

2020

Assessing Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories

Daniel Bashore
Wright State University

Follow this and additional works at: https://corescholar.libraries.wright.edu/etd_all



Part of the [Industrial and Organizational Psychology Commons](#)

Repository Citation

Bashore, Daniel, "Assessing Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories" (2020). *Browse all Theses and Dissertations*. 2318.

https://corescholar.libraries.wright.edu/etd_all/2318

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at CORE Scholar. It has been accepted for inclusion in Browse all Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of CORE Scholar. For more information, please contact library-corescholar@wright.edu.

ASSESSING IMPLICIT LEADERSHIP AND FOLLOWERSHIP THEORIES

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

By

DANIEL BASHORE
B.A., Miami University, 2015
M.S., Wright State University, 2017

2020

Wright State University

WRIGHT STATE UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL

APRIL 28, 2020

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE DISSERTATION PREPARED UNDER MY SUPERVISION BY Daniel Bashore ENTITLED Assessing Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories BE ACCEPTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF Doctor of Philosophy.

Debra Steele-Johnson, Ph.D.
Dissertation Director

Scott Watamaniuk, Ph.D.
Graduate Program Director

Debra Steele-Johnson, Ph.D.
Chair, Department of Psychology

Barry Milligan, Ph.D.
Interim Dean, Graduate School

Committee on
Final Examination

Megan Gerhardt, Ph.D.

David LaHuis, Ph.D.

Corey Miller, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

Bashore, Daniel. Ph.D. Department of Psychology, Wright State University, 2020.
Assessing Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories.

Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories (ILTs and IFTs, respectively) are individuals' schemas composed of attributes that characterize leaders and followers. ILTs and IFTs are commonly measured through direct measures, however, researchers have questioned the validity of popular direct measures. With better and more parallel measures, we can examine the extent to which individuals think about leaders and followers as similar or dissimilar. Also, although substantial research has examined predictors of explicit leadership and leaders' behavior, little research has attempted to examine antecedents of implicit leadership or followership. Using a sample of working adults ($N = 243$), the current study created more comprehensive ILT and IFT measures. Using a different sample of workers ($N = 242$), the study examined the extent to which people think of leaders and followers as similar versus dissimilar, explored which individual differences might explain individuals' implicit ratings of leaders and followers, and conducted some preliminary validation of the new ILT and IFT measures. This study provided initial evidence that leadership and followership might reflect different levels of the same attributes and suggested that several antecedents, including

personality characteristics, leadership preferences, and following behaviors, were related to individuals' ratings for what they expect in a leader and follower.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
I. INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE	1
A Brief History of Leadership Research	2
Implicit Leadership Theories.....	5
Implicit Followership Theories	9
Similarity or Dissimilarity of Leaders and Followers	11
Measuring Implicit Theories	14
Antecedents of Implicit Theories	16
Summary and Purposes	19
II. METHOD	20
Participants	20
Measures	21
Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories (ILTs/IFTs).....	21
Personality	22
Leadership Scale for Sport	22
Demographic Variables	23
Additional Measures.....	23
Consideration.....	23
Initiating Structure.....	23
Followership.....	24

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)	24
Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWBs)	24
Cognitive Dissonance	25
Procedure	25
III. RESULTS	26
Data Cleaning	26
Descriptive Statistics	27
Research Questions and Objectives	31
Research Objective 1	31
ILT	32
IFT	35
Research Question 1	38
Research Question 2	42
Research Objective 2	46
IV. DISCUSSION	47
Theoretical and Practical Implications and Future Research	48
Similarity or Differences of Leaders and Followers	48
Training Leadership.....	50
Context of Leader and Follower	52
New ILT and IFT Measures	53
ILT/IFT Congruence	55
Limitations	59
Conclusions	60

REFERENCES	62
Appendix A – Leader and Follower Attributes	76
Appendix B – Implicit Leadership Theories	78
Appendix C – Implicit Followership Theories	80
Appendix D – Big Five IPIP	82
Appendix E – Revised Leadership Scale for Sport Democratic and Autocratic Subscales	84
Appendix F – Study Demographics	85
Appendix G – LBDQ Consideration Scale	87
Appendix H – LBDQ Initiating Structure Scale	88
Appendix I – Followership Behavior Questionnaire	89
Appendix J – Organizational Citizenship Behavior	91
Appendix K – Counterproductive Work Behavior	92
Appendix L – Cognitive Dissonance	93
Appendix M – Screening Survey	94
Appendix N – Attention Check	96
Appendix O – EFA Factor Loadings for ILT Scale Creation	97
Appendix P – EFA Factor Loadings for IFT Scale Creation	103

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Scree plot of the ILT measure scale items.....	34
2. Scree plot of the IFT measure scale items.....	37

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between ILT and IFT Subscales and Individual Difference Predictors	29
2. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Additional Study Variables	30
3. ILT Factor Structure and Retained Items	35
4. Factor Correlations for ILT Measure	35
5. IFT Factor Structure and Retained Items	38
6. Factor Correlations for IFT Measure	38
7. Final ILT and IFT Scale Items	41
8. Simple Regression Analyses for ILT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables	43
9. Simple Regression Analyses for IFT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables	44
10. Multiple Regression Analyses for ILT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables	45
11. Multiple Regression Analyses for IFT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables	46
12. Correlations Between ILT and IFT Subscales and Existing Measures	47

13. Factor Loadings for ILT Measure Items	97
14. Factor Loadings for ILT Measure without Bad Items	99
15. Final Factor Structure for ILT Measure	101
16. Factor Loadings for IFT Measure Items.....	103
17. Final Factor Structure for IFT Measure.....	105

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Debra Steele-Johnson, for all of the guidance and support over the last five years. Without your mentorship, I would not be the researcher or professional I am today. Additionally, I extend a thank you to my committee members, Megan Gerhardt, David LaHuis, and Corey Miller for their contribution to this project.

My peers and lab mates were insightful sounding boards for project ideas and guidance as well. Their contributions and help in reviewing materials did not go unnoticed. Each of them helped shape my experience and time in this program.

Much love and appreciation to my friends, Danielle Slagle and Jenna Dunham, for being there to support me every step of the way and listening to my stories, successes, and complaints. Your love and support have helped me in school and beyond. Cheyna Brower, you have been there for me in more ways than I can count, and I know I would not be here without you. Seeing you work these past few years makes me hopeful for the future of our field and excited to go out and meet others who inspire me like you do regularly.

Finally, to my family: my parents, Gregg and Sandy Bashore, have always believed in me and reminded me why I do it. My brother and sister-in-law, Andrew and Devin Bashore, have been there for me in more ways than one. You are all my guiding light, and everything I have I owe to you.

Assessing Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories

People create schemas to help organize and simplify information in the world around them. Often, workers are categorized into schemas of leaders or followers in organizations. Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) are individuals' schemas composed of attributes that characterize leaders (Eden & Leviatan, 1975), and Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs) are individuals' schemas composed of attributes that characterize followers (Sy, 2010). Implicit theories held by leaders and followers can influence a number of organizational outcomes, including employee well-being and satisfaction (ILTs; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Junker, Schyns, van Dick, & Scheurer 2011) and liking of the leader (IFTs; Sy, 2010). ILTs and IFTs are measured through both direct and indirect measures (e.g., Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998; Sy, 2010). Recently, researchers have questioned the validity of the popular Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) ILT and Sy's (2010) IFT direct measures (e.g., Bashore, 2017; Roediger et al., 2017). Additionally, many researchers have called for increased integration of followership within the extant leadership literature rather than simply considering followers in the absence of leaders (e.g., Baker, 2007; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Low, & Carsten, 2014). One interesting question that must be answered before researchers examine Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories simultaneously is the extent to which individuals think about leaders and followers similarly or dissimilarly. Also, although substantial research has examined predictors of explicit leadership and leaders' behavior (e.g., Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002), little research has attempted to examine

antecedents of implicit leadership or followership. Thus, the main purposes of my research were to: 1) examine the extent to which people think of leaders and followers as similar versus dissimilar, 2) create more comprehensive ILT and IFT measures and examine the psychometric properties and relationships of those scales with other established variables, and 3) explore which individual differences might explain individuals' implicit ratings of leaders and followers.

A Brief History of Leadership Research

Leadership has been a widely researched topic for much of the last century largely because of the impact leaders can have on organizational performance (Bass, 2008; Thomas, 1988). Since Frederick Taylor's Scientific Management Theory (Taylor, 1911, 1934), leadership theories have centered on the importance of leaders' traits, behaviors, and influence on organizations. One of the first mainstream leadership models was trait theory. Trait approaches to leadership have assumed that leaders possess specific, innate traits that predispose them to effective leadership compared to non-leaders (Galton, 1892; Stogdill, 1948). Trait theories fell out of popularity during the mid 1900s after researchers failed to identify replicable trait patterns that predicted leadership. However, the development of meta-analytic techniques and improved personality taxonomies (e.g., the Big Five) renewed the interest in leadership traits. More recently, researchers have found that traits such as extraversion, assertiveness, and conscientiousness are associated with positive leadership outcomes (Bass, 2008; Judge et al., 2002).

Behavioral approaches were the focus of the next wave of leadership research. Research has provided evidence that leaders who demonstrate task- and relationship-oriented behaviors have better performance and affective outcomes. In the mid 20th

century, researchers attributed successful leadership to a leader's behaviors (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill, 1950). Halpin (1957) described Initiating Structure (i.e., task structuring behaviors) and Consideration (i.e., relationship-oriented behaviors). Although behavioral theories of leadership received less attention toward the end of the century, recent meta-analytic research has refocused attention on leadership behaviors similar to the renewed attention to trait theories of leadership. Researchers (e.g., DeRue, Nahgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011) have found that Initiating Structure is related to job satisfaction ($\rho = .22$), leader satisfaction ($\rho = .33$), motivation ($\rho = .40$), and leader effectiveness ($\rho = .39$). Similarly, researchers (e.g., DeRue et al., 2011) have found that Consideration is related to job satisfaction ($\rho = .46$), leader satisfaction ($\rho = .78$), motivation ($\rho = .50$), and leader effectiveness ($\rho = .52$; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004).

Situational approaches to leadership (e.g., Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971) have focused on aspects of the situation (e.g., follower or environmental characteristics), that determine what leadership style is most effective given the situational factors. For example, Fiedler's (1964) Contingency Theory was the first theory that incorporated context into leadership theories. Fiedler posited that a leader's style was stable, trait-like. Thus, his model focused on matching a leader's style to a situation. Further, Fiedler posited that situational favorability determined which leadership style (task or relationship-oriented) was most appropriate and what type of leader an organization should use. One determines situational favorability on the basis of three components: leader-member relations, task structure, and leader power position. A situation is deemed unfavorable if leader-member relations are poor, if the task is unstructured, and if the leader has a low power position whereas it is deemed favorable if leader-member

relations are good, the task is structured, and the leader has a high-power position. Researchers and practitioners have used Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker scale to determine which leadership style a leader exhibits (e.g., Fiedler, 1964). Leaders think about a person with whom they would least like to work and rate that person on a set of adjectives. If a leader rates the target more negatively, the leader is defined as being more task-oriented, and if the leader rates the target more positively, the leader is defined as being more relationship-oriented. In extreme situations (i.e., those deemed highly unfavorable or highly favorable), task-oriented leaders are preferred. In moderate situations (i.e., those in between), relationship-oriented leaders are preferred.

House (1971) proposed another situational leadership theory he called Path Goal Theory of leadership effectiveness. According to this theory, a leader selects specific behaviors and leadership styles (e.g., directive, supportive, participative, achievement-oriented) that best suit the situation as determined by employees' needs and the task and environment characteristics. House's model focused on a leader's behavior and the notion that leaders could demonstrate different behaviors depending on what is needed in a given situation. The leader's purpose is to guide employees through a 'path' to obtain their ultimate 'goals'. For example, if employees are experienced and have high ability in an environment in which the goal is clearly defined and there are no obstacles in the way of that goal, the leader should exhibit more hands-off behaviors and supportive leadership. However, these and a variety of other situational models have failed to account for significant variance in leadership emergence and effectiveness (e.g., Graeff, 1983; Hambleton & Gumpert, 1982).

During the 1970s, the lack of theoretical and empirical progress in leadership research resulted in a dearth of leadership research articles being published in journals, effectively a moratorium, and researchers called for substantively new approaches to the study of leadership. Subsequently, several popular theories reignited interest in the leadership field. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) conceived of transformational leadership, which posited that leaders use individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and charismatic inspiration to transform followers into competent workers. Similarly, charismatic leadership theory has attributed leadership effectiveness to a leader's charismatic confidence and inspirational vision (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977). Bass (1985) defined transformational leadership in terms of the leader's effect on followers and considered transformational leadership as another name for charisma, which itself considered a process through which a leader influences followers by arousing their emotions and identification with the leader. Leader-Member Exchange (Danserau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) was another theory that drew researchers' attention after the moratorium and remains popular today. Leader-Member Exchange posited that leaders do not treat subordinates with an 'average' leadership style but rather treat subordinates differently on the basis of membership in in-groups and out-groups.

Implicit Leadership Theories

More recently, cognitive perspectives have influenced leadership theories to examine how individuals think about leaders and how those conceptualizations, called Implicit Leadership Theories, might influence work and relational outcomes. People encounter too much information daily to process each and every piece. To ease their cognitive load, people rely on top-down cognition strategies to organize information into

a smaller number of categories (Galambos, Abelson, & Black, 1986). Bartlett (1932) called these smaller categories schemas.

Schemas can be used to organize any category of information, and when applied to people those categories can be called 'leaders' and 'followers' (e.g., Engle & Lord, 1997; Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982). Eden and Leviatan (1975) coined the term Implicit Leadership Theories to describe 'leader' schemas in the 1970s, and researchers have used these theories to explain and interpret leader behavior ever since. Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) are individuals' schemas composed of the attributes that characterize a leader (Lord & Maher, 1991). Research has suggested that people develop implicit theories about leaders early in life. Keller (2003) posited that the foundation on which individuals base their leader-follower expectations stem from the relationship a child had with his or her parent(s) in infancy and the child's attachment needs. From these parent-child relationships, ILTs continue to develop as individuals are exposed to more leader-follower experiences in adulthood (Ayman-Nolley & Ayman, 2005; Keller, 1999). Although ILTs remain stable over time, Kruse and Sy (2011) found that they are sensitive to the context in which they are applied.

Brooks, Rosch, and Lloyd (1978) identified three levels at which leader categories exist: superordinate, basic, and subordinate. According to Rosch, the superordinate level refers to leaders in general (as opposed to non-leaders), the basic level refers to general classes or types of leaders (e.g., business leaders), and the subordinate level refers to the more specific types of leaders (e.g., VP of finance). Subsequent research has found that most leader categories exist at the basic level with the subordinate level serving as contextual modifiers of the more basic categories (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986).

Once a person develops a leadership schema, that person will categorize a target person as a 'leader' on the basis of a perceived match between characteristics of the target and a preexisting schema through recognition-based processing (Lord et al., 1982).

In recognition-based processing, a person creates prototypes for what a group member should be. Those prototypes serve as a reference against which potential group members are compared. For example, if Jenna is democratic, cooperative, and considerate of others' feelings, and Joel's prototype of a leader includes democracy, cooperation, and consideration, then Joel will label Jenna as a leader. According to Lord et al. (1982), leadership prototypes can be rated on two dimensions: the norm of prototype and valence. On the norm of prototype dimension, prototypes are either typical or ideal (whichever is most representative of an individual's expectations). The valence dimension describes prototypes as positive, negative, or neutral. A prototype's valence represents the average of all attributes (i.e., mostly negative, mostly positive). Positive prototypes represent desired attributes, negative prototypes represent undesired attributes, and neutral prototypes represent attributes that are irrelevant for group membership.

Researchers have measured implicit theories through direct and indirect measures. When a researcher wants an unbiased measure of ILTs or when an individual is unaware of his or her schemas, the researcher would use an indirect measure. Many indirect measures were used in the first several decades of ILT research, including lexical decision tasks (Meyer & Schvaneveldt, 1971), word fragment completion (Gilbert & Hixon, 1991), and Implicit Association Tests (Greenwald et al., 1998). More recent research has used interpretation-based projective tests to measure ILTs indirectly (Harms & Luthans, 2012; Sy, 2013). However, the most popular ILT measures in the literature

currently involve direct methods in which participants rate a list of attributes characteristic of leaders (Lord & Maher, 1991; Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). This change in measurement trends reflects how researchers' perceptions of implicit theories have changed over time. Initially, researchers thought of ILTs as a source of bias in measuring leadership, so indirect measures were thought to be the least intrusive mechanism through which to gauge this bias (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). Toward the turn of the century, researchers began addressing ILTs as a mechanism through which individuals interpret leadership behaviors, so researchers were less concerned with ILT measures biasing one's schemas (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Several variables, including expertise, familiarity, and gender, moderate the relationship between leadership schemas and leader ratings. Foti and Luch (1992) found that a rater's expertise and familiarity with the target influences both that rater's quality of leader categories and judgments of leaders. This means that a person with more expertise in the relevant domain (e.g., marketing when rating at a marketing firm, education when rating at a university) and a person who is more familiar with his or her leader will have better-defined and higher quality categories against which to compare his or her leader and will make more accurate judgments of his or her leader. Related to prototype comparisons, male raters are more likely to base leadership ratings (e.g., effectiveness, satisfaction, liking) on match with prototypes than females (Nye & Forsyth, 1991). Therefore, it is more important for a leader to fit his or her follower's prototype of a 'leader' when the follower is male. van Quaquebeke and van Knippenberg (2012) found that leaders who treated followers as in-group members received better ratings from followers, regardless of whether the leaders were representative of leader

prototypes, compared to leaders who did not treat followers as in-group members.

