WHEN BEING AUTHENTIC IS NOT ENOUGH: EVALUATION OF MODERATING EFFECT OF SOCIAL PROXIMITY ON THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP ON FOLLOWER'S SOCIAL IDENTITY THREAT.

ABSTRACT

Labor force is becoming more diverse than ever, yet Negative Stereotype Threats (NSTs) still inhibit the performance of the employees who belong to negatively stereotyped social groups (e.g., non-whites, poor, or residents of economically disadvantaged communities) across various types of workforce. Current research shows fair treatment as an underlying influence mechanism through which ethical leadership affects followers' stereotype threats. Based on a field experiment with sixty slum dwellers that included a real job position recruitment and reliable biological measures of anxiety, we find that ethical leaders' fairness - as compared to authentic leaders' internalized moral perspective - is more capable of minimizing physiological effects of social identity threat of the followers. This study shows that direct supervisors have the key ability to reduce threats that could impact their followers' performance.

Key words: ethical leadership, stereotype threat, slum dwellers

INTRODUCTION

Organizations are becoming increasingly heterogeneous, due to demographic changes in the workforce, employee mobility, globalization, and growing specialization (Jackson & Joshi, 2011). While on one hand the number of individuals with diverse ethnic and social origins working in companies has been increasing (Ritzer & Dean, 2015), the cases of prejudice against individuals from negatively stereotyped groups (e.g., black and employees from low-income neighborhoods) have not been significantly reduced over the years (Burns & Gimpel, 2000) and even in the most successful companies, the employees still report the difference between diversity and real inclusion ("Diversity and inclusion at the workplace | Deloitte University Press," 2017).

In the present study, we focus on these individuals who suffer from the stigma and the stereotyping associated with being poor (Hall, Zhao & Shafir, 2013), and are also scorned upon, perceived as incompetent, and disrespected (Fiske, 2011). Specifically, we assess the experience of stereotype threat among residents of low-income neighborhoods (e.g., slum dwellers) who in addition to prejudice and negative stereotypes related to their ethnicity and income, are also the targets of negative stereotypes related to where they live (Neri, 2010).

Prior research shows that slum dwellers are negatively stereotyped even in comparison to other groups with similar income and educational level (Preteceille, E., & Valladares, L., 2000). Further, when they are members of a work team, individuals from negatively stereotype groups often worry about performing poorly and confirming the negative stereotype regarding, for instance, their intellectual inferiority (Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002). This state is known as negative stereotype threat (NST) and prior studies have documented many situations in which the fear of being negatively stereotyped about one's social identity causes detrimental impacts on these individuals' intellectual performance and cognitive capacity (Spencer, Logel, & Davies, 2016). However, only from the beginning of the 2000s, there has been a growing stream of organizational behavior literature on the effects of NST on employee's wellbeing and subsequent behavior (e.g., Roberson & Kulik, 2007).

While existing research has been predominantly focused on investigating the main effects of NST on employee's behavior and its physiological pathway, the present study aims to shed light on the leader's role in buffering their followers' NST, as it is yet to be fully explored by the existing literature. More specifically, our main goal is to find the most effective leadership style for an ethnically and income-diverse team.

This work addresses a significant gap in social identity theory and leadership literature by assessing an important interaction between leadership styles and company's social identity contingencies. Further, we provide evidence of significant differences in terms of outcomes of ethical and authentic leadership, which have often been considered overlapping constructs (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan, & Prussia, 2013). We also aim to contribute to the already existing research regarding slum dwellers and explore the ways in which the threat experienced by employees who have more than one negatively viewed social identity, can be diminished. Finally, in order to better and more objectively assess the level of anxiety experienced by the negatively stereotyped employees, we have designed an experimental procedure, in which salivary cortisol and blood pressure measures were collected.

BACKGROUND LITERATURE

Negative Stereotypes Threats.

