

ABSTRACT

KOOMMOO-WELCH, PENNY. Implicit Leadership Theories: Perceptions of Charisma, People, and Performance. (Under the direction of S. Bartholomew Craig and Samuel B. Pond, III.)

This study identified a set of distinct implicit leadership theories (ILTs) within a sample of working adults and examined whether differences in followers' ILTs versus actual leadership influenced ratings of charisma and performance. Results based on a sample of 718 employees indicated 11 distinct ILT profiles. Results also showed that the closer the perceived congruence between employees' ILTs (measuring their ideal leader) and their actual leader, the higher the ratings of charisma for that leader. There was no influence of ILT congruence on leader performance ratings. Some support was found for previous findings that country/location does have an influence on ILT profile, but no support was found for the influence of age, gender, ethnicity, or organizational tenure, suggesting that ILTs may be generalizable across many different populations. Further analysis of 182 leaders indicated that leader ILTs do not appear to be exhibited through personality traits, nor do they appear to be perceived by followers as ILT-relevant behaviors.

Implicit Leadership Theories: Perceptions of Charisma, People, and Performance

by
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to both my family and to all the veteran graduate students struggling to overcome that last hurdle – hang in there! You can do it!

BIOGRAPHY

Penny Koommoo-Welch was born in 1977 in Albany, Georgia to parents Penpit and Anan Koommoo. She received her Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology from Emory University in 2000 and her Master of Science degree in Industrial-Organizational Psychology from North Carolina State University in 2005. She is a member of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP), North Carolina Industrial and Organizational Psychologists (NCIOP), the American Psychological Association (APA), and the Association for Psychological Science (APS). Penny has been a graduate teaching assistant, as well as president of her university's graduate student association. She is currently employed as a consultant in the Organizational Research and Design department at GlaxoSmithKline in Research Triangle Park, North Carolina.

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Implicit Leadership Theories: Perceptions of Charisma, People, and Performance

Leadership is arguably among the most popular topics today in both in psychology and business, with organizations spending enormous amounts of money each year on the identification, development, and training of leaders in the hopes that doing so will result in consistently strong leadership and sustained organizational success. The allure of such hopes has resulted in an abundance of executive coaching options and leadership development programs; a Corporate Leadership Council study reported that 26% of organizational training budgets are spent solely on leadership development (CLC, 2004). In addition, there has been a significant increase in the number of book offerings, audio discs, and other resources – all professing the secrets to identifying and developing leaders. Businesses are spending more than ever on all things leader- and leadership-related, with one study estimating that US businesses spent in excess of \$8.3 billion in 2000 on executive leader searches alone (Winum, 2003). The sheer breadth of leadership theories studied in academic journals such as *Leadership Quarterly*, *Academy of Management Journal*, *Personnel Psychology*, and *Journal of Applied Psychology* is a testament to both how far the field of leadership research has come, as well as how much is still unknown.

The present study focused primarily on two topics within the leadership realm: charisma and implicit leadership theories. The former is among the most researched topics in leadership to date, with its popularity growing more each year as organizations attempt to find the key ingredients for success which will move them from “good to great.” The latter, by contrast, are vastly under-researched, despite their potential implications for leadership research in general. In examining the foundations of each, the present study hoped to link

charisma and implicit leadership theories in such a way that one is always considered in the context of the other.

The Study of Leadership

Current leadership theories can generally be grouped into three primary types: those theories that focus on leaders, those that focus on situational and follower influences on leaders, and those that focus on interactions between leaders and followers. True academic-based study of leadership essentially began with the study of leaders themselves with the emergence of trait theories in the 1940s and 1950s in the research by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959), among others. These theories, initially termed “great man” theories for their conviction that leaders are ‘born and not made,’ were focused on discovering those characteristics which distinguished leaders from followers and predisposed an individual to emerge as a leader. Although this approach did identify some traits which have since been almost universally associated with effective leadership (e.g., intelligence, confidence), the devotion to the study of the leader without also examining followers and other situational factors led to the formation of more inclusive approaches. Additionally, applying these theories to training and development is considered problematic, especially as traits are usually considered difficult to teach and even more difficult to change (Northouse, 2004). The ‘skills approach’ to leadership research emerged shortly thereafter in partial response to these shortcomings, and has focused on the identification and development of the ideal set of knowledge and skills (e.g., problem-solving, social judgment) which could define effective leadership (Katz, 1955; Mumford & Connelly, 1991). In contrast to traits, skills are believed to consist of competencies which can be learned, thus making leadership potentially available

to all rather than a 'chosen' few. This approach is not without its own criticisms; chief among them being that this perspective seems to identify skills that address more than just leadership (e.g., conflict management, motivation theory), and that it lacks predictive validity for how variations in these skills actually translate into more effective leadership (Northouse, 2004).

The so-called 'styles approach' to leadership research shifted emphasis from the traits and capabilities of leaders to their actual behaviors; what they do and how they act. It was here that followers were first seen as a truly important component in characterizations of leadership. The studies performed at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan were instrumental in identifying what we now see as the two major types of leadership behaviors: those behaviors associated with tasks, and those associated with relationship-building; a dichotomy which is still prevalent in a number of current popular theories, including path-goal theory and transformational leadership (Evans, 1996; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Critics of this approach, however, point to inconsistent findings when attempting to link leadership style to desired outcomes (Bryman, 1992), and to a lack of consensus regarding whether a particular style can be generalized as most effective in all situations, or whether style is more situation-specific (Yukl, 1999).

The shift from leader-focus to follower-focus seems a natural progression, and the 1960s and 1970s saw even more attention paid to situational and follower influences on leadership processes. Contingency theory, situational leadership theory, and path-goal theory all focused on maximizing leader effectiveness by identifying and establishing the appropriate match between leaders and existing situational and environmental factors. Contingency theory (Fiedler, 1964) posited that leader effectiveness was dependent on the

match between the leader's style and the situational context, while situational leadership theory (SLT; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) declared that effective leadership required individuals to adapt their leadership styles as necessary to fit situational demands. Although both have become popular within organizations due to their intuitively appealing explanations for why some people may be effective leaders in some situations and not in others, both frameworks also suffer from the problem of having components which are not easily defined (e.g., 'leader-member relations' in Fiedler's [1964] contingency theory, and 'follower needs' in SLT; Northouse, 2004). Nevertheless, contingency theory is grounded in many years of research and has a history of successful application (e.g., Strube & Garcia, 1981), and situational leadership theory continues to enjoy an intense following by organizations and different levels of business leaders for its intuitive and prescriptive approach which is easily taught in a classroom setting (Graeff, 1997).

The interaction between leaders and followers was first emphasized within path-goal theory and later brought to the forefront with leader-member exchange theory and the "New Leadership" theories of transformational leadership and charismatic leadership. Path-goal theory (House, 1971, 1996) draws heavily on motivational research (especially expectancy theory; Vroom, 1964) to suggest ways that leaders can adjust their leadership style in order to meet followers' motivational needs. In essence, leaders must determine what type of leader behaviors will motivate employees, and then direct followers along the appropriate *paths* to reach desired *goals* (Northouse, 2004). While theoretically useful in helping to identify the needs of followers and how leadership style affects follower performance, path-goal theory, much like the motivational theory upon which it is built, is also very complex to test and

implement in practice (Evans, 1996; Northouse, 2004). Leader-member exchange theory (LMX; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) focuses even more attention on the individual leader-follower dyad interaction, but still suffers from an insufficient understanding of how these dyad exchanges work and how to effectively measure them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Interest in the “New Leadership” approaches has increased dramatically since the 1970s; a study of articles appearing in *Leadership Quarterly* reported that the topics of transformational and charismatic leadership were the most prominently published in that journal, encompassing a full 34% of total articles published between 1990 and 2000 (Lowe & Gardner, 2000). Charismatic leadership theory (House, 1976) suggests that leaders who possess that “certain something” (as identified by followers) use specific behaviors and their charismatic impact to influence the behaviors of others. In recent years, this has been extended to include the ability of the charismatic leader to link follower identities to the collective identity of the organization, thus creating a link by which followers view the organization’s success as their own (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) encompasses many of the ideas of charismatic leadership, while expanding it to include other ways in which leaders would seek to change and transform individuals to accomplish more than is normally expected so that they can ‘reach their fullest potential.’ These theories hold great intuitive appeal for organizations, and they bring followers to the forefront, as it is their needs, values, and morals which leaders must connect with and appeal to in order to affect change. However, both transformational and charismatic leadership have been criticized for being

conceptually unclear and not easily developed or taught, much in the same way trait theories have been criticized (Bryman, 1992).

The Influence of Charisma

Charismatic leadership theory in particular suffers from some significant issues that limit its overall utility. Definitional disagreements abound, as some have referred to charisma as a perception or attribution bestowed upon the leader solely by followers (Weber, 1947; Willner, 1984), while others believe this attribution is determined not only by followers, but also by the characteristics of the leader and the situation (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Still others see charisma as the influence leaders have over their followers, regardless of whether the followers themselves view the leader as charismatic (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). As with many other theories, the lack of a clear definition is connected to the disparate ways in which charisma has been measured, which have thus far included content analysis of historical accounts and biographies, laboratory experiments, case study analyses, and survey studies (Yukl, 1999). Additionally, the foci of these studies vary, as the core behaviors of interest range from leaders' ability to articulate appealing strategic visions (e.g., House, 1977), to their level of self confidence and personal risk-taking behavior (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1998), to their sensitivity to members' needs and development of a collective group identity (e.g., Shamir et al., 1993). Charisma's relationship to transformational leadership (if any) is also a major source of disagreement among researchers, as some view charisma as an important facet of transformational leadership while others see it as an overlapping but unnecessary criterion. For instance, in his initial conceptualization of transformational leadership, Bass (1985) listed charisma among his seven leadership factors,

and survey research with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 2000) seems to provide some evidence of this. However, at least some field studies appear to contradict this, showing instead that there is a tendency for people to associate charisma infrequently or not at all with their transformational leaders (Yukl, 1999). Further complicating the issue, Bass has most recently stated that for most applications (assessment, counseling, and training purposes) it might be more useful to view higher-order factors (such as transformational leadership) and their associated lower-order factors (such as charisma and intellectual stimulation) as separate constructs, in order to increase one's chances of observing a larger range of leadership styles across cultures and organizations (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1988). This idea of separating discussions of charisma from discussions of transformational leadership seems to be supported by other researchers, as there is apparently little evidence to suggest that the constructs of transformational leadership and charismatic leadership are one in the same (e.g., Yukl, 1999) and in fact some have found high intercorrelations among the factors of transformational leadership in contrast to the relatively low intercorrelations for the factors in charismatic leadership (e.g., Rowold & Heinitz, 2007). Nevertheless, the sheer breadth of transformational leadership studies which include charisma as a major component suggests that charisma as a construct will, for the time being, continue to be linked to transformational leadership in such a way that it may be difficult for future studies to examine charisma independently, without the need to refer to transformational leadership at least in passing.

Not only is there disagreement over the definition and structure of charisma, there is also divergence within the field regarding how it develops and is attributed to leaders, why

these attributions vary across observers (e.g., may not be identified in the same individual by different observers), and how (and in what circumstances) charisma can be ‘lost’ by a leader (Bailey & Axelrod, 2001; Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 1999). Interestingly, Bass (1990, p. 196) states that “charismatics appear in societies with traditions of support for them and expectations around their emergence,” suggesting that charisma in leaders may be valued in some cultures but not in others (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla & Dorfman, 1999). However, there does appear to be general agreement among researchers that charisma is sometimes undesirable, and can be detrimental to an organization – especially in cases where a charismatic leader is given a substantial amount of unchecked power, or polarizes organizational members so much that it paralyzes the organization, or is unconcerned with succession planning, thereby potentially placing the company in crisis if the leader were to leave or ‘fall from grace’ (Bryman, 1992; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Yukl, 1999). Scholars in leadership have called for increased research on the practical implications of charisma in organizations (Yukl, 1999), and it stands to reason that one key component of beginning this task would be to determine how to measure charisma. Conger and Kanungo (1998), among others, believe that “most of us carry in our heads a naïve theory of what constitutes charismatic leadership” (p. 47), and it is this notion that was used as the basis for examining charisma in the context of another set of naïve conceptions: implicit leadership theories.

Implicit Leadership Theories

While each of the preceding theories adds something important to our understanding of leadership, one set of theories which has been vastly under-researched are those which describe leadership not through the lens of the leader, but from the perspective of their

followers. Chief among these follower-centric approaches is the notion of implicit leadership theories (ILTs), which have received increasingly more attention in the last decade but still have need of further exploration and development (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003). The often-used phrase that “without followers there can be no leaders” is nowhere more relevant than in the study of ILTs. The genesis of ILT research, which examines leadership almost exclusively from the follower point of view, is generally credited to Eden and Leviatan (1975), who conceived of an “implicit organization theory,” which they believed would be comprised of individuals’ perceptions of organizational variables. This cognition-based theory was not unique: implicit personality theory (Norman & Goldberg, 1966) had some years before hypothesized that the common factor structure observed in responses to a trait questionnaire was due in fact to some shared personality characteristics among the respondents. Cognitive categorization theory would soon afterward posit that, in our limited capacity to attend to and process information quickly, people create prototypes or schemas as a means of easing cognitive load (Rosch, 1978). These ideas culminated in the leadership categorization theory put forth by Lord and his colleagues (e.g., Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982), which would eventually become the basis for the idea that ILTs are schemas, or mental models, of leadership that are accessed when necessary to classify people as leaders or nonleaders (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). These leadership prototypes are believed to be formed in part through exposure to social images (e.g., television, books, everyday stimuli), interpersonal interactions (e.g., parents, organized groups), as well as prior experiences with formal leaders (e.g., teachers, job supervisors; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Nye & Forsythe, 1991; Hunt, Boal, & Sorenson, 1990). In recent years, implicit leadership theories have been

acknowledged as both an important area of leadership research in need of further exploration (Avolio et al., 2003) as well as an area that receives very little attention in actual organizational practice (Schyns & Meindl, 2005). Lord and his colleagues have been arguably the most prolific of the ILT researchers (e.g., Lord & Alliger, 1985; Lord, Foti & De Vader, 1984; Lord & Maher, 1993; Phillips & Lord, 1981), beginning with Lord's initial establishment of a pool of 59 traits believed to be instrumental in distinguishing leaders from nonleaders (Lord et al., 1984) to making the case for the differential use of ILTs by members in a leader-follower relationship with followers using ILTs for the interpretation of leader behaviors, and leaders using ILTs to actually guide behavior (Lord & Maher, 1993). While these and other studies have added to the discernable increase in the number of published studies on ILTs (Lowe & Gardner, 2000), much of the available research seems to lack direct organizational application which would make this topic of sufficient interest to organizations.

Like most research, studies of implicit leadership theories can be further categorized into several streams of investigation (Schyns & Meindl, 2005). One stream has focused on the content of ILTs—those traits, behaviors and attitudes which comprise individual theories, as well as how these theories differ between individuals. Eden and Leviatan (1975) found a 4-factor structure (support, work facilitation, interaction facilitation, and goal emphasis) underlying their measure of leadership, and attributed their findings to the ILTs brought by the participants into the measurement situation, since no supervisory behaviors were described and there appeared to be no other confounds (e.g., organization experience, prior management/leadership courses) which could have influenced the results in such a way. They also illuminated the potential hazards of relying on follower ratings of organizational

variables (as such ratings may be contaminated by raters' ILTs) and believed that the influence of ILTs could be confirmed if individuals who were not exposed to actual work experiences also resulted in a similar factor structure. Their study raised the question of whether variation in ILTs was not just measurement error, but a reflection of something in the culture at large (Eden & Leviatan, 1975, p. 740). Lord and colleagues (Lord et al., 1984) proposed two categories of ILT traits based on their own research: prototypical traits (those that are positively associated with leadership) and anti-prototypical traits (those negatively or not at all associated with leadership). Offerman, Kennedy, and Wirtz (1994) built upon this legacy in order to develop a measure of implicit leadership theories, as well as to examine whether systematic variations in ILTs existed across leader stimuli and follower characteristics. Their analyses resulted in an 8-factor solution for a measure of ILTs (sensitivity, dedication, charisma, attractiveness, intelligence, strength, tyranny, and masculinity). Their study also produced some evidence that 'leaders' might be viewed somewhat differently than 'supervisors,' and that there were no significant differences in ILTs between men and women, or between university students and working adults. Epitropaki and Martin (2004) further validated this instrument on different samples and provided some evidence for the stability of ILTs over time. Additionally, Den Hartog and her colleagues examined the question of whether ILTs were culturally specific or whether any factors appeared to be widespread, and found that some aspects of charismatic leadership in particular were universally endorsed as contributing to effective leadership (Den Hartog, et al., 1999). The content stream of ILT research appears to be alive-and-well, but the issue of the actual composition of ILTs has yet to be fully resolved, and there is no single (or even a

few) widely used measures for measuring ILTs. In light of this, the present study attempted to add to this stream of research by both utilizing an existing measure (to begin to build some consistency in use) as well as examining differences in content between individuals.

Another research stream has been concerned with the actual information processing involved in the application of implicit leadership theories. Studies examining the performance cue effect (the tendency for leaders to be rated as more effective when raters are told that the leader is successful) are prominent in this area (e.g., Lord, Binning, Rush & Thomas, 1978). Another area within this stream involves the actual classification of leaders as such, and research here has shown that categorization of individuals as leaders appears to be largely automatic when people are presented with ‘prototypical’ leadership traits and behaviors (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, and Blascovich, 1996; Lord et al., 1984) and that individuals tend to attribute leader behaviors to dispositional (internal) rather than situational (external) factors (Vonk & Konst, 2003).

A third stream of ILT research is concerned with the development, prediction, and generalizability of ILTs. Building upon the work related to the development of child-parent relationships by Hall and Lord (1995) and the childhood experiences model of ILTs developed by Hunt and colleagues (Hunt et al., 1990), Keller has done some work examining attachment theory and has proposed a model of the influence of parents on ILT formation (Keller, 1999, 2003). As for generalizability, there is some evidence that ILTs of university students (the participants in many laboratory studies) do not differ significantly from those of working adults (Offerman et al, 1994; Singer, 1990), although other studies have suggested that working adults should possess more refined ideas of leadership than students due to their

increased experience with and exposure to different types of leaders (Rush & Russell, 1988; Lord & Maher, 1993). There appears to be little evidence for a distinction between the ILTs of men and women, except that some studies have seen a tendency for women to focus on relationship-based leader behaviors while men are more likely to evaluate the task-based leader behaviors (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). This distinction has not yet been shown to be significant however, so it is difficult to say with certainty that there is no difference in ILTs between men and women. Cross-cultural studies of ILTs have found several overlapping factors that might be considered universally attributed to effective leaders, but the research has yet to bear out a wide set of attributions which can explain leadership across a wide variety of cultures (Den Hartog et al, 1999; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). For instance, Gerstner and Day (1994) asked American students to rate leadership attributes and then compared these ratings against students from seven other countries, and found country/culture of origin to have the most influence on differences in 'prototypical' leadership. There is also evidence for the stability of ILTs over time, an attribute that, if true, would be a distinct advantage in our ability to place faith in the reliability of results using ILTs as a basis of design (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). These studies are examples involving holder generalizability, which typically refers to how ILTs generalize across the people who possess them. A second, less studied type is target generalizability, and is concerned with examining how different ILTs generalize to different types of leaders (targets). Interestingly, there appears to still be a tendency to expect managers to be male, despite the increased presence of women in the upper echelons of the workplace (Powell, Butterfield & Parent, 2002).

Although ILTs are receiving increasingly more attention, they have suffered from neglect in comparison to other areas of leadership research, and more than one researcher has called for additional study on the influence and effects of ILTs (e.g., Avolio et al., 2003; Schyns & Meindl, 2005). Implicit leadership theories deserve more intense empirical scrutiny for several reasons. First, charisma has been proposed to be one of eight primary factors composing individuals' ILTs, and preliminary research seems to support this (Offerman et al., 1994). This finding, along with the questions that still remain around the source(s) of charisma, should stimulate more thorough research on this relationship. If charisma can be shown to exist as an attribution of leaders that is manifested through followers' implicit leadership theories, researchers could potentially begin to answer additional questions, such as what factors influence charismatic attributions, how these attributions are initially formed, and how they can be altered. Second, leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is concerned with the quality of the dyadic relationship between follower and leader, and ILTs may be one factor in the determination of that quality. Some ILT researchers believe that all individuals possess a specific ILT (even if they are not consciously aware of it), but that *leaders* in particular utilize their ILTs as part of their role, and that these ILTs are manifested as either behaviors (e.g., Lord & Maher, 1993), or personality (e.g., Keller, 2005), or both. Examining the congruence between follower ILTs and perceived leader behaviors could also lead to a better understanding of how these unspoken differences influence more tangible results, such as performance ratings. Engle and Lord (1997) have suggested that the greater the degree of harmony between leader and follower, the more likely that the quality of the relationship is increased, as identification

with the leader facilitates a common understanding and better social interactions. Epitropaki and Martin (2005) found that the closer the 'match' between the employees' perceptions of leadership and the managers' behaviors, the better the reported quality of LMX. Increased quality-of-relationship has also been linked to increased follower satisfaction as well as reduced turnover (Hunt, Boal, & Sorenson, 1990). Additionally, it has also been proposed that newcomers to an organization possess different ILTs than current employees, which could influence their expectations about leadership. In such cases, a mismatch between newcomer expectations and leader behaviors may result in work dissatisfaction and quick turnover (Offerman et al., 1994; Engle & Lord, 1997). Assessment of ILTs in organizations could help to inform leadership training designed to steer followers towards more realistic (or more organizationally aligned) evaluations of their leaders. In turn, this could reduce negative biases of leader behavior and produce more accurate (and therefore more valuable) performance assessments of leaders by their subordinates (Schyns & Meindl, 2005).

