results relating to Hypotheses 2, 3, and 5 were insignificant, I nevertheless believe that the work in these areas contributes to a more complete understanding of leader self-disclosure depth. Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive main effect of leader self-disclosure depth on role overload. As stated in the previous paragraph, I believe this null finding can contribute to the field of management by suggesting that there may a construct (e.g., role conflict) more befitted to examine the costs of leader self-disclosure depth on follower recipients. Next, Hypothesis 3 predicted information scarcity to moderate the relationship between leader self-disclosure depth and LMX and Hypothesis 5 predicted that leader self-disclosure depth has an indirect effect on leader-directed OCB-I via LMX and that this is moderated by information scarcity. Though Hypotheses 3 and 5 were not supported across studies, supplementary analyses across two studies indicate that the indirect effect of leader self-disclosure depth on leader-directed OCB-I via LMX is significant without the moderator. Thus, this supplemental finding along with the null moderated-mediation finding is another contribution of the field that suggests that information scarcity may not be the appropriate moderator strengthening the positive effect of leader self-disclosure depth. It further contributes to the field by encouraging future streams of research to explore other key moderators that can strengthen or attenuate the positive effect of leader self-disclosure depth on follower recipients.

Practical Implications

Existing research on leadership finds that leaders should be transparent in their communication to followers (Avolio et al., 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008). However, the current study suggests that leaders should be more discreet in what and how they communicate to their followers when trying to be transparent.

First, leaders should be aware that though their act of sharing something personal about themselves can increase the relationship quality they have with their followers, it can at the same time lead to followers feeling overwhelmed by having to listen and respond to leaders' personal sharings. As the sharing of high depth information can be a double-edged sword, it could be less precarious to be sharing something less intimate about themselves to followers to build rapport and develop the relationship. Second, in choosing *how* to communicate this type of personal and intimate information to their followers, if they decide to do so, leaders should be careful not to be an oversharer in disclosing very personal information about themselves to many others in the workplace as this decreases the value of receiving such personal information from the perspective of followers and increases the likelihood that followers feel more overwhelmed than appreciative of receiving such information. Third, the power difference between leaders and followers makes it very difficult for followers to confront or communicate to leaders even when they experience discomfort from receiving personal information. They may rather accommodate or yield to the leader's communication style rather than communicating their discomfort (Holt & DeVore, 2005), and this could be very detrimental as it could lead to followers exiting the team or the organization. To reduce the likelihood of such predicament, asking for anonymous feedback from followers could be one way of leaders can gauge their followers' favorable reception of leaders' personal sharing.

Limitations and Future Directions

Interestingly, leader self-disclosure depth scale was validated in Study 1 with various samples including full-time employees, and the most hypotheses were supported in Study 2 where leader self-disclosure depth was examined in a field setting. Comparatively, only one hypothesis was supported in Study 3 which utilized a critical incident recall method, and none of

the hypotheses supported in Study 4, which utilized electronic confederates in a virtual team setting. These results indicate that though the construct leader self-disclosure depth captures a real phenomenon that has implications within the workplace, there could have been methodological issues in Studies 3 and 4 where leader-self disclosure depth as manipulated and/or hypotheses were tested in a lab setting. Future studies could replicate whether leader self-disclosure depth can be replicated in an experimental setting. As much as Study 2 lent external validity and offered some assurance of the causal ordering of constructs as being multi-wave, future studies that utilizes an experimental design can help bolster the causal effect of leader-self disclosure depth on follower perceptions and behaviors.

Second, as this paper is the first in examining the effect of leader self-disclosure depth on follower perceptions and behaviors in the field of management, there were many control variables included in the model for the goal of focusing on the most meaningful constructs, which could be another reason for why many of the hypotheses were not supported. Future research could directly examine these constructs in tandem with leader self-disclosure depth rather than controlling for them. For example, context could strengthen or attenuate the positive vs. negative effects of leader self-disclosure depth on follower recipients. In climates where authenticity is valued, the positive effect of leader self-disclosure depth could be bolstered. Another important avenue for context is the role of in-person vs. remote setting. As richer communication media (e.g., face-to-face/video interactions) are known to be optimal when communicating authentic emotions (Brodsky, 2020), leader self-disclosure depth could have more amplifying effects under such communication media than less rich communication media (e.g., email). On the other hand, as less rich communication media are more effective in masking

surface acting or emotional leakage, it could be more beneficial for followers experiencing role overload to use such methods to respond to unwanted or uninitiated leader self-disclosure depth. Lastly, another important context is culture. This paper only collected sample from the United States so it could only speak to individualist, low power distance culture (Hofstede, 2001). However, leader self-disclosure depth could have different effects in collectivist cultures where social identities are more merged and relational mobility is lower, or when new interpersonal relationships are more difficult to form as individuals are embedded in obligatory social groups and networks (Yamagishi, Jin, & Miller, 1998).

Third, this paper specifically focused on the effect of leader self-disclosure depth on follower recipients as it is the relationship that epitomizes a strong non-voluntarily formed work relationship where recipients have many restraints in their interactions due to the power difference (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson 2003). However, it would be interesting to examine how self-disclosure depth plays out in a more equal peer-to-peer relationship, where employees have more discretion and jurisdiction in how they can avoid unwanted self-disclosures from other colleagues with relatively equal status and power.