According to social identity theory, people derive part of their self-image from their group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The NST occurs when an individual from a low status or stereotyped social group is aware of a stereotype related to their group public negative image (for a review, see: (Spencer et al., 2016). It results in the group member's perception that they can be evaluated through the lense the stereotype of their group and this possibility makes them feel threatened.

NST affects the targets even before they act (Steele, Spencer & Aronson, 2002). Specifically, if the negative stereotype of their group suggests that he or she will not perform well on a task (e.g., blacks have lower intellectual ability than whites), it can cause a threatening feeling, accompanied by increased anxiety to disconfirm the negative stereotype, which can negatively impact their consequent performance (Spencer et al., 2016).

Performance deficits caused by NSTs were found among a variety of stigmatized groups rooted in the prevailing stereotyping image of intellectually inferior, such as lower income groups (Croizet & Claire, 1998), blacks (Steele & Aronson, 1995), minority students (González, 2002), as well as women (Inzlicht & Ben-Zeev, 2000). Moreover, prior literature suggests that the inhibiting effect of NST on performance can occure in virtually all kinds of tasks including physical performance (Von Hippel, Hawkins, & Schooler, 2001), memory tests (Schmader & Johns, 2003), or creative tasks (Seibt & Förster, 2004).

NST cues emerging from the workplace.

It has been shown that the strength of the NST experienced by one person depends on how much one identifies with the group and with the domain of activity to which the stereotype applies (Aronson et al., 1999; Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, Doosje, & others, 1999). In other words, the more one cares about a domain, the more upset one is likely to become over being negatively stereotyped (Steele, Spencer & Aronson, 2002). Thus, the workplace seems to be a highly relevant setting for NSTs to occur.

In fact, prior research in organizational behavior has been documenting different situations in which the work environment can provide salient cues of social identity threats to stereotyped employees and that vulnerable individuals enter each space vigilant to any cues that

signal whether the stereotype is endorsed or rejected there (Murphy, Steele, & Gross, 2007). For instance, the composition of a company workforce can be a threatening cue for employees from stereotyped groups (e.g., black, slum dwellers) when they are numerically underrepresented (Murphy et al., 2007) . The low visibility of the members of certain social groups can reinforce their low-status perceptions and the high relevance of hidden but widespread negative stereotypes. Thus, underrepresentation in organizations is one example of a situational cue that triggers peoples' expectations about the kinds of social identity contingencies they may face, and these expectations affect whether people can trust and feel comfortable in a given setting (Roberson et al., 2003).

The effect of NSTs on performance.

As it has been mentioned before, the targets experiencing the NSTs, report higher levels of stress and anxiety, which can be objectively assessed via blood pressure and salivary cortisol measurement (Blascovich et al., 2001; Lepore et al., 2006). These negative feelings deplete cognitive resources that could otherwise be used in task performance (Schmader, Johns, & Forbes, 2008). Moreover, it is not only stress by itself that is depleting them, rather, the depletion of resources results from the individual's coping efforts (Baumeister et al., 1999). To cope with NSTs effects (e.g., stress and anxiety), people appraise emotions experienced during a specific episode (Carver & Weintraub, 1989), which involves resource-demanding cognitive strategies, such as emotion regulation and thought suppression (Logel et al., 2009). In consequence, individuals threatened by NSTs may become unable or unwilling to control and self-regulate in cases where self-control is required. Hence, coping with NST leaves people with fewer volitional resources to perform (Inzlicht & Kang, 2010).

Leadership overriding the effect of NSTs.

Since the experience of NST is related to context and environment (Murphy et al., 2007), to reduce it, one should act on trying to change the context by removing people from token situations (McIntyre, Paulson, & Lord, 2003). As leadership processes play an important role in influencing the organizational and follower's well-being (Hollander, 1986), it seems that leaders may have credentials to change the working context and either diminish or increase the salience of threatening cues. In that line, it has been shown that in the presence of ingroup members in positions of power, stereotyped employees experience higher sense of belonging and motivation to perform (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016). Additionally, other studies have demonstrated that the belief that the leader endorses the negative stereotype, increases the chance of discarding negative feedback by the follower.

