

PREDICTING LEADERSHIP: SELF-PERCEPTIONS AND LEGITIMACY IN GROUP
DECISION-MAKING TASKS

by

MARY ELIZABETH SELDEN

(Under the Direction of Adam S. Goodie)

ABSTRACT

Leadership is a social process, dependent on perceptions. Personality, perceptions of behavior, implicit leadership theories, and legitimacy contribute to whether a potential leader is seen as a leader. Few studies have assessed how self-perceptions of leader influence others' perceptions. In Study 1, self-perceptions of leadership were predicted by feeling similar to an "ideal" leader, and personality traits such as extraversion, disagreeableness, conscientiousness, and interpersonal control. In Study 2, I further tested the role of self-perceptions in a group setting where the leader's source of authority differed: the leader for each group was either chosen at random by the experimenter (externally appointed) or emerged via group consensus (internally emerging). Participants interacted during two group tasks and rated each other's and their own leadership. The results show that the relationship between self-perceptions of leadership and others' perceptions of leadership is moderated by the individual's source of authority (i.e., whether external or internal).

INDEX WORDS: leadership perceptions; leadership self-perceptions; legitimacy; group decision making; personality; leadership behaviors; implicit leadership theories

PREDICTING LEADERSHIP: SELF-PERCEPTIONS AND LEGITIMACY IN GROUP
DECISION-MAKING TASKS

by

MARY ELIZABETH SELDEN

B.A., Adrian College, 2012

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2015

© 2015

Mary Elizabeth Selden

All Rights Reserved

PREDICTING LEADERSHIP: SELF-PERCEPTIONS AND LEGITIMACY IN GROUP
DECISION-MAKING TASKS

by

MARY ELIZABETH SELDEN

Major Professor: Adam S. Goodie
Committee: Brian Hoffman
Brian Haas

Electronic Version Approved:

Julie Coffield
Interim Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
May 2015

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my major professor, Dr. Adam Goodie, and my lab-mates Thitapa Shinaprayoon and Matthew Meisel for their guidance and support from the initial stages of this project to its final completion. Their feedback and assistance were invaluable and much appreciated.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
Predictors of Leadership Emergence in Small Groups	2
Leadership Perceptions and Legitimacy	7
Self-Perceptions of Leadership	9
The Current Studies	11
2 STUDY 1	14
Method	14
Results	17
Discussion	22
3 STUDY 2	25
Method	25
Results	29
Discussion	34
4 GENERAL DISCUSSION	38
Limitations and Future Directions	40

REFERENCES42

FOOTNOTES51

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Descriptive Information for Study 1 Questionnaires.....	53
Table 2: Subscales and Descriptions for the Leader Behavior Descriptions Questionnaires	54
Table 3: Percentages of Leadership Experiences Reported by Domain	55
Table 4: Pearson Correlations Among Leadership Behaviors (Self and Ideal Subscales)	56
Table 5: Pearson Correlations Among Personality and Leadership	57
Table 6: Pearson Correlations Among Personality Traits and LBDQ-Self Subscales	58
Table 7: Regression Analysis Predicting Self-Perceptions of Leadership (N = 402).....	60
Table 8: Descriptive Information for Study 2 Questionnaires.....	61
Table 9: Pearson Correlations Among Leadership Behaviors (Self and Ideal Subscales)	62
Table 10: Pearson Correlations Among Personality and Leadership	63
Table 11: Pearson Correlations Among Personality Traits and LBDQ-Self Subscales	65
Table 12: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Self-Perceptions of Leadership (N = 351).....	66
Table 13: Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Others' Overall Perceptions of Leadership (N = 351).....	67

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Plot of Interaction Between Self-Perceptions of Leadership and Legitimacy	69

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a social process: it is based on a relationship between at least two people where one has power or authority over another. This relationship requires that one individual buys into the authority of the potential leader, and the potential leader accepts the role and the responsibilities inherent in that role. This process depends, at the most basic level, on perceptions (Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986): the leader's power is based on the perceptions of others, who endorse the potential leader's legitimacy. Leaders who are seen as more legitimate have greater influence on those who follow them and have greater flexibility in leveraging that influence to, for example, enact change or delegate responsibilities (Hollander & Julian, 1970; Hollander, 1958).

Perceptions of leadership are influenced by many factors. These factors range from implicit evaluative processes within the mind of a person assessing a potential leader (e.g., comparing the person to some preconceived, implicit idea of who a leader is and how a leader should act) to explicit evaluations of the actual traits and behaviors exhibited by potential leaders during interactions (Chemers, 2000; Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Perceptions are also influenced by the source of the leader's authority—whether granted by some higher authority or chosen through a mutual, more informal, understanding (Hollander & Julian, 1969; Pielstick, 2000). However, there is still much to learn about the factors that influence perceptions of leadership and how they relate to other leadership outcomes like leadership emergence in groups.