Variable- and Pattern-Oriented Approaches to Studying ILTs

One criticism of leadership research has been that there is too much emphasis on individual components of leadership, and not enough focus on the sum of the parts. Although ILT-based approaches have addressed the issue in some respects, researchers in this area have continued to focus on the individual variables involved in their formation, rather than on how these variables might interact as a whole. This tendency, typically referred to as the variable-oriented approach, is fairly common within the leadership literature, but has been criticized by some for being myopic in scope. By contrast, the central premise of the pattern-oriented (or person-oriented) approach is that individuals hold relatively consistent patterns

of self-organization, and that to understand how these intrapersonal variables translate into distal outcomes, researchers must examine the parts together rather than independently (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Magnusson, 1995). Although variable-oriented approaches are necessary for identifying specific variables that are important to ILTs, pattern-oriented approaches should be used to refine our understanding of the interactions among these variables (Magnusson, 1999, 2000). The pattern-oriented approach can be used to identify unique patterns of ILT variables to create categories, into which individuals can be classified. Once individuals are classified, their group membership then becomes the primary variable of interest, rather than the variables that compose the categories. Interestingly, individual differences in ILTs have been largely ignored, with researchers choosing instead to examine commonalities among ILT patterns rather than variations or different types (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Keller, 2003). The present study applied a pattern approach to the examination of ILT variability by creating a typology of followers based on their unique patterns of responses on specific ILT variables.

Although the field is still in its infancy and there is much to learn, ILTs have had a relatively significant influence on leadership research thus far. They have underlined the importance of follower-centric factors in understanding leadership (e.g., Lord & Maher, 1993), and have provided a framework for exploring such issues as gender bias and cross-cultural differences in leadership perceptions (e.g., House et al, 2004; Powell et al., 2002). They have also allowed for the examination of perceptions of leadership over time that are independent of leader targets (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). There is, however, an opportunity to identify discrete patterns of ILTs among individuals and, more importantly, to connect

existing constructs, allowing us to view these constructs from a different perspective. In particular, using ILTs as a means of determining the foundations of charismatic attributions of leaders by followers is an important linkage that has yet to be fully examined, and the implications for charisma research are potentially significant. If one considers the possibility that every leadership-related perception or evaluation could be influenced by ILTs, it seems apparent that further research into ILTs and their relationships with other constructs could lead to increased research creativity in the examination of these constructs. Although it has been suggested that the ultimate utility of implicit leadership theories may lie in how well they are able to explain and foster productive interactions between leaders and followers in the workplace (Hunt et al., 1990), a greater benefit may be in their potential to help us create linkages between our disparate leadership theories (Lord, 2005; Phillips & Lord, 1986).

Multisource Feedback

The performance appraisal process has a long history for both administrative and developmental purposes. In recent years, traditional rating by managers on subordinate employees has been supplanted by more inclusive rating processes typically referred to as multisource, or 360-degree, feedback (Craig & Hannum, 2006; Murphy, Cleveland, & Mohler, 2001). In these systems, evaluations of an individual are provided not only by the supervisor, but by various other rater sources including peers, subordinates, customers, and the ratees themselves. The implication of this system is that an all-inclusive, total (360-degree) view of performance will be more comprehensive than an evaluation by any single individual (e.g., Farr & Newman, 2001; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). This method acknowledges that a rater from each rating source may be witness to some portion of the

individual's total performance that may partially overlap with that observed by others but may also uniquely contribute to the overall performance assessment. Studies have found some consistent differences in ratings between sources – including higher reliabilities among supervisory ratings than peer or self ratings (e.g., Viswesvaran, Ones, & Schmidt, 1997). But there is also some evidence that, in general, raters will most likely disagree regardless of their relationship to the ratee (Greguras & Robie, 1998; Murphy et al., 2001), which, given the different-perspectives premise of 360-degree feedback, is not unexpected. This disagreement among raters has caused concern among some users, particularly those who utilize such feedback for administrative purposes. However, rater disagreement appears to be less alarming to developmental feedback proponents, who generally believe that – from an individual development perspective – differences in ratings are needed to create a complex view of an individual's performance. Their concern therefore is not over the low agreement among raters *per se*, but *why* this low agreement exists. Reasons for these differences have included: differences between raters in their opportunities to observe target behaviors (Borman 1997; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995), measurement invariance of the rating instrument (Fecteau & Craig, 2001), raters' inaccurate recall of behaviors (Wherry & Bartlett, 1982), and rater biases resulting from different frames-of-reference (Woehr & Huffcutt, 1994). As evidenced by these examples, there is at least some agreement that differences in performance ratings may be based less on actual ratee behavior and more on the individual raters themselves.

Expanding on this research, Scullen and his colleagues have proposed that performance ratings are influenced by five primary factors: general ratee job performance,

dimension-specific ratee job performance, rater perspective, idiosyncratic rater tendencies, and measurement error (Scullen, Mount, & Goff, 2000). The first two factors deal with the systematic variance associated with the actual job performance of the person being rated. The second two factors refer to the raters; specifically, the relationship they hold with the ratee (e.g., supervisor, peer, subordinate, or other party), and their tendencies as a rater that are systematic to their ratings alone, and are not related to either the actual performance of the ratee or to the ratings made by other sources. The latter of these – the rater’s idiosyncratic rater tendencies – appears to be of particular importance in accounting for some of the variance not associated with the ratee’s actual performance. As the authors identified in the study, this factor likely includes any number of effects which can be attributed to the rater and not the ratee, including errors of halo and leniency, where halo is the tendency to use an overall impression to guide specific ratings and leniency is the tendency to gravitate toward one direction on all ratings, regardless of actual performance (Scullen et al, 2000). The authors found that idiosyncratic rater tendencies accounted for the majority of the total variance in performance ratings across all sources and performance dimensions tested, with a low of 51% of variance explained for supervisor ratings, and a high of 71% for variance explained in self ratings, resulting in an average of 62% of the total variance explained. Mount and his colleagues had observed a similar result a few years prior, adding support to the validity of this finding (Mount, Judge, Scullen, Sytsma, & Hezlett, 1998). The other proposed sources of variance in Scullen’s study—general performance, dimensional performance, and random error—accounted for much smaller proportions of variance by contrast (13%, 8%, and 11%, respectively). Three findings from in their study are of

particular importance to the present study. First, the influence of actual ratee performance in subordinate ratings (both general and specific) was low (14% of the total variance explained) when compared to the effect seen in manager ratings (62%). This suggests that actual ratee performance is weighted more heavily within manager ratings, and has less of an impact on subordinate ratings. Second, this effect was nearly equivalent to the effect of perspective on the part of subordinates, with 17% of the total variance accounted for, the highest effect of organizational perspective among all the rater sources examined. This means that the rater's relationship to the ratee seems to make little difference in how they are rated, *except* in the case of subordinates. Third, idiosyncratic rater effects accounted for 62%, over half of the observed variance; implying that the primary reason why ratings differ among raters has to do with their individual tendencies. These results together suggest that, when subordinates are rating their leader, the actual performance of the leader has relatively little impact on their ratings and that the majority of the rating variance can be explained by factors unique to individual raters. These unique factors may in fact have their roots in the raters' implicit leadership theories, and the present study examined whether the difference between what a leader *should be* versus how a leader *is* had any relationship to how they are rated.

Research Questions

The present study examined the implicit leadership theories (ILTs) of employees in a large, global organization to explore how these differences in ILTs and employee characteristics are related to employees' perceptions of their leaders. This study addressed four primary research questions:

- 1) How many distinct implicit leadership theories (ILTs) exist among followers?

- 2) Are follower ILTs related to other follower characteristics, including
 - a) age
 - b) gender
 - c) ethnicity
 - d) organizational tenure, and
 - e) country/location of work?
- 3) Is the congruence between followers' ILTs and their perceptions of leaders' ILT-relevant behaviors related to followers' ratings of
 - a) leader charisma and
 - b) leader performance?
- 4) Is there a relationship between leader personality and follower ratings of leaders on ILT-relevant behaviors?

Consistency in research is essential for the establishment of any taxonomy, and so the first two questions attempted to both build onto existing frameworks of ILT research, as well as draw attention to the need for more pattern-oriented approaches for studying them. The third question was not only intended to determine whether the degree of congruence between an individual's perceptions of their ideal leader versus their actual leader influenced how they rated charisma and performance, but whether ILTs themselves could be shown as an important link in both charismatic attributions and performance ratings. The fourth question sought to examine how the ILTs of leaders themselves might be exhibited.

Methods

Participants

Participants were sampled from employees at a large multinational pharmaceuticals company, who had participated in the company's internal multisource feedback process. The populations of interest were leaders (managers) and followers (direct reports), where the leaders had received multisource feedback ratings from their followers at least once within the 3 years prior to this study. The final sample of respondents included a total of 281 leaders and 788 followers. In addition to the leadership measures collected through the study and the archival data set of multisource feedback ratings gathered for each leader-follower pair, demographic data were available for a subset of the sample (43%). Specifically, the demographic variables of age, gender, ethnicity, and tenure were obtained for 338 employees in the follower sample. A fifth variable (location) was collected for all leaders and followers.

Measures

Implicit Leadership Theories Questionnaire. A slightly modified version of the 41-item ILT scale developed by Offerman and her colleagues (ILT; see Appendix A) was administered to both leader and follower samples in order to measure implicit leadership theories. This ILT scale was selected as the instrument of choice for this study as it was developed using both student and adult worker samples, and distills rating information into a small number of distinct categories using a relatively small number of items (Offerman et al., 1994). In Offerman et al.'s original version, participants were asked to rate on a 7-point scale (from *not at all characteristic* to *extremely characteristic*) whether each of the 41 traits (e.g., "Domineering," "Educated") was characteristic of 'a leader in a business setting' with no

additional definition of the term provided (Offerman, et al., 1994). These instructions were modified for the present study, as participants were asked to rate instead on a 5-point scale (ranging from *not at all characteristic* to *extremely characteristic*) whether each of the 41 traits was characteristic of ‘an ideal leader in a business setting,’ again with no additional definition provided. The scale is comprised of 8 dimensions (with observed internal consistency reliability estimates): Attractiveness (4 items: well-groomed, attractive, well-dressed, classy; $\alpha = .73$); Charisma (5 items: energetic, charismatic, inspiring, enthusiastic, dynamic; $\alpha = .66$); Dedication (4 items: dedicated, motivated, hard-working, goal-oriented; $\alpha = .61$); Intelligence (6 items: intellectual, educated, intelligent, wise, knowledgeable, clever; $\alpha = .70$); Masculinity (2 items: masculine, male; $\alpha = .65$); Sensitivity (8 items: sympathetic, sensitive, compassionate, sincere, warm, forgiving, understanding, helpful; $\alpha = .79$); Strength (2 items: strong, bold; $\alpha = .44$); and Tyranny (10 items: domineering, pushy, dominant, obnoxious, manipulative, power-hungry, conceited, loud, selfish, demanding; $\alpha = .80$). ILT data were collected for 788 followers. ILT data were also collected for 182 leaders; observed reliabilities for this group were similar to the follower sample: Attractiveness ($\alpha = .75$); Charisma ($\alpha = .48$); Dedication ($\alpha = .59$); Intelligence ($\alpha = .72$); Masculinity ($\alpha = .44$); Sensitivity ($\alpha = .75$); Strength ($\alpha = .40$); and Tyranny ($\alpha = .81$).

Implicit Leadership Theory-relevant Behaviors Questionnaire. The ILT scale was used as the basis for the creation of a second ILT measure intended to capture the ILT-relevant behaviors of leaders as perceived by their followers (see Appendix B). The original 41-items were modified, and the original traits were replaced with behavioral representations of those traits (e.g., “Domineers situations” in place of “Domineering”). Participants in the

follower group were asked to use the same 5-point scale as in the ILT scale (*not at all characteristic to extremely characteristic*), except instead of rating an ideal leader they were asked to rate how characteristic each of the statements was of their current manager. The goal behind creating this second measure was twofold: 1) the new measure was intended to determine whether a leader was meeting his/her followers' ILT-based expectations without specifically asking followers whether their expectations were being met, and 2) the measure was intended to allow for follower assessment of their leaders' behaviors in the context of ILTs, thus allowing for the direct comparison of ILT-based expectations against reality. ILT-related behaviors (hereafter referred to as 'ILT-B') data were collected from 676 followers; observed reliabilities for this new instrument in this sample were quite good: Attractiveness ($\alpha = .81$); Charisma ($\alpha = .86$); Dedication ($\alpha = .84$); Intelligence ($\alpha = .85$); Masculinity ($\alpha = .83$); Sensitivity ($\alpha = .93$); Strength ($\alpha = .66$); and Tyranny ($\alpha = .85$).

Conger-Kanungo Charisma Scale. In addition to rating their current leaders on a number of ILT-relevant behaviors, followers were asked to assess their leaders' charisma using the Conger-Kanungo Scale of Charismatic Leadership (CKS; Conger & Kanungo, 1994). The CKS was developed to measure the perceived behaviors associated with charismatic leadership, and is comprised of 25 items on six subscales/dimensions. Followers were asked to rate how characteristic each statement (e.g., "uses nontraditional means to achieve organisational goals") was of their leader using a 6-point scale ranging from *very uncharacteristic* to *very characteristic*. The six dimensions represented in the instrument, with previously reported reliabilities, are: Strategic Vision and Articulation (six items, $\alpha = .84$); Environmental Sensitivity (seven items, $\alpha = .81$); Unconventional Behavior (three

items, $\alpha = .74$); Personal Risk (four items, $\alpha = .83$); Sensitivity to Member Needs (three items, $\alpha = .83$); and 'Does Not Maintain Status Quo' (two items, $\alpha = .62$).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the CKS was performed to investigate the factor structure of the measure for this sample of employees. Although assumptions of normality were not completely met with regards to skew and kurtosis, because the CKS is a published measure which is currently in use, no transformations of the data were performed, nor were any variables deleted from the analysis. This strategy has been deemed appropriate in cases such as this, as long as one takes into account that significance tests will therefore be less appropriate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Charisma ratings were collected from 682 followers, and listwise removal of cases with missing data resulted in 571 cases available for analysis. Maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis with promax rotation was utilized, and a six factor solution appeared to best fit the data; loadings of CKS items on factors as well as their communalities are presented in Table 1.

Table 1.

Factor Loadings and Communalities for CKS Charisma Scale Items

CKS Item	Factor						h ²
	1: SVA	2: SE	3: SMN	4: PR	5: DC	6: UB	
15. is an exciting public speaker.	1.15						.76
21. appears to be a skillful performer when presenting to a group.	1.01						.58
10. provides inspiring strategic and organisational goals	.39						.67
13. is inspirational; able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organisational members are doing.	.34						.71
08. readily recognises constraints in the physical environment (technological limitations, lack of resources, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organisational objectives.		.88					.56
11. readily recognises constraints in the organisation's social and cultural environment (cultural norms, lack of grassroots support, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organisational objectives.		.72					.48
02. readily recognises barriers/forces within the organisation that may block or hinder achievement of his/her goals.		.55					.33
24. recognises the limitations of other members in the organisation.		.53					.32
05. shows sensitivity for the needs and feelings of the other members in the organisation.			1.06				.77
16. often expresses personal concern for the needs and feelings of other members in the organisation.			.87				.57
19. recognises the abilities and skills of other members in the organisation.			.52				.56
01. influences others by developing mutual liking and respect.			.51				.57

Table 1 (continued).

CKS Item	Factor						h ²
	1: SVA	2: SE	3: SMN	4: PR	5: DC	6: UB	
20. often incurs high personal costs for the good of the organisation.				.88			.63
25. in pursuing organisational objectives, engages in activities involving considerable personal risk.				.78			.68
07. in pursuing organisational objectives, engages in activities involving considerable self-sacrifice.				.69			.54
12. takes high personal risks for the sake of the organisation.				.64			.61
14. consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organisation.					.77		.73
22. has vision; often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future.					.74		.78
17. tries to maintain the status quo or the normal way of doing things.					-.74		.23
04. is entrepreneurial; seizes new opportunities in order to achieve goals.					.51		.60
23. readily recognises new environmental opportunities (favourable physical and social conditions) that may facilitate achievement of organisational objectives.					.44		.52
09. advocates following non-risky, well-established courses of action to achieve organisational goals.					-.42		.14
03. engages in unconventional behaviour in order to achieve organisational goals.						.87	.68
06. uses nontraditional means to achieve organisational goals.						.65	.57
18. often exhibits very unique behaviour that surprises other members of the organisation.						.34	.26

Note. h² = Communality. SVA = Strategic Vision & Articulation; SE = Sensitivity to the Environment; SMN = Sensitivity to Member Needs; PR = Personal Risk; DC = Drives Change; UB = Unconventional Behavior.

The EFA resulted in six factors identified for the CKS. Two of these factors were identical to the *a priori* model: Personal Risk (original four items, $\alpha = .84$) and Unconventional Behavior (original three items; $\alpha = .69$). Three of the factors were very similar to the dimensions in the *a priori* model: Vision and Articulation (four of the original six items; $\alpha = .85$), Sensitivity to the Environment (four of the original seven items; $\alpha = .73$), and Sensitivity to Member Needs (the three original items plus an additional item, $\alpha = .84$). The remaining factor was a mixture of items from several of the other *a priori* dimensions, and has been labeled in this study as ‘Driver of Change’ (six items; $\alpha = .58$). Because these dimensions are slightly different from the six dimensions purported to be measured by the CKS, subscale scores were computed for each of these new dimensions for each individual by calculating the mean of all items associated with the new factors. These subscale scores, as well as the mean score across all items, were used in the analyses for leader charisma throughout this study.

Leader Performance Measure. Measures of leader performance were obtained through an archived database of multisource ratings collected by the organization as part of its general employee development program. The measure (hereafter referred to as ‘LPM’) is comprised of 58 behavioral items related to the company’s leadership model (e.g., “My manager communicates openly and honestly with others,” “My manager sets and pursues active goals”) upon which employees were asked to rate their manager on a 5-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Leader performance ratings for the 788 participants in the follower sample were extracted from the archival data.

Exploratory factor analysis was again performed to investigate the factor structure of the measure for this sample of employees. No previous factor analytic work had been performed on this instrument by the company, and so this analysis was approached in the present study as a purely exploratory endeavor. Removal of missing data and outliers resulted in complete performance ratings from 338 employees available for the factor analysis. Maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis with promax rotation was again utilized, and results suggested that a four factor solution best fit the data; loadings of the performance items on factors as well as their communalities are presented in Table 2.

Table 2.

Factor Loadings and Communalities for Leader Performance Measure Items

Performance Item	Factor				h ²
	1: UE	2: EO	3: DSO	4: CO	
19. Makes timely, accurate decisions in the face of ambiguity and uncertainty.	.76				.57
58. Is indecisive - shows reluctance to commit to a decision.	-.73				.55
17. Develops alternative solutions to situations that lead to organisational improvements.	.69				.49
20. Sets and pursues aggressive goals.	.69				.43
42. Demonstrates an in-depth knowledge of our culture, business strategy, and business processes.	.61				.40
01. Shows consistency between words and actions.	.60				.60
45. Works across business unit lines to solve problems/create solutions.	.58				.50
13. Embraces change and adapts effectively to new challenges.	.56				.49
48. Maintains high expectations for own personal performance.	.54				.35
18. Encourages the use of new technology to improve performance.	.52				.30
22. Seizes opportunities when they arise.	.51				.47
21. Simplifies work processes where possible.	.50				.42
25. Learns from past experiences.	.48				.49
44. Demonstrates personal accountability for group/business unit goals.	.45				.49
38. Confronts performance issues and takes action necessary to correct problems.	.44				.38
24. Works to anticipate customers'/stakeholders' needs.	.44				.46
23. Provides clear focus and support in times of intense pressure.	.43				.52
15. Challenges others to experiment and find better ways of doing things.	.31				.44
52. Considering all aspects of management and leadership that are important to me, this person is an outstanding leader.	.30				.65
02. Confronts behaviours that are not consistent with our ethical standards.	.29				.17

Table 2 (continued).

Performance Item	Factor				h ²
	1: UE	2: EO	3: DSO	4: CO	
56. Is over controlling.		-.97			.62
55. Is sometimes perceived as manipulative.		-.90			.60
53. Becomes defensive when challenged.		-.74			.46
06. Treats each individual with fairness and respect.		.74			.56
54. Puts self interest ahead of common goals.		-.72			.48
05. Promotes an atmosphere where others are free to express their ideas and opinions.		.68			.63
57. Makes excuses or blames others.		-.68			.51
30. Demonstrates openness to different perspectives.		.67			.63
28. Encourages a climate where diverse perspectives are valued.		.58			.59
29. Gives all people, regardless of race, gender, or other individual differences, a fair opportunity to succeed.		.49			.47
08. Is accessible and approachable.		.47			.45
09. Actively supports work/life balance for everyone.		.45			.33
31. Involves others in decisions that affect their work.		.44			.55
26. Collaborates effectively when working on virtual or distributed teams.		.44			.51
16. Encourages and supports others who have new ideas.		.43			.57
12. Builds strong, positive relationships.		.42			.58
27. Actively seeks the ideas and opinions of others.		.40			.54
03. Communicates honestly and openly with others.		.39			.54
40. Actively encourages cooperation between all levels and departments.		.39			.45
10. Delegates decision-making to the lowest appropriate level.		.33			.36

Table 2 (continued).

