



SELF-AWARENESS TRIGGER LEADING TO AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP: CONCEPTUALIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF RELIABLE AND VALID SELF-AWARENESS TRIGGER SCALE

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Abstract

Various researchers have emphasized the role of self-awareness triggers (SATs) and their impact on authentic leadership, but a review of the literature shows a lack of conceptualisation and reliable scales to examine self-awareness triggers. Thus, this study developed a reliable and valid scale, and examined the role of self-awareness triggers in authentic leadership. The research was based on four separate studies to develop the scale and analyse the impact of the SAT on authentic leadership. In Study 1, the self-awareness trigger was operationalized, and items were generated using qualitative research. Study 2 conducted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to examine the factor structure of the construct. Study 3 conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine construct validity. Reliability and construct validity were assessed based on composite reliability, convergent validity, and divergent validity. Scale development led to a two-dimensional self-awareness trigger scale. Study 4 examined the impact of the SAT on authentic leadership. We collected data on authentic leadership from team members, and self-awareness trigger data from team leaders. Data were collected from full-time employees in the financial sector of India. The study had 471 dyads of team leaders and team members. Findings indicated that SAT is related positively to authentic leadership. Findings suggest that organizations proactively can enhance authentic leadership through SAT.

Keywords: Authentic Leadership, Self-Awareness Triggers, Interpersonal Triggers, Internal Triggers

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, an increasing number of academicians and practitioners have noted the need to adopt authentic leadership (AL) for sustainable business performance (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Covegli & Mason, 2017; George, 2003; Malik & Khan, 2019). There also is a demand from society for organizational leaders to not only emphasize generating

profit, but maintain high levels of integrity and morality (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2008). Authentic leadership behavior provides not only the means to build an effective follower-leader relationship, but also to rebuild employee trust and foster corporate employee behavior (George & Sims, 2007). Authentic leadership is characterized by a leader's transparency, genuineness, openness, self-awareness, and clarity in behavior (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Wang et al., 2014).

Defining the genuineness of leaders, George and Sims (2007) described authentic leaders as genuine individuals who do not act as per the expectations of others: “true to themselves and to what they believe in. Rather than letting the expectations of other people guide them, they are prepared to be their own person and go their own way” (p. xxxi). Wong and Cummins (2009) stated that “authentic leaders value and work to achieve transparency and truthfulness in their relationships by asking for feedback, listening and accepting other viewpoints, and acting on suggestions” (p. 2). Further explaining the openness and transparency of authentic leaders, Shrivastava (2018) and Tapara (2011) stated that authentic leaders tend to demonstrate openness and transparency by not hiding their vulnerability but by illustrating their ability to accept different views from various stakeholders. Kernis (2003) defined self-awareness as “having awareness of, and trust in, one’s motives, feelings, desires, and self-relevant cognitions” (p. 13). This implies that through self-reflection, individuals become aware of their strengths, weakness, motives, and values. Nielsen, Mearns, and Larsson (2013) stated that “transparency, self-awareness, balanced processing, and moral perspectives are integrated parts in the leader-follower exchange that can contribute to worker perceptions of safety climate” (p. 322).

Various studies have examined the positive impact of authentic leadership on individual and organizational outcomes, for example, organizational performance (e.g., Laraib & Hashmi, 2018; Ling et al., 2017; Luu, 2020; Ribeiro, Duarte & Filipe, 2018; Wong & Laschinger, 2013), job satisfaction (Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015; Wong & Laschinger, 2013), organizational commitment (e.g., Emuwa, 2013; Baker, 2020), trust in the leader (Wong et al., 2010; Maximo, Stander & Coxen, 2019), and unique vision (Loci, 2016). However, comparatively, few studies have examined antecedents of authentic leadership—e.g., psychological capital (Petersen & Youssef-Morgan, 2018) or emotional intelligence (Miao, Humphrey & Qian, 2018).

A lifespan perspective requires analyzing leadership development to better understand the role of critical events or triggers that stimulate positive growth in leaders (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Triggers were described by Luthans & Avolio (2003) as both

positive and negative events that can lead to leadership development. Luthans and Avolio (2003) argued that “traditionally negative trigger events are considered to contribute significantly to leadership development, but we also believe that positive events can trigger leadership development” (p. 247). Substantiating this argument, drawing from the life stories approach, Shamir and Eilam (2005) stated that “reflection into key life events over the time facilitates positive self-development” (p. 398). Furthermore, a conceptual framework for authentic leadership and the follower’s development model proposed by Gardner et al. (2005) postulates that “personal history and key trigger events as antecedents for authentic leadership development” (Gardner et al., 2005).

Although various researchers have postulated the positive role of trigger events (e.g., Gardner et al., 2005; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Shamir & Eilam, 2005), based on the authors’ best knowledge, there is a lack of empirical study examining the relationship between self-awareness triggers and authentic leadership. Shannon (2020) explored trigger events and authentic leadership development through critical incident technique. Loci (2016, p. 46) described various factors that can contribute toward further “developing the unique vision of the authentic leaders are (e.g., past experience, education, modified identity, cognitive skills, self-awareness, self-regulation, self-integrity, level of creativity, level of ration).” A review of authentic leadership studies indicated a lack of conceptualization of self-awareness triggers. Gardner et al. (2011) call for examination of the role of self-awareness triggers by. We consider it a significant research gap that needs to be addressed.

As leaders strive for self-excellence, self-awareness can play an important role and help the leaders to unlock their potential (Caldwell & Hayes, 2016). Drawing from positive organizational behavior (POB) (Luthans, 2002) and moral perspective-taking capacity and development, Luthans and Avolio (2003) described a positive organizational context as “culture [that] would itself be transparent, energizing, intellectually stimulating, and supportive of developing leaders and followers to their full potential” (p. 256). Positive organization context, life challenges, and trigger events can lead to positive self-development. The leader faces various difficulties in life and strives

through them. Furthermore, Yaacoub (2016) describes “authentic leaders venture into an in-ward journey to digest their experiences, learning from their ascriptive, biographical, and societal life challenges to explore their values and beliefs” (p.48). This leads to greater self-awareness. Further positive self-development provides self-awareness and self-regulation, leading to authentic leadership development in an individual (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Previous studies indicated that leaders in their lifespan experience both positive events—“for example, a new project that has never been done before; meeting a significant other in one’s life who has an entirely different worldview; traveling to a distinctly different culture; working with a new associate who brings a new direction to your work” (p. 247)—and negative trigger events (such as the loss of a loved one, loss of a business deal, failure in business, and conflict). In such a context, Luthans and Avolio (2003) stated that, based on positive psychology and POB, leaders reflect on negative events to strengthen their authenticity through learned capacities such as confidence, hope, optimism, and resiliency, leading to self-awareness.