Conclusion

In this paper, I developed a scale for measuring leader self-disclosure depth, along with a scale for measuring information scarcity of leader's self-disclosure. Through multiple samples, this paper established the discriminant validity of leader self-disclosure depth from conceptually related but distinct constructs such as authentic leadership, feeling trusted, mentoring, and leader warmth and competence. In addition, this paper developed and empirically tested for a recipient-based model of self-disclosure in the workplace by examining the effect of leader self-disclosure depth from the perspective of follower recipients. Overall, I hope this work serves as a launching

pad for future research to uncover new complexities through how self-disclosure shape work experiences and outcomes in workplace relationships.

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Table 1. Results for Content Validation of Leader Self-disclosure Depth (Study 1a)

Item	Description	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>
1	My supervisor disclosed intimate information about themselves in their self-disclosure.	6.38	(1.01)
2	My supervisor disclosed personal information to me in their self-disclosure.	5.90	(1.36)
3	My supervisor shared private information in their self-disclosure.	5.70	(1.28)
4	My supervisor fully revealed details about themselves in their self-disclosure.	5.90	(1.25)
5	My supervisor intimately revealed details about themselves in their self-disclosure.	6.14	(1.16)

Table 2. Results for Content Validation of Information Scarcity (Study 1a)

Item	Description	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>
1	It is unique that my supervisor has shared this information with me.	5.04	(1.73)
2	The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is not available to others.	6.06	(1.36)
3	The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is not widely available.	5.88	(1.04)
4	The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is only available to me.	6.30	(1.39)
5	The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is only accessible to me.	6.30	(1.27)

Table 3. Items and Respective Factor Loadings from Exploratory Factor Analysis (Study 1b)

Item	Factor	
	1	2
My supervisor disclosed intimate information about themselves in their self-disclosure.	0.80	0.14
My supervisor disclosed personal information to me in their self-disclosure.	0.97	-0.03
My supervisor shared private information in their self-disclosure.	0.97	-0.05
My supervisor fully revealed details about themselves in their self-disclosure.	0.98	-0.13
My supervisor intimately revealed details about themselves in their self-disclosure.	0.73	0.24
It is unique that my supervisor has shared this information with me.	-0.07	0.86
The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is not available to others.	-0.01	0.92
The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is not widely available.	0.16	0.73
The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is only available to me.	-0.05	0.94
The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is only accessible to me.	0.02	0.92

Notes . Dominant factor loadings are presented in boldface. Factor 1 = leader self-disclosure depth; Factor 2 = information scarcity.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 1c)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.
1 Leader self-disclosure depth	3.92	(1.64)	--																	
2 Information scarcity	3.46	(1.34)	.35 **	--																
3 Control of depth	2.58	(1.07)	.72 **	.40 **	--															
4 Authentic leadership- relational transparency	3.84	(0.82)	.02	.10	.05	--														
5 Authentic leadership- leader self-awareness	3.61	(1.05)	.03	.10	.03	.79 **	--													
6 Authentic leadership- internalized moral perspective	3.82	(0.94)	.02	.11	.05	.79 **	.81 **	--												
7 Authentic leadership- balanced processing	3.66	(0.92)	.07	.10	.08	.75 **	.82 **	.77 **	--											
8 Feeling trusted	4.12	(0.93)	.03	.11	.04	.62 **	.55 **	.60 **	.62 **	--										
9 Supervisory mentoring- career support	3.51	(1.04)	.29 **	.34 **	.30 **	.67 **	.68 **	.65 **	.62 **	.53 **	--									
10 Supervisory mentoring- psychosocial support	2.80	(1.08)	.44 **	.48 **	.49 **	.46 **	.45 **	.37 **	.41 **	.32 **	.67 **	--								
11 Leader Extraversion	5.18	(1.17)	.21 **	-.07	.18 **	.19 **	.18 *	.24 **	.21 **	.09	.21 **	.08	--							
12 Leader warmth	5.62	(1.19)	.18 *	.16 *	.15 *	.63 **	.67 **	.65 **	.63 **	.57 **	.68 **	.50 **	.21 **	--						
13 Leader competence	5.76	(0.87)	.03	.10	.07	.55 **	.57 **	.54 **	.48 **	.36 **	.53 **	.39 **	.26 **	.46 **	--					
14 Leader humility- willingness to view oneself accurately	3.84	(0.98)	-.05	-.07	-.07	.77 **	.75 **	.70 **	.71 **	.62 **	.61 **	.37 **	.12	.62 **	.46 **	--				
15 Leader humility- appreciation of others	4.10	(0.91)	.04	.08	.04	.75 **	.73 **	.67 **	.65 **	.52 **	.68 **	.40 **	.17 *	.66 **	.55 **	.74 **	--			
16 Leader humility- teachability	3.99	(1.01)	.00	.08	.01	.74 **	.77 **	.71 **	.72 **	.61 **	.62 **	.42 **	.13	.69 **	.45 **	.76 **	.78 **	--		
17 Leader creativity	5.17	(1.30)	.18 *	.26 **	.14 *	.67 **	.71 **	.68 **	.70 **	.45 **	.75 **	.57 **	.24 **	.65 **	.60 **	.63 **	.65 **	.67 **	--	
18 Abusive supervision	1.40	(0.66)	.13	.07	.10	-.48 **	-.47 **	-.51 **	-.45 **	-.48 **	-.33 **	-.11	-.16 *	-.58 **	-.23 **	-.45 **	-.44 **	-.51 **	-.34 **	--
19 Informational justice	3.90	(0.83)	.16 *	.11	.14 *	.68 **	.66 **	.70 **	.64 **	.47 **	.62 **	.46 **	.31 **	.67 **	.52 **	.58 **	.59 **	.63 **	.65 **	-.44 **