Performance Item	Factor				h ²
	1: UE	2: EO	3: DSO	4: CO	
51. Provides others with feedback that helps improve their performance.			.97		.73
36. Provides timely feedback on employees' performance.			.95		.64
47. Finds appropriate opportunities to talk with others about their professional progress.			.82		.69
50. Recognises potential in others and coaches them toward their potential.			.73		.69
04. Helps the best performers succeed and progress.			.63		.61
46. Fosters the growth, learning and success of others.			.59		.67
39. Provides meaningful recognition for good work.			.59		.49
33. Takes a personal interest in the people he/she works with.			.49		.46
37. Uses relevant facts to measure and track progress toward achievement of individual and team goals.			.48		.52
34. Helps establish clear expectations for the team.			.46		.55
14. Recognises individuals for demonstrating initiative and informed risk-taking.			.44		.55
49. Seeks feedback to improve performance.			.43		.38
11. Helps each person do more of what they do best.			.43		.59
35. Helps others understand the connection between job performance and business outcomes.			.43		.53
32. Communicates an inspiring vision of the future.				.78	.71
43. Communicates a vision of the future that motivates and inspires others.				.75	.74
07. Creates enthusiasm for our mission and strategic objectives.				.55	.52
41. Links individual and group goals to the pursuit of our mission.				.43	.53

Note. h² = Communality. UE = Urgency & Execution; EO = Empowering Others; DSO = Developing Self and Others; CO = Communication.

Based on the associated items, the following interpretive labels were suggested for each factor: Urgency and Execution (20 items; $\alpha = .90$), Empowering Others (20 items; $\alpha = .70$), Developing Self and Others (14 items; $\alpha = .94$), and Communication (four items; $\alpha = .87$). Subscale scores were calculated for each individual by computing the mean of all items within each factor. These subscale scores, as well as the mean score across all items, were used in the analyses for leader performance throughout this study.

IPIP Personality Scale. In addition to the ILT questionnaire, leaders were asked to complete a personality inventory constructed using items available through the public domain International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger, & Gough, 2006). The “Mini-IPIP” scale (Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006) is comprised of 20 items over five dimensions, and was designed to measure the Five Factor (“Big Five”) Model of personality dimensions, which includes Extraversion (4 items, $\alpha = .82$); Conscientiousness (4 items, $\alpha = .71$); Agreeableness (4 items, $\alpha = .74$); Neuroticism/Emotional Stability (4 items, $\alpha = .74$); and Intellect/Openness to Experience (4 items, $\alpha = .69$; e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991). Leaders were asked to rate how accurately each of the 20 statements (e.g., “I am always prepared”) applied to themselves, using a 5-point scale ranging from *very inaccurate* to *very accurate*. Personality data (hereafter referred to as ‘IPIP’) were collected from 271 leaders. Observed reliabilities for this sample were substantially lower than those reported a previous study on three of the five dimensions: Extraversion ($\alpha = .67$); Conscientiousness ($\alpha = .49$); Agreeableness ($\alpha = .70$); Neuroticism/Emotional Stability ($\alpha = .47$); and Intellect/Openness to Experience ($\alpha = .73$).

However, as many organizations (including the one from which these samples were drawn) have adopted a tendency to reference components of the Five Factor Model in their dealings with and discussions of personality (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991), the decision was made for the purposes of the present study to use the measure as-is, rather than perform an additional EFA to possibly obtain a more reliable set of factors. Subscale scores were therefore calculated for each individual by computing the mean of all items within each factor. These subscale scores, as well as the mean score across all items, were used in the analyses of leader personality throughout this study.

Procedure

All participants were invited to participate via an electronic mail message through the company's email system, which contained a hyperlink to the survey instrument housed on the company intranet. Invitations were sent to a total of 951 leaders and 3147 followers, with 281 leaders and 788 followers submitting surveys, for overall response rates of 30% and 25% respectively. Data from both leaders and followers were collected simultaneously to both maximize efficiency of collection and to attempt to reduce potential discussions between leaders and followers which could influence the results. Leaders were asked to complete two measures (the ILT scale and IPIP personality inventory), while followers were invited to complete three measures (the ILT scale, the ILT-B scale, and the charisma scale). To reduce possible serial order effects, measures were combined into single questionnaires and presentation of the measures within each questionnaire were completely randomized. Leaders were randomly assigned to either a questionnaire version with the ILT measure presented first, or a version with the personality inventory presented first. Followers were randomly

assigned to one of 6 different versions (3 measures randomized to produce 6 combinations). Despite these efforts, significant differences were observed between groups receiving different versions. Specifically, among leader samples, the group that received the ILT scale first scored significantly lower on the combined ILT and IPIP measures ($n = 85$, $M = 3.42$, $SD = .28$) than the group that received the IPIP scale first ($n = 99$, $M = 3.55$, $SD = .23$), $t(182) = -3.63$, $p = .000$. Further examination revealed that the mean scores on the ILT scale were significantly different, $t(180) = -2.81$, $p = .006$, while scores on the IPIP scale were not, $t(175) = -.71$, $p = .479$. There were no significant differences observed among the mean scores of the combined ILT, ILT-B, and CKS scales for the follower samples, $F(5,710) = 1.78$, $p = .115$. Although this is not conclusive evidence of a serial order effect of the measures for the leader samples, it does raise questions about how differences in the ILT scale between leader groups might influence other analyses. Therefore in the investigations where leader ILT scores are used, the analyses are divided by leader groups for comparison purposes. Since the IPIP scale was not significantly affected, analyses were performed on both leader groups combined without concern.

Analyses & Results

Prior to analysis, the ILT scale, ILT-B scale, CKS charisma scale, IPIP personality scale, and LPM performance measures were examined for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In some cases these issues were dealt with prior to data analysis, and in other cases they were handled during the course of the analyses. When appropriate, these are discussed in the context of each set of results. All analyses (except

clustering) were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 14.0 (SPSS Inc., 2005) and Mplus version 3.12 (Muthén & Muthén, 2005). Cluster analyses were conducted using the statistical package SLEIPNER 2.1 (Bergman & El-Khoury, 2002).

ILT Type Classification. To address the first research question regarding the number and types of distinct implicit leadership theories among working adults, cluster analysis was performed on the ILT responses from the follower sample. Cluster analysis is a technique by which a large group of entities is categorized into a smaller number of homogenous subgroups (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Borgen & Barnett, 1987). Although similar in nature to factor analysis, cluster analysis makes no attempt to explain or account for variance within the data by reference to latent factors; instead it makes membership decisions based on the degree of similarity between newly considered data points and (any) groupings that have already been created. Clustering methods may make use of several different similarity indices on which to base the analysis, but the present study used the squared Euclidean distance (SED) as the similarity index for all analyses. For all analyses in the present study utilizing the SED, subscale scores for the ILT and ILT-B were first standardized (transformed to z-scores) and the difference between them calculated for each of the matching subscales. SED was then calculated as the sum across all eight of these difference scores, for each individual. Squared Euclidean Distance is calculated by the SLEIPNER program as follows in Equation 1:

$$d_{ij}^2 = \sum (x_{ik} - x_{jk})^2 \quad (1)$$

where d_{ij}^2 is the distance (squared) between cases i and j , x_{ik} is the value of the k^{th} variable for the i^{th} case, and x_{jk} is the value of the k^{th} variable for the j^{th} case (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). SED was selected as the similarity index for the present study due to its sensitivity to the three components of consideration in pattern similarity: shape (the pattern of high and low scale scores in a profile), level (the overall elevation of the profile), and scatter (the degree of variability of the subscale scores around the profile average; Cronbach & Gleser, 1953; Skinner, 1978).

Data were prepared for analysis by first grouping items into the eight subscales established in the original work by Offerman et al. (1994). As no taxonomy that can be considered truly parsimonious can also classify every entity in a population, cluster analytic methods are intended to produce the best and easiest-to-interpret results when the initial data are as clean and complete as possible. To this end, two procedures were undertaken. First, as is the standard for many clustering procedures (e.g., Bergman & El-Khoury, 2002), scores were standardized (to z -scores) to prevent the influence of disproportionately large variances on the resulting cluster profiles, and missing data were handled by calculating subscale scores and then eliminating cases with missing subscale data. Typical procedures for obtaining subscale scores include taking the sum across all scale items; this method is problematic, however, because missing item data automatically results in some subscales having lower values than others. Instead, the current study used the mean score of items within each subscale, which not only ensures subscales can be compared even with missing items, but also results in a lower incidence of missing subscale data since all items within a particular subscale would have to be absent in order to prevent the calculation of the subscale

score. Additionally, using subscale scores (rather than item scores) as the basis for the clustering procedure reduced measurement error associated with individual item scores. Following this calculation however some subscale scores for individuals were still observed as missing, and so these cases were omitted from the analyses in order to meet the SLEIPNER program's criteria for complete data (Bergman & El-Khoury, 2002). Of 788 initial cases, 30 (4%) were removed because of missing subscale scores, leaving 758 cases. The second procedure to clean the data involved the identification and removal of outliers. To do this, the RESIDUE function in the SLEIPNER program was utilized, which removed a case from the data if it did not have an initial 'sibling' based on pattern similarity. That is, if a case was dissimilar from its nearest sibling by a SED of more than 0.5 (the default value for the RESIDUE function), then the case was removed as an outlier. Of the 758 remaining cases, 40 (5%) were removed as outliers, resulting in 718 cases available for clustering. Correlations and observed reliabilities for the eight ILT subscales are presented in Table 3.

Table 3.

Intercorrelations Between ILT Subscales and Observed Subscale Reliabilities (N = 718)

	Mean	SD	ATT	CHR	DED	INT	MSC	SNS	STR	TYR
ATT	2.69	.78	(.73)							
CHR	4.26	.47	.20*	(.66)						
DED	4.42	.42	.16*	.53*	(.61)					
INT	3.98	.47	.32*	.35*	.45*	(.70)				
MSC	1.37	.67	.31*	-.03	.01	.11*	(.65)			
SNS	3.64	.52	.27*	.28*	.22*	.31*	.06	(.79)		
STR	3.58	.75	.22*	.35*	.33*	.30*	.10*	.21*	(.44)	
TYR	1.80	.53	.32*	.10*	.02	.15*	.40*	-.11*	.16*	(.80)

Note. Reliabilities are presented on the diagonal (in parentheses). ATT = Attractiveness (4 items), CHR = Charisma (5 items), DED = Dedication (4 items), INT = Intelligence (6 items), MSC = Masculinity (2 items), SNS = Sensitivity (8 items), STR = Strength (2 items), TYR = Tyranny (10 items).

* $p < .01$

In examining the first research question regarding the number of distinct ILTs among followers, the cluster analysis was conducted in two phases: the first to determine the optimal number of clusters on which to focus and the characteristics of the final set of clusters, and the second to ‘clean up’ the resulting clusters to account for any error introduced during the previous analyses. In the first phase, hierarchical agglomeration was used to find the optimal number of clusters in the data by forcing all entities to eventually converge into a single cluster. Hierarchical agglomerative methods create clusters iteratively using the pairwise similarity indexes, successively comparing each data point to existing clusters and combining the two entities which are most similar at each iteration. In general, the first ‘pass’ through the data ‘fuses’ the most similar entities, the second pass links similar clusters (or remaining

individual data points) together, and so on, until all the data points and clusters are linked as a single cluster at the highest level. Ward's (1963) minimum variance method was selected for this task, in particular because it seeks to fuse entities while minimizing the error sum of squares (ESS) within clusters, thus resulting in relatively homogenous clusters of relatively equal sizes. Ward's method is also preferred over many other hierarchical agglomerative techniques in the social sciences because it is a 'space-dilating' linkage method, which means that instead of simply building continuously onto existing clusters, large clusters tend to actually become smaller and more distinct throughout the analysis, thus leading to more discrete clusters (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984). This process resulted in error values for each possible cluster solution which, when plotted, produced an output similar to a factor analytic scree plot except depicting changes in the error sum of squares (ESS) as clusters are joined. Because each iteration causes clusters to merge with others that are most similar (and therefore have the least error difference) this method minimizes the sum of squares of any pair of clusters. When read right-to-left, the plot shows the increase in error as successive clusters are joined. A subjective judgment is then made as to the optimal number of clusters to retain by examining the point at which there is a large increase in the error (indicating that two dissimilar clusters have fused) and selecting the number of clusters formed *before* this increase. Examination of the ESS plot (see Figure 1) suggested that an 11 cluster solution would both maximize between-cluster differences as well as maximize cluster homogeneity (thus minimizing within-cluster differences).

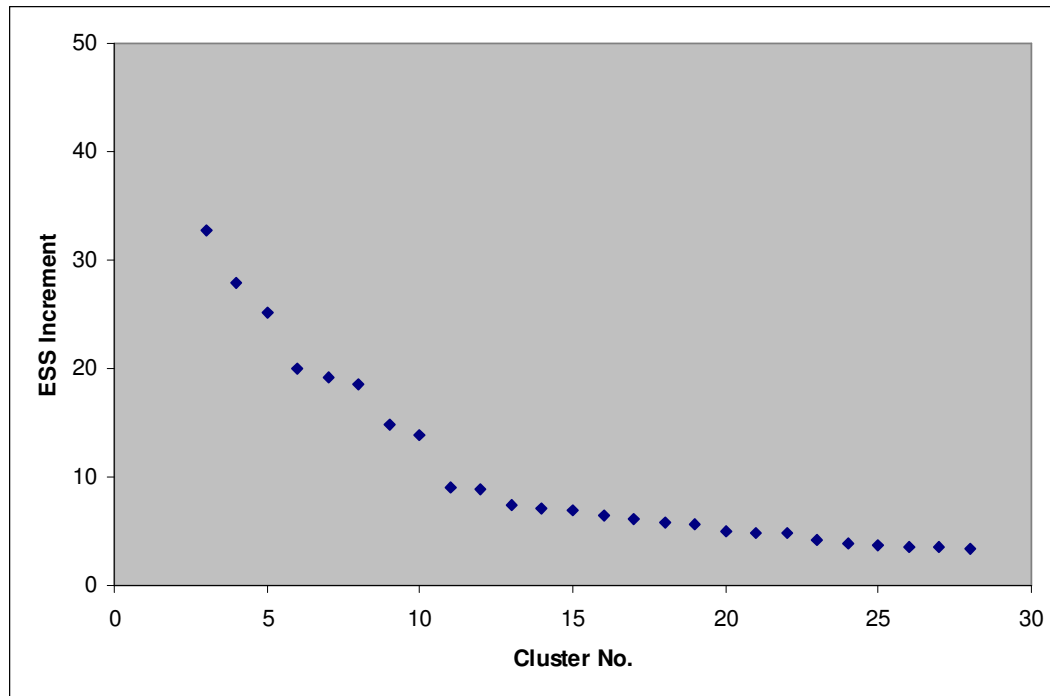


Figure 1. Error Sum of Squares. Initial cluster analysis suggests an 11-cluster solution.

The CLUSTER function was utilized a second time, except this time it was specified that all entities should be fit to one of 11 clusters as the final solution.

For the second phase, iterative partitioning (in this case, the ‘k-means method’), was used to stabilize the assignment of cases to clusters. This method, utilizing the RELOCATE function of the SLEIPNER program, made a series of ‘reassignment’ passes through the data based on the number of clusters identified in the final solution. The average profile or ‘centroid’ for each cluster was calculated, and as successive passes were made through the data, each data point was reassigned to the nearest centroid (cluster) based on whether doing so would reduce the total existing ESS of the cluster. This process was noncombinatorial (meaning that centroid recalculation only happened only after each entire pass through the data, rather than at each individual change in cluster membership), and continued until the

ESS could be reduced no further (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Bergman & El-Khoury, 2002). Reassignment is done to correct for the phenomenon of ‘centroid drift’ which occurs during the initial hierarchical agglomerative clustering phase, where initial assignments to clusters result in a final centroid value that may not accurately represent the true composition of the cluster, as centroids are not recalculated following the addition of new cluster members (Borgen & Barnett, 1987). Thus, an iterative partitioning method in which the centroids are recalculated following each pass through the data ensures that the final centroid values accurately represent the values in the clusters, thereby maximizing cluster homogeneity.

As a result of the RELOCATE procedure, members were assigned to their final cluster profiles, and eight means and standard deviations were calculated to represent the average profile of each cluster based on these final assignments (see Table 4). The homogeneity coefficient (HC) for each cluster was also generated, where the homogeneity coefficient is calculated as the average SED among all possible pairwise comparisons of members in a particular cluster. Since all subscale scores were standardized prior to analysis, a higher homogeneity coefficient for a cluster indicates *less similarity* among members within that cluster (i.e., members are more different), while lower HCs indicate more similarity. Typically, HCs less than one are considered evidence of homogenous clusters (e.g., Bergman & Trost, 2006).

Table 4.

Final Mean (SD) and Homogeneity Coefficients for ILT Cluster Profiles

Cluster	n	HC	ATT	CHR	DED	INT	MSC	SNS	STR	TYR
1	40	1.32	3.75 (0.53)	4.66 (0.26)	4.71 (0.30)	4.51 (0.34)	2.35 (0.88)	3.97 (0.44)	4.07 (0.54)	2.87 (0.40)
2	50	0.96	2.78 (0.48)	3.54 (0.32)	3.75 (0.27)	3.62 (0.24)	1.08 (0.23)	3.41 (0.44)	2.78 (0.64)	1.72 (0.46)
3	65	0.85	2.24 (0.49)	4.52 (0.32)	4.60 (0.29)	3.73 (0.38)	1.08 (0.24)	3.04 (0.35)	3.82 (0.51)	1.61 (0.33)
4	70	0.84	3.34 (0.54)	4.21 (0.28)	4.32 (0.28)	4.08 (0.31)	1.23 (0.35)	3.46 (0.32)	3.61 (0.50)	2.20 (0.40)
5	22	1.63	2.92 (0.73)	3.62 (0.45)	4.15 (0.43)	3.77 (0.40)	2.93 (0.84)	3.17 (0.43)	3.66 (0.47)	2.88 (0.32)
6	64	1.14	1.83 (0.53)	3.92 (0.37)	4.03 (0.34)	3.27 (0.31)	1.11 (0.29)	3.24 (0.51)	2.76 (0.61)	1.58 (0.41)
7	87	0.73	2.43 (0.56)	4.54 (0.28)	4.77 (0.20)	4.21 (0.34)	1.11 (0.27)	3.68 (0.33)	4.09 (0.46)	1.98 (0.31)
8	103	0.81	2.26 (0.60)	4.02 (0.34)	4.17 (0.27)	3.85 (0.34)	1.07 (0.21)	3.80 (0.35)	3.76 (0.40)	1.48 (0.30)
9	59	1.08	3.12 (0.55)	4.24 (0.37)	4.38 (0.35)	3.96 (0.31)	2.58 (0.53)	3.88 (0.41)	3.73 (0.48)	1.71 (0.36)
10	57	1.18	2.24 (0.65)	4.24 (0.39)	4.64 (0.33)	4.23 (0.41)	1.11 (0.26)	3.61 (0.50)	2.41 (0.48)	1.56 (0.37)
11	101	0.80	3.19 (0.59)	4.66 (0.27)	4.72 (0.24)	4.34 (0.35)	1.17 (0.34)	4.20 (0.33)	4.09 (0.50)	1.52 (0.29)

Note. Standard deviations are presented in (parentheses) below each mean. HC = homogeneity coefficient (cluster similarity index), where lower values (less than 1) indicate better similarity among members. ATT = Attractiveness (4 items), CHR = Charisma (5 items), DED = Dedication (4 items), INT = Intelligence (6 items), MSC = Masculinity (2 items), SNS = Sensitivity (8 items), STR = Strength (2 items), TYR = Tyranny (10 items).

Homogeneity coefficients were less than one for 6 of the 11 cluster profiles, and just slightly above one for the remaining five profiles, indicating good similarity among members in each of the profiles.

For the purposes of comparing cluster profiles, a line graph depicting each of the (standardized) subscale means across the 11 clusters is presented in Figure 2. It is apparent from this graph that the profiles are not only different in shape (i.e., patterns of scores) but also in level (i.e., overall elevation) and scatter (i.e., variance of scores around the mean). This suggests that rather than a few profiles which only vary by *how much* of a trait a leader has, followers appear to possess implicit leadership theories that also differ by the respective patterns among these traits. That is, the relationships between the subscales are also important – and so for some individuals it is not only important that an ideal leader is highly sensitive, but that they are highly sensitive *and* not very tyrannical, for example.

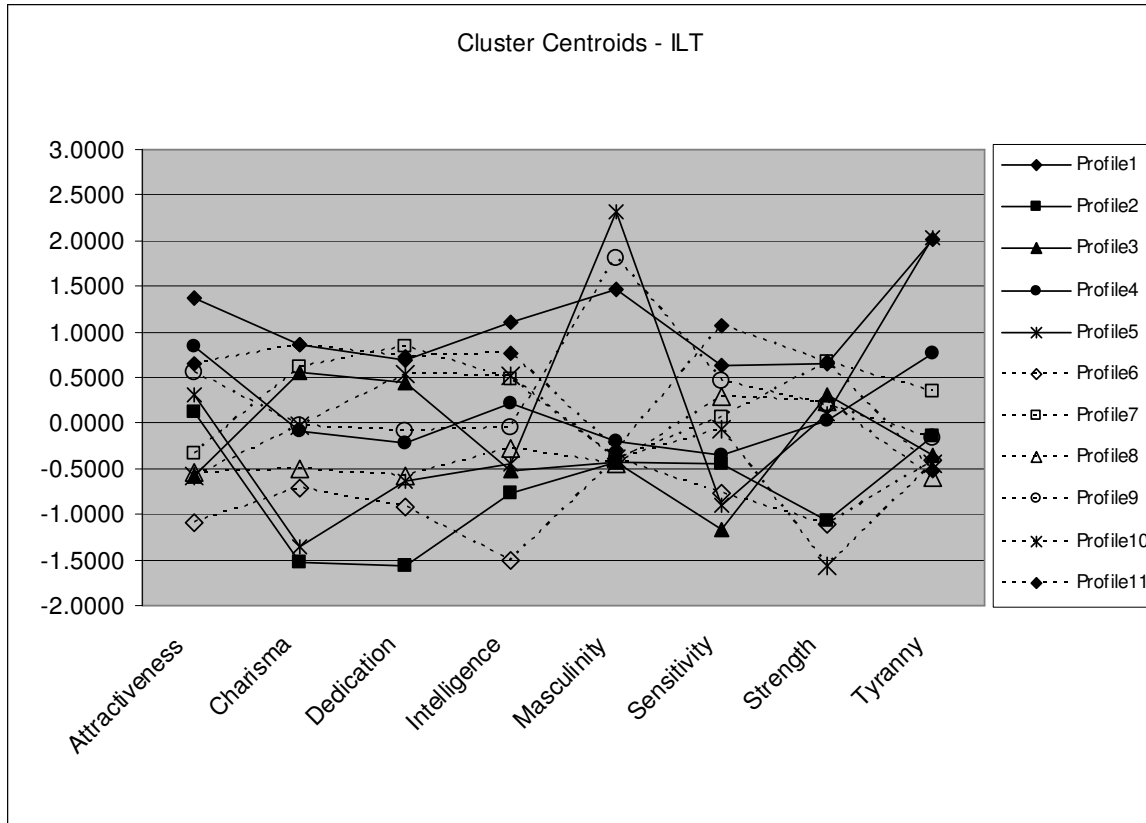


Figure 2. Standardized scores for ILT subscales, by cluster profile.