Therefore, drawing from self-awareness theory and authentic leadership framework, we propose three key objectives of this study: (1) conceptualize self-awareness triggers; (2) develop a reliable and valid SAT scale; and (3) examine the impact of SAT on AL. To achieve the stated research objectives, we conducted four separate studies. In Study 1, self-awareness triggers were operationalized, and items were generated using narrative research and interviews with practicing senior leaders in the industry. Because the narrative approach assumes that a person feels, thinks, and acts from a “meaning system” which helps the narrator to analyze and interpret reality in a way that gives it a personal meaning (Kegan & Lahey, 1984), it was considered an appropriate qualitative method to generate items for developing the SAT scale. Study 2 conducted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to examine the factor structure of the construct. Study 3 conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine construct validity. Reliability and construct validity were assessed based on composite reliability, convergent validity, and divergent validity. Study 4 examined the impact of the SAT on authentic leadership.

This study makes an important theoretical and practical contribution to the authentic leadership literature. First, the study makes an important theoretical contribution by developing a self-awareness trigger scale. Second, by examining the role of SAT and authentic leadership, the study expands the nomological network of authentic leadership literature. Third, limited studies have examined authentic leadership constructs in the Indian context. As proposed by Cooper, Scandura & Schriesheim (2005), understanding and applying trigger events can become important pathways to develop authentic leadership development. Thus, this study is an important practical contribution for HR managers to develop authentic leaders through diverse programs using triggers and critical incidents through iterative loops and through subsequent reflections.

This paper begins with a discussion of the theoretical background of authentic leadership and self-awareness. The second section presents Study 1 where SAT was operationalized, and items were generated using narrative research. In the third section, Study 2 applies EFA to examine the factor structure of the construct is presented. It is followed by Study 3, conducted to examine construct validity. Next section presents Study 4, analysing the impact of the SAT on authentic leadership. The paper concludes with a discussion of results, theoretical and practical contributions, limitations, and future research directions.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership theories have emerged from the intersection of leadership, ethics, and the positive organizational behavior and scholarship literature over the past several years (Avolio, 2004; Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003; Cooper & Nelson, 2006; Luthans & Avolio, 2003). Luthans and Avolio (2003) defined authentic leadership “as a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development” (p. 243). The concept of authenticity

can be traced back to the 1950s, when humanistic psychologists regarded authenticity as a reflection of the congruence between one's self-concept and immediate experiences (Rogers, 1963) or attainment of self-actualization (Maslow, 1968). Additionally, Erickson (1995) and Harter (2002) comprehensively reviewed the literature on authenticity. Recent conceptualizations of authenticity were influenced by self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1995). Based on the positive organizational scholarship theory, Luthans and Avolio (2003) proposed the developmental model of authentic leadership. According to their model, authentic leadership development is a dynamic lifespan process. Various trigger events during the different stages of life help to shape authentic leadership development. These experiences in life lead to the development of positive psychological capacities (confidence, hope, optimism, and resiliency). Likewise, Shamir and Eilam (2005) and Michie and Gooty (2005) proposed four key components of authentic leadership development, encompassing the development of a leader's identity as a central component of the person's self-concept, development of self-knowledge and self-concept clarity, development of goals that are concordant with the self-concept, and increasing self-expressive behavior. Luthans and Avolio (2003) stated that an authentic leader is driven by a set of terminal values that describes "what is right and fair and such leaders identify with their followers' by leading from the front, openly discussing their vulnerabilities and those of the followers, and constantly emphasizing the growth of followers" (p. 248). Thus, we argue that authentic leaders do not create a negative attitude toward their followers. Further substantiating the preceding argument, authentic leaders foster positive expectations and trust among followers so that leaders and followers can discuss issues openly and have transparency.

Life stories help describe the relationship between life experiences and organized stories of the storyteller (Shamir & Eilam, 2005, p. 396). Kegan and Lahey (1984) stated that life stories provide leaders with a meaning system from which they can act authentically, that interprets reality and act in a way that gives their interpretations and actions a

personal meaning (p. 220). Substantiating the preceding statement, Shamir and Eilam (2005) stated that "to develop an authentic leadership component, leaders must first have self-knowledge, self-concept clarity, and personal-role merger, which are derived from an understanding of the leader's life-story" (p. 406).

Authentic leadership has been studied extensively by various researchers (Baker, 2020; Cha et al. 2019; Eriksen, 2009; Shannon, 2020; Vogel, Reichard, Batistič & Černe, 2020; Weiss, Razinskas, Backmann & Hoegl, 2018). Some of the antecedents leading to the manifestation of authentic leadership are psychological capital, optimism, self-monitoring (Alilyyani et al., 2018; Peus et al., 2012). Additionally, studies have found that authentic leadership has a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Cerne et al., 2014; Penger & Cerne, 2014; job performance (Wei et al., 2018), organizational commitment (Gatling et al., 2016; Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Stander et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2020), and the meaningfulness of work (Ashley & Reiter-Palmon, 2012; Monat, 2017; Morin, 2011).

2.2 Self-Awareness

Most research conducted on self-awareness before 1972 was phenomenological in nature (Rime & LeBon, 1984). Drawing from self-awareness theory, Duval and Wicklund (1972) stated that any stimuli in one's environment that focus one's attention on the self can lead to a motivational state of self-awareness. Franzoi and Davis (1999) described self-awareness as the transient state of self-focus, and it can be either public or private. Public self-awareness considers the self as a social object, whereas private self-awareness considers it to be the inner self. Self-focus leads to a comparison of self with an ideal or standard, resulting in discrepancy (Franzoi, Davis & Markwiese, 1999). The discrepancy can motivate someone to escape, if possible, or reduce the discrepancy by regulating either standards or the self (Dana, Lalwani & Duval, 1997). An effective leader needs to integrate the standards of relevant stakeholders into their self (Tsui & Ashford, 1994). Carver and Scheier (1981) argued that self-awareness triggers a comparison between self and standards but that the regulation

is automatic and not motivational. Furthermore, private self-awareness leads to a comparison between the self and personal values, whereas public self-awareness results in a comparison between the self and others' values. For example, public self-awareness increases conformity, whereas private self-awareness leads to relative independence from the majority (Froming & Carver, 1981; Forming, Walker & Lopyan, 1982; Ashley & Reiter-Palmon, 2012; Eurich, 2018; Goukens et al., 2009; Monat, 2017; Morin, 2011; Showry, 2014)

To study self-awareness, scales developed by Fenigstein, Scheier, and Buss (1975), Burnkrant and Page (1984), and Trapnell and Campbell (1999) were considered. The self-consciousness scale developed by Fenigstein, Scheier, and Buss (1975) describes self-consciousness as stable enough to be considered as a personality trait (Davis & Franzoi, 1991). The self-consciousness scale consists of three subscales: Private and public self-consciousness, and social anxiety. Trapnell and Campbell (1999) reassessed the psychometric characteristics of the self-consciousness scale. They showed that the private self-consciousness subscale measures two different constructs: self-reflection and self-rumination (Morin, 2002). Self-reflection represents a genuine curiosity in which an individual is interested in understanding their values, emotions, thought processes, and attitude, leading to self-knowledge and self-regulation. During self-rumination, a person keeps focus on self and is anxious as they keep wondering about their self-worth (Joireman, Parrott & Hammersla, 2002). Spontaneously occurring fluctuations in self-awareness can be measured with the Situational Self-Awareness Scale developed by Govern and Marsch, (2001). The scale developed by Fenigstein, Scheier, and Buss (1975) recognized the aspects of self-reflection and attention but lacks factors leading to self-awareness. Although the self-awareness literature describes various self-awareness scales, for example, those of Burnkrant and Page (1984) and Trapnell and Campbell (1999), no empirical studies have examined self-awareness triggers. To address the research gap, the present research focused on conceptualizing and developing the SAT scale.

