
A Study of Implicit Leadership Theories among Business & Management Undergraduate Students

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Abstract

This qualitative study explores the subjective meaning of *being led*, through retrospective interpretations of the experience, using focus groups to elicit descriptions of the Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) held by forty final year undergraduate Business and Management students. The study further seeks to investigate the impact of these via an exploration of cognitive processes, affective responses and behavioural intentions towards leadership-claimants. Finally the study investigates how their affective responses influence the quality of such relationships using a framework based on Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. The research, informed by a critical realist stance, that takes an interpretative approach allowing an understanding of the meanings participants attach to their past experiences and future expectations. Data was elicited that explored perceptions, feelings and ideas, which were then manually transcribed, coded and analysed using an abductive process.

The findings support previous research into the content and structure of Implicit Leadership Theories (Engle & Lord, 1997; Offerman *et al.*, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) but extends this by examining the affective component of the ILTs and their impact on behaviours in the workplace. Cognitive, affective and behaviour elements were linked to self-concept needs such as self-esteem, self-efficacy and social identity (Lord & Brown, 2004; Reicher, Haslam & Hopkins; 2005), which were further mapped onto concepts of Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Employee Well-being (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). The findings show that where ILT needs were matched there were positive outcomes for the participants, their superiors and the organisations that they worked for. Conversely, where ILT needs were not matched, a wide variety of negative effects emerge ranging from poor performance and impaired well-being, through to withdrawal behaviours, and outright rebellion. The findings suggest reciprocal links between outcomes, behaviours, and LMX, and demonstrate an alignment of cognitive, emotional and behavioural responses that correspond to either high-LMX or low-LMX relationships, with major impacts on job satisfaction, commitment and well-being.

Authors Declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education in the United Kingdom or overseas.

Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

Signed Date

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Table of Contents

ABSTRACT	III
AUTHORS DECLARATION	IV
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	IV
TABLE OF CONTENTS	V
LIST OF FIGURES.....	VIII
LIST OF TABLES	IX
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	11
1.1 <i>Background of the Problem</i>	11
1.2 <i>Statement of the Problem</i>	12
1.3 <i>Purpose (Aim) of the Study</i>	12
1.4 <i>Research Questions and Objectives</i>	12
1.4.1 <i>Research Questions</i>	12
1.4.2 <i>Research Objectives</i>	13
1.5 <i>Importance of the Study</i>	13
1.6 <i>Research Design / Methodology</i>	13
1.7 <i>Theoretical Framework</i>	15
1.8 <i>Scope and Limitations</i>	16
1.9 <i>Structure and Content</i>	17
CHAPTER 2: FOLLOWERS AND FOLLOWERSHIP – A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ...	19
2.1 <i>Introduction</i>	19
2.2 <i>Traditional Leadership Paradigms</i>	20
2.2.1 <i>What is leadership?</i>	20
2.2.2 <i>The Trait Era</i>	21
2.2.3 <i>The Transactional Era</i>	23
2.2.4 <i>The ‘New Leadership’ Era</i>	24
2.2.5 <i>Summary</i>	27
2.3 <i>The Effects of Personality on Perceptions</i>	27
2.3.1 <i>Personality and Social Inference</i>	28
2.3.2 <i>Leader Categorization Theory</i>	30
2.3.3 <i>Followership and Self</i>	31
2.3.4 <i>Cognitive Biases</i>	33
2.3.5 <i>Summary</i>	34
2.4 <i>Implicit Leadership Theories: In the eye of the Beholder</i>	35
2.4.1 <i>Background</i>	35
2.4.2 <i>Implicit Leadership Theory</i>	36

2.4.3	The link between Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory	39
2.4.4	The need for meaning	44
2.5	<i>Summary</i>	45
CHAPTER 3:	METHODOLOGY	47
3.1	<i>Introduction</i>	47
3.2	<i>Approaches, Assumptions and Influences</i>	48
3.3	<i>Issues of quality in Research</i>	49
3.4	<i>Research Ethics</i>	51
3.5	<i>Experiential Knowledge</i>	52
3.6	<i>Conceptual and Theoretical Frameworks</i>	53
3.7	<i>Method</i>	57
3.7.1	The Focus Groups	57
3.7.2	Data collection	59
3.7.3	Debriefing the participants	62
3.7.4	Debriefing the co-facilitators	62
3.7.5	Data Transcription	63
3.7.6	Data Coding	64
3.7.7	Revised Visualisation of Themes	66
3.8	<i>Summary</i>	67
CHAPTER 4:	FINDINGS	70
4.1	<i>Introduction</i>	70
4.2	<i>Those who Choose to Follow</i>	71
4.2.1	Cognitive: What am I <i>thinking</i> when I talk about a leader?	71
4.2.2	Affective: What am I feeling?	81
4.2.3	Behaviours: How are they affected?	91
4.3	<i>Relationship Outcomes when ILT criteria met/not met</i>	93
4.4	<i>Summary</i>	98
CHAPTER 5:	DISCUSSION	100
5.1	<i>Introduction</i>	100
5.2	<i>The continuing search for Meaning</i>	101
5.2.1	Implicit Leadership Theories	101
5.2.2	Followership and Self	107
5.2.3	Relationship Outcomes: ILTs and LMX theory	112
5.2.4	Synthesis: Finding Meaning	116
5.3	<i>Summary</i>	117

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION	119
6.1 Aim, questions and objectives	119
6.2 Method/efficacy	120
6.3 Limitations	122
6.4 Reflections.....	123
6.5 Contribution to theory/Implications for practice.....	124
6.6 Future research	125
REFERENCES.....	127
APPENDICES.....	145
<i>Appendix A: The Topic Guide.....</i>	<i>147</i>
<i>Appendix B: Participant Information Pack</i>	<i>149</i>
<i>Appendix C: Informed Consent Forms</i>	<i>151</i>
Participants Copy	151
Researcher Copy	153
<i>Appendix D: Sample Transcript.....</i>	<i>155</i>
<i>Appendix E: Coding List.....</i>	<i>163</i>
<i>Appendix F: Code Book.....</i>	<i>177</i>

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: A Model of Leader Attributes and Leader Performance	26
Figure 3.1: Initial Visualisation of Themes	56
Figure 3.2: Modified Visualisation of Themes	57
Figure 3.3: Further modifications to the visualisation of Themes	66
Figure 5.1: Post-Analysis Conceptual Framework	103
Figure 5.2: Reciprocal links between ILT, LMX and Organisational Outcomes	113

List of Tables

Table 2.1: From 'Great Man' to 'Transformational Leadership'.....	22
Table 4.1: Superordinate Categorisation	72
Table 4.2: Basic Categorisation	73
Table 4.3: Subordinate Categorisation.....	73
Table 4.4: Distal Traits (Dynamism).....	74
Table 4.5: Distal Traits (Tyranny).....	75
Table 4.6: Distal Traits (Masculinity)	76
Table 4.7: Motives and Values.....	77
Table 4.8: Proximal Leader Attributes.....	78
Table 4.9: Source of ILTs.....	79
Table 4.10: Follower Needs and Motivations	81
Table 4.11: Follower needs for Leader Friendship.....	83
Table 4.12: Followers' Needs for Authority	85
Table 4.13: Fairness, Favouritism in the workplace	87
Table 4.14: Positive Emotional States	88
Table 4.15: Negative Emotional States.....	90
Table 4.16: Comparison of behaviours under ILT Met/Not Met criteria	92
Table 4.17: Consequences of Positive Match on ILT	94
Table 4.18: Consequences of Negative Match on ILT	95
Table 4.19: Self-concept issues when follower needs Met/Not Met.....	96
Table 4.20: Relationship Outcomes when ILT needs Met/Not Met	97

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study further explores concepts first investigated as part of my undergraduate dissertation on the evolution of leadership theory. Whereas much existing research focuses on the leader, this study seeks to understand notions of leadership from the perspective of the follower. This study therefore intends to explore the meanings, to participants, of their Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs). As the majority of the literature in this area emanates from the disciplines of psychology I intend to use a framework based on Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory as an organisational behaviour 'lens' to interpret the data in order to achieve a greater understanding of how Implicit Leadership Theories impact on the Leader-Follower relationship, and how this may affect additional outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and well-being.

1.1 Background of the Problem

A recent CIPD study (Lewis & Donaldson-Feilder, 2012) showed that nearly three-quarters of organisations in the UK continue to report a management and leadership skill deficit. One explanation for this may be that leadership is "*in the eye of the beholder*" (Lewis and Donaldson-Feilder, 2012, p.6 citing Kenney *et al.*, 1994) in that it is based not solely on any objective reality of what constitutes leadership but encompasses an interpretation on the part of the follower who already has their own prototypic ideal of a leader. This view is shared by Lord and Emrich (2001, p.551 cited by van Quaquebeke *et al.*, 2009, p.35) who have stated that "*If leadership resides, at least in part, in the minds of followers, then it is imperative to discover what followers are thinking*".

Research into follower-centric aspects of leadership includes an area known as Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT), which focuses on the social context of leadership and specifically on the traits and behaviours that people expect of leaders. The concept was first introduced by Eden and Leviatan (1975; 2005) and has been developed further by considerable empirical research (e.g. Engle & Lord, 1997, Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offerman, Kennedy and Wirtz, 1994; Schyns *et al.*, 2011).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

However, while considerable progress has been made in the theory and measurement of cognitive processes, similar research areas in regard to affective processes have been all but ignored (Lord & Brown, 2004, p.126), with the majority of the literature being quantitative, deductive and objectivist. Indeed, although there is an increasing body of qualitative literature in the field of leadership, much of it continues to exhibit the same positivist epistemological and ontological assumptions. Therefore, I contend that current theories do not fully address “*the need for meaning*” (Gill, 2011, p.98, citing Kibby & Hartel, 2003). While I accept the objective reality of traits, and ILTs, the area of interest is the subjective perception of that reality by followers. There seems to be a paucity of evidence regarding what follower’s ILTs *mean* to those involved. My research therefore aims to fill a perceived gap by conducting qualitative interpretivist research, informed by a critical realist perspective, into what the participants’ Implicit Leadership Theories *mean* to them.

1.3 Purpose (Aim) of the Study

The study aims to make a theoretical contribution to knowledge and understanding in this field by focusing on the subjective meaning of being led *for the perceiver*. Through retrospective interpretations of the experience, the research explores how perceptions affect behaviour, what the implications are for Leader-Member exchanges, and how these affect outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, and well-being.

1.4 Research Questions and Objectives

1.4.1 Research Questions

In gaining an understanding of the meaning of participant’s ILTs I have two main research questions, namely

1. What Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) are held by the participants?
2. How do their ILTs impact on their interactions with those claiming leadership roles in the workplace?

1.4.2 Research Objectives

In order to answer the above questions I have four main objectives, two linked to each of the research questions, namely

1. To describe the Implicit Leadership Theories held by the participants.
2. To explore the factors that influenced the development of their ILTs.
3. To describe the emotional responses resulting from the ILTs held by the participants.
4. To explore behavioural consequences resulting from ILT match/mismatch.

1.5 Importance of the Study

The study aims to make a theoretical contribution to knowledge that enhances our understanding of the impact of ILTs on workplace relationships by exploring possible antecedents of the LMX and linking these to organisational outcomes. By focussing on the meaning rather than the content, structure, or the relationships between variables, the findings will develop existing ILT theory and could open up further areas for research, as well as having applications for practitioners. For organisations seeking to enhance organisational outcomes, and improve the efficiency and effectiveness of employees at all levels, the findings may have relevance for leadership and management development programmes, as well as graduate management schemes, which may need to be adapted in consideration of the needs and expectations of followers since these are vital for effective working relationships that directly impact on the organisations ability to meet its objectives.

1.6 Research Design / Methodology

Philosophically, the research combines a critical realist stance with an interpretivist approach that allows for interpretations based on *understanding* of the subjective *meanings* of our experiences. The research is qualitative,

although not exclusively inductive, taking an abductive approach whereby analysis and interpretation are guided equally by themes arising from the data and by *a priori* knowledge of existing theoretical frameworks, namely Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. The former shows that follower sense-making involves social perceptions, social inferences and causal judgements that influence leader recognition and evaluation, whilst the latter has demonstrated that close working relationships foster a range of positive individual and organisational outcomes (see Chapter 2).

The chosen research design is that of a cross-sectional survey intended to describe, explore and explain (in a non-causal manner) elements of the phenomenon, and the method of choice was the focus group because it makes possible the generation of data via a facilitated process of dialogue and discussion around the topic that brings together those with shared characteristics of interest. I had identified undergraduate students undertaking Business and Management courses at the University of Gloucestershire's Business School during the 2012/2013 academic year as potentially having access to in-depth knowledge and/or experience of the issue under investigation. This was reduced to more manageable proportions by limiting the study to those undertaking Leadership modules as part of their final year. A total of 60 students were selected, via a purposeful non-probability strategy, with 40 participating in five focus groups, carried out on a single day using co-facilitators drawn from a pool of PhD candidates at the same institution.

In order to get a clear picture of the content and structure of Implicit Leadership Theories held by the group, so that analyses could determine the fit with existing theory, the groups were asked the following questions and invited to discuss the topic.

1. Why do they value certain characteristics and behaviours? And are there some they value more highly than others?
2. Where do they think their expectations came from?

3. How did they feel when they have been in subordinate positions to someone that did or did not match their criteria?

Subsequent discussions focused on how their cognitive processes and emotional states affected their behaviours.

Transcripts were prepared in an orthographic style resembling a 'playscript' with completed transcripts being sent to the co-facilitators for comment or amendment in order to ensure that they were an accurate reflection. During preliminary coding transcripts and accompanying audio files were distributed to the co-facilitators who independently carried out cross-validation of initial descriptive and organisational codes. The transcripts were then merged into a Master Transcript, with data being allocated to organisational categories based on cognitive processes, affective states, and behavioural impacts. To move the data to more abstract levels to facilitate analysis involved an iterative process, moving back and forth between the data and the literature, which combined concept and data driven approaches, moving from the *-emic* to the *-etic* that allowed the analysis of patterns and themes as they emerged.

1.7 Theoretical Framework

Before exploring the *meanings* that were attached to elements of the leadership experience it was first necessary to identify those elements. Epitropaki and Martin (2004) offered a model of Implicit Leadership Theories based on that by Offerman *et al.* (1994) but with a reduced number of scale items and dimensions. I therefore chose to describe the Implicit Leadership Theories of the research participants against a backdrop offered by the above models, and then to explore the subjective meanings that the participants attributed to their experiences of leadership.

Further research led to theories of Attribution (Fiske & Taylor, 1984; 1991; and Fiske & Neberg, 1990), Social Cognition models (Brown and Lord, 2001; Lord, Brown and Harvey, 2001) and specifically the Leader Categorisation Theory of Lord, Foti, and Phillips (1982), and Lord, Foti, and de Vader (1984). This seemingly provided an explanation for *why* people possess Implicit Leadership

Theories, and *how* they worked. However, as discussed earlier it did not offer any description of how followers *feel* about the experience or indeed how those feelings are reflected in their behaviour.

I turned next to LMX Theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Schyns & Day, 2010a) to explore how cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects would impact on relationships, with Engle and Lord (1997) and Epitropaki and Martin (2005) being at the forefront of conceptualisations.

1.8 Scope and Limitations

This dissertation attempts to qualitatively explore the subjective meaning of *being led* through retrospective interpretations of the experience using focus groups to elicit descriptions of the Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) held by forty final year undergraduate Business and Management students undertaking Leadership modules at the University of Gloucestershire's Business School. The study further seeks to explore the impact of these ILT via an exploration of their cognitive processes, affective responses and behavioural intentions towards leadership-claimants particular under circumstances where their expectations are, or are not, met. Finally the study explores how the affective responses influence the quality of the relationship with the leadership-claimant using a framework based on LMX Theory.

It is recognised that there are potentially many areas where the research falls short due to limitations and constraints. In particular the lack of depth of study of participants' personality may be a limitation since many possible psychological antecedents (Parry & Meindl, 2002) are acknowledged but lay outside the scope of the current study. For example, issues of self and social identity (as second order constructs) appear to be dependent on inherent psychological precursors of ILT whose moderating or mediating effects on ILTs lay outside an exploration of *post hoc* behaviours and consequences. However, some consideration of these issues is provided within the Literature Review in order make it clear where the research sits in the larger leadership literature (see Chapter 2.3).

Likewise, excellent research that goes into great depth regarding the specifics of Implicit Leadership Theory and Leader-Member Exchange Theory also lay outside the scope of this study. For this reason there is no in-depth discussion of areas such as LMX Agreement/consensus (Schyns & Day, 2010b), group prototypes/leader prototypicality (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), nor the role of culture on ILTs (Den Hartog et al., 1999; Gerstner & Day, 1994; and House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). In regard to the latter, as this current study explores behavioural outcomes of ILT match/mismatch in a 'post-hoc' manner, the specific culture of individual participants is not considered relevant. However, it is valuable to note that the above named authors have identified those core traits and behaviours that are valued universally, as well as those that have increased or reduced salience depending on specific cultural contexts.

1.9 Structure and Content

In providing a 'road map' so readers can see (1) where we started from, (2) the context in which the journey is taking place, (3) where we are going to end up, and (4) the route taken to reach that final destination, the dissertation is structured along traditional lines.

The Literature Review (Chapter 2) first provides an overview of traditional leadership paradigms in order to set the context and situate the current research. This is followed by a review of literature on personality issues which are considered to be fundamental to an understanding of research into ILTs. Next, it turns to the central issue of Implicit Leadership Theory, with a critical analysis of the historical background and current research. Lastly, it explores literature related to Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory which provides the organisational behaviour 'lens' for this study.

The Methodology (Chapter 3) outlines the philosophical and theoretical approach used in this study together with a discussion of the assumptions made as a result of these. Issues of academic rigour and quality assurance are explored, as is the role of the researcher, followed by a discussion of research

ethics and a reflection on how prior knowledge, experience and attitudes that might impact on the role. Next, discussion turns to the *a priori* theoretical frameworks that guided analysis, as well as an outline of conceptual models that aided visualisation of the key themes. Finally, the chapter turns to the specifics of the research method used including data collection, transcription and coding together with details of the briefing/debriefing process for participants and co-facilitators

The Findings (Chapter 4) are initially presented in broad descriptive categories of Cognitive Processes, Affective States, and Behavioural intentions. These are then analysed in relation to issues of self-concept, their effect on the quality of the LMX relationship, and specific outcomes including job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee well-being.

The Discussion (Chapter 5) revisits the original aims of the research, and the research questions and objectives, before illustrating the revised conceptual model underlying visualisation of the core themes. Next it discusses the findings in relation to ILT/LMX theory before exploring further the impact of self-concept issues on organisational outcomes.

The Conclusions (Chapter 6) demonstrates how the research aims were met, research questions answered, and research objectives achieved. The validity of the research methodology employed is discussed with due attention to any weaknesses or limitations of the study. There is a further reflection on the role of researcher as well as a restatement of the contribution this research study makes to knowledge and professional practice. Finally, areas for future research are considered.

Chapter 2: Followers and Followership – A Review of the

“If leadership resides, at least in part, in the minds of followers, then it is imperative to discover what followers are thinking” (Lord and Emrich, 2001, p. 551).

Literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present a review of the current state of knowledge in relation to Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) with a view to gaining new insights by examining the interplay between the cognitive and affective components of ILTs. The more traditional format, using a narrative rhetorical style, has been chosen rather than a more systematic review because it is argued that this is more befitting the qualitative, interpretivist nature of the proposed research study. The review will explore the background and context of ILT research, as well as its links to other areas of research, and critically evaluate the literature in terms of key issues, methodologies, and assumptions (Fink, 2005; Hart, 2003, 2006; Leeson, Matheson & Lacey, 2011; Ridley, 2011; Rudestam & Newton, 2001).

The decision to undertake this particular piece of research was driven by a desire to understand how Implicit Leadership Theories affect perceptions of leader behaviours, and how that affects behaviour towards the person claiming the leadership role. A business leadership/organisational behaviour disciplinary ‘lens’ has been applied to the study of what is predominantly literature from the disciplines of psychology.

Firstly, the review will present background literature in relation to traditional leadership paradigms so as to situate the proposed study within the body of existing theory. This will be followed by an overview of personality factors which introduce perceptual biases, including an exploration of attribution theory and social cognition theory, which underpin concepts and theories within Implicit

Leadership Theory itself. As well as the cognitive explanations provided by the above some thought will be given to affective processes linked to theories of Self-Identity which impact on relationships with leadership claimants.

Secondly, there will be a more thorough exploration of research that underlies the main concepts of Implicit Leadership Theory with a discussion on the methodologies used, findings, and conclusions made.

Thirdly, research into the links between Implicit Leadership theories and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory will be explored in more detail in order to identify a gap and support the need for further research that might develop existing theory.

Finally, the discussions will be summarised, key findings highlighted and a recommendation made based on a perceived gap that the proposed study could address.

2.2 Traditional Leadership Paradigms

2.2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this section is to situate the literature on Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) within the wider body of leadership research and serves as a lead-in to the primary focus of the current study, *followership*. Beginning with a brief overview of the concept of leadership, we will look at a number of differing perspectives on the subject that I have referred to in roughly albeit overlapping chronological periods.

2.2.1 What is leadership?

While there are multiple definitions of leadership (Grint, 2000a, p.78) this study has adopted a definition of leadership offered by Kouzes and Posner (2007, p.24) in that “*Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow*” because it resonates with the objective of understanding how ‘choosing to follow’ makes people *feel*, or indeed why feeling in a certain way predisposes some people to adopt the follower role.

During the 20th Century leadership was conceived variously in terms of traits, behaviours, patterns of interaction, relationships between roles, the exercise of influence and persuasion, and power relationships that induced compliance (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1999). The last century of leadership theory (see Table 2.1, overleaf) has been divided into over-lapping eras, namely 'Great Man', 'Trait', 'Transactional' (incorporating behaviourist, situational and contingency periods) and the 'Transformational' era, which Bryman (1992) referred to as an era of 'New Leadership' (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1990; Northouse, 2013).

2.2.2 The Trait Era

Trait Theory contended that "*critical leadership traits could be isolated and that people with such traits could then be recruited, selected and installed into leadership positions*" (Bolden *et al.*, 2003, p.6). However, while key traits such as Intelligence, Self-Confidence, Determination, Integrity and Sociability recurred many of the studies, according to Yukl (2010, p.31) "*appeared inconclusive*".

The findings of Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959) led many to conclude that traits did not predict leadership although this seems to be a deliberate misreading, and subsequent misquotation, of the former's finding that "*A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits*" (Stogdill, 1948, p.64). Indeed the second half of the same sentence is generally entirely omitted since it continues "*... but the pattern of personal characteristics must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers*". Mann's subsequent findings (1959, cited by Northouse, 2013, p.21) suggested that "*personality traits could be used to distinguish leaders from non-leaders with identified strengths in six traits including intelligence, masculinity, adjustment, dominance, extraversion and conservatism*". Whilst both Stogdill and Mann tried to distance themselves from interpretations that were attributed to them, i.e. that traits were not associated (den Hartog *et al.*, 2007; Yukl, 2010, p.46), they both found unwilling audiences as a new social order ensued in which the conventional wisdom (Berger & Luckman, 1967;

Galbraith, 1985) ensured that such “*nuances and observations were lost in the shifting zeitgeist*” (Zaccaro, 2007, p.10/11).

Table 2.1: From 'Great Man' to 'Transformational Leadership'

Great Man Theories	Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term ‘man’ was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the school of Trait Theories
Trait Theories	The lists of traits associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life.
Behaviourist Theories	These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as ‘styles of leadership’. This area has probably attracted most attention from practising managers.
Situational Leadership	This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, while some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organisation.
Contingency Theory	This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances.
Transactional Theory	This approach emphasises the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of ‘contract’ through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers.
Transformational Theory	The central concept here is change and the role of leaders in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organisational performance.

(Source: Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dinneson, 2003, p.6)

2.2.3 The Transactional Era

During this period attention switched away from who leaders *were to* how leaders *behaved* in an attempt to identify skills that could be learned and developed. Leadership theories and management theories morphed into 'leadership and management theories', with the constituent terms becoming synonymous and interchangeable (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2007, p.697; Mullins, 2010, p.406; Yukl, 2010, p.24). Management processes were championed throughout this period (Tichy & Ulrich, 1984, p.60) but its focus on contractual exchanges (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p.218) left little room for issues of "*empowerment*" or "*pride*" and was described by Bass (1990, p.20) as "*a prescription for mediocrity*".

2.2.3.1 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

Differing from many of the theories that comprised the Transactional Period, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) placed the quality of the dyadic leader-follower relationship at the heart of effective leadership (Chemers, 2000, p.38; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Northouse, 2013, p.161). The LMX Theory proposed that leaders develop high-quality relationships with only a proportion of their 'followers', an important area of theory and practice, since close working relationships foster a range of positive outcomes including "*performance, job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation, and well-being*" (Lewis & Donaldson-Feilder, 2012, p.6). Schyns, Maslyn and Weibler (2010) specify multiple dimensions of LMX known as Contribution (carrying out work beyond what is contractually specified), Affect (friendship and liking), Loyalty (loyalty and a mutual sense of obligation), and Professional Respect (for ones professional capabilities). LMX has important overlaps with Implicit Leadership Theory since the congruence of follower Implicit Leadership Theories, and the Leaders' Implicit Follower Theories (IFTs), which describes the assumptions about the traits and behaviours that characterise followers seem to influence the quality of the relationship (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Shondrick & Lord, 2010; and Sy, 2010).

2.2.4 The 'New Leadership' Era

Zaleznik (1977, cited by Sadler, 2003, p.22) first proposed re-separating leadership and management, an idea further developed by Burns (1978), House (1977), Tichy and Ulrich (1984), Bass (1985), and Bennis and Nanus (1985). This signalled the beginning of Bryman's (1992) 'New Leadership' era.

2.2.4.1 Charismatic Leadership

House (1977), Bass (1985) and Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) returned to the charismatic leadership theories of Weber (1947) suggesting that charismatic leader's influence over followers is a result of "*enhanced trust in, identification with, acceptance of, and obedience to the leader due to heightened emotional involvement and a belief that they are personally contributing to the accomplishment of the mission*" (Yukl, 1999, p.293; Jackson and Parry, 2008, p.34; Grint, 2010, p.93). The re-emergence of trait-based theories of leadership gained momentum following the study by Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986) which undertook a meta-analysis of earlier leadership studies demonstrating that there *were* statistically significant links between leadership traits. This was supported by the subsequent publication of the Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) study, although authors such as Conger and Kanungo (1987; 1994; 1998) warned of the 'dark side of charisma'.

2.2.4.2 Transformational Leadership

Central to 'New Leadership' is the concept of transformational leadership, first coined by Downton (1973, cited by Northouse, 2013, p.186), whereby the leader seeks to tap into the motives of the followers. It achieved greater recognition through the works of House (1977) and Burns (1978), being developed further by Bass (1985, cited by Kets de Vries, 1997, p.253) who deemed it responsible for "*performance beyond expectations*". While House considered charismatic and transformational leadership to be synonymous (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p.455), Yukl envisaged the latter as a much broader construct (2010, p.287).

Research by Felfe and Schyns (2010) showed that the perception of transformational leadership was dependent on elements of the followers' personality including attitudes and beliefs, in line with Weber's earlier postulation (1925/1947) that it was the followers who confer charisma, a view already proffered by Conger and Kanungo (1987). Their research found that followers with high levels of extraversion and agreeableness perceived more transformational leadership whilst those high in neuroticism perceived less, demonstrating that followers' personalities influenced both perception and acceptance of the leader. Followers in the former category formed affective commitments to their supervisors which was absent in the latter. Followers with affective commitments stayed because they wanted to, the others stayed because they often saw little choice.

Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (1995) had previously criticised leadership research for its US-centric focus and its concern with the performance and behaviours of only top leaders. However, Edwards and Gill (2012) in a UK-based study, demonstrated that transformational leadership was equally effective across all hierarchical levels within organisations whilst transactional leadership was only effective at lower levels. This perhaps reflects that managers at those lower levels are "*more orientated towards steady workflow and having a greater focus on maintaining effective operations*" (*ibid.*, p.40) whilst senior managers are more focused on '*change*', '*creation*' and '*communication*'.

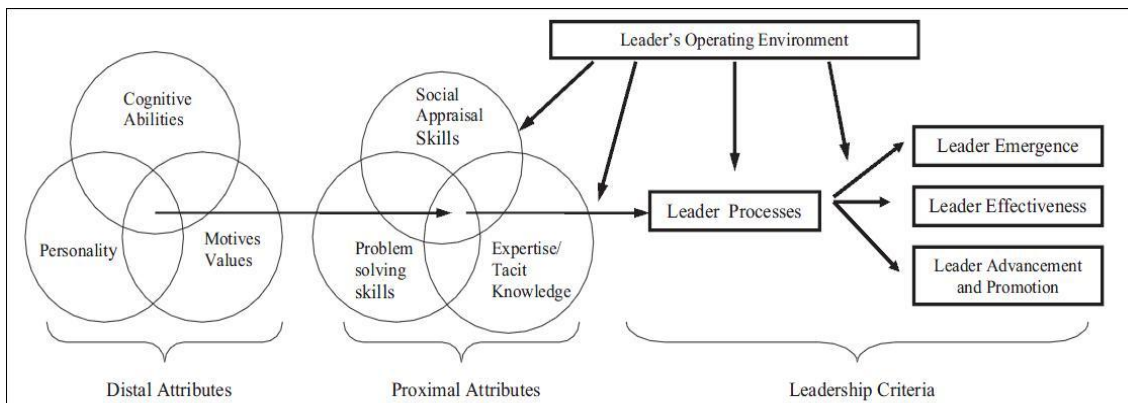
Many opponents of the New Leadership theories have expressed concerns at its 'Great Man' implications (Northouse, 2010, p.347; Western, 2008, p.174; Yukl, 2010, p.248) with criticisms focussing on issues of elitism and anti-democracy (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Examples include concern about it having a "*heroic leadership bias*" (Yukl, 1999 cited by Northouse, 2010, p.189), and being open to abuse by 'pseudo-transformationalist leaders' (Bass & Avolio, 1997, pp.93/4) who are "*self-concerned, self-aggrandising, exploitative, power-orientated ... with distorted utilitarian and moral principles*" (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2001, p.20 citing Bass, 1998). In relation to the issue of leader's values and motivations Zaccaro (2007) designed a model

(see figure 2.1, below) which explicitly includes a moral, ethical dimension to the leaders' personality. Likewise, Lord and Brown (2004, p.117) highlighted the importance of subordinate perceptions of leader values, with Ehrhart (2012, p.231) stating "*followers may actively choose a leader and decide to follow him or her, based on the extent to which the leader is perceived to represent their values and identities*".

2.2.4.3 A Model of Leader Attributes and Leader Performance

First proposed by Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader (2004) this model focuses on the traits and behaviours of the leader but allows for a separation of *Distal* attributes that are inherent in the personality and *Proximal* attributes that can be learned and developed (Antonakis, Day & Schyns, 2012). Furthermore it incorporates the motives and values of the leader (or at least the perceived motives and values) as a distal trait. Additionally it allows for situational and contextual variables that influence and differentiate between leader emergence, effectiveness and advancement (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Zaccaro, 2007; Zaccaro, 2012).

Figure 2.1: A Model of Leader Attributes and Leader Performance



(Source: Zaccaro, Kemp & Bader, 2004, p.122)

Also strongly linked to current thinking on effective leadership are the concepts of social intelligence (Lord & Brown, 2004; Zaccaro, 2007) and emotional intelligence (Ansari & Effendi, 2011; Bennis, 1989; and Higgs, 2003) whereby inter-personal and intra-personal components of the leader's personality

combine to “*determine whether and when followers invest their faith in a leader and open themselves up to the process of transformation*” (Reicher, Haslam and Hopkins, 2005, p 551).

2.2.5 Summary

In summarising the evolution of leadership theory within the last century it can be seen that early trait-based research appeared to be inconclusive because it failed to take into consideration a myriad of situational factors. In addition it was gender-centric since it assumed leaders, particularly great ones, were male. Later research, during the transactional era, focused on situational complexities in the hope of isolating particular behaviours so that would-be leaders could emulate them. However, while the essence of transactional leadership was ‘managing’, the essence of New Leadership is once more on ‘*leading*’ (Kakabadse & Kakabadse, 1999) and, having gone full circle, has returned to a focus on “*combinations of traits and attributes ... integrated with, and influenced by, situational parameters*” (Zaccaro, 2007, p.6).