Whereas implicit leadership theories, traits and behaviors, and legitimacy have been consistently shown to influence the perceptions of others and relate to emerging leadership (Chemers, 2000; Pielstick, 2000), fewer studies have determined if or how self-perceptions of leadership play a role in these processes (Emery, Daniloski, & Hamby, 2010). And no studies have looked at the effects of self-perceptions of leadership on leader emergence under conditions where the selection process (the source of the leader's authority) differs. The purpose of the following studies is to determine (a) whether people's personality and self-reported behaviors in leadership roles relate to their self-perceptions of leadership (*Study 1*), and (b) whether these self-perceptions of leadership predict other group members' perceptions of the individual as a leader in two different contexts: in groups with established hierarchies and in leaderless groups (*Study 2*).

Predictors of Leadership Emergence in Small Groups

Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) develop throughout a person's lifetime from observations of his or her past experiences with parents (Keller, 1999, 2003), supervisors, employers, and others (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). A person's implicit leadership theory forms a perfect image of a leader (an archetype) that is used to evaluate who a "leader" is and how he or she should act (Kenney, Blascovich, & Shaver, 1994; Phillips & Lord, 1981; Schyns & Schilling, 2010). People use ILTs to judge those who are, or may potentially be, in positions of power, and their ILTs impact their perceptions of others' leadership abilities.

When a person (the rater) is assessing or choosing a leader, he compares that potential leader (the target) against his leader archetype (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987; Engle & Lord, 1997; Lord & Hall, 1992; Phillips & Lord, 1981). The extent to which a target individual is perceived as having traits or exhibiting behaviors consistent with the rater's idea of a leader determines

whether the target will then be described as a leader. The closer the match between the rater's archetype of a leader and the target, the more likely the rater will endorse the target individual as the leader of a group. When a target individual is seen as congruent with a "leader" (in the mind of a rater), this consistency gives the target legitimacy as a leader, which translates into power and influence (Hollander, 1992).

Targets who are not perceived as having leader-like traits or who do not exhibit behaviors consistent with a rater's idea of a leader may not be endorsed as a leader. Leaders who emerge within groups or work teams often match the groups' ILTs (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). Although each person's ILT may be different (depending on his or her past experiences), people's expectations of leaders' traits and behaviors tend to be similar across types of employees, positions in an organization, and tenure (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Weiss & Adler, 1981). For example, people tend to believe leaders should be intelligent, dominant, and extraverted (Chemers, 2000; Offermann et al., 1994). People also expect leaders to exhibit certain types of behaviors, including being considerate of employees and initiating structure of tasks (Stodgill, 1963), acting sensitive and dedicated to their subordinates (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offermann et al., 1994), among others (Pielstick, 2000). Consequently, individuals who exhibit those traits and behaviors are more likely to be perceived as leaders, and emerge as leaders within groups.

One theory that encompasses and organizes the many broad predictors of leadership, as well as the relationships among them, was developed by Zaccaro, Kemp, and Bader (1990). They proposed that the more distal attributes of leadership (including personality and other dispositional attributes, values and motives, and cognitive abilities) influence leadership outcomes such as leader emergence within groups, perceptions of leader effectiveness, and

advancement or promotion into higher leadership positions (Derue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986; Taggar, Hackett, & Saha, 1999). Those distal attributes do so, however, through more proximal attributes like expertise, knowledge, problem-solving skills, social capabilities, and other situation-specific abilities, behaviors, and traits (Chemers, 2000; Kaiser & Hogan, 2011; Vroom & Jago, 2007). These proximal attributes, along with situational constraints and immediate experiences, all contribute to the leadership emergence process. This model provides a conceptual framework under which the various predictors of leadership may interact to produce leadership outcomes. The current studies are couched in this framework.

Proximal predictors. Proximal attributes of leadership outcomes refer to behaviors that are exhibited during interpersonal interactions and related to the immediate situation.

Unsurprisingly, expertise in the task and possessing pertinent knowledge relating to the task are significant predictors of who emerges as a leader (Zaccaro, Mumford, Connelly, Marks, & Gilbert, 2000; Zaccaro, 2007). Outside of direct knowledge and expertise, individuals assess leadership through specific behaviors exhibited during interactions. If a target's exhibited behaviors match raters' (i.e., employees' or group members') expectations of how leader act (as compared to their ILTs), then those target individuals will be perceived as a leader, and more likely to emerge as a leader, in unstructured group contexts (Kenney et al., 1994; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984).