In sum, it seems that the leader holds an important role in neutralizing the effects of NSTs and creating an environment in which social composition does not limit the followers' performance potential. This study aims to test if leaders can mitigate followers' anxiety and stress related effects of NST. Specifically, our main goal is to test which of the value-based leadership styles (ethical or authentic) is the most effective in terms of reducing stereotyped followers' NSTs.

Value-based leadership

Authentic leadership

Authentic leadership has been conceptualized as a type of leader's behavior that is marked by their self-awareness, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of

information, and relational transparency (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008).Self- awareness is understood as a high level of self-knowledge as well as other people's behaviors, values, feelings, and cognitions (Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017; Nelson et al., 2014). Second dimension of authentic leadership, internalized moral perspective, is a frequent behavioral and verbal demonstration of the leader's beliefs and values (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Balanced processing of information is the ability to engage in objective analysis of issues from various viewpoints (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Walumbwa et al., 2008). Finally, the dimension of relational transparency constitutes leader's desire to create relationships based on trust and transparency with their subordinates (Kernis & Goldman, 2006).

Prior research concerning authentic leaders has shown that it predicts several positive follower-related outcomes., such as employee's performance, job satisfaction, and psychological well-being (Birkeland Nielsen, Eid, Mearns, & Larsson, 2013; Wong & Laschinger, 2013).

Moreover, previous studies have established some mechanisms underlying these relationships. Specifically, in case of performance it has been shown that self-aware authentic leaders, who understand the importance of self-knowledge, give their followers a necessary autonomy to learn and develop new skills, and thus empower them to work better (Wong & Laschinger, 2013). Contrastingly, the positive influence on the employee's well-being has been contributed to the positive and transparent relationships with the followers, as well as predictability and trust in the leader's behavior (Birkeland Nielsen et al., 2013; Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun, & Frey, 2012).

Ethical leadership

Its two main dimensions, that the ethical leaders use to influence their followers, are called "moral person" and "moral manager" (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Specifically, the theory states that not only are they perceived as honest and fair in and outside of the company (moral person), they also deliberately intent to improve their followers'moral behavior by informing what kind of actions are acceptable (Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2000). In order to do that, ethical leaders establish punishment and rewards system (moral manager) (Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003). In consequence, the leader becomes an ethical role model, who provides a clear message about ethical norms of the group.

Ethical leadership has been linked to several important followers' outcomes like lower turnover intentions and decreased unethical behavior (Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012). Moreover, it has been found to increase helping behavior in teams (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Kacmar, Andrews, Harris, & Tepper, 2013). In addition, ethical leaders positively influence their employee's psychological well-being and job satisfaction (Avey, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012).

Moderating effects of value-based leadership on the negative effects of NSTs

Taken together, prior studies have shown that both ethical and authentic leadership styles have proven to positively impact a range of employee's behaviors, cognitions and emotions. Moreover, also on theoretical lever, there has been a point raised regarding a certain overlap between the two constructs. In particular, Brown and Trevino stressed that these leadership styles are rooted in altruism and are based on ethical decision-making and integrity (Brown & Treviño, 2006). However, a key difference between them is that while authentic leaders are self-oriented, engage in active development of their self-concept, and give their employees certain autonomy to do the same (Wong & Laschinger, 2013; Yukl et al., 2013), ethical leaders are other-oriented and by emphasizing group norms, make salient the group

identity the followers can adopt (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Mayer et al., 2012). Thus, it seems reasonable to believe that ethical and authentic leadership will have differential effects in certain contexts.

The NST experience involves a high level of vigilance and uncertainty about how the stereotyped employees will be treated in the environment, where their social group is underrepresented (Murphy et al., 2007). In such situations, it is difficult to anticipate and plan actions, therefore, individuals perceive it as a negative state and are motivated to reverse it (Hogg & Adelman, 2013). Therefore, it seems that a leader who would be most effective in terms of diminishing this anxiety would be the one who could help to reduce the uncertainty about the endorsement of the negative stereotypes in the environment. We argue ethical leadership will be more successful due to two main reasons.