Mainstream leadership theory continues to be leader-centric although there is a growing body of literature (Offerman, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994; Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) looking at the leadership from the perspective of the follower, although with a few exceptions (Lord & Brown, 2004) it focuses mainly on the cognitive processes involved. In a later section of this literature review we will investigate the literature on follower-centric leadership theories, but first we will look more closely at explanations for *why* and *how* followers attribute meanings to leader behaviours.

2.3 The Effects of Personality on Perceptions

2.3.1 Introduction

Most follower-centric research, such as Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs, Offerman, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), emanates from the disciplines of psychology each of which offer different explanations based on different approaches to research (Hayes, 2000, p.13). This section therefore

consists of an overview of the ways in which our personalities and cognitive processes affect our attributions of others, and biases our explanations of their behaviour.

2.3.1 Personality and Social Inference

Allport (1961, cited by Carver & Scheier, 2012, p.4) defines personality as a “*dynamic organisation, inside the person, of psychological systems that create the person’s characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts, and feelings*”.

Research into personality (Asch, 1946; Cattell, 1946, 1957, 1973; Costa & McCrae, 1985; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975; Digman, 1990; and Tupes & Christal, 1961) and the ‘Big 5 Personality Traits’ (Arnold, Sylvester & Randall *et al.*, 2010) formed the bases of Individual Difference theories which underpinned the resurgent interest in leadership traits. In addition, it was found (Felfe & Schyns, 2010) that the same personality traits in followers led to differences in their perception and acceptance of leaders.

Within the field of cognitive psychology Attribution Theory was a major strand that focused on how people explained the causes of their own and others behaviour (Calder, 1977; Hewstone, 1989; Shultz & Schleifer, 1983). However, Social Cognition is now the dominant perspective and deals with how cognitive processes and representations are constructed and influence behaviour (Hogg & Vaughan, 2011). We shall discuss both fields since I argue that they are not mutually exclusive because whilst Attribution Theory focuses on the *reason*, Social Cognition concentrates on the *processes* that help us “*perceive, organise, process and use information*” (Burger, 2011, p.405).

The basis of attribution theory might be summed up, in the words of Burke (1945, p.xv) as “*What is involved when we say what people are doing, and why they are doing it?*” While there are varied theoretical emphases within the body of Attribution Theory, the basic premise is that people *construct* explanations for human behaviour (Jones & Davis, 1965; and Kelley, 1967). In particular we make inferences about the causes of our own and other people’s behaviour via

a distinction between personal and situational causes (Heider, 1958, cited by Hogg & Vaughan, 2010, p.43; Hewstone, 1989, p.14; Jones *et al.*, 1972; Weiner, 1986) allowing us to make sense of events, often attributing success to our own actions and failure to that of others (Hewstone, 1989, pp.61/2).

One perspective presupposed that people are rational in their search for the causes of behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1983; Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1967). However, Fiske and Taylor (1984) argued that this was not what people actually *did*, but that we take short cuts to simplify complex processes, producing quick and adequate solutions, attributing causes based on automatic, cognitive processes, not available information (Hewstone, 1989, p.106). As far as the perceiver is concerned, a specific personality trait or disposition is responsible for an individual's behaviour (Jones & Davis, 1965, cited by Eiser, 1983, p.96). While Attribution Theory's conception of causality has been criticised for its overly simplistic focus (Hewstone, 1989, p.35) it does closely mirror the processes of Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs), which we will discuss later (see section 2.4, p.35).

A "cornerstone" of Social Cognition is the Cognitive Schema (Hayes, 2000, p.159/160; Hewstone, 1989, p.103) whereby people assimilate what they observe to pre-existing cognitive structures that "*represents knowledge about a concept or type of stimulus, including its attributes and the relations among those attributes*" (Bruner, 1957, cited by Hewstone, 1989, p.103). Once invoked a schema fills gaps in knowledge based on interrelated thoughts beliefs and attitudes that allow us to quickly make sense of a person, situation or event (Ajzen, 2005; Fiske & Taylor, 1984; Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Such knowledge is then applied via a process of categorisation (Rosch, 1978, cited by Hogg & Vaughan, 2010, p.32) with *prototypes* characterising the main attributes of the category (Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Wittgenstein, 1953) against which all further experiences are assessed (Hayes, 2000, p.38). A key component of Implicit Leadership Theory, known as Leadership Categorisation Theory (Lord, Foti, & de Vader, 1984), demonstrated the role of follower personality in using schema to provide cognitive short-cuts that enable automatic processing of data in relation to their leader categorisation processes.

2.3.2 Leader Categorization Theory

Formal ILT theory is largely based on the research of Lord and colleagues, which developed the concept of Leader Categorisation Theory (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987; Lord, 1985; Lord & Alliger, 1985; Lord, Foti & De Vader, 1984; Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982; Lord & Maher, 1991; Lord & Maher, 1993; Phillips & Lord, 1981; Rush, Thomas & Lord, 1977).

It was Lord, Foti, and Phillips (1982) who first argued that ILTs were a reflection of the structure and content of cognitive categories, which were used to distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Lord *et al.*, (1984) designed a series of experiments to directly test this categorization-based model of perception and made a distinction between prototypical (e.g. intelligence) and anti-prototypical leadership traits (e.g. authoritarian). It was proposed that the former were those traits positively associated with leadership, and that the latter were traits that were either negatively associated with leadership, or not associated at all.

ILTs are categorized within a hierarchy, at *superordinate*, *basic* and *subordinate* levels and we are able to differentiate not only between those who are leaders and those who are not, but distinguish between different types of leaders at different hierarchical levels (Lord, Foti, & De Vader; 1984; Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982) depending on the physical and social distance from, and frequency of interaction with that leader (Popper, 2012). If sufficient prototype related traits/behaviour are recognised in an individual the observer will automatically assign them to the leader category (Lord, Brown, & Harvey, 2001, p284) and will thereafter be influenced by what is (accurately or not) remembered about, or attributed to, 'the leader' (Hollander & Julian, 1969; Phillips & Lord, 1982).

Prototype matches, using leadership categorisation theory, are based upon schemas generated in childhood, parts of which are being continually regenerated (Keller, 2003). Indeed, by the time children enter school they can differentiate between leaders and non-leaders, and are able to articulate the factors that make them different (Ayman-Nolley & Ayman, 2005; Hunt, Boal, &

Sorenson, 1990; Schyns *et al.*, 2011, p.397; van Quaquebeke *et al.*, 2009, p.36).

Lord *et al.*, (1986, p.402) proposed that categorization theory, by specifying the content and process leading to the perception of leadership, provided an explanation for leadership emergence. However, a study by Lord and Maher (1993) suggested that effective leaders may also be using their knowledge of follower ILTs to guide their own behaviour, effectively self-monitoring in response to social cues (Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991). In terms of cognitive processing, categorisation precedes attribution (Lord & Cronshaw, 1987, p.104) particularly where 'priming' (Bargh & Pietromonaco, 1982) occurs, i.e. specific categories are given greater saliency (Taylor & Fiske, 1978) by virtue of recent or repeated access (Bargh & Pietromonaco, 1982, p.437). In such instances the stimulus behaviours, that is the actual behaviours of the leader, is effectively coded out of perceptions, and goes unrecognised. Leadership claimants who do not match the prototype can, in extreme cases, be considered "*illegitimate*" (Hunt, Boal & Sorenson, 1990. p.56) and follower efforts will often be at variance with that of the 'leader' and follower performances will decline as a result.

Schemas are extremely resilient, lending a sense of order, and coherence that is resistant to conflicting or disconfirming information, which is generally either ignored or reinterpreted (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1983; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990; Hayes, 2000). The more static view of schema change (Lord & Maher, 1991) allowed that changes do occur, albeit slowly (Rothbart, 1981, cited by Hogg & Vaughan, 2011, p.60). However, the connectionist model (Brown & Lord, 2001; Lord, Brown & Harvey, 2001) proposed that prototypes may vary across, and within, individuals based on the context and that both prototypes and schemas are far more dynamic than earlier research might suggest.

2.3.3 Followership and Self

While "*leadership perceptions might not be real*" (Lord & Maher, 1991, p.98) they do accord the followers with a degree of social power, and influence, since

their perceptions form the basis of future evaluation (Schyns, 2006b). Leader Prototypicality (Geissner, van Knippenberg, & Sleebos, 2008; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) also relates to perceptions of effectiveness based on a *likeness*, according to group norms, with leaders being evaluated as more effective if they conform to category expectations (Engle & Lord, 1997; Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Indeed Hogg (2001, cited by Collinson, 2005, p.179) demonstrated that leadership was “*contingent*” on the degree to which leaders were perceived as being ‘prototypical’ of the group’s identity.

While collective identity is central to issues of prototypicality, the individual and relational levels of self-identity (Lord & Brown, 2004; Schyns *et al.*, 2011) are also crucial to our self-concepts including our own social identity and self-esteem. According to van Knippenberg *et al.*, (2004, p.837) self esteem has been “*associated with key outcomes such as enhanced initiative, higher satisfaction, and greater happiness, and in several studies, positive correlations between self-esteem and job performance are reported*”. Tajfel (1972, p.292, cited by Hogg, 2003) conceptualised social identity as “*the individual’s knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership*”. Reicher, Haslam & Hopkins (2005, p.551) also state that leadership is about the “*relationship between leaders and followers within a group*” and that “*leadership is indeed contingent upon leaders being perceived to be prototypical of a social identity that they share with followers*” (*ibid.*, p.552). Whether the extreme levels of social identification envisaged by Hogg (2001) are to be seen within the context of the ‘normal’ workplace is a matter for debate, although one can see how this might be the case in organisations with strong in-group prototypicality such as the military.

The link between self-concepts, such as social identity, and followership seems clear (Hogg, 2001; Jackson & Johnson, 2012; Lord & Brown, 2004; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner *et al.*, 1987). Since leadership is based upon “*the existence of a shared social identity*”, there has to be an ‘us’ in the relational/collective sense, otherwise “*there can be no consensus for a leader to*

represent, and therefore leadership is impossible" (Reicher, Haslam and Hopkins, 2005, pp.563-564).

The way in which we categorise leaders is also linked to our individual attachment styles, theory in this area initially focused on research into the bonding between infant and caregiver but has more recently expanded to study the different ways that adults make connections with people close to them (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010, p.301). The need to affiliate, to belong, is often intrinsic to our self-identify and self-confidence. Much research on adult behaviour in relationships is closely linked to the study of human social development during infancy with Hazan and Shaver (1987; 1990) identifying attachment styles such as Secure, Avoidant and Anxious. Secure adults find it easier to get close to others and to enjoy affectionate and long-lasting relationships. Avoidant adults report discomfort in getting close to others and their relationships are hampered by jealousy and a lack of disclosure. Anxious adults tend to fall in love easily, but their subsequent relationships are full of emotional highs and lows, and they were more often unhappy (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983). This same model could well apply to other forms of relationship including work-based ones. Consider for instance that, as with other schema, our ideal image of a partner develops over time and predates current relationships. How well someone matches our ideal image, and is therefore categorised as a potentially good mate, has a strong impact on perceptions of satisfaction in that relationship (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010, p.313).

2.3.4 Cognitive Biases

We tend to use schema where a rapid decision is needed, often in periods of uncertainty, but also in circumstances where careful deliberation is *not* considered necessary (Hewstone, 1989, p.60). Illusory associative meanings and expectations lead us to over-estimate the degree of correlation, or even to see one where none exists (Hayes, 2000, p.150; and Hogg & Vaughan, 2010, p.41). We are also prone to the 'fundamental error' of making dispositional attributions even when there are clear external causes (Pettigrew, 1979; Ross, 1977). However, Jaspars, Hewstone and Fincham (1983, p.27) and Ichheiser

(1943, p.151, cited by Hewstone, 1989, p.8) argue that this is conditioned into us as part of our socialisation and that self-serving biases *require* us to attribute personal or in-group success to internal factors and failures to some external cause (Carver & Scheier, 2012).

2.3.5 Summary

The concept of the cognitive schema deals with the knowledge that someone holds, and attributions are the means by which people apply that knowledge (Fiske & Taylor, 1983, cited by Hayes, 2000, p.477). Attributions and the cognitive processes that drive them are a key element of our Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) and affect “*our attitudes towards other persons and our reactions to their behaviour*” (Kelley & Michela, 1980, p.489 cited by Jaspars, Hewstone & Fincham, 1983, p.31).

While our Leadership Categorisation processes drive how we perceive, or even recognise leaders, there is also evidence that the leader prototype contains elements of the Idealised Self (Keller, 1999, 2003; Lord & Brown, 2004; Schynes & Felfe, 2008) and therefore our ILTs are intimately bound up with issues of attachment, social identity, self-esteem and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1994, 1997; Ehrhart, 2012, p.237; Felfe, 2005, p.207; Haslam, Reicher & Platow, 2011; Lord & Brown, 2004; Schoel, Bluemke, Mueller & Stahlberg, 2011, van Knippenberg *et al.*, 2004).

Schema use enables rapid decision making, but entails biases that lend themselves to making erroneous dispositional attributions even in the face of evidence to the contrary, especially when seeking meaning in personal or in-group success, or out-group failure. In the following section we will look more closely at the specific concepts that comprise Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) and explore research in this area including a brief discussion of their methodologies, findings and conclusions.

2.4 Implicit Leadership Theories: In the eye of the Beholder

2.4.1 Introduction

This section of the review will now discuss literature on the content and measurement of ILTs, and then offer a more detailed exploration of the literature that synthesises Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) and Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX).

2.4.1 Background

Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) involve a sense making process (Weick, 2003) that *“begins with social perception, progresses through causal judgements and social inference, and ends with behavioural consequences”* (Crittenden, 1983, p.426). Generally credited to Eden and Leviatan (1975), who conceived of an ‘implicit organization theory’, but overlapping with Norman & Goldberg’s (1966) ‘Implicit Personality theory’ and research conducted by Hollander & Julian’s (1969) and Schneider (1973), ILTs have been variously defined as the *“evaluations people make about leaders and the cognitive processes underlying evaluations and perceptions of leadership”* (House & Aditya, 1997, pp. 416/7) or the *“image that a person has of a leader in general or of an effective leader”* (Schyns & Meindl, 2005, p.21). Our ILTs help to explain both other people’s behaviour and our reactions to them (Schyns *et al.*, 2011, p.398; Sy, 2010, p.73).

Whereas trait theory attempted to identify the observable characteristics and behaviours of a leader, so that those with the required characteristics can be selected and trained (Shamir, 2007) Implicit Leadership Theory focuses on the perceptual attributions of the follower. Empirical studies reveal that individuals have ‘implicit leadership schemas’ that specify the prototypical and ideal leadership attributes held about a potential leader (Avolio *et al.*, 2003, p.281; Bryman, 2004; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005; Lord & Emrich, 2001) and that they are an *“inherent, implicit part of the sense making process”* (Lord, 2005, p.x).

Research into Implicit Leadership Theories falls into three broad categories (see Figure 2.2, overleaf). The research carried out as part of the current study fits mainly within the Information Processing stream (Stream 2) as it shares similarities of purpose in discovering how follower's ILTs shape their perception of leaders, and how ILTs affects organisations. Establishing how follower perceptions are shaped, and why these perceptions influence behaviour also overlaps with research contained in Streams One and Three.

2.4.2 Implicit Leadership Theory

Lord and Maher (1991) state that people use their Implicit Leadership Theories to interpret behaviour, and that they form the bases upon which superiors are evaluated in the workplace, even if those evaluations are based on faulty information (Engle & Lord, 1997). It has been suggested that the 'degree of fit' or congruence between perceiver ILTs and leader's actual, or even perceived, behaviour will affect the degree to which followers will even accept attempts at leadership (Schyns, 2006a). As stated by van Vugt, Hogan and Kaiser (2008, p.182) leadership, in the wider sense, involves a "*choice to initiate, and the choice to follow*".

While much ILT research examines the congruence between follower ILTs and perceived leader behaviours (Avolio *et al.*, 2003; Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Hansbrough, 2005; Lord & Maher, 1993; Offerman, Kenedy & Wirtz, 1994) it is known that ILTs are formed through exposure to socialisation processes and interpersonal interactions during childhood - via media, parents, peer groups/social networks, teachers, youth activities, etc, (Cantor & Mishcel, 1979; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Kenney *et al.*, 1996; Lord, Brown & Harvey, 2001; Nye, 2005; Nye & Forsythe, 1991).

Figure 2.2: Streams of Research in Implicit Leadership Theory
(Source: adapted from Schyns & Meindl, 2005)

<p><u>Stream One: Content/Factor</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The study of the traits, behaviours and attitudes which comprise individual theories (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Gerstner & Day, 1994; House & Aditya, 1997; Lord <i>et al.</i>, 1984; Offerman, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994).• Variable- and Pattern-Oriented Approaches to Studying ILTs (Den Hartog <i>et al.</i>, 1999; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; House <i>et al.</i>, 2004; Keller, 2003). <p><u>Stream Two: Information Processing</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Performance cue effect (the tendency for leaders to be rated as more effective when raters are told that the leader is successful, (e.g., Lord, Binning, Rush & Thomas, 1978; Shondrick & Lord, 2010).• How perceiver's ILTs shape their perception of leadership (Shamir <i>et al.</i>, 1993)• How ILTs affect organizations (Nye & Forsyth, 1991).• Prototypes and Categorization (automatic processing, (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996; Lord <i>et al.</i>, 1984) and that individuals tend to attribute leader behaviors to dispositional (internal) rather than situational (external) factors.• Categorisation, ILT, sense-making and the effects of adaptive resonance theory (ART) on episodic memory (Shondrick & Lord, 2010) <p><u>Stream Three: Development, prediction and generalisability of ILTs</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Child-parent relationships (Hall & Lord, 1995) and childhood experiences model of ILTs (Antonakis & Dalgas, 2009; Ayman-Nolley & Ayman, 2005; Hunt <i>et al.</i>, 1990)• Attachment theory (Keller, 1999)• Evidence that ILTs of those with workforce experience and those without do not differ significantly, age is not statistically relevant, ILT are stable over time, and that there is no relationship based on organisational tenure (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offerman <i>et al.</i>, 1994; Singer, 1990).• No evidence for distinction between male and female ILTs (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) ... although (<i>not statistically significant</i>) women tend to prefer relationship-based behaviours while men focus on task-based behaviours.• Cross-cultural studies (Bryman, 1987; Den Hartog <i>et al.</i>, 1999; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).
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Offermann, Kennedy, and Wirtz (1994) developed measures to assess the content and factor structure of ILTs with reference to three separate stimuli: leaders, effective leaders, and supervisors. Their findings indicated that ILTs fell into a 41-item scale based on eight broad dimensions which they dubbed: sensitivity, dedication, tyranny, charisma, attractiveness, masculinity, intelligence, and strength. As with Lord *et al.*, (1984) the eight dimensions were divided between prototypical and anti-prototypical, with tyranny and masculinity in the latter category. Factor analysis showed no statistically significant

differences between undergraduate and working samples, offering support for the same factor structures existing within the working population.

Generalisability studies (Bryman, 1987) found no statistically significant difference between US and British samples in terms of ILT content or structure, nor did Singer (1990) find any variation between ILT results for student and working samples. Other research shows that the ILTs of those with workforce experience and those without do not differ significantly (Ehrhart, 2012), nor was age a statistically significant factor. ILTs are stable over time, resistant to change, and there is no relationship based on organisational tenure (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994; Singer, 1990). Likewise no evidence exists for a distinction between male and female ILTs albeit that there is a tendency, although not a statistically significant one, for women to prefer relationship-based behaviours while men focus on task-based behaviours (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offerman *et al.*, 1994). National culture can influence leader prototypes, and therefore leader evaluations, since followers from different cultures expect different behaviours, and are guided by different prototypes (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999; House *et al.* 1997 and House *et al.*, 2004). This is consistent with psychological theories of social conditioning (Hewstone, 1989, p.8; Jaspars, Hewstone & Fincham, 1983, p.27).

Epitropaki and Martin (2005, p.659) questioned the ecological validity of early experiments since the majority of them were undertaken in laboratory settings and had focused mainly on issues of content and measurement. This means that our understanding of how ILTs operate in an organisational setting are limited, with even Phillips and Lord (1981, p.39) admitting to being unsure about the effect of ILT on leadership measurements in non-laboratory settings, perhaps impacting on the generalisability of the findings of the original experiments.

ILT trait lists also tend to be very long, with the Schein Descriptive Index (SDI) having 92 items (Schein, 1973), Lord *et al.*'s (1984) scale having 59 items, and the Offerman *et al.* (1994) consisted of 41 items. Epitropaki and Martin (2004, p.294) thought this problematic in terms of further exploration in work settings

and in an attempt to minimise respondents' workloads, set about designing a shorter version which ultimately consisted of 21-items over 6 sub-scales. Schyns and Schilling (2011) also critique Offerman *et al.*, (1994) in terms of the assumed link between ILT and effectiveness noting that since leaders are seen as being responsible for success and failure (Meindl, Ehrlich & Dukerich, 1985; Bligh, Kohles & Pillai, 2011) then ILT content may not be exclusively about effective leadership or ineffective leadership – it is just about leadership. The assumption that the research findings were about effective or ideal leadership attributes therefore may not be borne out by the data (Schyns & Schilling, 2011, p.4). The use of prototypical and anti-prototypical concepts has also been critiqued (*ibid.*, p.10) on the basis that the latter are *not* traits that are negatively perceived as belonging to leaders – they are traits that are perceived to be negative, but which *are* associated with leaders. In essence they are all prototypical, but some are not highly regarded, in which case perhaps then our expectations of leaders are not quite so “*romantic*” as Meindl *et al.*, (1985) may have supposed.

Mirroring criticisms of the static entity concept of traditional ILT theory (Lord & Emrich, 2001, p.561) Epitropaki and Martin (2004, p.295) speak positively of the connectionist model advanced by Brown and Lord (2001) and Lord, Brown and Harvey (2001, p.284), which suggests that prototypes may vary across, and within, individuals based on the context with prototypes, and schemas, being “*regenerated rather than merely retrieved*”. However, they do not address this within their study but rather employ the older static model.

2.4.3 The link between Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory

The central concept of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory is that “*leadership occurs when leaders and followers are able to develop effective relationships that result in incremental influence*” (Uhl-Bien, 2006, p.656) and centres on the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers (Northouse, 2013, p.161; Schyns & Day, 2010a, p.1) and differentiations between relationships with different followers (*ibid.*, 2010b, p.253). Schyns, Maslyn and

Weibler (2010) specify multiple dimensions of LMX known as Contribution (carrying out work beyond what is contractually specified), Affect (friendship and liking), Loyalty (loyalty and a mutual sense of obligation), and Professional Respect (for ones professional capabilities). An understanding of this relationship is important because it impacts on a number of job-related outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance appraisals, role clarity, organisational commitment (Avolio, Sosik, Jung & Berson, 2003; Engle & Lord, 1997, p.989; Hunt *et al.*, 1990).

Engle and Lord (1997) carried out research to examine the link between liking, perceived attitudinal similarity (that is *prototypicality*), implicit performance theories (that is the traits and behaviours associated with 'good workers'), the congruence of implicit leadership theories, and their effects on the quality of Leader-Member Exchanges (LMX). The study, a field-based cross-sectional survey, may have suffered in terms of subordinate responses as, while it achieved a 66% return, one-quarter of these were unusable. Supervisor responses, however, were 100% due to data being collected face-to-face during a training event, although whether this might have skewed the data is unclear.

The study revealed strong correlations between liking, perceived attitudinal similarities, and LMX, but noted that the congruence of ILT did not predict subordinate liking or LMX rating. Congruence was therefore not critical although Ehrhart (2012) suggested congruence would facilitate understanding and improve social interactions. Subordinates with normative performances were better liked and had higher quality exchanges with their leaders while subordinates with negative affectivity were less liked and had lower LMX quality. An interpretation made of this was that "*perceptions of similarity lead an individual to identify with the other dyadic members and produce an affective reaction that has a direct effect on social relationships*" (Engle & Lord, 1997, p.1004) therefore "*cognitive factors influence liking, which in turn affects LMX*" (*Ibid.*, p.1005).

When explaining the role of ILTs in dyadic relationships such as the LMX Engle and Lord (1997, p.991) found that once categorisation occurred, it was difficult

to change initial impressions. Indeed “*the nature of an exchange relationship is often based on an initial impression*” with (*ibid.*, citing Gioia, Thomas, Clark & Chittipeddi, 1994) “*the interpretation of behaviour, not behaviour per se, impacting on the leadership relationship*”. What is not clear, because Engle and Lord (1997) appear to shy away from the centrality of affective reactions, is whether the affective reaction is a response to a cognitive process, or vice versa, or whether it is a dynamic process with each influencing the other. Employee’s ILTs are also stressed in relation to their impact on the quality of leader-member exchanges (LMX) and follower “*perceptions of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and well-being*” (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005, p.659).

Epitropaki and Martin (2005) linked the increased quality-of-relationship to heightened follower satisfaction and reduced turnover. Their study additionally looked at situational variables such as relationship duration and job demands that might have acted as intervening variables. Lastly, they included a longitudinal component, contrasting with the cross-sectional nature of the Engle and Lord (1997) study, to examine reciprocal effects and to clarify the direction of causality. The study (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005) found that the closer the ‘match’ between the employees’ perceptions of leadership and the managers’ (leaders’) actual behaviours, the better the reported quality of LMX. However, they found that whereas there was a significantly negative impact where behaviour was perceived to be divergent from the prototype elements of the follower’s ILT, there was no corresponding positive impact in the case of divergence from anti-prototypical elements. These prototype and anti-prototype differences were also only indirectly related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction and well-being through LMX (*Ibid.*, p.670) and there were no statistically significant differences in relation to job demands or duration of relationship (*Ibid.*, p.671). The study reported a “*persistence of categorical thinking over time*”, with no evidence of reciprocal effects over time, meaning that it was ILTs that affected LMX and not the other way around (*Ibid.*, p.672).

Further research by Volmer *et al.*, (2011, p.527) found that while much previous research focused on LMX as a predictor of job satisfaction, they found that the converse applied, perhaps because “*satisfied employees show greater activity*

in seeking and engaging in social situations". Happy employees perform better on interpersonal tasks, are more effective in conflict situations and are judged to be stronger performers due to their "*attitude-engagement*" (*ibid*, p.528, citing Harrison, Newman and Roth, 2006, p.320) which reciprocates the relationship "*by favourable behaviours which benefit the leader*". However, a limitation of this study was that it only investigated the employee perception of the relationship so there is no evidence to assume that their supervisors shared their enthusiasm. The study allowed for the possibility that LMX may have "*a stronger effect on job satisfaction for people with a strong affiliation motive or for highly agreeable people*" (*ibid.*, p.537). According to Falkenburg and Schyns (2007, p.710) while there is relative "*consensus on the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and commitment*" there is still considerable debate regarding the direction of that relationship with some considering job satisfaction as an antecedent of commitment, others considering the opposite, and still others viewing it as a reciprocal relationship.

Epitropaki and Martin (2005, p.673) admit to limitations in the way self-reported perceptual measures were used with the inherent possibility of bias, although they reported that steps had been taken to mitigate this. The study is important in that it links ILT and LMX theory, but it also only looked at the LMX from the perspective of the employee, which is an issue when studying such work-based relationships. Additionally, the study omitted discussion of follower self-identity (Jackson & Johnson, 2012; Lord *et al.*, 1999) which might have made important contributions to our understanding of cognitive, affective and behavioural components of the leader-follower dyad. The sample size for new employees was too small, so meaningful analyses of how ILTs influence early-stage LMX remain unanswered.

Although it is not mentioned explicitly in the study there seems to be an assumption by the researchers that *leaders* utilize their own ILTs as part of their role, making adjustments to their behaviors (e.g., Lord & Maher, 1993) or personality (e.g., Hansbrough, 2005). The study (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), like that by Engle and Lord (1997) makes use of the ILTs of both superior and subordinate and seems to infer that because they *like* the same kind of leaders,

then this must form the basis of the LMX relationship. However, Sy's (2010) research into Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs), using many of the same sources, offers an alternative explanation with a focus on the expectations that leaders have of followers' behaviour and attributes, which seems to overlap with earlier research by Engle and Lord (1997).

According to recent research (Antonakis, Day and Schyns, 2012, p.648; Richards & Hackett, 2012, p.686) attachment styles such as anxiety or avoidance on the part of subordinates and supervisors negatively predicted LMX quality. Similarly high anxiety or avoidance *"coupled with low reappraisal or suppression (emotional regulation) were associated with the lowest levels of LMX quality"* which may support findings by Fisk and Friesen (2012) that showed that while deep-acting (well intentioned faking) by supervisors was positively associated with job satisfaction for those in low-quality LMX, surface-acting (in bad faith) negatively affected individuals in high-quality relationships. However, this surely conflicts with the concept of Authentic Leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009; Ladkin, 2010) where being genuine and not acting in a manipulative way are seen as being central (Higgs, 2003, p.278). As with all true relationships, both parties come to know each other sufficiently that they know when the other is 'faking it' and will attribute reasons for such behaviour, sometimes positively, but often negatively. Faking it seems a poor foundation for a relationship which allegedly seeks to develop *"trust, respect and mutual obligation"* (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

While LMX theory is strong on explaining what *is*, it often falls short of explaining the relative importance of the factors, and there is very little description of how the process starts (Northouse, 2013, p.170) for example, how do you build the trust, respect and obligation? ILT might indicate that it starts at the pre-cognitive level and factors that allow trust, respect and obligation to develop may be unconscious. Northouse (2013, p.172) also asks, because current research does not provide an answer, how contextual factors such as work place norms and organisational culture affect LMX. Lastly, there is the issue of measurement, with multiple studies using different scales at different levels of analysis (Avolio, *et al.*, 2003, p.286) making comparison

difficult and raising questions about the content validity and dimensionality of scales. The use and misuse of levels of analysis in leadership research was demonstrated by Gooty and Serban *et al.*, (2012) who drew attention to the potential for misalignment between theory, measurement and/or analysis particularly in relation to research on LMX and offered a framework whereby LMX could be studied at the individual, dyad and group level (*ibid.*, p.1084). In their study 67% of cases “*analysed data at a different level of analysis than what their theoretical development implied or explicitly stated*” (*ibid.*, p.1095) including those by Engle and Lord (1997), Epitropaki and Martin (2005) and Volmer, Spurk and Niessen (2012) all of which exhibited a misalignment of level of theory, hypotheses, measurement and analysis.

There are also many common method biases in behavioural research (Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Lee, 2003, p.882) and, while quantitative methodologies have remedies for dealing with these, qualitative research into ILTs surely has to embrace these biases not merely as a source of error, but as a source of data that is central to the phenomenon itself (Offerman *et al.*, 1994, p.56). The web of implicit theories, illusory correlations, attributions, and mood states produce specific behaviours and have direct impacts on work-place relationships. For a qualitative researcher these do not represent unwanted artefacts but rich veins in need of exploration.

2.4.4 The need for meaning

Leadership research is predominantly quantitative, dominated by the self-administered questionnaire (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 2000), and wedded to the experimental design, which does not connect well to qualitative inquiry (Bryman, 2004). It is often characterised by the “*input-output model in which the researcher is orientated to the impacts of leadership or to the factors that influence how leaders behave, or what kinds of people become leaders*” (Lowe & Gardner, 2000, cited by Bryman, 2004, p.743), there is only marginal interest in the implications, what it *means*, and this is also characteristic of existing ILT research.

Qualitative methods in leadership research is rare (Bryman, Stephens, & Campo, 1996, cited by Avolio *et al.*, 2003, p.288) and is frequently done as an addendum to quantitative measures, or as a stepping stone to 'proper science' such as in the otherwise excellent qualitative study carried out by Schyns and Schilling (2011, p.19) which all but apologised for the fact that its sample was too small to generalise. This is perhaps a clear example of the positivist notion that qualitative research is a "*hand-maiden*" whose findings require to be followed up using more "*rigorous methods*" (Bryman, 2004, p.764). Where more qualitative studies are being carried out (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009) they often exhibit "*strong realist overtones ... deductive reasoning*" (Bryman, 2004, p.755) and such research hardly differs from quantitative research in terms of fundamental epistemological and ontological assumptions (Alvesson, 1996, p.456).