According to this research, follower ratings strongly depend on whether a leader is a part of an 'in-group' with his or her followers.

Implicit Followership Theories

Until late in the 20th century, followers were treated as passive recipients of leadership within the leadership literature (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Meindl, 1990). In the 1980s and 1990s, researchers began placing more importance on followers and their impact on leaders (e.g., Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007). The study of followership began examining the impact followers have on the leadership process (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). As a result, new explicit theories began to incorporate the idea of followership into the existing knowledge of leadership to produce role-based theories and constructionist theories of followership (Carsten et al., 2010; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). In light of this research on followership, the leadership field has shifted its focus to examine further the effects followers can have on leaders and the leadership process. Many researchers have called for increased integration of followership within the extant leadership literature rather than simply considering followers in the absence of leaders (e.g., Baker, 2007; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Without integration, followership research is subject to the same mistakes made in leadership research, i.e., only considering one half of the leadership dyad in a vacuum, free of the other half.

As a first step to this integration, researchers have begun to study 'follower' schemas using Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs). IFTs are individuals' schemas composed of the attributes that characterize a follower (Sy, 2010). Conceptually, IFTs

are the same as ILTs only IFTs classify people as followers or non-followers rather than leaders and non-leaders. Research on IFTs is still in its infancy (Junker & van Dick, 2014), but researchers have identified performance and other attributes, such as loyalty and being able to cooperate with others, as IFT content areas (Van Gils, van Quaquebeke, & van Knippenberg, 2010). IFTs can describe typical or ideal followers, but Sy (2010) found that the content of both typical and ideal are similar. Additionally, Sy (2010) found that attributes typically included in implicit follower schemas involve being productive, interested in work, and a loyal team player. More specifically, a followership prototype would consist of both individual performance and team attributes.

Similar to Implicit Leadership Theories, Implicit Followership Theories are stable over time, but remain sensitive to the context in which they are applied (Kruse & Sy, 2011). For example, more negative emotions are associated typically with more negative IFTs. Thompson, Glaso, and Matthiesen (2018) examined how individuals' attachment styles are differently associated with IFTs. The researchers found that securely attached leaders hold more positive IFTs whereas anxious leaders hold more negative IFTs and avoidant leaders hold even more negative IFTs than anxious leaders. Individuals' expectations of followers might maintain consistency, but they are not immune to outside influences.

As with ILTs, the most popular IFT measurement method is Sy's (2010) direct measure in which individuals rate the extent to which attributes are characteristic of a follower. Sy modeled the structure of this direct measure after Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) ILT measure but did not attempt to create his measure to include identical items as the ILT scale. However, full integration of ILTs and IFTs is absent in the literature, still.

In part, examining the extent to which people view ILTs and IFTs as more similar than dissimilar is one goal of the current research.

Similarity or Dissimilarity of Leaders and Followers

Whereas little research has compared directly the similarity or dissimilarity of individuals' conceptualizations of leaders and followers, research has examined explicit ratings of leaders and followers for years. Empirical findings have suggested that people tend to perceive more similarities than differences between leaders and followers (e.g., Felfe & Schyns, 2009; Schyns & Felfe, 2006; Tanoff & Barolow, 2002). According to Watson, Hubbard, and Wiese (2000), people tend to perceive others as similar to themselves even when those others are not necessarily similar. Schyns and Felfe (2006) applied this principle to examine how the personality of followers affected those followers' perceptions of transformational leadership. They found that when followers were high in extraversion and agreeableness, they perceived their leaders to be more transformational. These personality characteristics—along with emotional stability—tend to be found often in transformational leaders (Bono & Judge, 2004), which suggests that followers perceive their leaders as similar to themselves.

Felfe and Schyns (2009) expanded this research and found evidence for what they labeled the 'similarity hypothesis'. They posited not only that followers will tend to perceive their leaders as similar to themselves, but also followers will prefer leadership styles that share the followers' personality characteristics. Similar to earlier research, Felfe and Schyns (2009) found that followers who are high in extraversion and agreeableness perceived more transformational leadership in their immediate supervisors. Additionally, the same researchers found that those same followers exhibited higher

levels of affective commitment to their leaders, meaning the followers were committed to their leaders because they wanted to and not because they were required. Hetland, Sandal, and Johnson (2008) found similar results for passive-avoidant leadership in addition to transformational. Followers high in agreeableness and low in neuroticism, both characteristics of transformational leaders, rated their leaders as more transformational whereas followers high in openness and low in agreeableness rated their leaders as more passive-avoidant. High openness and low agreeableness are consistent characteristics of passive-avoidant leaders who use laissez-faire leadership and management by exception. Ehrhart and Klein (2001) found support for this similarity hypothesis in predicting charismatic, relationship-oriented, and task-oriented leadership. Not only did followers' personality traits predict which leadership style they preferred, but also followers preferred leadership styles that fulfilled some sort of personal need. Followers who desired achievement preferred charismatic leadership, followers who expressed a need for interpersonal relationships preferred relationship-oriented, and followers desiring structure preferred task-oriented leadership (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001).

Neo-classical theories of management have supported this notion that leaders and followers should be more similar rather than different (Mayo, 1933; McGregor, 1957). Both Mayo's human behavior theory and McGregor's Theory X/Theory Y posited that leaders and followers should interact and communicate with each other in simultaneously active roles. McGregor's theory highlighted both sides of the coin, characterizing the earlier authoritative perspective as 'Theory X' in which workers were seen as lazy and required threats of punishment to perform their work and 'Theory Y' in which workers were seen as desiring self-respect, self-development, and self-fulfillment. Additionally,

several attributes on the explicit measures of ILTs (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) and IFTs (Sy, 2010) have appeared on both measures identically or through attribute synonyms, further supporting the notion that people view leaders and followers similarly. According to this perspective, the dyad members take on more similar roles in which both members work together in the leadership process and would be expected to have similar attributes.

As mentioned above, Sy modeled the structure of this direct IFT measure after Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) ILT measure. The content of the two scales itself might suggest that there are some similarities between how people conceptualize leaders and followers. There are a few identical or conceptually similar items on the two measures (e.g., hardworking, energetic, exciting). Additionally, there are conceptually antonymous items that could be compared when one is reverse-coded (e.g., clever and slow).

However, previous research has suggested that practitioners should interpret these comparisons with caution as individuals interpret positive and negative items differently (Biderman, Nguyen, Cunningham, & Ghorbani, 2011; DiStefano & Motl, 2006). By and large, though, these two measures treat ILTs and IFTs as relatively separate constructs and make it difficult to compare directly how people think of leaders and followers on comparable attributes. At this time, there are no published studies that directly compare the similarities or differences between individuals' implicit theories of leaders or followers. Thus, one purpose of the current research was to address the extent to which people think of leaders and followers as having similar or different attributes.

Research Question 1: Do people think of leaders and followers as having similar, different, or unrelated characteristics?

Measuring Implicit Theories

Direct measures are the most commonly used measures of ILTs and IFTs. Individuals rate the extent to which attributes are characteristic of a leader or a follower (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Sy, 2010). Currently, Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) adaptation of Offerman and colleagues' (1994) ILT measure contains 21 items that constitute six positive and negative leadership dimensions (e.g., dynamism, charisma, tyranny). Sy's (2010) IFT measure contains 18 items that constitute six positive and negative followership dimensions (e.g., dynamism, conformity, incompetence). However, researchers have raised some concerns regarding the validity of these popular direct measures of ILTs and IFTs (e.g., Braun, Stegmann, Hernandez Bark, Junker, & van Dick, 2017; Foti, Bray, Thompson, & Allgood, 2012; Phillips & Lord, 1986). Some research has failed to replicate the hypothesized six dimensions in either scale across multiple studies and in samples of varying individuals (e.g., with undergraduate students and working adults, Bashore, 2017). Additionally, other researchers have conducted statistical analyses on the same two measures and found that each scale had some deficiencies (i.e., missing items relevant to a leader or follower, respectively) and contaminating items (i.e., items that rarely had agreement on whether or not they were characteristic of a leader or follower, respectively; Roediger et al., 2017). Furthermore, Sy (2010) did not create his IFT measure with identical items or with the ILT scale in mind, which means that some of the dimensions, although similar to those found on the ILT scale, are not exact replications of ILT dimensions. However, this issue that the two measures are not identical only becomes a problem when a researcher wants to compare the two constructs directly. There is no inherent problem with Epitropaki and Martin

(2004) and Sy (2010) creating independent measures of ILTs and IFTs, respectively, and substantial research has successfully used these measures to examine each construct independently.

The previous criticisms do not mean that the current measures are useless. In fact, many of the attributes on both measures reflect adequate, typical conceptualizations of leadership according to modern theories of leadership (e.g., hardworking, dedicated; Bass, 1985). However, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) and Sy (2010) went to great lengths to create the shortest possible measure of ILTs and IFTs, respectively. Although raters of these questionnaires might appreciate the brevity of each measure, limiting the number of items limits the range of leader and follower expectations that each measure can capture. In this case, I believe the relative cost of more time (seconds per item) is worth the wider range of leader and follower expectations that more ILT and IFT items can accommodate.

Additionally, no previous research has attempted to compare directly individuals' ILTs and IFTs, so no published research has raised concerns about these popular measures consisting of different items. In previous unpublished research, I was able to match a handful of item pairs from each list with either identical or conceptually similar items. Matching similar, but non-identical items on the two measures can be problematic. For one, many of the matched pairs, although conceptually similar, were not perfect one-to-one matches with each other (e.g., pushy and arrogant). Second, many of the matched pairs were antonyms (e.g., clever and slow), which means that the negative item (slow) had to be reverse-coded to equate to the positive item. Previous research has suggested that individuals interpret positive and negative items differently, so matching a positive item with a reverse-coded negative item can limit the extent to

which researchers can judge those two items similarly (Biderman et al., 2011; DiStefano & Motl, 2006). Having ILT and IFT measures that contain limited similarities in relation to content hinders severely the extent to which researchers can compare directly expectations of leaders and followers in this and future research.

Thus, another purpose of the current study was to create more comprehensive measures of both Implicit Leadership and Implicit Followership Theories and examine their psychometric properties. I started by including for examination the 66 items from the existing ILT and IFT measures, and items that were identical on both lists appeared only once. Additional items came from the IPIP measure of the Big Five personality traits. Researchers have validated the Big Five personality attributes, and they have been frequently used in research to describe aspects of individuals (Goldberg, 1999), which supports the goal of ILT and IFT measures. Beginning with this more comprehensive item set enabled me to examine scale properties and relationships with other variables. The goal, in part, was to examine the potential of new ILT and IFT measures that could be used in future research.

Research Objective 1: Create new measures of Implicit Leadership Theories and Implicit Followership Theories.

Research Objective 2: Conduct some preliminary validation of the new ILT and IFT measures by examining their relationships with other established scales.

Antecedents of Implicit Theories

Leadership researchers have used individual difference characteristics to predict explicit leadership and leadership behavior for decades (Judge et al., 2002; Stogdill, 1948). Some of the most studied individual differences have been personality traits.

Judge and colleagues (2002) found that extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience were the personality factors most strongly related to leadership. Neuroticism and agreeableness were related with leadership but only in certain conditions.

Additionally, researchers have found that certain types of leaders typically share similar personality characteristics (e.g., Bass, 1985; Judge & Bono, 2000). For example, transformational leaders tend to be high in extraversion and low in neuroticism (Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Bono, 2000), and charismatic leaders tend to be risk-takers, hold high expectations, and emphasize a collective identity (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977).

Leaders benefit from having certain personality traits. For example, openness to experience is positively related to divergent thinking (McCrae, 1987) and creativity (Feist, 1998; McCrae & Costa, 1997). Consistently, researchers have found that creative individuals make better leaders (e.g., Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1998; Yukl, 1998). Individuals high in openness tend to be more imaginative, unconventional, and autonomous. People high in these attributes are likely to have greater creativity and general cognitive ability and therefore greater attentional resources to apply to leadership behaviors. Conscientiousness is the personality trait most strongly related to overall job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Individuals high in conscientiousness are high achieving, dependable, persistent, and take initiative. Whereas people high in openness likely have greater attentional resources, people who are higher in conscientiousness are more likely to apply their attentional resources to their work and, if necessary, to their leadership behaviors.

Other traits, like agreeableness, extraversion, and neuroticism, have been connected with explicit leadership as well. Components of agreeableness, including cooperativeness and interpersonal sensitivity, are related to components of leadership (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991). People high in agreeableness tend to be compliant, caring, and trusting of others. Extraverted people are characterized as sociable, active, and energized. Whereas being energetic and lively might not be directly related to leadership, people who are highly sociable and zealous are likely to be perceived by others as highly relatable. Although the relationship between neuroticism and leadership is less clear than with other personality traits, high self-esteem is associated with low neuroticism, and Hill and Ritchie (1977) found that self-esteem is positively related to leadership. Additionally, adjustment and leadership were moderately correlated in a meta-analysis by Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986). People high in neuroticism do not control their emotions well and tend to experience anxiety, uncertainty, and hostility. If individuals lack the ability to regulate their emotions, they are likely to experience conflict with other people and thus fail to meet others' relational needs. However, experiencing some anxiety and uncertainty might motivate one to focus on tasks necessary to lead a group to success.

Still other researchers have linked personality characteristics to specific behaviors associated with leadership (Bashore, Steele-Johnson, Peyton, Gore, & Kovacs, 2017). In one study, Bashore et al. (2017) found that conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, and neuroticism were significantly related with Initiating Structure, a traditional task-oriented leadership behavior defined by Halpin (1957). The same traits, as well as openness, were significantly related to the relationship-oriented behavior of

consideration. All five traits were related to a measure of followership, which Peyton (2014) found was a distinct and important component of shared leadership.

All of this research, however, has focused exclusively on the relationships between individual difference characteristics and explicit forms of leadership. Absent from the extant literature is an examination of characteristics about an individual that might account for differential conceptualizations of leaders and followers (i.e., his or her implicit theories). Implicit theories have been treated almost exclusively as the antecedents of other outcomes (e.g., performance, commitment, job satisfaction; Ayman & Chemers, 1983; Bass & Avolio, 1989; Poole et al., 1989). Thus, another purpose of this study was to examine which individual difference characteristics accounted for significant variance in ILT and IFT ratings. I examined traditional individual difference characteristics including personality traits (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability) and preference for autocratic or democratic leader.

Research Question 2: What individual differences account for significant variance in Implicit Leadership and Followership Theory ratings?

Summary and Purposes

Prior research has suggested that people perceive leaders and followers as more similar than dissimilar (e.g., Felfe & Schyns, 2009; Schyns & Felfe, 2006; Tanoff & Barolow, 2002). However, no research has compared directly the similarity or dissimilarity of individuals' conceptualization of leadership and follows (i.e., their Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories). Some researchers have raised concerns regarding the validity of the most popular existing direct measures of ILTs and IFTs (e.g., Braun et al., 2017; Foti et al., 2012; Phillips & Lord, 1986). Additionally, researchers

have examined individual difference related to explicit theories of leadership, but no research has examined which individual difference characteristics might predict differential ratings on implicit measures of leadership. Thus, the purposes of this study were to create and provide an initial evaluation of new, more comprehensive measures of Implicit Leadership Theories and Implicit Followership Theories, compare the extent to which people think of leaders and followers as more similar or dissimilar, and to examine what individual differences account for significant variance in Implicit Leadership and Followership Theory ratings. I conducted this study with the hope that these measures could be used to test additional relationships between implicit theories and constructs of interest in future research.

Method

Participants

According to a power analysis, I needed at least 132 participants to detect relationships in a simple regression. I conducted this power analysis using the software package G*Power 3.1 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). My effect size estimate was 0.10 at an alpha level of $\alpha = .05$ with one predictor. However, I was not just predicting relationships with these data. In order to conduct exploratory factor analyses and scale validation work, I used a rule of thumb and aimed for at least 200 participants for two separate samples, one in which I would conduct factor analytic work and one in which I would test relationships between study variables. Total participants consisted of 485 currently employed adults who live in the United States: 243 in an initial sample used to create the new ILT and IFT measures and an additional 242 to test relationships

between study variables. I recruited participants through Amazon's Mechanical Turk, and they received a monetary compensation of \$.75 for their participation.