Firstly, ethical leaders provide clear message regarding group values and accepted behaviors and stress the importance of universal ethical principles, demonstrate consistent moral actions, and the use of the reward-punishment system, ethical leaders help to create socially salient ethical group norms (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005; Jordan, Brown, Treviño, & Finkelstein, 2013; Mayer et al., 2012). The emphasis on such standards that are also easily recognizable due to their universality, should significantly reduce the uncertainty regarding the possible unfair treatment by the leader, even if they belong to a different social group than the stereotyped individual.

Secondly, among many strategies that are able to reduce the negative effects of NST are those that are based on expanding the negative identity or providing it with positive meaning by blurring the differences between ingroup and outgroup (e.g. Kray, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2002; Rydell & Boucher, 2009). For instance, when women were asked to focus on the characteristics shared with men, they chose less stereotypical professions (Rosenthal & Crisp, 2006). Also consistent and universally applied treatment has been associated with group processes. Specifically, it has been found that followers who believe they are being treated fairly in group context, use this information to confirm their positive relationship with the group and then engage in extra-role behaviors (Blader & Tyler, 2009). Therefore we believe that ethical leaders who apply their ethical norms equally to all of their followers will help to diminish perceived differences with the leader and other group members, facilitate group identification of the stereotyped employees, and diminish their anxiety in the context of intergroup relations.

Contrastingly, the positive influence of authentic leaders, seems to be based on trust and empowerment (Peus et al., 2012; Wong & Laschinger, 2013). However, it has been found to the literature has shown that one of the conditions under which the trust takes considerably longer to develop are intergroup relations (Orbell, Dawes, & Schwartz-Shea, 1994). A reason behind it is the ingroup bias, which prompts the people to perceive members of their groups as more honest and cooperative (Brewer, 1996; Kramer, 1999; Orbell et al., 1994). An authentic leader can be then deemed as untrustworthy by the employees who perceive they do not belong to the same social group as the leader. Furthermore, prior literature shows that in the situations of uncertainty people look for additional information in order to reduce it (Lipshitz & Strauss, 1997). The behavior of authentic leaders , that is solely based on their internalized moral perspective and their past experiences (Shamir & Eilam, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008), can be interpreted then as ambiguous and less predictable than the behavior of ethical leaders who reference in their discourse universal moral principles (Jordan et al., 2013). Henceforth, besides all the positive aspects of the authentically leader in promoting followers' self-awareness and being true to themselves, the immediate reaction of a follower to an authentic, yet socially distant, leader should be distrust.

For these reasons, we propose that the positive influence of authentic leadership effect on followers will be undermined in the situation of high social distance between the leader and

the followers. This is due the ingroup bias and the fact that the leader's moral code has been shaped by his or her past experiences unknown to the follower. In contrast, based on self-categorization theory, we posit that the ethical leaders' uniformed treatment and salient communication of group norms will help to remove the stereotyped follower's focus from their stereotyped identity, help them to identify with their work group, and diminish negative effects of NST.

Thus, we posit that there will be different reactions to stress and anxiety between treatment groups, as measured by salivary cortisol and blood pressure variations, depending on which leadership style the participants will be exposed to and social proximity to the leader.

H1: Ethical leader condition will reduce blood pressure level, while authentic leader condition will increase it among black slum dwellers (high social distance).

H2: Ethical leader condition will reduce salivary cortisol level, while authentic leader condition will increase it among black slum dwellers (high social distance).

H3: There will be no difference in blood pressure and salivary cortisol level for white slum dwellers (low social identity distance).