While decades of empirically tested peer-reviewed research recognises the role of followers' cognitive and perceptual processes, offering a detailed analysis of their formation, structure, content and influences on behaviour it pays little heed to organisational practice (Avolio *et al.*, 2003; Schyns & Meindl, 2005). Moreover, while considerable progress has been made in the theory and measurement of cognitive processes, similar research areas in regard to affective processes have been all but ignored (Lord & Brown, 2004, p.126). Therefore, I contend that current theories and models do not fully address "the need for *meaning*" (Gill, 2011, p.98, citing Kibby & Hartel, 2003).

2.5 Summary

The aim of this literature review was to explore the current state of knowledge in relation to Implicit Leadership Theories and to examine the key issues, methodologies and assumptions by applying an organisational behaviour 'lens' to concepts and theories that emanate from the disciplines of psychology.

Implicit Leadership Theory focuses on the social context of leadership and specifically on the traits and behaviours that followers expect of leaders. These follower perceptions are based on a cognitive categorization process where the perceived attributes of a potential leader are matched against a prototype. The

better the match, the more likely it is that the person will be perceived as a leader (Schyns, Kiefer, Kerschreiter & Tymon, 2011), and the more likely it is that they will be evaluated better in terms of their leadership effectiveness. Conversely, negative interactions based on the leaders' perceived lack of match will impact on evaluations made by subordinates resulting in poor LMX relationships leading to decreased satisfaction, increased employee turnover, and negative impacts on the success of the organisation.

After more than thirty years of empirical research, the majority of the literature has been quantitative, deductive and objectivist. Indeed although there is an increasing body of qualitative literature in the field of leadership, much of it continues to exhibit the same positivist epistemological and ontological assumptions. While I accept the objective reality of traits, and ILTs, the area of interest of this study is the subjective perception of that reality by the follower. There seems to be a paucity of evidence regarding what the contents of follower's ILTs *mean* to those involved. Why are they important *to them*? My research aims to fill a perceived gap by conducting qualitative interpretivist research, informed by a critical realist perspective, into what participants' Implicit Leadership Theories *mean* to them. The proposed study aims to contribute to a greater understanding of Implicit Leadership Theory by focusing on the subjective meaning to the perceiver, how that affects their behaviour, and what the implications are at the individual level for Leader-Member exchanges.

Chapter 3: Methodology

“The concept of leadership can be understood only through understanding the meaning of the concept for those involved in this form of social action”

(Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.17 citing Grint, 2000).

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the research design process and the methods employed during data collection as part of my research into the effects of Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs). In addition to an exploration of the process itself, I have reflected throughout on my role as a researcher.

Firstly, I begin by setting out my philosophical approach, along with an explicit acknowledgement of the assumptions I bring to the project, and a discussion of some of the approaches that have influenced my thinking. This is followed by an exploration of quality issues in qualitative research where I set out my evaluation criteria, and again address the issue of reflexivity.

Secondly, returning to the issue of prior assumptions I make explicit reference to my own experiential knowledge, which leads in to a brief exploration of the theoretical frameworks that guide my research, and the conceptual frameworks that I have developed as part of my own sense-making.

Thirdly, I turn to the Method section itself with an account of how I went about planning the Focus Groups, and the procedures followed during the collection of the data.

Fourthly, this chapter details the process by which the data was transcribed, coded and analysed.

Finally, I offer a summary of the process together with some brief reflections on it before moving on to more fully present the findings.

3.2 Approaches, Assumptions and Influences

This study adopts a critical realist stance (Sullivan, 2010, p.30) combined with an interpretative approach (Creswell, 2007, p.20; Crotty, 1998, p.49; Fisher, 2007, p.20; Mason 2002, p.56) which allows for interpretations linked to Weber's thoughts on *Verstehen* or understanding (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2006, p.60; Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.16/17). Whilst such "*philosophical underpinnings can be overstated, and not everything is so suffused*" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.4; Bryman, 2012) it is important to recognise that as a researcher I bring my own "*worldviews, paradigms, or sets of beliefs to the research project*" (Creswell, 2007, p.15; Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.107) and so I choose to make my own assumptions explicit. Interpretivism as an epistemology is "*perfectly compatible with realism in ontology*" (Crotty, 1998, p.64) since it recognises "*the reality of the natural order*" and allows for the seeking of understanding of the subjective meanings of our experiences, negotiated via social interaction, and influenced by the historical and cultural norms that operate in our lives (Creswell, 2007, p.20).

The importance of recognising, and making explicit, our own role and position in relation to the research cannot be understated "*partly to assert ownership, and partly to recognise the possible limitations, influences and biases of your own perspective*" (Blaxter *et al.*, 2006, p.219). Although, within qualitative research, researcher influence is not always seen as a source of bias that might "*undermine the validity and reliability of results*" (King & Horrocks, 2010, p.21) there still has to be some consideration of the contribution made to the construction of meaning since our own beliefs, experiences, values, and identities will have an impact on the research (Denscombe, 2003, p.268; Mason, 2002, pp.38-9).

Whilst attempting to "*bracket out preconceptions*" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.18) and gain access to people's "*common-sense thinking*" (*Ibid.* citing Bagodan and Taylor, 1975, p.13/4; Hughes & Sharrock, 1997, p.123) I am attempting to place my interpretation within a social scientific frame "*in terms of the concepts, theories and literature of the discipline*" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.19). The study

is therefore not exclusively inductive, but rather takes an abductive approach (Blaikie, 1993, p.162; Crang, 2003, p.132) whereby the analysis and interpretation are guided equally by themes arising from the data and by *a priori* knowledge of existing theoretical frameworks.

Whilst influenced by aspects of qualitative traditions such as phenomenology (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; Moustakas, 1994) and Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (Shaw, 2010, p.177) I am conscious of a personal bias that eschews metaphysical concerns and “*asserts that we need to stop asking questions about reality and the laws of nature*” (Creswell, 2007, p.23 citing Cherryholmes, 1992). Therefore whilst this study shares a common goal of understanding the meaning of people’s experiences of a phenomenon (Maxwell, 2005, p.75) it is not phenomenological in the philosophical sense. As Maxwell (2005, p.36/7) states, it is not necessary to adopt a single tradition, but rather to find a paradigmatic ‘fit’ that best suits our own assumptions and preferences. I therefore focus on an understanding of the meaning of the phenomenon (King & Horrocks, 2010, p.14) as accessed via experiences rather than being focused on the *Essence* of the experience itself. Indeed I see *understanding* as a stepping stone that allows further exploration of the consequences for behaviour in organisational settings.

3.3 Issues of quality in Research

Qualitative research offers opportunities for analyses that are grounded in the data, rich in detail, tolerant of ambiguity and contradiction, and allow for alternative explanations (Denscombe, 2003, p.280 citing Maykut & Morehouse 1994, p.34). However, samples may not be representative, interpretations can be overly subjective, and the very process of coding and categorizing can de-contextualise the very meanings we seek. How then can we ensure the validity of our interpretations? Interpretation clearly should not be seen as “*implying less analytical rigour*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2012 citing Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). Indeed it allows for the creation of interpretive, conceptual and analytical categories that respect “*the complexity of a concept, and the context in which it was produced*” (Mason, 2002, p.158).

For evaluation purposes the criteria developed by Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited by Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.398; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.277) have been adopted, namely *Credibility* (internal validity/authenticity), *Transferability* (external validity), *Dependability* (internal reliability) and *Confirmability* (external reliability). In order to meet these criteria the study will include explicit accounts of the aims and basic premises, how undertaken and the reasoning behind key decisions made (Blaikie, 1993, p.6; Mason, 2002, p.18; Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p.256) thus can be considered 'reliable' in terms of the "*audit trail*" described by Denscombe (2003, p.274 citing Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.319). Likewise, the conclusions made will attempt to do justice to the complexity of the phenomenon being investigated and will offer internal consistency.

My own role as researcher is recognised and reflexivity employed throughout in order to understand sources of potential bias such as reactivity (Maxwell, 2005, p.108; Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p.91). Samples have been chosen on explicit and reasonable grounds (see section 3.7, p.56), and alternative possible explanations will be explored (Maxwell, 2005, p.107; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.274). The initial coding phase described here involved a cross-checking process with focus group co-moderators (PhD students), and research findings were fed back to informants to enable respondent validation (Gibbs, 2007, p.95; Klenke, 2008, p.43; Mason, 2002, p.192; Maxwell, 2005, p.111).

There *is* a fit between Research Questions, and method which ensures that the data is both appropriate, and appropriately handled (Richards & Morse, 2007, p.81), and that findings fit with existing knowledge as the study seeks to describe, explore and explain (in a non-causal manner). A major influence in deciding to offer an element of explanation, rather than merely sticking to description and exploration, was a quote by Mason (2002, p.7) who states "*presenting data but leaving questions of its generality or wider application for the audience to decide is dishonest and unsatisfactory ... it implies the researcher has no authorial presence, and that data are raw commodities*". I interpreted this as meaning that my research *meant* something, and if it meant something then sharing the understanding of that meaning constituted an explanatory process, at least at a theoretical level. So, while there may be a

“*wider resonance*” (Mason, 2002, p.7) and “*face generalisability*” (Maxwell, 2005, p.115) there is no assertion that the findings are ‘generalisable’ beyond the study. However, the findings will satisfy the notions of validity, both internal and external, and may therefore have some generalisability albeit that this would be theoretical not empirical (Mason, 2002, p.195). There is a hope that the findings may “*provide a springboard for further research, or allow links to be forged with existing findings in another area*” (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.190).

3.4 Research Ethics

According to Sapsford & Jupp (2006, p.293) research ethics “*need to be addressed throughout the whole life of a research project and not just at the outset*”. Issues to be considered and addressed include principles such as harm to participants, lack of informed consent, invasion of privacy, and deception. Additionally other ethical and legal considerations are given to data management, copyright, reciprocity and trust as well as conflicts of interest (Bryman & Bell, 2011, pp.122-143; King, 2010, pp.108-118; Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp.288-297; Silverman, 2011, pp.87-110).

Due attention has been paid to Bryman and Bell (2011, p.128; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.292) in relation to assessment and minimisation of harm to participants. King (2010, p.113) also reminds us of researcher safety by advising the use of “*university facilities as a venue for interviews*” and not using personal email accounts for correspondence. Informed consent (Silverman, 2011, p.96; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.291) will be obtained and prospective research participants will be given sufficient information to facilitate this (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.133). According to King (2010, p.109, citing Ramos, 1989) consent-giving in the context of qualitative research, because it is a more personal form of contact, tends to be an ongoing process of negotiation particularly when the interaction moves into areas not anticipated (*ibid.*, citing Rosenblatt, 2000).

In relation to invasion of privacy there is no expectation of an ‘abandonment of normal respect’ (*ibid.*, p.136) and this overlaps with issues with data

management such as confidentiality of information. Likewise there are no known issues in terms of deception or exploitation (Silverman, 2011, pp.90-91). As stated by King (2010, p.114, citing McKie, 2002 and Warren, 2002) there is no methodological necessity to mislead participants about the purpose and nature of the study, and “*given emphasis on trust building it would be methodologically risky and morally unacceptable*”. The purpose of the study will be made known, the use of audio recording for transcription and subsequent analysis explained, and the protection of identities via anonymisation discussed during the data collection phase (King, 2010, p.111). Data management and confidentiality of information, opinions/attitudes is a related issue (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.293) although the only pieces of personal information requested are demographic details for analysis purposes. It should be noted that no personal identifiers will appear as all data will be coded and held on a password secured database (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.140).

As to issues of reciprocity Bryman and Bell (2011, p.141) and Miles and Huberman (1994, p.291) cover the potential benefits to the participants in terms of increasing their knowledge of the subject matter, and improving their own understanding of research methods. Participants will be debriefed (Barbour, 2007, p.96), approached for respondent validation (Silverman, 2011, p.102) and offered access to reports emerging from the study. Due to the self-funded nature of the research there are no anticipated issues of conflict of interest (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011, p.76; King, 2010, p.115; Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.142).

3.5 Experiential Knowledge

There should be an assumption that prior knowledge, experience, and attitudes will influence not only how I see things but also what I will see (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.31). While the bracketing concept so familiar to phenomenologists, known as Epoche (Moustakas, 1994, p.85) encourages us to set out our own position and then to set it aside, an alternative process (Richards & Morse, 2007, p.127) allows the incorporation of prior knowledge and assumptions although this is then segregated. Maxwell’s (2005, p.37) view accords with my

own in that separating your research from your experiential knowledge “*cuts you off from a major source of insights, hypotheses and validity checks*”.

Having been in leadership positions, both on the battlefield and in the boardroom (literally, not metaphorically), has given me insights, some of them unique, into the ways that people perceive and react to ‘leadership’, although I have never previously thought to question the ‘*why?*’ of their behaviours, nor of my own. Likewise, my academic studies have given me access to a wide variety of theoretical models to explain the leadership processes, but these also seem to lack a perspective on the subjective meaning of the experience for those involved.

Prior to undertaking the data collection I was able to gain facilitated access to the students who would form my sample, being introduced as a mature postgraduate research student. This was intended to reduce any anticipated researcher effect during the data collection phase, particularly in view of the age differential. I was a student, like them, albeit a mature one. I was not an authority figure, testing their knowledge on the *theory* of leadership, I was a fellow student, interested in knowing what they *thought* and *felt* about their own experiences of leadership.

As with my previous reference to my critical realist stance combined with an interpretivist approach, I perhaps need to clarify that while I accept the objective reality of Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs), for the purpose of this study I am more interested in the subjective perceptions of that reality. I know what leadership means to me – but that is not the subject of my research - I want to know what it means to *them* and therefore I need to set aside my own knowledge and experiences in order to let them speak for themselves.

3.6 Conceptual and Theoretical Frameworks

Before I could explore the meanings that were attached to elements of the leadership experience I first needed to identify those elements. In looking at the literature it became apparent that cognitive factors were a major research area and I chose to use the Offerman, Kennedy, and Wirtz, (1994) model of Implicit

Leadership Theories as the starting point. Further research led me to the Attribution theories of Fiske and Taylor (1984; 1991), Fiske and Neuberg (1990) and the Social Cognition models offered by Brown and Lord (2001); Lord, Brown and Harvey (2001) and specifically the Leader Categorisation Theory of Lord, Foti, and Phillips (1982), and Lord, Foti, and de Vader (1984). This seemingly provided an explanation for *why* people possess Implicit Leadership Theories, and *how* they worked. However, as discussed earlier it did not offer any description of how followers *feel* about the experience or indeed how those feelings are reflected in their behaviour.

Epitropaki and Martin (2004) offered a model of Implicit Leadership Theories based on that by Offerman *et al.* (1994) but with a reduced number of scale items and dimensions. I therefore chose to describe the Implicit Leadership Theories of my research participants against a backdrop offered by the Offerman *et al.*, (1994) and Epitropaki and Martin (2004) models, and then to explore the subjective meanings that the participants attributed to their experiences of leadership.

The chosen design was that of a cross-sectional survey (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.53) intended to describe, explore and explain elements of the phenomenon and the method of choice was the focus group, a decision that was “*engaged with and deliberated upon*” at length (Denscombe, 2003, p.132; Mason, 2002, p.4). This method was chosen because focus groups generate data as a result of a facilitated process of dialogue and discussion about a particular topic and bring together people who have ‘shared characteristics that are of interest’ (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.503; Gibson & Riley, 2010, p.61). Focus groups can explore perceptions, feelings and ideas about a topic with the added value of the interaction within the group for eliciting rather than just collecting points of view (Denscombe, 2003, p.168; Anderson, 2009, p.199). Indeed, Morgan (2008, p.25, cited by Barbour, 2007, p.32) observes that “*focus groups are useful when it comes to investigating what participants think, but they excel at uncovering why participants think as they do*”.

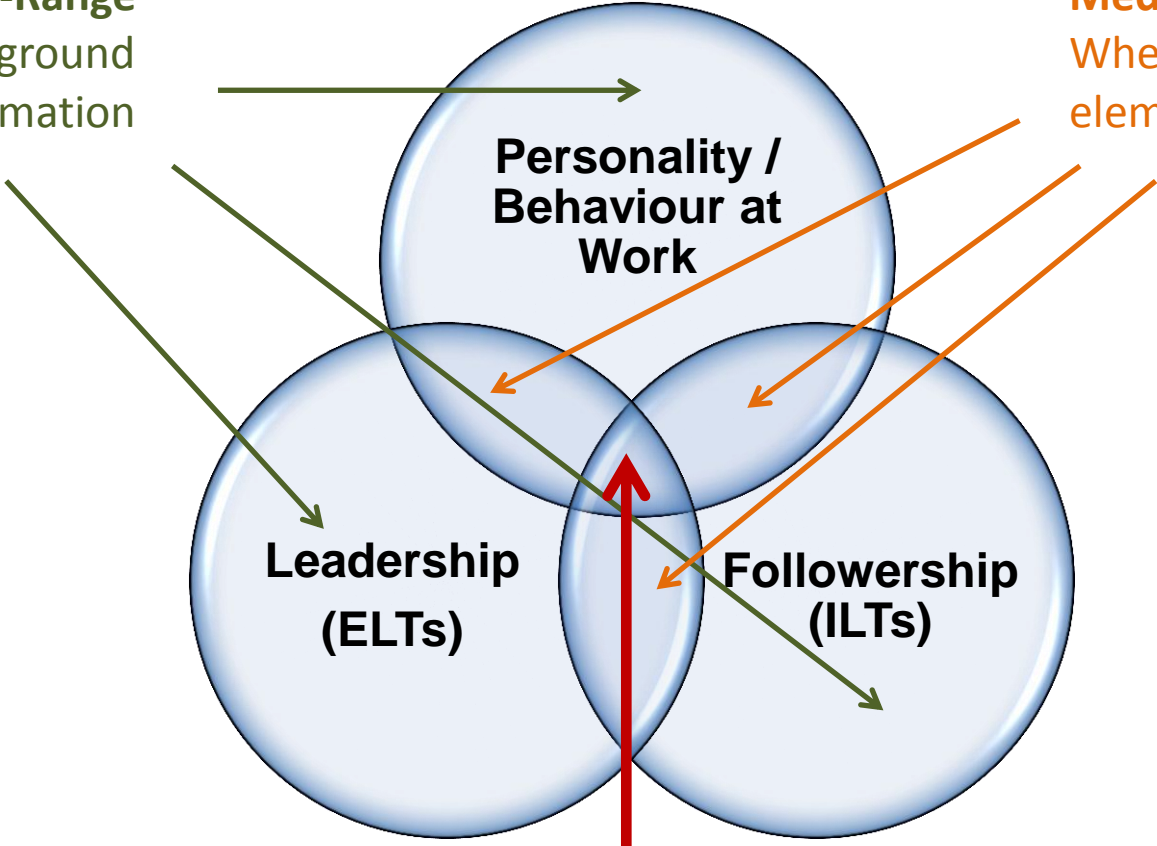
Primary data was collected via the focus groups to identify elements of the phenomenon, explore their relative importance to individual participants, and explore the meaning of the phenomenon to them via a discussion of actual experiences. Note that there was no intention to form a group 'consensus' on which traits or behaviours are of collective importance, but to determine what people individually *think* and *feel* in relation to them.

A conceptual framework emerged as shown in Fig 3.1 (below). However, during preparation for the data collection I realised that a further element was needed, having discovered what people thought and felt, I wanted to know more about how that affected their behaviour. This led to a revision of my conceptual framework to 'decouple' personality and behaviour as shown in Figure 3.2 (overleaf).

Figure 3.1: Initial Visualisation of Themes

Long-Range
Background
Information

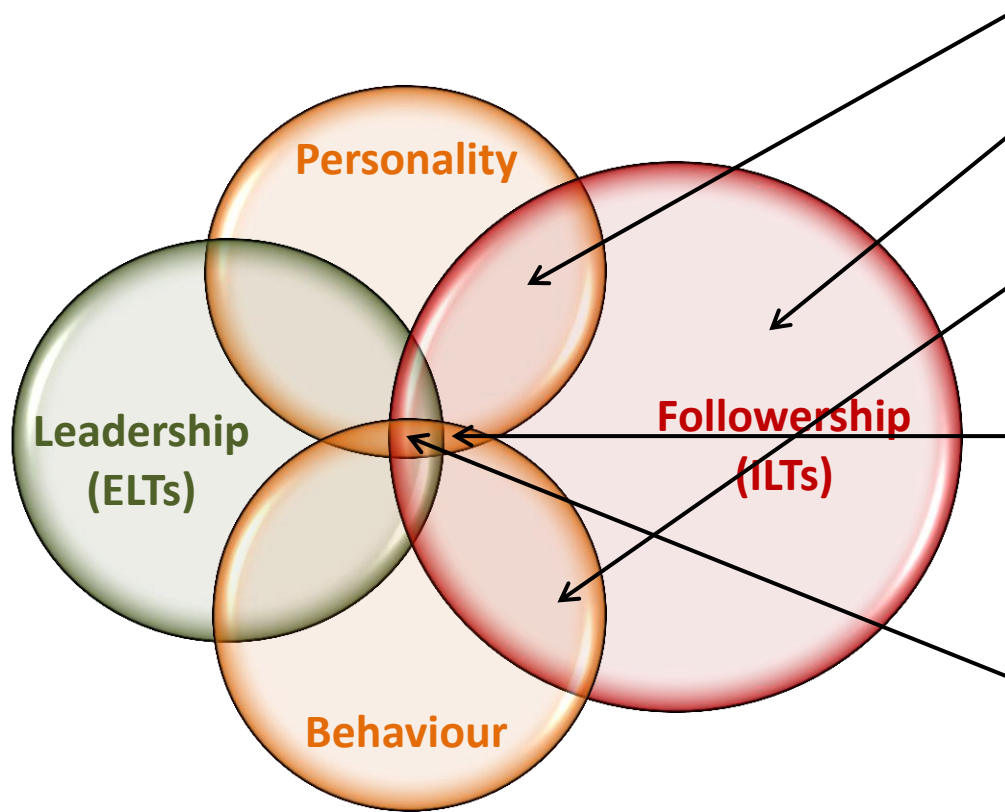
Medium-range
Where
elements over



Close-Range

Region where all elements of
interest intersect. This is my
area of interest.

Figure 3.2: Modified Visualisation of Themes



1. The in
person
2. The d
proces
ILTs
3. The e
behav
and fu
4. Interp
person
behav
where
are no
5. Interp
person
behav
where
are sa

3.7 Method

3.7.1 The Focus Groups

Final year undergraduate students undertaking Business/Management courses at the University of Gloucestershire’s Business School during the 2012/2013 academic year had been identified as potentially having access to in-depth knowledge and/or experience of the issue under investigation. As the study seeks to explore the cognitive processes, affective states, expectations, needs, and subsequent behaviours of followers, these students as *prospective* managers and leaders may have a unique perspective. Existing ILT research demonstrates clearly that people have implicit expectations and beliefs about leaders that *will* exert a greater influence on their behaviour than acquired knowledge (see Chapter 2) the sample was limited to those undertaking Leadership modules as part of their studies.

A total of 60 students were selected via a purposeful non-probability sampling strategy (Anderson, 2009, p.201; Blaxter *et al.*, 2006, p.163; Mason, 2002, p.140) since issues of representativeness and generalisability were not primary concerns (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p.151). The sample were deliberately chosen because they are, collectively, instances that are likely to produce the most valuable data, selected with a specific purpose in mind reflecting the particular qualities of those chosen and their relevance to the research questions (Maxwell 2005, p.88; Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp.27-29; Patton, 2002, p.245). It was expected that not all those invited would attend (Denscombe, 2003, p.26) so precise numbers were unavailable in advance, and although I had a preference for the sample to have a similar composition to that of the student body overall (Mason, 2002, p.162) the precise characteristics were an unknown until the students arrived.

It soon became apparent that the group was too large to run as a single focus group, so I decided to run five separate focus groups. However, due to the limited window of opportunity (the students were coming up to final exams and assignments) the focus groups would all need to be carried out on the same day. Four co-facilitators were enlisted to assist with the running of the additional focus groups, guiding interactions to ensure that group members discussed, defended and negotiated ideas (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011, p.167) in a mix of communication styles as part of the process of generating data (Barbour, 2007, p.2/3; Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.502/3; Gibson & Riley, 2010, p.63; Klenke, 2008, p.132; Krueger, 1998a, pp.9-12). Three of the co-facilitators were PhD candidates and one was a recent graduate, who acted in a support role by taking notes, all of them were known to me through the course of my studies. At meetings before, during and after the focus groups it was reiterated that we were not seeking to test their *knowledge* of leadership theory, but to explore how they thought and felt about their experiences of leaders, and what those experiences meant to them – to let them speak for themselves. Prior to briefing the co-facilitators, in order to deal with any possible facilitator experiential biases (see earlier section 3.5, p.52/53) I developed a Topic Guide

that would be used to steer the conduct, content, and general direction of the focus groups (See Appendix A).

The focus groups were scheduled to run for approximately one hour each, with approximately eight students in each group (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.508; Gibson & Riley, 2010, p.63). Separate rooms of comparable size were organised and equipped with the necessary materials including digital audio equipment so that the data from the focus groups could be transcribed at a later date (Barbour, 2007, p.75). I considered that the topic would be of interest to the students since it was related to assignments they were working on as part of their module, I also defined the issues in a way that I felt made sense, based on the theoretical literature but focused on the use of every-day language, and I paid particular attention to creating and managing the group dynamics and getting participants to talk (Barbour, 2007; Fern, 2001; Krueger, 1998a; Krueger, 1998b; Morgan, 1998a; Morgan, 1998b).

While relatively informal interchanges can lead to insights that might not otherwise have come to light, it also has great potential in observing the processes through which meaning is jointly constructed (Barbour, 2007, p.60; Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.515; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011, p.167). However, careful management was called for since there were issues of when speakers interrupt and talk simultaneously (causing transcription difficulties), and while some participants may dominate discussions others might be more reluctant, so careful moderation was needed to ensure everyone's voices were heard (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p.517). Further discussion of these issues formed part of the debriefing sessions with the co-facilitators (see section 3.7.4, p.61).

3.7.2 Data collection

A total of 40 students attended the five focus groups. Although specific demographic data was not collected as part of the process, 26 of the students were male and 14 female. Six of the students also self-identified themselves as being international students, one from the United States of America, and 5 from China (of the latter 3 were female). In terms of age ranges, 39 of the students were between the approximate ages of 21-25, and there was 1 mature student.

The focus groups were conducted in three teaching rooms at the University of Gloucestershire's Business School, located at the Park Campus in Cheltenham. All the rooms were checked in advance, and equipment set up and tested prior to the start of the sessions (Barbour, 2007, p.75). The two larger rooms had seating capacity for approximately 20 students, while the smaller had seating for 15. While the larger rooms had external windows, and were well lit and airy, the smaller room only had ceiling windows, although it was a pleasant environment and was regularly used as a venue for seminars and was thus deemed suitable for the purpose. Chairs and tables were re-arranged so that students were grouped around a central table and could easily converse with each other and with the facilitators.

During the focus group sessions audio data recording devices (Olympus WS-650S model) were used in order to aid later transcription. Student participants were notified of this during the introductory briefing (Appendix B) and Informed Consent was received as described below. The devices were sited discretely but allowed for maximum performance without causing distraction, in addition group facilitators used backup devices in case of technical difficulties (Barbour, 2007, p.76).

The sessions were held at three times during the course of Tuesday 12th March 2013, with two groups being run from 0915 until 10.45 (rooms TC207A1 and TC208A1), two from 11.15 until 12.45 (rooms TC207A2 and TC208A2) and one from 16.15 until 17.45 (room TC203). Each session began with a welcome address, introducing myself and the co-facilitators, and distributing the participant information packs including the Informed Consent Form (see Appendix C). Name badges were distributed so that we could identify speakers, students were invited to use pseudonyms if they preferred since the names were purely to be used for the purpose of identification during transcription. In the event about one-third of participants used pseudonyms. There followed a brief presentation about issues in business leadership as a means to prime the group so that relevant schema and vocabulary would be activated (Bargh & Pietromonaco, 1982). As discussed earlier (see p.31) priming involves a deliberate attempt to over-ride the automatic processing of

information via cognitive schema (p.29) by making the topic under investigation salient and relevant. At the end of the presentation section the Consent Forms were signed and returned, and the groups split, with one group remaining in TC208A and the other moving to TC207A. Group splits during the morning session were achieved by assigning alternate students a number, either 1 or 2, with the 1s remaining and the 2s moving to the other room. The afternoon group differed since there were only sufficient students for one group, so they remained together, with myself and a single co-facilitator to observe and take notes to aid in later analyses (Barbour, 2007, p.77).

In order to get a clear picture of the content and structure of Implicit Leadership Theories held by the group, so that analyses could determine the fit with existing theory (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offerman *et al.*, 1994), the group were asked the following questions and invited to discuss the topic.

Question 1: Why do they value certain characteristics and behaviours?
(and, are there some they value more highly than others?)

Prior research indicated that people did indeed value certain characteristics and behaviours more than others, but the intention here was to a) facilitate a lead in to the more detailed discussion and to provide an initial check between the views espoused by the group, and those found by previous researchers.

Secondly, the group were asked about where their expectations of leaders might have come from, and here we were particularly interested in family and societal influences, as well as ways that their work and educational experiences might have affected their expectations.

Question 2: Where do they think their expectations came from?

Next, I wanted to know more about the affective side of followership, to understand the range of emotions and feelings that were triggered as a result of either a schema match, or a schema mismatch.

Question 3: How did they feel when they have been in subordinate positions to someone that did or did not match their criteria?

Having discussed what they thought and felt as followers, the conversations led into a further discussion, as we both directed conversations and followed ideas as they arose (Morgan, 1998a, p.58) about how those thoughts and feelings affected their behaviour in the workplace, particularly looking for similarities and differences in the way people reacted to schema match and schema mismatch.

3.7.3 Debriefing the participants

At the end of each session, apart from the final one, the groups were re-merged and debriefed, the aims of the research were restated and final consent was once more checked, with nobody indicating a desire to withdraw their data. I explained to them that the recorded data would be transcribed and used for analyses which would inform the final study, and offered to circulate the completed research to all participants. The students were also invited to contact me if they had any queries, or if there were any additional issues that they wanted to talk about in relation to the topic but which they had not already had the opportunity to say. Several students indicated a willingness to check the transcripts, as part of respondent validation. Final thanks were given, the session was closed, and the students departed. This procedure was followed in an identical manner with all groups.

3.7.4 Debriefing the co-facilitators

After the final session, I met with the four co-facilitators, refreshments provided. Two of the co-facilitators had left earlier in the day and had returned specifically for the debriefing session. The discussion was held on the usefulness of the topic guide, and of the procedures followed during the course of the sessions. One issue raised was that the subject of behavioural responses needed to have been a separate question so that it could be explored in more depth rather than as an addendum to question 3. Arrangements were made for the back-up voice data files to be delivered the following day (needing first to be downloaded), notes taken during the sessions were placed with the signed consent forms to be incorporated into the data during transcription. I asked whether they would

be willing to cross-check the transcripts when they were completed and they agreed to do so. After thanking them for their support, the session ended.

3.7.5 Data Transcription

As I intended to conduct transcript based analysis, the transcripts were the primary data source, with notes, debriefing discussions and the audio recordings themselves being additional sources (Morgan 1998a, p.70). I had decided to conduct the transcription myself, manually, in order to thoroughly familiarise myself with the data (Barbour, 2007, p.79; Gibbs, 2007, p.15; Klenke, 2008, p.137). The audio data files, having been downloaded (on 12th March 2013) and copies made for backup, were played through once each, both to re-acquaint myself with the data but also to ensure that I was able to identify which file belonged to which group. At the end of this process there were two identified copies for each session, recorded on different devices. Next, I re-listened to each of the sessions, identifying different voices, familiarising myself with the data, recalling and making notes of contexts in which statements were made.