3. STUDIES

3.1 Study 1: Conceptualization and Item Generation for the Development of the Self-Awareness Trigger Scale

Studies examining the role of self-awareness and authentic leadership are limited. Studies examining types of self-awareness triggers also are very few, and qualitative in nature. Furthermore, the authentic leadership literature also lacks operationalization of self-awareness trigger constructs. Hence, this study conceptualized and generated items for the SAT scale, using both the deductive and the inductive methods. The inductive method adopted a qualitative study to explore items using the narrative research approach and interview method. The deductive method involved item generation based on an extensive literature review.

By integrating objective self-awareness theory (Duval & Wicklund, 1972) and positive organizational behavior (Seligmann), this study explored the role of SAT and authentic leadership. According to the theory of objective self-awareness, self-awareness is a state in which an individual focuses on themselves as an object of attention. An examination of the effects of self-awareness on self-regulatory behavior by social psychologists such as Duval and Wicklund (1972) proposed that self-directed behavior helps to align behavior with salient behavioral standards or values. In the authentic leadership development model, self-awareness, the self-regulation process, and positive modeling play an important role in achieving authenticity in both leaders and followers. Through self-reflection, a leader achieves greater self-awareness and becomes more aware of their values, identity, emotions, motives, and goals. The theory further states that when individuals focus attention inward, attention shifts to salient aspects of self.

Drawing from the authentic leadership development framework (Avolio et al., 2005; Cooper et al., 2005; Turner et al., 1978), trigger events are described as a catalyst which can be perceived as positive or negative, leading to a heightened level of self-awareness (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans & May 2004). Cooper et al. (2005) asserted that individuals need time to experience

various trigger events and then to reflect upon them, which influences moral development. Highly self-conscious people use imagery as a mechanism for self-reflection (Turner et al., 1978). The impact of the role of trigger events on authentic leadership can be affected by various moderators such as the psychological capital of the leader, the socio-moral climate of the organization, a climate of trust, and core self-evaluation. Previous studies examined the moderating role of psychological capital (Woolley, Caza & Levy, 2011), organization culture (Zubair & Kamal, 2016), trust (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2013), and self-efficacy of the leader in an authentic leadership context.

Traditionally, trigger events have been viewed as negative events involving crisis, trauma, loss of a loved one, health problems, or financial hardship, but positive events (for example, a voluntary decision to change careers, a major promotion with expanded responsibility, or an international assignment) likewise can trigger self-awareness leading to leadership development (Avolio et al., 2005). Both positive and negative triggers continuously shape the development of a leader based on the extent to which they are reflected upon and interpreted in terms of the self. Puente, Crous & Venter (2007) explored the role of the positive trigger, because most of the triggers assumed are majorly negative. Their findings indicated that appreciative inquiry has potential as a positive trigger for authentic leadership development. Additionally, Shannon (2020) examined the role of the trigger on authentic leadership development using qualitative interviews and critical incident technique (CIT). The result indicated that trigger events were experienced, and characteristics of authentic leadership were present in the participants. Based on the preceding discussion, it can be concluded that self-awareness triggers can be either subtle or intense and overwhelming events, and they can be either positive or negative events. Moreover, based on the ability of the leader and the extent to which the leader thinks about such events, leadership development occurs. Thus, a self-awareness trigger is operationally defined as “the ability of an individual to use the events as a trigger leading to self-awareness where trigger event can be a dramatic event or subtle, profound moment.”

3.1.1 Sample and collection of data

In addition to drawing indicators from the academic literature, we also adopted a narrative research and interview method to understand self-awareness triggers experienced by leaders throughout their lives. Because the narrative approach assumes that a person feels, thinks, and acts from a “meaning system” that enables him or her to analyze and interpret reality in a way that gives it a personal meaning (Kegan & Lahey, 1984), it was considered to be an appropriate qualitative method to understand trigger experienced by leaders. Denzin (1989) stated that biographic narrative writing should identify an objective set of experience in the subject’s life. Narrative qualitative research mostly considers purposive sampling (Creswell, 2003) in which the inquirer selects individuals for study because they purposefully can inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study. Patton (2002) explained that purposeful sampling involves selecting information-rich cases. Hence, we selected a purposive sampling strategy for the study which adopted critical case sampling. To select the cases for narrative research, we prepared a list by selecting leaders from the diverse field, which was vetted by a panel of experts. Of eleven leaders, three leaders were shortlisted by asking the panel to rank the three most authentic leaders. We did not limit ourselves to a single sample, but selected autobiographies (Table 1) of three recognized leaders. The leaders thus shortlisted were Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (freedom fighter), Dr. Homi Jehangir Bhabha (Director of TIFR), and Dr. A. P. J. Abdul Kalam (former President of India and Project Director, ISRO).

Step 1: Narrative Research

We included in the analysis all sections of the life story that we thought expressed something about the leaders’ development, even if the teller did not provide an explicit link between the told events and his or her development. We approached the stories as “depositories of meaning” (Gabriel, 2000) and read them from the perspective of asking about the meaning of the story from a leadership development point of view. Drawing from narrative inquiry, some of the examples of events leading to self-awareness across three cases are as follows.

Gandhi narrated an event in which he committed a mistake and confessed to his father by writing a note. Gandhi handed the note and waited for his father's reaction, Gandhi stated that "for a moment he closed his eyes in thought and then tore up the note, I also cried. I could see my father's agony" (Gandhi, 2008, p. 26). Observing the agony experienced by his father was an overwhelming moment for Gandhi, and it led to further introspection and self-awareness.

Kalam also narrated, his experience post rejection from the pilot interview profile, that he felt dejected and dragged himself out of the selection panel and stood at the edge of the cliff; he went to an ashram where Guruji told him "when the student is ready, the teacher will appear. Here was a teacher to guide a student who had nearly gone astray. Accept your destiny and go ahead with your life. Search for the true purpose of your existence" (Kalam & Tiwari, 1999, p. 25). The incident depicts how rejection in life led to self-examination and greater self-awareness.