METHOD

The purpose of this field study was to examine whether an authentic or ethical leadership style can have an alleviating effect on employees from impoverished areas marked by negative stereotypes (e.g., slum dwellers) in diverse teams. In order to do that, we assessed the physiological impact of different leadership styles on a diverse team in a threatening organization. In the study we employed between-subjects design, where leader's working style and his interaction with the confederate team members were manipulated to expose them to either ethical or authentic leadership style. Additionally, we collected data regarding subjects' race in order to assess their social distance from the white actor playing the leader's role.

Sample and Design

Seventy-two participants were recruited in an impoverished community located in the city of Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil (63% women, 56% non-white, M_{age}=27.47, SD_{age} =10.44). To reach a slum dwellers sample, we signed a research partnership with an NGO located at a thick set of Brazilian slums. Research assistants who recruited participants were two non-white university students that live in this neighborhood (i.e., in-group members). All participants were contacted only by one of this two experimenters, who invited them to participate in recruitment session for a real temporary job position of a research assistant, followed by a study with academic purposes. To ensure the subjects came from poor areas of the city, we recruited all participants from the same set of slums and, before starting the experiment, asked them to confirm their residence. Indeed all of 72 participants informed that they lived in that neighborhood. Furthermore, the subjects signed the consent, where they agreed to the collection of their biomedical measures for academic purposes.

Procedure

To assess whether ethical leadership would be more relevant than the authentic style in alleviating the negative effects of NSTs on followers, we manipulated direct leader styles in a real hiring process for a real job position. It was conducted with negatively stereotyped subjects

(i.e., dwellers of poor Brazilian slums) in a threatening setting, following the procedures from prior literature (Derks, Van Laar, & Ellemers, 2007).

The experiment took place in a Brazilian private research institution, far from the poor slum communities in a high income neighborhood. This setting contained many threatening social identity cues for the slum dwellers (e.g, blacks and poor' underrepresentation, outgroup members as leaders, work demanding high intellectual ability). Participants were invited to go to this institution to participate in recruitment process for a real temporarily position of research assistant in this institution, followed by a study with academic purposes, in exchange for a monetary compensation of $ 17. Additionally, the participant selected for the research assistant position would receive additional $107 for the first three working days period, and they could have the opportunity of being offered a permanent position afterwords.

The participants arrived in groups of 15 in a private transportation offered by the researchers. Upon their arrival, under a pretense of participating in an unrelated study, they were invited to a room, where they completed a questionaire including demographic items and other items that assessed their perceptions of the stereotyped image of their social group (Branscombe & Wann, 1994) in the working environment (i.e., slum dwellers' public collective self-esteem about the working setting). This measure was used to provide evidence for our assumption that individuals from this social group have negative perceptions of their reputation (i.e., public image) in the workplace environment.

After completing this questionnaire, a trained pharmacologist (specialist in hormone measures contracted for our study), measured participants blood pressure, supposedly to provide medical information for them. After the measures took place, an actor, invited to act as their potential direct supervisor, was presented to them. The leader explained how he worked with his team, and what rules he followed in regards to his team and the institution. For each treatment condition, the leader's discourse was manipulated to create the scenario of the ethical or the authentic leadership, based on the most cited literature on these leadership styles (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Yukl et al., 2013)

In addition, to reinforce and to show the leader's style in practice, the leader also made interaction with two confederates from the subjects' outgroup (white, high income, members of the research team), who were supposed to be the leader's subordinates. Confederate 1 simulated a late arrival to the session that he was supposed to participate in with the rest of the team. Consequently, we manipulated the way each leader dealt with this follower transgression. Specifically, while the ethical leader, punished the confederate referencing a broken group norm against tardiness, the authentic leader did so by referencing his past experiences in which being late negatively impacted his results. In contrast, Confederate 2 played the role of a subordinate who was praised by the leader in front of everyone. In particular, the ethical leader applauded the follower's contribution to the achievement of team goal (staying late the night before to prepare the recruitment session) and the authentic leader mentioned the follower's dedication in the achievement of an individual goal (receiving scholarship from a foreign university).