Measures

Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories (ILTs/IFTs). To measure Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories, I used a combination of previously validated items from three existing scales: Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) adaptation of Offermann and colleagues' (1994) ILT scale, Sy's (2010) IFT scale, and a 30-item IPIP measure of the Big Five personality constructs (Goldberg, 1999; see Appendix A for the entire set of items). I used all 21 items from Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) ILT measure that constitute the following 6 distinct leadership dimensions: Sensitivity ($\alpha = .88$, three items), Intelligence ($\alpha = .79$, four items), Dedication ($\alpha = .77$, three items), Dynamism ($\alpha = .70$, three items), Tyranny ($\alpha = .88$, six items), and Masculinity ($\alpha = .83$, two items). I used 16 of the original 18 items from Sy's (2010) IFT measure that constitute the following six factors: Industry ($\alpha = .86$, three items), Incompetence ($\alpha = .74$, three items), Conformity ($\alpha = .71$, three items), Enthusiasm ($\alpha = .83$, three items), Insubordination ($\alpha = .82$, three items), and Good Citizen ($\alpha = .81$, three items). Two of the original IFT items were duplicates from the ILT scale. Additionally, I used 29 items from the IPIP that constitute the following 5 distinct personality dimensions: Openness ($\alpha = .82$), Conscientiousness ($\alpha = .81$), Extraversion ($\alpha = .86$), Agreeableness ($\alpha = .77$), and Neuroticism ($\alpha = .86$). One of the IPIP items was a duplicate from the original ILT scale. Participants were asked to rate each attribute a total of three times: once as either characteristic of a supervisor, employee, both, or neither, once as how characteristic each item is of an ideal supervisor (see Appendix B), and once as how characteristic each item

is of an ideal employee (see Appendix C). Participants were asked to rate each attribute in relation to an *ideal* supervisor or employee from the perspective of an employee in an employee-supervisor relationship to avoid possible problems with raters negatively interpreting their role as a ‘follower’. Attributes were rated on a five-point graphic rating scale (1 = *not at all characteristic* and 5 = *extremely characteristic*).

Personality. I assessed participants’ personality using the 50-item Revised NEO-Personality Inventory measure of the Big Five personality factors (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Each of the five personality factors has 10 items and each subscale has the following internal consistency: Extraversion ($\alpha = .87$), Agreeableness ($\alpha = .82$), Conscientiousness $\alpha = .79$), Emotional Stability $\alpha = .86$), and Openness $\alpha = .84$; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Participants were asked to rate how each item describes themselves as they generally are now on a seven-point graphic rating scale (1 = *very inaccurate* and 7 = *very accurate*). Scores for each subscale were averaged, and higher scores indicated higher levels of that personality factor. Sample items include “I am the life of the party” and “I insult people” (see Appendix D).

Leadership Scale for Sport. To measure participants’ leadership style preference, I used two subscales of the revised Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS). Twelve items of the scale measured individuals’ preference for democratic leadership and eight items measured individuals’ preference for autocratic leadership. The democratic subscale has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .96$, and the autocratic subscale has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .59$ (Zhang et al., 1997). Participants were asked to rate to what extent they preferred a leader to engage in a list of behaviors on a five-point graphic rating scale (1 = *never – 0%* and 5 = *always – 100%*). Scores for each subscale were averaged to

create subscale scores and higher subscale scores indicated stronger preference for that style of leadership. A sample democratic leadership item is “I prefer my leader to put the suggestions made by employees into operation”. A sample autocratic leadership item is “I prefer my leader to keep aloof from employees” (see Appendix E).

Demographic Variables. I assessed participants’ age, gender, race, hours worked per week, job tenure, tenure with current supervisor, education level, and whether their job had any leadership responsibilities (see Appendix F).

Additional Measures. I assessed the following constructs not related to the main research questions of the study. The main purpose of assessing these constructs was to assess more fully in additional analyses the relationships between Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories and other constructs.

Consideration. I assessed Consideration using the 15-item Consideration scale of the Leadership Behavioral Dimensions Questionnaire (LBDQ; Halpin, 1957). This measure has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .92$. Participants were asked to rate how often their supervisor engages in relationship-oriented leadership behaviors. Items were scored on a 5-point graphic-rating scale (1 = *rarely* and 5 = *very often*). Scores from the scale were averaged, and higher scores indicated higher levels of Consideration. A sample item is, “he/she finds time to listen to group members” (see Appendix G).

Initiating Structure. I assessed Initiating Structure using the 15-item Initiating Structure scale of the LBDQ (Halpin, 1957). This measure has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .83$. Participants were asked to rate how often their supervisor engages in task-oriented leadership behaviors. Items were scored on a 5-point graphic-rating scale (1 = *rarely* and 5 = *very often*). Scores from the scale were averaged, and higher scores

indicated higher levels of Initiating Structure. A sample item includes, “he/she assigns group members to particular tasks” (see Appendix H).

Followership. I assessed Followership using a 22-item scale developed by Peyton (2014). This measure has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .86$. Participants were asked to rate how often they as an employee in an employee-supervisor relationship engage in following behaviors. Items were scored on a 5-point graphic-rating scale (1 = *rarely* and 5 = *very often*). Scores from the scale were averaged, and higher scores indicated higher levels of Followership. A sample item includes, “he/she accepts help from other group members” (see Appendix I).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB). OCBs served as a measure of employee contextual performance. Even though OCBs are self-reported, research has suggested that self-reported OCBs are as reliable as data reported by other individuals (e.g., Carpenter, Berry, & Houston, 2014). I measured OCBs with Lee and Allen’s (2002) 16-item scale, which includes an OCB-I subscale (eight items) and an OCB-O subscale (eight items). The OCB-I subscale has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .83$, and the OCB-O subscale has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .88$ (Lee & Allen, 2003). Participants were asked to rate how often they engage in a list of behaviors on a seven-point graphic rating scale (1 = *never* and 7 = *always*). Scores were averaged, and higher averages indicated more OCBs. A sample OCB-I item is “Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems”. A sample OCB-O item is “Show pride when representing the organization in public” (see Appendix J)

Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWB). CWBs were a second measure of employee contextual performance. Even though CWBs are self-reported, research has

suggested that self-reported CWBs are as reliable as data reported by other individuals (e.g., Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012). I measured CWBs with the 19-item scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000), which includes a CWB-I subscale (seven items) and a CWB-O subscale (12 items). The CWB-I subscale has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .84$, and the CWB-O subscale has an internal consistency of $\alpha = .85$ (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Participants were asked to rate how frequently they engage in a list of behaviors on a seven-point graphic rating scale (1 = *never* and 7 = *daily*). Scores were averaged, and higher averages indicated more CWBs. A sample CWB-I item is “Played a mean prank on someone at work”. A sample CWB-O item is “Come in late to work without permission” (see Appendix K).

Cognitive Dissonance. I assessed the dissonance employees experience as a result of incongruence between expectations for leaders and followers. To measure cognitive dissonance, I administered a five-item scale developed by Bashore (2017). Participants were asked to indicate what extent they experience each state when they think about their expectations for supervisors and work followers. The items were scored on a seven-point graphic rating scale (e.g., 1 = *very uncomfortable* and 7 = *very comfortable*). Scores from the scale were averaged, and higher scores indicated less cognitive dissonance. Sample items include “not at all stressed to very stressed” and “not at all focused to very focused” (see Appendix L).

Procedure

The survey was administered through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk. Participants completed the survey at a time and location of their own choosing. First, participants completed a screening survey to ensure they were eligible for participation (see Appendix

M) and an attention check to gauge for insufficient effort responding (see Appendix N). If participants were eligible for the study, they completed an informed consent process. Then, participants rated the ILT and IFT items three separate times. In the first iteration, participants were asked to rate whether each item best describes an ideal supervisor, an ideal employee, both, or neither, and were forced to choose one response. In the second iteration, participants were asked to think of an employee-supervisor relationship and asked to rate to what extent each item was characteristic of an ideal supervisor. In the third iteration, participants were asked to think of an employee-supervisor relationship and asked to rate to what extent each item was characteristics of an ideal employee. Then, participants completed additional questionnaires assessing personality, leadership style preference, Consideration, Initiating Structure, Followership, OCBs, CWBs, cognitive dissonance, and demographic information (age, race, gender, hours worked per week, job tenure, tenure with current supervisor, education level, and leadership responsibilities in current job). After participants completed the questionnaires, they were debriefed.

Results

Data Cleaning

Of the 500 participants who participated in the study, 15 were deleted because they did not pass the attention check measure necessary to participate. Next, I reverse-coded appropriate items from each scale as necessary. Then, I calculated scale scores by averaging the scores for each measure. Before conducting any analyses, I split the data into two smaller samples: one with a sample size of 243 that was used to create the new

ILT and IFT measures and a second with a sample size of 242 that was used to test relationships between study variables.

Descriptive Statistics

The final samples included 243 and 242 participants. For Sample 1, with which the ILT and IFT measure items were derived, 139 (57%) were male and 104 (43%) were female with an average age of 35.85 years ($SD = 11.31$). The majority were White/Caucasian (70%) and had completed at least a 4-year college degree (74%), most participants worked in management, professional, sales, office, or related fields (68%), and the majority (63%) had a job with some leadership responsibilities. For Sample 2, with which all other analyses were conducted, 127 (52%) were male and 115 (48%) were female with an average age of 37.07 years ($SD = 11.02$). The majority were White/Caucasian (64%) and had completed at least a 4-year college degree (70%), most participants worked in management, professional, sales, office, or related fields (72%), and the majority (71%) had a job with some leadership responsibilities.

I calculated internal consistency reliability estimates in Sample 2 for each of my measures. I reported measure means, standard deviations, alpha coefficients, and intercorrelations for all ILT subscales, IFT subscales, and individual difference predictors (Table 1). I reported measure means, standard deviations, alpha coefficients, and intercorrelations for all other study variables in Table 2. There are several intercorrelations of note. The subscale scores for both the counterproductive and task subscales on the ILT were significantly related with their counterpart on the IFT ($r = .93$ and $.87$, respectively). However, ILT creativity subscale scores were not significantly related to IFT creativity scores ($r = -.01$). This could indicate that individuals think of

leaders and followers similarly on the counterproductive and task items but not on creativity. Additionally, the correlation between the counterproductive and task scores for both the ILT scale ($r = .60$) and IFT scale ($r = .51$) were significant.

I examined the ILT and IFT subscale scores for normality using the Skewness and Kurtosis values and visually inspecting each scale's histogram (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2000). All three subscales (counterproductive, task, and creativity) had a strong negative skew as expected. This means that the vast majority of ratings for each attribute were high as opposed to low. However, I did not conduct any transformations of the data. Thus, all analyses were based on raw form to improve interpretability unless otherwise stated.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between ILT and IFT Subscales and Individual Difference Predictors

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. ILT- counterproductive	4.11	1.05	.97													
2. ILT- task	4.36	0.71	.60	.95												
3. ILT - creativity	3.70	0.78	-.06	.12	.76											
4. IFT - counterproductive	4.10	1.08	.93	.53	-.07	.97										
5. IFT - task	4.37	0.69	.53	.87	.13	.51	.93									
6. IFT - creativity	3.78	0.85	.03	.41	-.01	-.01	.50	.78								
7. Extraversion	4.04	1.23	-.03	.03	-.02	-.05	.05	.08	.84							
8. Agreeableness	5.18	1.09	.44	.46	.10	.45	.48	.23	.25	.84						
9. Conscientiousness	5.14	1.02	.51	.48	-.12	.52	.50	.12	-.03	.42	.79					
10. Emotional Stability	4.57	1.37	.50	.29	-.05	.49	.26	.09	.25	.43	.45	.89				
11. Openness	5.20	1.02	.36	.52	.07	.37	.54	.31	.26	.53	.34	.22	.82			
12. Democratic	5.05	1.02	-.02	.33	.23	-.03	.33	.37	.04	.23	.18	-.06	.37	.90		
13. Autocratic	2.25	1.02	-.80	-.45	.05	-.81	-.47	.01	.10	-.45	.46	-.43	-.35	-.02	.92	
14. Followership	3.82	0.50	.35	.62	.13	.34	.65	.43	.13	.56	.45	.31	.56	.45	-.31	.86

Note. Alpha coefficients are placed along the diagonal.

Democratic is preference for a democratic leader, and Autocratic is preference for an autocratic leader.

Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) and Implicit Followership Theory (IFT) subscales and Democratic, Autocratic, and Followership were rated on a 1-5 scale.

Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Openness were rated on a 1-7 scale.

Bolded values are significant at the $p < .01$ level except for correlations of .13, which are significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Additional Study Variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Consideration	3.50	.73	.90						
2. Initiating Structure	3.53	.60	.38	.83					
3. OCB-I	4.59	.90	.20	.25	.78				
4. OCB-O	4.50	.97	.33	.40	.52	.80			
5. CWB-I	3.11	2.24	-.05	.15	-.07	-.05	.97		
6. CWB-O	3.12	2.11	-.05	.18	-.09	-.07	.90	.97	
7. Cognitive Dissonance	4.98	1.20	.30	.09	.33	.28	-.51	-.57	.79

Note. Alpha coefficients are placed along the diagonal.

Consideration, Initiating Structure, and Cognitive Dissonance were rated on a 1-5 scale.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Individual and Organization (OCB-I, OCB-O) and Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors Individual and Organization (CWB-I, CWB-O) were rated on a 1-7 scale.

Bolded values are significant at the $p < .01$ level except for the correlation of .15, which is significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Research Questions and Objectives

In this study, I posed two research questions: 1) do people think of leaders and followers as having similar, different, or unrelated characteristics, and 2) what individual differences account for significant variance in Implicit Leadership and Followership Theory ratings? Additionally, I sought to complete two research objectives: 1) create new measures of Implicit Leadership Theories and Implicit Followership Theories, and 2) conduct some preliminary validation of the new ILT and IFT measures by examining their relationships with other established scales. I addressed Research Objective 1 and Research Question 1 with Sample 1, and I addressed Research Objective 2 and Research Question 2 with Sample 2.

Research Objective 1. I used Sample 1 ($N = 243$) to address Research Objective 1. To determine which items to include in the new ILT and IFT measures, respectively, I examined the frequencies with which people endorsed each of 66 attributes as describing a leader, follower, both, or neither. Landis and Kock (1977) suggested that a kappa (i.e., agreement) level of at least .61, on a 0 to 1 scale, represents substantial agreement. As such, I determined that at least 61% of respondents had to agree on a response to include that item in the factor analyses. I coded participants' responses to the 66 items as follows: 1 = endorsed "*descriptive of an ideal supervisor*", 2 = endorsed "*descriptive of an ideal employee*", 3 = endorsed "*descriptive of both an ideal supervisor and an ideal employee*", and 4 = endorsed "*descriptive of neither an ideal supervisor or an ideal employee*". I calculated the modal responses.

Originally, I planned to classify an item as descriptive of a leader and include it in the ILT factor analyses if the mode was 1 or 3 (i.e., ILT only or both) and as descriptive

of a follower and include it in the IFT factor analyses if the mode was 2 or 3 (i.e., IFT only or both). However, after further consideration, I decided to include items that had substantial agreement and a mode of 4 (descriptive of neither an ideal supervisor or an ideal employee) to include both desired and undesired or ‘anti-leadership’ and ‘anti-followership’ attributes. As a result, I included in subsequent analyses all items with an agreement rate of 61% or more. Using these rules, all items with the exception of 14, 20, 21, 30, 31, 32, 46, and 66 had acceptable agreement, had a mode of three or four, and, thus, were included in both the ILT and IFT factor analyses. Of the 58 items that had substantial agreement, participants agreed on one of two response options: descriptive of *both* an ideal supervisor or ideal employee or descriptive of *neither* an ideal supervisor or ideal employee. Therefore, no items had substantial agreement as descriptive of only an ideal supervisor or only an ideal employee.

Then, I conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses on the retained leader and follower attributes, respectively, to determine which items I would include in the final ILT and IFT measures.

ILT. First, I examined the scree plot for the retained 58 items, which provided evidence of three factors (see Figure 1). Then, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis with three factors. I used an oblique rotation because I expected a correlation between the three factors. Eleven items (7, 11, 12, 13, 38, 41, 42, 43, 45, 47, and 54) did not load onto any factor above .3 or cross loaded on two or more factors and differed by less than .3.

Next, I ran the factor analysis with three factors omitting the 11 items that did not fit any factor. Results from this exploratory factor analysis indicated that all but six items

(6, 24, 25, 26, 41, and 64) loaded as expected onto the three factors. After examining this factor structure, I determined that three items (27, 28, and 48) did not conceptually match any of the three factors. In total, I retained 38 items for the following analyses.