Note. N=204.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 5. Regression Results (Study 1c)

Variables	Leader Self-Disclosure Depth		Information Scarcity	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Intercept	1.03	1.04	2.74	0.88
Authentic leadership- relational transparency	-0.27	0.25	-0.26	0.21
Authentic leadership- leader self-awareness	-0.10	0.22	-0.20	0.18
Authentic leadership- internalized moral perspective	-0.05	0.21	0.28	0.28
Authentic leadership- balanced processing	0.14	0.21	-0.08	0.18
Feeling trusted	0.11	0.16	0.04	0.13
Supervisory mentoring- career support	0.24	3.20	0.28 †	0.15
Supervisory mentoring- psychosocial support	0.65 ***	0.13	0.57 ***	0.11
Leader extraversion	0.29 **	0.09	-0.12	0.08
Leader warmth	0.27 †	0.15	0.01	0.12
Leader competence	-0.35 *	0.15	-0.07	0.13
Leader humility- williness to view oneself accurately	-0.34	0.18	0.07	0.16
Leader humility- appreciation of others	0.19	0.21	-0.12	0.18
Leader humility- teachability	-0.26	0.19	-0.08	0.16
Leader creativity	0.01	0.14	0.14	0.12
Abusive supervision	0.51 *	0.20	0.17	0.17
Informational justice	0.17	0.19	-0.13	0.16
R^2	0.36 ***		0.31 ***	

Note. $N=204$.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 6. CFA Model Fit Comparisons for Leader Self-disclosure Depth (Study 1c)

Model	χ^2	df	SRMR	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$
Leader self-disclosure depth and information scarcity					
2-factor	234.65 ***	34	.07	.88	
1-factor	830.93 ***	35	.23	.53	596.28 ***
Leader self-disclosure depth and control of depth					
2-factor	199.63 ***	34	.06	.90	
1-factor	386.40 ***	35	.09	.79	186.77 ***
Leader self-disclosure depth and mentoring career support					
2-factor	119.55 ***	43	.04	.95	
1-factor	709.61 ***	44	.24	.57	590.06 ***
Leader self-disclosure depth and mentoring psycho-social support					
2-factor	148.66 ***	34	.06	.92	
1-factor	448.85 ***	35	.17	.69	300.19 ***
Leader self-disclosure depth and leader extraversion					
2-factor	121.48 ***	34	.07	.93	
1-factor	481.19 ***	35	.20	.65	359.70 ***
Leader self-disclosure depth and leader warmth					
2-factor	87.91 ***	26	.04	.96	
1-factor	606.93 ***	27	.24	.58	519.02 ***
Leader self-disclosure depth and leader creativity					
2-factor	129.30 ***	34	.04	.94	
1-factor	939.74 ***	35	.30	.47	810.44 ***
Leader self-disclosure depth and informational justice					
2-factor	98.00 ***	34	.06	.95	
1-factor	557.24 ***	35	.24	.61	459.24 ***

Note. $N = 204$. χ^2 = chi-square statistic; SRMR = standardized root mean residual; CFI = comparative fit index.

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$.

Table 7. CFA Study Model Fit Comparisons for Information Scarcity (Study 1c)

Model	χ^2	df	SRMR	CFI	$\Delta\chi^2$
Information scarcity and control of depth					
2-factor	210.84 ***	34	.08	.88	
1-factor	726.00 ***	35	.22	.54	515.16 ***
Information scarcity and mentoring career support					
2-factor	220.38 ***	43	.08	.89	
1-factor	814.45 ***	44	.23	.50	594.07 ***
Information scarcity and mentoring psycho-social support					
2-factor	224.22 ***	34	.09	.86	
1-factor	532.16 ***	35	.17	.63	307.94 ***
Information scarcity and leader warmth					
2-factor	160.57 ***	26	.08	.90	
1-factor	689.34 ***	27	.26	.52	528.78 ***
Information scarcity and leader creativity					
2-factor	205.18 ***	34	.08	.90	
1-factor	1010.02 ***	35	.31	.43	804.84 ***

Note. N =204. χ^2 = chi-square statistic; SRMR = standardized root mean residual; CFI = comparative fit index.

* $p \leq .05$, ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$.

Table 8. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables (Study 2)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.
1 Leader self-disclosure depth	3.93	(1.71)	--												
2 Information scarcity	3.40	(1.35)	.49 **	--											
3 LMX	5.38	(1.12)	.33 **	.31 **	--										
4 Role overload	2.68	(1.35)	.01	.05	-.26 **	--									
5 Leader-directed OCB-I	5.01	(1.16)	.44 **	.44 **	.62 **	-.07	--								
6 Interaction avoidance	2.88	(1.48)	-.31 **	-.29 **	-.76 **	.23 **	-.49 **	--							
7 Intent to leave	2.08	(1.12)	-.04	-.08	-.52 **	.45 **	-.22 **	.49 **	--						
8 Ostracism	1.39	(0.69)	-.03	.00	-.41 **	.25 **	-.23 **	.43 **	.45 **	--					
9 Relationship tenure	2.86	(3.30)	.17 **	.23 **	.10	.00	.17 **	-.03	-.10	.04	--				
10 Initial liking	5.69	(1.27)	.23 **	.26 **	.82 **	-.28 **	.47 **	-.70 **	-.55 **	-.46 **	.06	--			
11 Opener predisposition	4.13	(0.57)	.14 *	.14 *	.08	-.07	.16 *	-.13 *	-.05	-.11	-.07	.10	--		
12 Leader gender ^a	0.60	(1.19)	.06	-.07	-.07	.04	-.03	-.05	.07	-.06	-.06	-.03	.08	--	
13 Valence of disclosure	3.85	(0.87)	.01	-.09	.32 **	-.31 **	.05	-.30 **	-.36 **	-.25 **	-.06	.37 **	.08	-.01	--
14 Authenticity climate	3.59	(0.98)	.04	.01	.50 **	-.39 **	.25 **	-.38 **	-.50 **	-.30 **	.01	.49 **	-.01	-.06	.31 **