A similar event occurred when Homi Bhabha experienced a dilemma in making a critical decision that could decide the future course of his life: "He could return to Europe and resume the purely scientific career that was assured to take him to great achievements or stay back in India and contribute to the development of Indian science" (Deshmukh, 2010, p. 3). The decision-making process led to greater self-analysis.

In narrative research, autobiographical and biographical data are considered a very important source of data because they capture the experiences of the narrator (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). Because narrative research is driven by sense of the

whole, thus, the researcher has to glean the overall narratives to arrive at themes to understand the phenomena (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). The researchers analyzed the texts by asking the questions presented in the succeeding section and coded the data. The researchers read the text in the first iteration and asked questions, for example:

1. What are the actions demonstrated by the leaders?
2. What are the events experienced by the leader?
3. How leaders react to various events?
4. What are the outcomes experienced by their followers?
5. What are the personality qualities demonstrated by the leaders?

A similar method has been followed in narrative research work (e.g., Shamir et al., 2005; Colton, 2018; Van der Vyver & Marais, 2015). Based on the preceding questions, the text was coded (for example, determination, calm, rejection, duty, commitment, evaluation). The autobiography of Abdul Kalam, *Wings of Fire* (Kalam & Tiwari, 1999), had 180 pages; *Biography of Jehangir Homi Bhabha* (Deshmukh, 2010) had 135 pages, and *My Experiment with Truth* (Gandhi, 2008) had 490 pages. The text was coded using computer-assisted qualitative analysis software QDA Miner Lite.

Additionally, semi-structured interviews with industry leaders were conducted for item generation to further enhance in-depth understanding of trigger events and triangulation of data. We interviewed leaders from diverse fields. Inclusion criteria were leaders with more than 10 years' experience in a leadership position. After completing five interviews, a saturation of data was arrived as the same

Table 1: Study 1 sample characteristics of leaders considered for narrative research

| Leader | Position held | Lifespan | Biography |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|
| Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi | National Activist (freedom fighter), President of the Indian National Congress | 2 October 1869–30 January 1948 | <i>My experiment with truth</i> (Gandhi, 2008) |
| Homi Jehangir Bhabha | Director of TIFR and AEET Atomic Energy Establishment, Trombay (AEET) | 30 October 1909–24 January 1966 | <i>Biography of Jehangir Homi Bhabha</i> (Deshmukh, 2010) |
| A. P. J. Abdul Kalam | President of India Project director, ISRO, Chief Scientific Adviser to the Prime Minister | 15 October 1931–27 July 2015 | <i>Wings of Fire</i> (Kalam & Tiwari, 1999) |

themes were appearing. The interviews were conducted during the period November–December 2017. The profiles of the respondents are presented in Table 2. Interview questions for item generation for the self-awareness trigger questionnaire are presented in the following section.

Questions asked during the interviews were:

1. What does the term self-awareness mean to you?
2. What leads to self-awareness?
3. Have you experienced events/ triggers leading to self-awareness? Describe it.
4. Have you experienced self-awareness triggers as a continuous or onetime event?
5. What is the nature of stimuli experienced by you, are they positive or negative triggers leading to self-awareness?

Triggers from narrative research were obtained in two categories (Table 3), individual triggers and interpersonal triggers. Triggering events drawn from the interviews with leaders led to the identification of triggers in two categories (Table 3). The interview responses were analysed and coded; a sample in-

terview response is presented in Appendix 2. The study also adopted the deductive method and drew triggers refereed by previous studies, for example, from the research work of Luthans and Avolio, (2003) and Gardner et al. (2005). Two additional sources of data—letters and articles published by leaders and their team members for triangulation—were considered. Based on the preceding categories of triggers, the study generated 40 items.

Step 2: Content Validity

The item content must be deemed valid to instil confidence in all consequent inferences (Nunnally, 1978). Thus, content validity assessment was conducted, because inferences were made based on the final scale items. To ensure the content validity, opinions from panel members were sought. The panel comprised three experts with Ph.D.s in psychology and expertise in scale development.

Step 3: Psychometric Analysis

As per DeVellis (2003), reliability is a measure of score consistency, usually measured by internal consistency, test–retest reliability, split-half, item-total

Table 2: Study 1 profiles of the participants interviewed (for item generation for self-awareness trigger)

| Respondent no. | Type of organization | Profile of respondent |
|----------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 | Private bank | Cluster head |
| 2 | Construction firm | Sr. V. P. (commercial) |
| 3 | Logistics Firm | M.D. |
| 4 | Research and Development (R&D) | Sr. V. P. (production) |
| 5 | Waste treatment | Sr. V. P. (R&D) |

Table 3: Study 1 categories of SAT from narrative research and interviews with leaders

| Method | Categories of triggers | Events |
|--------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Narrative research | Individual triggers | Rejection, trauma, theatre play, financial hardships, stimulating work, cheating, repent, confession, experiment, fasting, Dandi March, struggle for independence, challenging assignment, failure, agony, thought-provoking incidences, inspiring work |
| | Interpersonal triggers | |
| Interview | Individual triggers | Failure in a project, rejection, struggle, promotion, career progression, lack of acceptance, difficult project |
| | Interpersonal triggers | Challenging group assignment, group conflict, feedback, resolving the dispute, financial challenges faced by my brother, negotiation, trauma faced by my friend |

correlation/interitem reliability, and interobserver reliability. Construct validity can be assessed using exploratory factor analysis; confirmatory factor analysis and convergent, discriminant, predictive/nomological, criterion, internal, and external validity (Podsakoff et al., 2013, Hair et al.; 2010). For this study, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were examined for reliability and average variance extracted for discriminant validity (Hair et al.; 2010).

3.2 Study 2: Exploratory Factor Analysis

The goal of factor extraction is to identify the number of latent dimensions (factors) needed to account accurately for the common variance among the items. The factor extraction method adopted in this study was principal component analysis because of its strength relative to other techniques. The rotation type adopted was varimax because it is the most widely used rotation method. Findings are presented in section "Study 2: Results and Discussion."

3.2.1 Sample and collection of data

To study the psychometric properties of scale, full-time employees working in different organizations in the Mumbai Region were approached. Data were collected for three months, from June to August, 2017. All the participants who gave consent were briefed about the objectives of the study. All the participants were assured of the confidentiality of their responses. Data were collected using a paper-and-pencil survey. Respondents were asked to reflect on each item and select the most appropriate option using a five-point Likert scale (1 =

strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). One hundred seventy-two responses were received. Twenty questionnaires were rejected because the data were incomplete. The sample ($n = 152$), comprised 63% males and 37% females; 30% of the sample belonged to the 31–40 age group, and 46% of the sample belonged to the 41–50 age group.