Then, I ran the factor analysis with three factors omitting the nine items (6, 24, 25, 26, 41, 64, 27, 28, and 48) that did not fit any factor or did not conceptually fit the factor content, respectively, in the previous iteration. Results from this exploratory factor analysis indicated that items loaded as expected onto the three factors. Factor loadings for items at each stage of the process are displayed in Appendix O and have been rearranged so items loading onto the same factor are grouped together and ordered by strength. The final retained 38 items are displayed in Table 3 grouped into the three conceptually distinct factors and are ordered by strength. Factor correlations are displayed in Table 4.

I labeled the three conceptually distinct factors by examining the content of each individually. All of the items in the first distinct factor were negative, typically undesired traits for leaders and were generally unproductive. Thus, I labeled the first factor 'Counterproductive'. Items in the second distinct factor were generally all productive, and some of the strongest loading items related to leaders' ability to facilitate work. Thus, I labeled the second factor 'Task', although this should not be confused with Halpin's (1957) distinction of task-oriented leader behaviors. The final distinct factor were all related to unconventionality and openness. Thus, I labeled the third factor 'Creativity'.

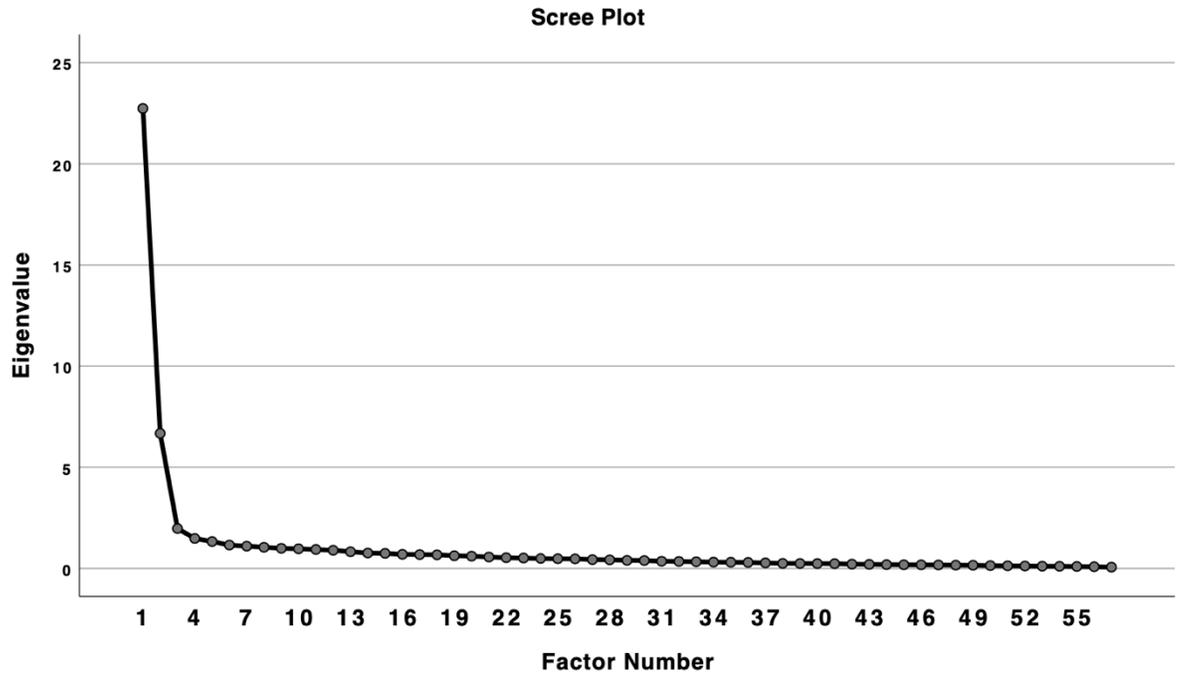


Figure 1. Scree plot of the ILT measure scale items.

Table 3

ILT Factor Structure and Retained Items

ILT Subscales	Counterproductive	Task	Creativity
	Irritable	Helpful	Imaginative
	Bad tempered	Dedicated	Artistic
	Rude	Efficient	Curious
	Tense	Intelligent	Adventurous
	Slow	Reliable	
	Moody	Productive	
	Inexperienced	Sincere	
	Arrogant	Organized	
	Selfish	Goes above and beyond	
	Conceited	Motivated	
	Shy	Understanding	
	Vulnerable	Hard-working	
	Pushy	Thorough	
	Loud	Straightforward	
	Depressed	Dutiful	
	Manipulative	Self-disciplined	
	Forceful	Educated	

Note. Attributes are listed in order of loading strength. Factor loadings can be found in Appendix O.

Table 4

Factor Correlations for ILT Measure

Factor	1	2	3
1			
2	.625		
3	-.030	.333	

IFT. First, I examined the scree plot, which provided evidence of three factors (see Figure 2). Then, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis with three factors. I used an oblique rotation because I expected a correlation between the three factors. Twenty items (1, 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 13, 24, 25, 26, 38, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 47, 48, 50, and 61)

did not load onto any factor above .3 or cross loaded on two or more factors and differed by less than .3. After examining this factor structure, I determined that two items (27 and 29) did not conceptually match any of the three factors. In total, I retained 36 items for the following analyses.

Next, I ran the factor analysis with three factors omitting the 22 items (1, 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 13, 24, 25, 26, 38, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 47, 48, 50, 61, 27, and 29) that did not fit any factor or did not conceptually fit the factor content, respectively, in the previous iteration. Results from this exploratory factor analysis indicated that items loaded as expected onto the three factors. Factor loadings for each step of the process are displayed in Appendix P and have been rearranged so items loading onto the same factor are grouped together and ordered by strength. The final retained 36 items are displayed in Table 5 grouped into the three conceptually distinct factors and are ordered by strength. Factor correlations are displayed in Table 6.

Similar to the way in which I labeled the three conceptually distinct ILT factors by examining the content of each individually, I completed the same process for the IFT factors. All of the items in the first distinct factor were negative, typically undesired traits for followers and were generally unproductive. Thus, I labeled the first factor 'Counterproductive'. Items in the second distinct factor were generally all productive, and some of the strongest loading items related to followers' ability to execute work. Thus, I labeled the second factor 'Task', although this should not be confused with Halpin's (1957) distinction of task-oriented behaviors. The final distinct factor were all related to unconventionality and openness. Thus, I labeled the third factor 'Creativity'.

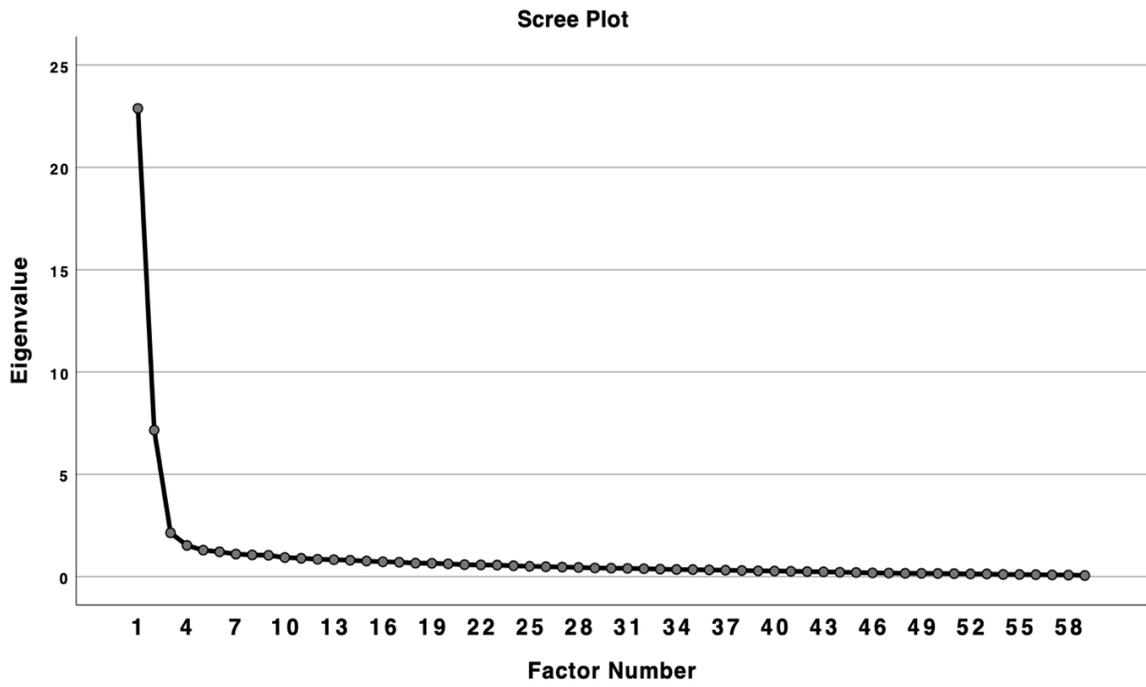


Figure 2. Scree plot of the IFT measure scale items.

Table 5
IFT Factor Structure and Retained Items

IFT Subscales	Counterproductive	Task	Creativity
	Depressed	Hard-working	Artistic
	Tense	Dedicated	Imaginative
	Arrogant	Thorough	Adventurous
	Irritable	Goes above and	Wide interests
	Rude	beyond	Excitable
	Bad tempered	Efficient	
	Selfish	Motivated	
	Slow	Reliable	
	Moody	Self-disciplined	
	Inexperienced	Understanding	
	Manipulative	Sincere	
	Shy	Knowledgeable	
	Conceited	Deliberate	
	Pushy	Dutiful	
	Loud	Productive	
	Vulnerable		
	Forceful		

Note. Attributes are listed in order of loading strength. Factor loadings can be found in Appendix P.

Table 6
Factor Correlations for IFT Measure

Factor	1	2	3
1			
2	.625		
3	-.040	.304	

Research Question 1. I used Sample 1 ($N = 243$) to address Research Question

1. To examine Research Question 1, I analyzed the frequencies with which people endorsed each of the 66 attributes as describing a leader, follower, both, and neither. As described above, I determined that 61% or more of respondents represented substantial agreement and warranted the inclusion of that item in the factor analyses (Landis &

Kock, 1977). When examining the frequencies of participants' responses, every item except eight had substantial agreement: 14. domineering, 20. male, 21. masculine, 30. easily influenced, 31. follows trends, 32. soft spoke, 46. compliant, and 66. unconventional. Moreover, of the 58 items that had substantial agreement, participants agreed on one of two response options: descriptive of *both* an ideal supervisor or ideal employee or descriptive of *neither* an ideal supervisor or ideal employee. No items had substantial agreement as descriptive of only an ideal supervisor or only an ideal employee. This provided initial evidence that perhaps individuals think of leaders and followers more similarly than differently.

When I examined the frequencies of the eight items that did not have substantial agreement, four of the items (14. domineering, 20. male, 21. masculine, and 30. easily influenced) had at least 50% but no more than 57% agreement as descriptive of neither an ideal supervisor or ideal employee. Three items, 31. follows trends, 32. soft spoken, and 66. unconventional, were split somewhat evenly as descriptive of both an ideal supervisor and an ideal employee and descriptive of neither. Participants were split between descriptive of only an ideal employee and descriptive of both an ideal supervisor and an ideal employee for item 46, the attribute 'compliant'.

To further address this research question, I examined the final factor structures of the new ILT and IFT measures. I conducted the factor analyses separately, but the same three conceptual factors emerged in the final ILT and IFT scales: counterproductive, task-focused, and creativity factors. Furthermore, although the specific items included in each factor varied slightly between the ILT and IFT measures, many of the items were equivalent as well (see Table 7). For example, the same 17 items created the ILT

counterproductive factor as the IFT counterproductive factor. Twelve items appeared on both the ILT and IFT task factors. Three items appeared on both the ILT and IFT creativity factor as well. Only five items (helpful, intelligent, educated, straightforward, and organized) appeared on the ILT task factor and not the IFT and two items (knowledgeable and deliberate) appeared on the IFT task factor and not the ILT. Similarly, only one item (curious) appeared on the ILT creativity factor and not the IFT and two items (wide interests and excitable) appeared on the IFT creativity factor and not the ILT. Altogether, the final factor structures revealed more similarities than differences between the way people think of leaders' and followers' characteristics.

Table 7

Final ILT and IFT Scale Items

ILT Subscales	Counterproductive	Task	Creativity
	Pushy	Helpful*	Enthusiastic*
	Manipulative	Understanding	Curious*
	Loud	Sincere	Imaginative
	Conceited	Intelligent*	Artistic
	Selfish	Educated*	Adventurous
	Arrogant	Dedicated	
	Rude	Motivated	
	Bad tempered	Hard-working	
	Slow	Productive	
	Inexperienced	Goes above and	
	Forceful	beyond	
	Tense	Reliable	
	Irritable	Straightforward*	
	Depressed	Efficient	
	Shy	Organized*	
	Moody	Dutiful	
	Vulnerable	Thorough	
		Self-disciplined	
IFT Subscales	Counterproductive	Task	Creativity
	Pushy	Understanding	Adventurous
	Manipulative	Sincere	Imaginative
	Loud	Knowledgeable**	Artistic
	Conceited	Dedicated	Wide interests**
	Selfish	Motivated	Excitable**
	Arrogant	Hard-working	
	Rude	Productive	
	Bad tempered	Goes above and	
	Slow	beyond	
	Inexperienced	Reliable	
	Forceful	Efficient	
	Tense	Dutiful	
	Irritable	Thorough	
	Depressed	Self-disciplined	
	Shy	Deliberate**	
	Moody		
	Vulnerable		

Note. Attributes with a single asterisk (*) are only on the ILT measure and attributes with a double asterisk (**) are only on the IFT measure.

Research Question 2. I used Sample 2 ($N = 242$) to examine Research Question 2. Although Research Objective 2 was listed first in the introduction, I addressed Research Question 2 prior to the second objective. To examine Research Question 2, I conducted a series of regression analyses. The main individual difference variables I examined were each of the Big Five Personality factors (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Openness), leadership style preference (autocratic vs. democratic), and a self-reported measure of followership behavior. First, I regressed the three ILT subscale scores individually on each of the five personality subscales, preference for an autocratic leader, preference for a democratic leader, and followership in a series of simple regressions to examine which of these eight characteristics accounted for significant variance in ILT ratings (see Table 8). Agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness, preference for autocratic leadership, and followership all significantly predicted ILT Counterproductive scores. Agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness, preference for democratic leader, preference for autocratic leader, and followership all significantly predicted ILT Task scores. Only preference for democratic leader and followership significantly predicted ILT Creativity scores.

Table 8

Simple Regression Analyses for IFT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables

Variables	ILT - Counterproductive		ILT - Task		ILT - Creativity	
	β	t	β	t	B	t
	Extraversion	-.02	-.39	.03	.52	-.02
Agreeableness	.44	7.53	.46	8.02	.10	1.56
Conscientiousness	.51	9.27	.48	8.51	-.12	-1.90
Emotional Stability	.50	9.00	.29	4.89	-.05	-.75
Openness	.36	6.05	.52	9.43	.07	1.12
Preference for Democratic Leader	-.02	-.29	.33	5.41	.23	3.62
Preference for Autocratic Leader	-.80	-20.10	-.45	-7.75	.05	.75
Followership	.35	5.74	.62	12.37	.13	2.01

Note. Bolded Betas and t -statistics are significant at the .01 level.

Next, I regressed the three IFT subscale scores individually on each of the five personality subscales, preference for an autocratic leader, preference for a democratic leader, and followership in a series of simple regressions to examine which of these eight characteristics accounted for significant variance in IFT ratings (see Table 9).

Agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness, preference for autocratic leadership, and followership all significantly predicted IFT Counterproductive scores, which were the same six variables that predicted ILT Counterproductive scores.

Agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness, preference for democratic leader, preference for autocratic leader, and followership all significantly predicted IFT Task scores. Each of those individual difference variables except for

emotional stability predicted ILT Task scores as well. Just as with ILT Creativity scores, preference for democratic leader and followership predicted IFT Creativity scores as well as agreeableness and openness.

Table 9

Simple Regression Analyses for IFT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables

Variables	IFT - Counterproductive		IFT - Task		IFT - Creativity	
	β	t	β	t	B	t
Extraversion	-.05	-.73	.05	.73	.08	1.17
Agreeableness	.45	7.89	.48	8.41	.23	3.62
Conscientiousness	.52	9.48	.50	9.03	.12	1.86
Emotional Stability	.49	8.66	.26	4.23	.09	1.33
Openness	.37	6.07	.54	9.82	.31	5.05
Preference for Democratic Leader	-.03	-.48	.33	5.42	.37	6.20
Preference for Autocratic Leader	-.81	-21.54	-.47	-8.25	.01	.18
Followership	.34	5.66	.65	13.10	.43	7.47

Note. Bolded Betas and t -statistics are significant at the .05 level.