After the leader speech and interaction with participants, our pharmacologist and her team measured participants' blood pressure again, under the pretense of confirming the first measure results. They also collected participants saliva to conduct the analysis of salivary cortisol levels (such as Edmiston, Blain & Corbett, 2017) developed by the company IPRO (Macdonald, Bellinger & Minahan, 2016), a robust test in psychological and biological fields literature.

In addition, we measured all participants' blood pressure two times: before (time 1 measure) and after the contact with the leader (time 2 measure). Because of financial restrictions of the project, and high prices of the salivary cortisol measure, we assessed salivary cortisol of only 48 randomly selected participants from both treatment conditions.

Main results

Confirming our predictions, ethical leadership had significantly different impact on the systolic blood pressure of black slum dwellers under NST than the authentic leaderhsip. While ethical leaders reduced ($M_{pressure_dif}$= -3.20) their systolic blood pressure from the time 1 (before the leader contact) to the time 2, authentic leader increased ($M_{pressure_dif}$ =3.00) their blood pressure (t(45)= 2.14; p= 0.038). These differences remained even controlling for demographics.

Figure 1

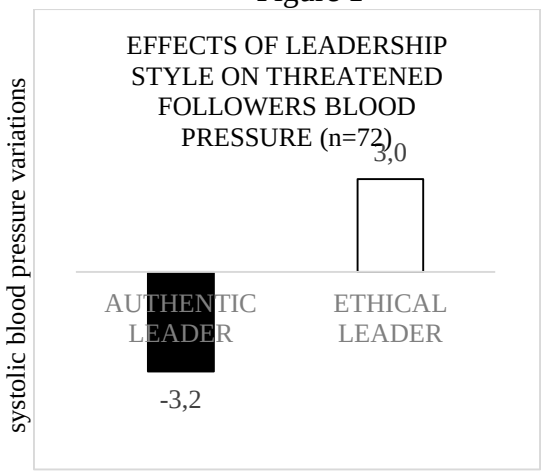
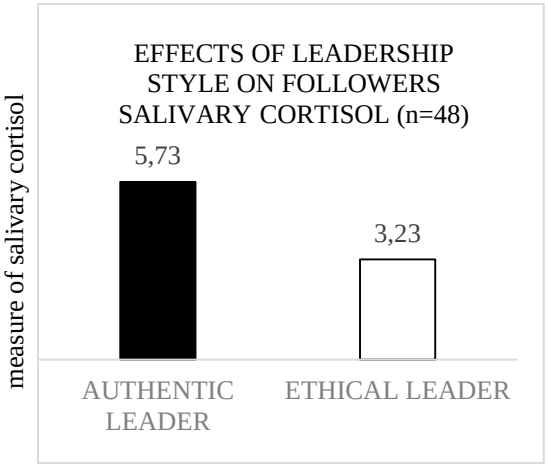


Figure 2



Providing more robustness for these results, participants exposed to the ethical leader had significantly lower salivary cortisol level ($M_{cortisol}$= 3.23) than participants exposed to the authentic leader (Mcortisol = 5.73) right after the leader's discourse (t(34)= 2.19; p= 0.035). These differences also remained even controlling for demographics. For the non-black participants sample, there was neither significant difference in systolic blood pressure variations (t(11)=-0.64; p>0.05), nor in salivary cortisol levels (t(9)=-1,33; p>0.05) between leadership styles conditions. However, since most our slum dwellers sample is non-white, the small white sample limits the strength of our results for this group.

CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

The results of the present field experiment provide initial evidence that the ethical leader has the ability to create an identity safer setting for threatened followers, alleviating their anxiety and stress. The moral identity offered and enforced by ethical leader's reward and punishment system resulted in the salience of high group ethical standards. This suggests that equal and consistently fair treatment of the followers from distinct status groups comparing in diverse teams can render positive outcomes and reduce the negative effect of NSTs on performance.

Although more studies are necessary to confirm our conclusions, we believe that the experimental design that we employed, which contains real financial outcomes and physiological measures, possesses significant external validity.