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to determine whether differences existed between cluster profiles on the eight ILT subscales of Attractiveness, Charisma, Dedication, Intelligence, Masculinity, Sensitivity, Strength, and Tyranny. Examination of the Wilks' lambda statistic indicated that there was an overall effect of cluster profile membership on the combined ILT subscales, omnibus $F(80, 4448.27) = 62.84$, $p = .000$; partial $\eta^2 = .45$, and examination of Games-Howell *post hoc* tests indicated a small number of comparisons between profiles which were not significant at $p < .001$. Thus the differences for the vast majority of comparisons between profiles on any of the eight subscales were found to be significant.

Differences between profiles. Cluster profile graphs are shown in Figures 3.1 through 3.11. Since these profiles represent the ILT characteristics of the ideal leaders for members in each specific profile group, higher scores on each subscale indicate that the dimension should be more characteristic in the ideal leader for those members, while lower scores indicate that the dimension should be less characteristic.

To further investigate the impact of cluster profile on each of the ILT subscales, univariate tests were performed, which confirmed that there were indeed significant differences between ILT profiles on all eight ILT subscales, as shown in Table 5. Results of the univariate tests were all significant against a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .006, confirming the MANOVA results that profile membership did have an impact on each of the ILT subscale ratings reported by members, with profile membership accounting for between 44% and 67% of the variance in each of the subscales.

Table 5.

Univariate ANOVA Tests of ILT Subscales

Source	Dependent	df	F	p ^a	Partial η^2
Cluster Profile	ATT	10	65.28	.000	.48
	CHR	10	77.86	.000	.52
	DED	10	81.83	.000	.54
	INT	10	68.83	.000	.49
	MSC	10	143.15	.000	.67
	SNS	10	55.95	.000	.44
	STR	10	86.40	.000	.55
	TYR	10	90.79	.000	.56
Error		707			

Note. ATT = Attractiveness (4 items), CHR = Charisma (5 items), DED = Dedication (4 items), INT = Intelligence (6 items), MSC = Masculinity (2 items), SNS = Sensitivity (8 items), STR = Strength (2 items), TYR = Tyranny (10 items).

^a Bonferroni adjusted alpha = .006.

Although the purpose of the present study was not to definitively describe the different ILT profiles held among employees, it is worth examining each of the profiles individually, as there were some interesting (and unexpected) findings. Recalling that the instrument asked followers to rate the extent to which each trait described an ideal leader in a business setting (from *not at all characteristic* to *extremely characteristic*), higher subscale scores indicate that the ideal leader should possess more of the characteristic.

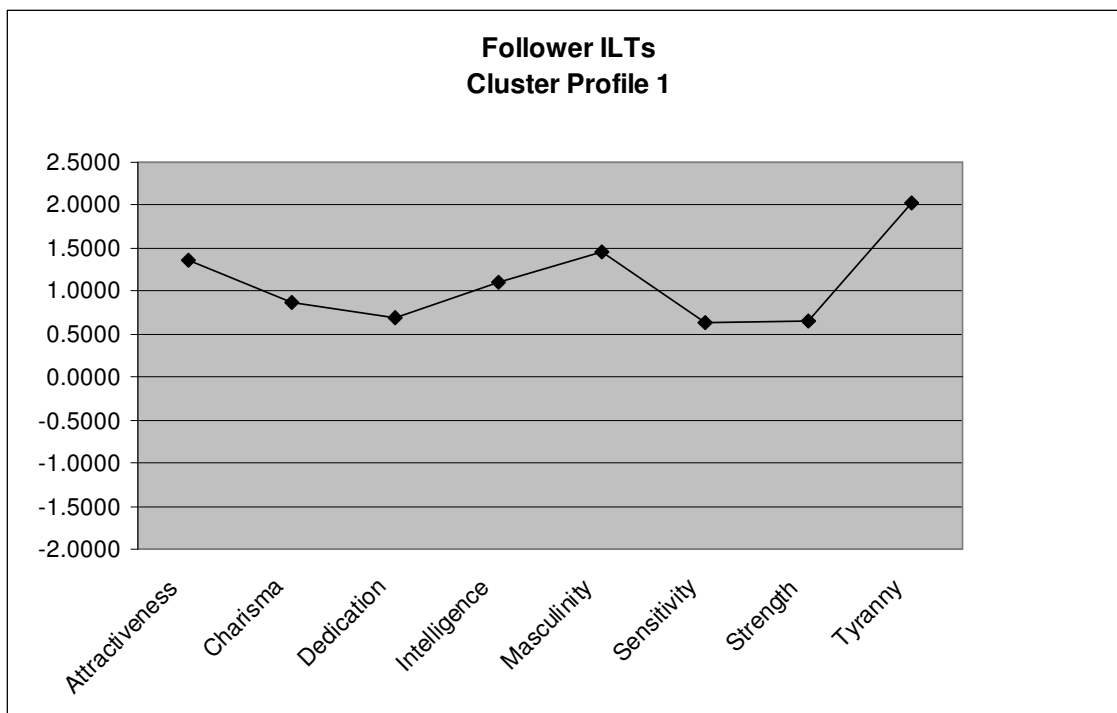


Figure 3.1. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 1 (homogeneity coefficient = 1.32, $n = 40$).

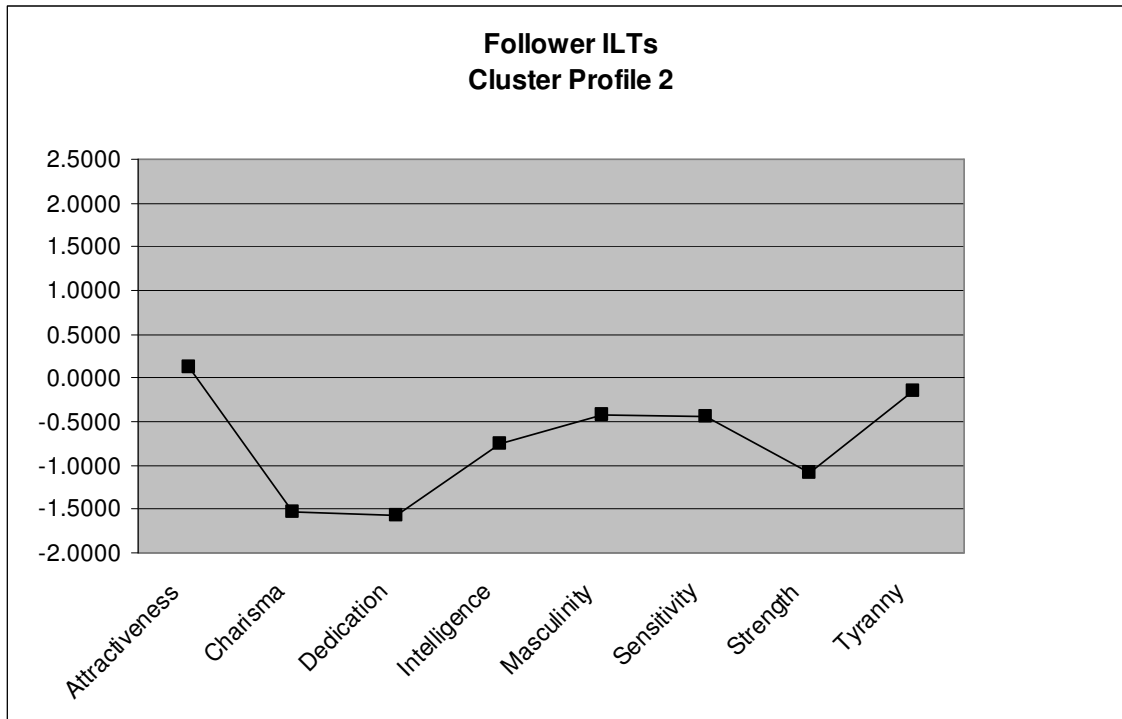


Figure 3.2. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 2 (HC = .96, n = 50).

Profile 1 (Figure 3.1). The first profile (n = 40, 6% of total; homogeneity coefficient = 1.32) is unique from the 10 other profiles in that it is the only cluster where all eight scores were above the subscale means, indicating that the ideal leader for this group of people is someone who is above average on all eight ILT dimensions. Somewhat surprisingly, this group also prefers a leader who is highest in both Masculinity and Tyranny, which seems counterintuitive to the literature of transformational leadership and other models which advocate consideration as an important factor in the relationship between leader and employee.

Profile 2 (Figure 3.2). The members in Profile 2 (n = 50, 7% of total, HC = .96) were even more surprising, as their ideal leader is *below* average on all ILT subscales except for

Attractiveness, which was rated as average. Interestingly, Charisma and Dedication were rated the lowest among all profiles, indicating that members in this cluster did not find traits such as enthusiasm and goal-orientation to be very important in an ideal leader.

Profile 3 (Figure 3.3). The scatter of scores (variability around the mean) for Profile 3 is more pronounced than in many of the other profiles. The members of this group ($n = 65$, 9% of total, $HC = .85$) do seem to prefer a leader with average Charisma and Dedication, but do not seem to value Sensitivity in a leader as much as members of the other profiles.

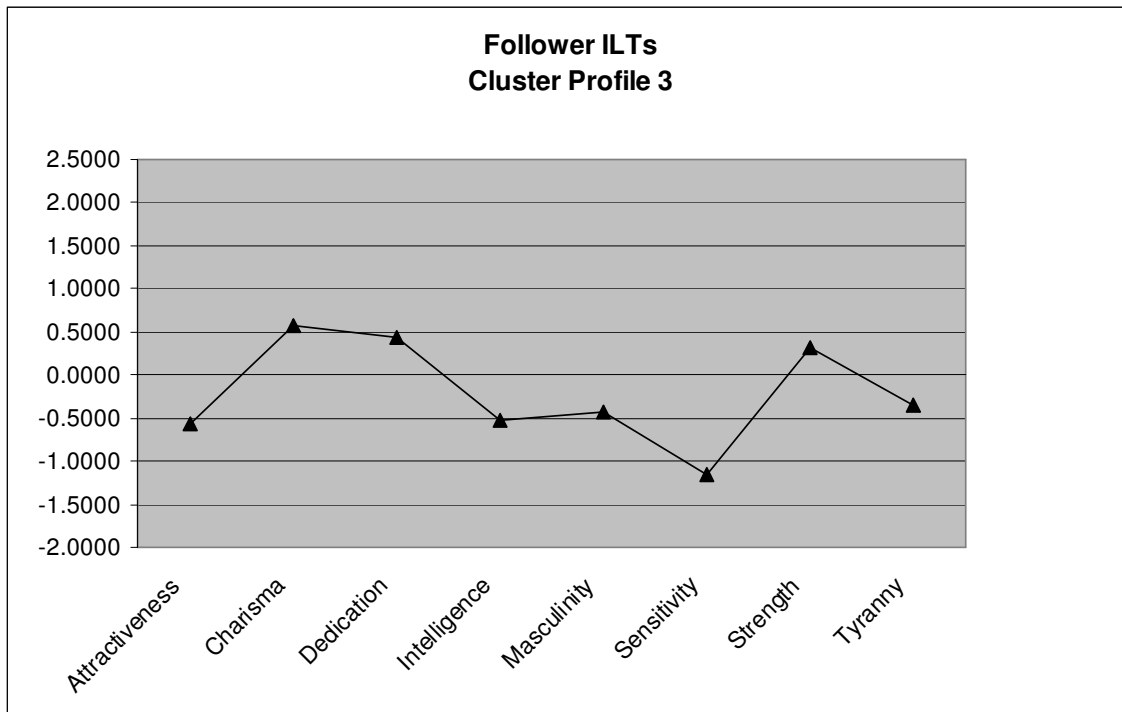


Figure 3.3. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 3 ($HC = .85$, $n = 65$).

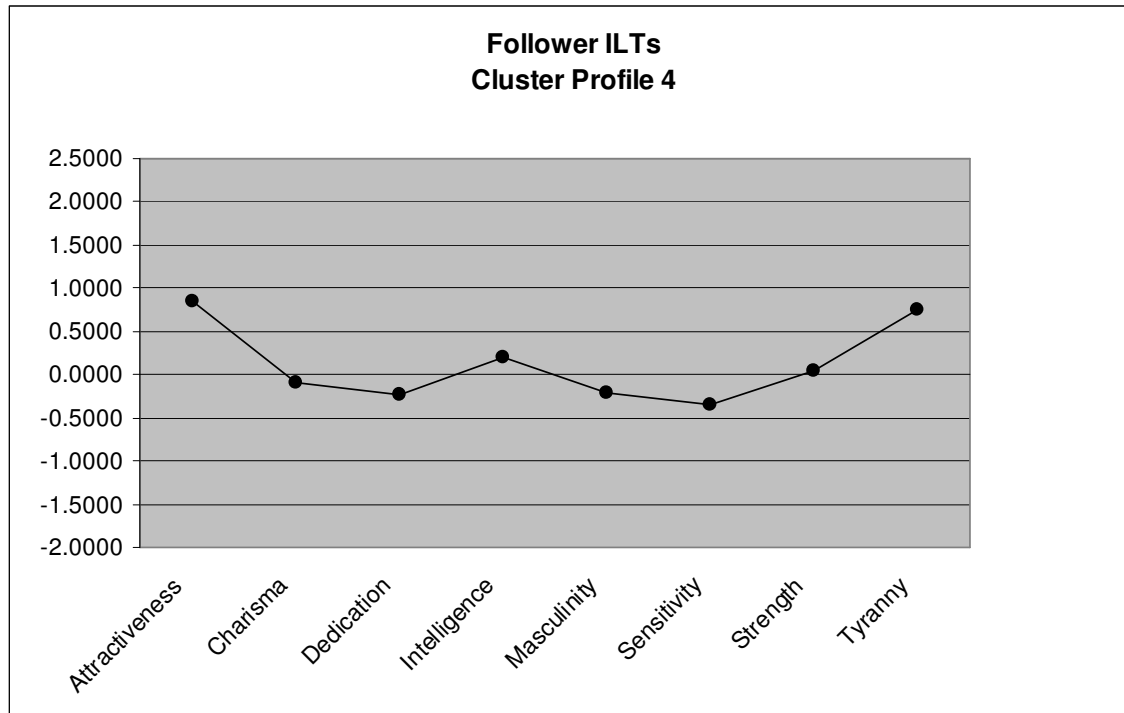


Figure 3.4. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 4 (HC = .84, $n = 70$).

Profile 4 (Figure 3.4). Profile 4 seems ($n = 70$, 10% of total, HC = .84) to represent the most neutral leader, as nearly all ILT subscales are close to the mean scores and are not highly scattered. The ideal leader for this group does seem to be slightly more Attractive and Tyrannical than average, but more moderate on the six other scales.

Profile 5 (Figure 3.5). Profile 5 demonstrated the most varied pattern among all the profiles, as it was the highest in Masculinity and Tyranny, as well as the second-lowest in both Charisma and Sensitivity. This was, however, the cluster with the smallest membership ($n = 22$, 3% of total) as well as the highest homogeneity coefficient (HC = 1.63), indicating that members in this group were the least similar to each another across all profiles.

However, it is interesting that the ideal leader in this group does appear to be

male/masculine, reinforcing the ‘think manager-think male’ phenomenon (e.g., Powell et al., 2002).

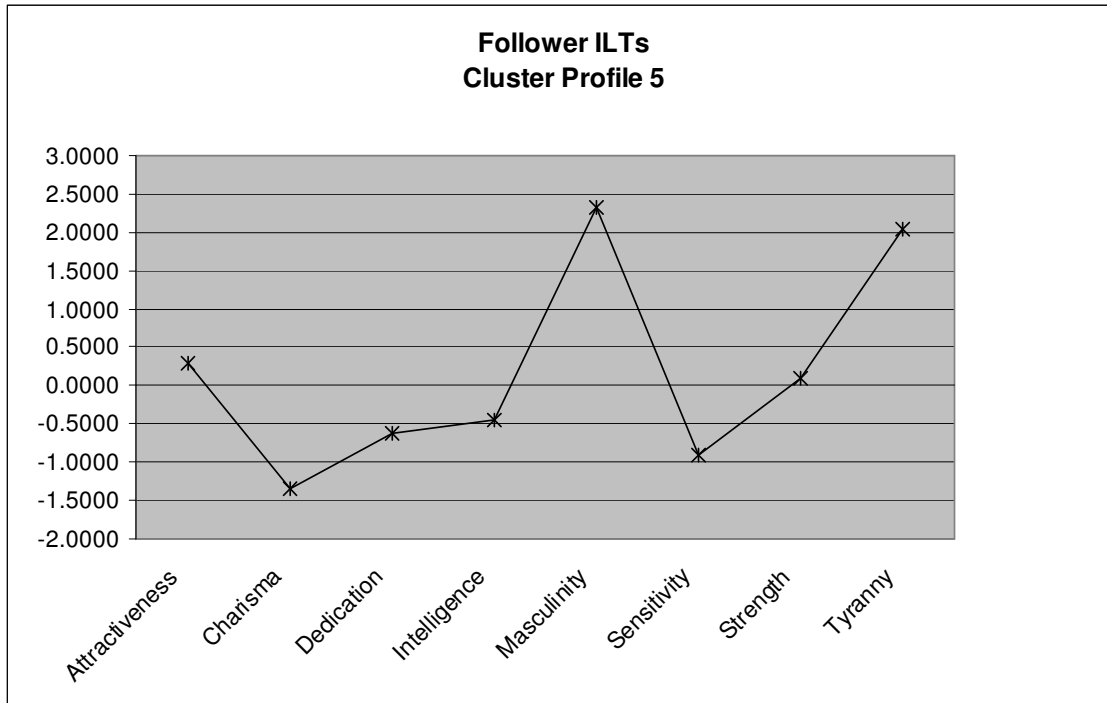


Figure 3.5. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 5 ($HC = 1.63, n = 22$).

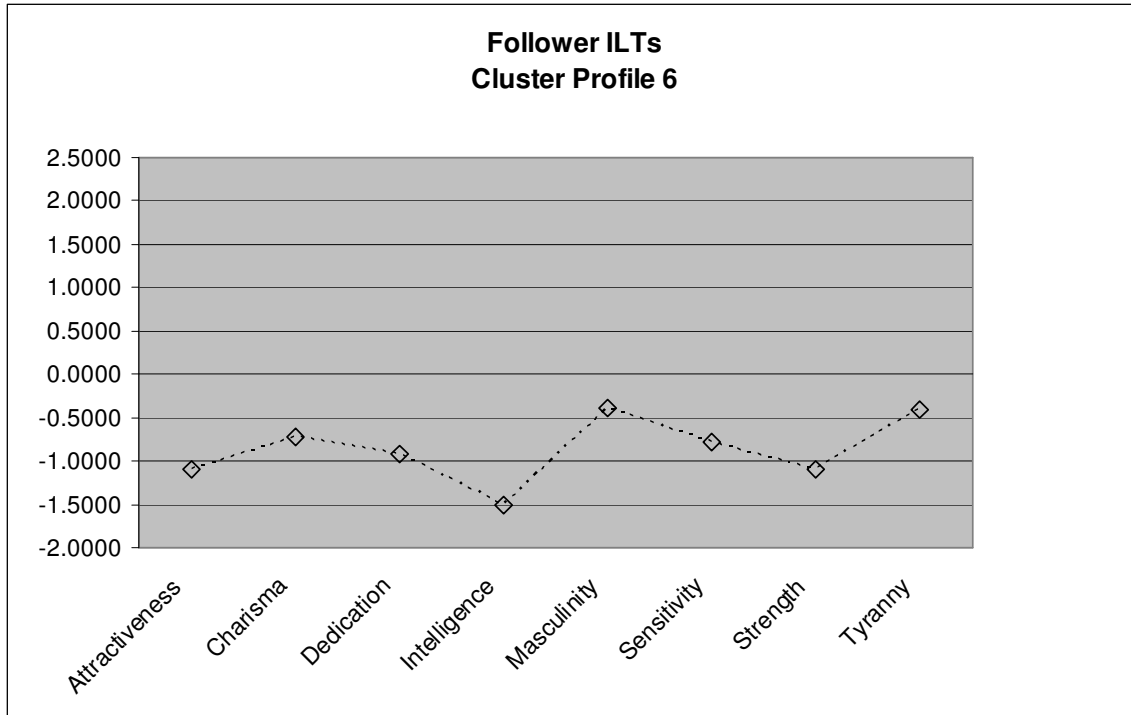


Figure 3.6. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 6 ($HC = 1.14, n = 64$).