Additionally, I regressed the three ILT subscale scores on all eight individual difference scores simultaneously in a multiple regression to see which characteristics accounted for unique variance in the presence of other individual difference characteristics (see Table 10). In the presence of all individual difference variables, conscientiousness, emotional stability, preference for democratic leader, and preference for autocratic leader accounted for unique variance in ILT Counterproductive scores, conscientiousness, openness, preference for democratic leader, and followership accounted for unique variance in ILT Task scores, and conscientiousness and preference

for democratic leader accounted for unique variance in ILT Creativity scores. Similarly, I regressed the three IFT subscale scores on all eight individual difference scores simultaneously in a multiple regression to see which characteristics accounted for unique variance in the presence of other individual difference characteristics (see Table 11). In the presence of all individual difference variables, conscientiousness, emotional stability, preference for autocratic leader, and preference for democratic leader accounted for unique variance in IFT Counterproductive scores, conscientiousness, openness, preference for autocratic leader, and followership accounted for unique variance in IFT Task scores, and preference for democratic leader, preference for autocratic leader, and followership accounted for unique variance in IFT Creativity scores.

Table 10

Multiple Regression Analyses for ILT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables

Variables	ILT - Counterproductive		ILT - Task		ILT - Creativity	
	β	t	β	t	B	t
	Extraversion	-.01	-.28	-.04	-.76	-.09
Agreeableness	-.02	-.34	.00	.01	.14	1.64
Conscientiousness	.13	2.71	.15	2.56	-.25	-3.17
Emotional Stability	.14	3.02	.00	-.04	.03	.42
Openness	.08	1.73	.18	2.90	-.01	-1.16
Preference for Democratic Leader	-.10	-2.24	.07	1.26	.21	2.83
Preference for Autocratic Leader	-.65	-14.00	-.20	-3.31	.05	.62
Followership	.06	1.08	.37	5.62	.09	1.06

Note. Bolded Betas and t -statistics are significant at the .05 level.

Table 11

Multiple Regression Analyses for IFT Subscales and Individual Difference Variables

Variables	IFT - Counterproductive		IFT - Task		IFT - Creativity	
	β	t	β	t	B	t
Extraversion	-.03	-.82	-.01	-.10	-.05	-.81
Agreeableness	.02	.47	.01	.12	.02	.22
Conscientiousness	.14	3.07	.18	3.27	-.07	-1.02
Emotional Stability	.11	2.43	-.08	-1.36	.08	1.07
Openness	.09	1.82	.17	2.83	.12	1.61
Preference for Democratic Leader	-.12	-2.78	.05	.93	.19	2.87
Preference for Autocratic Leader	-.65	-14.23	-.23	-4.10	.17	2.38
Followership	.04	.85	.40	6.28	.34	4.22

Note. Bolded Betas and t -statistics are significant at the .05 level.

Research Objective 2. As with Research Question 2, I used Sample 2 ($N = 242$) to examine Research Objective 2. Research Objective 2 involved conducting some preliminary validation work on the new ILT and IFT measures by examining relationships between the three ILT and IFT subscales with other established measures. Little research has examined relationships between ILT and IFT subscales and outcomes (e.g., OCBs, CWBs) or explicit measures of leadership (e.g., Consideration, Initiating Structure). In an attempt to provide preliminary validation of these new measures, I examined the correlations between the three identified subscales for both the ILT and IFT measures and established measures of Consideration, Initiating Structure, OCB-Is, OCB-Os, CWB-Is, CWB-Os, and cognitive dissonance (see Table 12). Both ILT and IFT Counterproductive were significantly related to Initiating Structure, both types of

counterproductive work behaviors, and cognitive dissonance. Both ILT and IFT Task were significantly related to all seven variables. ILT Creativity was significantly related only to Initiating Structure, whereas IFT Creativity was significantly related to Consideration, Initiating Structure, both types of organizational citizenship behaviors, and cognitive dissonance.

Table 12

Correlations between ILT and IFT Subscales and Existing Measures

Variables	Consideration	Initiating Structure	OCB-I	OCB-O	CWB-I	CWB-O	Cog Conson
ILT - Counterproductive	.11	-.13	.12	.09	-.76	-.78	.50
ILT - Task	.25	.25	.28	.29	-.46	-.47	.43
ILT - Creativity	-.02	.14	.09	.06	.08	.06	.04
IFT - Counterproductive	.09	-.18	.12	.05	-.77	-.79	.48
IFT - Task	.23	.27	.37	.31	-.45	-.43	.41
IFT - Creativity	.22	.34	.24	.25	-.01	-.01	.18

Note. Bolded Betas and *t*-statistics are significant at the .05 level. Cog Conson is Cognitive Consonance.

Discussion

The purposes of this study were to 1) examine the extent to which people think of leaders and followers as similar versus dissimilar, 2) create more comprehensive ILT and IFT measures and examine the psychometric properties and relationships of those scales with other established variables, and 3) explore which individual differences might explain individuals' implicit ratings of leaders and followers. This study was a first attempt at examining which individual differences (e.g., personality characteristics and leadership style preference) explain unique variance in ILT and IFT ratings. Previously, no research has examined any antecedents of ILT and IFT ratings. Additionally, I provided some preliminary validation for the new ILT and IFT measures created for the

purposes of this study in the hopes that they can be used in future research. Further, this study raises important issues, including what characteristics differentiate a leader from a follower, the trainability of leadership dimensions, what constitutes the definition of a 'leader' and a 'follower', and how to use the new, more comprehensive ILT and IFT direct measures moving forward.

Theoretical Implications, Practical Implications, and Future Research

Similarity or Differences of Leaders and Followers. The first issue this study raises is related to what characteristics differentiate a leader from a follower. According to the frequencies with which participants rated supervisors and employees on 58 items, no item reached substantial agreement as only descriptive of just a supervisor or just an employee. All items that had substantial agreement were classified as descriptive of *both* a supervisor and employee or neither a supervisor or employee. Furthermore, the results of exploratory factor analyses indicated that the same three conceptual factors emerged in the new ILT and IFT measures created for the purposes of this study (counterproductive, task, and creativity). Additionally, many of the same items appeared on both measures (see Table 10 for reference). These results do not necessarily mean that both leaders and followers would be rated identically on the same attributes, but the results indicate that people's schemas about supervisors and employees tend to be more similar than dissimilar. Further supporting the notion that leaders and followers are more similar than dissimilar, there was a similar pattern of relationships between the individual difference predictors and ILT subscale ratings as with the individual difference predictors and IFT subscale ratings. Agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness, preference for autocratic leader, and followership significantly predicted both the ILT and

IFT counterproductive subscale. The same individual difference predictors, as well as preference for democratic leader, significantly predicted both the ILT and IFT task subscale. Only the creativity subscale had a differential pattern of predictors as preference for democratic leader and followership predicted both the ILT and IFT creativity subscale whereas agreeableness and openness only predicted the IFT creativity subscale.

Given the similarities with which people rated the scale attributes and the similarities of relationships between individual difference variables and ILT/IFT ratings, it is possible that people simply have in their minds a schema for what they consider a ‘good employee’. Leaders and followers could be specific subtypes of that ‘good employee’ schema. It could be that leaders embody what it means to be a ‘good employee’ better than non-leaders whether that is through natural ability or additional experience compared to non-leaders. For example, charismatic leaders, i.e., leaders who inspire the masses with their inherent personality and rhetoric, might provide evidence that leaders have an inherent natural ability that set them apart as great ‘employees’. Additionally, the fact that leaders tend to be employees with greater tenure and experience under their belts offers support for the notion that becoming a great ‘employee’ is, at least partially, a result of greater experience.

Practically, this notion that leaders and followers are more similar than dissimilar might influence the way in which organizations and societies view leaders. Leadership roles tend to be glamorized and fantasized about throughout society because individuals in those roles tend to be more capable and powerful. Alternatively, following tends to encompass a less desirable role (labeled with words like subordinate, for example). No

one can argue the importance of having people lead a team or an organization. But, if little differentiates the characteristics that people view as being important for a leader and a follower in reality, perhaps organizations should start highlighting when it is necessary and important to be a good follower without treating those employees as less important as a supervisor or team leader. Indeed, several modern leadership theories have suggested that effective leaders are more democratic than autocratic (e.g., LMX, relational view, constructionist approaches, e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Lord & Brown 2001; DeRue & Ashford, 2010, respectively). This would suggest that perhaps leaders and followers should be treated more as equal than hierarchical. Future research should continue to explore these similarities by administering the new ILT and IFT measures created in this study and examining the extent to which people rate leaders and followers similarly on identical items.

Training Leadership. A second issue involves the trainability of leadership dimensions. The extant literature has been split on this issue. Trait theories of leadership (e.g., Stogdill, 1948) have suggested that leaders are born with innate traits that set them apart from non-leaders. According to trait models, leaders are born leaders and there is little one can do to develop or train leadership skills. Still others (e.g., Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill, 1950), purport that leaders simply engage in certain task and relationship-oriented behaviors that help them guide and direct others. Similarly, situational approaches (e.g., Fiedler, 1967) have suggested that leaders should engage in certain styles that are most effective given the situation. According to these latter theories, leadership is malleable and something that can be taught and can change to best fit the needs of a situation.

Most of the attributes on the new ILT and IFT measures were traits derived directly from the preexisting ILT and IFT measures and Big Five Personality inventories (e.g., sociable, shy, imaginative). Although there might be some slight variation, it is widely assumed that personality traits are relatively stable over time (e.g., Cobb-Clark & Schurer, 2012; Rantanen, Metsapelto, Feldt, Pulkkinen, & Kokko, 2007). This would seem to support the notion that people should be more interested in what traits differentiate leaders from others. However, there were other attributes on the new ILT and IFT measures in this study that were more behavioral in nature (e.g., productive, knowledgeable, slow). Additionally, a quick internet search would reveal hordes of books, courses, and materials that attempt to train people to be better leaders, so the common assertion is that leadership *is* something that can be taught or at least improved by instruction.

When put in practice, leadership likely is a mix of dispositional traits and certain behaviors. Moreover, it might even be possible for leaders to engage in behaviors that help them compensate for ‘weaker’ personality traits. For example, if a leader knows she is less outgoing by nature, she could make a deliberate effort to connect with her followers once a week to foster deeper relationships with them. That leader might not be as affiliative by nature, but she could engage in certain behaviors that help fulfill her followers’ relational needs. As the new ILT and IFT measures stand, each contains a mix of trait and behavioral attributes. However, there are certainly more trait than behavioral items. Future research should address this by asking participants to what extent they believe leaders and followers should engage in a list of specific behaviors in addition to the attributes used in the measures for this study. This would provide a list of behaviors

that individuals desire in leaders and, thus, should be the focus of training courses or modules. After identifying which behavioral attributes are most associated with ideal leaders, practitioners could link those attributes with existing leadership development tools (e.g., internal courses, seminars, workshops, etc.) that train leaders to improve their skills and behavior in those specific areas. Additionally, practitioners could develop novel training tools around the attributes themselves that were identified as important for ideal leaders (e.g., avoiding counterproductivity, task-focused behaviors, and creativity).

Context of Leader and Follower. A third issue suggested by my research is related to whether supervisors and employees are equivalent to ‘leaders’ and ‘followers’. In much of the literature on leadership, leaders are glorified as strong and powerful individuals who are charismatic and transformational (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977) whereas followers are simply influenced by their leaders (e.g., Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978). Society plays a large role in minimizing the importance of followers by using stigmatized labels, such as ‘subordinate’, to refer to followers in everyday language as well. Associations such as these imply that followers are subservient to those in the more glamorous and desired role of a leader.

Additionally, there are cultural differences in individuals’ differential perceptions of leaders and followers. Hofstede (1980) identified power distance as one dimension that exhibited differentially in different cultures. Power distance is defined as the acceptance of power differentials between certain members of society (e.g., between leaders and followers; Hofstede, 1980). Germanic and English-speaking Western countries, the United States for example, tend to be low power distance cultures in which there is less inequality between people in positions of power (i.e., leaders) and those not

in power (i.e., follower). East European, Latin, Asian, and African countries tend to be higher power distance in which there is more inequality between people in power positions and those not in power. It is possible that different attributes might be emphasized as important for leaders and followers, respectively, as a product of the perceived power distance between those in power and those not in power.

Although the participants in this study were from the United States, out of an abundance of caution that participants might view themselves as a less desirable ‘follower’ when making ratings about an ideal follower on the survey, I referred to ‘leaders’ as supervisors and ‘followers’ as employees in all study inventories. However, there are more leaders than just business leaders (i.e., supervisors), and there are more followers than just business followers (i.e., employees). The results of this study certainly pertain to business settings referring to supervisors and employees as leaders and followers, respectively. To ensure the new ILT and IFT measures are applicable in more than just business settings, future research would benefit from administering these measures with different targets (e.g., leaders and followers in general, coaches and players, military captains and sergeants). To address the differential power distance phenomenon between cultures, future research should examine whether cultures with higher power distance (e.g., Latin, Asian, or African cultures) reveal as much similarity between ILT and IFT items. In those cultures, it is possible that there are more extreme differences in the attributes individuals consider important for ideal leaders and followers compared to the U.S. sample in the current study.

New ILT and IFT Measures. A fourth issue my study raises is how to use the new, more comprehensive ILT and IFT direct measures in future research. One segment

of research in which these new measures could make a substantial impact is related to the congruence between individuals' expectations for leaders and followers.

One popular stream of research in the ILT literature has examined the extent to which leader behavior and ILT congruence is related to organizational outcomes such as performance and satisfaction. Compared to leaders who do not fit typical ILTs, leaders who fit ILTs are perceived to perform better (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1989), are attributed more technical competence (Sy et al., 2010), are more liked by followers (Nye & Forsyth, 1991), and garner more respect from followers (e.g., Van Quaquebeke & Brodbeck, 2008). Additionally, ILT fit positively predicts organizational commitment (Poole et al., 1989; Weick, 1995), job satisfaction (Ayman & Chemers, 1983), follower identification with the leader (Van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Brodbeck, 2011), and better quality Leader-Member Exchange (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

A relatively new addition to the literature, there are fewer studies that examine the effects of IFTs on organizational outcomes. Still, researchers have started examining outcomes associated with the effects of congruence between follower behavior or attributes and IFTs. Research has shown that typical followership prototypes are positively related to job satisfaction and leader liking (Sy, 2010), ideal follower prototypes are positively related to higher performance (Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012), and fit with ideal IFTs is positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors (Junker et al., 2014).

In many of these studies, researchers have used absolute difference scores to calculate implicit-explicit leadership trait differences as recommended by Edwards (1994). For example, Epitropaki and Martin (2005) administered a 21-item ILT measure

(Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) and asked participants to rate how characteristic each attribute was of a business leader. Then, they administered the same 21-items but asked participants to rate how the same attributes applied to their managers. Epitropaki and Martin (2005) analyzed the absolute differences of the ILT (leaders in general) scores minus the ILT recognition (i.e., my manager) scores, which is a common congruence index used to measure differences between perceived and desired attributes for job attitudes (e.g., Barrett, 1978) or subordinates (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975).

In examining these two literature streams, there is a notable lack of studies that examine ILTs and IFTs simultaneously. Specifically, there are no studies that compare directly an individual's ILTs to his or her IFTs or use both to predict outcomes. However, one might notice there is an inherent assumption that measuring ILTs subsumes followers and measuring IFTs subsumes leaders. That is, ILTs and IFTs will inherently correspond with each other. Consequently, no researchers have examined the congruence between ILTs and IFTs within an individual or what might constitute congruence between ILTs and IFTs in the first place. In part, the lack of parallel ILT and IFT measures can be to blame for this omission from the extant literature. Given the content similarities of the new measures created in this study, it will be easier for researchers to compare directly the congruence of an individuals' ratings of leaders and followers on parallel attributes.

ILT/IFT congruence. An individual with inconsistent expectations for leaders and followers will experience likely some degree of cognitive dissonance. Festinger (1957) coined the term cognitive dissonance in the 1950s to define the mental discomfort felt by an individual when he or she holds two conflicting thoughts or beliefs. A classic

example of cognitive dissonance is forcing an individual to complete a task she dislikes but instructing her to tell others that she enjoyed the task. According to Festinger (1957), the individual would change her behavior (e.g., tell others the task was not enjoyable) or change her beliefs (e.g., decide to enjoy the task) to resolve the internal conflict.

Byrne (1971) drew upon cognitive dissonance research to explain how individuals reinforce consistency in their environments in what he labeled the reinforcement model. According to Byrne, the more one interacts with others similar to oneself, the more positive feelings one will feel toward those others. Researchers have found that individuals who evaluated a stranger from a simple description liked that stranger more and rated the stranger as more intelligent, better informed, and more well-adjusted if the stranger's attitudes were described as more similar to the rater's (Byrne, 1961). Good and Good (1974) found that college students who read a description of Greek organizations rated those groups as more cooperative, unified, prideful, and desired greater interest in membership if the organization shared similar values to the student. According to this research, individuals experience more positive outcomes (e.g., perceptions, intentions) when they experience less dissonance.