Transcription proper did not commence until 7th and 8th April 2013 meaning that I had to repeat the above process of familiarisation with the previously written notes to support me. Once again satisfied that the recordings were of sufficient quality I began the process of manual transcription, which was undertaken personally. The transcripts were prepared in an orthographic style resembling a 'playscript' (Gibson, 2010, p.131) since this was compatible with practices favoured by Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) which had influenced some of my early thinking. Moderator comments were reproduced in bold to distinguish from comments made by students. Each statement was labelled with the session to which it belonged, and the pseudonym (where identifiable) of the person speaking. Where the precise speaker could not be identified comments were simply labelled 'male' or 'female'.

Once each session was complete I replayed the audio and followed along using the draft transcript. Being satisfied that the data had been accurately transformed from audio to text format (Gibbs, 2007, p.14) I re-examined the transcripts and 'tidied up' the text without altering the context, while keeping

notes regarding hesitations, interruptions, and body language to aid later analyses. Data was grouped according to the specific questions that it related to, e.g. all statements regarding the source of their expectations were grouped under Question 2. This process was repeated for all 5 groups. As themes emerged from the data I kept written notes of key ideas that seemed of interest to the participants. In essence the process of transcription was as much a part of the analyses and the processes that would follow (Patton, 2002, p.436).

The completed transcripts were sent to the co-facilitators for comment/amendment, who agreed that they were an accurate reflection based on their recollection of events and so the transcripts were adopted without changes (see Appendix D for example).

3.7.6 Data Coding

The coding phase relied primarily on frameworks offered by Gibbs (2007) and Saldana (2009) although this was supplemented from numerous sources including focus-group specific ones such as Krueger (1998) and Barbour (2007). The concept of 'cycles' (Richards & Morse, 2007, p.134; Saldana, 2009, p.3) enabled the task to be broken down into manageable units.

The method of analysis chosen makes it possible to locate and retrieve topics, examples, and themes that do not appear in an orderly or sequential manner in the data; beginning a process of creating interpretive, conceptual or analytical categories (Mason, 2002, pp152-3; Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p.27). This method is commonly used within qualitative research although a purer form such as that used in grounded theory was not used since I am not seeking to generate theory but to identify "*themes and dimensions*" (Creswell, 2007, p43) and to interpret them within an existing theoretical framework.

In the first cycle the transcripts and accompanying audio files were distributed to three of the co-facilitators who were available to help and who separately carried out preliminary coding based on a first impression by reviewing the audio files and carefully reading the transcripts. In the first instance codes were applied to themes, concepts and ideas (Mason, 2002, p.150; Anderson, 2009,

p.216) in relation to concepts, theories, explanations and understanding (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, p.31 citing Tesch, 1990). This resulted in four copies of the transcripts with annotations indicating thoughts on initial descriptive and organisational codes (Saldana, 2009, p.4). The purpose of this cross-validation was to ensure that I had not missed anything important, for congruence of interpretations, and allowed me to tap into their knowledge and prior experience of data coding in order to develop my own knowledge and understanding. This process resulted in four copies of the five separate transcripts and these were then merged on a session by session basis until each transcript contained the preliminary coding of all four facilitators. Next, the data from all five sessions was brought together into one document with the data put into organisational categories (Maxwell, 2005, p.97) linked respectively to the questions on how they thought, where their expectations came from, how they felt, and how they behaved as a result. At this point the Master Transcript became the main document for further coding.

To develop some “*manageable classification or coding scheme*” (Patton, 2002, p.463) and move up from the data to more abstract concepts (Richards & Morse, 2007, p.133) I put the data through a second cycle. This involved taking those preliminary substantive, descriptive, –*emic* codes (Creswell, 2007, p.242; Maxwell, 2005) and via an iterative process moving back and forth between the data and the literature (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), combining both concept-driven and data-driven approaches (Gibbs, 2007, p.37) I arrived at more abstract –*etic* categories that would allow for an analysis of patterns and themes as they emerged (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.69, p.246). These formed the basis for my Initial Coding List, a coding hierarchy (Gibbs, 2007, p.75) incorporating 50 categories ranged across the broad themes of cognitive processes, affective states, and behavioural reactions.

A problem with these 50 categories is that they were neither internally homogenous, nor externally heterogenous (Patton, 2002, p.465/6) so a further revision was carried out to identify convergent and divergent patterns in the data so that the contents of a category fitted well and were sufficiently different from things in the other categories. While Gibbs (2007, p.47) outlines a range

of phenomena of interest to coders, not all of these seemed relevant, so I returned to the literature in order to refine the more –*etic* categories which would permit identification of patterns (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.246). At the end of this process a revised Code list was created with 18 categories, again reflecting the three broad super-categories, or themes, of Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural data (Appendix E).

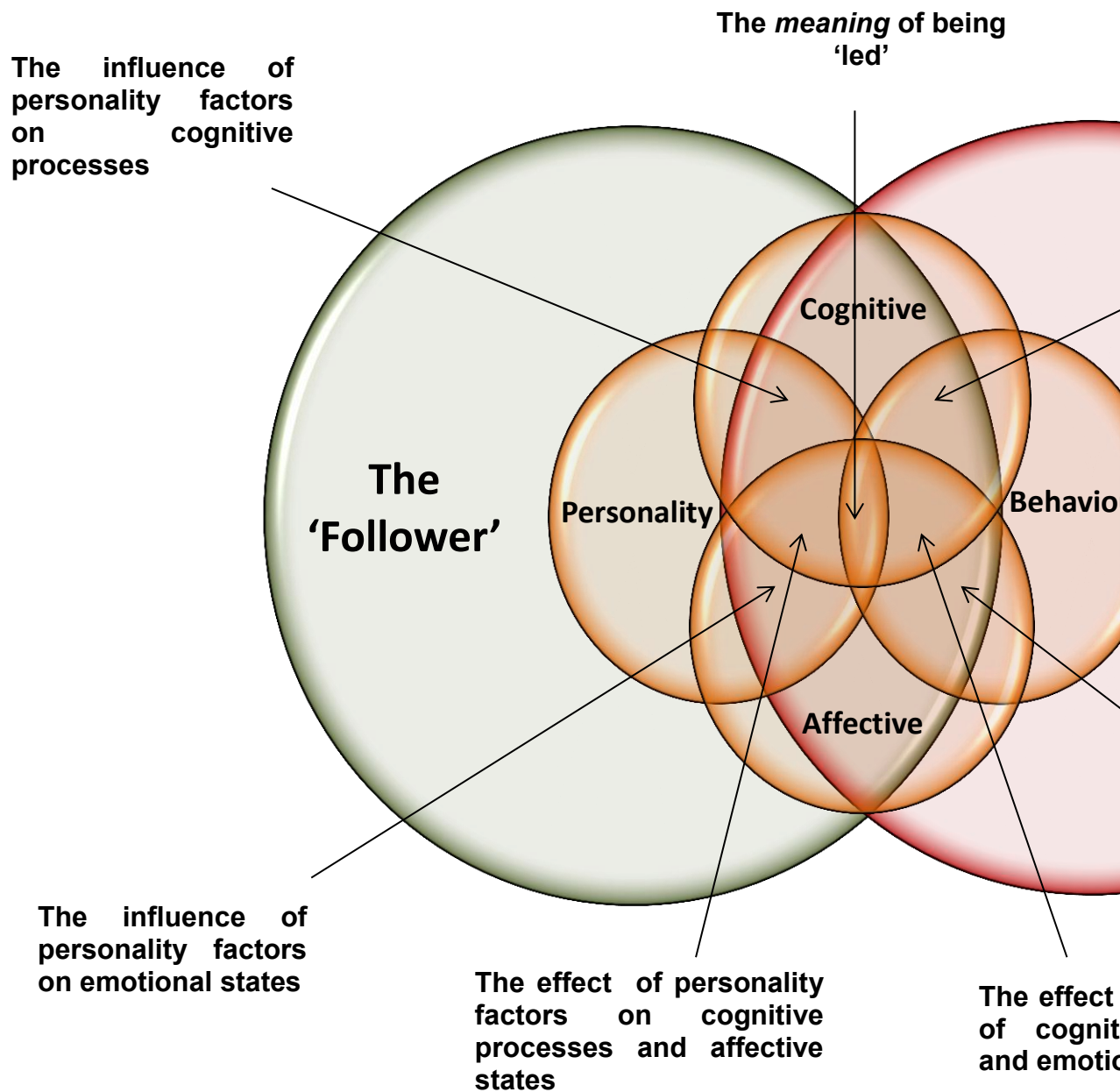
Another key outcome of these stages, or cycles, was the ‘Code Book’ (Appendix F) which guided later stages as I moved away from the descriptive towards more analytical concepts and themes (Maxwell, 2005; Richards & Morse, 2007, p.141). I wanted to be able to gather all the answers to each question, or gather everything said by specific participants so that I can follow their individual contributions. I also want to be able to investigate the context of the statements made, and the characteristics of the speaker. As Gibbs (2007, p.75) made clear, the hierarchy is just the start, I needed to look for patterns, make comparisons, and produce explanations and models that linked via theoretical categories to the *a priori* theory that was reflected in my framework (Maxwell, 2005, p.97). Via a process of iterative coding, categorisation and analytical reflection, specific themes emerged, supported by detailed information (Creswell, 2007).

3.7.7 Revised Visualisation of Themes

At this stage my conceptual framework has undergone several revisions with the data now pointing towards a synthesis and expansion of my two previous frameworks (see figure 3.3, overleaf).

This revised framework, which directionally reads left to right, illustrates how aspects of personality affects the way we think towards, and feel about ‘leaders’, which then affects how we behave towards them.

Figure 3.3: Further modifications to the visualisation of Themes



3.8 Summary

The planning and conduct of my research has been a process of discovery as I have moved back and forth between the data and the literature. Adaptations had to be made to my theoretical framework, my conceptual models, and indeed to my philosophical approach as I aligned my research design to encompass both a critical realist stance and an interpretivist approach to the

subjective issues involved. The very freedoms afforded by the nature of qualitative research require an enforced rigour to ensure that a clear audit trail exists that guides you through the data, so that the reported findings, and the interpretations based on those findings are credible, dependable, confirmable and transferable.

As I planned and conducted the focus groups I had to set aside my pre-existing knowledge and assumptions so that I could allow the members of those groups to tell their own story, so that I could understand their experiences, and what it meant to them. Having conducted five such focus groups, gathered their experiences, and collected data on the subjective meanings that they attach to 'being led' I then manually transcribed the data, itself part of the analysis process, before being iteratively coded, moving through a number of cycles as each level of categorisation moved to a higher level of analysis. Three key categories emerged namely Cognitive, how students *thought* about their leadership experiences, Affective, how they *felt* about those same experiences, and Behaviours, that is how the cognitive and affective components impacted their *actions* towards those claiming leadership roles.

The following section contains my research Findings with a presentation of data regarding cognitive, affective and behavioural elements of follower ILT's together with findings related to self-concept and organisational outcomes.

Chapter 4: Findings

“It has been said that leadership is like beauty – you know it when you see it”
Cummings (2007, p.143)

4.1 Introduction

This section contains the findings of the research and is initially presented in the sub-sections covering the broad descriptive categories of Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural elements reflected in the data before moving to higher levels of abstraction covering issues of self-concept and organisational outcomes. The data was gathered via a series of focus groups involving final year undergraduate students at the University of Gloucestershires' Business School and was coded and analysed using an abductive process that used *a priori* theoretical frameworks that underpin the study of Implicit Leadership Theory.

Before presenting the findings it seems crucial to clarify that within the context of this qualitative interpretive study it is taken as true that, in follower sense-making, what people *believe* to be true is as valid as what actually *is* true (Weick, 2003, Felfe & Schynes, 2010). The study endeavours to find out what the students implicitly expect, not what they know they *should expect*, i.e. not knowledge acquired during the course of their studies. This was explicitly communicated to them during the focus group sessions, and it is hoped that their responses therefore reflect a genuine attempt to access and retrospectively interpret, i.e. to make sense of, beliefs that are neither consciously-held nor consciously processed. As has been demonstrated by the literature (see chapter 2, sections 2.3 - 2.4) such implicit beliefs *will* influence interactions with those claiming leader roles because they are based on automatic processing via pre-existing schemas and not a deliberate investigation of consciously-held knowledge nor observable data. ILT research explored earlier has demonstrated that the latter are both largely ignored when they conflict with a person's ILTs.

Firstly this chapter will examine the findings in relation to Cognitive elements, that is what participants *think* about the traits, qualities and behaviours they

expect leaders to possess and demonstrate. Secondly, we will turn to the Affective elements, namely how leaders make them *feel*, both when confronted with leaders who match their ILT, and when confronted with those who do not. Thirdly, we look at the Behavioural elements, that is how cognitive and affective antecedents impact on the way they *behave* under ILT met/not-met conditions. Fourthly, findings will be presented that relate to the links between cognition/affect and issues of self-concept including self-esteem and social identity together with how these then relate to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and employee well-being outcomes.

Lastly, the section will summarise the findings before moving on to a fuller discussion of the findings including potential implications for research and practice.

4.2 Those who Choose to Follow

4.2.1 Cognitive: What am I *thinking* when I talk about a leader?

Using *a priori* frameworks based on earlier research into Implicit Leadership Theory (Offerman *et al.*, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord *et al.*, 1984) this section relates to findings regarding the cognitive processes involved in leader recognition and categorisation. The research supported existing ILT research in terms of content and structure particularly in relation to the process of categorisation itself. The following data extracts seek to illustrate the content and structure of the research participants before we progress to a description of how those cognitive processes impact on other elements of the follower-leader dyad.

The students reported (see Table 4.1, overleaf) that perceptions of specific traits were central to whether they ‘recognised’ the person claiming a leadership role. The presence of key traits provides the specific matching criteria for this recognition process, without which someone would be perceived as a “*just another person*” and immediately categorised as ‘not a leader’. There was an awareness by a minority of students that a persons’ leadership ability might not

be related to your recognition of them, and that this reflected the fact that they did not meet your expectations, but might meet someone else's.

Furthermore, it was found that the absence of desired traits was as influential as the presence of others. In short, not having one of the desired traits would automatically exclude someone from being recognised as a leader, meaning that all subsequent perceptions of that person would be as 'not a leader' regardless of that persons' formal organisational role or status. Allied to this discussion numerous students weighed in on the nature versus nurture debate with several examples shown in the table below. All of those who stated an opinion were firmly of the belief that *"you can't learn to be a leader – it's something in your personality, it's something you are born with"*.

Table 4.1: Superordinate Categorisation

	Recognition	Non-Recognition	Trait Relevance	Nature vs Nurture
Superordinate Categorisation	"You want someone to have specific traits so you can distinguish between normal people and leaders, because they tend to have those things" (5c)	"some jobs you might have a crap leader, useless, other jobs you might get one who is really inspirational" (14w)	"not having the expected traits makes them <i>not</i> a leader ... It's more influential" (5f)	"you can't learn to be a leader - it's something in your personality. It's something you are born with" (7t)
	"if they don't have them [special traits] then they are just another person" (5d)	"are they crap because they don't meet our expectations? Or are they just crap?" (14x)	"you might be more affected by someone who didn't match [your expectations], than one who did" (5g)	"some people do naturally take the lead" (7u)
	"if someone doesn't have them, then they are not to me a leader" (5e)	"if you have an idea about how a leader should be, and they don't fit that, then you are going to think they are a crap leader" (14y)	"if they don't have the specific traits you'd be less inclined to follow them" (5h)	"they naturally fall into it, right time, right place, they know how to get stuff done" (7v)

Following the framework offered by Leader Categorisation Theory we next looked at the subsidiary level of Leader Recognition. Assuming that someone has been assigned to the Leader category at the super-ordinate level, we now seek to establish what kind of leader they are. For example, in the research groups students advanced the view that they had different expectations depending on whether they were looking at a business leader, a political leader, or a leader of their social group (see Table 4.2, overleaf).

Table 4.2: Basic Categorisation

Leadership Domains			
Basic Categorisation	"It depends what kind of industry you are in, and whether you want an energetic lively ' <i>wildchild</i> ' [marketing] or a bureaucrat/dictator [HR]" (1e)	"It's different in different situations - leader at work is different to a group leader - different in business, social, political contexts" (1d)	"You are expecting them to have different kinds of traits" (1b)

While in all cases the aspiring leader had to satisfy the super-ordinate categorisation step, it was at the level of basic categorisation that they were assigned to the 'Business Leader' category. One student subdivided this further by explaining that he would have different expectations depending on what kind of business the person was in, or what function they fulfilled within that business. This may also be related to the Subordinate categorisation level whereby we determine at what level of leadership someone sits based on their match with our Implicit Leadership Theories (see Table 4.3, below).

Table 4.3: Subordinate Categorisation

	Senior Managers	Managers	Supervisors
Subordinate Categorisation	"at corporate level you need to be more visionary, it doesn't matter if you don't know what is going on day to day – you need a more long term view" (15b)	"there is quite a big difference between leaders and managers" (3l)	"managers and supervisors are similar it's just a question of scale" (15c)
	"a good leader has charisma, they will use that to make you want to follow them rather than using their authority" (16d)	"leaders and managers are completely different. Managers I expect to tell me what the position is, how to get there, what to do" (15e)	"you don't expect supervisors to have as many, or any [leadership traits], compared to a senior exec" (15a)
	"leaders and managers are completely different – leaders need to inspire and motivate me to do it" (15e)	"management is more an administrative bureaucratic process" (15f)	
	"top people have the clear ideas" (15d)	"at operational level you need task knowledge" (15b)	
	"leadership isn't about your job role – it's about making you feel valued" (15f)	"managers take care of the detail" (15d)	

The participants had clearly defined expectations of traits, qualities and behaviours needed by senior management as opposed to those needed by 'management' more generally, or by supervisors in particular. While they

expected leader-like behaviour from senior board members, there was no such expectation for managers generally, and specifically no expectation of such qualities in supervisory or line-management personnel. Senior leaders were expected to be visionary and charismatic, coming up with the big ideas and communicating that to the team in unspecified ways considered (by followers) to be inspirational and motivational. Management on the other hand was described variously as “an administrative bureaucratic process” concerned with ‘taking care of the detail’. There were no verbal or non-verbal disagreements with this stated view from any of the other participants.

Having determined that someone is a leader, and specifically a business leader, we then accord them a spot on the formal hierarchy spectrum, based on our perception of their traits, characteristics and behaviours. Only those who were recognised at the super-ordinate level, subsequently categorised as a particular kind of leader, and then determined to have the characteristics compatible with specific rungs of the hierarchical ladder are deemed worthy of being ‘followed’.

Generally, data supported existing ILT research. However, several categories within established theory require further attention. Following Zaccaro (2007) the trait components of ILTs were separated into those which were Distal or Proximal. In relation to the distal trait Dynamism (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) participants were strongly and vocally desirous of, and motivated by, leaders who displayed ‘Charisma’, ‘Inspiration’, and ‘Vision’ (see Table 4.4, below).

Table 4.4: Distal Traits (Dynamism)

	Charisma	Inspiration	Visionary	Motivational
Dynamism	"I need them to have charisma, drive - otherwise it would be boring" (16a)	"someone who has the charismatic, inspirational personality that makes me want to do the job" (28p)	"I'd quite like a leader to have some vision so that the work I'm doing fits into that" (6o)	"motivational [due to charisma/vision] - to go further. Him and me" (4s)

A further finding was that, although much leadership theory stresses Intelligence as a key trait desired in our leaders, the participants in this research only mentioned [intellectual] intelligence on two occasions. One student held

the opinion that “*you don’t have to be too clever, you just have to be able to join it all together*” (2e), which was not debated, nor disagreed by others present within the group. Another student, in a different group, did however state “*he projected himself as intelligent and articulate, key points that I’d aspire to – I respected that*”. Some value does however appear to have been placed on Emotional and Social Intelligences, although there needs to be some reflection on the choice of words used by the participants which perhaps reflects their recent reading or seminar work at university, “*you need to be emotionally intelligent, to be able to interact and sympathise/empathise*” (2f) and Social Intelligence “*you need to be able to recognise and adapt to situations, to what different people need/want and will respond to*” (3f).

Within Implicit Leadership Theory the concept of Anti-prototypical Traits includes the Tyranny category. The findings from this research relating to behaviours that can be ascribed to Tyranny are shown below (see Table 4.5, below). Whilst Tyranny is acknowledged as a leadership trait it is noteworthy that the students here did not necessarily view it in a negative light.

Table 4.5: Distal Traits (Tyranny)

Tyranny	<p>"I didn't want to disappoint her, but that gave her an opportunity if I did something wrong. In a way it was kind of manipulative, she could make me feel bad so I wouldn't want to do it again" (30n)</p> <p>"she was quite autocratic, but I liked her, she manipulated me, but I liked her - so I'd try to work harder. I felt that it was in my best interests" (30n)</p> <p>"people who like dominant leaders often find democratic leaders to be weak, because they ask opinions, and don't seem to be able to make decisions for themselves" (27i)</p>	<p>"sheer force of personality, charisma can sometimes shield inadequacies ... They just don't have the skills" (6p)</p> <p>"they can lead people into doing things, they're not very accountable and they can just stampede you because you don't have any means to confine them, no boundaries" (7r)</p> <p>"everyone wants to please them - almost a child-like 'please the parents' without thinking things through or challenging them because you think something won't work. The charisma over-rides logic .. Or you don't feel like you can offer alternative idea" (7s)</p>
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Another key area of Implicit Leadership Theory lies in the area of gender, with followers often displaying distinct preferences for a leader of one rather than the

other, for a variety of reasons but most often not reasons that are deliberated upon. In this research group some examples are shown (see Table 4.6, below) categorised according to follower/leader gender.

Table 4.6: Distal Traits (Masculinity)

	Male bosses	Female bosses
Male employees	<p>"I prefer male bosses, it's human nature" (9l)</p> <p>"Would rather work for a male, I've had experiences in the past and I've heard of examples ... " (9m)</p> <p>"male bosses you can get on better with them. Stereotypical reasons - but they are there" (9j)</p> <p>"i feel like i can connect to them, we have shared interests" (8d)</p>	<p>"women bring their feelings into the workplace, I know it's a social environment but it's a professional workplace and you should act in a professional manner" (10s)</p> <p>"Female managers especially at lower levels - it's more a community, it's more 'family' and friends, and quite a lot of people go out socially" (9m)</p>
female employees	<p>"male bosses make quick decisions but it's not resulted in good endings. You end up with more work. It takes 3-4 things to fix the results of the quick decision where it's not been thought through" (8b)</p> <p>"male managers had a lot of [female] favourites and were easily manipulated. There was a lot of unfairness" (9k)</p>	<p>"female leaders bring their emotions into the workplace more - so if she's having a bad day then they take it out on the employees - although males do that as well" (10r)</p> <p>"I had a female boss who was very masculine in attitude" (10q)</p> <p>"absolute worst boss was a woman - ambitious, two faced, driven" (9i)</p> <p>"they bring negative emotions in, or having favourites, it affects their judgement. I noticed it more in women than I do in men" (10s)</p> <p>"women managers have favourites - but they don't reward them in the same way [as male managers]" (9k)</p>

Amongst male followers the preference, where stated, was almost exclusively for male bosses, mostly on the bases of similarity/prototypicality. The expressed reasons for this preference centred on their perception that female bosses *"brought their emotions into the workplace"* (10s) often to the detriment of workers, and that female bosses tended to foster environments that were

overtly “*social*” (9m). Although this seems to conflict with other statements whereby male followers hoped for a friendly relationship with their male superior.

Female followers also expressed a liking for male bosses with the caveat that they often caused problems by ‘hasty decision making’ which resulted in more work for everyone, and there was some concern about the degree to which male bosses were open to manipulation by female employees with issues of favouritism being highlighted (9k).

Perhaps surprisingly, some of the most vocal complaints about female bosses came from female followers with equal allegations of favouritism (9k/10s), emotionalism (10r) and examples of female bosses who epitomized Tyranny or mimicked ‘male’ behaviours in order to get ahead (9i/10q). Of those who expressed a preference the ratio was 4:1 (80%) in favour of male bosses regardless of the followers’ gender.

Although not included within existing Implicit Leadership Theory some students considered the perceived motives and values of the leader to be important factors that affected their relationship with anyone claiming a leadership role (see Table 4.7, below).

Table 4.7: Motives and Values

Motives & Values	"need to be trustworthy" (2b)	"if they had no morals at all I couldn't work for them" (4w)
	"it's about trust, honesty and integrity" (4m)	"I couldn't work for them if they were immoral/unethical" (4x)

For this reason references to Motives and Values have been included within the findings, and have been categorised (Zacarro, 2007) as relating to a Distal trait, i.e. one that is inherent to the personality of the leader. Examples of this provided by the students include a requirement for them to be “*trustworthy*” (2b),

to be ‘*honest*’ and display “*integrity*” (4m), to possess some moral fibre (4w) and to operate in an *ethical* manner (4x). As well as those traits that are inherent, proximal leader attributes represent those that are capable of being learned or developed.

The key findings from this section of the study revolve around the problem-solving, social appraisal and tacit knowledge skills (see Table 4.8, below).

Table 4.8: Proximal Leader Attributes

	Problem-solving skills	Social appraisal skills	Experience & Knowledge
Proximal Leader Attributes	"what I like is decision making, a good leader can make decisions" (3g)	"you need to be able to adapt to what different people need/want, what they will respond to" (3f)	"they have to show that they have the skills" (17i)
	"it's about the ability to solve problems" (6m)	"need to adapt to meet expectations" (7w)	"they need the knowledge, the experience" (4q)
	"they need to be knowledgable, to understand the situation, and what needs to be done" (2a)	"they need to be able to influence, to persuade" (4n)	"they need to be knowledgable, to understand the situation, and what needs to be done" (2a)
	"tell me what is required, so I can work out my part in it, how to use my skills to fit" (6j)	"communication, clarity, I expect them to see a bigger picture than I do" (6n)	"they need ability" (2a)
		"personal skills, he'll help you - even when something goes wrong" (18n)	4s "knowledge of what they are doing and where we are going, and how to get there"

Many of the category boundaries were ‘fuzzy’ since the ability to make decisions, and solve problems were intimately bound up with participants expressed views on tacit knowledge, operational skills, knowledge and

experience to the point where it appears that these concepts may be considered interdependent. Further to earlier findings regarding general intelligence, social intelligence was highly valued for its implicitly and explicitly stated roles in influencing, persuading and negotiating with people in a variety of situations, and the ability to adapt to those situations as required.

When asked about their thoughts on childhood influences that helped shape their expectations of leaders the participants were overwhelmingly of the opinion that family members such as parents and grandparents had been their main role models (see Table 4.9, below).

Table 4.9: Source of ILTs

	Family			Society		Experiences	Idealised / Aspirational Self
Source of Expectations	"my father, he had a lot of experience" (11c)	"family. Brothers and sisters too" (12n)	"my grandfather was quite the leader type" (12h)	"my primary school headmaster was charismatic and approachable, you could speak to him about just about anything" (12e)	"later in life, university education, you already know what a leader is, so it doesn't really make any difference" (12i)	"some things we do automatically, some things we think about, and our experiences shape us" (14v)	"we definitely project an ideal version of ourselves, the person we'd like to be, onto such people" (13s)
	"grandfather seemed to be wise and know what the right thing to do was" (11b)	"my dad, he was always setting targets at school and socially, a dominant type" (13q)	"my parents brought me up a certain way ... told me what was right and wrong ... i'm obviously going to use those things" (13o)	"social groups, friends, some of them are more leader-like than others" (12i)	"you form your ideas based on influences around you" (11g)	"everyone's ideas are based on multiple experiences" (14z)	"my perception of a leader is quite largely based on who I would aspire to be" (13t)
	"my nan was in charge, when she died it all fell apart" (11d)	"parents probably, perhaps one more than the other - you often have more trust/empathy with one - and you want that in a leader" (13p)	"i think it goes back to my family and childhood" (12i)	"school - it's a more formal process" (12k)	"teachers were quite authoritarian and who i didnt really like - but I did well because of them - that's why I like a leader who is dominant" (12j)	"work experience helped shape my ideas" (14w)	"my vision of a leader would be someone that I aspre to be" (13u)

Examples elicited include one student who stated *“my dad, he was always setting targets at school and socially, a dominant type”* (13q) whilst another student ventured *“parents probably, perhaps one more than the other – you often have more trust/empathy with one – and you want that in a leader”* (13p). Comparing these two statements it should be noted that the first student later expressed (see Table 4.12, p.84) a preference for dominant leaders who established ‘rules’, and was *“firm but fair”*. It is therefore possible that his expectation of a leader in adult life was subconsciously shaped by childhood exposure to the role model offered by his father. Additional family role models included grandparents as demonstrated by several students who observed that *“grandfather seemed to be wise and know what the right thing to do was”* (11b) whilst another student remarked that her *“grandfather was quite the leader type”*. Familial role models were not exclusively male however with views in support of female role models including *“my nan was in charge, when she died it all fell apart”* (11d).

In wider society there was support for teachers, particularly in primary and secondary education, although this support was lacking when linked to higher education. While one student spoke in favour of teachers who were *“quite authoritarian and who I didn’t really like – but I did well because of them – that’s why I like a leader who is dominant”* another student noted that *“later in life, university education, you already know what a leader is, so it doesn’t really make any difference”*

A third source of ILTs was held to be ‘experiences’. Although there was some broad agreement that *“our experiences shape us”* (14v), and our ideas are *“based on multiple experiences”* (14z) none of the participants were able to offer precise examples of what those experiences might be, or how they might have affected their expectations.

One last subcategory was expressed in terms of Ideals and Aspirations whereby *“we definitely project an ideal version of ourselves, the person we’d like to be, onto such people”* (13s). Another student stated that *“my perception of a leader is quite largely based on who I would aspire to be”* (13t) which was

echoed in the opinion of another student who said that “*my vision of a leader would be someone that I aspire to be*” (13u). Whether there was a direct link between the person you aspire to be, and exposure to specific traits by childhood role models, was not within the scope of this research.

4.2.2 Affective: What am I feeling?

The following findings are related to how the students felt when confronted with those claiming leader roles. It details the range of needs and motivations which require to be satisfied in order for them to report a higher quality relationship (table 4.10, below).

Table 4.10: Follower Needs and Motivations

	Need to feel Valued	Need to feel Respected	Need to feel Supported	Need for Meaning
Self-efficacy	"I want recognition for my work. I want to be valued" (17j)	"I've been employed to do this, so you should listen to what I have to say before making a decision" (17k)	"She was quite patronising [lacked social/emotional intelligence], I felt insecure" (20h)	"I can feel as though I'm working as part of the overall goal of the company - I know where I fit in" (6l)
	"It's more about how a leader makes you feel valued" (28q)	"Easier to work when your boss isn't standing right over you. You know what you are doing is right, you know how to do it" (33d)	"She took me under her wing and I was grateful to be honest" (21o)	"I like to feel like I am participating in something, to be part of the bigger picture. So, I need some 'meaning' - I'm not just there to earn a salary and go home" (28o)
	"I would <i>want</i> to work for them - versus a 'leader' who didn't meet my expectations" (29b)	"I need freedom, I work better, will do a better job" (33e)	"I want someone who nurtures you in the job" (4t)	"I'd quite like the leader to have some vision so that the work I'm doing fits into that vision - what I'm doing it's amounting to something" (6o)
	"You won't feel valued if they are not taking your recommendations seriously" (17k)	"I need the leader to respect me, and listen to me, communicate with me - it is about my ability" (32h)	"Compassion and understanding" (19a)	"I like to see where I fit into the vision, it motivates me" (18s)
	"I felt validated, valued ... Empowered. I knew I fitted and could be relied on" (30l)	"I want to know the overall goal, and then just let me do it" (18t)	"He'll help you - even when something goes wrong" (18n)	

Examples have been displayed to illustrate the precise areas that the students felt were most important to them. They reported a need to feel valued (first column) entailing a need for “*recognition for their work*” (17j) allied to a need for their “*recommendations to be taken seriously*” (17k) implying that the leader

valued their input. Taken collectively this need to be valued was closely tied to the self-efficacy needs (see Table 4.19, p.95) of the students who subsequently felt “*validated, valued – empowered*” (30l) and ‘*wanted*’ to work for such a leader (29b) for emotional reasons rather than purely transactional reward.