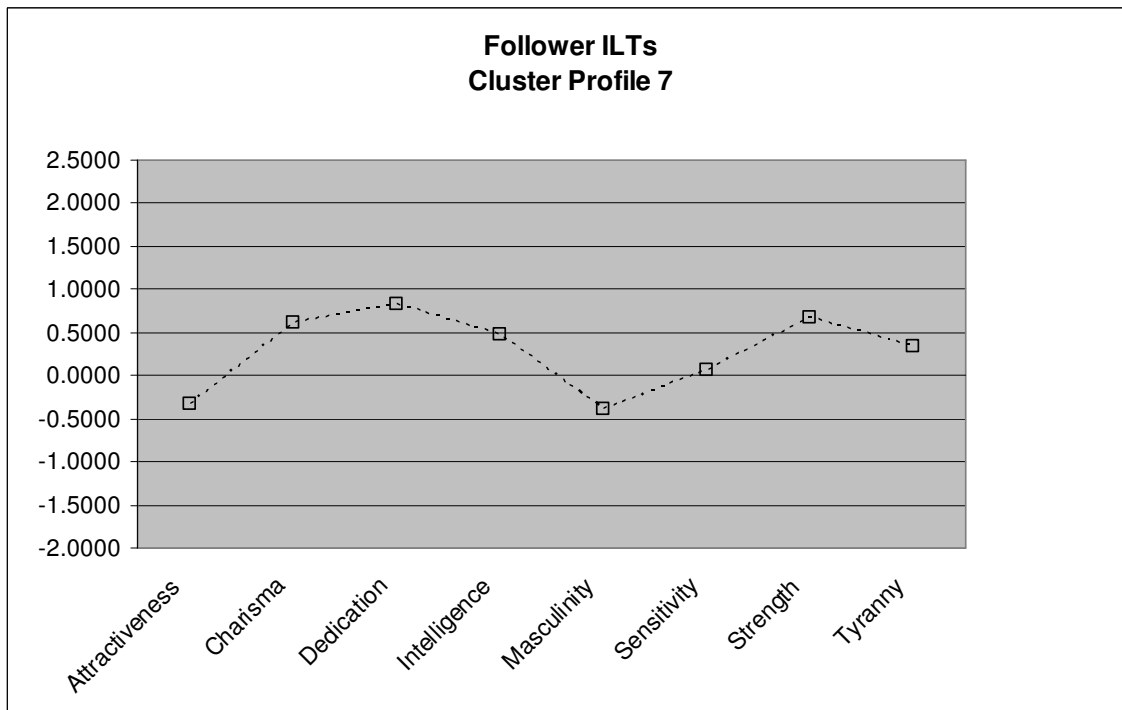


Figure 3.7. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 7 ($HC = .73, n = 87$).

Profile 6 (Figure 3.6). Profile 6 is unique in that it is the only profile in which all ILT subscale scores fall below the mean, indicating that the ideal leader for members in this profile ($n = 64$, 9% of total, $HC = 1.14$) does not need to be very high in any of these traits, and can be of less-than-average intelligence (as it was rated the lowest among all profiles).

Profile 7 (Figure 3.7). Profile 7 ($n = 87$, 12% of total, $HC = .73$) seems to represent the most balanced leader among all the profiles. The ideal leader for this group is just above average in Charisma, Dedication, Intelligence, and Strength while also just below average with respect to Attractiveness, Masculinity, and Tyranny. This is the third largest group in size, but is the most homogenous of all profiles with respect to the similarity of its members.

Profile 8 (Figure 3.8). Profile 8 ($n = 108$, 14% of total, $HC = .81$) was the largest group by size, and therefore represents the most common profile among all followers in this sample. This group is interesting in that the ideal leader for this group is generally just below average on all ILT subscales except for Sensitivity and Strength, where the leader is just slightly above average. It also has the third best index of similarity among its members, suggesting that this profile is a generally good representation of a large proportion of individuals.

Profile 9 (Figure 3.9). The ideal leader in Profile 9 ($n = 59$, 8% of total, $HC = 1.08$) appears to be similar in pattern to Profile 1, except that the ILT subscales (except for Masculinity) are centered around the means, rather than all being above average. Masculinity appears to be the defining characteristic of this leader, as it is rated the second highest across all profiles.

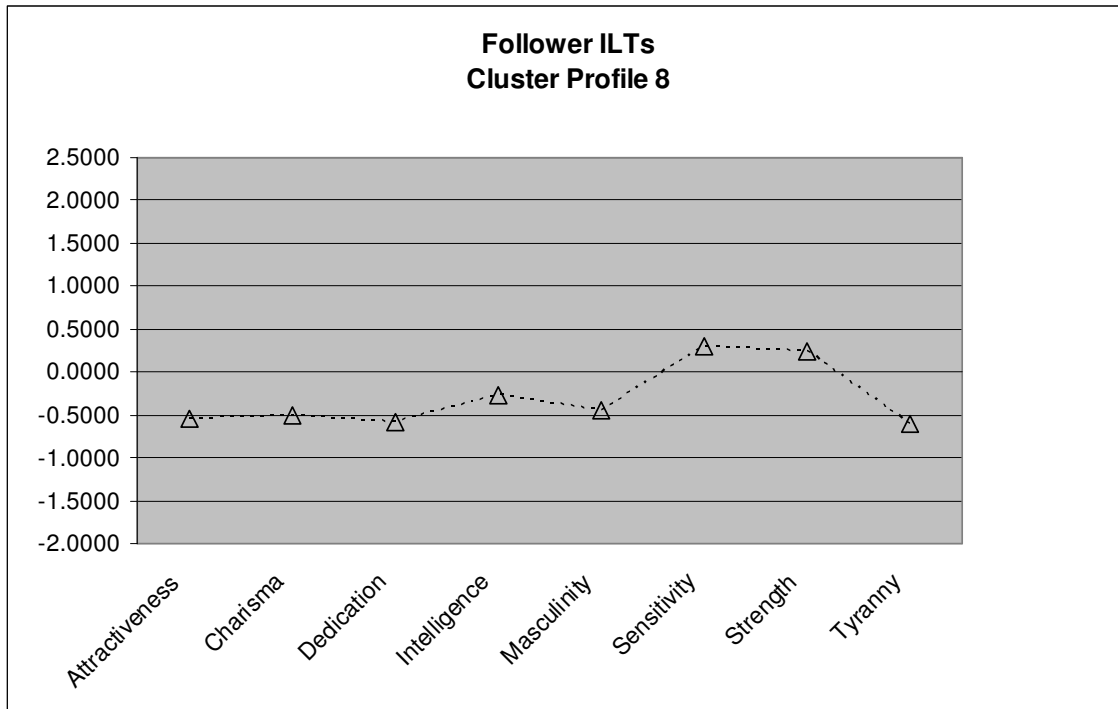


Figure 3.8. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 8 ($HC = .81, n = 103$).

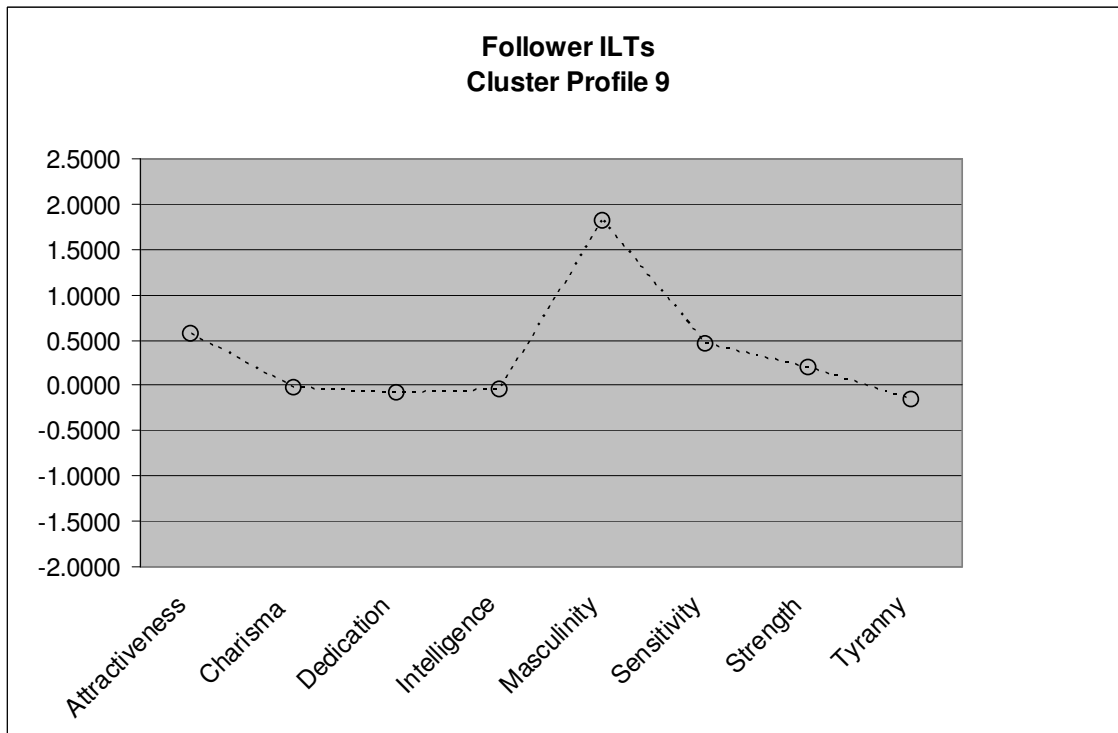


Figure 3.9. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 9 ($HC = 1.08, n = 59$).

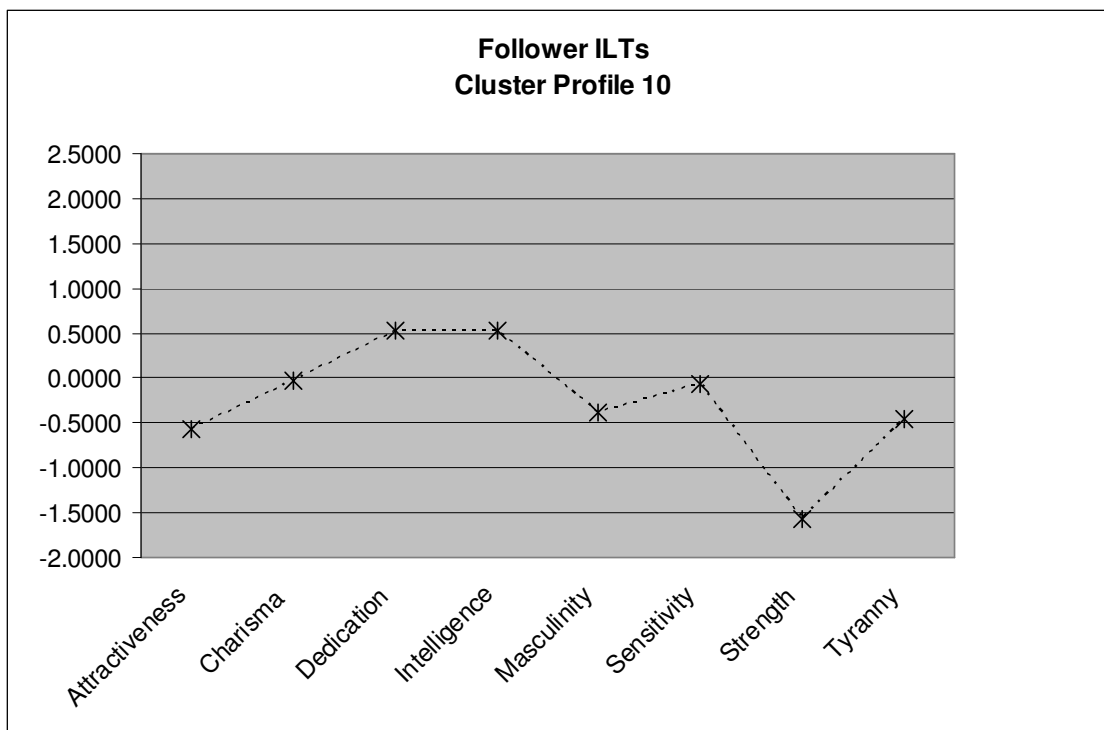


Figure 3.10. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 10 ($HC = 1.18, n = 57$).

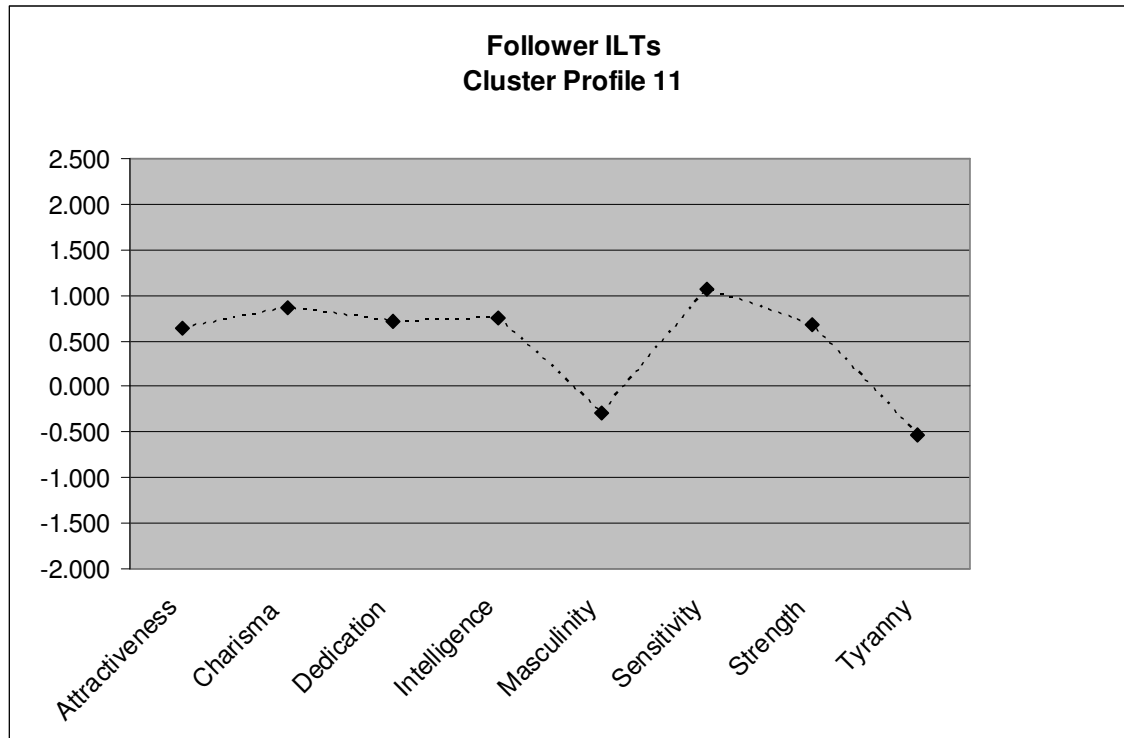


Figure 3.11. Standardized scores for ILT subscales for Cluster Profile 11 ($HC = .80$, $n = 101$).

Profile 10 (Figure 3.10). Profile 10 ($n = 57$, 8% of total, $HC = 1.18$) displays attributes of an ideal leader who is slightly above average in Intelligence and Dedication, but who is low on Strength, suggesting a leader who is hard-working but not considered particularly strong or bold.

Profile 11 (Figure 3.11). This was the second largest group by size ($n = 101$, 14% of total) as well as the second best in terms of member similarity ($HC = .80$). The ideal leader for members in this group is slightly above average in Attractiveness, Charisma, Dedication, Intelligence, Sensitivity, and Strength, but is at the same time slightly below average in Masculinity and Tyranny.

As a test of the main effect of profile, the overall mean scores for the CKS charisma scale and the LPM performance measure were calculated for each cluster profile; standardized scores by profile are shown in Figure 4.

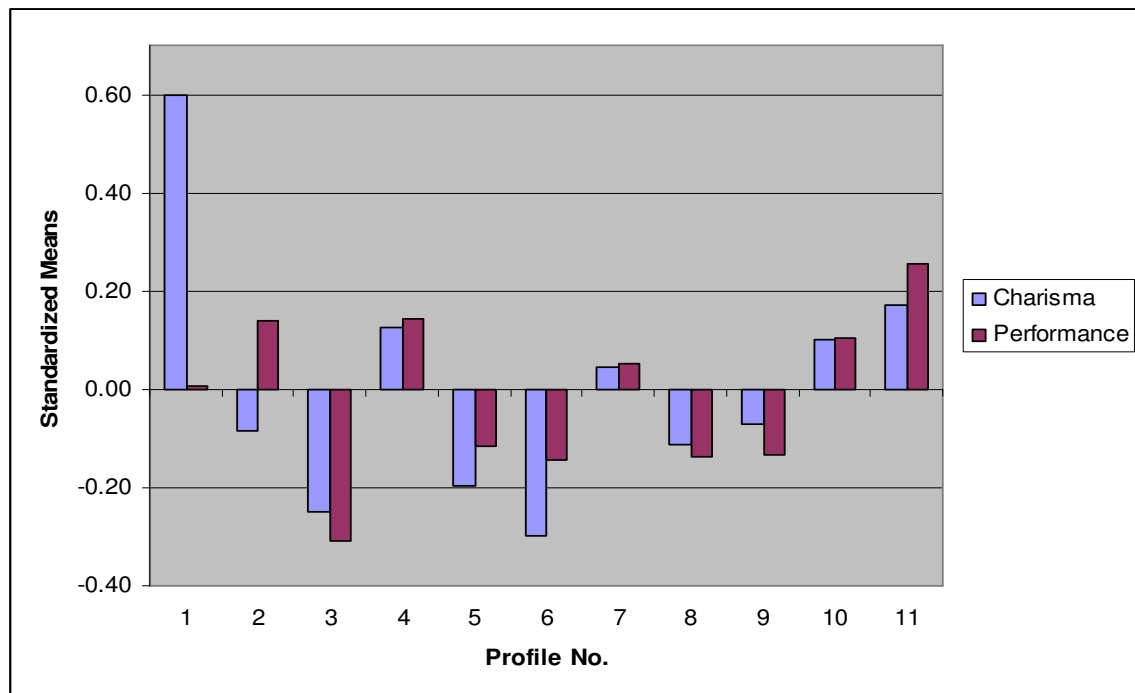


Figure 4. Standardized mean scores for the charisma and performance measures, by ILT profile. Analyses of variance were performed to examine, at a general level, whether differences existed between cluster profiles on the overall mean scores for the charisma scale and performance measure. The bivariate correlation between these two measures was relatively low, but significant: $r_s = .29$ ($p = .000$). Results of the ANOVAs showed a significant difference between profiles on overall charisma scores, $F(10, 671) = 3.09$, $p = .001$, but not on overall performance scores, $F(10, 591) = 1.77$, $p = .064$, implying that differences among followers' ILTs are related to their tendencies to attribute charisma, but not to their tendencies to provide high or low ratings regarding performance.

These results in total indicate that, with regards to this sample, there are 11 distinct profile patterns of ILTs which are significantly different from one another, and that the individuals who subscribe to each of these profiles vary not only in their ILT patterns and levels but also in the charisma ratings they attribute to their actual leaders.

ILTs and follower characteristics. To address the second research question of how ILTs are related to various demographic characteristics of followers, a multinomial logistic regression (MLR) analysis was performed to assess the predictive ability of various demographic variables on membership in one of the 11 ILT profile groups; ILT profile membership was therefore regressed onto demographic predictors. Although examinations of this sort are typically examined using discriminant function analysis (DFA), logistic regression is actually considered somewhat more flexible than discriminant analysis because it makes no assumptions regarding the distributions and types of predictors; that is, predictors can be a combination of categorical or interval level variables which do not have to be normally distributed, linearly related, or of equal variance within each group. Additionally, MLR allows for the prediction of outcomes with more than two categories, whereas a dichotomous outcome is a requirement of DFA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The demographic predictors of interest were: gender (male, $n = 199$, or female, $n = 139$), age ($n = 338$, $M = 44.82$ years, $SD = 8.29$), organizational tenure ($n = 338$, $M = 13.61$ years, $SD = 8.16$), location (United Kingdom, $n = 187$, or United States, $n = 151$), and ethnicity (White, $n = 312$, or Non-white, $n = 26$).

Since demographic data were available for only a subset (43%) of the total number of participants, the overall mean charisma and performance scores, as well as scores for each of

the eight ILT subscales were examined for each sample (those with demographic data and those without) to confirm that no systematic differences existed between them. Multivariate analysis of variance tests showed that there were significant differences between the samples with regard to the ILT subscales, $F(8, 750) = 12.14, p = .000$, but no differences with regards to overall mean charisma or performance scores, $F(2, 625) = .60, p = .548$. Further examination of the ILT subscales showed differences between the samples on five of the eight subscales, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6.

Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities for Followers' ILT Subscale Scores (n = 718)

Scale	Group	Mean	SD	F	p	Partial η^2
ATT	1	2.82	0.79	24.26	.000	.03
	2	2.54	0.77			
CHR	1	4.23	0.50	0.52	.470	.00
	2	4.21	0.51			
DED	1	4.38	0.46	1.21	.271	.00
	2	4.41	0.47			
INT	1	4.01	0.49	9.29	.002	.01
	2	3.90	0.52			
MSC	1	1.50	0.84	7.01	.008	.01
	2	1.35	0.67			
SNS	1	3.66	0.51	3.55	.060	.01
	2	3.58	0.56			
STR	1	3.49	0.81	7.52	.006	.01
	2	3.64	0.73			
TYR	1	1.95	0.60	43.86	.000	.06
	2	1.69	0.48			

Note. Group 1 = No demographic data (n = 395), Group 2 = Demographic data (n = 364). ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny.