Note. N=258.

^a 0 = Male/Other, 1 = Female

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 9. Results Summary (Study 2)

Hypothesis	Without controls	With controls
1	supported	supported
2	unsupported	unsupported
3	unsupported	unsupported
4	marginally supported significant moderation whereby leader self-disclosure is positively (vs. negatively) but not significantly related to role overload when information scarcity is lower (vs. higher)	marginally supported significant moderation whereby leader self-disclosure is marginally positively related (vs. unrelated) to role overload when information scarcity is lower (vs. higher)
5	unsupported	unsupported
6a	supported for intent to leave	supported for intent to leave
6b	supported	unsupported

Table 10. Path Analysis Results for Study 2: Without controls

Variables	<u>LMX</u>		<u>Role Overload</u>		<u>OCB-I</u>		<u>Interaction Avoidance</u>		<u>Intent to Leave</u>		<u>Ostracism</u>	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Predictor Variables												
Depth	0.15***	0.04	-0.02	0.05	0.12***	0.03	-0.19***	0.05	0.01	0.04	-0.01	0.02
Information scarcity	0.16***	0.05	0.09	0.06	0.17***	0.04	-0.21***	0.06	-0.10**	0.05	-0.00	0.03
Depth X Information scarcity	-0.00	0.03	-0.07**	0.04	0.00	0.02	-0.00	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.02
Mediator												
LMX	–	–	–	–	0.52***	0.05	–	–	–	–	–	–
Role overload	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.27***	0.06	0.37***	0.05	0.13***	0.06
<i>R</i> ²	0.10		0.03		0.43		0.15		0.21		0.07	
Indirect Effects												
					via LMX		via Role overload		via Role overload		via Role overload	
Indirect effect (higher information scarcity)	–	–			.08, SE = .03, 95% CI [.023, .137]		-.03, SE = .02, 95% CI [-.070, .006]		-.04, SE = .03, 95% CI [-.101, .009]		-.02, SE = .01, 95% CI [-.041, .002]	
Indirect effect (lower information scarcity)	–	–			.09, SE = .03, 95% CI [.026, .145]		.02, SE = .02, 95% CI [-.016, .059]		.03, SE = .03, 95% CI [-.024, .084]		.01, SE = .01, 95% CI [-.008, .031]	
Difference	–	–			.01, 95% CI [-.073, .084]		.05, 95% CI [-.002, .108]		-.03, 95% CI [-.053, -.003]		-.01, 95% CI [-.021, -.001]	

Note. *N* = 258. Path coefficients are reported. Leader gender is coded such that male=0, female=1.

† *p* < .10, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001.

Table 11. Path Analysis Results for Study 2: With controls

Variables	<u>LMX</u>		<u>Role Overload</u>		<u>OCB-I</u>		<u>Interaction Avoidance</u>		<u>Intent to leave</u>		<u>Ostracism</u>	
	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.	<i>b</i>	s.e.
Control Variables												
Relationship tenure	0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	-0.03	0.02	0.00	0.01
Liking	0.62***	0.04	-0.08	0.07	-0.08†	0.07	-0.68***	0.06	-0.33***	0.05	-0.23***	0.04
Opener predisposition	0.00	0.07	-0.11	0.14	0.18	0.09	-0.09	0.12	-0.03	0.10	-0.01	0.07
Leader gender	-0.08	0.08	0.09	0.15	0.02	0.10	-0.19	0.13	0.05	0.11	-0.01	0.08
Valence of self-disclosure	0.02	0.06	-0.36***	0.11	-0.18**	0.08	-0.11	0.10	-0.17*	0.08	-0.02	0.06
Authenticity climate	0.20***	0.05	-0.51***	0.11	0.03	0.08	-0.13	0.10	-0.21**	0.08	-0.04	0.06
Predictor Variables												
Depth	0.08***	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.11***	0.03	-0.11**	0.04	0.06†	0.03	0.02	0.02
Information scarcity	0.06**	0.03	0.09†	0.05	0.14***	0.04	-0.10**	0.05	-0.03	0.04	0.03	0.03
Depth X Information scarcity	-0.02	0.02	-0.08**	0.03	-0.01	0.02	-0.00	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Mediator												
LMX	–	–	–	–	0.64***	0.08	–	–	–	–	–	–
Role overload	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.04	0.05	0.21***	0.04	0.05†	0.03
<i>R</i> ²	0.71		0.23		0.48		0.53		0.43		0.26	
Indirect Effects												
					via LMX		via Role overload		via Role overload		via Role overload	
Indirect effect (higher information scarcity)	–	–			.04, <i>SE</i> = .02, 95% CI [-0.001, .079]		.00, <i>SE</i> = .01, 95% CI [-0.013, .007]		-.02, <i>SE</i> = .02, 95% CI [-0.057, .010]		-.01, <i>SE</i> = .01, 95% CI [-0.014, .004]	
Indirect effect (lower information scarcity)	–	–			.07, <i>SE</i> = .02, 95% CI [.027, .115]		.00, <i>SE</i> = .01, 95% CI [-0.009, .016]		.02, <i>SE</i> = .02, 95% CI [-0.003, .057]		.01, <i>SE</i> = .01, 95% CI [-0.003, .016]	
Difference	–	–			.03, 95% CI [-0.023, .091]		.01, 95% CI [-0.016, .029]		-.02, 95% CI [-0.032, -.003]		.01, 95% CI [-0.004, .027]	