Other prior research has found that cognitive dissonance can negatively influence performance outcomes on a variety of tasks (e.g., Bashshur, Hernandez, & Gonzalez-Roma, 2011; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Kammeyer-Meuller, Simon, & Rick, 2012). When examined in work settings, researchers have found that employees who experience cognitive dissonance tend to be less satisfied with their jobs and careers (Erdogan et al., 2004; Gradney, Chi, & Diamond, 2013). Teams whose perceptions are inconsistent with their supervisors' perceptions tend to perform worse than those teams

that have perceptions congruent to their supervisor (Bashshur et al., 2011). Employees who experience dissonance between their personal and organization's identities withdraw from their work, and people try to avoid dissonance at work by investing in their most salient role and withdrawing from less salient roles (Elsbach & Bhattacharya, 2001, Greenhaus & Powell, 2003, respectively). The common denominator in these negative outcomes appears to be stress (Lewig & Dollard, 2003), which is confirmed by Hobfoll's (2001) conservation of resources (COR) model. Hobfoll (2001), along with earlier research by Kantola, Syme, and Campbell (1984), found that employees who experience stress minimize future resource loss by withdrawing from organizational activities. Although never explicitly examined in research, one could assume that employees who experience cognitive dissonance as a result of incongruent leader and follower expectations might suffer similarly in their performance and attitudes with respect to work.

Few researchers have examined the direct relationship between cognitive dissonance and work outcomes in the past. In a previous unpublished study, I created and used a new measure of cognitive dissonance to test the relationship between cognitive dissonance and performance, job satisfaction, and perceived leader effectiveness (Bashore, 2017). The measure asked participants to rate what extent they would feel a certain state (e.g., comfortable, anxious) when they thought about their expectations for leaders and followers in general. When positively keyed to reflect cognitive consonance rather than dissonance, cognitive consonance was positively related to course performance, course satisfaction, and perceived instructor effectiveness in a student sample. Cognitive consonance was positively related to self-rated in role-

performance, job satisfaction, and perceived leader effectiveness in a sample of working adults. Admittedly, this is not a perfect measure of cognitive dissonance, and cognitive dissonance is difficult to capture using an explicit measure. However, I could find no other comparable measure in the literature. Nonetheless, these results supported the notion that positive feelings associated with expectations for leaders and followers are related to positive outcomes and, inversely, negative feelings associated with expectations for leaders and followers are related to negative outcomes.

As mentioned earlier, researchers have demonstrated negative effects of dissonance between Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories and actual behavior (e.g., Bass & Avolio, 1989; Nye & Forsyth, 1991; Sy et al., 2010). Organizational outcomes, including employee performance, job satisfaction, and ratings of leader effectiveness, suffered when behavior and implicit theories were incongruent. This provides indirect evidence suggesting that the dissonance created by incongruent implicit theories (ILTs and IFTs) might mimic the effects of actual behavior-implicit theory incongruence on organizational outcomes. Additionally, previous research has provided direct evidence that explicit cognitive consonance is positively associated with job performance, job satisfaction, and perceived leader effectiveness (Bashore, 2017). Future research should examine the relationship between cognitive dissonance and ILT/IFT congruence, and the identical factor structures and items in the new ILT and IFT measures created in this study can help achieve this objective by offering attributes that can be compared directly. Participants can make ratings of their Implicit Leadership Theories and Implicit Followership Theories on identical items similar to the way individuals rated their leader and a leader in general in Epitropaki and Martin (2005).

Limitations

This study has a few limitations to consider. Almost 71% of people who completed the survey expressed that their roles have at least some leadership responsibilities. Although they were instructed to think of their roles as an employee in a supervisor-employee relationship, it is nearly impossible to disentangle one's expectations for leaders and followers from the perspective of just a leader or a follower when one's role encompasses both perspectives. It is possible that leaders and followers have differing expectations of attributes that describe a leader and a follower, respectively, and experience as a leader might further shape one's expectations. If this were the case, my results might be more reflective of what people who serve in both a leader and follower role expect of ideal leaders and followers than pure followers. With the exception of individual contributors and CEOs or Presidents, most other individuals in an organization serve in both leading and following capacities. One's expectations for leaders and/or followers might change as a result of serving in a leadership capacity or as a function of one's leadership experience. For example, a leader who has supervised many employees might have more representations of what type of follower works best for them. The fact that a similar set of attributes emerged on both the ILT and IFT scales suggested that the impact leadership experience had on leader and follower ratings was likely minimal, however.

Additionally, some items used in the original set of 66 attributes to create the new ILT and IFT measures and the items used to measure individual differences were both based on the Big Five Personality traits (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism). Although items were not identical, they did represent

the same general personality factors (e.g., 'sociable' and 'I am the life of the party' both representing extraversion, and 'tense' and 'I get stressed out easily' representing neuroticism/emotional stability). Most of the personality factor items from each personality factor grouping loaded onto the same ILT and IFT subscale factors. This could maximize the chance that individual difference predictors accounted for significant variance in an ILT or IFT subscale with items from the same personality factor. However, the targets for each set of items participants rated were different as the participants were instructed to rate items about themselves for the individual difference measure and for a supervisor or employee for the ILT/IFT measures. Therefore, the similarity of the scales' content is of little concern.

Conclusions

The purpose of my research was to 1) examine the extent to which people think of leaders and followers as similar versus dissimilar, 2) create more comprehensive ILT and IFT measures and examine the psychometric properties and relationships of those scales with other established variables, and 3) explore which individual differences might explain individuals' implicit ratings of leaders and followers. The results highlighted four main issues and observations. First, the question of which characteristics differentiate a leader from a follower. The results of the study indicate that, in general, people view leaders and followers as more similar than dissimilar. Second, if leaders are simply a subgroup of what people think of as an 'employee', that could have implications for how leadership is trained in practice. Third, researchers should further disentangle what constitutes the difference between a 'leader' and 'supervisor' and the difference between a 'follower' and 'employee'. Fourth, researchers should use the new, more

comprehensive ILT and IFT direct measures in research moving forward including to examine the effects of incongruent ILTs and IFTs on individuals and organizations.

Overall, my study adds to the leadership literature by offering new direct measures of ILTs and IFT, providing initial evidence that leadership and followership might reflect different levels of the same attributes, and examining antecedents of individuals' ratings for what they expect in a leader and follower.

References

- Ayman-Nolley, S., & Ayman, R. (2005). Children's implicit theories of leadership. In B. Schyns, & J. R. Meindl (Eds.), *Implicit leadership theories – Essays and explorations* (pp. 227-274). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Ayman, R., & Chemers, M. (1983). The relationship of supervisory behavior ratings to work group effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction among Iranian managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*, 338-341.
- Baker, S. (2007). Followership: The theoretical foundation of a temporary construct. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 14*, 50-60.
- Barrett, G. (1978). Task design, individual attributes, work satisfaction, and productivity. In A. Negandhi & B. Wilpert (Eds.), *Work organizational research* (pp. 261-278). Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44*, 1-26.
- Bartlett, F. C. (1932). *Remembering*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Bashshur, M., Hernandez, A., & Gonzalez-Roma, V. (2011). When managers and their teams disagree: A longitudinal look at the consequences of differences in perceptions of organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*, 558-573.
- Bashore, D. (2017). Implicit leadership and followership theories: Does congruency matter (Unpublished Master's thesis)? Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio.

- Bashore, D., Steele-Johnson, D., Peyton, E., Gore, T., & Kovacs. (2017, April).
Personality, gender, and shared leadership. Poster presented at the 2017 SIOP
Annual Conference, Orlando, FL.
- Bass, B. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free
Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership* (4th ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B., & Avolio, B. (1989). Potential biases in leadership measure: How prototypes,
leniency, and general satisfaction relate to ratings and rankings of
transformational and transactional leadership constructs. *Educational and
Psychological Measurement, 49*, 509-527.
- Bass, B., & Riggio, R. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ:
Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bennett, R., & Robinson, S. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace
deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 349-360.
- Berry, C., Carpenter, N., & Barratt, C. (2012). Do other-reports of counterproductive
work behavior provide an incremental contribution over self-reports? A meta-
analytic comparison. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*, 613–636.
- Biderman, M. D., Nguyen, N. T., Cunningham, C. J., & Ghorbani, N. (2011). The
ubiquity of common method variance: The case of the Big Five. *Journal of
Research in Personality, 45*, 417-429.
- Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2004). Personality and transformational and transactional
leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 901.

- Braun, S., Stegmann, S., Hernandez Bark, A. S., Junker, N. M., & van Dick, R. (2017). Think manager – think make, think follower – think female: Gender bias in implicit followership theories. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 47*, 377-388.
- Brooks, L., Rosch, E., & Lloyd, B. B. (1978). Cognition and categorization.
- Burns, J. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper.
- Byrne, D. (1961). Interpersonal attraction and attitude similarity. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 62*(3), 713.
- Byrne, D. (1971). *The attraction paradigm* (Vol. 11). Academic Press.
- Carsten, M., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B., Patera, J., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring social constructs of followership: A qualitative study. *Leadership Quarterly, 21*, 543-552.
- Cobb-Clark, D. A., & Schurer, S. (2012). The stability of big-five personality traits. *Economics Letters, 115*(1), 11-15.
- Conger, J., & Kanungo, R. (1987). Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 12*, 637-647.
- Costa Jr, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Four ways five factors are basic. *Personality and Individual Differences, 13*(6), 653-665.
- Dansereau, F., Jr., Graen, G., & Haga, W. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 13*, 45-78.

- DeRue, S., & Ashford, S. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 35*, 627-647.
- DeRue, D. S., Nahrgan, J. D., Wellman, N. E. D., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology, 64*, 7-52.
- DiStefano, C., & Motl, R. W. (2006). Further investigating method effects associated with negatively worded items on self-report surveys. *Structural Equation Modeling, 13*, 440-464.
- Eden, D., & Leviatan, U. (1975). Implicit leadership theory as a determinant of the factor structure underlying supervisory behavior scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*, 736-741.
- Edwards, J. (1994). The study of congruence in organizational behavior research: Critique and a proposed alternative. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 58*, 51-100.
- Ehrhart, M. G., & Klein, K. J. (2001). Predicting followers' preferences for charismatic leadership: The influence of follower values and personality. *The Leadership Quarterly, 12*, 153-179.
- Elsbach, K., & Bhattacharya, C. (2001). Defining who you are by what you're not: Organizational disidentification and the National Rifle Association. *Organization Science, 12*, 393-413.
- Engle, E., & Lord, R. (1997). Implicit theories, self-schemas, and leader-member exchange. *Academy of management Journal, 40*, 988-1010.

- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2004). Implicit leadership theories in applied settings: Factor structure, generalizability, and stability over time. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 293-310.
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2005). From ideal to real: A longitudinal study of the role of implicit leadership theories on Leader-Member Exchanges and employee outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 659-676.
- Erdogan, B., Kraimer, M., & Linden, R. (2004). Work value congruence and intrinsic career success: The compensatory roles of leader-member exchange and perceived organizational support. *Personnel Psychology, 57*, 305-332.
- Felfe, J., & Schyns, B. (2009). Followers' personality and the perception of transformational leadership: Further evidence for the similarity hypothesis. *British Journal of Management, 21*, 393-410.
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1964). A contingency model of leadership effectiveness. In *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 1, 149-190). Academic Press.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fleishman, E. (1953). The description of supervisory behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 37*, 1-6.
- Foti, R. J., Bray, B. C., Thompson, N. J., & Allgood, S. F. (2012). Know thy self, know thy leader: Contributions of a pattern-oriented approach to examining leader perceptions. *The Leadership Quarterly, 23*, 701-717.

- Foti, R. J., & Luch, C. H. (1992). The influence of individual difference on the perception and categorization of leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 3, 55-66.
- Galambos, J., Ableson, R., & Black, J. (1986). *Knowledge structures*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Galton, F. (1892). *Finger Prints*. Macmillan and Company.
- Gilbert, D., & Hixon, J. (1991). The trouble of thinking: Activation and application of stereotypic beliefs. *Journal of Personality and social Psychology*, 60, 509-517.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1999). A broad-bandwidth, public domain, personality inventory measuring the lower-level facets of several five-factor models. *Personality Psychology in Europe*, 7, 7-28.
- Grandey, A., Chi, N., & Diamond, J. (2013). Show me the money! Do financial rewards for performance enhance or undermine the satisfaction from emotional labor? *Personnel Psychology*, 66, 569-612.
- Graeff, C. L. (1983). The situational leadership theory: A critical view. *Academy of Management Review*, 8, 285-291.
- Graen, G., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 219-247.
- Greenhaus, J., & Powell, G. (2003). When work and family collide; Deciding between competing role demands. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90, 291-303.

- Greenwald, A., McHgee, D., & Schwartz, J. (1998). Measuring individual difference in implicit cognition: the implicit association test. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1464-1480.
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A. G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods, 39*(2), 175-191.
- Feist, G. J. (1998). A meta-analysis of personality in scientific and artistic creativity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 2*, 290-209.
- Halpin, A. W. (1957). *Manual for the leader behavior description questionnaire*. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University.
- Hambleton, R. K., & Gumpert, R. (1982). The validity of Hersey and Blanchard's theory of leader effectiveness. *Group & Organization Studies, 7*, 225-242.
- Harms, P., & Luthans, F. (2012). Measuring implicit psychological constructs in organizational behavior: An example using psychological capital. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*, 589-594.
- Hetland, S. A., Sandal, G., & Johnson, T. (2008). Followers' personality and leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 14*, 322-331.
- Hill, N. C., & Ritchie, J. B. (1977). The effect of self-esteem on leadership and achievement: A paradigm and a review. *Group & Organization Management, 2*, 491-503.

- Hobfoll, S. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Applied Psychology, 50*, 337-421.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization, 10*(4). 15-41.
- House, R. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16*, 321-339.
- House, R. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larsen (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge* (pp. 189-207). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 751-765.
- Judge, T., Bono, J., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 765-780.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 36.
- Junker, N, Schyns, B van Dick, R., & Scheurer, S. (2011). The importance of leader categorization from commitment, job satisfaction, and well-being with particular consideration of gender role theory. *Zeitschrift fuer Arbeits – und Organisational Psychologie, 55*, 171-179.

- Junker, N. M., & van Dick, R. (2014). Implicit theories in organizational settings: A systematic review and research agenda of implicit leadership and follower theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(6), 1154-1173.
- Junker, N., Stegman, S., Braun, S., & van Dick, R. (2014). The ideal and counter-ideal follower – Advancing implicit followership theories. Goethe University, Frankfurt: Unpublished manuscript.
- Kammeyer-Mueller, J., Simon, L., & Rich, B. (2012). The psychic cost of doing wrong. *Journal of Management*, *38*, 784-808.
- Kantola, S., Syme, G., & Campbell, N. (1984). Cognitive dissonance and energy conservation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *69*, 416-421.
- Keller, T. (1999). Images of the familiar; Individual difference and implicit leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *10*, 589-607.
- Keller, T. (2003). Parental images as a guide to leadership sensemaking: An attachment perspective on implicit leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *14*, 141-160.
- Kruse, E., & Sy, T. (2011). Manipulating implicit theories by inducing affect. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2011, No. 1, 1-6). Briarcliff Manor, NY: Academy of Management.
- Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). An application of hierarchical kappa-type statistics in the assessment of majority agreement among multiple observers. *Biometrics*, 363-374.

- Lee, K., & Allen, N. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 131-142.
- Lewig, K., & Dollard, M. (2003). Emotional dissonance, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction in call centre workers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 12*, 366-392.
- Lord, R., & Brown, D. (2001). Leadership, values, and subordinate self-concepts. *The Leadership Quarterly, 12*, 133-152.
- Lord, R. G., DeVader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*, 402.
- Lord, R., Foti, R., & Phillips, J. (1982). A theory of leadership categorization. In J.G. Hunt, U. Sekaran, & C.A. Schriesheim (Eds.), *Leadership: Beyond establishment views*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Lord, R., & Maher, K. (1991). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance*. Boston, MA: Unwin Hyman.
- Mayo, E. (1933). *The human problems of an industrial civilization*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- McCrae, R. R. (1987). Creativity, divergent thinking, and openness to experience. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 1258-1265.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1997). Personality trait structure as a human universal. *American Psychologist, 52*, 509-516.
- McGregor, D. (1957). Human side of enterprise. *Management Review, 46*, 622-628.