In the future research on this topic, we aim to execute the same procedure with the inclusion of manipualted social distance between the leader and the follower so that we could condirm the results of this study. The current work is helping to fulfill an important gap in social identity threat and leadership fields addressing the ignored interaction between leadership styles

and company's social identity contingencies in the context of high social distance between the follower and the leader.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aronson, J., Lustina, M. J., Good, C., Keough, K., Steele, C. M., & Brown, J. (1999). When white men can't do math: Necessary and sufficient factors in stereotype threat. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *35*(1), 29–46.

Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Palanski, M. E. (2012). Exploring the process of ethical leadership: The mediating role of employee voice and psychological ownership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *107*(1), 21–34.

Birkeland Nielsen, M., Eid, J., Mearns, K., & Larsson, G. (2013). Authentic leadership and its relationship with risk perception and safety climate. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *34*(4), 308–325.

Blader, S. L., & Tyler, T. R. (2009). Testing and extending the group engagement model: linkages between social identity, procedural justice, economic outcomes, and extrarole behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(2), 445.

Branscombe, N. R., Ellemers, N., Spears, R., Doosje, B., & others. (1999). The context and content of social identity threat. *Social Identity: Context, Commitment, Content*, 35–58.

Brewer, M. B. (1996). In-group favoritism: The subtle side of intergroup discrimination. *Codes of Conduct: Behavioral Research and Business Ethics*, 160–171.

Brown, M. E., & Treviño, L. K. (2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *17*(6), 595–616.

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *97*(2), 117–134.

Croizet, J.-C., & Claire, T. (1998). Extending the Concept of Stereotype Threat to Social Class: The Intellectual Underperformance of Students from Low Socioeconomic Backgrounds. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *24*(6), 588–594. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167298246003

Demirtas, O., & Akdogan, A. A. (2015). The Effect of Ethical Leadership Behavior on Ethical Climate, Turnover Intention, and Affective Commitment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *130*(1), 59–67.

Derks, B., Van Laar, C., & Ellemers, N. (2007). Social creativity strikes back: Improving motivated performance of low status group members by valuing ingroup dimensions. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *37*(3), 470–493. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.375

Diversity and inclusion at the workplace | Deloitte University Press. (n.d.). Retrieved July 16, 2017, from https://dupress.deloitte.com/dup-us-en/focus/human-capital-trends/2017/diversity-and-inclusion-at-the-workplace.html?id=us:2el:3dc:dup3825:awa:cons:hct17#endnote-17

Epitropaki, O., Kark, R., Mainemelis, C., & Lord, R. G. (2017). Leadership and followership identity processes: A multilevel review. *The Leadership Quarterly*.

González, K. P. (2002). Campus Culture and the Experiences of Chicano Students in a Predominantly White University. *Urban Education*, *37*(2), 193–218. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085902372003

Hoch, J. E., Bommer, W. H., Dulebohn, J. H., & Wu, D. (2016). Do ethical, authentic, and servant leadership explain variance above and beyond transformational leadership? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management*, 0149206316665461.

Hogg, M. A., & Adelman, J. (2013). Uncertainty–identity theory: Extreme groups, radical behavior, and authoritarian leadership. *Journal of Social Issues*, *69*(3), 436–454.

Hollander, E. P. (1986). On the central role of leadership processes. *Applied Psychology*, *35*(1), 39–52.

Hoyt, C. L., & Murphy, S. E. (2016). Managing to clear the air: Stereotype threat, women, and leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*.

Inzlicht, M., & Ben-Zeev, T. (2000). A threatening intellectual environment: why females are susceptible to experiencing problem-solving deficits in the presence of males. *Psychological Science : A Journal of the American Psychological Society / APS*, *11*(5), 365–371. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.00272

Jordan, J., Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Finkelstein, S. (2013). Someone to look up to executive–follower ethical reasoning and perceptions of ethical leadership. *Journal of Management*, *39*(3), 660–683.