Note. *N* = 258. Path coefficients are reported. Leader gender is coded such that male=0, female=1.

† *p* < .10, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001.

Table 12. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables (Study 3)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.
1 Leader self-disclosure depth	0.48	(0.50)	--														
2 Information scarcity	0.47	(0.50)	.08	--													
3 Perceived depth	4.59	(1.64)	.66 **	.13 †	--												
4 Perceived information scarcity	3.67	(1.55)	.33 **	.63 **	.44 **	--											
5 LMX	5.53	(1.17)	.06 **	.05	.08	.17 *	--										
6 Role overload	3.02	(1.68)	.06	-.12 †	.12 †	-.12 †	-.40 **	--									
7 Leader-directed OCB-I	5.67	(1.15)	.01	.04	.10	.12 †	.81 **	-.28 **	--								
8 Interaction avoidance	2.41	(1.51)	-.10	-.06	-.04	-.12 †	-.81 **	.44 **	-.74 **	--							
9 Intent to leave	1.72	(1.05)	-.03	-.12 †	.03	-.16 *	-.70 **	.46 **	-.61 **	.77 **	--						
10 Ostracism	1.43	(0.89)	-.06	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.58 **	.36 **	-.62 **	.68 **	.63 **	--					
11 Relationship tenure	4.00	(4.31)	-.04	-.04	.01	-.02	.08	-.09	.15 *	-.10	-.10	-.12 †	--				
12 Initial liking	5.60	(1.38)	.00	.06	.01	.16 *	.88 **	-.44 **	.69 **	-.80 **	-.73 **	-.51 **	.02	--			
13 Opener predisposition	5.53	(0.95)	.14 *	.00	.25 **	.09	.33 **	-.06	.35 **	-.30 **	-.20 **	-.27 **	.06	.28 **	--		
14 Leader gender ^a	0.57	(0.50)	-.03	.07	.06	.16 *	.02	.04	.05	-.01	-.06	-.02	.13 †	-.06	.00	--	
15 Valence of disclosure	3.88	(0.83)	-.11	.02	-.12 †	.02	.48 **	-.29 **	.36 **	-.37 **	-.39 **	-.36 **	.15 *	.45 **	.17 **	-.01	--
16 Authenticity climate	3.63	(0.91)	-.03	.16 *	-.05	.18 **	.68 **	-.53 **	.55 **	-.63 **	-.63 **	-.45 **	.09	.65 **	.21 **	.03	.46 **

Note. N=204.

^a 0 = Female/Other, 1 = Male

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 13. Results Summary for Study 3

Hypothesis	Without controls	With controls
1	unsupported	supported
2	unsupported	unsupported
3	unsupported	unsupported
4	unsupported	unsupported
5	unsupported	unsupported
6a	unsupported	unsupported
6b	unsupported	unsupported

Table 14. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables (Study 4)

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1 Leader self-disclosure depth	0.51	(0.50)	--								
2 Information scarcity	0.47	(0.50)	.06	--							
3 Perceived depth	5.11	(1.70)	.30 **	.03	--						
4 Perceived information scarcity	3.90	(1.27)	.15 *	.26 **	.35 **	--					
5 LMX	4.07	(0.94)	-.06	-.04	-.12 †	.13 †	--				
6 Role overload	1.80	(0.91)	.03	.01	-.04	.16 *	-.02	--			
7 Leader-directed OCB-I	4.91	(1.05)	.06	-.05	-.03	.00	.61 **	-.06	--		
8 Interaction avoidance	3.28	(1.18)	.03	.04	.15 *	.06	-.54 **	.09	-.47 **	--	
9 Intent to leave	1.82	(0.84)	.13 †	.00	.28 **	-.03	-.33 **	.01	-.18 **	.36 **	--
10 Ostracism	1.61	(0.75)	-.01	.07	.09	.03	-.42 **	.21 **	-.26 **	.60 **	.32 **

Note. N=204.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 15. Results Summary for Study 4

Hypothesis	Results
1	unsupported
2	unsupported
3	unsupported
4	unsupported
5	unsupported
6a	unsupported
6b	unsupported