Many of the behaviors common to people's ILTs can be characterized in one of three ways: task orientation, relationship orientation, and change orientation. Theories based on these categories of behavior are prevalent in the literature (Chemers, 2000; Derue et al., 2011; Stogdill, 1963; Tracy, 1987). Task-oriented behaviors include initiating structure towards goals by defining each person's role, as well as providing rewards contingent upon performance.

Relation-oriented behaviors include consideration of the well-being and contributions of others. Change-oriented behaviors include motivating others and providing inspiration and intellectual stimulation. The different characterizations of leadership behaviors are often associated with specific types of leadership; however, exhibiting more of these behaviors in general will make the target seem more leader-like (Chemers, 2000; Derue et al., 2011).

Distal predictors. In Zaccaro and colleagues' (1990) model of leader attributes and leader performance, they propose that personality plays a distinct role as a distal predictor of leader emergence. Past research regarding the predictive validity of personality variables on leadership has been wrought with controversy (for a review, see Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). However, there has been recent support for the assertion that personality traits significantly predict leaders who emerge from group interactions, as well as outcome variables such as leader effectiveness (Derue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002).

Besides behaviors, personality is another way in which people judge others' leader-likeness. General personality traits such as intelligence, masculinity-femininity, and dominance have been shown to relate to leader emergence within groups (Derue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986). The Big Five personality traits—extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, openness to experience, and conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1992)—have also been shown to predict leader emergence in leaderless groups (Judge et al., 2002). However, the magnitude of the relationship of each trait to leader emergence is somewhat inconsistent in the literature. *Conscientiousness* (exemplified by competence and self-discipline) and, in particular, *extraversion* (exemplified by assertiveness and gregariousness) are most consistently and positively related to leader emergence across studies (Campbell, Simpson, Stewart, & Manning, 2003; Emery, 2012; Ensari et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002; Reichard et al., 2011).

Neuroticism, or emotional instability, was not related to leader emergence in some studies (Emery, 2012; Judge et al., 2002), but showed some conditional predictive relationship in others (Ensari et al., 2011; Li, Chun, Ashkanasy, & Ahlstrom, 2012).

The relationship between openness to experience and agreeableness are even more inconsistent. *Openness to experience*—often defined by creativity and imagination, or intellect—is also inconsistently related to leader emergence, with studies showing positive (Ensari et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002) and negative relationships (Emery, 2012). Openness has been linked with leader creativity (Emery, Calvard, & Pierce, 2013; Kickul & Neuman, 2000; Reiter-Palmon & Illies, 2004). However, the benefits of openness and creativity may be dependent on the needs of the group or organization (Anderson, Spataro, & Flynn, 2008), which may explain why openness is inconsistently related to leader emergence. That is, tasks where creativity is not necessary may make openness moot. Similarly, *agreeableness*, which includes cooperativeness, modesty, and trustworthiness, inconsistently related to leadership: sometimes it positively predicted leader emergence (Judge et al., 2002) and sometimes it had no relationship (Emery, 2012; Ensari et al., 2011).

Other personality variables theoretically relate to leadership, but have yet to be tested empirically. According to Paulhus (1983; Paulhus & Van Selst, 1990), there are three domains in which individuals can exert control: over themselves (personal efficacy), over others (interpersonal control), and over the broad social and political environment (sociopolitical control). People who believe they have personal efficacy feel like they are in control of their lives and their decisions. People who believe they have interpersonal control feel like they can influence others, and others do not have undue influence over them. People who believe they have sociopolitical control believe that they are able to affect their broader social and political

environment. In regards to leadership, people high in personal efficacy and interpersonal control may feel more comfortable leading others than those who lack personal efficacy or believe they do not have sufficient interpersonal control.

These spheres of control have been associated with other aspects of personality, particularly extraversion and neuroticism. Both personal efficacy and interpersonal control were significantly positively correlated with extraversion and significantly negatively correlated with neuroticism (Parkes, 1988)—both of which are traits that have been linked to leadership emergence. For example, in one of Paulhus, Molin, & Schuchts' (1979) studies, interpersonal control and personal efficacy were found to be higher in high school football players compared to non-athletes, while personal efficacy was found to be higher in high school tennis players as compared to non-athletes and football players. These results provide initial evidence that the spheres of control are related to goal-directed pursuits, and they also begin to address who may opt into roles that specifically require efficacy in either the personal or the interpersonal domains. Taken together, personality traits influence leadership perceptions and help determine who emerges as a leader. In addition, the traits that people expect in a leader (which are based on their ILTs) are also the traits shown to predict leader emergence.