- Meindle, J. (1990). On leadership: An alternative to the conventional wisdom. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 12*, 159-203.
- Meyer, D., & Schvaneveldt, R. (1971). Facilitation in recognizing pairs of words: Evidence of a dependence between retrieval operations. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 90*, 227-234.
- Nye, J., & Forsyth, D. (1991). The Effects of Prototype-Based Biases on Leadership Appraisals A Test of Leadership Categorization Theory. *Small Group Research, 22*, 360-379.
- Offermann, L., Kennedy Jr., J., & Wirtz, P. (1994). Implicit leadership theories: Content, structure, and generalizability. *Leadership Quarterly, 5*, 43-58.
- Peyton, B. (2014). Shared leadership in team-based learning classroom teams and its relationship to decision quality (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Wright State University, Dayton, Ohio.
- Phillips, J. S., & Lord, R. G. (1986). Notes on the practical and theoretical consequences of implicit leadership theories for the future of leadership measurement. *Journal of Management, 12*(1), 31-41.
- Poole, P., Gioia, D., & Gray, B. (1989). Influence modes, schema change, and organizational transformation. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 25*, 271-289.
- Rantanen, J., Metsapelto, R. L., Feldt, T., Pulkkinen, L. E. A., & Kokko, K. (2007). Long-term stability in the big five personality traits in adulthood. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 48*(6), 511-518.

- Roediger, M., Shah, Y., Burns, D., Coyle, P., Gladfelter, J., & Foti, R. (2017, April). *Examining leader/follower characteristics: Comparing large student and work samples*. Poster session presented at the annual meeting for the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL.
- Schyns, B., & Felfe, J. (2006). The personality of followers and its effect on the perception of leadership. *Small Group Research, 37*, 522-539.
- Sosik, J. J., Kahai, S. S., & Avolio, B. J. (1998). Transformational leadership and dimensions of creativity: Motivating idea generation in computer-mediated groups. *Creativity Research Journal, 11*, 111-121.
- Stogdill, R. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *The Journal of Psychology, 25*, 35-71.
- Stogdill, R. (1950). Leadership, membership and organization. *Psychological Bulletin, 47*, 1-14.
- Sy, T. (2010). What do you think of followers? Examining the content, structure, and consequences of implicit followership theories. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 113*, 73-84.
- Sy, T. (2013). *An indirect measure of IFTs using a projective approach*. Unpublished Manuscript.
- Sy, T., Shore, L., Strauss, J., Short, T., Tram, S., Whiteley, P., (2010). Leadership perceptions as a function of race-occupation fit: The case of Asian Americans. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*, 902-919.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2000). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. Needham Heights: Allyn & Bacon.

- Tanoff, G., & Barlow, C. (2002). Leadership and followership: Same animal, different spots? *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 54, 157-167.
- Taylor, F. (1911). *The principles of scientific management*. New York: Harper & Bros.
- Taylor, F. (1934). *The principles of scientific management*. New York: Harper & Bros.
- Thomas, A. (1988). Does leadership make a difference to organizational performance? *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33, 388-400.
- Thompson, P. M. M., Glaso, L., & Matthiesen S. B., (2018). The way I see you. Implicit followership theories explored through the lens of attachment. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 21, 85.
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Pillai, R. (2007). The romance of leadership and the social construction of followership. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl* (pp.187-210). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishers.
- Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R, Low, K., & Carsten, M. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *Leadership Quarterly*, 25, 83-104.
- van Gils, S., van Quaquebeke, N., & van Knippenberg, D., (2010). The X-factor: On the relevance of implicit leadership and followership theories for leader-member exchange agreement. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19, 333-363.
- Van Quaquebeke, N., & Brodbeck, F. (2008). Development and first validation of two scales to measure leader categorization in German-speaking countries. *Zeitschrift fuer Arbeits – und Organisational Psychologie*, 52, 70-80.

- Van Quaquebeke, N., & van Knippenberg, D. (2012). Second-generation leadership categorization research: How subordinates' self-and typical leader perceptions moderate leader categorization effects. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 42*, 1293-1319.
- Van Quaquebeke, N., van Knippenberg, D., & Brodbeck, F. (2011). More than meets the eye: The role of subordinates' self-perceptions in leader categorization processes. *The Leadership Quarterly, 22*, 367-382.
- Watson, D., Hubbard, B., & Wiese, D., (2000). Self-other agreement in personality and affectivity: The role of acquaintanceship, trait visibility, and assumed similarity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78*, 546.
- Weick, K. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Whiteley, P., Sy, T., & Johnson, S. (2012). Leaders' conception of followers: Implications for naturally occurring Pygmalion effects. *The Leadership Quarterly, 23*, 833-834.
- Yukl, G. (Ed.). (1998). *Leadership in Organizations* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Foti, R. J., & Kenny, D. A. (1991). Self-monitoring and trait-based variance in leadership: An investigation of leader flexibility across multiple group situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*, 308-315.
- Zhang, J., Jenson, B. E., & Mann, L., (1997). Modification and revision of the leadership scale for sport. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 20*, 105-122.

Appendix A

Leader and Follower Attributes

INSTRUCTIONS: Think about a supervisor-employee relationship. From your perspective as an employee in such a relationship, please select whether you think each item below is descriptive of an ideal supervisor, an ideal employee, both an ideal supervisor and an ideal employee, or neither an ideal supervisor or an ideal employee.

Response Options:

1. Descriptive of an ideal supervisor
2. Descriptive of an ideal employee
3. Descriptive of *both* an ideal supervisor and an ideal employee
4. Descriptive of *neither* an ideal supervisor or an ideal employee

Original ILT items

1. Helpful
2. Understanding
3. Sincere
4. Intelligent
5. Educated
6. Clever
7. Knowledgeable
8. Dedicated
9. Motivated
10. Hard-working
11. Energetic
12. Strong
13. Dynamic
14. Domineering
15. Pushy
16. Manipulative
17. Loud
18. Conceited
19. Selfish
20. Male
21. Masculine

Original IFT items

22. Productive
23. Goes above and beyond
24. Excited
25. Outgoing
26. Happy
27. Loyal
28. Reliable
29. Team player

30. Easily influenced
 31. Follows trends
 32. Soft spoken
 33. Arrogant
 34. Rude
 35. Bad tempered
 36. Slow
 37. Inexperienced
- Original IPIP items
38. Sociable
 39. Forceful
 40. Adventurous
 41. Enthusiastic
 42. Outgoing
 43. Forgiving
 44. Not demanding/straightforward
 45. Warm
 46. Not stubborn/compliant
 47. Modest
 48. Sympathetic
 49. Efficient
 50. Organized
 51. Not careless/dutiful
 52. Thorough
 53. Not lazy/self-disciplined
 54. Not impulsive/deliberate
 55. Tense
 56. Irritable
 57. Not contented/depressed
 58. Shy
 59. Moody
 60. Not self-confident/vulnerable
 61. Curious
 62. Imaginative
 63. Artistic
 64. Wide interests
 65. Excitable
 66. Unconventional

Appendix B

Implicit Leadership Theories

INSTRUCTIONS: Think about a supervisor-employee relationship. From your perspective as an employee in such a relationship, please use the following scale to rate how characteristic each item is of an ideal supervisor.

1 (not at all characteristic).....5 (very characteristic)

Original ILT items

1. Helpful
2. Understanding
3. Sincere
4. Intelligent
5. Educated
6. Clever
7. Knowledgeable
8. Dedicated
9. Motivated
10. Hard-working
11. Energetic
12. Strong
13. Dynamic
14. Domineering
15. Pushy
16. Manipulative
17. Loud
18. Conceited
19. Selfish
20. Male
21. Masculine

Original IFT items

22. Productive
23. Goes above and beyond
24. Excited
25. Outgoing
26. Happy
27. Loyal
28. Reliable
29. Team player
30. Easily influenced
31. Follows trends
32. Soft spoken
33. Arrogant

- 34. Rude
- 35. Bad tempered
- 36. Slow
- 37. Inexperienced
- Original IPIP items
- 38. Sociable
- 39. Forceful
- 40. Adventurous
- 41. Enthusiastic
- 42. Outgoing
- 43. Forgiving
- 44. Not demanding/straightforward
- 45. Warm
- 46. Not stubborn/compliant
- 47. Modest
- 48. Sympathetic
- 49. Efficient
- 50. Organized
- 51. Not careless/dutiful
- 52. Thorough
- 53. Not lazy/self-disciplined
- 54. Not impulsive/deliberate
- 55. Tense
- 56. Irritable
- 57. Not contented/depressed
- 58. Shy
- 59. Moody
- 60. Not self-confident/vulnerable
- 61. Curious
- 62. Imaginative
- 63. Artistic
- 64. Wide interests
- 65. Excitable
- 66. Unconventional

Appendix C

Implicit Followership Theories

INSTRUCTIONS: Think about a supervisor-employee relationship. From your perspective as an employee in such a relationship, please use the following scale to rate how characteristic each item is of an ideal employee.

1 (not at all characteristic).....5 (very characteristic)

Original ILT items

1. Helpful
2. Understanding
3. Sincere
4. Intelligent
5. Educated
6. Clever
7. Knowledgeable
8. Dedicated
9. Motivated
10. Hard-working
11. Energetic
12. Strong
13. Dynamic
14. Domineering
15. Pushy
16. Manipulative
17. Loud
18. Conceited
19. Selfish
20. Male
21. Masculine

Original IFT items

22. Productive
23. Goes above and beyond
24. Excited
25. Outgoing
26. Happy
27. Loyal
28. Reliable
29. Team player
30. Easily influenced
31. Follows trends
32. Soft spoken
33. Arrogant

34. Rude
 35. Bad tempered
 36. Slow
 37. Inexperienced
- Original IPIP items
38. Sociable
 39. Forceful
 40. Adventurous
 41. Enthusiastic
 42. Outgoing
 43. Forgiving
 44. Not demanding/straightforward
 45. Warm
 46. Not stubborn/compliant
 47. Modest
 48. Sympathetic
 49. Efficient
 50. Organized
 51. Not careless/dutiful
 52. Thorough
 53. Not lazy/self-disciplined
 54. Not impulsive/deliberate
 55. Tense
 56. Irritable
 57. Not contented/depressed
 58. Shy
 59. Moody
 60. Not self-confident/vulnerable
 61. Curious
 62. Imaginative
 63. Artistic
 64. Wide interests
 65. Excitable
 66. Unconventional

Appendix D

Big Five IPIP

INSTRUCTIONS: Please use the scale below to describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself. So that you can describe yourself in an honest manner, your responses will be kept in absolute confidence.

1 (very inaccurate).....7 (very accurate)

Extraversion

1. I am the life of the party.
2. I don't talk a lot. (reversed)
3. I feel comfortable around people.
4. I keep in the background. (reversed)
5. I start conversations.
6. I have little to say. (reversed)
7. I talk to a lot of different people at parties.
8. I don't like to draw attention to myself. (reversed)
9. I don't mind being the center of attention.
10. I am quiet around strangers. (reversed)

Agreeableness

11. I feel little concern for others. (reversed)
12. I am interested in people.
13. I insult people. (reversed)
14. I sympathize with others' feelings.
15. I am not interested in other people's problems. (reversed)
16. I have a soft heart.
17. I am not really interested in others. (reversed)
18. I take time out for others.
19. I feel others' emotions.
20. I make people feel at ease.

Conscientiousness

21. I am always prepared.
22. I leave my belongings around. (reversed)
23. I pay attention to details.
24. I make a mess of things. (reversed)
25. I get chores done right away.
26. I often forget to put things back in their proper place. (reversed)
27. I like order.
28. I shirk my duties. (reversed)
29. I follow a schedule.

30. I am exacting in my work.

Emotional Stability

- 31. I get stressed out easily. (reversed)
- 32. I am relaxed most of the time.
- 33. I worry about things. (reversed)
- 34. I seldom feel blue.
- 35. I am easily disturbed. (reversed)
- 36. I get upset easily. (reversed)
- 37. I change my mood a lot. (reversed)
- 38. I have frequent mood swings. (reversed)
- 39. I get irritated easily. (reversed)
- 40. I often feel blue. (reversed)

Openness

- 41. I have a rich vocabulary.
- 42. I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (reversed)
- 43. I have a vivid imagination.
- 44. I am not interested in abstract ideas. (reversed)
- 45. I have excellent ideas.
- 46. I do not have a good imagination. (reversed)
- 47. I am quick to understand things.
- 48. I use difficult words.
- 49. I spend time reflecting on things.
- 50. I am full of ideas.

Appendix E

Revised Leadership Scale for Sport Democratic and Autocratic Subscales

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are statements describing leaders' behaviors at work. Please use the rating scale below to indicate your response.

1 (never: 0%).....5 (always: 100%)

Democratic Subscale:

1. I prefer my leader to let employees share in decision making and policy formation.
2. I prefer my leader to put the suggestions made by employees into operation.
3. I prefer my leader to let employees decide on tasks to complete at work.
4. I prefer my leader to give employees freedom to determine the details of their work.
5. I prefer my leader to get approval from employees on important matters before going ahead.
6. I prefer my leader to ask for the opinion of employees on important work matters.
7. I prefer my leader to let employees try their own way even if they make mistakes.
8. I prefer my leader to ask for the opinion of employees on strategies for specific work tasks.
9. I prefer my leader to encourage employees to make suggestions for ways to conduct work.
10. I prefer my leader to see the merits of employees' ideas when they differ from the leader's.
11. I prefer my leader to get input from employees at daily team meetings.
12. I prefer my leader to let employees set their own goals.

Autocratic Subscale:

1. I prefer my leader to present ideas forcefully.
2. I prefer my leader to disregard employees' fears and dissatisfactions.
3. I prefer my leader to keep aloof from employees.
4. I prefer my leader to dislike suggestions and opinions from employees.
5. I prefer my leader to prescribe the methods to be followed.
6. I prefer my leader to refuse to compromise on a point.
7. I prefer my leader to plan for the organization relatively independent of the employees.
8. I prefer my leader to fail to explain his/her actions.

3. Sales and office
4. Education
5. Government

9. Does your job have any leadership responsibilities?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Unsure

Appendix G

LBDQ Consideration Scale

Please read each item carefully. Think about how frequently your immediate supervisor engages in the behavior described in each item below. Select the answer you believe to be most accurate of your supervisor.

1 (rarely).....5 (very often)

1. He/she does personal favors for group members.
2. He/she does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.
3. He/she is easy to understand.
4. He/she finds time to listen to group members.
5. He/she keeps to his/herself. *
6. He/she looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.
7. He/she refuses to explain his/her actions. *
8. He/she acts without consulting the group. *
9. He/she backs up the members in their actions.
10. He/she treats all group members as his/her equals.
11. He/she is willing to make changes.
12. He/she is friendly and approachable.
13. He/she makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.
14. He/she puts suggestions made by the group into operation.
15. He/she gets group approval on important matters before going ahead.

Appendix H

LBDQ Initiating Structure Scale

Please read each item carefully. Think about how frequently your immediate supervisor engages in the behavior described in each item below. Select the answer you believe to be most accurate of your supervisor.

1 (rarely).....5 (very often)

1. He/she makes his/her attitudes clear to group members.
2. He/she tries out his/her new ideas with group members.
3. He/she rules with an iron hand.
4. He/she criticizes poor work.
5. He/she speaks in a manner not to be questioned.
6. He/she assigns group members to particular tasks.
7. He/she schedules the work to be done.
8. He/she maintains definite standards of performance.
9. He/she emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.
10. He/she encourages the use of uniform procedures.
11. He/she makes sure that his/her part in the team is understood by all team members.
12. He/she asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.
13. He/she lets group members know what is expected of them.
14. He/she sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.
15. He/she sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated.

Appendix I

Followership Behavior Questionnaire

Please read each item carefully. Think about how frequently you engage in the behavior described in each item below. Select the answer you believe to be most accurate of yourself.

1 (rarely).....5 (very often)

1. I listen to other group members' ideas.
2. I accept help from other group members.
3. I accept encouragement from other group members.
4. I am uncomfortable with other group members disagreeing with me. *
5. I understand other group members' perspectives.
6. I help to make other group members' ideas better.
7. I accept task assignments from other group members.
8. I let others speak for the group.
9. I am prepared to contribute to group assignments.
10. I get along well with other group members.
11. I communicate well with other group members.
12. I disrupt group work. *
13. I contribute my fair share to group assignments.
14. I am uncomfortable accepting help from other group members.
15. I like being part of the group.
16. I am bothered when someone else leads. *
17. I ask questions of other group members.
18. I ask advice from other group members.
19. I follow advice from other group members.
20. I accept praise from other group members.

21. I accept feedback from other group members.

Appendix J

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are statements describing people’s behaviors at work. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes **you at work** and only at work. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future.

1 (never).....7
(always)

At work, how frequently do you engage in these behaviors?

OCB-I Items

1. Help others who have been absent.
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees’ requests for time off.
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.
7. Assist others with their duties.
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.

OCB-O Items

1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
2. Keep up with developments in the organization.
3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
4. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
6. Express loyalty toward the organization.
7. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

Appendix K

Counterproductive Work Behavior

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are statements describing people’s behaviors at work. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes **you at work** and only at work. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future.

1 (never).....7
(always)

At work, how frequently do you engage in these behaviors?