3.2.2 Item Purification

Based on responses received, data were organized and processed for item purification. For item purification, corrected item-total correlation (CITC) was used because it helps to remove garbage items (Churchill, 1979). Furthermore, Clark and Watson (2016) recommended retaining items with mean a interitem correlation within the range 0.40–0.50 for those measuring narrow characteristics. As recommended by Wolfenbarger and Gilly (2003), items with a factor loading of 0.50 or more on a single factor were retained and items loading on two or more factors were deleted. Post EFA (Table 4) items S4, S9, S7, S18, S32, and S36 were retained. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.75, which was more than the recommended value of 0.6 (Hair, 2010). Mean, standard deviation, and interitem correlation matrix are presented in Table 4. The interitem correlation matrix indicated that all items were positively and significantly correlated with each (Table 4).

3.2.3 Results and Discussion

The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure for sampling adequacy was 0.729, which was more than 0.6, as prescribed. Bartlett's test of sphericity

Table 4: Study 2 means, standard deviations, and inter-item correlation matrix

| | Item | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|------|------|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------|
| 1 | S4 | 3.59 | 1.12 | 1.000 | | | | | |
| 2 | S9 | 3.61 | 1.08 | 0.20** | 1.00 | | | | |
| 3 | S7 | 3.61 | 0.85 | 0.18** | 0.35** | 1.000 | | | |
| 4 | S18 | 3.82 | 0.84 | 0.38** | 0.67** | 0.33** | 1.00 | | |
| 5 | S32 | 3.34 | 0.92 | 0.53** | 0.24** | 0.13** | 0.36** | 1.00 | |
| 6 | S36 | 3.59 | 0.60 | 0.54** | 0.31** | 0.16** | 0.38** | 0.42** | 1.00 |

Note: $n = 152$. Item S9 is reverse coded. ** $p < 0.01$.

was found to be significant, which indicated that the sample was suitable for factor analysis. EFA using principal component analysis and varimax rotation obtained two components with a cumulative variance of 66.2%. The factor loading for each item obtained was above 0.5 (Table 5). Based on the results of EFA, the factor structure is presented in which Factor 1 items related to misery, physical agony, financial challenges faced by parents, and ordeals and trauma experienced by individuals have loaded.

It shows self-awareness triggers are experienced by observing challenges faced by parents, siblings, and others. Thus, Factor 1 is termed “Interpersonal triggers.” In Factor 2, items related

to handling challenging problems, resolving the dispute, denial of rights have loaded. This shows that self-awareness is achieved by experiencing challenges faced by the self at the workplace. Thus, the second factor is termed “Challenges faced by self.” Table 5 presents the dimension and description of each factor.

3.3 Study 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To confirm the exploratory model and study construct validity, CFA was conducted using Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) software (Arbuckle, 2006). The study was conducted on a new

Table 5: Study 2 results of EFA

| Items | | α | Component | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--|----------|-----------|----------|
| | | | Factor 1 | Factor 2 |
| Factor 1 | | | | |
| S4: Financial challenges faced by my parents have led to my self-awareness | | 0.727 | 0.848 | |
| S32: Ordeals faced by people have led to my self-examination. | | | 0.793 | |
| S36: Observing trauma experienced by individuals has led to my self-awareness. | | | 0.759 | |
| Factor 2 | | | | |
| S7: After denial of my rights, I introspected, leading to my self-awareness. | | 0.714 | | 0.706 |
| S18: I have become more self-aware after resolving organizational disputes. | | | | 0.768 |
| S9: Acceptance of mistakes does not enhance my self-awareness. | | | | 0.849 |

Source: Authors findings. Note: $n = 152$. Item S9 is reverse coded. $**p < 0.01$.

Table 6: Study 2 factor structure self-awareness trigger

| Factors | Dimension | Description |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Factor 1: Interpersonal triggers (Observing challenges faced by others has led to self-awareness) | Financial challenges faced by my parents has led to my self-awareness The ordeal faced by people has led to my self-examination Observing trauma experienced by individuals has led to my self-awareness | Observing various challenges and difficulties faced by parents and others, such as trauma, financial crisis, physical agony, and ordeals, has led to self-awareness |
| Factor 2: Individual triggers (Experiencing challenges faced by self has led to self-awareness) | After denial of my rights, I introspected, leading to my self-awareness I have become more self-aware after resolving organizational disputes Acceptance of mistake does not enhance my self-awareness | Facing personal challenges such as handling difficult problems, resolving disputes, denial of rights, and rejection has led to self-awareness, |

Source: Author's findings.

set of samples, comprising employees working in different organizations in Mumbai. The study tested and compared two measurement models, the one-factor model and the two-factor model. To examine which model fit better to self-awareness triggers, five indices were used: the goodness of fit index (GFI), the Trucker–Lewis index (TLI) (Trucker & Lewis, 1973), the comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the chi-squared/df ratio. Values of 0.90 and above for TLI, CFI, GFI are considered acceptable for the model. The chi-squared/df ratio indicates how perfectly the model is achieved; values less than 3 generally indicate a good model fit. For RMSEA, a parsimony-adjusted index, values less than 0.05 indicate appropriate fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

3.3.1 Sample and collection of data

To examine the construct validity, full-time employees working in different organizations in India were approached through email. The email addresses were obtained by contacting and seeking permission from HR managers of different organization. Participants who agreed to the study were briefed about the objective of the study. The six-item scale was administered to a sample of 530 respondents as a paper-and-pencil survey. Respondents were asked to reflect on each item and give their responses on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Responses were received from 468 respondents; the sample comprised 50.2% males and 49.8% females. The average age of the participant was $m = 38$ ($SD = \pm 6.4$) and the average tenure was $m = 8$ ($SD = \pm 5.1$).

3.3.2 Results and Discussion

CFA was conducted to study the two-factor model of self-awareness trigger that emerged based on EFA. Factor 1 was interpersonal triggers, and Factor 2 was individual triggers. Figure 1 presents the self-awareness trigger construct. To analyze the construct dimensionality, the one-factor model was compared to the two-factor model. CFA of the one-factor model gave a poor fit compared with the two-factor model. The results of the one-factor model (Table 7) were $CMIN/df = 3.12$, $GFI = 0.98$, $CFI = 0.94$, $SRMR = 0.06$, $TLI = 0.90$, and $RMSEA = 0.07$. Results of the two-factor model were $CMIN/df = 1.80$, $GFI = 0.99$, $SRMR = 0.04$, $TLI = 0.96$, and $RMSEA = 0.04$. Convergent and discriminant validity was calculated for each factor.

After establishing the dimensionality of the scale, reliability and validity indices were determined. The criterion of Fornell and Larcker (1981) commonly is used to assess the degree of shared variance between the latent variables of a model. The scale was found to be reliable (Table 8); the composite reliability, 0.84, was more than the recommended value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010), and the discriminant validity, 0.70, also was above the threshold limit of 0.5 (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Hair, 2010).