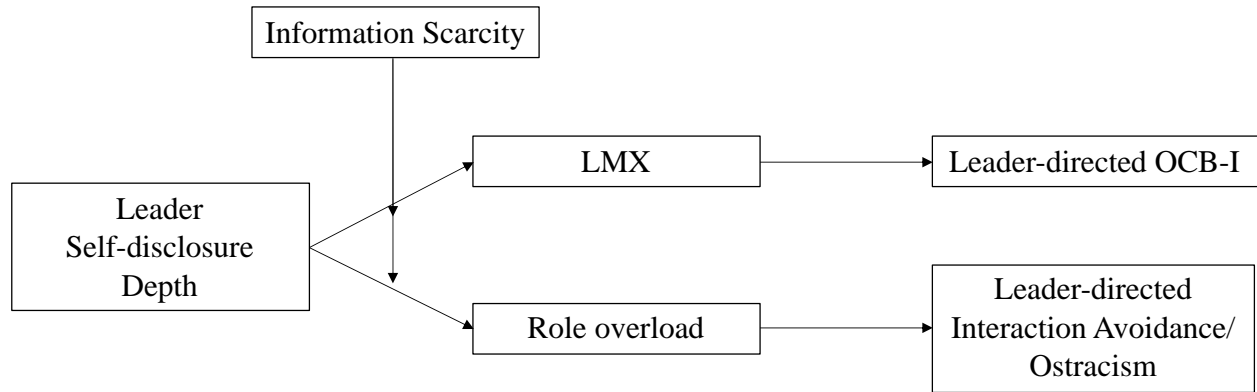
Figure 1. Proposed theoretical model

Figure 2a. The Interactive Effect of Leader Self-disclosure Depth and Information Scarcity on Role Overload without control variables included (Study 2)

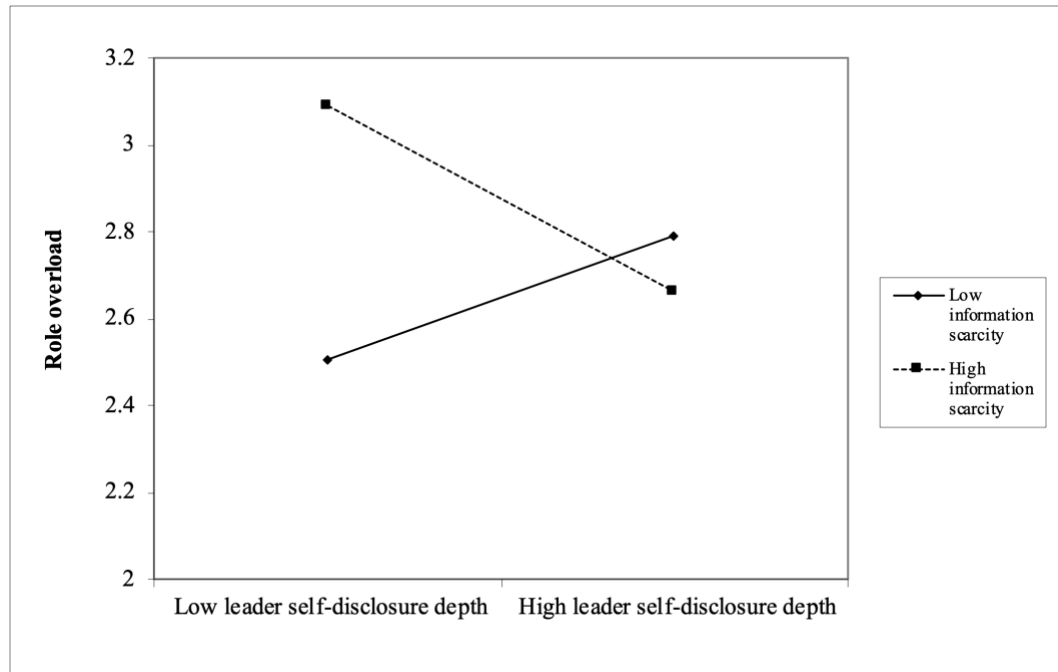
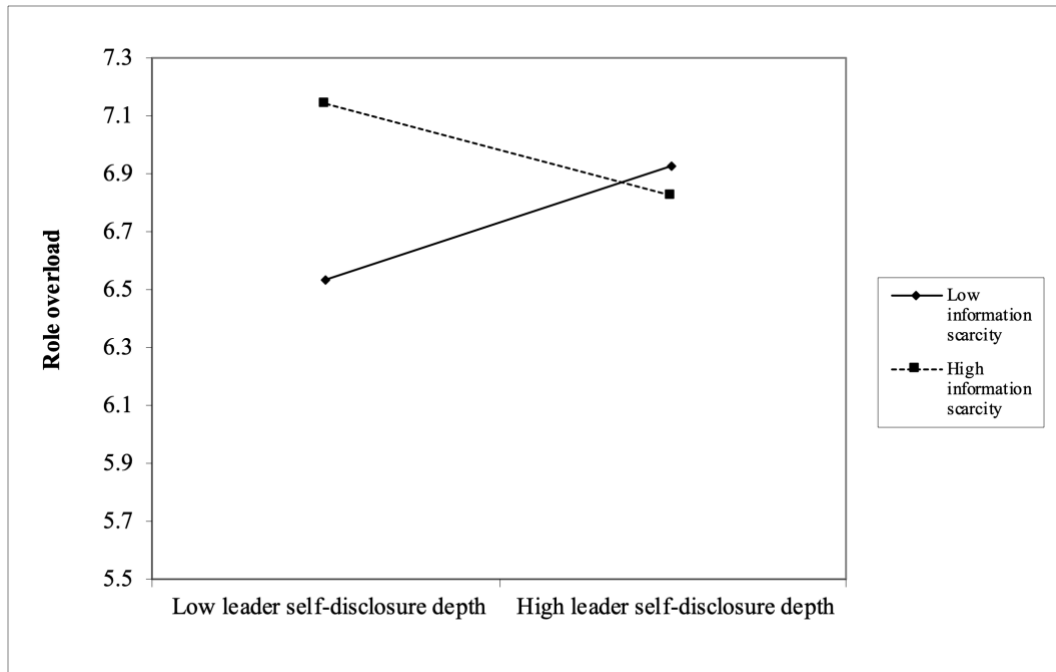