Likewise, students reported a need to feel respected, while the former need to be valued seemed more aligned with personal recognition the latter seems to reflect a more professional dimension. As stated by one student “*I’ve been employed to do this, so you should listen to what I have to say before making a decision*” (17k, female, home student), this view is corroborated by another student who felt that “*I need the leader to respect me, and listen to me, communicate with me – it is about my ability*” (32h, female, International student). The findings indicate that in circumstances where the leader showed appropriate respect for the ability of the follower, then the follower felt able to produce a higher quality of work. As expressed by one of the students it is “*easier to work when your boss isn’t standing right over you. You know what you are doing is right, you know how to do it*” (33d, male home student). This was echoed by a different student who stated that “*I need freedom, I work better, will do a better job*” (33e).

Need for support was a further area of discussion with students expressing the opinion that, perhaps allied to previous discussions of emotional and social intelligence a leader would be “*compassionate and understanding*” (19a), “*nurturing*” (4t) and supportive “*even when something goes wrong*” (18n). These findings do however conflict somewhat with later discussions where some participants expressed a desire for more dominant, and even autocratic, leadership (Table 4.12, p.84).

Lastly, some students were keen to discuss how the need for meaning was intimately bound with their perception of the ideal leader. One student stated that “*I like to feel like I am participating in something - to be part of the bigger picture. So I need some ‘meaning’ – I’m not just there to earn a salary and go home*” (28o, female, mature home student). Whilst another student said that “*I’d quite like the leader to have some vision so that the work I’m doing fits into*

that vision – what I’m doing it’s amounting to something” (6o), a view echoed by another who stated “I like to see where I fit into the vision, it motivates me” (18s, male home student). One further student expressed this view in terms of a sense of belonging by stating “I can feel as though I’m working as part of the overall goal of the company. I know where I fit in” (6l).

The Agreeableness of the Leader was the topic of extensive discussion with varying perspectives ranging from those who saw work as just an extension of their social environment, to those who saw it as very much separate and who saw no need for ‘friendship’ across hierarchical boundaries (see Table 4.11, below).

Table 4.11: Follower needs for Leader Friendship

	Work as a social environment	work as a semi-social environment	work as a non-social environment
need to feel friendship	"Friendly, someone I can get along with, someone I can relate to" (16c)	"There's no reason he can't be sociable" (10p)	"I'd rather work for someone who was just my boss" (10o)
	"I want friendly, life will be hard otherwise" (24i)	"A friendly boss would make a more approachable person, if you need to discuss certain work issues" (23c)	"It needs separation - in work and out of work" (21r)
	"You need an element of that [friendship] because I don't think people would come to you with problems otherwise" (23d)	"Although it's a work environment there is plenty of time in the day when you are talking socially" (19c)	"I don't care as long as I'm being paid ... I don't need them to be my friend - not at work" (23b)
	"They need to be mature and confident enough to be friendly" (23f)	"They need to be friendly enough that people feel they can come to you with a problem - to be approachable" (25m)	"People in authority need to initiate friendships" (24j)

For those who saw work as a social environment then some degree of friendship between leader and follower was considered not only preferable, but necessary. However, once again, these category boundaries are ‘fuzzy’ with some students offering professional reasons to support the need for personal friendships. As one student stated, she “*wanted friendly, life will be hard otherwise*” (24i, female, international student) a view echoed by another who

suggested “*friendly, someone I can get along with, someone I can relate to*” (16c). For those who saw work as a professional environment where a friendly atmosphere was conducive to good relations one student suggested that “*you need an element of that [friendship] because I don’t think people would come to you with problems otherwise*” (23d, male, home student).

This view was shared by others, one of whom stated “*a friendly boss would make a more approachable person, if you need to discuss certain work issues*” (23c), which was echoed by another “*they need to be friendly enough that people feel they can come to you with a problem – to be approachable*” (25m). However, these statements are also closely linked to later statements regarding the need for professional boundaries, and also linked to subsequent concerns about favouritism in the workplace (Table 4.13, p.86).

Lastly, on the subject of inter-hierarchical friendships are those students who profess a preference for a “*separation – in work and out of work*” (21r, male, home student). Within this group students suggest that they would “*rather work for someone who was just my boss*” (10o, male, home student) and the somewhat more extreme view that “*I don’t care as long as I’m being paid – I don’t need them to be my friend – not at work*” (23b, male, home student). While it was only males who expressed this view, and while gender issues *per se* are not central to the focus of this study, it was noted that both students appeared to have strong individual level self-identities. If these were combined with avoidant attachment styles then perhaps neither of them wanted or needed friendships in the workplace.

This research had a number of findings related to Affective responses based on follower needs for authority, particularly in respect of needs for direction, to have respect for the leader, a need for professional boundaries, and in relation to fears of responsibility (see Table 4.12, overleaf).

In relation to a need for direction the students reported variously a “*need to know where we are going, and how we are going to get there*” (4s, male, home student) and for the leader to “*know what they are doing, where we are going,*

and how to get there” (18o). Allied to this were preferences for “a leader who is dominant, and knows what they want” (12j) and for “top-down” (34m) direction.

Respect for the leader was of paramount importance with multiple statements by students to the effect that the leader needed “authority, someone who commands respect” (4u). As reported by one student “respect is a big thing, followers have to have respect for their leaders” (17i). However, these expressions of need for respect ranged from one student who stated “you want to look up to them, to believe in them” (16g) to another, at the opposite end of the spectrum who stated “as long as they are competent then I’ll respect their authority” (4m).

Table 4.12: Followers’ Needs for Authority

	Need for Direction	Need to Respect	Need for Boundaries	Need for Security
Need for Authority	"Need to know where we are going, and how we are going to get there" (4s)	"you want to look up to them and believe in them" (16g)	"You need a line of authority that people won't cross" (24g)	"It is scary when people are relying on you for a job" (17h)
	"Know what they are doing, where we are going, and how to get there" (18o)	"respect is a big thing, followers to have respect for their leaders" (17i)	"if you are too friendly people will take advantage of you" (24h)	"if they are taking responsibility then I am happy" (29g)
	"I do like a leader who is dominant, and knows what they want" (12j)	"professional respect" (5a)	"know where the line is, and tell me, be friendly in some circumstances but stricter in others" (24j)	"feel safe and secure" (29e)
	"I prefer a bit more top-down, does that make sense?" (34m)	"Authority, someone who commands respect" (4u)	"They have to be able to switch modes, if someone is just your friend it would cause problems. I'd struggle with that" (23f)	
	13q "I'd look for someone similar [dominant] and who would tell me their expectations. I like structure"	"You don't have to like them, but if you respect them then you will work hard" (4u)	"firm but fair - then i can get on with my work" (25o)	
		"As long as they are competent then I'll respect their authority" (4m)	"It keeps me in line if they are strict - you wouldn't want to upset them - as long as they are fair" (25p)	
		"He projected himself as intelligent and articulate, key points that I'd aspire to - I respected that" (13t)	"he wasn't authoritative enough - people walked all over him" (8g)	
		"strict but fair - I like groups with rules - if there are no rules or things are unclear it is hard to get things done" (25n)		

The research found clear ideas amongst the students on the subject of professional boundaries, linked both to their view of authority figures, their need to respect their leader, and previous findings about need for inter-hierarchical friendships. Multiple students related how *“you need a line of authority that people won’t cross”* (24g) and the need for the leader to be *“firm but fair – then I can get on with my work”* (25o). As one student put it *“I like groups with rules – if there are no rules or things are unclear it is hard to get things done”* (25n). This was echoed by another student who stated that *“it keeps me in line if they are strict – you wouldn’t want to upset them – as long as they are fair”* (25p). While students wanted the leader to be *“friendly in some circumstances but stricter in others”* (24j) the dangers of not making the line clear can be summed up by one student who recalled a past experience *“he wasn’t authoritative enough – people walked all over him”* (8g, female, home student).

Lastly, in the category of Authority, were several comments related to ‘fear of responsibility’ or perhaps relief that someone else was taking the burden on their behalf. One student suggested that *“it is scary when people are relying on you for a job”* (17h), while another stated that *“if they are taking responsibility then I am happy”* (29g, female, international student). In summarising the authority needs of the students perhaps one statement offers an explanation as to why these factors are held to be important. One student said that he wanted to *“feel safe and secure”* (29e) and he felt that when his leader met his expectations.

Data emerged during the course of the research that centred on the topic of fairness in the workplace. All of the statements made (Table 4.13, overleaf) were made by female students in relation to experiences of favouritism by both male and female bosses.

Table 4.13: Fairness and Favouritism in the workplace

Favouritism		
Fairness & justice	"they [female managers] have their favourites, your ability doesn't matter, their friends get more recognition, which I think is wrong" (10r)	"women managers do have their favourites - but they don't reward them in the same way" (20k)
	"there was a lot of politicking and unfairness [by male managers] going on" (9k)	"People don't like it when the boss is more friendly with one person than another, when they get the best jobs and the best assignments" (5k)
	"I grew up with expectations of fairness in the workplace - that sense of injustice made it hard" (20l)	

Linking this data back to issues of inter-hierarchical friendship it can be noted that while most respondents wanted a boss that was friendly and approachable (Table 4.11, p.82), allowing for views on the need for boundaries (Table 4.12, p.84), there was a limit beyond which that friendship was negatively perceived by those who were not part of the in-group.

For example, one student explained how *"they [female managers] have their favourites, your ability doesn't matter, their friends get more recognition, which I think is wrong"* (10r) although another student remarked separately that *"women managers do have their favourites – but they don't reward them in the same way [as male managers]"* (20k). Similarly, another student felt that *"there was a lot of politicking and unfairness [by male managers] going on"* (9k).

Those who felt excluded experienced negative emotional states that could impact on other areas of the relationship as suggested by another student who felt that:

"People don't like it when the boss is more friendly with one person than another, when they get the best jobs and the best assignments" (5k).

Participants reported a wide range of positive emotional states when interacting with a leader who met their ILT needs. Positive feelings about themselves, positive emotions about the leader, and by extension positive feelings towards the organisation that they were employed within (see Table 4.14, below).

When matched with a leader that met their ILTs many of the students reported feelings of “happiness” (29f, 29b) which increased their “motivation” (29b, 29d) with the resulting feeling of being “valued” (29e) leading to a a greater “enjoyment” (30h) in their work. This match gave rise to feelings of being “safe and secure” (29e) which led to increased feelings of “self-respect” (30l) and “self-confidence” (30m) and in the words of one student left her feeling “validated, valued, empowered” (30l).

Table 4.14: Positive Emotional States

	About Self	About Superior	About Company
Positive Emotions	"happy and motivated" (29b)	"have faith" (29e)	"Belief in the company" (29c)
	"motivated" (29d)	"I have respect" (29d)	"pride in the company" (29c)
	"feel valued" (29e)	"If I'm happy with my boss, and things are going well, then I'd be happy to follow" (34o)	"I can achieve so much more" (30k)
	"feel safe and secure" (29e)	"I can achieve so much more" (30k)	"I was willing to do a lot more" (27n)
	"happy" (29f)	"I was willing to do a lot more" (27n)	"It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve" (30k)
	"feel hope" (29f)	"it makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve" (30k)	
	"enjoyment" (30h)		
	"self-respect" (30l)		
	"feel confidence" (30m)		
	"I felt validated, valued, empowered" (30l)		

In relation to their superior, in the case of ILT match, the students stated that they had “*faith*” in their leader (29e) because they “*respected*” them (29d). They reported that their positive emotional state, caused by the ILT match, meant that

"I can achieve so much more [for him]" (30k) and *"I was willing to do a lot more [for her]"* (27n) and was willing to *"go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve"* (30k).

In turn, whilst explicitly stating that these positive feelings extended to the organisation at large, demonstrated by statements such as *"belief in the company"* (29c) and *"pride in the company"* (29c) it was also implied that their willingness to 'achieve more' (30k) and 'go the extra mile' (30k) also extended beyond the leaders themselves and encompassed the organisation which they led.

When asked about their feelings in response to leadership-claimants who did NOT meet their ILTs the students had very different responses with a range of negative feelings, about themselves, about their superiors, and particularly in relation to the organisations within which they worked (Table 4.15, overleaf).

In regard to feelings about themselves it can be noted that the predominant feelings were of being helpless, de-motivated, lost, and depressed. As one student remarked, indicating a sense of helplessness *"There's not much you can do"* (31g, male, home) whilst another stated that he felt *"unmotivated"* (31e). In particular one female student said *"What am I doing? I don't feel valued"* (31f) with another student, also female, stating *"it's not home anymore – I don't fit"* (32n). The latter statement was not only in relation to her interactions and relationship with her immediate superior, but extended to her view of the organisation itself.

Their feelings towards their superior is likewise negative with numerous references to a lack of confidence in the ability of the superior which impacts on the employees motivation, attitudes and even extending to outright rejection of their authority. The majority view can be summarised in the words of one student *"I wouldn't want to work with them"* (29b) although this is supported by statements such as that made by another student *"I got to have respect [for them] otherwise I'm not motivated"* (29d). At a more extreme, albeit verbally and non-verbally supported by other members of the groups, there is an outright

rejection of the authority of the leadership claimant. As one student stated “*In any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]*” (31g). Comments relating to “*bad managers*” (31c) abound, ranging from simple expressions of “*she was rubbish*” (31d) to more in-depth expressions such as “*we worked for someone we didn’t respect, thought they were two-faced, and we couldn’t hide it*” (36j).

Table 4.15: Negative Emotional States

	About Self	About Superior	About Company
Negative Emotions	"There's not much you can do [helplessness]" (31g)	"I wouldn't work with them" (29b)	"If the boss was no good, then I'd be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company" (32j)
	"I feel unmotivated" (31e)	"I got to have respect otherwise I'm not motivated" (29d)	"makes me hate the place" (31e)
	"What am I doing? I don't feel valued" (31f)	"In any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]" (31g)	"I don't feel valued - there's not enough reward for what you do - your effort isn't recognised" (31f)
	"It's not home anymore - I don't fit" (32)	"bad managers" (31c)	"It's not home anymore - I don't fit" (32n)
	"I think I'd be depressed" (32o)	"she was rubbish ..." (31d)	"We don't have to be subjected to this. Why waste yourself working for someone who isn't right?" (32j)
		"It feels like I'm taking over the management role - it's disorganised - you go in and you don't know what to do" (31f)	"Someone else might appreciate this job, but not me" (32k)
		"I don't feel confident in his ability - which affects my motivation" (32i) "We worked for someone we didn't respect, thought they were two-faced, and couldn't hide it" (36j)	"We didn't want to be there, work there, or be anywhere near there" (36j)

These negative feelings extend beyond the unrecognised leadership-claimant to the organisation itself. As stated by several students these again range from simple statements such as “*makes me hate the place*” (31e) to “*we didn’t want to be there, work there, or be anywhere near there*” (36j). Negative attitudes

towards the superior, and towards the organisation itself, result in expressions of general dissatisfaction to the point where various students are vocal in expressing their intention to leave the organisation.

These views can be illustrated by the statement made by one student “*if the boss was no good then I’d be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company*” (32j). This was echoed by others who suggested that “*we don’t have to be subjected to this. Why waste yourself working for someone who isn’t right?*” (32j).

4.2.3 Behaviours: How are they affected?

In this final section of the research Findings I report on student experiences in terms of their behavioural responses to the cognitive and affective aspects of their Implicit Leadership Theories by contrasting the positive behaviours that result when their ILT expectations are met, and the negative behaviours that result when they are not (Table 4.16, overleaf). While some of these findings are inferred on the basis of previously expressed thoughts and feelings, others are explicitly stated by the students themselves.

Positive emotional responses engender positive behaviours towards both the superior, and the organisation itself. One student stated, smiling blissfully, that “*happy cows produce more milk*” (18m, female, international student) meaning that she worked harder, and better when matched with a superior who met her ILT needs bringing additional benefits both in terms of her own satisfaction but also in terms of supporting the superior in meeting objectives. Another student reported that he could “*achieve so much more [for him]*” (30k) whilst another stated that she “*was willing to do a lot more [for her]*” (27n). Speaking in the context of both the leaders direct goals, and those of the organisation a student stated that they “*wanted to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve*” (30k).

Conversely, in situations where leadership-claimants did not meet their ILTs there is a very different picture in regard to the cognitive and affective impacts

on behaviour with clear indications of negative attitudes that would affect behaviours. For example, one student stated *"I wouldn't want to work with them"* (29b) echoed by similar sentiments such as *"I got to have respect for the boss otherwise I'm not motivated"* (29d) and *"I don't feel confident in his ability – which affects my motivation"* (32i).

Leadership claimants who, because of automatic leadership categorisation processes and subsequent attributions, did not meet the ILTs of the individual students were, in all cases, relegated to the role of *"bad manager"* (31c). Where affective components were particularly strong these feelings sometimes evolved to the point where leadership claims were rejected outright.

Table 4.16: Comparison of behaviours under ILT Met/Not Met criteria

Positive behaviours (ILTs Met)	Negative behaviours (ILTs Not Met)
<p>"Happy cows produce more milk" (18m)</p> <p>"I can achieve so much more [for him]" (30k)</p> <p>"I was willing to do a lot more [for her]" (27n)</p> <p>"It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve" (30k)</p>	<p>"In any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]" (31g)</p> <p>"bad managers" (31c)</p> <p>"If the boss was no good, then I'd be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company" (32l)</p> <p>"I don't feel confident in his ability - which affects my motivation" (32i)</p> <p>"Nobody wanted to work under her, didn't like coming to work, people called in sick, nobody would do overtime. We were totally disincetivized" (31d)</p> <p>"I wouldn't want to work with them" (29b)</p> <p>"We don't have to be subjected to this - why waste yourself working for someone who isn't right?" (32j)</p> <p>"It feels like I'm taking over the management role - so disorganised, you don't know what to do" (31f)</p> <p>"I feel unmotivated, makes me hate the place, not want to come into work. I'm less productive" (31e)</p> <p>"Someone else might appreciate this job, but not me" (32k)</p> <p>"I got to have respect for the boss otherwise I'm not motivated" (29d)</p>

Those who felt able expressed a desire to leave the organisation stating *"I'd be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company"* (32l). This was echoed by others including one student who felt that *"we don't have to be subjected to*

this – why waste yourself working for someone who isn't right??" (32j). For those who remained there was a strong sense of dissatisfaction include those who felt *"in any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]"* (31g) and those who agreed with the statement made by one student:

"Nobody wanted to work under her, didn't like coming to work, people called in sick, nobody would do overtime. We were totally disincentivized." (31d, female, home student).

Behavioural responses to ILT needs not being met range from poor motivation and poor performance, through to rejections of authority and actions that undermine the superior and the organisation, and on to behaviours that include leaving the organisation altogether and even setting up in competition with it.

4.3 Relationship Outcomes when ILT criteria met/not met

When looking at the relationship between cognitive perceptions of a leadership-claimants' attributes and skills, the emotional responses to that claim, and the behaviours that result we can see two very different scenarios. In the first table (Table 4.17, overleaf) we can view a situation where initial positive perceptions create positive emotional responses which result in positive behaviours.

This leads to a positive interaction/relationship thereby creating a positive feedback cycle where the results of those behaviours positively reinforce continued perceptions and emotions. In short, these people enjoy their job, like their boss, like the organisation, and generally feel good about themselves and the situation.

Table 4.17: Consequences of Positive Match on ILT

		Positive Relationships			
		Cognitive Perceptions (Distal)	Cognitive Perceptions (Proximal)	Emotional Responses	Behavioural Impacts
ILT criteria Met	"You want someone to have specific traits so you can distinguish between normal people and leaders, because they tend to have those things" (5c)		"What I like is decision making, a good leader can make decisions" (3g)	"I like to feel like I am participating in something, to be part of the bigger picture. So, I need some 'meaning' - I'm not just there to earn a salary and go home" (28o)	"Happy cows produce more milk" (18m)
	"a good leader has charisma, they will use that to make you want to follow them rather than using their authority" (16d)		"It's about the ability to solve problems" (6m)	"I felt validated, valued ... Empowered. I knew I fitted and could be relied on" (30l)	"I can achieve so much more [for him]" (30k)
	"Someone who has the charismatic, inspirational personality that makes me want to do the job" (28p)		"They need to be knowledgeable, to understand the situation, and what needs to be done" (2a)	"Easier to work when your boss isn't standing right over you. You know what you are doing is right, you know how to do it" (33d)	"I was willing to do a lot more [for her]" (27n)
	"I'd quite like a leader to have some vision so that the work I'm doing fits into that" (6o)		"They need to be able to influence, to persuade" (4n)	"It's more about how a leader makes you feel valued" (28q)	"it makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve" (30k)
	"Leaders and managers are completely different – leaders need to inspire and motivate me to do it" (15e)		"Knowledge of what they are doing and where we are going, and how to get there" (4s)	"I can feel as though I'm working as part of the overall goal of the company - I know where I fit in" (6l)	"Easier to work when your boss isn't standing right over you. You know what you are doing is right, you know how to do it" (33d)

By contrast the following table (Table 4.18, overleaf) demonstrates a situation which is entirely different. The initial negative perceptions trigger negative emotional responses, resulting in negative behaviours, leading to a negative relationship that creates a vicious cycle that reinforces further perceptions. In short, these people dislike their jobs, dislike the bosses, have little or no faith in the companies they work for, and in generally feel bad about themselves and the situation they are in.

Table 4.18: Consequences of Negative Match on ILT

Negative Relationships				
	Cognitive Perceptions (Distal)	Cognitive Perceptions (Proximal) *	Emotional Responses	Behavioural Impacts
ILT criteria Not Met	"if they don't have them [special traits] then they are just another person" (5d)	"You need to be able to adapt to what different people need/want, what they will respond to" (3f)	"She was quite patronising [lacked social/emotional intelligence], I felt insecure" (20h)	"If the boss was no good, then I'd be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company" (32l)
	"if someone doesn't have them, then they are not to me a leader" (5e)	"Motivational [due to their charisma/vision] - to go further. Him and me" (4s)	"In any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]" (31g)	"Someone else might appreciate this job, but not me" (32k)
	"if you have an idea about how a leader should be, and they don't fit that, then you are going to think they are a crap leader" (14y)	"I think it's important that they are charismatic and inspirational because you want to look up to them and believe them and can follow them – and that will make them a good leader" (16g)	"It feels like I'm taking over the management role - it's disorganised - you go in and you don't know what to do" (31f)	"Nobody wanted to work under her, didn't like coming to work, people called in sick, nobody would do overtime. We were totally disincentivized" (31d)
	"not having the expected traits makes them <i>not</i> a leader ... It's more influential" (5f)	"I need them to have charisma, drive - otherwise it would be boring" (16a)	"There's not much you can do [helplessness]" (31g)	"I wouldn't want to work with them" (29b)
	"you might be more affected by someone who didn't match [your expectations], than one who did" (5g)	"They need to be knowledgeable, to understand the situation, and what needs to be done" (2a)	"We worked for someone we didn't respect, thought they were two-faced, and couldn't hide it" (36j)	"I feel unmotivated, makes me hate the place, not want to come into work. I'm less productive" (31e)

* Due to the process of negative attribution caused by failure to categorise their superiors as 'leaders' it has been *inferred* that the participants would NOT recognise the targets as possessing the specified traits or abilities.

Re-focusing on the 'meaning of the experience' for the followers the research shows (see Table 4.19, overleaf) that many of the needs and motivations of the followers, which directly impact their Implicit Leadership Theories and therefore result in emotional and cognitive responses, are related to concepts such as Self-Esteem, Self-Efficacy, and Social Identity. Therefore, the positive emotional responses can be linked to illustrative comments made by the students regarding such issues (in relation to self-esteem) as the need to "*feel valued*" (28q) or the need for the work to "*amount to something*" (6o) for it to have some meaning. Likewise, having "*my ideas valued*" (29e) and having "*recognition for my work*" (17j) are linked to ideas of self-efficacy and the knowledge that one's skills and abilities are recognised and appreciated.

Table 4.19: Self-concept issues when follower needs Met/Not Met

	Self-Esteem	Self-Efficacy	Social Identity
Positive Emotional Responses	<p>"It's more about how a leader makes you feel valued" (28q)</p> <p>"I couldn't work with them if they were immoral or unethical" (18q)</p> <p>"I can achieve so much more" (30k)</p> <p>"I'd like the leader to have a vision so that the work I'm doing fits into that vision - what I'm doing it's amounting to something" (6o)</p>	<p>"I feel like I can perform because there is some safety and security there - my ideas are valued" (29e)</p> <p>"recognition for my work, I want it to be valued" (17j)</p> <p>"I produced some of my best work, even won an award. I was willing to do a lot more, I kept stupid hours but I was willing to do that to get things done" (27n)</p> <p>"I felt entirely validated by it ... I felt I was on track and could be relied on" (30l)</p>	<p>"I can feel as though I'm working as part of the overall goal of the company - I know where I fit in" (6l)</p> <p>"I knew I fitted" (30l)</p> <p>"It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve" (30k)</p> <p>"I like to feel like I am participating in something, to be part of the bigger picture. So, I need some 'meaning' - I'm not just there to earn a salary and go home" (28o)</p>
Negative Emotional Responses	<p>"I felt she looked down on me - she was quite patronising. I felt insecure" (9h)</p> <p>"I couldn't work with them if they were immoral or unethical" (18q)</p> <p>"It's hard working sometimes when they have their favourites [...] their friends get more recognition, which I think is wrong" (21u)</p>	<p>"I don't feel valued - there's not enough reward for what you do - your effort isn't recognised" (31f)</p> <p>"What am I doing? I don't feel valued" (31f)</p> <p>"I don't think you will feel valued ... If they are not going to take recommendations seriously. I've been employed to do this so you should listen to what I have to say before making a decision" (17k)</p>	<p>"It's not home anymore - I don't fit" (32n)</p> <p>"We were totally dis-incentivised. The relationship collapsed" (31d)</p> <p>"In any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]" (31g)</p>

Lastly, “*working as part of the overall goal of the company – I know where I fit in*” (6l) and wanting to “*go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve*” (30k) demonstrates commitment to the relationship between themselves and the leader, and between themselves and the organisation.

In the same manner, negative emotional responses can be linked to instances where feeling “*insecure*” (9h), not having your value “*recognised*” (21u), or indeed working with someone who offends your sense of ‘*morality or ethics*’ (18q) can damage self-esteem. When a student states “*I don't feel valued, there's not enough reward for what you do – your effort isn't recognised*” (31f) and “*I don't think you will feel valued if they are not going to take recommendations seriously*” (17k) this clearly decreases their sense of self-efficacy, casting doubt on their abilities and skills. These lead to a loss of social

identity where “relationships collapse” (31d), and where students felt “it’s not home anymore – I don’t fit” (32n). In one case it was suggested that “in any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]” (31g) since the group needs a leader – and the incumbent is not recognised as such – at least by some. Linking those same, and some additional, examples of emotional responses to organisation concepts such as ‘Job Satisfaction’, ‘Commitment’ and ‘Well-being’, we can see (Table 4.20, below) that positive emotional responses are linked to increased job satisfaction, greater commitment (to the leader and to the organisation as a whole) and an increased sense of well-being. Conversely, negative emotional responses demonstrate precisely the opposite.

Table 4.20: Relationship Outcomes when ILT needs Met/Not Met

	Job Satisfaction	Commitment	Well-being
Positive Emotional Responses	<p>"I can achieve so much more" (30k)</p> <p>"It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve" (30k)</p> <p>"I produced some of my best work, even won an award. I was willing to do a lot more, I kept stupid hours but I was willing to do that to get things done" (27n)</p>	<p>"I'd like the leader to have a vision so that the work I'm doing fits into that vision - what I'm doing it's amounting to something" (6o)</p> <p>"I like to feel like I am participating in something, to be part of the bigger picture. So, I need some 'meaning' - I'm not just there to earn a salary and go home" (28o)</p> <p>"I can feel as though I'm working as part of the overall goal of the company - I know where I fit in" (6l)</p>	<p>"I felt entirely validated by it ... I felt I was on track and could be relied on" (30l)</p> <p>"It's more about how a leader makes you feel valued" (28q)</p> <p>"I feel like I can perform because there is some safety and security there - my ideas are valued" (29e)</p>
Negative Emotional Responses	<p>"Nobody wanted to work under her, didn't like coming to work, people called in sick, nobody would do overtime. We were totally disincetivized" (31d)</p> <p>"It feels like I'm taking over the management role - it's disorganised - you go in and you don't know what to do" (31f)</p> <p>"I feel unmotivated, makes me hate the place, not want to come into work. I'm less productive" (31e)</p>	<p>"If the boss was no good, then I'd be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company" (32l)</p> <p>"In any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]" (31g)</p> <p>"I don't feel valued - there's not enough reward for what you do - your effort isn't recognised" (31f)</p>	<p>"She was quite patronising, I felt insecure" (20h)</p> <p>"There's not much you can do [helplessness]" (31g)</p> <p>"It's not home anymore - I don't fit" (32n)</p>

4.4 Summary

Data from this research supports previous research into the content and structure of Implicit Leadership theories but extends this by examining the affective component of the ILTs in order to understand how they impact on behaviours in the workplace. By further analysis and a focus on the meaning of the experience to the participants the key categories of cognitive, affective and behaviour responses were linked to self-concept needs based around self-esteem, self-efficacy and social identity, which were further mapped onto organisational concepts of Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Employee Well-being.

It was found that where ILT needs were matched there were positive outcomes for the participants, their superiors and the organisations with which they were involved. Conversely, where ILT needs were not matched, a wide variety of negative effects emerge ranging from poor performance, and impaired well-being, through to withdrawal behaviours, and outright rebellion.

In the following chapter I will be discussing these findings further and interpreting them through various organisational behaviour lenses focusing on Implicit Leadership Theory and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory in order to explore and understand how these emotional responses can impact on the relationship between followers and leadership-claimants in organisational settings.

Chapter 5: Discussion

*“My understanding has decreased in direct proportion to my increased knowledge ...
the more I read, the more contradictory appeared the conclusions I came to.”
Grint (2000b, p. 1)*

5.1 Introduction

The study aimed to develop and expand on existing theory on Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) by exploring the subjective meanings that participants attach to their own ILTs, through retrospective interpretations of prior experiences of being led, and to make a theoretical contribution to knowledge and understanding in this field. In this chapter I will discuss the primary results and analysis with reference to theoretical arguments grounded in the literature review, highlighting major differences and similarities between the findings and extant literature. To guide the discussion I rely on theoretical frameworks taken from the literature on Implicit Leadership Theories and interpret my findings via an organisational ‘lens’ based on Leader-Member Exchange Theory. I will argue that the affective element of a followers’ ILT, based on precursors within their personality, has a major impact on their behaviours and therefore constitutes a crucial factor in determining the quality of the LMX relationship.

Firstly, I will discuss the findings (described as Cognitive) in relation to Implicit Leadership Theories in order to demonstrate how they fit with existing research. Secondly, I will explore what it means to a follower in terms of self-esteem, self-efficacy and Social Identity (broadly described as Affective), when they interact with a leadership-claimant who matches, or does not match, their Implicit Leadership Theories. Thirdly, turning our attention to personal and organisational outcomes, I will discuss how an ILT match/mismatch causes Behavioural differences that impact on the nature and quality of the LMX relationship and affect organisational outcomes such as Job Satisfaction, Commitment and Well-being.

Finally, I will summarise the main points, and then highlight major areas of significance, before moving on to the final concluding chapter.

5.2 The continuing search for Meaning

Returning to the original purpose of the study and my research questions I have sought to discover, by conducting qualitative interpretivist research adopting a critical realist perspective, what the participants' Implicit Leadership Theories mean to them. Focusing on the subjective meaning to the perceiver I first needed to describe the ILTs held and subsequently explored some of the factors that influenced the development of those ILTs. Furthermore in describing the emotional responses resulting from those ILTs, an area that appeared under-researched, I was able to explore the behavioural consequences that resulted when their ILT needs were met, or not met. Finally, I was able to explore what the implications might be at the individual level for leader-member exchanges with particular interest in issues of job satisfaction, commitment, and well-being. In all cases there appeared to be a clear alignment cognitive, emotional and behavioural responses (influenced by personality factors unique to individuals) that correspond to either high-LMX or low-LMX relationships, with major impacts on relationship outcomes pertaining to job satisfaction, commitment and well-being.