CWB-I

1. Made fun of someone at work
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work.
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.
4. Cursed at someone at work.
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work.
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work.
7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work.

CWB-O

1. Taken property from work without permission.
2. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
3. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses.
4. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.
5. Come in late to work without permission.
6. Littered your work environment.
7. Neglected to follow your boss’s instructions.
8. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.
9. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
10. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.
11. Put little effort into your work.
12. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

Appendix L

Cognitive Dissonance

INSTRUCTIONS: When you think about your expectations for supervisors in general compared to your expectations for work followers in general, to what extent do you feel:

1. Not at all comfortable.....very comfortable
2. Not at all stressed.....very stressed (reverse-scored)
3. Not at all frustrated.....very frustrated (reverse-scored)
4. Not at all anxious.....very anxious (reverse-scored)
5. Not at all focused.....very focused

Appendix M

Screening Survey

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer the following demographics to determine if you are eligible to participate in the study. If you are not qualified, you will be asked to return the HIT. If you are qualified, you will be asked to consent to participate.

1. What is your ethnicity?
 - a. White/Caucasian
 - b. African American
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. Asian
 - e. Native American
 - f. Pacific Islander
 - g. Other (please specify)
2. In which country do you reside?
3. What year were you born?
4. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 - a. Less than high school
 - b. High school/GED
 - c. Some college
 - d. 2- year college degree
 - e. 4-year college degree
 - f. Master's Degree
 - g. Doctoral Degree
 - h. Professional Degree (JD, MD)
5. What is your gender?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

- c. Other (please specify)
6. Please indicate your occupation:
 7. If you are currently employed, do you currently have a supervisor at work?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. I do not work
 8. Do you have children?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 9. Have you been employed in your current position for at least 6 months?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 10. Please indicate your first speaking language:

Appendix N

Attention Check

INSTRUCTIONS: This section is to make sure that you are not using an automated program to complete your survey. **DO NOT ANSWER ANY QUESTIONS ON THIS PAGE.** Answering any questions on this page will compromise the integrity of your responses in the rest of the survey.

DO NOT ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTION:

What are your favorite sports? Check all that apply.

Soccer

Football

Basketball

Chess

Baseball

Golf

Volleyball

Softball

Tennis

Rugby

Water Polo

WARNING: Before continuing, make sure that you have not checked any boxes on this page or your response may be rejected from use in the current study.

Appendix O

EFA Factor Loadings for ILT Scale Creation

Table 13

Factor Loadings for ILT Measure Items

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
ILT 1 – helpful	F1	.812	-.128	.066
ILT 28 – reliable	F1	.760	-.096	.138
ILT 49 – efficient	F1	.757	-.041	-.024
ILT 8 – dedicated	F1	.741	-.048	.019
ILT 22 – productive	F1	.723	-.032	.002
ILT 9 – motivated	F1	.695	.009	.014
ILT 4 – intelligent	F1	.694	.072	-.022
ILT 23 – goes above and beyond	F1	.688	.008	.071
ILT 52 – thorough	F1	.669	.000	.138
ILT 50 – organized	F1	.666	.024	.166
ILT 2 – understanding	F1	.665	.068	.089
ILT 3 – sincere	F1	.661	.012	.162
ILT 10 – hard-working	F1	.624	.110	.118
ILT 51 – dutiful	F1	.592	-.061	-.107
ILT 29 – team player	F1	.581	.020	.152
ILT 27 – loyal	F1	.573	.201	-.001
ILT 44 – straightforward	F1	.562	.199	.122
ILT 53 – self-disciplined	F1	.554	.122	.144
ILT 48 – sympathetic	F1	.540	.132	.069
ILT 5 – educated	F1	.537	.106	.132
ILT 7 – knowledgeable	X	.528	.086	.231
ILT 11 – energetic	X	.517	.246	.109
ILT 13 – dynamic	X	.473	.318	-.031
ILT 12 – strong	X	.425	.355	-.026
ILT 54 – deliberate	X	.398	.278	-.001
ILT 45 – warm	X	.387	.306	.039
ILT 43 – forgiving	X	.371	.304	.074
ILT 63 – artistic	F2	-.264	.802	-.036
ILT 40 – adventurous	F2	-.016	.657	-.143
ILT 62 – imaginative	F2	-.001	.643	-.008
ILT 25 – outgoing	F2	.087	.573	.178

Table 13 (continued)

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
ILT 61 – curious	F2	.099	.520	-.010
ILT 24 – excited	F2	.128	.516	-.030
ILT 26 – happy	F2	.083	.513	.156
ILT 64 – wide interests	F2	.196	.511	.094
ILT 6 – clever	F2	.170	.505	.078
ILT 41 – enthusiastic	X	.199	.452	.138
ILT 42 – outgoing	X	.249	.429	.001
ILT 38 – sociable	X	.221	.385	-.008
ILT 47 – modest	X	.343	.359	-.121
ILT 35 – bad tempered	F3	-.039	.038	.895
ILT 34 – rude	F3	.012	.028	.866
ILT 56 – irritable	F3	-.081	.115	.866
ILT 36 – slow	F3	.069	.027	.831
ILT 37 – inexperienced	F3	-.015	.071	.816
ILT 55 – tense	F3	.004	.133	.805
ILT 59 – moody	F3	.045	.001	.805
ILT 19 – selfish	F3	.033	.008	.795
ILT 58 – shy	F3	-.034	.005	.790
ILT 33 – arrogant	F3	.044	.042	.783
ILT 15 – pushy	F3	.073	-.113	.744
ILT 60 – vulnerable	F3	-.086	.021	.769
ILT 18 – conceited	F3	.058	-.098	.768
ILT 17 – loud	F3	.122	-.109	.723
ILT 57 – depressed	F3	.195	-.084	.696
ILT 16 – manipulative	F3	.277	-.214	.656
ILT 39 – forceful	F3	-.040	-.049	.638

Table 14

Factor Loadings for ILT Measure without Bad Items

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
ILT 35 – bad tempered	F1	.893	.033	.034
ILT 56 – irritable	F1	.879	.144	.102
ILT 34 – rude	F1	.868	.041	-.006
ILT 36 – slow	F1	.833	.031	-.062
ILT 37 – inexperienced	F1	.814	.065	.009
ILT 59 – moody	F1	.807	.019	-.035
ILT 55 – tense	F1	.807	.152	.000
ILT 19 – selfish	F1	.797	.016	-.025
ILT 58 – shy	F1	.790	-.022	.029
ILT 33 – arrogant	F1	.786	.051	-.038
ILT 18 – conceited	F1	.770	-.100	-.051
ILT 60 – vulnerable	F1	.769	-.010	.077
ILT 15 – pushy	F1	.764	-.130	-.091
ILT 17 – loud	F1	.715	-.126	-.135
ILT 57 – depressed	F1	.695	-.088	-.190
ILT 16 – manipulative	F1	.648	-.217	-.279
ILT 39 – forceful	F1	.635	-.068	.030
ILT 63 – artistic	F2	-.042	.789	.227
ILT 62 – imaginative	F2	-.008	.681	-.007
ILT 40 – adventurous	F2	-.158	.615	-.032
ILT 61 – curious	F2	-.019	.536	-.121
ILT 64 – wide interests	X	.079	.515	-.223
ILT 25 – outgoing	X	.150	.402	-.152
ILT 26 – happy	X	.132	.385	-.133
ILT 6 – clever	X	.067	.476	-.198
ILT 24 – excited	X	-.053	.472	-.180
ILT 41 – enthusiastic	X	.115	.427	-.243
ILT 1 – helpful	F3	.044	-.115	-.816
ILT 49 – efficient	F3	-.047	-.008	-.763
ILT 28 – reliable	F3	.122	-.071	-.756
ILT 8 – dedicated	F3	.006	-.011	-.730
ILT 22 – productive	F3	-.014	-.002	-.720
ILT 23 – goes above and beyond	F3	.049	.020	-.699
ILT 4 – intelligent	F3	-.032	.080	-.687

Table 14 (continued)

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
ILT 9 – motivated	F3	.005	.032	-.682
ILT 50 – organized	F3	.145	.033	-.677
ILT 52 – self-disciplined	F3	.123	.025	-.668
ILT 3 – sincere	F3	.149	.035	-.656
ILT 2 – understanding	F3	.080	.118	-.647
ILT 10 – hard-working	F3	.107	.129	-.621
ILT 51 – dutiful	F3	-.123	-.059	-.598
ILT 27 – loyal	F3	-.019	.215	-.584
ILT 29 – team player	F3	.138	.037	-.582
ILT 44 – straightforward	F3	.107	.199	-.571
ILT 53 – self-disciplined	F3	.130	.154	-.555
ILT 48 – sympathetic	F3	.054	.140	-.550
ILT 5 – educated	F3	.122	.132	-.532

Table 15

Final Factor Structure for ILT Measure

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
ILT 56 – irritable	F1	.911	-.114	.191
ILT 35 – bad tempered	F1	.884	-.013	.019
ILT 34 – rude	F1	.848	.043	.009
ILT 55 – tense	F1	.845	-.020	.207
ILT 36 – slow	F1	.821	.086	.023
ILT 59 – moody	F1	.812	.031	.043
ILT 37 – inexperienced	F1	.805	.017	.050
ILT 33 – arrogant	F1	.799	.030	.074
ILT 19 – selfish	F1	.770	.067	-.041
ILT 18 – conceited	F1	.764	.039	-.096
ILT 58 – shy	F1	.757	.014	-.070
ILT 60 – vulnerable	F1	.752	-.053	-.038
ILT 15 – pushy	F1	.748	.088	-.146
ILT 17 – loud	F1	.710	.115	-.121
ILT 57 – depressed	F1	.697	.170	-.064
ILT 16 – manipulative	F1	.665	.210	-.154
ILT 39 – forceful	F1	.609	-.006	-.109
ILT 1 – helpful	F2	.029	.812	-.125
ILT 8 – dedicated	F2	-.007	.744	-.032
ILT 49 – efficient	F2	-.027	.731	.031
ILT 4 – intelligent	F2	-.049	.727	.035
ILT 28 – reliable	F2	.135	.724	-.034
ILT 22 – productive	F2	-.013	.718	-.012
ILT 3 – sincere	F2	.117	.707	-.016
ILT 50 – organized	F2	.133	.701	-.004
ILT 23 – goes above and beyond	F2	.056	.672	.064
ILT 9 – motivated	F2	.015	.672	.064
ILT 2 – understanding	F2	.085	.664	.127
ILT 10 – hard-working	F2	.098	.657	.101
ILT 52 – thorough	F2	.151	.633	.090
ILT 44 – straightforward	F2	.098	.598	-.057
ILT 51 – dutiful	F2	-.129	.596	-.057
ILT 53 – self-disciplined	F2	.139	.572	.152
ILT 5 – educated	F2	.111	.572	.072

Table 15 (continued)

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
ILT 62 – imaginative	F3	.077	.021	.787
ILT 63 – artistic	F3	-.049	-.057	.667
ILT 61 – curious	F3	.047	.134	.600
ILT 40 – adventurous	F3	-.172	.177	.490

Appendix P

EFA Factor Loadings for IFT Scale Creation

Table 16

Factor Loadings for IFT Measure Items

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
IFT 55 – tense	F1	.924	.083	.110
IFT 57 – depressed	F1	.924	.078	.085
IFT 33 – arrogant	F1	.907	.078	.116
IFT 56 – irritable	F1	.889	.069	.017
IFT 34 – rude	F1	.876	.023	.021
IFT 59 – moody	F1	.845	-.053	-.033
IFT 35 – bad tempered	F1	.841	-.056	-.057
IFT 36 – slow	F1	.806	-.094	-.108
IFT 58 – shy	F1	.802	.153	.135
IFT 19 – selfish	F1	.799	-.012	-.067
IFT 16 – manipulative	F1	.791	-.126	-.157
IFT 37 – inexperienced	F1	.776	.076	.016
IFT 15 – pushy	F1	.759	-.079	-.120
IFT 18 – conceited	F1	.759	-.163	-.179
IFT 17 – loud	F1	.742	-.147	-.175
IFT 60 – vulnerable	F1	.682	-.111	-.039
IFT 39 – forceful	F1	.620	-.077	-.081
IFT 40 – adventurous	F2	.014	.739	.247
IFT 63 – artistic	F2	-.056	.591	.026
IFT 65 – excitable	F2	-.088	.564	.151
IFT 64 – wide interests	F2	-.012	.531	-.139
IFT 62 – imaginative	F2	-.009	.527	-.142
IFT 42 – outgoing	X	.027	.552	.358
IFT 24 – excited	X	.054	.567	-.311
IFT 25 – outgoing	X	.255	.552	-.066
IFT 13 – dynamic	X	.085	.505	-.206
IFT 12 – strong	X	.049	.477	-.272
IFT 26 – happy	X	.139	.468	-.277
IFT 44 – straightforward	X	.129	.451	-.270
IFT 38 – sociable	X	-.040	.421	-.078
IFT 6 – clever	X	.079	.419	-.255
IFT 47 – modest	X	-.010	.413	-.227

Table 16 (continued)

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
IFT 61 – curious	X	-.055	.398	-.175
IFT 11 – energetic	X	.224	.397	-.286
IFT 41 – enthusiastic	X	.024	.382	-.356
IFT 48 – sympathetic	X	.086	.372	-.365
IFT 43 – forgiving	X	-.037	.345	-.332
IFT 10 – hard-working	F3	-.007	-.118	-.872
IFT 52 – thorough	F3	-.027	-.063	-.821
IFT 8 – dedicated	F3	.046	-.025	-.787
IFT 28 – reliable	F3	.109	-.066	-.731
IFT 23 – goes above and beyond	F3	.099	-.059	-.710
IFT 49 – efficient	F3	.020	-.006	-.707
IFT 29 – team player	F3	.155	-.101	-.698
IFT 9 – motivated	F3	.077	.065	-.661
IFT 53 – self-disciplined	F3	.136	.058	-.623
IFT 2 – understanding	F3	.086	.179	-.603
IFT 51 – dutiful	F3	.080	-.031	-.591
IFT 3 – sincere	F3	.222	.139	-.577
IFT 27 – loyal	F3	.003	.248	-.565
IFT 22 – productive	F3	.141	.009	-.559
IFT 7 – knowledgeable	F3	.110	.203	-.518
IFT 54 – deliberate	F3	-.103	.141	-.493
IFT 1 – helpful	X	.269	.095	-.476
IFT 4 – intelligent	X	.084	.289	-.459
IFT 50 – organized	X	.240	.139	-.428
IFT 45 – warm	X	.031	.318	-.426
IFT 5 – educated	X	.226	.252	-.360

Table 17

Final Factor Structure for IFT Measure

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
IFT 57 – depressed	F1	.923	-.062	.075
IFT 55 – tense	F1	.921	-.081	.071
IFT 33 – arrogant	F1	.915	-.108	.074
IFT 56 – irritable	F1	.895	-.008	.091
IFT 34 – rude	F1	.883	-.025	.041
IFT 35 – bad tempered	F1	.834	.054	-.054
IFT 19 – selfish	F1	.815	.040	.022
IFT 36 – slow	F1	.809	.077	-.071
IFT 59 – moody	F1	.807	.076	-.095
IFT 37 – inexperienced	F1	.791	-.022	.084
IFT 16 – manipulative	F1	.791	.125	-.092
IFT 58 – shy	F1	.775	-.056	.085
IFT 18 – conceited	F1	.768	.121	-.106
IFT 15 – pushy	F1	.756	.104	-.047
IFT 17 – loud	F1	.742	.136	-.116
IFT 60 – vulnerable	F1	.653	.053	-.143
IFT 39 – forceful	F1	.613	.070	-.077
IFT 10 – hard-working	F2	-.070	.910	-.151
IFT 8 – dedicated	F2	-.006	.832	-.054
IFT 52 – thorough	F2	-.043	.806	-.030
IFT 23 – goes above and beyond	F2	.069	.720	-.078
IFT 49 – efficient	F2	.001	.711	.003
IFT 9 – motivated	F2	.041	.707	.055
IFT 28 – reliable	F2	.101	.702	-.040
IFT 53 – self-disciplined	F2	.112	.651	.035
IFT 2 – understanding	F2	.082	.631	.161
IFT 3 – sincere	F2	.208	.613	.141
IFT 7 – knowledgeable	F2	.085	.588	.180
IFT 54 – deliberate	F2	-.125	.569	.170
IFT 51 – dutiful	F2	.078	.568	.006
IFT 22 – productive	F2	.127	.567	.053
IFT 63 – artistic	F3	.015	.022	.697
IFT 62 – imaginative	F3	.046	.194	.646
IFT 40 – adventurous	F3	.021	-.069	.627

Table 17 (continued)

Items	Factor Loading	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
IFT 64 – wide interests	F3	.022	.220	.579
IFT 65 – excitable	F3	-.083	-.017	.478