Figure 2b. The Interactive Effect of Leader Self-disclosure Depth and Information Scarcity on Role Overload with control variables included (Study 2)



APPENDIX A

Measures for Studies 1-4

Leader Self-Disclosure Depth

1. My supervisor disclosed intimate information about themselves in their self-disclosure.
2. My supervisor disclosed personal information to me in their self-disclosure.
3. My supervisor shared private information in their self-disclosure.
4. My supervisor fully revealed details about themselves in their self-disclosure.
5. My supervisor intimately revealed details about themselves in their self-disclosure.

Information Scarcity

1. It is unique that my supervisor has shared this information with me.
2. The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is not available to others.
3. The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is not widely available.
4. The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is only available to me.
5. The information my supervisor shared in their self-disclosure is only accessible to me.

LMX (Liden & Maslyn, 1998)

In the following set of questions, think of your immediate manager (or team leader) who rates your performance. Please select your response from the 7 presented below for each question (1 = strongly disagree - 7 = strongly agree).

1. I respect my manager's knowledge of and competence on the job.
2. My manager would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.
3. My manager is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.
4. I do not mind working my hardest for my manager.
5. My manager would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.
6. I like my manager very much as a person.
7. I do work for my manager that goes beyond what is specified in my job description. -
8. I admire my manager's professional skills.
9. My manager defends (would defend) my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.
10. My manager is a lot of fun to work with.
11. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my manager's work goals.
12. I am impressed with my manager's knowledge of his/her job

Role Overload (Peterson et al., 1995)

1. There is a need to reduce some parts of my role
2. I feel overburdened in my role
3. I have been given too much responsibility
4. My work load is too heavy
5. The amount of work I have to do interferes with the quality I want to maintain.

OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

The series of questions below asks you to reflect on some of your typical behaviors at work. Please consider the place where you currently work (1 = strongly disagree - 7 = strongly agree, or not applicable).

1. Help your supervisor when he/she has been absent
2. Help supervisor who has heavy work loads
3. Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).
4. Takes time to listen to supervisor's problems and worries.
5. Goes out of way to help your supervisor.
6. Takes a personal interest in your supervisor
7. Passes along information to your supervisor

Interaction Avoidance (Nifadkar, Tsui, & Ashforth, 2012)

1. I don't speak with my supervisor unless absolutely necessary.
2. I avoid initiating contact with my supervisor.
3. I prefer having minimum informal interactions with my supervisor.
4. I try to minimize official interactions with my supervisor.
5. As far as possible, I don't ask for help or information from my supervisor.
6. I try to stay away from my supervisor as far as possible.
7. I try to have purely official, business-like interaction with my supervisor.
8. "Stay away from the supervisor" is my policy.

Ostracism (Adapted from Ferris et al., 2008)

(1= Never, 2=Once in a while, 3= Sometimes, 4= Fairly often, 5= Often, 6= Constantly, 7= Always)

1. You ignored your supervisor at work.
2. You left the area when your supervisor entered.
3. You did not answer your supervisor's greetings.
4. You let your supervisor sit alone in a crowded lunchroom at work.
5. You avoided your supervisor at work.
6. You did not look at your supervisor at work.
7. You shut your supervisor out of the conversation.
8. You refused to talk to your supervisor at work.
9. You treated your supervisor as if they were not there.
10. You did not invite your supervisor or ask them if they wanted anything when you went out for a coffee break.

Intent to Leave Supervisor for Studies 1-3 (Adapted from Rosin & Korabik, 1991)

1. At this time in your career, to what extent would you want to have a different supervisor if it were possible?
2. To what extent are you actually planning to leave your team/supervisor within the next six months?
3. To what extent are you actively searching to leave your team/supervisor right now?
4. Please indicate to what extent you ever had thoughts of leaving your team/supervisor.

Intent to Leave Supervisor for Study 4 (Adapted from Rosin & Korabik, 1991)

1. To what extent did you want to have a different leader if it had been possible?
2. Please indicate the extent to which you had thoughts of having a different leader during the task.
3. To what extent did you have thoughts about having a different player as the leader of the team?
4. To what extent did you have thoughts of being assigned to a different team for this task?
5. To what extent did you plan to leave your leader to have a different leader?
6. To what extent did you actively search to leave your leader for a different leader?

Revised Self-Disclosure Scale- Control of Depth dimension (Wheless, 1976; 1978)

1. My supervisor intimately discloses who they really are, openly and fully in their conversation.
2. Once my supervisor gets started, their self-disclosures last a long time.
3. My supervisor often discloses intimate, personal things about themselves without hesitation.
4. My supervisor sometimes does not control their self-disclosures of personal or intimate things they tell about themselves.
5. Once my supervisor gets started, they intimately and fully reveal themselves in their self-disclosures.