These results indicate that the conclusions drawn regarding demographic variables must be considered suspicious until further analyses are done on more complete samples. Nevertheless, MLR was performed to assess the prediction of ILT profile membership for the

group with demographic data on the basis of five follower demographic variables: gender, age, organizational tenure, location, and ethnicity, and results showed good fit of the model with regard to discrimination between ILT clusters, model $\chi^2(50, n = 338) = 79.47, p = .005$. Because the variance of a dichotomous or categorical dependent variable depends on the frequency distribution of that variable, MLR does not produce a direct measure of variance as in ordinary least squares regression; it instead produces pseudo- R^2 estimates, which give an interpretation of R^2 based on differences in model log-likelihoods (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this case, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .21$, indicating that the model accounted for about 21% of the variance in ILT profile membership and that at least one of the demographic predictors was significantly related to ILT profile membership. Overall classification ability of the model, however, was mediocre. On the basis of the five demographic variables, the overall correct classification rate was 23%, with classification by profile shown in Table 7.

Table 7.

Classification of Cases into ILT Profiles

Profile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Total
Correct Classification (%)	0.00	0.00	22.00	0.00	0.00	9.10	14.00	50.00	7.70	0.00	50.90	23.10

Although these poor classification results seem to contradict the successful fit of the model, it has been recommended that researchers not use the classification tables produced by the major statistical programs (e.g., SPSS) as the parameters by which the output is produced are less than ideal for establishing the true predictive ability of the model (Garson, 2008). The contribution of each predictor to the model is displayed in Table 8; only one predictor – location – was found to be a significant predictor of profile membership ($p < .01$).

Table 8.

Logistic Regression Analysis of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables

Demographic Variable	χ^2 to Remove	df	Significance	Model χ^2
Gender	13.91	10	.177	
Age	12.95	10	.226	
Tenure	12.86	10	.231	
Location	28.93	10	.001	
Ethnicity	13.55	10	.194	
All variables				79.47 *

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate)

* $p < .01$

Regression coefficients, chi-square tests, and odds ratios with confidence intervals for each profile are presented in Tables 9.1 through 9.11. The odds ratio presented for each variable represents the factor by which the odds (for the dependent outcome of profile membership) change for a one-unit change in the predictor variable; put another way, the odds ratio presents the odds of the outcome occurring when the predictor changes. Odds ratios with values greater than one indicate that as the predictor changes (increases), the odds of the outcome (profile membership change) occurring increases. Conversely, values less than one indicate that as the predictor increases, the odds of the outcome occurring decrease. When dealing with categorical variables, MLR utilizes the last category of the predictor and outcome as the reference category, and so the reported odds ratios are for the other (non-reference) category. As such, odds ratios in the following tables represent the odds of being a member of the ILT profile versus being a member of Profile 11, for males, employees in the UK, and White employees.

Table 9.1.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 1 (n =5) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
1 ^a	Intercept	-2.65	3.07	0.74			
	Age	0.08	0.06	1.45	1.08	0.95	1.23
	Tenure	-0.11	0.08	2.17	0.89	0.77	1.04
	Gender: Male v. Female	-16.11	1242.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	.
	Location: UK v. US	-0.01	1.02	0.00	0.99	0.13	7.21
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	-1.10	1.32	0.69	0.33	0.03	4.42

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Table 9.2.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 2 (n =20) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
2 ^a	Intercept	-4.67	2.12	4.84			
	Age	0.09	0.04	4.70	1.09	1.01	1.18
	Tenure	-0.06	0.04	2.25	0.94	0.87	1.02
	Gender: Male v. Female	-0.75	0.58	1.70	0.47	0.15	1.46
	Location: UK v. US	0.81	0.57	2.00	2.25	0.73	6.91
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	0.57	1.19	0.23	1.76	0.17	18.03

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Location is a significant predictor of Profile 3, and so the odds ratio shows that employees who reside in the United Kingdom are 5.94 times more likely than employees in the United States to subscribe to ILT Profile 3 over Profile 11. That is, the odds of being in Profile 3 for employees in the UK is 5.94 times the odds of being in Profile 11.

Table 9.3.

Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables: Profile 3 (n =41) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
3	Intercept	-4.44	1.69	6.89			
	Age	0.07	0.03	4.38	1.07	1.00	1.15
	Tenure	-0.03	0.03	1.10	0.97	0.91	1.03
	Gender: Male v. Female	0.23	0.44	0.26	1.25	0.53	2.97
	Location: UK v. US	1.78	0.49	12.97*	5.94	2.25	15.68
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	0.42	0.84	0.25	1.51	0.29	7.84

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate)

* $p < .01$

Table 9.4.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 4 (n =19) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
4 ^a	Intercept	-18.22	1.72	112.62			
	Age	0.04	0.04	0.75	1.04	0.96	1.12
	Tenure	-0.07	0.04	2.85	0.93	0.85	1.01
	Gender: Male v. Female	-0.30	0.56	0.29	0.74	0.25	2.21
	Location: UK v. US	0.68	0.58	1.36	1.97	0.63	6.15
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	16.55	0.00	.	1.54E+07	1.54E+07	1.54E+07

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Table 9.5.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 5 (n =8) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
5 ^a	Intercept	-1.62	2.50	0.42			
	Age	0.05	0.06	0.71	1.05	0.94	1.17
	Tenure	-0.08	0.07	1.51	0.92	0.81	1.05
	Gender: Male v. Female	-0.74	0.81	0.82	0.48	0.10	2.37
	Location: UK v. US	0.85	0.83	1.05	2.35	0.46	11.94
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	-1.73	0.95	3.31	0.18	0.03	1.14

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Table 9.6.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 6 (n =33) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
6 ^a	Intercept	-2.04	1.78	1.31			
	Age	0.02	0.04	0.26	1.02	0.95	1.10
	Tenure	-0.01	0.04	0.03	0.99	0.93	1.06
	Gender: Male v. Female	-0.50	0.48	1.09	0.61	0.24	1.55
	Location: UK v. US	1.31	0.51	6.53	3.72	1.36	10.19
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	0.31	0.93	0.11	1.36	0.22	8.42

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Table 9.7.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 7 (n =50) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
7 ^a	Intercept	-1.46	1.47	0.99			
	Age	0.05	0.03	2.91	1.05	0.99	1.12
	Tenure	-0.07	0.03	5.49	0.93	0.87	0.99
	Gender: Male v. Female	-0.44	0.41	1.12	0.64	0.29	1.45
	Location: UK v. US	0.71	0.43	2.71	2.03	0.87	4.72
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	-0.03	0.73	0.00	0.97	0.23	4.04

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Table 9.8.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 8 (n = 60) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
8	Intercept	-2.92	1.49	3.86			
	Age	0.07	0.03	5.11	1.07	1.01	1.14
	Tenure	-0.06	0.03	3.87	0.94	0.89	1.00
	Gender: Male v. Female	-0.42	0.40	1.09	0.66	0.30	1.44
	Location: UK v. US	1.22	0.42	8.29*	3.38	1.47	7.73
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	0.42	0.77	0.29	1.52	0.34	6.83

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate)

* $p < .01$

Location was again a significant predictor, this time for Profile 8. The odds ratio shows that employees in the UK are 3.38 times more likely than employees in the US to be members of ILT Profile 8 (the largest profile group) than Profile 11 (the second largest group).

Table 9.9.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 9 (n =27) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
9 ^a	Intercept	-3.03	1.76	2.97			
	Age	0.09	0.04	6.23	1.09	1.02	1.17
	Tenure	-0.09	0.04	5.18	0.92	0.85	0.99
	Gender: Male v. Female	-0.75	0.51	2.13	0.47	0.17	1.29
	Location: UK v. US	0.15	0.53	0.08	1.16	0.41	3.28
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	-0.34	0.85	0.16	0.71	0.14	3.73

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Table 9.10.

*Logistic Regression of ILT Profile Membership as a Function of Demographic Variables:
Profile 10 (n =23) v. Profile 11 (n = 53)*

Profile	Variable	B	S.E.	Wald χ^2 test	Odds Ratio	Confidence Interval for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
10 ^a	Intercept	-16.78	1.62	107.49			
	Age	0.01	0.04	0.07	1.01	0.93	1.09
	Tenure	-0.03	0.04	0.45	0.97	0.90	1.05
	Gender: Male v. Female	0.12	0.52	0.06	1.13	0.41	3.13
	Location: UK v. US	-0.54	0.59	0.84	0.58	0.18	1.85
	Ethnicity: White v. Non-white	16.07	0.00	.	9.57E+06	9.57E+06	9.57E+06

Note. Significance level for demographic variables: $\alpha = .01$ (to correct for inflated familywise error rate).

^a No predictors were significant for this Profile.

Examination of the Wald tests and odds ratios for these profiles shows that location was the only significant predictor of ILT profile membership, and even then it only applied to Profiles 3 and 8. None of the other variables were significant predictors for any of the profile comparisons, and so similar statements regarding their predictive ability cannot be made. However, as noted previously, since there were significant differences between the sample with demographic data and the sample without, these results cannot be considered conclusive, and it may be the case that the other variables would demonstrate a significant effect on profile prediction with more data.

Congruence between ILTs and leader behaviors. The third research question asked whether the level of congruence (match) between followers' ILTs and followers' perceptions of leaders' ILT-relevant behaviors was related to ratings of leader charisma and leader performance. In essence, of interest was whether the difference between 'what an employee wants' (in an ideal leader) and 'what an employee gets' (in their current leader) is related to how they evaluate their current leader. As discussed previously, the squared Euclidean distance (SED) is a measure of distance which is particularly sensitive to all three components of pattern similarity (shape, level, and scatter; e.g., Cronbach & Gleser, 1953). In the context of cluster analysis SED is used to assess the difference between different entities (individuals or clusters); however, for the present analysis SED is used not to assess differences between individuals but differences *within* individuals on two paired sets of measures: the ILT and ILT-B subscales. Remembering that SED is actually a measure of *dissimilarity* (because it measures the distance between profiles), it follows that the higher the SED score, the more a follower's actual leader (as measured by the ILT-B) does not align

with his or her idealized leader (as measured by their ILT). To facilitate the interpretation of the following analyses, this study will henceforth refer to this difference as ‘dissimilarity’ rather than ‘congruence’ and so individuals who are less congruent in their ILT and ILT-B scores will be considered more dissimilar. All ILT and ILT-B subscale scores were first standardized (transformed to z-scores) for each individual, and SED scores were then calculated for each pair of matched dimensions between the ILT scale and ILT-B scale, resulting in an SED score for each ILT subscale (hereafter referred to as ‘dimensional dissimilarity’) as well as the sum across all eight subscales (‘profile dissimilarity’), for each respondent. Eight dimensional dissimilarity scores and one profile dissimilarity score were calculated for each individual.

Leader charisma. To determine whether the degree of similarity between ‘ideal’ and ‘actual’ perceptions of leadership could predict ratings of leader charisma, bivariate correlations and standard multiple regressions were employed. For the first analysis to examine the impact of overall profile differences on charisma, bivariate correlations were calculated between profile congruence score and the EFA-derived CKS subscales as well as the overall CKS score. These results, as well as the intercorrelations between the CKS subscales, are presented in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1

Correlations Between Profile Dissimilarity Score and CKS Subscales, with Intercorrelations

	PC	CKS	SVA	SE	SMN	PR	DC
PC	1						
CKS	-.38**	1					
SVA	-.35**	.81**	1				
SE	-.31**	.68**	.48**	1			
SMN	-.31**	.72**	.58**	.54**	1		
PR	-.27**	.72**	.44**	.37**	.42**	1	
DC	-.27**	.78**	.67**	.50**	.44**	.40**	1
UB	-.14**	.52**	.29**	.21**	.17**	.40**	.29**

Note. PC = profile dissimilarity score, CKS = overall CKS charisma score. SVA = Strategic Vision & Articulation; SE = Sensitivity to the Environment; SMN = Sensitivity to Member Needs; PR = Personal Risk; DC = Drives Change; UB = Unconventional Behavior; CAT = Attractiveness dissimilarity score, CCH = Charisma dissimilarity score, CDE = Dedication dissimilarity score, CIN = Intelligence dissimilarity score, CMA = Masculinity dissimilarity score, CSE = Sensitivity dissimilarity score, CST = Strength dissimilarity score, CTY = Tyranny dissimilarity score.

** $p < .01$

The moderate, negative correlations between profile dissimilarity score and the CKS subscales indicate that as the overall difference between the profiles for a follower’s ideal leader and their actual leader becomes more dissimilar, ratings on the CKS subscales (and therefore the overall CKS score) decreases, with overall profile dissimilarity accounting for between 2% and 12% of the variance in CKS subscale scores (and 14% of the overall score). To further examine this relationship, multiple regressions were performed with each of the six CKS subscales independently regressed on the eight dimensional ILT dissimilarity scores. Correlations between dimensional scores and the CKS subscales are presented in Table 10.2; model results are presented in Table 11 and parameter estimates are shown in Table 12.

Table 10.2.

Bivariate Correlations Between Dimensional ILT Dissimilarity Scores and CKS Subscales

	SVA	SE	SMN	PR	DC	UB
ATT	-.13**	-.10*	-.07	-.11**	-.08**	-.05
CHR	-.21**	-.17**	-.12**	-.16**	-.17**	-.14**
DED	-.22**	-.20**	-.18**	-.16**	-.19**	-.08*
INT	-.16**	-.10*	-.16**	-.08*	-.14**	-.02
MSC	-.01	-.04	-.06	-.01	.00	.05
SNS	-.15**	-.15**	-.19**	-.17**	-.12**	-.10*
STR	-.21**	-.11*	-.15**	-.14**	-.13**	-.15**
TYR	-.12**	-.22**	-.23**	-.14**	-.09*	.02

Note. SVA = Strategic Vision & Articulation; SE = Sensitivity to the Environment; SMN = Sensitivity to Member Needs; PR = Personal Risk; DC = Drives Change; UB = Unconventional Behavior; ATT = Attractiveness dissimilarity score, CHR = Charisma dissimilarity score, DED = Dedication dissimilarity score, INT = Intelligence dissimilarity score, MSC = Masculinity dissimilarity score, SNS = Sensitivity dissimilarity score, STR = Strength dissimilarity score, TYR = Tyranny dissimilarity score.

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

Table 11.

Multiple Regression Model Results for Dimensional ILT Dissimilarity Scores on CKS Subscales

Dependent	F	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
CKS	27.39*	.50	.25	.24
SVA	21.26**	.46	.21	.20
SE	21.66**	.46	.21	.20
SMN	22.04**	.46	.21	.20
PR	12.72**	.37	.14	.13
DC	15.20**	.40	.16	.15
UB	3.36**	.20	.04	.03

Note. Results are independent: each dependent variable was entered into a separate regression model with the eight dissimilarity scores. CKS = overall CSK score. SVA = Strategic Vision & Articulation; SE = Sensitivity to the Environment; SMN = Sensitivity to Member Needs; PR = Personal Risk; DC = Drives Change; UB = Unconventional Behavior.

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

Table 12.

Multiple Regression Parameter Estimates for ILT Dissimilarity Scores on CKS Subscales

Dependent		Unstandardized		Standardized		95% Confidence Interval	
		B	S.E.	β	t	Lower	Upper
SVA	(Constant)	4.56	0.06		80.21	4.45	4.67
	ATT	-0.04	0.02	-.08	-2.19*	-0.08	-0.00
	CHR	-0.08	0.02	-.17	-4.42**	-0.11	-0.04
	DED	-0.08	0.02	-.20	-5.16**	-0.11	-0.05
	INT	-0.01	0.02	-.03	-0.82	-0.04	0.02
	MSC	-0.01	0.01	-.02	-0.62	-0.04	0.02
	SNS	-0.04	0.02	-.09	-2.26*	-0.07	-0.01
	STR	-0.05	0.02	-.11	-2.91**	-0.08	-0.02
	TYR	-0.04	0.02	-.07	-1.82	-0.08	0.00
SE	(Constant)	4.83	0.04		116.02	4.75	4.91
	ATT	-0.03	0.01	-.09	-2.47*	-0.06	-0.01
	CHR	-0.04	0.01	-.12	-3.07**	-0.06	-0.01
	DED	-0.04	0.01	-.13	-3.35**	-0.06	-0.02
	INT	-0.01	0.01	-.03	-0.83	-0.03	0.01
	MSC	0.01	0.01	.03	0.82	-0.01	0.03
	SNS	-0.04	0.01	-.13	-3.35**	-0.07	-0.02
	STR	-0.02	0.01	-.07	-1.86	-0.05	0.00
	TYR	-0.08	0.02	-.21	-5.45**	-0.11	-0.05
SMN	(Constant)	4.87	0.05		90.98	4.76	4.97
	ATT	-0.04	0.02	-.08	-2.17*	-0.07	-0.00
	CHR	-0.03	0.02	-.07	-1.89	-0.06	0.00
	DED	-0.05	0.01	-.14	-3.50**	-0.08	-0.02
	INT	0.01	0.02	.02	0.58	-0.02	0.04
	MSC	-0.00	0.01	-.01	-0.28	-0.03	0.02
	SNS	-0.10	0.02	-.25	-6.29**	-0.13	-0.07
	STR	-0.02	0.02	-.05	-1.18	-0.05	0.01
	TYR	-0.09	0.02	-.18	-4.50**	-0.12	-0.05

Table 12 (continued).

Dependent		Unstandardized		Standardized		95% Confidence Interval	
		B	S.E.	β	t	Lower	Upper
PR	(Constant)	3.78	0.06		61.56	3.66	3.90
	ATT	-0.05	0.02	-.09	-2.21*	-0.09	-0.01
	CHR	-0.04	0.02	-.08	-1.91	-0.07	0.00
	DED	-0.07	0.02	-.18	-4.44**	-0.10	-0.04
	INT	-0.00	0.02	-.00	-0.03	-0.03	0.03
	MSC	-0.00	0.02	-.00	-0.03	-0.03	0.03
	SNS	-0.05	0.02	-.10	-2.55*	-0.08	-0.01
	STR	-0.04	0.02	-.10	-2.44*	-0.08	-0.01
	TYR	-0.04	0.02	-.08	-1.84	-0.08	0.00
DC	(Constant)	4.34	0.04		112.97	4.27	4.42
	ATT	-0.02	0.01	-.06	-1.60**	-0.05	0.01
	CHR	-0.04	0.01	-.14	-3.55	-0.06	-0.02
	DED	-0.06	0.01	-.22	-5.42**	-0.08	-0.04
	INT	-0.01	0.01	-.05	-1.18**	-0.03	0.01
	MSC	0.00	0.01	.01	0.32	-0.02	0.02
	SNS	-0.02	0.01	-.07	-1.67	-0.04	0.00
	STR	-0.00	0.01	-.01	-0.17	-0.02	0.02
	TYR	-0.03	0.01	-.10	-2.41**	-0.06	-0.01
UB	(Constant)	3.14	0.06		50.47	3.02	3.27
	ATT	-0.02	0.02	-.04	-1.03	-0.06	0.02
	CHR	-0.02	0.02	-.05	-1.25	-0.06	0.01
	DED	-0.02	0.02	-.04	-0.90	-0.05	0.02
	INT	-0.01	0.02	-.02	-0.39	-0.04	0.03
	MSC	0.01	0.02	.03	0.66	-0.02	0.04
	SNS	-0.02	0.02	-.04	-0.98	-0.06	0.02
	STR	-0.06	0.02	-.12	-2.95**	-0.09	-0.02
	TYR	0.05	0.02	.09	2.00*	0.00	0.09

Note. SVA = Strategic Vision & Articulation, SE = Sensitivity to the Environment, SMN = Sensitivity to Member Needs, PR = Personal Risk, DC = Drives Change, UB = Unconventional Behavior; ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny

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

Results show that the dimensional ILT dissimilarity scores significantly predicted scores on each of the CKS subscales, explaining between 4% and 21% of the variance in the subscales. The exception to this was the Masculinity subscale, which was not a significant

predictor for any of the CKS subscales. Since increases in the predictors (the dissimilarity scores) indicate more discrepancy between the followers' idealized leader and their actual leader, negative relationships as seen here are indicators that there is indeed an influence of ILT dissimilarity on charisma ratings, and that it is in the direction one would expect to see if ILT inconsistency really did have an influence on other criteria. As the distance between 'ideal' and 'actual' ILT profiles increases, ratings of a leader's charisma get smaller – which also means that as followers perceive their leaders as more aligned with their ILTs, ratings of charisma for the leader increase. Dedication appears to be the most influential of the ILT subscales as it was a significant predictor of five of the six subscales. Interestingly, the Unconventional Behavior subscale was only predicted by differences in Strength and Tyranny. It can therefore be concluded that ILT congruence (between idealized and actual leaders) does have a significant impact on perceptions of charisma as rated on the CKS.

Leader performance. Correlational analyses and multiple regressions were again utilized to examine the effect of ILT congruence, this time on ratings of leader performance. Like the previous analysis of charisma ratings, analyses were first performed on the overall average leader performance score, and then separately on each of the EFA-derived LPM subscales, where scores on each of the four subscales (Urgency and Execution, Empowering Others, Developing Self and Others, and Communication) were independently regressed on the eight ILT dissimilarity scores. For the first analysis to examine the impact of overall profile differences on leader performance, bivariate correlations were calculated between profile dissimilarity scores and the LPM subscales as well as the overall LPM score. These

results, as well as the intercorrelations between the LPM subscales, are presented in Table 13.1.

Table 13.1.