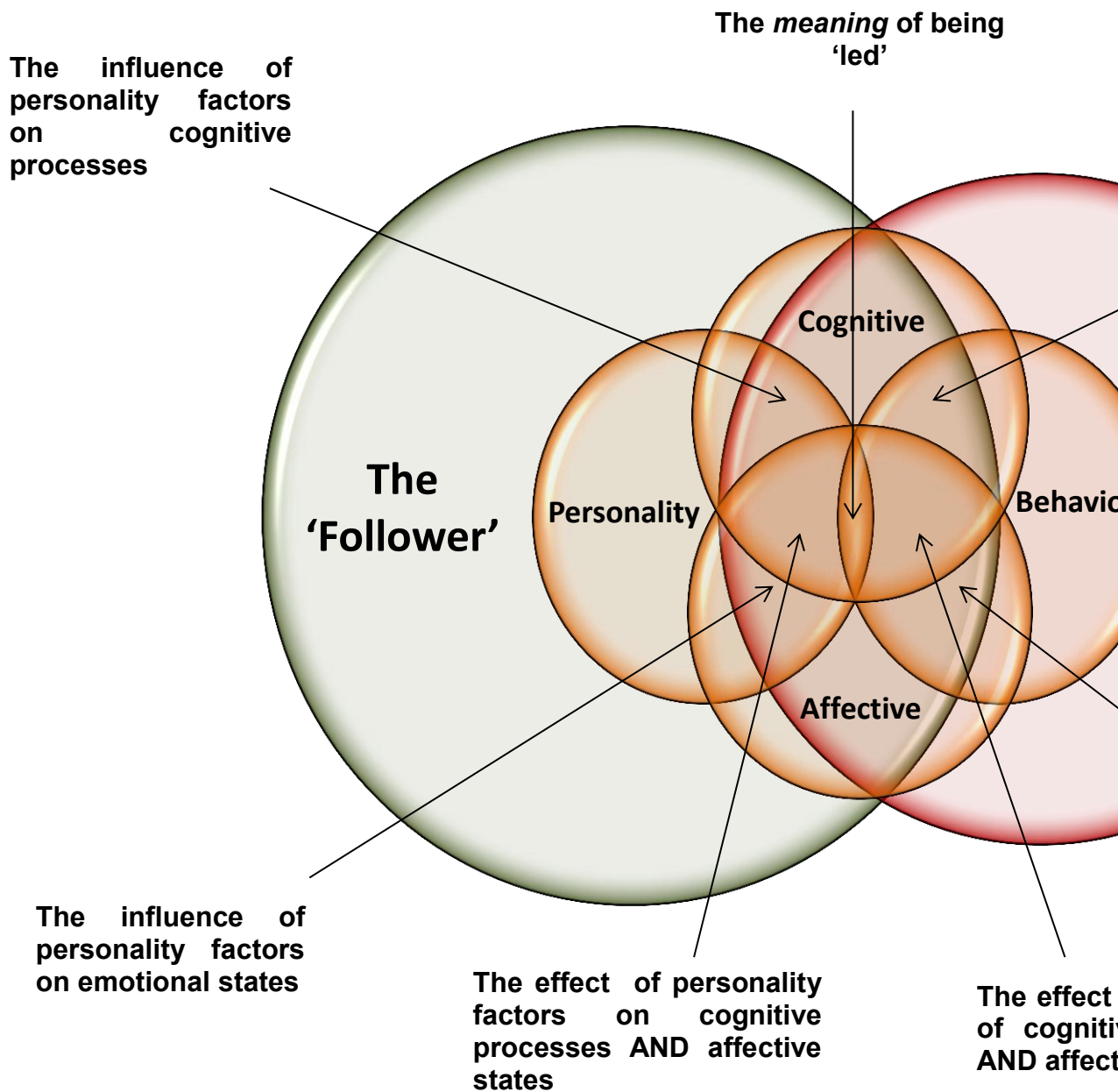
5.2.1 Implicit Leadership Theories

In seeking to determine the Implicit Leadership Theories held by the participants I have used, as theoretical frameworks, the studies of Offerman *et al.*, (1994) and Epitropaki and Martin (2004), adapted to differentiate between Distal and Proximal traits by reference to Zaccaro's (2007) Model of Leader Attributes. Furthermore, I have sought to incorporate the research on Attribution and Social Cognition models (Brown & Lord, 2001; Fiske & Neuberg, 1991; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Lord, Brown & Harvey, 2001) and specifically the Leader Categorisation Theory developed by Lord, Foti, and Phillips (1982), and Lord, Foti, and de Vader (1984). These served to describe and illustrate the ILTs held by my study

group before exploring the subjective meanings that they attributed to their experiences of leadership.

A further revision of my conceptual framework (Figure 5.1, below) will serve to guide discussions. Note that the 'leader' circle has been reduced in scale to show that it is the personality of the follower impacting on the way the follower thinks about the leader, feels about the leader, and behaves towards the leader that is the main focus of this research study. The actual traits and behaviours of the leader are considered less significant than the follower's perception of them.

Figure 5.1: Post-Analysis Conceptual Framework



The research supported existing ILT research in terms of content and structure particularly in relation to the process of categorisation itself (the Cognitive element of Figure 5.1, above) with students reporting that perceptions of specific traits, accorded with leadership prototypes (Lord & Emrich, 2001, p.557) and Cognitive Schemas (Shondrick & Lord, 2010, p.3), were central to whether they 'recognised' the person claiming a leadership role regardless of that persons' formal organisational role or status. When discussing expectations at the level of subordinate categorisation (Lord, Foti, and Phillips,

1982; Lord, Foti, and de Vader, 1984) it is noteworthy that while senior leaders were expected to be visionary and charismatic, communicating with the team in ways considered by *followers* to be inspirational, there were no such expectations of supervisory and lower-level managers with their role being deemed essentially administrative and bureaucratic. While the students clearly differentiate between 'managing' and 'leading' (Kotter, 1998; Zaleznik, 1998) this does not negate the possibility that someone might be viewed as a leader, even if they are formally only occupying a supervisory position (Offerman et al., 1994). Indeed (Edwards & Gill, 2012, p.42) "*categorisation according to hierarchical level may mean different things in different organisations*" since they may attribute different meanings to terms such as senior, middle and lower management. However, only those categorised as leaders, regardless of formal authority, were deemed "*worthy of influence*" (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney and Blascovich (1996) and thus considered, by the participants, as worthy of being *followed*.

While the majority of data supported the cognitive findings of existing ILT research there were several areas that are deserving of further attention, namely the prototypical traits of Charisma and Intelligence, and the anti-prototypical traits Tyranny and Masculinity. In addition, findings in the data included accounts of developmental influences on ILTs which seem to be lacking in the literature.

Participants were strongly and vocally desirous of, and motivated by, leaders who displayed 'Charisma', 'Inspiration', and 'Vision'. While these and related concepts were incorporated within the original Offerman *et al.*, (1994) scales and are still apparent in Transformational Leadership research (Edwards & Gill, 2012), the Charisma category was removed in the Epitropaki and Martin (2004) study due to apparent statistical weaknesses in the construct. However, participants repeatedly spoke of the need for charismatic, inspirational, visionary leaders without once referring to the need to be dynamic or display dynamism. Conger and Kanungo (1988, p6) thought charisma to be a "*poorly understood phenomenon*" and Schyns and Felfe (2008, p.304) echo this when stating that "*we all know charisma when we see it, but it is difficult to describe*"

therefore it may be that the students were using 'charisma' to describe some concept that they all valued, but conceived of differently, and that the term merely served as a convenient label.

While Intelligence has been strongly linked with leadership (Offerman *et al.*, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) this study found very little data explicitly supporting its importance to the participants. However, there was considerable data from which the value of Intelligence might be inferred. For example, Social Intelligence (Zaccaro, 2007), and Emotional Intelligence (or 'Sensitivity', Offerman *et al.*, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004), were highly valued for their implicitly and explicitly stated roles in influencing, persuading and negotiating with people in a variety of situations, and the ability to adapt to those situations as required. This seems to support Higgs (2003, p.279) who stated that Emotional Intelligence was "*more important than IQ ... and significantly more important for leadership roles*". Participants also expressed preferences for leaders able to make decisions, solve problems and display salient knowledge and experience. Albeit that many of these category boundaries were 'fuzzy' there seems to be an implicit understanding that a degree of intellectual capacity is required in order to a) understand the problem, b) generate a solution, and c) negotiate the implementation of that solution.

Whilst traits that can be ascribed to the Tyranny category (Offerman *et al.*, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) are reported by the students it is of interest that, in some cases 'domineering' and 'manipulative' were not viewed in a particularly negative light. While a preference for more autocratic leaders in times of uncertainty can be expected (Schoel *et al.*, 2011) in multiple cases participants expressed a preference for dominant leaders and actively wanted to be told what to do, albeit that they often then wanted to be left to get on and do it. One student even remarked how democratic leaders could appear weak because [he assumed] "*continually seeking the opinions of others demonstrated an inability to make decisions*". In a further case when describing a previous boss who had manipulated her it was clear that she held this employer in high regard, liked her personally and professionally, and continued undeterred in full knowledge that she was being wilfully manipulated. Although neither student

overtly displayed any evidence of low or unstable self-esteem it seems plausible that some other personality factors, outside the scope of this study, were responsible.

While some may find it astonishing that 80% of the study group, final year Business Management undergraduates undertaking a leadership modules, would express a preference for male leaders, others may not be so surprised. As noted earlier, the primary explanation for this preference amongst the male students may be attributed to the concepts of 'liking' based on similarity (Engle & Lord, 1997) or 'prototypicality' (Geissner, van Knippenberg, & Sleebos, 2008; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). However, that female students might express the same preference is more difficult to explain on that same basis. Lord and Emrich (2001, p559 citing Offerman *et al.*, 1994) noted how the effects of the fathers personality in determining the ILT of the child is "*substantially larger than those of mothers*", and Cronshaw and Lord (1987, p.105) found that our evaluations based on gender are automatic, categorisation-based processes rather than deliberative attributional reasonings.

While some masculine characteristics may be viewed as 'anti-prototypical' (Offerman *et al.*, 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) this does not necessarily mean they are viewed as negative, nor as ineffective (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). As shown in the findings (Tables 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13) while there were definite views on inter-hierarchical friendships, and favouritism in the workplace, viewed most negatively by female respondents in relation to female superiors, it is clear that being male is still seen, by the majority of the participants, as being advantageous (Klenke, 2011, van Vugt, Hogan & Keiser, 2009).

While allowing that their ILT were developed in childhood (Ayman-Nolley & Ayman, 2005), and that multiple factors may have been responsible, the participants considered that family role models were a dominant influence, as were a variety of role models in wider society such as school teachers who provided early exposure to formal authority figures (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004, p.293). Our ILTs are thus formed through exposure to socialisation processes

and interpersonal interactions during childhood (Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Keller, 2003; Kenney *et al.*, 1996; Lord, Brown & Harvey, 2001; Nye, 2005; Nye & Forsythe, 1991) with the influence of the father reportedly being substantially greater than that of the mother (Offerman *et al.*, 1994). Whilst students thought that work experiences were a possible influence on their ILTs this conflicts with evidence provided by Epitropaki and Martin (2004, p.307) that neither different degrees of experience, nor length of tenure, had any measurable effect.

There was a recognition that our ILTs are often based on an idealised version of Self (Keller, 1999, 2003; Lord & Brown, 2004; Lord & Emrich, 2001; Schyns & Felfe, 2008) representing an Ideal that we aspire towards. Many of the discussions evoked emotional responses from the participants that reflected psychological issues of attachment, social identity, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, p.193; Ehrhart, 2012, p.237; Felfe, 2005, p.207; Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2011; Hogg & Vaughan, 2010, p.301; Lord & Brown, 2004; Schoel, Bluemke, Mueller & Stahlberg, 2011) and it is to a discussion of these topics we turn next.

5.2.2 Followership and Self

The preceding section of this chapter discussed findings in relation to theoretical frameworks that explained *why* people possess Implicit Leadership Theories, and *how* they worked. However, this body of theory offers little description of how followers *feel* about the experience or indeed how those feelings are reflected in behaviour. Shondrick and Lord (2010, p.11) point out that “*followers’ cognitive and emotional processes are used to make sense of leadership processes*” but these processes are often so interlinked that it is difficult to separate the two. In this section I endeavour to extract findings that are predominantly about emotional processes and discuss how these relate to *meaning*.

Participants expressed a desire to experience a level of friendship with their leader, which can be plausibly linked to issues of self-concept such as self-esteem and social identity (Lord & Brown, 2004). It is after all a reasonable human expectation to be liked with “*uncertainties and insecurities about who we*

are, how we should live, and what significant others think of us” taking many forms (Collinson, 2006, p.182). However, there was a split in the findings with three separate groups emerging, the first group saw work as an extension of their social environment, the second group desired a pleasant working environment but saw a need for professional boundaries, and a third group preferred total separation of their working and non-working lives (Table 4.11, p.82).

The results in relation to friendships between leader and follower overlap with participants expressed needs for authority, which were categorised under the headings of need for direction, need to respect [the leader], need for boundaries, and fear of responsibility (Table 4.12, p.84). Higgs (2003, p.273 citing Collingwood, 2001) suggests that it is a “*basic human need to be led*” indeed (ibid., citing Freud, 1927) “*groups of individuals need leaders to provide them with an identity and sense of purpose*”. The students seemed to have clear understandings of their needs, and how a recognised leader might meet them. For example, they wanted to know where they were going, and how they were going to get there, and wanted clarity about the role they were expected to play. While some comments such as “*you want to look up to them and believe in them*” (16g) may appear more submissive than some people are comfortable with, others were equally strident in their need for the leader to command their respect. Allied to the findings on inter-hierarchical friendship is the need for boundaries, students believed that “*you need a line of authority*” (24g) because there was a general perception that “*if you are too friendly people will take advantage of you*” (24h). Being “*firm but fair*” (25o) seemed to be the solution in situations where a more authoritarian tone was required. Lastly, on the subject of inter-hierarchical friendships, and the need to perceive the leader as fair, there appears to be a conflict between findings regarding Fairness, and statements made regarding the need for friendships.

It appears that whilst individual followers desire a social relationship based on liking for *themselves*, they can sometimes hold negative views when the leader has similar relationships with *others*. While LMX Differentiation (Schyns *et al.*, 2010) is not within the scope of this research *per se* it is clear from the findings

that followers are aware of differences in relationships between the leader and individual followers, and that it has implications for well-being and job satisfaction. However, while they profess to dislike 'favouritism', data regarding their desire for friendship (liking) clearly indicates that the majority aspire to be in the in-group rather than the out-group.

Further key findings related to how followers themselves wanted, and needed, to feel valued, respected, and supported (Table 4.10. p.80). They expressed a desire for their work to have meaning, for it to fit within some vision, and they desired for their Leaders' values and motives to accord with their own. Although Values and Motivations are incorporated within the Zaccaro (2007) model, and are central to streams of research such as Authentic Leadership (Ladkin, 2010) they appear to be lacking in ILT research. Perceptions of congruence between the followers' values and that of the leader seemed to be a salient issue for the participants that affected both cognitive and affective aspects of their ILTs and Schyns *et al.*, (2011) demonstrated that value similarity was positively related to the development of high quality LMX. Given comments by students about "*trust, honesty and integrity*" and "*if they had no morals at all I couldn't work for them*" (Table 4.7, p.76) it would appear that for some followers there is very little room for comprises that might negatively affect their self-concepts (Ehrhart, 2012; Lord & Brown, 2004).

Other findings of the research also relate to self-concepts such as self-esteem, self-efficacy and social identity. I will here be using self-esteem to refer to confidence in oneself, as opposed to self-efficacy being confident in one's abilities. Social-identity I will use in the context of our self-identity as an individual, as a dyadic partner, or as a member of a group. Although for the purposes of this study I am only focussing on individual self-esteem, not esteem at the group or organisational level, and only in relation to where increases or decreases in self-esteem levels have been attributed, by the participants, to the presence of a leader whom they recognise. As stated by Ehrhart (2012, p.237) self-esteem, how one views and evaluates oneself, is "*less important than how one views the self relative to others [self-construal]*". However, this does not detract from the fact that our relationships with a leader have important

implications for how we evaluate ourselves since that relationship can either enhance our self-esteem or threaten it. Participants reported issues that linked to self-esteem, with expectations that a positive ILT match would (or had) resulted in higher self-esteem whereas a negative ILT match would (and had) resulted in lower self-esteem. *“It’s more about how a leader makes you feel valued”* (28q) versus *“I felt she looked down on me, she was quite patronising, I felt insecure”* (9h). Since our evaluations of self are often grounded in our relationships with others we would expect that our interactions with others, especially leaders, would affect our levels of self-esteem (Shamir *et al.*, 1993). If, there is a link between self-esteem and improved job performance then perhaps a similar link exists with self-efficacy.

Participant responses (Table 4.19, p.95) to ILT match/mismatch in the areas of personal Self-Efficacy demonstrate that their beliefs in their capabilities, in their ability to perform a task, were influenced by how they felt about themselves (Bandura, 1997) and relates to their individual beliefs about agency and personal control (Van Knippenberg *et al.*, 2004). Comments made by the group ranged from the more positive *“I produced some of my best work – even won an award”* (27n) to the decidedly negative *“I don’t feel valued – there’s not enough reward for what you do – your effort isn’t recognised”* (31f). It is reasonable to deduce in the former that this heightened sense of self-efficacy was at least partly based on their own mastery of the skill (Bandura, 1994), but equally through realistic levels of ‘social persuasion’ by the leader that instilled further confidence in the follower and spurred them to even greater effort (Shamir *et al.*, 1993). Furthermore, the presence of the leader enhances their positive mood, perhaps reducing stress reactions and allowing them to rise to the occasion by motivating them to make increased efforts. Shamir *et al.*, (1993) also found that transformational leaders raise follower self-confidence and self-efficacy by expressing confidence in followers, as well as by providing development opportunities. This is supported by van Knippenberg *et al.*, (2004, p.834 citing Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996) in that leader vision affected follower self-efficacy, which in turn affected follower performance. It must be noted however that the current findings rely, in most cases, on perceptions of

hypothetical ideal leaders rather than actual experiences. Findings on the affective impacts of failure to promote self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-identity were however wholly based on actual experiences.

The findings from the data collected seem to indicate a clear preference for charismatic, transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; House, 1977; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Tichy & Devanna, 1986), indeed transactional management behaviours are not mentioned at all. The active schema was for *Leader* and, as Bass (1985, p.36) notes, transformational leadership contains an “*intense emotional component*” and denotes “*an absolute emotional and cognitive identification with the leader*”.

Findings related to self and social identity were most often inferred from data specifying a need to ‘fit’ or to ‘feel at home’. So, although the data and subsequent analysis were conducted at the individual level the responses presuppose that there is some relational or collective identity which the follower has either experienced, or hopes to experience in the future. Allied to this are expressions of wanting to contribute to a shared vision and to feel a part of something, with a “*willingness to exert themselves in the collective’s best interests*” (van Knippenberg, 2004, p.841). Again comments made by the group range from positive statements such as “*It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve*” (30k) and “*I know where I fit in*” (6l) to the extremely negative where “*we were totally dis-incentivised, the relationship collapsed*” (31d) and the equally disruptive “*in any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]*” (31g). The findings of this research, based at the individual level, display a pre-disposition to a transformational style of leadership, albeit that this exists in a vacuum since none of the participants belong to an actual work related ‘group’, therefore there are no pre-established group goals or norms for the leader to transform. It might be that some followers are, not unreasonably, simply attracted to the concept of the transformational leader (even if that leader is only hypothetical) and would willingly support a recognised leader in manufacturing a shared social identity that met their Working Self-Concept (WSC) needs (Lord & Brown, 2004).

5.2.3 Relationship Outcomes: ILTs and LMX theory

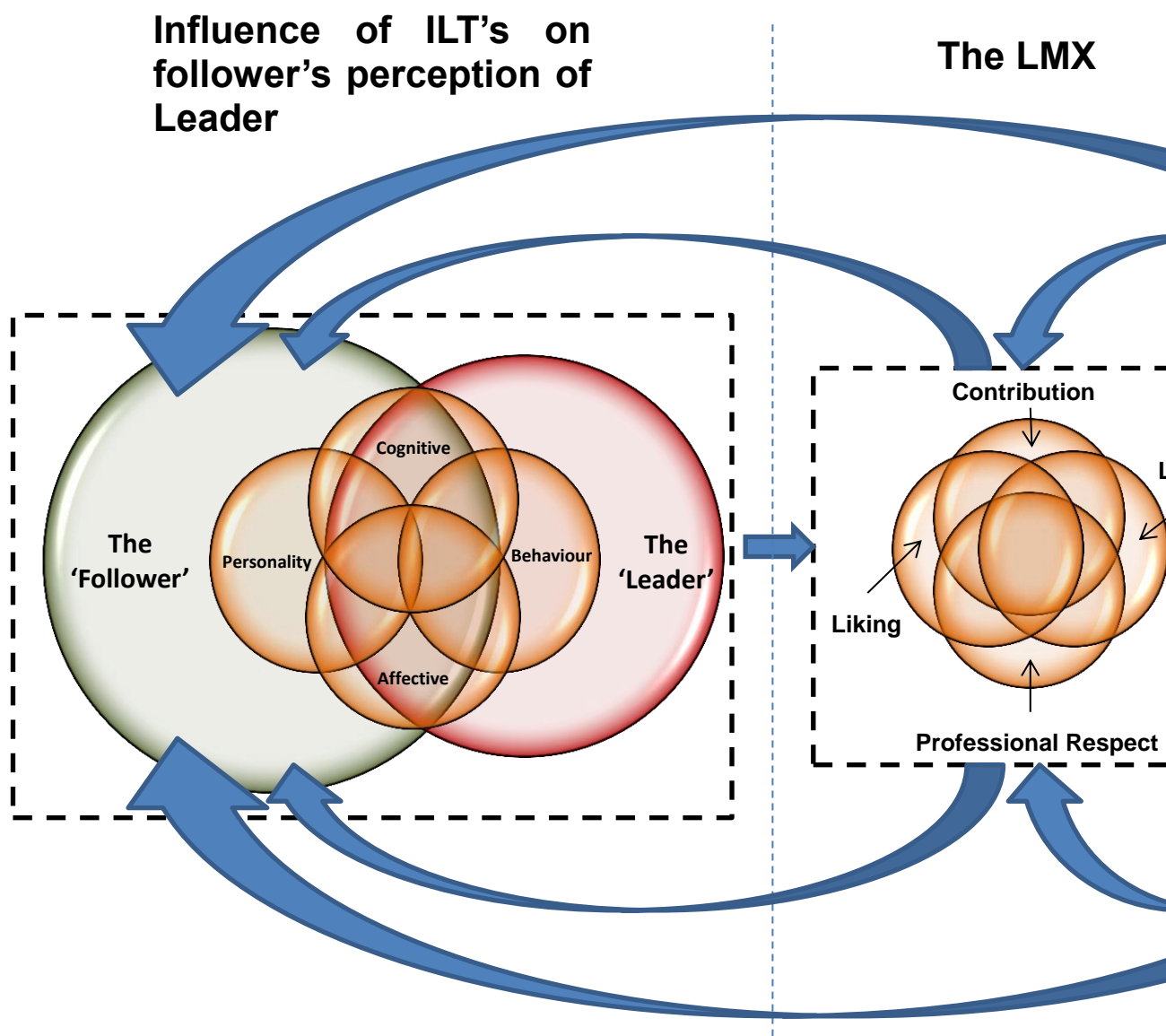
In this section I first intend to explore the interplay between ILTs and LMX (Engle & Lord, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005) with particular consideration given to the key themes of Well-being, Job Satisfaction and Commitment. Falkenburg and Schyns (2007, p.709) in examining work satisfaction, organisational commitment and withdrawal behaviours, such as absenteeism and turnover, demonstrate that job satisfaction can be both a result of behaviour, or a cause of behaviour, or indeed a dynamic interaction.

My *a priori* assumptions saw Job Satisfaction as an outcome of the LMX. However Volmer *et al.*, (2011) demonstrated a reciprocal relationship between LMX and Job Satisfaction, whereby high quality LMX predicted job satisfaction, but also demonstrating that Job Satisfaction predicted the quality of the LMX relationship. However, since they were quantitative researchers engaged in a non-experimental study they were keen to specify that no causal inferences could be made. I, on the other hand, conducting interpretive analysis of qualitative data, am not interested in 'causes' in the positivist sense and can therefore appreciate the common-sense notion of the relationship being a reciprocal one. Further, if I combine the findings of Falkenburg and Schyns (2007) and Volmer *et al.*, (2011) in relation to reciprocity of Job Satisfaction and Behaviour, and Job Satisfaction and LMX then, based on my own findings, I would venture a step further and suggest a similar reciprocal link between other organisational outcomes and Behaviours (as impacted by personality factors affecting both cognitive processes and affective states) and LMX (see Figure 5.2, overleaf).

While Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment can be seen as linked concepts, they are separate constructs, with the former reflecting an affective reaction to the job and the work situation, and the latter reflecting both "*emotional and non-emotional*" factors that relate to the entire organisation (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007, p.709). The same authors state (*ibid.*, citing Meyer & Allen, 1991) that organisational commitment "*consists of three dimensions, namely, affective, normative and continuance commitment*".

However, as can be seen from the findings of the current research study there is a class of employee actively engaged in withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism, or actively seeking to leave the company, who might be classified on a further dimension, that of 'disaffected commitment'. Additionally, there seems to be no differentiation in the literature for where an employee has affective commitment to a leader, but not specifically towards the organisation to which they both belong.

Figure 5.2: Reciprocal links between ILT, LMX and Organisational Outcomes



LMX theory is composed of multiple dimensions although the findings from this study linked predominantly to the dimensions of Contribution (performing work

beyond what is contractually required), Affect (friendship and liking), and Professional respect. Loyalty on the part of the follower is implied but it was not explicitly stated by any of the participants.

The findings of the research showed that in positive relationships, those characterised by a) recognition and acceptance of the leader, b) positive emotional responses to the leader, and c) positive behavioural responses as a result of both, the LMX quality of the relationship can be expected to be high. Whereas in negative relationships, where the leader is not recognised, negative emotional responses are exhibited, and negative behaviours result, the LMX quality is expected to be low – or non-existent (Table 4.20, p.96). In the former case participants were enthusiastic in terms of job satisfaction commenting that they could “*achieve so much more*” (30k) and “*I produced some of my best work, even won an award*” (27n). In the latter case job satisfaction was low with responses including “*I feel unmotivated, makes me hate the place, not want to come into work, I’m less productive*” (31e). Similarly with Commitment, those in positive relationships expressed that they “*like to feel like I am participating in something [...] I need some meaning – I’m not just there to earn a salary and go home*” (28o). Whereas those in the negative relationships were “*happier to quit, or maybe start my own company*” (32l) and expressed a view that “*in any other context you would challenge them [for leadership]*” (31g) while the latter clearly demonstrates a lack of commitment to the superiors, it might be argued that wanting to challenge for leadership could be construed as a desire to improve the situation for the organisation itself, an implication of identification with a collective. So there may still be commitment to that collective, if not to the individual ‘leader’. Finally, in terms of well-being it can be shown that for those in a positive relationship their well-being was enhanced with students reporting that they “*felt entirely validated, valued, empowered*” (30l) and that they felt “*some safety and security there – my ideas were valued*” (29e) indicating positive emotional states that brought happiness, motivation and enjoyment to their lives (Table 4.14, p.87). For those less fortunate there appeared to be a dearth of well-being with participants reporting feelings of “*insecurity*” (20h), “*helplessness*” (31g), and loss of identity with no sense of belonging “*It’s not*

home anymore – I don't fit" (32n). Participants experiencing low LMX relationships were left feeling demotivated and depressed (Table 4.15, p.89) and victims of unfairness and injustice (Table 4.13, p.86).

In relation to issues of self-concept and LMX Schyns and Day (2010), while asserting that leaders should make efforts to extend high quality LMX to all members of their group, something that can hardly be argued against, also point out that employees with high levels of Individual self-identity will be less amenable than those with high-levels of Relational self-identity. Although not mentioned specifically in their research this may be due to differences in attachment styles or internal/external attributions in those with more highly developed individual self-identities. Therefore, Schyns and Day (2010) advocate the 'realigning' of follower needs so that they are motivated to establish and maintain good relationships with the leader. This clearly suggests, an assertion that I reject, that low quality LMX relationships are the fault of the follower.

In the longitudinal study carried out by Epitropaki and Martin (2005) they found evidence for the '*ideal profile – actual manager*' matching process, although note that they are talking of managers/supervisors not 'leaders' specifically, and they reported a significant negative impact of prototype difference on LMX. The greater the gap between the [leader] prototype and the attributes and behaviours of the actual manager, the worse the quality of the LMX, with the emphasis of *the subordinate* being on the lack of demonstrable prototypical traits. However, they state that prototypical and antiprototypical differences were found to only have "*an indirect effect on organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and well-being through LMX*". This is however in the context of purely transactional relationships, where such differences, especially over time, are perhaps less likely to affect commitment, job satisfaction or well-being. In the current research, where most participants are clearly expressing a desire for a leader who conforms to the transformational ideal, the findings are in opposition to several hypotheses advanced within the Epitropaki and Martin study (2005, p.662). This difference may be due to the differing expectations and experiences of those actually experiencing transactional relationships as opposed to those who are aspiring to transformational ones. Or it may be

because they appeared to be looking at either a direct link to those outcomes, or were looking for an indirect link via the LMX, whereas my research found that the prototype mismatch appears to cause cognitive and emotional responses that affected behaviours, and that it is these behaviours that then affect the LMX and thereby result in differing outcomes related to Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Well-being.

5.2.4 Synthesis: Finding Meaning

Referring once more to Figure 5.2 (p.111) and the reciprocal relationships between follower ILTs, LMX quality and organisational outcomes it can be seen that where there is a positive match on ILT the research found that leadership was recognised and accepted based on both distal and proximal traits, which resulted in positive emotional responses (Table 4.14, p.87). This satisfied, and indeed enhanced follower's needs in relation to self-esteem, self-efficacy, and social identity (Table 4.19, p.95) thereby improving Job Satisfaction, Commitment and Well-being (Table 4.20, p.96). The reciprocal nature of the overall relationship with the leader then led to a positive reinforcement of the LMX itself, and to their perceptions of the leader. Conversely, where there was a negative match on ILT it was found that leadership was not recognised, or accepted, and negative emotional responses were expressed, and the failure to meet followers' self-concept needs led to a poor quality LMX, leading to decreased Job Satisfaction, commitment and well-being. These negative outcomes reinforced the negative character of the LMX and further negatively reinforced the follower's perceptions of the leader.

My findings seem to indicate that followers, at least in this group, have a positive desire to '*perform beyond expectations*' (Bass, 1985) when matched with a leader who meets their ILT needs. Whether as a result of their recent education in leadership, or as a result of their own self-concept needs, or a mixture of the two, they respond eagerly to the concept of charismatic leaders who "*inspire followers by linking their visions to important aspects of followers' self-concepts and self-esteem, by increasing followers' identification with the leaders, by heightening followers' collective identities, and by increasing*

followers' self and collective efficacy" (Shamir *et al.*, 1993, cited by Lord & Emrich, 2001, p.562).

While Bass (1985; Bass & Avolio, 1996) may have conceived of transformational leadership in the context of organisational transformation rather than stable transactionalism it has been shown (Edwards & Gill, 2012) that transformational leadership is effective at all hierarchical levels. Perhaps it is also the case that followers prefer transformational leadership regardless of the situation, since it inherently meets their esteem, efficacy and identity needs, whereas transactional leadership does not.

The Working Self Concept (WSC) model (Lord & Brown, 2004) offers an alternative, although not mutually exclusive explanation for the interplay discussed above. In their research they found that followers were affected by leaders in ways that related to their self-concept at a number of levels including the individual, relational and collective. Within each level elements of the follower's self-concept relate to their current self-view or aspirational self, and have current goals that reinforce either that current or future view. While I have attempted to utilise their theories within my own work it is possible that their explanation provides an alternative to the LMX lens that I have used here.