Leader Humility (Owens & Hekman, 2016)

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

Leader warmth (Fiske et al., 2002)

My leader is tolerant, warm, good natured, sincere

Leader competence (Fiske et al., 2002)

My leader is competent, confident, independent, competitive, intelligent

Authentic Leadership Questionnaire Sample Items (Walumbwa et al., 2008)*Self-Awareness*

1. Seeks feedback to improve interactions with others.

Relational Transparency

2. Says exactly what he or she means.

Internalized Moral Perspective

3. Demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions.

Balanced Processing

4. Solicits views that challenge his or her deeply held positions.

Mentoring (Scandura & Ragins, 1993)

1. Mentor takes a personal interest in my career.
2. Mentor has placed me in important assignments.
3. Mentor gives me special coaching on the job.
4. Mentor advised me about promotional opportunities.
5. I share personal problems with mentor.
6. Mentor helps me coordinate professional goals.
7. I socialize with mentor after work.
8. I try to model my behavior after mentor.
9. I admire mentor's ability to motivate others.
10. I exchange confidences with mentor.
11. I respect mentor's knowledge of the profession.
12. I consider mentor to be a friend.
13. I respect mentor's ability to teach others.
14. Mentor has devoted special time and consideration to my career.
15. I often go to lunch with mentor.

Feeling trusted (Adapted from Mayer & Davis, 1999)

1. My supervisor lets me have significant influence over how I do my job.
2. My supervisor is willing to let me have control over how I do my job.
3. My supervisor doesn't feel the need to 'keep an eye' on me.
4. My supervisor feels comfortable giving a task or problem, even if they could not monitor my actions.
5. My supervisor lets me have an impact on issues that are important to them.

Extraversion (Mount et al., 1994)

I see my leader as

- Extraverted
- Talkative
- Assertive
- Reserved
- quiet
- introverted
- untalkative
- withdrawn
- timid
- shy

Leader Creativity (Zhou & George, 2003)

1. My leader suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives.
2. My leader comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance.
3. My leader suggests new ways to increase quality.
4. My leader promotes and champions ideas to others.
5. My leader exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to.
6. My leader develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.
7. My leader has new and innovative ideas.
8. My leader comes up with creative solutions to problems.

Abusive Supervision (Tepper, 2000)

1. Ridicules me
2. Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. Gives me the silent treatment
4. Puts me down in front of others
5. Invades my privacy
6. Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures
7. Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
8. Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment
9. Breaks promises he/she makes

10. Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason
11. Makes negative comments about me to others
12. Is rude to me
13. Does not allow me to interact with my coworker

Informational Justice (Colquitt, 2001)

The following items refer to your supervisor at the workplace (the authority figure who enacted the procedure in deciding your outcomes, such as pay and promotions). To what extent:

1. Has your supervisors been candid in his/her communications with you?
2. Has your supervisor explained the procedures thoroughly?
3. Were your supervisor explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?
4. Has your supervisor communicated details in a timely manner?
5. Has your supervisor seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?

Climate of Authenticity (Grandey et al, 2011)

1. If you show anxiety or distress with this team, it is held against you (R).
2. Members of this team are able to discuss how they feel about problems and issues.
3. People in this team reject others for showing irritation or frustration in the team (R).
4. It is safe to show how you really feel with this team.
5. It is uncomfortable for team members to show sadness or disappointment with each other (R).
6. No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that disrespects another member's feelings.
7. Working with members of this team, expressions of feelings are respected.

Liking (adapted from Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2013):

1. My supervisor is a pleasant person to me.
2. I enjoy working with my supervisor.
3. Working with my supervisor is a pleasant experience.
4. I fit well with my supervisor.

Opener (Miler et al., 1983)

1. People frequently tell me about themselves
2. I've been told that I'm a good listener
3. I'm very accepting of others
4. People trust me with their secrets
5. I easily get people to "open up"
6. People feel relaxed around me
7. I enjoy listening to people
8. I'm sympathetic to people's problems

9. I encourage people to tell me how they are feeling
10. I can keep people talking about themselves

APPENDIX B

Study 4: Electronic Confederates' Chat Messages

Round	Timing of the Message		
	Before Player 2 (focal participant)'s turn	Before Player 3 (electronic confederate)'s turn	Before Player 1 (electronic confederate)'s turn
1		Leader: Hi team! Hows everyone doing today	Player 1: I'm alright. There's been a lot of things going on but nothing too crazy
2	Leader manipulated message #1: Good start <i>team/'participant's username'</i> [low vs. high scarcity]. FYI I just came straight in after having a <i>quick/very serious</i> [low vs. high depth] talk with my partner so still I'm switching gears. Anyways lets keep this going!		
3			Player 1: this seems fun. The last time I played this sort of game was such a long time ago i cant even rmb
4			
5		Player 3: How do you think we are doing compared to other teams?	Player 1: i think we're doing good 'player 3's username'
6			
7	Leader manipulated message #2: "Nice work <i>team/'participant's username'</i> ! [low vs. high scarcity]. This is better than what I have to do afterwards. I need to go back and discuss things with my partner... My inlaws <i>lost their keys/are about to file for bankruptcy</i> [low vs. high depth] so its been very troubling"		
8		Leader: bet there are 1000 uses we can do this team	
9			Player 1: good one 'participant's username'

10		Player 3: this is hard i'm running out of good ideas..	Leader: Try to think outside the box
11			Leader: we dont have much time left
12		Player 3: Almost sad this game is coming to an end	