3.4 Relationship of SAT with Authentic Leadership

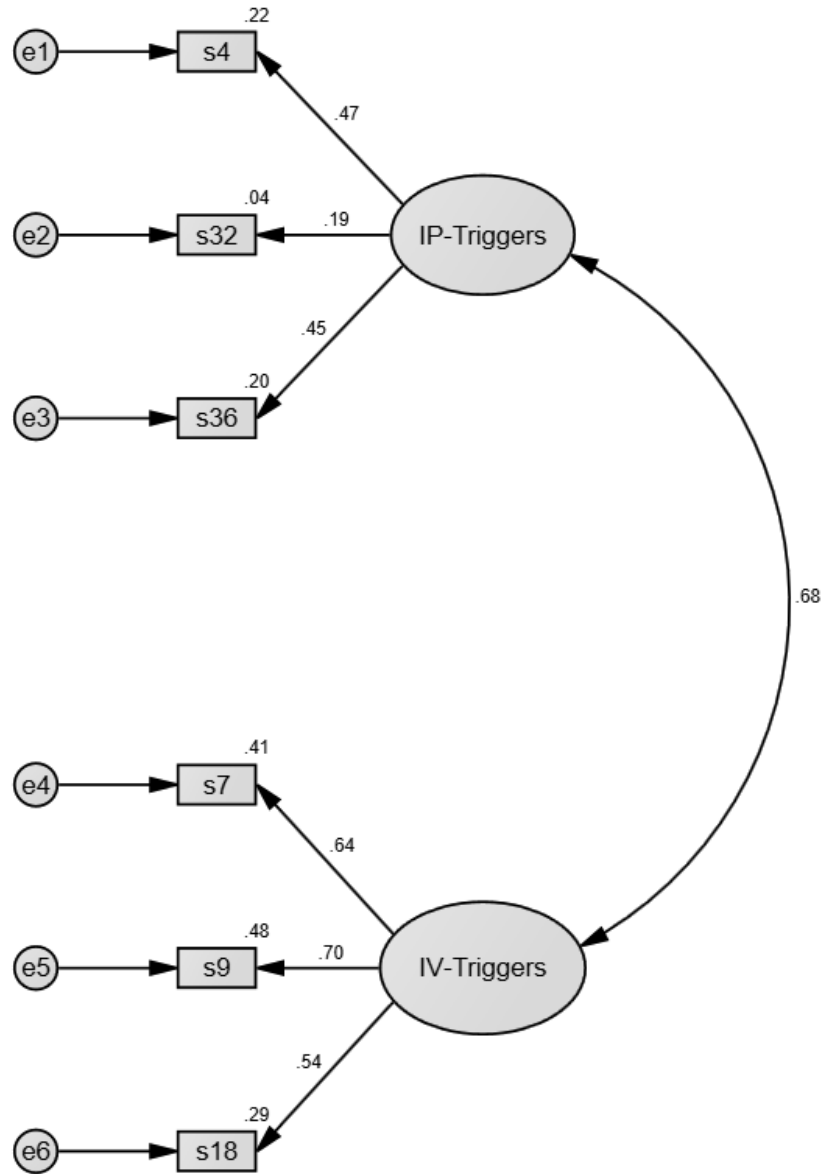
To examine the impact of the SAT on authentic leadership, a separate study was conducted. Avolio & Gardner, (2005) stated that authentic leadership development in individuals occurs with the help of positive self-development which further enhances self-awareness and self-regulation. Substantiating this, Caldwell & Hayes, (2016) proposed that self-awareness and self-efficacy helps leaders to achieve

Table 7: Study 3 CFA model fit indices

| Model | CMIN/df | GFI | CFI | SRMR | TLI | RMSEA |
|------------------|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| One-factor model | 3.12 | 0.980 | 0.941 | 0.058 | 0.902 | 0.067 |
| Two-factor model | 1.80 | 0.990 | 0.977 | 0.044 | 0.957 | 0.042 |

Source: Author's findings. Note: $n = 468$. $CMIN/df$ = chi-squared/degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; GFI = goodness of fit index; $SRMR$ = standardized root mean square residual; TLI = Trucker–Lewis index; $RMSEA$ = root mean square error of approximation. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Figure 1: Self-awareness trigger construct



Source: Author's findings. Note: IP Triggers = interpersonal triggers; IV Triggers = individual triggers.

Table 8: Study 3 convergent validity and discriminant validity

| Factors | Composite reliability | Average variance extracted | Discriminant validity |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Factor 1 Interpersonal triggers | 0.80 | 0.57 | 0.75 |
| Factor 2 Individual triggers | 0.65 | 0.40 | 0.63 |
| Scale | 0.84 | 0.48 | 0.69 |

Source: Author's findings. Note: n = 468.

self-excellence. Individuals need to enhance their understanding of self-efficacy and self-awareness for personal growth. This can help leaders empower themselves, followers, and their organization (Caldwell & Hayes, 2016). Thus self-efficacy is considered to be an essential leadership competence (Mayer et al., 1995), and leaders can put themselves and others in peril by inadequately comprehending these competencies. Manz (2015) and Burke (1991) stated that self-awareness requires leaders to truthfully and precisely self-observe themselves. Self-awareness results in self-efficacy, further substantiating Smith and Woodworth's (2012) statement cited by Caldwell and Hayes (2016) that "a leader's perceptions of his/her values, duties, and roles are directly related to making a difference in the lives of others." Luthans and Avolio (2003) postulated that triggers can "stimulate positive growth in leaders" (p. 247). Shannon et al. (2020) also examined self-awareness triggers and authentic leadership using the critical incident technique. Harvey, Martinko, and Gardner (2006) and Covelli, and Mason (2017) provided primary findings indicating the relationship between SAT and authentic leadership. Thus, we can hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: SAT is positively related to authentic leadership.

3.4.1 Sample and collection of data

To collect the data, 52 organizations listed on National Stock Exchange in Mumbai, India were considered and invited to participate. Data were collected during four months, from January to April, 2018. Mumbai was selected as the location because it is considered to be the financial hub of India and because it facilitated repeated data collection and follow-up surveys. Senior HR managers were approached in the 52 organizations via telephone, email, and face-to-face meetings. Thirty-two organizations (response rate = 61%) agreed to participate in the study. These organizations included banks, financial institutions, and Non-Banking Financial Companies (NBFC). Researchers collected data on authentic leadership from team members, and self-awareness trigger data from team leaders. The study objectives, data collection procedures, instructions for leaders and followers, and key implications of the

study were explained to HR managers and branch managers. Leaders and team members were briefed about the anonymity and confidentiality of the information. Each team leader reflected on self-awareness triggers. Likewise, each team member independently rated the authentic leadership of their team leader. To facilitate the matching of the questionnaires of team leaders and team members, the questionnaires were coded. Post eliminating missing information from data obtained from various team members, the study had 471 dyads of team leaders and team members. Participants at the leader level were 53% males and 47% females. The average age of the leaders was 38 years ($SD = \pm 6.6$), and the average organization tenure was 8.01 years ($SD = \pm 5.3$). In addition, 57% of the participants were married, and 43% were single. Among leaders, 45.5% of participants were from senior levels, 51.2% were from middle levels, and 3.3% were from supervisor levels. Among team members, 41% were females, and 59% were males. The average age of the participants was 32 years ($SD = \pm 7.5$), and the average organizational tenure was 4.32 years ($SD = \pm 2.8$). Regarding educational qualification, 76% of team members were undergraduates, and 24% were postgraduates. Data were collected in single point in time itself over 16 weeks.