The romance of leadership (Meindl *et al.*, 1985) lives on, although in these findings it is not the perception of the leaders' role in effective organisational performance that is the issue. It is their perception of the leaders' role in the creation of meaning, and purpose, in providing "*inspiration and vision*", in satisfying "*the full spectrum of human drives and desires*" (Zaleznik, 1977, cited by Higgs, 2003, p.276) and in establishing a shared social identity without which leadership itself is impossible (Reicher, Haslam & Hopkins, 2005).

5.3 Summary

My research journey began in response to an article by van Quaquebeke *et al.* (2009) where they cited Lord and Emrich (2001, p.551) "*If leadership resides, at least in part, in the minds of followers, then it is imperative to discover what*

followers are thinking.” However, it became apparent that what followers were feeling was equally important and this seemed an under-researched area.

The findings of the research seem to be consistent with existing theory regarding leader categorisation theory, and closely align with existing cognitive research on the content of Implicit Leadership Theories. In relation to the affective component the findings demonstrate two possible relationships, those that can be classed as positive (where ILT needs are met), and those that can be classed as negative (where ILT needs are not met). In both cases there is a clear alignment of cognitive, emotional and behavioural responses that correspond to either high-LMX or low-LMX relationships, with major impacts on relationship outcomes pertaining to job satisfaction, commitment and well-being.

There is however a suspicion that because the *meaning* fits within the transformational leadership paradigm, and the *exchange* is therefore predominantly about emotional well-being that engenders job satisfaction and organisational commitment, then in circumstances where nobody in the hierarchy is identified as being a ‘leader’ then there is NO leader-follower relationship. LMX becomes a misnomer, since there is no ‘Leader’ and as there is no collective identity then there are no ‘Members’ either. Exchanges are therefore purely based on positional authority and reward power in a contractual superior/subordinate relationship.

While they may ‘rule’ us, they do not ‘lead’ us.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

“The causes of events are always more interesting than the events themselves”
Cicero, *Ad Atticum*, Bk ix, epis. 5 (49BC)

6.1 Aim, questions and objectives

The research findings demonstrated that the ILTs held by the participants closely mirrored that of existing research in terms of content and structure in that the categorisation process was fundamental in recognising leaders. Whether the leadership claim was recognised or not resulted in entirely different relationships. Whereas previous research often looked at the relationship between superiors and subordinates from a purely transactional perspective the results of this research study showed that for ‘followers’ the exchange is of a different order. For the participants in this study followership was inextricably linked to issues of self-concept such as self-esteem, self-efficacy and social identity, for which the participants exhibited a strong desire for a more transformational relationship where the leader’s role was perceived in terms of the creation of meaning and purpose that satisfied their motivations and desires.

The findings met the aim of my research, and enabled me to discover what the participants’ ILTs *mean to them*, and thus have answered my research questions, namely;

- 1 What ILTs are held by the participants, and
- 2 How do their ILTs impact on their interactions with those claiming leadership roles in the workplace?

The research findings have also enabled me to achieve my research objectives, namely to

- a) describe the ILTs held and explore factors that influenced their development, and
- b) describe the emotional responses and explore behavioural consequences resulting from ILT match/mismatch.

Finally, I was able to interpret those findings through the lens of LMX Theory in order to understand the impacts on relationship quality and outcomes relating to job satisfaction, commitment, and well-being. However, it was found that this relationship was not linear as expected, but that the outcomes fed back to reinforce positive or negative perceptions that further mediated, or partially mediated, the nature and quality of the relationship.

As shown in Fig. 5.2 (p.111) there appears to be a strong link between the individual personality of the follower and the cognitive and affective responses to the leadership claimant which lead to disparate behaviours under conditions where their ILT needs are met, or not met. In the former a positive relationship ensues which leads to raised perceptions of job satisfaction, increased commitment and heightened well-being. In the latter a more negative relationship results and leads inexorably to decreased job satisfaction, decreased (or non-existent) commitment, and reduced feelings of well-being. In both cases these outcomes feed back into the perceptions of the follower, reinforcing their view of the leader, thereby perpetuating either a positive relationship, or a negative one. For those whose needs are met the relationship can become a transformational one, while for those whose needs go unmet the relationship remains purely transactional, task orientated, and based on positional authority and contractual reward.

6.2 Method/efficacy

While substantial work of a more positivist nature has established the existence of ILTs and resulted in frameworks to measure their content and structure I chose to adopt a critical realist/interpretive approach a) because it accorded with my own philosophical stance, and b) to use an analogy, whilst science has made excellent progress in the study of clouds, we all see different things when we look up. Some of us see clouds, others see dolphins, etc. It was therefore the follower reactions to their perceptions of leadership that interested me, not the actual traits or behaviours of those in leadership roles.

Having chosen to conduct a cross-sectional survey in order to describe, explore and explain elements of the phenomenon my method of choice was the focus

group, to generate data via a facilitated process of dialogue and discussion, on the topic of ILTs, bringing together those who had shared characteristics of interest. The method itself resulted in a substantial amount of data linked to cognitive processes, affective states and their resulting behaviours and I was able to analyse this data through the lens of LMX theory in order to establish a number of organisational outcomes based on variable criteria, namely where the followers ILT needs were met, and where those needs were not met. The research offered an opportunity to collect data that was rich in detail, and to interpret it in a manner that was tolerant of ambiguity and contradiction whilst attempting to code in a manner that retained the context but allowed for more analytical levels of abstraction on what was clearly a complex concept.

In relation to evaluating the rigour with which the study has been conducted I have endeavoured to ensure that the findings are context-rich and meaningful whilst attempting to convince others as to the plausibility of same. The account is a detailed one with the data being linked to prior theory and concepts being systematically related. Whilst there are a wide range of opinions expressed they all fall within explanatory frameworks offered by existing research. Whilst there is no assertion that the findings are generalisable beyond the study it is possible, reader assessment permitting, that comparisons can be made with other similar samples since the theoretical findings are connected to and congruent with prior theory and links can be made with existing findings in other areas. My research aim, questions and objectives were clear and closely linked to the research design itself, my own role is discussed, and checks were made on the coding process using both cross-checking of initial codes and categories, and member validation. The participants were chosen on explicit and reasonable grounds, the data collected was appropriate, and it was handled appropriately with the coding phase including a manual cross-checking process as well as respondent validation, and the findings fit with existing knowledge. Lastly, the study's methods and procedures have been described in detail, with the data collection and analysis sequence explicating stated and discussions/conclusions linked to specific findings, all the data has been retained and is available for re-analysis by others.

6.3 Limitations

While LMX Theory was useful as a lens with which to interpret my findings, it was perhaps marred by its transactional era origins, focussed on purely contractual exchanges. There were minor issues with the logistics of briefing/debriefing moderators between sessions which demonstrated to me that the needs of co-facilitators require greater attention during future research projects. These logistical limitations and weaknesses were a result of my own inexperience, further guidance and training in this area would have improved the ability to feed back information gained from initial groups and use this to better inform subsequent data collection. However, performativity, i.e. the level to which students were replaying what they had learnt and therefore 'took to be true' was minimised by a focus on first order constructs during the data analyses. The existence of attributional errors and cognitive and self-serving biases on the part of participants were taken as a given and a rich source of data in themselves. As stated earlier, their acquired knowledge (articulated in the form of specific theoretical concepts) was of limited interest to the study, it was their Implicit Leadership Theories that were the focus of study and the difference between the two is quite apparent in the data. Where some participants (usually early in each session) parroted the textbook, perhaps as a result of some social desirability bias, this is also clearly evident in the data. All the sessions were digitally recorded with questions being put forth as per the Topic Guide, and the initial coding was independently cross-checked and verified by the co-facilitators.

Another possible weakness of the study was that the participants, when discussing positive emotions and behaviours, were predominantly hypothesising about their expectations and responses to an Ideal leader, but were overwhelmingly recalling actual experiences when discussing negative emotions and behaviours. However, this does not detract from the purpose of the study in determining what the experiences *meant* to the participants. Indeed, the deliberate extremes in emotions and behaviours served admirably to illustrate the consequences when their needs were met, or not met.

It is important to clarify that the research looks at only one side of a dyadic relationship, and there is an implicit assumption on the part of the students that their ideal leader will reciprocate their feelings. No allowance was made, by the participants, for a scenario where the leader might meet all their expectations, but that they themselves did not meet the needs or expectations of the leader.

6.4 Reflections

Asserting ownership meant recognising and making explicit my own role, and position, in relation to the research. My own beliefs, experiences, values and identity will have impacted on the research but I made all efforts to mitigate this so that I was telling the participant's stories, not my own. In planning for this research study I thought critically about what I was trying to achieve, and at regular intervals throughout I came face-to-face with the realities of available resources and my own skills. Many decisions had to be made, on practical and philosophical grounds, which meant that some intended elements did not survive. Other elements had to be changed to make them more fit for purpose.

The methods chosen involved data collection activities that I was familiar with, having carried them out in professional practice, but the means of analysis, and the philosophies attached to them, were unfamiliar. While I felt that I had the skills, style and demeanour to conduct the collection, the analysis was something that required additional training. The chosen method did not require me to adopt a neutral stance, being based on interactional exchanges of dialogue where I can elicit information, identify the interpretive themes, construct an analysis, and make an argument. There may be some interviewer effects due to personal identity issues such as age but I feel that I countered those through effective self-presentation and by being attentive sensitive and engaged. I can still recall that palpable moment of relief when one of the students let loose with an indiscrete comment, that departed from the orthodox, and it allowed others to open up – gladly. Suddenly, they felt 'allowed' to say what they thought/felt, not what they thought they should think/feel. I remember thinking, *'thank god. They've let me in'*.

Two issues deserve further reflection on my part, firstly in relation to the previous inclusion of autobiographical details, having been in leadership positions both 'on the battlefield and in the boardroom'; and secondly, in relation to my own understanding of 'meaning and understandings being created in an interaction'. As to the former issue I took care to set aside my pre-existing knowledge and assumptions so that I could allow the members of those groups to tell their own story, so that I could understand their experiences, and what it meant to them. In regard to the latter it is *my* understanding of *their* meaning that is being constructed – their meaning already exists but it is *implicit*. We don't *think* about it, but it directly affects us nonetheless. So part of my role as the researcher was to encourage participants to actively think about something that we do not naturally think about.

6.5 Contribution to theory/Implications for practice

These findings enhance our understanding of the impact of ILTs on workplace relationships, and of the antecedents of LMX relationships. By focussing on the meaning rather than merely the content, structure, or the relationships between variables, the findings develop existing ILT theory and could open up further areas for research, as well as having applications for practitioners. For organisations seeking to enhance organisational outcomes, and improve the efficiency and effectiveness of employees at all levels, the findings may have relevance for leadership and management development programmes and also graduate management schemes.

While the findings of this research study are not designed to be fully 'generalisable', other researchers may find similar opinions and beliefs amongst comparable groups of students at the same, or other, universities both in the UK and elsewhere. Indeed, since ILT research has shown no difference between beliefs of students and working population then researchers may also find similar opinions beyond the confines of academia.

6.6 Future research

Although my research findings show a reciprocal link between ILTs, LMX and organisational outcomes it was not within the remit of this study to discuss specific antecedents and mediators of those links. In addition, the study was conducted from a follower perspective, examining only one side of the dyad, furthermore a reciprocation of affection was assumed by participants. Future research could examine this issue of *meaning* from both leader and follower perspectives and thus map, qualitatively, multiple scenarios of expectations met/not met from those different perspectives. In a purely transactional setting the expectations of superiors will indeed have an impact on their relationships with subordinates. It would be rewarding however to understand, in the context of a transformational Leader-Follower Exchange, the effects on the leader's self-concept in situations where followers meet/don't meet *their* implicit theories. As in all relationships it takes 'two to tango', if one side does not reciprocate then the other is left feeling rejected, leading to frustration and depression, and sometimes anger.

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Appendices

Appendix A: The Topic Guide

Appendix B: Participant Information Pack

Appendix C: Informed Consent Forms

Appendix D: Coding List

Appendix E: Code Book

Appendix F: Sample Transcript

Appendix A: The Topic Guide

Introduction

Split group *This will be done as a whole class, with groups being subsequently split to make facilitation/moderation easier.*

- Aims of the research [2-3 mins]

A brief summary of trait theory, and a VERY brief summary of ILTs. Explore – what is the meaning of a person’s ILTs? WHY? WHERE? HOW? (in relation to positive/negative matches)

- Outline of the session [2-3 mins]

Explain about group splits, show slide with main topic areas highlighted, introduce moderators

- Tell participants about role of moderator/facilitator – note taking and audio [2 mins]
- Confidentiality/anonymous data [2 mins]

*Moderator purpose is to maintain focus, steer discussions, pick up on cues and stimulate debate around the three main topic/questions. If discussions cover multiple topics don't worry - just make notes and it'll all be fixed during transcription/analysis. **LET** them theorize, speculate, and analyse their own and each other's perspectives. We **NEED** to know who said what, so make sure names are attached to statements at the beginning until we can differentiate the recorded voices. **Seating** pattern will be semi-arranged but **LET** them move seats around as long as it is in range of the recorder. Please make notes of any silent pauses (they might be thinking of an answer, or they might think the answer is so obvious it doesn't need stating, or they might be nervous), tensions, environmental factors, etc.*

- Name/alias tags [spoken introductions] to aid recognition during transcription [5 mins]
- Question/Topic 1 Explore – WHY do participants value certain characteristics / behaviours? Are there some they value more highly than others? [15 mins]
- Question/Topic 2 Explore – WHERE do participants think their expectations might have come from? [Theory says they are developed in childhood ... so what role models do they recall? (prompt: youth activities, school, church/community, family?) [15 mins]
- Question/Topic 3 Explore – HOW (based on recollection of experiences) do they feel when they have been in subordinate positions to someone that matches their leader expectations? HOW do they feel when they are in a subordinate position to someone who DOESN'T match their leader expectations? Behaviours? [15 mins]

Merge groups

- Debrief – let people know what will be done with the data, give contact details of research team, offer respondent validation to check for accuracy. Offer to help them with their own research [reciprocity] [5 mins]
- Thank everyone!

Critical skills for moderators

While a focus group has many of the social elements of a 'group conversation' the scientific elements are what makes it into a research tool. 😊

- Personality - Sensitive, Creative, Confident
- Communications – Be expressive, Listen! Question! Speak clearly!
- Management – establish rapport, control, direct, be flexible, be receptive
- Analyse – be logical/analytical when questioning/listening/note taking

Remember – you are not a '*participant*' – but neither are you a *neutral* observer. '*Meaning*' is constructed through social interaction and dialogue - between the group - and between them and you. Be active, but remember that it is **THEIR** meanings we need – not yours.

Listening

Reflexive – muttering “*mhmm*” and nodding your head in agreement to elicit further responses

Non-reflexive – seek clarification, paraphrase responses to ensure meaning is understood, summarise main points on each topic. Factor in divergent opinions when summarizing.

Non-verbal communication

Distance, body orientation, physical contact, eye contact, smile (but not so much you appear 'crazed'). Predict conversation transitions based on 'gaze' from person ending [who will probably be looking at you] ... to person taking over [who will probably be looking at the current speaker].

Gestures: head nodding, thumbs up, people smiling, the audio equipment captures none of that, so make notes - or (even better) mention it verbally “I see 'John' nodding ... what do you think John?”

Handling shy/dominant participants

Shy: Engage, re-engage and engage again ... use empathy/sensitivity etc to draw them in. ASK their opinions directly. Nobody leaves the room without having spoken on EACH of the topics. No free rides – no social loafing!

Dominant: Gently frustrate so that other people get a chance to speak. Use gentle humour if necessary ... don't want to alienate them but need everyone to participate.

Other issues to be aware of:

- Cognitive processing: Some people are thinking about their responses ... so might not be ready to reply at the time you expect them to reply.
- Evaluation apprehension: They're worried about looking daft / deviating from social norms.
- Self-Awareness: Presence of recording equipment can make them less comfortable [at the start]

Appendix B: Participant Information Pack

Title of Study: A study of Implicit Leadership Theories among Business & Management Undergraduate students

Dear Student,

I am a postgraduate research student at the University of Gloucestershire and I would like to invite you to take part in a research study. The study is voluntary and data obtained from you will not be used without your permission.

The purpose of this study is to explore the meanings that people attach to their expectations of leaders. It is hoped that the results will make a theoretical contribution to knowledge and understanding in this field by developing and expanding on existing theory.

Your participation will consist of a single Focus Group session, lasting approximately 60 minutes, where you will be asked to discuss topics related to your expectations of leaders. Participation is voluntary and you do not have to answer questions which you do not wish to. You can withdraw any time if you wish. In such a case, all information pertaining to you will be destroyed.

The interview will be audio recorded and transcribed afterwards, written notes will also be made. Data gained during the Focus Group will be used solely for research purposes. Everything will be anonymous and kept confidential, stored securely and deleted when no longer required for research purposes. To obscure your identity pseudonyms will be used. If direct quotes are used, any identifying information will be removed in order to protect your identity. The information gained in this study might be published in research journals or presented at research conferences, but your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

This project conforms to the Handbook of Research Ethics of the University of Gloucestershire. There are no known risks associated with taking part in this study.

If you would like to participate in this study, please read and sign the informed consent form attached.

Many thanks

Ryan

Appendix C: Informed Consent Forms

Participants Copy

Title of Project:	A study of Implicit Leadership Theories among Business & Management Undergraduate students	
Principal Investigator:	Ryan James Curtis, Postgraduate Research Centre, Dunholme Villa 110, Park Campus, Cheltenham, GL50 2RH Email: ryancurtis@connect.glos.ac.uk	
Do you understand that we have asked you to participate in a research study?	Yes	No
Have you read and received a copy of the attached information letter	Yes	No
Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in taking part in this research study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you are free contact the research team to take the opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you free to refuse participation, or to withdraw from the study at any time, without consequence, and that your information will be withdrawn at your request?	Yes	No
Do you understand that we will keep your data confidential? Do you understand who will have access to your information?	Yes	No

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study. I have received a copy of this Consent Form.

Printed Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose of this study. I confirm that I have answered any questions raised and have verified the signature above.

A copy of this Consent Form has been provided to the participant.

Interviewer Name _____ Signature of Interviewer _____ Date _____

Informed Consent Form

Researcher Copy

Title of Project:	A study of Implicit Leadership Theories among Business & Management Undergraduate students	
Principal Investigator:	Ryan James Curtis, Postgraduate Research Centre, Dunholme Villa 110, Park Campus, Cheltenham, GL50 2RH Email: ryancurtis@connect.glos.ac.uk	
Do you understand that we have asked you to participate in a research study?	Yes	No
Have you read and received a copy of the attached information letter	Yes	No
Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in taking part in this research study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you are free contact the research team to take the opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you free to refuse participation, or to withdraw from the study at any time, without consequence, and that your information will be withdrawn at your request?	Yes	No
Do you understand that we will keep your data confidential? Do you understand who will have access to your information?	Yes	No

I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study. I have received a copy of this Consent Form.

Printed Name: _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose of this study. I confirm that I have answered any questions raised and have verified the signature above.

A copy of this Consent Form has been provided to the participant.

Interviewer Name _____ Signature of Interviewer _____ Date _____

Appendix D: Sample Transcript

TC203 transcript

Participants:

- Sharnie (fem)
- Gordon (male, Chinese)
- Jill (fem, mature student)
- Bruv (male)
- Steff (fem)
- Alan (male, asian)
- Matthew (male)

Moderators: Ryan Curtis / Richard Curtis (notes)

What I want you to do is discuss with each other, so if someone has a view different to yours then try to discuss why one thing is important to you and one to them. There is no one right answer, not looking for a consensus view, just want to know what you think and feel about things.

Q1: Why? Traits and behaviours? What is important and why?

Gill: What I look for in a leader is clarity of what is required, so I can be follow it effectively, work out my part in it and how to use my skills to fit into that.

Moderator: So, you want to be told what to do, in a nice way

Gill: Yes, in a nice way, not necessarily in an autocratic way. In fact preferably not in an autocratic way but I want them to translate the company strategy effectively to be able to translate that down to the people who work for them, like me, so we know what the overall goal is. So then I can feel as though I'm working as part of the overall goal of the company – I know where I fit in.

Moderator: okay. Is that about social skills? Or about problem-solving skills?

Gill: It's about clarity of communication, I expect them to see a bigger picture than I do and then sit at an intermediate point – what the company wants - and pass it along so I can work out where I fit.

Bruv: It's quite similar to what i was thinking – I had 'vision' in mind. I'd quite like the leader to have a vision so that the work I'm doing fits into that vision - what I'm doing it's amounting to something.

Mod: is that about being valued?

Bruv: Yes I'd like to see where I fit into the vision, it motivates me in what I'm doing

Mod: does anyone else have an opinion on 'vision'? do you want it? Or are you not that bothered?

Gill: People from creative backgrounds like Google ... their leaders don't necessarily do that ... they just encourage a creative atmosphere so people can come up with their own things and maybe some people are comfortable with that but i prefer a bit more top down. Does that make sense?

Alan: I agree

Mod: someone this morning said that they just wanted to be told what to do, a more dominant style.

Gill: I don't want them to be autocratic. I want to know the big picture/overall goal, and then just let me do it [laughs].

Alan: I guess it depends on the situation. But in the workplace yes you'd want them to be dominant, domineering, you want them to tell you exactly what they intend to do and what they expect from you. If you are looking at a Prime Minister, like David Cameron, you are expecting them to have different kinds of traits.

Mod: yes, you probably have different maps in your head, different expectations depending whether it's a business leader, political leader, military leader, community leader ... there are different things.

[several people nodding heads and making low volume agreements]

Mod: Do you have different expectations if they are a senior CEO type boss or whether they are managers. Does it matter? Does it change what you expect of them?

Gill: Top people need a much clearer idea of what is going on and where we are going. Managers in a more creative industry I would expect them to be less autocratic, more collaborative maybe – but I want the top people to have a clear idea ... and let someone else take care of the detail. But I like to feel like I am participating in something, to be part of that bigger picture, so I need some 'meaning' I'm not just there to earn a salary and go home.

Sharnie: I have a view on managers and leaders being completely different – so – managers i expect them to tell me what the position is, how to get there, what to do – and leaders to inspire and motivate people to do it. So leaders might not necessarily be people above you – although managers would be – but leaders just encourage you and motivate you to do it. Management is more an administrative bureaucratic process - and leadership isn't just about your job role – it's more about how a leader makes you feel valued – but that could be the cleaner just someone who has the charismatic/inspirational personality that makes you want to do your job.

Mod: charisma! Anyone have alternate views. Do we like charisma? Hate it? Is it scary?

Steff: I think it is good in a team leader role – then they are someone you go to about problems, they make you feel more motivated if you feel you have a leader who can put fun into your job. Someone you're not scared to engage in problems.

Mod: is that about social relationships? Some people try and separate their home and work lives – but organisations are full of people – it's a social setting ... just that you have a task that unites you.

Bruv: I'm not so bothered about charisma, i prefer to just get cracking (get on with the job). That style probably gives employees more creative, people more freedom, gives them more ways to create something new for the company.

Alan: I was thinking that charisma is good, but it can sometimes shield inadequacies. So leaders can come in with charismatic personalities – but they don't have the skills – it's just sheer force of personality. They can use their charisma to hide that (their skills are not that good).

Steff: It's linked with arrogance as well, because if you have too much charisma you can get arrogant and that comes in as well - making out they have the skills when they don't.

Gill: It's also slightly dangerous in that they can lead people into doing things. They're not very accountable and they can just stampede you because they don't have any means to confine them, no boundaries. Everyone wants to please them – almost a childlike 'please the parent' without thinking things through or challenging them because you think something won't work. The charisma over-rides logic ...or you don't feel like you can offer alternative ideas.

Mod: 'Pleasing the parent' very neatly brings me to topic #2. Where do we think our ideas about leaders come from? What influences in the past have given us a preference for certain types of leader?

Sharnie: Parents probably, perhaps one more than the other – you have more trust and empathy with one - so you want that in a leader.

Alan: It comes to my parents, my dad was always setting targets, at school and socially - set yourself targets and go for it - and he was sharing vision. a dominant type. So in a leader I'd look for someone similar and who would tell you their expectations. I like structure.

Steff: My mum I think – has a good balance of autocratic/democratic behaviour - at home she was very sympathetic, she'd even take other people's sides in arguments. But when she was at work, because she's quite high up, the stories she tells me about the way she speaks to people and the way she leads – i wouldn't want to be on the wrong side. So she's one way at home and another at work. Although she gave some reward vouchers – because they have that system at work – she gave them to the tea lady because she thought that deserved rewarding. But, if she makes a decision then it has to be her way or no way. So she has both styles, but there was a big separation between how she was at work, and how at home.

Alan: That comes back to the situation like i said before – you act different ways in different situations and sometimes you have to change your style, be adaptable.

Steff: My mum is in the MOD so she works a lot with men. And she's quite high up so maybe she thinks that she has to be more autocratic – overcompensating to keep them in line. So she doesn't get walked over.

Mod: sometimes being the authority figure, the Mum or the Dad, at work is a bit scary, people are relying on you, and you have to do all the hiring and firing. Which is why some people don't want to be leaders at all. Too much hassle, too much stress.

Alan: We definitely project an ideal version of ourselves, the person we'd like to be, on to such people.

Gill: Definitely - years ago I was on a management development course – doing a Belbin on my manager, I'd previously done one on myself, and I got on really well with my manager. And when I did the Belbin on her, we were very similar. So I find it easy, she changed roles and I changed roles – but it matched - different personality and values - but very similar in most other qualities - it was unusual. She hired me – maybe because I reminded her of herself and it was one of my most successful working relationships I've had, and I produced some of my best work, even won an award. I was willing to do a lot more, I kept stupid hours but I was willing to do that to get certain things done.

Mod: we like people who are like us, or at least like the person that we want to be?

Gordon: Yes, my perception of a leader is quite largely based on who I would aspire to be. I think Steve Jobs would be an example, I think he's an amazing visionary and he achieved many great things. In my placement company there was a manager in the e-marketing team – I didn't really have that much communication with him at all but from the way he projected himself he was very intelligent and incredibly articulate – and they are key points for me that I'd like to aspire to be – and I respected that.

[Sharnie nods and smiles]

Sharnie: Yes my vision of a leader would be someone that I aspire to be.

[late arrival disrupts flow slightly as moderator provides overview of what has been discussed so far]

Mod: and our final topic, how does it make you feel, personally, when the person in authority matches your expectations? How does it affect your behaviour and the working environment?

Bruv: It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve, more motivated.

Gill: I felt entirely validated by it – I knew I fitted, I felt that I was on track and could be relied on to take it from there – it was actually really empowering for me.

Alan: I worked, and the manager was quite democratic, you could ask him about anything and he knew everything so i could easily go to him. It was motivating. But the new manager doesn't have that background or knowledge – so if I go to him with a technical question from a customer he wouldn't know the answer – so I don't feel confident in his ability which affects my motivation

Steff: I had a democratic manager and I could tell her anything, I didn't want to disappoint her – but that gave her an opportunity if I did do something wrong, in a way it was kind of manipulative, she could make me feel bad so I wouldn't do it again. So I got on with her and I didn't want to disappoint her, so when I did, she would be like well it can't happen again, she was quite autocratic ... I didn't like that feeling, and I really didn't want to upset her again. It gave her an opportunity to act more autocratic because she knew I didn't want to disappoint her, and I'd be really upset if I did .. I recognise that she was manipulating me sometimes – but I didn't mind because I liked her - I'd try to work harder. She spoke to me on my level, it was autocratic, but it wasn't presented as an order ... it was like a suggestion – and I felt it was in my best interests.

Matthew: My placement, I was lucky, I play golf with the MD every weekend, although I had a direct manager - but I played golf with him too – so we were all like mates. I knew everyone in that environment - they were not talking to me like I was a new guy out of uni – so I didn't feel under pressure when I needed something - the social links helped - when I was struggling or needed advice/support.

Mod: Do we want our boss to be our friend? Or do we want a clear line so we know when they are being the boss and when they are being our friend?

Sharnie: I think you have to have an element of that (friendship) because I don't think people would come to you with problems if you don't – and if you don't know about stuff and you are supposed to be the leader - they might even cover things up.

Matthew: I found that if I was taking the mick then Steve, the boss, would come down on me just as hard as everyone else, there was a line and you can't take the mick. He'd always tell me if I could have done it better – but then he'd move on. Nothing personal.

Gill: Manager needs to be mature and confident and enough to do it. But if someone is just your friend – and then you work for them and they can't switch modes i think it would cause problems. I think I'd struggle with that. People don't like it when the boss is more friendly with one person than another - don't like it when people get the best jobs and the best assignments. So they need to be clearly and visibly even-handed ...

Gordon: ... needs to be a balance.

Gill: People have to be very careful, about favouritism, etc. [inaudible but body language suggests experience of it] it's not what we're here for.

Matthew: In contrast, with my own experience, the manager I was reporting to last year. She was more of a boss type and that hindered my confidence - and it affected the relationship. Each time I spoke with her then I thought I was in trouble – so if she

didn't speak to me then it felt like I was doing a good job. If she speaks to me then I feel like I've done something wrong.

Steff: I think you need a friendship element to the point where you make people feel they can come to you with a problem - to be approachable

Gill: So they know what is going on.

Mod: do we have a view, preference between male/female bosses? Ignoring what's in the textbook – personal feelings.

Matt: Male boss [Gill laughing] I feel like i can connect to them. In my last office all the managers were male and we were into football and sport and i embedded much quicker than i would have if it were 3 female managers - although it's a work environment - there is plenty of time in the day when you are talking socially in the office.

Alan: Would it make a difference if it were a woman in the team who was into football?

Matt: Well I could talk to them but males are more likely to be interested in same things – my friendship group are all males, into football and semi typical male things.

Gill: Blokish environments and then a woman manager comes in - oh I can't swear now! [laughs]. Dynamic changes - or if a group of women working and then a male manager comes in.

Sharnie: Female – because i got on well with my last one. Previous male boss was trying to be my friend all time and when things went wrong he couldn't be authoritative enough, you couldn't go to him if there was a problem. He'd just like act like a friend and people walked all over him. Female boss, it wasn't awkward, she was more approachable.

Steff: For me the other way, my boss was female, and she was quite high up - so I felt she looked down on me - she was quite patronising. Dunno if it was because she was male or female. I felt like she didn't really like me. Are females more sensitive and I said something or she said something? I don't know if it was her – or whether it was her 'as' a female boss. I felt insecure.

Gill: I've worked for about 20 bosses and probably the best was a woman – but the absolute worst was a woman too. Ambitious, two faced, driven.

Steff: That was what I was trying to get at with women

Gill: ... ambitious women! Keep away!

Steff: Bitches

Gordon: (to Steff) You were just being diplomatic before [laughs]

Steff: yeah [smiles]

Gill: I've worked in big places so it was mostly male managers - and a lot of them had 'favourites' and were easily manipulated. Particularly by certain women in the office [pulls face] can't imagine what their attributes might be. So there was some politicking and unfairness going on. That doesn't work to same extent with women managers - they do have favourites but they don't reward them in the same way.

Alan: Male boss - you get on better with them. Stereotypical reasons but they are there.

Gill: We worked for someone we didn't respect, thought they were two-faced and I couldn't hide it, didn't want to really be there, work there or be anywhere near them. That might have been from my childhood - my brother was treated a lot better than me and so I grew up with expectations of fairness in the workplace. So watching someone who was ambitious and unfair – two faced – who would say things behind your back - that sense of injustice made it hard.

Matthew: I have been lucky. I had a female boss at a place in Australia, as an 18 year old. I was on the other side of the world but she was very mothering [everyone laughs] she took me under her wing and I was grateful to be honest. A male boss probably would have just told me to get on with it. She looked after me.

Mod: Group projects at university - experiences of leadership in them?

Gill: There are tensions

Steff: We changed leaders

Sharnie: Leaders of our group just fell into it – it wasn't discussed - someone just started delegating tasks. We could all have done it – so we didn't have a problem with someone coordinating.

Gill: I deliberately didn't volunteer myself as I have that background at work. I didn't need/want it. Let someone else have a go.

[unknown male] Sometimes I have to step up ... sometimes it's just not working and you have to try and do something about it but you don't want to.