Correlations Between Profile Dissimilarity Score and LPM Subscales, with Intercorrelations

	PC	LPM	UE	EO	DSO
PC	1				
LPM	-.13**	1			
UE	-.10*	.92**	1		
EO	-.10*	.86**	.69**	1	
DSO	-.15**	.93**	.80**	.75**	1
CO	-.04	.78**	.71**	.58**	.68**

Note. PC = profile dissimilarity score, LPM = overall LPM performance score. UE = Urgency & Execution; EO = Empowering Others; DSO = Developing Self and Others; CO = Communication; CAT = Attractiveness dissimilarity score, CCH = Charisma dissimilarity score, CDE = Dedication dissimilarity score, CIN = Intelligence dissimilarity score, CMA = Masculinity dissimilarity score, CSE = Sensitivity dissimilarity score, CST = Strength dissimilarity score, CTY = Tyranny dissimilarity score.

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

As these results demonstrate, overall profile dissimilarity had a small but significant impact on all the LPM subscales except for Communication, accounting for between 1% and 2% of the variance in other three LPM subscale scores (and 2% of the overall score).

Multiple regressions were performed with each of the four LPM subscales independently regressed on the eight dimensional ILT dissimilarity scores in order to explore this relationship in more detail. Correlations between dimensional dissimilarity scores and the LPM subscales are presented in Table 13.2; model results are presented in Table 14.1 and parameter estimates are shown in Table 14.2.

Table 13.2.

Bivariate Correlations Between Dimensional ILT Dissimilarity Scores and LPM Subscales

	UE	EO	DSO	CO
CAT	.03	-.01	-.05	.02
CCH	-.05	.00	-.01	-.01
CDE	-.10*	-.07	-.07	-.04
CIN	-.10*	-.12*	-.12	-.08*
CMA	-.01	-.01	-.04	.05
CSE	-.02	-.05	-.05	.05
CST	-.05	.03	-.05	-.04
CTY	-.07	-.05	-.05	.02

Note. UE = Urgency & Execution; EO = Empowering Others; DSO = Developing Self and Others; CO = Communication; CAT = Attractiveness dissimilarity score, CCH = Charisma dissimilarity score, CDE = Dedication dissimilarity score, CIN = Intelligence dissimilarity score, CMA = Masculinity dissimilarity score, CSE = Sensitivity dissimilarity score, CST = Strength dissimilarity score, CTY = Tyranny dissimilarity score. * $p < .05$.

Table 14.1

Multiple Regression Model Results for Dimensional ILT Dissimilarity Scores on Leader Performance

Dependent	F	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²
LPM	2.77**	.20	.04	.02
UE	3.39**	.22	.05	.03
EO	1.29	.14	.02	.00
DSO	4.07**	.24	.06	.04
CO	1.48	.14	.02	.01

Note. Results are independent: each dependent variable was entered into a separate regression model with the eight dissimilarity scores. LPM = overall LPM score. UE = Urgency & Execution; EO = Empowering Others; DSO = Developing Self and Others; CO = Communication.

** $p < .01$.

Table 14.2.

Multiple Regression Parameter Estimates for Dimensional Dissimilarity Scores on LPM Subscales

Dependent		Unstandardized		Standardized		95% Confidence Interval	
		B	S.E.	β	t	Lower	Upper
UE	(Constant)	4.02	0.03		120.72	3.96	4.09
	ATT	-0.00	0.01	-.01	-0.19	-0.02	0.02
	CHR	-0.00	0.01	-.01	-0.17	-0.02	0.02
	DED	-0.03	0.01	-.16	-3.39**	-0.05	-0.01
	INT	-0.00	0.01	-.02	-0.41	-0.02	0.02
	MSC	-0.00	0.01	-.02	-0.43	-0.02	0.01
	SNS	-0.00	0.01	-.01	-0.18	-0.02	0.02
	STR	-0.01	0.01	-.04	-0.89	-0.03	0.01
	TYR	-0.02	0.01	-.06	-1.20	-0.04	0.01
EO	(Constant)	3.63	0.02		158.57	3.58	3.67
	ATT	-0.01	0.01	-.04	-0.91	-0.02	0.01
	CHR	0.00	0.01	.01	0.23	-0.01	0.02
	DED	-0.01	0.01	-.09	-1.90	-0.02	0.00
	INT	-0.01	0.01	-.05	-0.96	-0.02	0.01
	MSC	-0.00	0.01	-.02	-0.48	-0.02	0.01
	SNS	-0.00	0.01	-.02	-0.35	-0.02	0.01
	STR	0.01	0.01	.04	0.86	-0.01	0.02
	TYR	-0.01	0.01	-.03	-0.69	-0.02	0.01
DSO	(Constant)	4.04	0.04		92.04	3.96	4.13
	ATT	-0.03	0.01	-.08	-1.93	-0.06	0.00
	CHR	0.01	0.01	.04	0.89	-0.02	0.04
	DED	-0.04	0.01	-.16	-3.41**	-0.06	-0.02
	INT	-0.01	0.01	-.02	-0.40	-0.03	0.02
	MSC	-0.02	0.01	-.06	-1.42	-0.04	0.01
	SNS	0.00	0.01	.01	0.23	-0.02	0.03
	STR	-0.01	0.01	-.04	-0.78	-0.04	0.02
	TYR	-0.02	0.02	-.07	-1.48	-0.06	0.01
CO	(Constant)	3.87	0.05		80.05	3.77	3.96
	ATT	-0.01	0.02	-.03	-0.63	-0.04	0.02
	CHR	0.00	0.02	.01	0.16	-0.03	0.03
	DED	-0.02	0.01	-.09	-1.80	-0.05	0.00
	INT	-0.01	0.01	-.02	-0.49	-0.03	0.02
	MSC	0.01	0.01	.02	0.39	-0.02	0.03
	SNS	0.01	0.02	.04	0.93	-0.02	0.04
	STR	-0.02	0.01	-.07	-1.56	-0.05	0.01
	TYR	-0.01	0.02	-.03	-0.55	-0.05	0.03

Note. UE = Urgency & Execution; EO = Empowering Others; DSO = Developing Self and Others; CO = Communication; ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny.

** $p < .01$.

Results show that the dimensional ILT dissimilarity scores significantly predicted scores on two of the four LPM subscales, explaining about 5% of the variance in Urgency and Execution and about 6% of the variance in Developing Self and Others, as well as 4% (2% adjusted) of the variability in overall leader performance ratings. For these two subscales model parameters show that Dedication was the only ILT subscale of significance, and its relationship with the LPM subscales was in the expected (negative) direction. The fact that only two of the four performance scales were affected, and even then only by a single ILT subscale, must lead to the conclusion that ILT dissimilarity does not have a measurable impact on leader performance within this sample of employees.

ILT-relevant behaviors and leader personality. The final research question concerned the relations among leaders' ILTs, leaders' personality, and leaders' behavior. To examine this, three correlational analyses were performed: the first examined the relationship between leaders' own ILTs and followers' ILT-B ratings, the second examined the relation between leaders' ILTs and their own IPIP personality scores, and the final comparison examined leaders' IPIP scores against followers' perceptions of leaders on the ILT-B. If leaders' ILTs are merely extensions of leader personality or behavior as hypothesized in previous studies, one would expect to see at least moderate relationships between the measures.

To produce the most interpretable results, only data from matching leader-follower dyads were used; that is, analyses were only performed on cases where data were collected

for both a follower and his/her manager. This resulted in data for 182 leader-follower pairs. Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normality indicated that the distributions for both the leader and follower samples were significantly different from normal on all IPIP, ILT and ILT-B subscales. Additionally, since prior analyses indicated significant differences between leader samples on the ILT measure, the first two analyses were examined for each leader group separately as well as for the full sample. Table 15 presents descriptive statistics for these subscales for the full leader and follower samples, and Table 16 presents the descriptive statistics for the ILT scale for the two leader samples separately. The descriptive statistics for all samples indicate non-normality, so Spearman's rho was calculated to produce the correlations between the items and scales, as it is more robust for non-normally distributed data than Pearson's r coefficient (Bobko, 2001).

Table 15.

*Descriptive Statistics and Normality Tests for
IPIP (Personality), ILT, and ILT-B (Behaviors) Subscales*

Scale	No. Items	Mean	SD	Skew (SE)	Kurtosis (SE)	<i>D</i> (df = 158)
IPIP^a						
AG	4	4.16	0.60	-0.78 (0.19)	0.24 (0.38)	.16**
CN	4	4.02	0.65	-0.61 (0.19)	0.15 (0.38)	.11**
EX	4	3.42	0.77	-0.21 (0.19)	-0.36 (0.38)	.09**
IN	4	4.00	0.73	-0.67 (0.19)	-0.13 (0.38)	.13**
ES	4	3.63	0.71	-0.18 (0.19)	-0.44 (0.38)	.10**
ILT^a						
ATT	4	2.51	0.75	0.29 (0.19)	-0.53 (0.38)	.12**
CHR	5	4.41	0.37	-0.38 (0.19)	0.54 (0.38)	.11**
DED	4	4.48	0.38	-0.54 (0.19)	-0.14 (0.38)	.17**
INT	6	3.85	0.49	-0.28 (0.19)	0.03 (0.38)	.11**
MSC	2	1.25	0.55	3.13 (0.19)	14.33 (0.38)	.44**
SNS	8	3.61	0.50	-0.13 (0.19)	-0.32 (0.38)	.08**
STR	2	3.74	0.84	-0.41 (0.19)	-0.30 (0.38)	.17**
TYR	10	1.88	0.53	0.72 (0.19)	0.22 (0.38)	.12**
ILT-B^b						
ATT	4	3.12	0.84	-0.25 (0.19)	-0.29 (0.38)	.10**
CHR	5	3.33	0.81	-0.69 (0.19)	0.34 (0.38)	.11**
DED	4	3.95	0.80	-1.03 (0.19)	1.19 (0.38)	.18**
INT	6	3.65	0.66	-0.39 (0.19)	0.04 (0.38)	.09**
MSC	2	2.29	1.16	0.41 (0.19)	-0.96 (0.38)	.18**
SNS	8	3.37	0.84	-0.35 (0.19)	-0.23 (0.38)	.07*
STR	2	3.28	0.82	-0.37 (0.19)	-0.40 (0.38)	.18**
TYR	10	2.11	0.81	0.88 (0.17)	0.42 (0.38)	.10**

Note. *D* = Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality. AG = Agreeableness, CN = Conscientiousness, EX = Extraversion, IN = Intellect/Openness, ES = Emotional Stability (Neuroticism); ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny.

^a Leader measures. ^b Follower measure.

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

Table 16.

Descriptive Statistics and Normality Tests for ILT Subscales for Separate Leader Samples

Scale	No. Items	Mean	SD	Skew (SE)	Kurtosis (SE)	D (df = 158)
ILT ^a	n = 85	3.12	0.27			
ATT	4	2.34	0.70	0.93 (0.26)	-0.59 (0.52)	.13**
CHR	5	4.32	0.32	-0.28 (0.26)	0.44 (0.52)	.17**
DED	4	4.35	0.40	-0.46 (0.26)	-0.38 (0.52)	.17**
INT	6	3.77	0.48	-0.23 (0.26)	-0.33 (0.52)	.10*
MSC	2	1.25	0.57	4.02 (0.26)	22.55 (0.52)	.41**
SNS	8	3.53	0.43	-0.51 (0.26)	0.73 (0.52)	.13**
STR	2	3.62	0.86	-0.27 (0.26)	-0.61 (0.52)	.16**
TYR	10	1.85	0.48	0.77 (0.26)	0.57 (0.52)	.14**
ILT ^b	n = 97	3.23	0.30			
ATT	4	2.68	0.78	0.14 (0.25)	-0.65 (0.49)	.13**
CHR	5	4.46	0.40	-0.68 (0.25)	0.66 (0.49)	.13**
DED	4	4.53	0.37	-0.50 (0.25)	-0.46 (0.49)	.15**
INT	6	3.89	0.50	-0.23 (0.25)	-0.03 (0.49)	.12**
MSC	2	1.26	0.50	1.81 (0.25)	2.34 (0.49)	.45**
SNS	8	3.60	0.56	-0.01 (0.25)	-0.97 (0.49)	.10*
STR	2	3.77	0.85	-0.60 (0.25)	0.09 (0.49)	.19**
TYR	10	1.90	0.58	0.63 (0.25)	-0.14 (0.49)	.14**

Note. D = Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality. ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny.

^a Leader group 1 (received ILT measure first). ^b Leader group 2 (received IPIP measure first).

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

Results for the contrast between leaders' ILT scores and followers' ILT-B ratings (see Table 17.1) show that the two scales are largely uncorrelated in the full leader sample except for a few weak yet significant correlations among the scales. One notable relationship among these is that leaders' Intelligence scores were significantly correlated with followers' Intelligence scores, ($r_s = .22, p < .01$); that is, leaders' rating of Intelligence in an ideal leader was correlated with their followers' observations of Intelligence in their leader, consistent with the proposition that categorization of a target as a "leader" might induce perceivers to

attribute characteristics to the target that were not actually observed. Also, Intelligence for leaders was also correlated with Attractiveness for followers ($r_s = .25, p < .01$). Examination of the two leader samples independently (see Tables 17.2 and 17.3) show similar correlations that, though significant, are still small (all are below .28). As such, there does not appear to be a relationship between leader ILT scores and follower ILT-B scores. Using these measures, leader ILTs do not appear to be manifested as ILT-relevant behaviors which are perceived by followers.

Table 17.1.

Spearman r_s Correlations Between Leader ILT and Follower ILT-B Subscales For Full Leader Sample

	ILT-B							
	ATT	CHR	DED	INT	MSC	SNS	STR	TYR
ATT	-.01	.08	.01	-.04	.23**	-.13	.09	.21*
CHR	.12	.13	.07	.19*	.02	.06	.14	.04
DED	.18*	.06	.08	.14	.00	.19*	.04	-.05
INT	.25**	.08	.03	.22**	-.03	.09	.14	-.01
MSC	.15	.03	.05	.08	.03	-.11	.06	.14
SNS	.09	.20*	.14	.17*	.13	.20*	.28**	.05
STR	.12	-.02	.02	.07	.00	.06	.11	-.05
TYR	.11	-.05	-.05	-.06	.07	-.09	-.06	.19*

Note. ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Table 17.2.

*Spearman r_s Correlations Between Leader ILT and Follower ILT-B Subscales
For Leader Sample 1 (n = 80)*

	ILT-B							
	ATT	CHR	DED	INT	MSC	SNS	STR	TYR
ATT	-.26*	-.02	-.06	-.15	.27*	-.12	-.01	.35**
CHR	.03	.00	-.07	.02	-.02	.03	-.02	.12
DED	.09	-.06	.03	.06	-.05	.14	.01	.02
INT	.25*	-.01	.01	.23*	-.11	-.03	.08	.09
MSC	.07	.04	.05	.14	-.05	.02	.05	.00
SNS	-.02	.08	.11	.04	.13	.17	.15	.09
STR	-.05	-.07	-.05	.03	-.07	.02	-.01	.05
TYR	-.03	-.16	-.10	-.03	.03	-.03	-.11	.11

Note. ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Table 17.3.

*Spearman r_s Correlations Between Leader ILT and Follower ILT-B Subscales
For Leader Sample 2 (n = 91)*

	ILT-B							
	ATT	CHR	DED	INT	MSC	SNS	STR	TYR
ATT	.14	.06	.01	-.04	.22*	-.16	.13	.17
CHR	.14	.13	.10	.29*	.06	.08	.22*	.01
DED	.21	.08	.08	.16	.05	.25*	.07	-.08
INT	.23*	.11	-.01	.19	.07	.19	.17	-.06
MSC	.23*	.00	.03	.00	.08	-.22	.07	.26*
SNS	.15	.24*	.15	.25*	.14	.22*	.38**	.01
STR	.25*	-.03	.06	.09	.05	.11	.21*	-.11
TYR	.22*	-.04	-.04	-.08	.10	-.12	-.03	.26*

Note. ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

The second analysis examined leaders' ILT scores against their own IPIP personality scores to explore whether leaders' ILTs were simply extensions of their personalities.

Spearman’s rho was calculated between leaders’ ILT and IPIP scores; results for the full leader sample are presented in Table 18.1, while the individual leader samples are presented in Tables 18.2 and 18.3. Like the correlations between leader ILT and follower ILT-B, the full leader sample and separate leader groups demonstrated small-yet-significant correlations between the ILT subscales and IPIP personality dimensions. Sensitivity was correlated with Agreeableness ($r_s = .33, p < .01$), which makes sense as the Agreeableness items on the IPIP (e.g., “I sympathize with others’ feelings,” “I am not interested in other people’s problems”) do reflect many of the traits in the Sensitivity subscale (e.g., “Sympathetic,” “Compassionate”). Interestingly, the Intelligence and Masculinity subscales were both negatively correlated with Emotional Stability, suggesting that if leaders’ ILTs really are nothing more than extensions of personality, then the lower a leader’s Emotional Stability, the more we would expect their ILTs to reflect high ratings of Intelligence and Masculinity.

Table 18.1.

*Spearman r_s Correlations Between Leader ILT and Leader Personality (IPIP)
For Full Leader Sample*

	IPIP				
	AG	CN	EX	IN	ES
ATT	-.09	.13	.04	.05	-.18*
CHR	.20*	.13	.11	.19*	.05
DED	.19*	.14	.03	.08	-.14
INT	.10	.03	-.09	.14	-.25**
MSC	-.11	.15	-.08	.04	-.20*
SNS	.33**	.06	.02	-.03	-.10
STR	.10	.17*	-.04	.07	.01
TYR	-.07	-.06	.03	.06	-.15

Note. AG = Agreeableness, CN = Conscientiousness, EX = Extraversion, IN = Intellect, ES = Emotional Stability (Neuroticism); ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny
* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Table 18.2.

Spearman r_s Correlations Between Leader ILT and Leader Personality (IPIP)

For Leader Sample 1 (n = 77)

	IPIP				
	AG	CN	EX	IN	ES
ATT	-.15	-.18	.22	.11	-.19
CHR	-.10	.16	.10	.09	.12
DED	.13	.17	.00	.12	-.19
INT	-.08	-.11	-.12	.28*	-.16
MSC	-.08	.13	-.06	.08	-.08
SNS	.31*	.03	.02	.04	-.11
STR	.10	.22	.07	-.06	.19
TYR	-.10	-.12	-.05	.06	-.16

Note. AG = Agreeableness, CN = Conscientiousness, EX = Extraversion, IN = Intellect/Openness, ES = Emotional Stability (Neuroticism); ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny
* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Table 18.3.

Spearman r_s Correlations Between Leader ILT and Leader Personality (IPIP)

For Leader Sample 2 (n = 97)

	IPIP				
	AG	CN	EX	IN	ES
ATT	-.01	.39**	-.09	-.01	-.15
CHR	.39**	.12	.10	.26*	.05
DED	.24*	.07	.02	.06	-.09
INT	.22*	.17	-.07	.03	-.29**
MSC	-.14	.19	-.10	.01	-.30**
SNS	.33**	.09	.01	-.06	-.13
STR	.11	.11	-.13	.17	-.13
TYR	-.05	-.01	.07	.03	-.13

Note. IPIP Subscales: AG = Agreeableness, CN = Conscientiousness, EX = Extraversion, IN = Intellect/Openness, ES = Emotional Stability (Neuroticism). ILT-B Subscales: ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny
* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

The final comparison examined the relation of leaders' IPIP scores with followers' perceptions of leaders on the ILT-B subscales to determine whether leader perceptions of their own behavior (personality) aligned with followers' perceptions of leaders' behavior. Because leader ILTs were not utilized in this comparison and IPIP scores were not significantly affected by the order of instrument presentation, it was not necessary to perform any additional comparisons by leader sample. Spearman's rho was calculated between the ILT-B and IPIP subscales; and again small yet significant correlations were observed (see Table 19). In this case, there was a more definite relationship as Agreeableness was significantly correlated with five of the eight ILT-B scales. These correlations were still relatively small however, ranging from $r_s = .20$ ($p < .01$) between Agreeableness and Dedication to $r_s = .32$ ($p < .01$) between Agreeableness and Intelligence.

Table 19.

Spearman r_s Correlations Between Follower ILT-B Subscales and Leader Personality (IPIP)

	IPIP				
	AG	CN	EX	IN	ES
ATT	.13	.13	.07	.02	-.11
CHR	.23**	.01	.20*	.00	-.12
DED	.20**	.11	-.02	-.03	-.10
INT	.32**	.04	.04	.09	-.12
MSC	-.09	.01	-.06	-.02	-.01
SNS	.30**	.03	.09	-.00	.02
STR	.26**	.13	-.01	.07	-.22**
TYR	-.10	.01	-.05	.01	-.14

Note. IPIP Subscales: AG = Agreeableness, CN = Conscientiousness, EX = Extraversion, IN = Intellect/Openness, ES = Emotional Stability (Neuroticism). ILT-B Subscales: ATT = Attractiveness, CHR = Charisma, DED = Dedication, INT = Intelligence, MSC = Masculinity, SNS = Sensitivity, STR = Strength, TYR = Tyranny

* $p < .05$ (2-tailed), ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Although some small-yet-significant correlations were observed in each of the three comparisons to explore how leader ILTs might be exhibited, the low correlations in general coupled with the low number of significant relationships overall leads to the conclusion that ILTs are not merely extensions of leader personality, nor do they appear to be demonstrated as ILT-related behaviors (as perceived by followers on the ILT-B) either. Although there was some evidence to suggest that Agreeableness as reported by leaders is detected by followers across several ILT dimensions, these results in general suggest that ILTs are separate from both leader personality and behaviors, and that if leaders do somehow utilize their ILTs as guidelines in their role as leaders then it is not through these means.