3.4.2 Measurements

Authentic Leadership

Walumbwa et al. (2008) developed and validated the 16-item Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) scale to measure authentic leadership. The instrument measures authentic leadership across four first-order factors: relational transparency, self-awareness, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective. Followers rated this item on a five-point Likert scale using anchors ranging from 0 = not at all to 4 = frequently, if not always. A sample item was "solicit views that challenge my deeply held positions." The scale is considered to be fairly robust, with Cronbach's alphas for each subscale and the overall scale higher than 0.70 in a cross-cultural validation study (Walumbwa et al. 2008). The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.90 in the present study.

Self-Awareness Trigger

SAT was measured using a six-item scale developed in the present study. The team leaders reflected on SAT items and scored them on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A sample item was “I have become more self-aware after resolving organizational disputes.” The Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was 0.89.

3.4.3 Data Analysis and Results

The data were analyzed using correlation and hierarchical regression analysis techniques using SPSS version 21. Table 9 lists the mean, standard deviation, and correlation measures of the study variables. There was a significant positive correlation between SAT and authentic leadership ($r = 0.09, p < 0.05$). To examine the impact of the SAT on authentic leadership, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In Step 1, control variables, and gender and age of the leader were entered. In the second step, the independent

variable SAT was entered. Results indicated (Table 10) that SAT is positively and significantly related to authentic leadership ($\beta = 0.06, p < 0.05$). The R -squared was significant (1.4%, and F -change = 0.04 was significant at $p < 0.05$). Thus, hypothesis H1 is supported.

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

4.1 General discussion

This research work focused on understanding and further conceptualizing and developing a reliable and valid scale to measure self-awareness triggers in the leadership context. Using narrative research, Study 1 gathered triggers leading to self-awareness amongst authentic leaders. Items were generated based on information from narrative research, interviews, and a literature review. In Study 2, using an exploratory analysis, factor structure was obtained. Study 3 assessed the construct validity was. Thus, a reliable and valid scale was developed. Two factors of self-awareness triggers that emerged from the study are interpersonal

Table 9: Study 4 means, standard deviations, and correlation matrix

| | M | SD | 1 | 2 |
|-------|------|------|-------|---|
| 1. AL | 2.63 | 0.66 | 1 | |
| 2 SAT | 3.43 | 0.97 | 0.09* | 1 |

Source: Survey data. Note: TL = 102; TM = 471; dyads = 471.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 10: Study 4 path coefficient between SAT and AL

| Model | Unstandardized coefficients | | | | | Collinearity statistics | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------------------------|-------|
| | B | Error | Beta | t | Sig, | Tolerance | VIF |
| Model 1 (Constant) | 2.69 | 0.11 | | 24.08 | 0.00 | | |
| Gender | -0.09 | 0.06 | -0.07 | -1.51 | 0.13 | 0.99 | 1.008 |
| Age | -0.00 | 0.04 | -0.00 | -0.20 | 0.84 | 0.96 | 1.008 |
| Model 2 (Constant) | 2.51 | 0.145 | | 17.26 | 0.00 | | |
| Gender | -0.08 | 0.06 | -0.06 | -1.44 | 0.15 | 0.99 | 1.009 |
| Age | -0.02 | 0.04 | -0.02 | -0.50 | 0.61 | 0.96 | 1.032 |
| SAT | 0.06 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 2.00 | 0.04 | 0.97 | 1.024 |

Source: Survey data. Note: TL = 102; TM = 471; dyads = 471.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

triggers and individual triggers. Further corroborating the findings of Gardner et al. (2005); Harvey, Martinko & Gardner (2006); and Avolio and Gardner (2005), this study found a significant, positive impact of SAT on authentic leadership. Previous study illustrates when leaders and followers demonstrate their true self and act as per their internalized values, it leads to increased productivity, employee engagement, and employee well-being (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Data triangulation necessitates gathering data from different sources, at different times, or under different conditions. The construction of the questionnaire needs data triangulation. In Study 1, data were collected using two different methods—the narrative approach, and the interview method. For the remaining three studies, this research considered different samples in Study 2, Study 3, and Study 4. In Study 2, the sample ($n = 152$) comprised 63% males and 37% females. In Study 3, responses were received from 468 respondents—the sample comprised 50.2% males and 49.8% females. In Study 4, the sample comprised 471 dyads of team leaders and team members. Participants at the leader level consisted of 53% males and 47% females.

Common method variance (CMV) refers to a situation in which the method of data gathering itself introduces a bias, leading to spuriously elevated correlations between the concepts being measured. Options for assessing common method bias in a study that employs only one method are limited. Harman's single factor test is a widely used option (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). The present study examined Harman's single factor and found a single factor extracted 35.68% of variance, which is less than 50%. Hence, it can be concluded safely that the study did not experience common method bias.

The study addressed the quality of research designs after establishing the dimensionality of the scale by examining reliability and validity indices. The criterion of Fornell and Larcker (1981) commonly is used to assess the degree of shared variance between the latent variables of a model. The scale was found to be reliable (Table 7), with a composite reliability (0.84) greater than the recommended value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010) and a discriminant validity of 0.70, which was greater than the threshold limit of 0.5 (Hu & Bentler, 1990; Hair, 2010).

4.2 Theoretical Contributions

The study makes a significant theoretical contribution by further expanding the authentic leadership and self-awareness trigger literature. Previous the authentic leadership studies proposed the role of trigger events leading to authentic leadership, but the lack of a scale led to the limited examination of the role of self-awareness triggers. First, this study helped conceptualize the self-awareness trigger construct. Second, the study developed a reliable and valid self-awareness trigger scale (Appendix 1). The findings indicated that a self-awareness trigger is a higher-order two-factor structure. Third, the study examined the positive relationship between SAT and AL. The development of the scale addressed the call by Gardner et al. (2011) to examine the role of triggering events and authentic leadership. The SAT scale will help further expand the nomological network of authentic leadership behavior by examining it as a significant boundary condition for the manifestation of authentic leadership behavior.