Kacmar, K. M., Andrews, M. C., Harris, K. J., & Tepper, B. J. (2013). Ethical Leadership and Subordinate Outcomes: The Mediating Role of Organizational Politics and the Moderating Role of Political Skill. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *115*(1), 33–44.

Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2006). A multicomponent conceptualization of authenticity: Theory and research. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *38*, 283–357.

Kramer, R. M. (1999). Trust and distrust in organizations: Emerging perspectives, enduring questions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *50*(1), 569–598.

Kray, L. J., Galinsky, A. D., & Thompson, L. (2002). Reversing the gender gap in negotiations: An exploration of stereotype regeneration. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *87*(2), 386–409.

Lipshitz, R., & Strauss, O. (1997). Coping with uncertainty: A naturalistic decision-making analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *69*(2), 149–163.

Mayer, D. M., Aquino, K., Greenbaum, R. L., & Kuenzi, M. (2012). Who displays ethical leadership, and why does it matter? An examination of antecedents and consequences of ethical leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(1), 151–171.

Murphy, M. C., Steele, C. M., & Gross, J. J. (2007). Signaling threat how situational cues affect women in math, science, and engineering settings. *Psychological Science*, *18*(10), 879–885.

Nelson, K., Boudrias, J.-S., Brunet, L., Morin, D., De Civita, M., Savoie, A., & Alderson, M. (2014). Authentic leadership and psychological well-being at work of nurses: The mediating role of work climate at the individual level of analysis. *Burnout Research*, *1*(2), 90–101.

Neri, M. (2010). Desigualdades e Favelas Cariocas-a cidade partida está se integrando. *CPS/FGV, Rio de Janeiro*.

Orbell, J., Dawes, R., & Schwartz-Shea, P. (1994). Trust, social categories, and individuals: The case of gender. *Motivation and Emotion*, *18*(2), 109–128.

Peus, C., Wesche, J. S., Streicher, B., Braun, S., & Frey, D. (2012). Authentic leadership: An empirical test of its antecedents, consequences, and mediating mechanisms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *107*(3), 331–348.

Rosenthal, H. E., & Crisp, R. J. (2006). Reducing stereotype threat by blurring intergroup boundaries. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *32*(4), 501–511.

Rydell, R. J., & Boucher, K. L. (2009). Capitalizing on multiple social identities to prevent stereotype threat: The moderating role of self-esteem. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*.

Schmader, T., & Johns, M. (2003). Converging evidence that stereotype threat reduces working memory capacity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(3), 440.

Schmader, T., Johns, M., & Forbes, C. (2008). An integrated process model of stereotype threat effects on performance. *Psychological Review*, *115*(2), 336.

Seibt, B., & Förster, J. (2004). Stereotype threat and performance: how self-stereotypes influence processing by inducing regulatory foci. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *87*(1), 38.

Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). "What's your story?" A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *16*(3), 395–417.

Spencer, S. J., Logel, C., & Davies, P. G. (2016). Stereotype Threat. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *67*(1), 415–37. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-073115-103235

Steele, C. M., & Aronson, J. (1995). Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*(5), 797.

Treviño, L. K., Brown, M., & Hartman, L. P. (2003). A qualitative investigation of perceived executive ethical leadership: Perceptions from inside and outside the executive suite. *Human Relations*, *56*(1), 5–37.

Trevino, L. K., Hartman, L. P., & Brown, M. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California Management Review*, *42*(4), 128–142.

Von Hippel, W., Hawkins, C., & Schooler, J. W. (2001). Stereotype distinctiveness: how counterstereotypic behavior shapes the self-concept. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*(2), 193.

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure†. *Journal of Management*, *34*(1), 89–126.

Wong, C. A., & Laschinger, H. K. (2013). Authentic leadership, performance, and job satisfaction: the mediating role of empowerment. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *69*(4), 947–959.

Yukl, G., Mahsud, R., Hassan, S., & Prussia, G. E. (2013). An improved measure of ethical leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *20*(1), 38–48.