Discussion

The present study sought to investigate implicit leadership theories, both their structure as well as how they influence followers' perceptions of leaders, particularly with regards to charisma and performance. It is hoped that the results of this study will stimulate more research on ILTs and their influence on other theories and frameworks, particularly those related to charisma and performance; two areas where followers' perceptions of leaders are particularly relevant. The first research question asked how many distinct ILT profiles could be identified among employees, and to the best of the author's knowledge no other studies to date have specifically examined the patterns of ILTs across workers. Cluster analysis was employed for this task, and 11 ILT profiles were identified as best fitting the data. Further analysis indicated that these profiles were significantly different on all 8 ILT subscales, and some interesting findings were observed in the analysis of the individual profiles. First, the subscales of Masculinity and Tyranny were both rated surprisingly high

across all 11 profiles – the standardized profile score for Tyranny never fell below one standard deviation below the mean, and Masculinity was never lower than half a standard deviation below the mean (while other subscales such as Intelligence, Dedication, and Sensitivity were close to two standard deviations below the mean in some profiles). Given the interest in transformational leadership and culture/climate research and the various organizationally-implemented ways intended to improve the working lives of employees, one would expect preferences for Tyrannical leaders to be fairly low, so it is surprising that employees themselves would describe their ideal leaders as ones who were dominant, manipulative, and selfish. It is also a bit surprising that there seems to be evidence for the continued existence of the ‘think manager-think male’ phenomenon, which appears to be operating in 3 of the 11 profiles. It is not entirely clear why these results might have occurred – whether they really were due to certain groups’ preferences for tyrannical and masculine leaders, or whether they were due to something more mundane, such as different interpretations of the items for Tyranny (e.g., loud, dominant) and Masculinity (masculine, male) – is something that would need further examination. However, another interpretation might be that since these results were most prevalent in the smaller profile groups, these ratings may be an artifact of the clustering process which forces every person into one cluster, with the result being that some clusters will be less precise than others in terms of their overall representation of its members.

Along these same lines, ILT Profile 5 (see Figure 3.5) was a particularly interesting case. Given that it possessed the greatest disparity in scatter and shape, possessed the worst homogeneity coefficient of all the clusters ($HC = 1.629$), and was also the smallest group (n

= 22; nearly half the number of members as the next largest profile), it could be possible that Profile 5, as an average profile, may not be a ‘true’ ILT profile in the population at large, but that this profile might have served as the “landfill” for the remaining cases once all other cases in the dataset had been classified. Although none of the profiles presented in this study can yet be confirmed as “*The ILT profiles*” among all individuals in the population, it would be highly recommended that future analyses of ILT profile patterns specifically look for this type of profile in a wider context to confirm its generalizability. Whether it would be more or less useful to have a cluster which captured all the orphaned cases, or to simply find some other way to deal with them, is a question that should be examined more fully should this classification method be used for more practical purposes (such as classifying individuals for assignment to certain development or training programs).

The profiles with the largest numbers of members ($n = 87, 101, \text{ and } 103$ for Profiles 7, 11, and 8, respectively) also possessed the best homogeneity coefficients among the clusters (HCs = .725, .797, and .809, respectively). Given these results, it is not unreasonable to expect that of the 11 profiles found in this study, these three profiles would be among the ones most likely to be observed in future studies with more sampling of the population. Therefore, more attention should be paid to the interpretation of these profiles and what this might mean for leadership evaluations made by individuals possessing these disparate profiles. For example, Profiles 7 and 11 do appear quite similar in overall shape, with the primary difference being the magnitude of importance placed on the dimensions of leader Attractiveness, Sensitivity, and Tyranny. Specifically, Profile 11 members rated the Attractiveness and Sensitivity dimensions as more important than did members of Profile 7,

and the Tyranny dimension was rated as less important than the members of Profile 7 (for these overall dimensions, there was nearly a full standard deviation difference between profiles). However, additional analyses in this study demonstrated that their perceptions of their leaders' charisma and performance are quite different, with members of Profile 7 appearing more moderate in their overall charisma perceptions and performance ratings than those in Profile 11. This suggests that although the profiles may look similar, they may be qualitatively different with respect to at least some of the outcomes produced by their members.

One similarity among these three most-common profiles is the relatively low importance attached to leaders' levels of Masculinity and Tyranny as compared to the other ILT subscales. This suggests that the "think manager think male" stereotype may be less prevalent than is to be colloquially believed, and that Profiles such as 1, 5, and 9, which tended to rank Masculinity and Tyranny much higher, are actually less representative of the population in general, especially as they were among the smallest profile groups with *N* sizes of 40, 22, and 59, respectively.

However, that the members of Profiles 7, 8, and 11 were separated into three different profiles does indicate that these individuals do view leaders in qualitatively different ways, despite the seeming similarities between their profile patterns. In particular, the scatter of the subscales around the means demonstrates the relative importance that each places on the ILT subscales relative to the other scales. Profile 7, for instance, values Dedication above all other scales, while Profiles 8 and 11 both appear to value Sensitivity more than the other dimensions. Overall, the elevation of Profile 8 was lower than the other two profiles, with

most scales residing below average (i.e., negative z-scores). This is especially interesting given that analyses of location also indicated that followers in the United Kingdom are more likely to subscribe to this profile than employees in the United States, suggesting that perhaps these components of ILTs are viewed as relatively less important overall, and that ideal leaders needn't be good (or even average) on most of these characteristics (perhaps as long as they "get the job done?") Additional research is needed to determine whether these three most common profiles are indeed prevalent in the population in general.

For the second research question regarding the predictive ability of demographic variables to classify people into ILT profiles, the proposed model did fit the data statistically well, however further examination revealed that location (UK v. US) was the only significant predictor of profile membership, and even then the variable was only significant for 2 of the 11 profiles. This does seem to support previous findings which have identified country as having an influence on ILTs (e.g., Gerstner and Day, 1994), however these findings were mitigated by the observation that the sample with demographic data was significantly different in their overall charisma and performance scores than the sample for whom demographic data were not available, and so results must be interpreted with caution. No support was found for the influence of age, gender, ethnicity, or organizational tenure. With regards to gender, to date there appears to be little evidence for differences in ILTs between the sexes (Offerman et al., 1994), except that some researchers have found a slight tendency for women to focus on relationship-based leader behaviors and for men to evaluate task-based ones (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). In the organizational tenure realm, it has also been proposed that newcomers to an organization who possess different ILTs than current

employees may experience increasing levels of work dissatisfaction and turnover as their expectations of leadership fail to match up to reality (Offerman et al., 1994; Engle & Lord, 1997). None of these proposals have been confirmed to be significant however, so it is difficult to say with certainty that there are absolutely no demographic differences among ILTs. If demographic variables are in the end found to have no predictive power with regards to ILT profile membership, it would suggest that ILTs may indeed be generalizable across many different populations.

Congruence between idealized and actual leadership was the focus of the third research question. Analyses were performed to examine the influence of congruence on charisma scores as well as on performance scores. Results found that the closer the perceived congruence between employees' ILTs (measuring their ideal leader) and their actual leader, the higher the ratings of charisma for that leader. This held true for charisma overall, as well as for the six individual charisma subscales. ILT congruence accounted for 25% of the overall charisma score, and between 4% and 21% of the variance among the six charisma scales individually, which strongly suggests that attributions of charisma are dependent to a large degree on how much a leader meets followers' expectations with respect to leadership. This finding demonstrates that there are discernable individual differences in followers' propensity to attribute charisma to leaders, and provides compelling support for ILTs as an important factor in how and why charismatic attributions are made, as well as providing some preliminary answers to the question of why charismatic attributions of a single individual vary from person to person. These results may also offer a partial explanation as to the question of how and why charisma can be 'lost' (e.g., Bailey & Axelrod, 2001). That is,

as the differences between followers' expectations and their actual experiences with a leader get larger, perceptions of charisma decrease. These findings provide some empirical evidence for why charismatic attributions are made and ground them (at least partially) in implicit leadership theories. Charisma had been proposed as a primary factor in individuals' ILTs (Offerman et al., 1994) and the present study supports this notion, as not only did the ILT subscale of charisma have convincing predictive abilities on the CKS scale, but there were significant differences across the 11 ILT profiles on the charisma subscale; otherwise, one would expect the levels of the subscale to remain relatively consistent across profiles.

Unlike the findings for the charisma scale, there was no observed influence of ILT congruence on leader performance ratings. Prior research had suggested that idiosyncratic rater tendencies account for a significant portion of the variance in leader performance ratings (e.g., Scullen et al., 2000), and ILT congruence might seem to be one possible source of such idiosyncratic variance, but results of the present study did not find support for ILT congruence as part of these tendencies. Although the model did fit two of the four performance subscales, congruence on only a single ILT subscale (Dedication) was found to be responsible in both cases, leading to the conclusion that differences between ideal and actual leadership as a whole did not have a measurable impact on leader performance.

One reason this may have occurred may be the time delay between the collection of the ILTs and performance measures. That is, the leader performance ratings used were part of an archival dataset in which ratings had been made a year or more before the present study, during which time any number of variables could have changed among the participants. We do have some evidence for the stability of ILTs over time (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), but

during the course of a year or more it is possible that ILTs and expectations may have changed in some substantial way, and had ILT congruence been measured in the same timeframe as the performance ratings we might find different results. Additionally, more clarity on the relationship could be gained by examining the same variables in reverse – that is, by measuring ILTs at a period in time, and then collecting performance measures at a much later date. A similar finding of no relationship between real-and-ideal similarity and performance ratings would suggest that the influence of profile similarity on performance ratings may indeed be time-specific, and that the measures need to be collected together to obtain a more accurate estimate of the influence on performance ratings. Thus although it appears that the similarity between idealized leadership and actual leadership accounts for more in charismatic attributions than in performance ratings, it may be shown in future studies this difference is due in part to the time delay between data collection.

Lord and Maher (1993) theorized that leaders likely use ILTs to guide their own behaviors in their leadership roles. The present study did not find adequate support for this theory. Neither did examinations of bivariate correlations between the measures indicate that leader ILTs are extensions of leader personality. It also does not appear that leaders are demonstrating their ILTs through their behavioral interactions with followers, although this result could very well be the product of followers just not perceiving these ILT-related behaviors (or the ILT-B measure not being precise enough to capture these). It was found that leaders' scores on the ILT subscale of Agreeableness were related to five of the eight ILT-B subscales, which suggests that followers may be detecting some component of Agreeableness and applying it globally across behavioral ratings of their leader, but the

correlations are still quite small so it is difficult to speculate. Nonetheless, this was still an interesting finding as there did not appear to be consistent relationships between either leader ILT and follower ILT-B, or between leader ILT and leader IPIP, and so this relationship between follower ILT-B and leader IPIP (even on a single scale) is somewhat unexpected and perhaps worthy of further discussion.

These findings of small-but-significant correlations between the three measures seem to suggest that either the measures used in this study were not precise enough to capture the full extent of the relationships (as the correlations were significant but not strong), or that there really may be very small (and in some cases no) relationship between the measures. Correlations tend to be attenuated when there is restriction of range, and since the ILT congruence scores used as the predictors were the standardized subscale scores (which were initially computed as the mean across scale items), this may have also occurred (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

For the most part, the present study was successful in achieving its aims. First, 11 distinct ILT profiles groups were identified which were significantly different from one another, as well as significantly different in their overall charisma attributions and leader performance ratings. Second, although support was not found for the predictive ability of age, gender, organizational tenure, or ethnicity, some support was found for the influence of location (country) as a predictor of ILT profile membership. Third, there was a significant influence of ILT congruence on leader charisma ratings, with ratings increasing as differences between follower ILTs and perceived leader behaviors decrease, and charisma ratings decreasing as the differences between followers' ideal leader and actual leader

become greater. However there was no similar effect observed for leader performance ratings. Lastly, the ideas that leader ILTs are nothing more than extensions of their personality, or that leaders utilize their own ILTs as guidelines to drive behaviors were not supported in the present study. Small significant correlations were found between the leader ILT scores and the personality and behavior items, but nothing strong enough to confirm the effect.

Limitations & Conclusions

Several limitations in the present study should be noted. Some have been addressed in preceding sections, such as the use of scale scores which may have resulted in restricted range and therefore may have attenuated potentially larger correlations, and the length of time between the performance ratings and ILT and charisma measures. Other limitations are addressed here that focus on additional sampling and measurement issues.

Sampling and data. Like most studies, one obvious limitation is that the results presented here reflect the responses of employees in a single organization, and may therefore not generalize perfectly to other organizations. Observed adjusted R^2 values do show acceptable levels of shrinkage however, and so some confidence can be had that at least some of the analyses appear to be generalizable to other populations. The present study had a adequate sample size, but researchers in the future would of course aim for the largest samples possible in order to have sufficient data available to perform a cross-validation to confirm results. The limited amount of available demographic data (32%) was an issue as it precluded the ability to draw firm conclusions from the second analysis. Future studies

should either ensure an adequate source of demographic information prior to sampling, or resort to asking participants to report demographics, which carries its own problems.

Measures. Although there was some concern that common source bias and monomethod bias might have had an impact on the results, it was hoped that the nature of this study – focused on the followers’ individual perspectives – would make these biases less of a concern (e.g., Avolio, Yammarino & Bass, 1991). In fact, the questions related to congruence between follower ILTs and follower perceptions of leaders’ behavior are unavoidably monosource, by their nature. It is unclear at this time whether there was any impact of either bias, but multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) techniques should be considered in the future to help overcome some of these concerns. Other ways of collecting ILT, charisma, and performance data that would alleviate some of these concerns should be further examined.

There were some particularly interesting comments sent by respondents regarding the language used in the ILT and ILT-B scales, as apparently there were quite a few words which perhaps did not translate very precisely, even between citizens of the United States and United Kingdom. An example of this includes the term “clever,” which in the UK is generally used to mean smart and creative (which is good) but is also sometimes used in the US with an additional connotation of sneakiness or craftiness (which is not necessarily good). Other examples include “dynamic,” which can either mean “moving towards change” (good) or “forceful” (not so good) or “moving toward change” (better), and “strong,” which can refer to either physical or mental capacities. Although the point of the ILT scale seems to be the less information the better for getting a true measure from just the primer of the words

“ideal leader,” it may be worth it to examine whether any of the terms can be made less ambiguous.

Along these same lines, another concern regarding the measures is that the ILT-B scale was specifically created for this study as a mirror of the ILT scale as a means to measure behaviors rather than traits. As such, it was not extensively tested or validated prior to the study, and so of course its utility as a true measure of ILT-relevant behaviors would benefit from additional evaluation. Future studies would of course need to validate this measure before further conclusions can be drawn.

Additionally, examination of the internal consistencies of the subscales within each of the four instruments found that some subscales demonstrated lower reliabilities than would generally be considered acceptable (e.g., .70), although the majority of these were found in subscales with lower numbers of items, and Cronbach’s alpha does increase as the number of items in the scale increases (e.g., Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It should therefore be noted that there are some limitations to using scales with less-than-ideal reliabilities, most especially that any conclusions drawn from analyses using these scales must be made cautiously until the scale can be further developed and identified to assure that a single dimension does indeed underlie those particular items. Specifically, unreliable measures tend to attenuate observed correlations.

As a final note of caution when dealing with ILTs: one problem that occurred during the course of this analysis was in how to interpret the resulting ILT profile graphs without imparting my own ILT biases onto the findings. For instance, it was apparent to me that Profile 11, with the lowest scores on Tyranny and Masculinity and higher scores for the other

subscales, was the epitome of the ideal leader. However, after considering for a moment, it was clear that it was *not* the perfect leader for many others, as Profile 8 was actually the largest group. As I am sure is the case with many other psychological constructs, care should be taken when reporting results on a ILTs that one's own value judgments do not inadvertently make their way into the interpretation of findings.

Some observations for future research have already been commented on, but it would seem that the next step in this line of research would be to continue along this path of discovery to determine whether these profiles do indeed generalize to different populations, whether data from different samples result in completely different sets of profiles (or whether they follow the same shape and scatter, but differ in their levels), and whether other measures of charisma can be similarly predicted using ILT subscales, which would provide further proof of the inherent role of charisma in ILTs. It is hoped that any findings tying charisma to implicit leadership theories will stimulate more thorough research on this relationship, as well as the relationship of ILTs with other theories.

Eden & Leviatan (1975) were among the first to illuminate the potential hazards of relying on follower ratings of organizational variables which may be contaminated by raters' ILTs. The implications of one day eventually identifying a set of stable, generalizable ILT profiles which can then be analyzed against other criteria to determine the differential impact of one profile over another is a particularly exciting prospect, especially if thought of in the context of someday creating measures that control for the impact of one's ILT.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Implicit Leadership Theories Questionnaire (ILT)

For each trait below, please use the following scale to indicate the extent to which it should describe **an ideal leader in a business setting**:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all characteristic	Slightly characteristic	Moderately characteristic	Characteristic	Extremely characteristic

An ideal leader in a business setting is...

Se	1	Sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5
C	2	Energetic	1	2	3	4	5
D	3	Dedicated	1	2	3	4	5
A	4	Well-groomed	1	2	3	4	5
T	5	Domineering	1	2	3	4	5
M	6	Masculine	1	2	3	4	5
I	7	Intellectual	1	2	3	4	5
St	8	Strong	1	2	3	4	5
Se	9	Sensitive	1	2	3	4	5
C	10	Charismatic	1	2	3	4	5
D	11	Motivated	1	2	3	4	5
A	12	Attractive	1	2	3	4	5
T	13	Pushy	1	2	3	4	5
I	14	Educated	1	2	3	4	5
St	15	Bold	1	2	3	4	5
Se	16	Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5
C	17	Inspiring	1	2	3	4	5
D	18	Hard-working	1	2	3	4	5
A	19	Well-dressed	1	2	3	4	5
T	20	Dominant	1	2	3	4	5
I	21	Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
T	22	Obnoxious	1	2	3	4	5
C	23	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
D	24	Goal-oriented	1	2	3	4	5
A	25	Classy	1	2	3	4	5
T	26	Manipulative	1	2	3	4	5
I	27	Wise	1	2	3	4	5
Se	28	Sincere	1	2	3	4	5
C	29	Dynamic	1	2	3	4	5
T	30	Power-hungry	1	2	3	4	5
I	31	Knowledgeable	1	2	3	4	5
Se	32	Warm	1	2	3	4	5
T	33	Conceited	1	2	3	4	5
I	34	Clever	1	2	3	4	5
Se	35	Forgiving	1	2	3	4	5
T	36	Loud	1	2	3	4	5
T	37	Selfish	1	2	3	4	5
M	38	Male	1	2	3	4	5
S	39	Understanding	1	2	3	4	5
Se	40	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5
T	41	Demanding	1	2	3	4	5

* Leftmost columns contain scale identifier for item, and were not shown to participants:

Se = Sensitivity (8 items)	A = Attractiveness (4 items)	C = Charisma (5 items)
D = Dedication (4 items)	M = Masculinity (2 items)	St = Strength (2 items)
T = Tyranny (10 items)	I = Intelligence (6 items)	

Appendix B

Implicit Leadership Theories - Behaviors Questionnaire (ILT-B)

For each trait below, please use the following scale to indicate the extent to which it describes your **current manager**:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all characteristic	Slightly characteristic	Moderately characteristic	Characteristic	Extremely characteristic

My current manager ...

Se	1	shows sympathy toward others.	1	2	3	4	5
C	2	is energetic.	1	2	3	4	5
D	3	shows dedication	1	2	3	4	5
A	4	keeps himself/herself well-groomed.	1	2	3	4	5
T	5	domineers situations.	1	2	3	4	5
M	6	behaves in a masculine way.	1	2	3	4	5
I	7	is an intellectual.	1	2	3	4	5
St	8	displays strength.	1	2	3	4	5
Se	9	responds to the feelings of others.	1	2	3	4	5
C	10	displays charisma.	1	2	3	4	5
D	11	is motivated.	1	2	3	4	5
A	12	is attractive.	1	2	3	4	5
T	13	forces his/her ideas onto others.	1	2	3	4	5
I	14	is educated.	1	2	3	4	5
St	15	demonstrates boldness.	1	2	3	4	5
Se	16	shows compassion towards others.	1	2	3	4	5
C	17	inspires others.	1	2	3	4	5
D	18	works hard.	1	2	3	4	5
A	19	dresses well.	1	2	3	4	5
T	20	dominates others.	1	2	3	4	5
I	21	is intelligent.	1	2	3	4	5
T	22	behaves obnoxiously.	1	2	3	4	5
C	23	shows enthusiasm.	1	2	3	4	5
D	24	sets and works toward goals.	1	2	3	4	5
A	25	is classy.	1	2	3	4	5
T	26	manipulates people and situations.	1	2	3	4	5
I	27	demonstrates wisdom.	1	2	3	4	5
Se	28	displays sincerity in his/her interactions with others.	1	2	3	4	5
C	29	is dynamic.	1	2	3	4	5
T	30	seeks power.	1	2	3	4	5
I	31	is knowledgeable.	1	2	3	4	5
Se	32	shows warmth.	1	2	3	4	5
T	33	thinks too highly of himself/herself.	1	2	3	4	5
I	34	is clever.	1	2	3	4	5
Se	35	forgives others.	1	2	3	4	5
T	36	is loud.	1	2	3	4	5
T	37	exhibits selfishness.	1	2	3	4	5
M	38	is manly.	1	2	3	4	5
S	39	shows understanding towards others.	1	2	3	4	5
Se	40	helps others.	1	2	3	4	5
T	41	puts people under pressure to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5

* Leftmost columns contain scale identifier for item, and were not shown to participants:

Se = Sensitivity (8 items)	A = Attractiveness (4 items)	C = Charisma (5 items)
D = Dedication (4 items)	M = Masculinity (2 items)	St = Strength (2 items)
T = Tyranny (10 items)	I = Intelligence (6 items)	