4.3 Practical Implications

At the individual and organizational levels, there is growing evidence supporting the need to be authentic in the workplace in the face of growing financial fraud and unethical practices (Aguilera, 2005; George, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Thus, it is imperative to explore the antecedents and moderators of authentic leadership behavior. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers propose that management can enhance the manifestation of authentic leadership behavior by having planned interventions focused on interpersonal triggers as well as individual triggers. HR practitioners can conduct workshops and assessments based on self-awareness triggers; this will lead to self-examination and self-awareness. Moreover, organizations can develop and use semi-structured roleplaying and case studies in a planned long-term training program based on conflict management and ethical decision making to explore self-awareness triggers. Further management can embed the role with triggers, for example, challenging tasks and stretch assignments based on the organizational context.

4.4 Limitations of the Study and Scope for Future Research Work

Despite significant contributions, the study has some limitations. First, the study used only three leaders in the narrative research to develop indicators for the SAT. Future studies can consider more leaders to explore and validate self-awareness triggers. Second, there is a limitation in the way the data were collected. The study relied on cross-sectional and self-reported data to measure psychometric properties of the scale, which are bound to have biases. For this study, self-reporting was appropriate because the variables studied were self-awareness triggers and authentic leadership. Narrative research was used to overcome this bias. Although the self-awareness trigger scale was developed with different samples in both the stages, future research should test the questionnaire with a more diverse sample. Another limitation of the study is the use of Harman's single factor to examine common method bias. Hence, we propose that future studies should examine CMV with the correlational marker technique (Lindell & Whitney, 2001), which has garnered much attention from researchers.

This research is likely to open various promising avenues for future research. We explored work by Duval and Wicklund (1972), which focused conceptually on objective self-awareness. The narrative study in the present research adds to the body of knowledge by providing instances of both objective and subjective self-awareness. Future work can further extend the body of literature. Future studies can explore whether demographic variables have any moderating impact on a self-awareness trigger variable. In addition, the scale needs to be examined in the Western context to extend the validation of scale across different contexts.

4.5 Conclusion

This research focused on the relationship between SAT and AL. The study first conceptualized and developed a reliable and valid scale to study self-awareness triggers in the leadership context, and then conducted a separate empirical study to examine the impact of SAT on authentic leadership. This research is likely to open various promising avenues for further expanding literature on authentic leadership and self-awareness triggers. The study will help management to focus on individual and interpersonal triggers to enhance the manifestation of authentic leadership.

EXTENDED SUMMARY/IZVLEČEK

Različni raziskovalci so predhodno že poudarili vlogo sprožilcev samozavedanja (angl. self-awareness trigger; SAT) in njihov vpliv na avtentično vodenje. Kljub temu pregled literature kaže na pomanjkanje konceptualizacije in zanesljivosti lestvice za preučevanje sprožilcev samozavedanja. Ta študija je zato razvila zanesljivo in veljavno lestvico ter preučila vlogo sprožilcev samozavedanja pri avtentičnem vodenju. Raziskava je temeljila na štirih ločenih študijah za razvoj lestvice in analizo vpliva SAT na avtentično vodstvo. V študiji 1 je bil sprožilec samozavedanja operacionaliziran, elementi pa so bili ustvarjeni s pomočjo kvalitativnih raziskav. V študiji 2 smo izvedli odkrivalno faktorsko analizo (EFA), katere namen je bil preučiti faktorsko strukturo konstrukta. V študiji 3 smo za preučitev veljavnosti konstrukta izvedli potrditveno faktorsko analizo (CFA). Zanesljivost in veljavnost konstrukta smo ocenili na podlagi sestavljene zanesljivosti, konvergentne veljavnosti in divergentne veljavnosti. Razvoj lestvice je pripeljal do dvodimenzionalne lestvice sprožilcev samozavedanja. Študija 4 je preučevala vpliv SAT na avtentično vodenje. Podatke o avtentičnem vodenju smo zbirali s strani članov ekipe, podatke o SAT pa s strani vodij ekip. Podatki so bili zbrani na podlagi redno zaposlenih v indijskem finančnem sektorju. Študija je imela 471 diad vodij ekip in članov ekipe. Ugotovitve so pokazale, da je SAT pozitivno povezan z avtentičnim vodenjem, kar pomeni, da lahko organizacije s pomočjo SAT proaktivno okrepijo avtentično vodenje.

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Appendix 1

Self-Awareness Trigger Scale

Instructions: Several statements are presented below with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement by circling the appropriate number for each item. (1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5= strongly agree)

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Financial challenges faced by my parents have led to my self-awareness. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Ordeals faced by others have led to my self-examination. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Observing trauma experienced by individuals has led to my self-awareness. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| After denial of my rights, I introspected, leading to my self-awareness. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Acceptance of my mistake does not enhance my self-awareness. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have become more self-aware after resolving organizational disputes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Note: Item 5 is reverse coded.

Appendix 2

Self-Awareness Triggers: Analysis of Interview Responses

| Respondents | Profile | Q1 | Q2 | Q3 | Q4 | Q5 |
|--------------|--------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | | What does the term self-awareness mean to you? | What leads to self-awareness? | Have you experienced events or triggers leading to self-awareness? Describe them. | Have you experienced self-awareness triggers as a continuous or onetime event? | What is the nature of stimuli experienced by you—are they positive or negative triggers leading to self-awareness? |
| Respondent 1 | Cluster head | Self-awareness is more learning about myself, Also understanding my strength and weakness. How I come up with situations. | Various events like feedback, challenges in life. Specifically, those decisions which help make important decisions | Personally, I would say, financing for higher studies as well as challenges I faced by my brother. Feedback from my Boss as well as various organizational projects. Also, I think when my neighbor, only earning member of the family was unwell ... critical ... when I see such hardships experienced by others | Yes, in fact, I think individuals keep experiencing various triggers. I too at the individual level have experienced across my life Both of kind triggers at various phases | Both positive as well as negative as just discussed. Both help to understand about strength as well as areas of weakness. I think I have learned more from negative events or triggers |
| Respondent 2 | M.D. | Knowing more about myself ... also, what I am capable of. How should I handle situations and about my inner beliefs | Both success as well as failures in life ... at the stage in life we face such events which have helped me introspect and know more about myself | Difficult assignments, which requires a lot of interpersonal skills as well as networking and rounds of negotiations to resolve problems, also career progression. Even when my friend lost her husband, it was painful ... the | Throughout my life, various events have occurred. so Yes. continuously. | I have experienced both but I think, I have experience negative triggers ... which has led to my self-awareness |

Example of Self-Awareness Triggers: Analysis of Interview Responses

| Theme | Main categories | Subcategories |
|-------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Types of triggers | Individual triggers | Failure in a project, rejection, struggle, promotion, career progression, lack of acceptance, difficult project |
| | Interpersonal triggers | Challenging group assignment, group conflict, feedback, resolving a dispute, financial challenges faced by my brother, negotiation, trauma faced by my friend |