Appendix E: Coding List

10 categories (across 3 main areas, cognitive, affective and behavioural)

Super-category: Cognitive (4 categories)

Category: Leader Recognition

Subcategory 1: Leaders /Not leader

- Code: 5c “you want someone to have specific traits so you can distinguish between normal people and leaders, because they tend to have those things”
- Code: 5d “so that signals that they are a leader. If they don’t have them [special traits] then they are just another person”
- Code: 5e “if someone doesn’t have them [special traits] then they are not, to me, a leader”
- Code: 5g “you might be more affected by someone who didn’t match, than one who did”
- Code: 5f “not having the expected traits makes them *not* a leader ... it’s more influential”
- Code: 5h “if they don’t have the specific traits you’d be less inclined to follow them”
- Code: 5i “certain traits are more influential”
- Code: 7t “you can’t learn to be a leader – it’s something in your personality – it’s something you are born with”
- Code: 7u “some people do naturally take the lead”
- Code: 3k, 7v “they naturally fall into it, right time, right place, they are easily approached and good motivators, they know how to get stuff done”.
- Code: 14w “some jobs you might have a crap leader, useless, other jobs you might get a leader who is really inspirational”
- Code: 14y “if you have an idea about how a leader should be, and they don’t fit that, they you are going to think they are a crap leader aren’t you. That doesn’t necessarily mean they are ...”
- Code: 14x “are they crap because they don’t meet our expectations? Or are they just crap?”
- Code: 16g “it’s important that they are charismatic and inspirational because you want to look up to them and believe them and can follow them – and that will make them a good leader”

Subcategory 2: Leadership domain

- Code: 1b “You are expecting them to have different kinds of traits”
- Code: 1c “different maps for different leaders”
- Code: 1d “it’s different in business, social, political contexts”
- Code: 1e “it depends on the kind of industry, whether you want an energetic lively ‘wild child’ or more of a bureaucrat, or even a dictator”.

Subcategory 3: Nature of Authority

- Code: 3h “in work they are the leader by default, because they are the boss – they have an authority role.”
- Code: 3h “Socially you’d pick your leaders”
- Code: 31g “If they are in a management role, a leader by hierarchy there is not much you can do, if they are a more self-appointed leader in a peer group then you can challenge it”

Subcategory 4: Expectations based on Leadership level

- Code: 15a “you don’t expect supervisors to have as many, or any [leadership traits], compared to a senior exec”
- Code: 15b “at operational level you need task knowledge, at corporate level you need to be more visionary, it doesn’t matter if you don’t know what is going on day to day – you need a more long term view”
- Code: 15c “managers and supervisors are similar it’s just a question of scale”.
- Code: 15d “managers take care of the detail ... top people have the clear ideas”
- Code: 15e “leaders and managers are completely different. Managers I expect to tell me what the position is, how to get there, what to do – leaders need to inspire and motivate me to do it”
- Code: 15f “management is more an administrative bureaucratic process – leadership isn’t about your job role – it’s about making you feel valued”
- Code: 16d “a good leader has charisma, they will use that to make you want to follow them rather than using their authority”
- Code: 3l “there is quite a big difference between leaders and managers”

Category: Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes

Subcategory 1: Sensitivity

Code: 2f “you need to be emotionally intelligent, to be able to interact and sympathise/empathise”

Code: 3f “you need to be able to recognise and adapt to situations, to what different people need/want and will respond to”

Subcategory 2: Intelligence

Code: 2e “you don’t have to be too clever, you just have to be able to join it all together”.

Subcategory 3: Dedication

Code: 2a and 4n, 4o “ambition”

Code: 3j “A need for achievement – if they want to do well dedication and drive is good – they can push the team forward”

Subcategory 4: Dynamism

Code: 2b “Charismatic”, 2c “charisma”, 2d “charismatic”, 4n “charisma/personality”

Code: 28p “someone who has the charismatic, inspirational personality that makes me *want* to do the job”

Code: 4p, 4k, 4r, 4s “Motivational – to go further”

Code: 2d and 4n “Inspirational”

Code: 2a “Visionary”, 6o “I’d quite like the leader to have some vision so that the work I’m doing fits into that vision – what I’m doing it’s amounting to something”

Code: 2a “Passion”

Code: 4y “need them to take risks for the business” 5z “taking risks is essential rather than desirable”

Code: 16a “I need them to have charisma, drive – otherwise it would be boring”

Subcategory 5: Tyranny

Code: 2a “strong and strict, powerful”

Code: 20h “She was quite patronising”

Code: 30n “I didn’t want to disappoint her, but that gave her an opportunity if I did something wrong, in a way it was kind of manipulative, she could make me feel bad so I wouldn’t want to do it again.”

Code: 30n “she was quite autocratic, but I liked her, she manipulated me, but I liked her – so I’d try to work harder. I felt that it was in my best interests”

Code: 27i “people who like dominant leaders often find democratic leaders to be weak, because they ask

opinions and don't seem to be able to make decisions for themselves”.

Code: 7q “It [charisma] is linked to arrogance too”

Code: 6p “sheer force of personality, charisma can sometimes shield inadequacies ... they just don't have the skills”

Code: 7r and 16e “they can lead people into doing things, they're not very accountable and they can just stampede you because you don't have any means to confine them, no boundaries”

Code: 7s and 16f “everyone wants to please them – almost a child-like ‘please the parent’ without thinking things through or challenging them because you think something won't work. The charisma over-rides logic ... or you don't feel like you can offer alternative ideas”

Subcategory 6: Masculinity

Code: 10s [female boss/male employee] “women bring their feelings into the workplace, I know it's a social environment but it's a professional workplace and you should act in a professional manner”

Code: 10s [female boss/male employee] “it brings negative emotions in, or having favourites, it affects their judgement. I notice it more in women than I do in men.”

Code: 8b [female boss/female employee] “I prefer female boss, clear compassionate and understanding – if we have an issue she'll know how to step back and make a decision”

Code: 9h [female boss/female employee] “I felt she looked down on me – she was quite patronising”

Code: 9i [female boss/female employee] “absolute worst boss was a woman – ambitious, two-faced, driven”

Code: 9k [female boss/female employee] “women managers have favourites – but they don't reward them in the same way [as male managers]”

Code: 10q [female boss/female employee] “I had a female boss who was very masculine, in attitude”

Code: 10r [female boss/female employee] “female leaders bring their emotions into the workplace more – so if she's having a bad day then they take it out on the employees – although males do that as well.

- Code: 8d [male boss/male employee] “I feel like I can connect to them, we have shared interests”
- Code: 8f [male boss/male employee] “being like us”
- Code: 9j [male boss/male employee] “males bosses you can get on better with them. Stereotypical reasons but they are there”
- Code: 9l [male boss/male employee] “I prefer male bosses, it’s human nature”
- Code: 9m [male boss/male employee] “would rather work for a male, I’ve had experiences in the past and I’ve heard of examples ... female managers especially at lower levels – it’s more a community, it’s more ‘family’ and friends, and quite a lot of people go out socially”
- Code: 8b [male boss/female employee] “male bosses make quick decisions but it’s not resulted in good endings. You end up with more work. It takes 3-4 things to fix the results of the quick decision where it’s not been thought through”
- Code: 9k [male boss/female employee] “males managers had a lot of [female] favourites and were easily manipulated. There was a lot of unfairness.”

Subcategory 7: Motives & Values

- Code: 2b “need to be trustworthy”
- Code: 4v “Ethical” 4w “If they had no morals at all I couldn’t work for them” 4x “I couldn’t work with them if they were immoral/unethical”
- Code: 3j “Need for achievement, they want to do well”
- Code: 4m “it’s about trust, honesty and integrity”

Category: Proximal (Developed) Leader Attributes

Subcategory1: Problem solving skills

- Code: 3g “Decision-making”
- Code: 29e “If he makes a decision – it will be the right one, not the wrong one”
- Code: 6m “problem solving skills”

Subcategory 2: Social appraisal skills

- Code: 6j “clarity [communication], tell me what is required, so I can work out my part and how to use my skills to fit”
- Code: 6n “clarity of communication, I expect them to see a bigger picture than I do”
- Code: 7w “leaders need to be able to adapt”

Code: 3f “social intelligence. You need to be able to recognise and adapt to situations, to what different people need/want and will respond to”

Code: 4n “Influencing”

Code: 4n “Persuasion”

Subcategory 3: Experience/knowledge

Code: 2a, 4q “Knowledge”, 4s “knowledge of what they are doing and where we are going, and how to get there”.

Code: 2a “Ability”

Code: 17i “they have to show they have the skills”

Category: Source of Expectations

Subcategory 1: Family

Code: 11c “my father, he had a lot of experience”

Code: 11b “grandfather seemed to be wise and know what the right thing to do was”; 11d “my nan was in charge, when she died it all fell apart for a while”; 12h “my grandfather was quite a leader type”

Code: 11f “a family friend”; 11i “I think it goes back to my family and childhood”

Code: 13r “my mum”

Code: 12n “family, brothers and sisters too”

Code: 13o “my parents brought me up a certain way and told me what was right and wrong – and I’m obviously going to use those things”

Code: 13p “parents probably, perhaps one more than the other – you often have more trust/empathy with one – and you want that in a leader”

Code: 13q “My dad, he was always setting targets at school and socially, a dominant type”

Subcategory 2: Society

Code: 11e “my primary school headmaster was charismatic and approachable, you could speak to him about just about anything”

Code: 11g “you form your ideas based on influences around you”

Code: 12i “later in life, university education, you already *know* what a leader is, so it doesn’t really make any difference”

Code: 12j “teachers were quite authoritarian and who I didn’t really like – but I did well because of them – that’s why I like a leader who is dominant”; 12k

“school – it’s a more formal process – but families too”

Code: 12l “social groups, friends, some of them are more leader-like than others”

Subcategory3: Experiences

Code: 12m “part time jobs”

Code: 14v “some things we do automatically, some things we think about, and our experiences shape us”

Code: 14w “work experience helped shape my idea”

Code: 14z “everyone’s ideas are based on multiple experiences”

Subcategory 4: ideal/aspirational self

Code: 13s “we definitely project an ideal version of ourselves, the person we’d like to be, onto such people”

Code: 13t “My perception of a leader is quite largely based on who I would aspire to be”

Code: 13u “my vision of a leader would be someone that I aspire to be”

Code: 13t “he projected himself as intelligent and articulate, key points that I’d aspire to – I respected that”

Super-Category: Affective (4 categories)

Category: Needs/motivations of followers

Subcategory 1: Feeling valued

Code: 17j “I want recognition for my work. I want to be valued”

Code: 3i “People’s needs might be disregarded”

Code: 18s “I like to see where I fit into the vision, it motivates me in what I’m doing”

Code: 28q “It’s more about how a leader makes you feel valued”

Code: 29b “I would *want* to work for them – versus a ‘leader’ who didn’t suit my style”

Code: 30l “I felt validated, valued ... empowered. I knew I fitted and could be relied on”

Subcategory 2: Feeling respected

Code: 17k “you won’t feel valued if they are not taking your recommendations seriously. I have been employed to do this, so you should listen to what I have to say before making a decision”

Code: 18t “I want to know the overall goal, and then just let me do it.” [*autonomy/freedom*]

Code: 32h “I need the leader to respect me, and listen to me, communicate with me – it is about my ability”

Code: 33d “easier to work when your boss isn’t standing right over you. You know what you are doing is right, you know how to do it”

Code: 33e “I need freedom, I work better, will do a better job”

Subcategory 3: feeling supported

Code: 4t “I want someone who nurtures you in the job”

Code: 18n “personal skills, he’ll help you – even when something goes wrong”

Code: 19a “compassion and understanding”

Code: 20h “she was quite patronising, I felt insecure”

Code: 21o “she took me under her wing and I was grateful to be honest”

Subcategory 4: need for meaning

Code: 6L “I can feel as though I’m working as part of the overall goal of the company – I know where I fit in”

Code: 28o “I like to feel like I am participating in something, to be part of that bigger picture, so I need some ‘meaning’. I’m not just there to earn a salary and go home”

Code: 6o “I’d quite like the leader to have some vision so that the work I’m doing fits into that vision – what I’m doing it’s amounting to something”

Subcategory 5: Congruence of Values

Code: 4m “it’s about integrity”

Code: 18p “if they had no morals at all I couldn’t work for them”

Code: 18q “I couldn’t work for them if they were immoral/unethical”

Subcategory 6: Friendship

Code: 16c “friendly, someone I can get along with, someone I can relate to”

Code: 10o “I’d rather work for someone who was *just* my boss”

Code: 10p “I’d prefer a male boss, but there is no reason he can’t be sociable too”

Code: 19c “I feel like I can connect to them ... although it’s a work environment there is plenty of time in the day when you are talking socially”

- Code: 21r “It needs separation, in work, and out of the work environment”
- Code: 23b “I don’t care as long as I’m being paid. As long as they are competent then I’ll respect their authority, but apart from that I don’t need them to be my friend – not at work”
- Code: 23c “A friendly boss would make for a more approachable person, if you need to discuss certain work issues”
- Code: 23d “You need an element of that [friendship] because I don’t think people would come to you with problems otherwise – and if you don’t know about stuff and you are supposed to be the leader – they might even cover it up”
- Code: 23f “they need to be mature and confident enough to *be friendly*”
- Code: 24i “I want friendly, life will be hard otherwise”
- Code: 24j “people in authority need to initiate friendships”
- Code: 25m “they need to be friendly enough that people feel they can come to you with a problem – to be approachable”
- Code: 27h “I don’t care if they are overly-friendly, I just want to know what they are going to do”

Category: Authority

Subcategory 1: Direction

- Code: 4s “need to know where we are going, and how we are going to get there”
- Code: 12j “I do like a leader who is dominant, and knows what they want”
- Code: 13q “In a leader I’d look for someone similar [dominant like father] and who would tell me their expectations. I like structure”
- Code: 18o “know what they are doing, where we are going, and how to get there”
- Code: 34m “I prefer a bit more top-down, does that make sense?”

Subcategory 2: Respect

- Code: 4u “Authority, someone who commands respect”
- Code: 4u “you don’t have to like them, but if you respect them then you will work hard”
- Code: 5a “professional respect”

- Code: 8g 19g “my previous boss was trying to be friendly all time, he wasn’t authoritative enough ... people walked all over him”
- Code: 13t “he projected himself as intelligent and articulate, key points that I’d aspire to – I respected that”
- Code: 16g “it’s important that they are charismatic and inspirational because you want to look up to them and believe them and can follow them – and that will make them a good leader”
- Code: 17i “respect is a big thing, followers to have respect for their leaders”
- Code: 23b “As long as they are competent then I’ll respect their authority”

Subcategory 3: Boundaries

- Code: 5b “firm but fair”
- Code: 8g “taken advantage of”
- Code: 23e “there needs to be a line”
- Code: 23f “they have to be able to switch modes, if someone is just your friend it would cause problems. I’d struggle with that”
- Code: 24g “you need a line of authority that people won’t cross”
- Code: 24h “if you are too friendly people will take advantage of you”
- Code: 24j “have the skills to know where the line is – and tell me – be friendly in some circumstances but stricter in others”
- Code: 25n “strict but fair – I like groups with rules – if there are no rules or things are unclear it is hard to get things done”
- Code: 25o “firm but fair – then I can get on with my work”
- Code: 25p “it keeps me in line if they are strict – you wouldn’t want to upset them ... but as long as they are fair because then you would feel bad about upsetting them anyway”

Subcategory 4: Fairness/Justice

- Code: 9k “there was a lot of politicking and unfairness [by male managers] going on”
- Code: 20l “I grew up with expectations of fairness in the workplace”
- Code: 20k “women managers do have their favourites – but they don’t reward them in the same way”
- Code: 20m “that sense of injustice made it hard”

Code: 20n “I didn’t want to be there, work there, or be anywhere near them”

Code: 10r 21u “they [female managers] have their favourites, your ability doesn’t matter, their friends get more recognition, which I think is wrong”

Code: 24k “people don’t like it when the boss is more friendly with one person than another, when they get the best jobs and the best assignments”

Subcategory 5: Fear of responsibility

Code: 17h “it is scary when people are relying on you for a job”

Code: 29g “if they are taking responsibility then I am happy”

Category: Positive Emotions

Subcategory 1: Positive emotions about self

Code: 29f “happy”; 29g “happy”

Code: 29b “Happy and motivated”

Code: 29d “Motivated”

Code: 30l self-respect

Code: 29e “Feel valued”

Code: 30m “feel confidence”

Code: 29e “feel safe and secure”

Code: 30h “Enjoyment”

Code: 29f “feel Hope”

Code: 30l “I felt validated, valued ... empowered. I knew I fitted and could be relied on”

Subcategory 2: Positive emotions toward superior

Code: 29e “have faith”

Code: 29d “I have respect”

Code: 30k “I can achieve so much more”

Code: 27n “I was willing to do a lot more”

Code: 30k “it makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve”

Code: 18m “Happy cows produce more milk”

Code: 34o “if I’m happy with my boss, and things are going well, then I’m happy to follow”

Subcategory 3: positive emotions toward company

Code: 29c “Belief in the company”

Code: 29c “Pride in the company”

Category: Negative Emotions

Subcategory 1: Negative feelings about self

Code: 31e “I feel so unmotivated”

Code: 31f "What am I doing? I don't feel valued"

Code: 31g "There's not much you can do." [helplessness, in relation to appointed leaders].

Code: 32n "It's not home anymore ... I don't fit, it's not the same"

Code: 32o "I think I'd be depressed"

Subcategory 2: Negative feelings about superior

Code: 29b "I wouldn't want to work with them"

Code: 29d "I got to have respect for the boss otherwise I'm not motivated"

Code: 31b, 31c, 31d, 31f, 31g, 32i "Managers not leaders"

Code: 31c "Bad managers"

Code: 31f "It feels like I'm taking over the management role – it's disorganised – you go in and you don't know what to do"

Code: 31g "in any other context you would challenge them"

Code: 32i "I don't feel confident in his ability - which affects my motivation"

Code: 31b "Lack personality"

Code: 31d "She was rubbish ..."

Code: 36j "we worked for someone we didn't respect, thought they were two-faced, and couldn't hide it"

Subcategory 3: negative feelings about company

Code: 31e "makes me hate the place"

Code: 31f "I don't feel valued – there's not enough reward for what you do – your effort isn't recognised"

Code: 32n "It's not home anymore ... I don't fit, it's not the same"

Code: 32j "We don't have to be subjected to this. Why waste yourself working for someone who isn't right?" [frustration/anger]

Code: 32k "Someone else might appreciate this job, but not me"

Code: 32l "If the boss was no good, then I'd be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company."

Code: 36j "we didn't want to be there, work there, or be anywhere near there"

Super-Category: Behavioural (2 categories)

Category: Behaviours when ILT needs are met

Subcategory 1: Positive behaviours related to superior

- Code: 29e "have faith in him"
- Code: 29d "I have respect for him"
- Code: 30k "I can achieve so much more"
- Code: 27n "I was willing to do a lot more"
- Code: 30k "It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve"
- Code: 18m "Happy cows produce more milk"
- Code: 29c "Pride in him"

Category: Behaviours when ILT needs not met

Subcategory 1: Negative behaviours related to superior

- Code: 29b "I wouldn't want to work with them"
- Code: 29d "I got to have respect for the boss otherwise I'm not motivated"
- Code: 31b, 31c, 31d, 31f, 31g, 32i "[Managers not leaders]"
- Code: 31c "Bad managers"
- Code: 31d "*nobody wanted to work under her, didn't like coming to work, people called in sick, nobody would do overtime. We were totally disincentivised. The relationship collapsed*"
- Code: 31e "*I feel unmotivated, makes me hate the place, not want to come into work. I'm less productive.*"
- Code: 31f "*What am I doing? It feels like I'm taking over the management role – it's disorganised – you go in and you don't know what to do – I don't feel valued*"
- Code: 31g "*There's not much you can do [appointed leaders] – in any other context you would challenge them*"
- Code: 32i "*I don't feel confident in his ability - which affects my motivation*"
- Code: 32j "*We don't have to be subjected to this ... Why waste yourself working for someone who isn't right?*"
- Code: 32k "*Someone else might appreciate this job, but not me*"
- Code: 32l "*If the boss was no good, then I'd be happier to just quit, or maybe start my own company.*"

Appendix F: Code Book

Code book

Name	Classification	Description	Examples	Hierarchical Code
Affective	Super-Category	How do leaders make us feel?	Needs and Motivations; Authority; Positive and Negative emotional responses	Affective/
Authority	Category	What do we Feel about leader behaviour?	Direction, respect, boundaries, fairness and justice	Affective/Authority
Behavioural	Super-Category	impact of personality, cognitive processes and emotions on behaviour	positive and negative behaviours towards superiors and their affects on company	Behavioural/
Behaviours when ILT needs met	Category	positive behaviours toward superiors and company	positive behaviours towards superiors and positive behaviours towards company	Behavioural/Behaviours when ILT needs are met
Boundaries	Subcategory	Firm but Fair	"there needs to be a line" (23e) .. "you need a line of authority that people won't cross" (24g) ... "if you are too friendly people will take advantage of you" (24h)	Affective/Authority/Boundaries
Cognitive	Super-Category	what do we think about leaders?	recognising leaders, expectations of leaders.	Cognitive/
Congruence of values	Subcategory	Trust	"it's about integrity" (4m) ... "If they had no morals at all I could't work for them" (18p)	Affective/Needs & Motivations of Followers/congruence of values
Dedication	Subcategory	Ambition and Focus	"A need for achievement – if they want to do well they can push the team forward" (3j)	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes/Dedication
Direction	Subcategory	Where are we going?	"Need to know where we are going and how we are going to get there" (4s) .. "I like a leader who is dominant and knows what they want" (12j) ... "I prefer a bit more top-down, does that makes sense?" (34m)	Affective/Authority/Direction
Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes	Category	Inherent (born with) traits and behaviours (Zaccaro, 2007)	"strong ... Strict ... ambitious ... passionate ... Knowledgeable ... charismatic" (2a)	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes
Dynamism	Subcategory	Sheer force of personality (Offerman et al., 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004)	"strong ... passionate ... Charismatic ... visionary" (2a) ... "Someone who has the charismatic, inspirational personality that makes me want to do the job" (28p)	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes/Dynamism
Expectations based on leadership level	Subcategory	Differentiating between expectations of leaders at different levels of authority (Lord & Associates - Categorization Theory)	"Leaders and managers are completely different. Managers I expect to tell me what the position is, how to get there, what to do – leaders need to inspire and motivate me to do it" (15e) ... "Management is more an administrative bureaucratic process – lea	Cognitive/Leader Recognition/Expectations based on Leadership Level
Experience & Knowledge	Subcategory	Tacit knowledge and abilities expected of the leader	"Knowledge of what they are doing and where we are going, and how to get there" (4s) ... "they have to show they have the skills" (17i)	Cognitive/Proximal (Developed) Leader Attributes/Experience and Knowledge
Experiences	Subcategory	other influences, such as work	"some things we do automatically, some things we think about, and our experiences shape us" (14v) ... "work experience helped shape my idea" (14w)	Cognitive/Source of Expectations/Experiences
Fairness & Justice	Subcategory	Favouritism	"There was a lot of politicking and unfairness [by male managers] going on" (9k) .. "they [female managers] have their favourites, your ability doesn't matter, their friends get more recognition, which I think is wrong" (10r) .. "people don't like it when	Affective/Authority/Fairness & Justice

Family	Subcategory	Family influences on leader expectations	"grandfather seemed to be wise and know what the right thing to do was" (11b) ... "My dad, he was always setting targets at school and socially, a dominant type" (13q)	Cognitive/Source of Expectations/Family
Fear of Responsibility	Subcategory	Fear of Responsibility	"It is scary when people are relying on you for a job" (17h) ... "If they are taking responsibility then I am happy" (29g)	Affective/Authority/Fear of Responsibility
Feeling Respected	Subcategory	need for respect	"You won't feel valued if they are not taking your recommendations seriously" (17k) ... "I need the leader to respect me, and listen to me, communicate with me - it is about my ability" (32h)	Affective/Needs & Motivations of Followers/feeling respected
Feeling Supported	Subcategory	need for security	"I want someone who nurtures you in the job" (4t) ... "she was quite patronising, I felt insecure" (20h)	Affective/Needs & Motivations of Followers/feeling supported
Feeling Valued	Subcategory	need for recognition and value	"I want recognition for my work, I want to be valued" (17j) ... "I felt validated, valued ... Empowered. I knew I fitted" (30l)	Affective/Needs & Motivations of Followers/Feeling Valued
Ideal or Aspirational Self	Subcategory	Projecting idealised version of self onto the leader	"We definitely project an ideal version of ourselves, the person we'd like to be" (13s) ... "my perception of a leader is quite largely based on who I would aspire to be" (13t)	Cognitive/Source of Expectations/Ideal or Aspirational Self
Intelligence	Subcategory	Relative cleverness - not about being an intellectual (Offerman et al., 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004)	"You don't have to be too clever – you just have to be able to join it all together" (2e)	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes/Intelligence
Leader Recognition	Category	How do we recognise a leader when we see one? (Lord & Associates - Categorization Theory)	"It's important that they are charismatic and inspirational because you want to look up to them and believe them and can follow them – and that will make them a good leader" (16g)	Cognitive/Leader Recognition
Leader/Not Leader	Subcategory	Differentiating between leaders, and those who are not (Lord & Associates - Categorization Theory)	"You want someone to have specific traits so you can distinguish between normal people and leaders, because they tend to have those things" (5c) ... "so that signals that they are a leader. If they don't have them [special traits] then they are just another"	Cognitive/Leader Recognition/Leader-not-leader
Leadership Domain	Subcategory	Differentiating between leaders in different contexts (Lord & Associates - Categorization Theory)	"It's different in business, social, political contexts" (1d) ... "it depends on the kind of industry, whether you want an energetic lively 'wild child' or more of a bureaucrat, or even a dictator" (1e)	Cognitive/Leader Recognition/Leadership Domain
Masculinity	Subcategory	Thoughts on male/female leaders (Offerman et al., 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004)	[female boss/male employee] "it brings negative emotions in, or having favourites, it affects their judgement. I notice it more in women than I do in men." (10s) ... [male boss/female employee] "males managers had a lot of [female] favourites and were eas"	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes/Masculinity

Motives & Values	Subcategory	Is my leader a good person? (Zaccaro, 2007)	"need to be trustworthy" (2b) ... "if they had no morals at all I couldn't work with them" (4w) ... "it's about trust, honesty and integrity" (4m)	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes/Motives & Values
Nature of Authority	Subcategory	Differentiating between those who are elected, appointed (Lord & Associates - Categorization Theory)	"In work they are the leader by default, because they are the boss – they have an authority role." (3h) ... "If they are in a management role, a leader by hierarchy there is not much you can do, if they are a more self-appointed leader in a peer group the	Cognitive/Leader Recognition/Nature of Authority
Need for Friendship	Subcategory	social relationships with the leader	"I'd rather work for someone who was just my boss" (10o) ... "I don't care as long as I am being paid" (23b) .. "I want friendly, life will be hard otherwise" (24i) ... "they need to be friendly enough that people feel they can come to you with a problem	Affective/Needs & Motivations of Followers/Friendship
Need for Meaning	Subcategory	why am I here?	"I can feel as though I'm working as part of the overall goal - I know where I fit in" (6i) ... "I like to feel like I am participating in something. I need some 'meaning'. I'm not just here to earn a salary and go home" (28o)	Affective/Needs & Motivations of Followers/need for meaning
Needs & Motivations of followers	Category	Why do people <i>choose</i> to follow?	Feeling valued, respected, supported, the need for direction and meaning.	Affective/Needs & Motivations of Followers
negative behaviours related to superior	Subcategory	negative behavioural impacts on relationship with superior	"I wouldn't want to work with them" (29b) ... "Managers not leaders" (31b, 31c, 31d, 31f, 31g, 32i) ... "bad managers" (31c) ... "nobody wanted to work under here, didn't like coming to work, people called in sick, nobody would do overtime" (31d) ... "in	Behavioural/Behaviours when ILT needs are not met/Negative behaviours related to superior
Negative Emotions	Category	sad and angry faces	negative about self, towards superiors and about company	Affective/Negative Emotions
Negative feelings about company	Subcategory	emotional reactions to ILT mismatch - workplace	"makes me hate the place" (31e) ... "we didn't want to be there, work there, or be anywhere near there" (36j)	Affective/Negative Emotions/Negative feelings about company
Negative feelings about self	Subcategory	emotional reactions to ILT mismatch - self	"I feel so unmotivated" (31e) ... "There's not much you can do [helplessness]" (31g) ... "It's not home anymore - I don't fit" (32)	Affective/Negative Emotions/negative feelings about self
Negative feelings about superior	Subcategory	emotional reactions to ILT mismatch - boss	"I wouldn't want to work with them" (29b) ... "bad managers" (31c) ... "she was rubbish" (31d) ... "we didn't respect [her] ... And couldn't hide it" (34j)	Affective/Negative Emotions/negative feelings about superiors
Positive Behaviours related to superior	Subcategory	positive behavioural impacts on relationship with superior	"I can achieve so much more" (30k) ... "I was willing to do a lot more" (27n) ... "happy cows produce more milk" (18m)	Behavioural/Behaviours when ILT needs are met/Positive behaviours related to superior
Positive Emotions	Category	smiley happy faces	positive about self, boss and company	Affective/Positive Emotions
positive feelings about company	Subcategory	emotional reactions to ILT match - workplace	"I have belief in the company" (29c) .. "I have pride in the company" (29c) ... "I have faith [in the company]" (29e)	Affective/Positive Emotions/positive feelings about company
positive feelings about self	Subcategory	emotional reactions to ILT match - self	"happy and motivated" (29b) ... "happy cows produce more milk" (18m) ... "feel confidence" (30m) ... "feel safe and secure" (29e)	Affective/Positive Emotions/positive feelings about self

positive feelings about superior	Subcategory	emotional reactions to ILT match - boss	"have faith" 29e ... "It makes me want to go the extra mile to achieve whatever it is that they are trying to achieve" (30k) ... "I am happy to follow" (34o)	Affective/Positive Emotions/positive feelings about superiors
Problem solving skills	Subcategory	Practical ability to solve problems	"If he makes a decision – it will be the right one, not the wrong one" (29e)	Cognitive/Proximal (Developed) Leader Attributes/Problem solving skills
Proximal (Developed) Leader Attributes	Category	Skills and knowledge that can be developed over time	Problem solving skills, social appraisal skills, experience and knowledge	Cognitive/Proximal (Developed) Leader Attributes
Respect	Subcategory	Why should I follow you?	"authority, someone who commands respect" (4u) ... "he projected himself as intelligent and articulate, key points that I'd aspire to be - I respected that" (13t) ... "respect is a big thing, followers to have respect for their leaders" (17i)	Affective/Authority/Respect
Sensitivity	Subcategory	The ability to recognise people's needs and respond accordingly	"you need to be emotionally intelligent, to be able to interact and sympathise/empathise" (2f) ... "you need to be able to recognise and adapt to situations, to what different people need/want and will respond to" (3f)	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes/Sensitivity
Social appraisal skills	Subcategory	Social intelligence, being able to judge situations	"clarity [of communication], tell me what is required, so I can work out my part and how to use my skills to fit" (6j) ... "social intelligence. You need to be able to recognise and adapt to situations, to what different people need/want and will respond	Cognitive/Proximal (Developed) Leader Attributes/Social Appraisal Skills
Society	Subcategory	Societal and Community influences on formation of leader expectations	"my primary school headmaster was charismatic and approachable, you could speak to him about just about anything" (11e) ... "teachers were quite authoritarian and who I didn't really like – but I did well because of them – that's why I like a leader who i	Cognitive/Source of Expectations/Society
Source of Expectations	Category	Where did your ideas about leadership come from?	e.g. Family, peers, educators	Cognitive/Source of Expectations
Tyranny	Subcategory	Less attractive traits often associated with coercion and manipulation	"I didn't want to disappoint her, but that gave her an opportunity if I did something wrong, in a way it was kind of manipulative, she could make me feel bad so I wouldn't want to do it again." (30n)	Cognitive/Distal (Inherent) Leader Attributes/Tyranny