Leadership Perceptions and Legitimacy

A leader gains influence when subordinates buy into the leader's power. One way leaders gain influence is through legitimization: the leader is endorsed either by an authority figure or by the group members themselves (Chemers, 2000; Read, 1974). *External sources of legitimacy* refer to when an authority figure chooses an individual to be a leader—the choice does not result from the input of the group. This is common in companies where managers or supervisors are hired in or promoted. Conversely, leaders can emerge through social processes, gaining authority

and power through more “bottom-up” social processes. This is referred to as *internal sources of legitimacy*. In a company setting, this may come about when individuals with no formal supervisory roles become informal leaders through their interactions with others, whereby the group collectively chooses the individual as their leader. These types of leaders may not hold any formal positions in the company (Neubert & Taggar, 2004; Neubert, 2014; Pielstick, 2000).

Perceptions matter in both the formal and informal cases. Group members tend to evaluate both formal (or appointed) leaders and informal (or emerging) leaders during interactions based on their behaviors, traits, and skills (Pielstick, 2000). As mentioned before, personality traits such as extraversion, conscientiousness, and neuroticism have been shown to relate to many different aspects of leadership, including perceptions of leadership and leadership emergence. These commonalities are found in formal leaders as well, like CEOs and managers (de Vries, 2012).

However, formal and informal leaders are perceived differently despite existing in functionally the same role (Ben-Yoav, Hollander, & Carnevale, 1983; Hollander & Julian, 1970; Read, 1974; Taggar et al., 1999). In lab studies, informal leaders are often preferred over appointed leaders, and are perceived as more competent than leaders chosen via other selection processes (Ben-Yoav et al., 1983; Read, 1974). Informal leaders are seen as more in tune with their subordinates' needs and interested in the tasks and goals they are trying to accomplish compared to appointed leaders (Ben-Yoav et al., 1983). Groups led by informal leaders sometimes have better group outcomes as well. For example, groups without formal leaders perform better than groups with appointed or elected leaders on timed collaborative tasks (Goldman & Fraas, 1965).

In organizations with formally established hierarchies, employees' positions within that structure define their relative authority. In these situations, two distinct concepts become blurred: it is difficult to distinguish the employees' performance in their positions in the company (as supervisor, as manager) from their role as a leader (Bresnen, 1995). A supervisory position does not guarantee the person filling the role is acting as an effective leader or is seen as a legitimate leader by his or her subordinates (Hollander & Julian, 1970). That is, the supervisor may not be endorsed or accepted as a leader despite the authority bestowed on him or her via the position (Hollander & Julian, 1970; Read, 1974). Therefore, the source of legitimacy influences how the leader is evaluated, resulting in informal leaders being perceived by others as more legitimate (Zhu, Kraut, & Kittur, 2012).

Self-Perceptions of Leadership

Despite the long history of research regarding legitimacy, ILTs, personality, and leadership behaviors on leadership perceptions and emergence, there have been very few attempts of connecting this literature with self-perceptions of leadership. Though not previously tested, we would expect individuals to employ the same implicit leadership criteria used to rate others to rate themselves. ILT congruence was found between supervisors' and subordinates' ILTs (e.g., Engle & Lord, 1997), but the researchers did not assess how those ILTs reflected back on the individuals themselves. Initial evidence can be inferred from Keller's (1999) study, where she showed that the personality traits (the Big Five, self-monitoring, and self-esteem) correlated with four of Offerman et al.'s (1994) eight leader behaviors (sensitivity, dedication, tyranny, and charisma). People seem to be utilizing the same implicit leader schema used to evaluate others on themselves.

Leadership is often assessed through subordinate ratings, or ratings from group or team members. Self-reported leadership is often ignored or seen as immaterial. In studies where individuals did rate themselves on leadership (in addition to rating others after a group task; Lonetto & Williams, 1974; Turetgen, Unsal, & Erdem, 2008), the self-reported leadership ratings and their relationships to other variables were not reported. However, it is my belief that self-perceptions of leadership should also influence whether one is perceived as a leader. People who do not see themselves as leader-like may not be perceived as leaders by others in part because they do not act in ways that are consistent with others' ILTs. Additionally, leaders who are not endorsed by others may not perceive themselves as legitimate leaders, which may inhibit any attempts to be leaders. One study looked at volunteer leaders, and found that they acted differently than appointed leaders (Ertac & Gurdal, 2012). Specifically, they did not take into account the group's opinions as much as appointed leaders. Volunteering for a leadership position may indicate a willingness to lead, which could be related to self-perceptions of leadership. However, the study did not assess how group members perceived the leaders. (The study was also conducted in Turkey, which may introduce biases due to differences in cultural expectations of leaders.) Regardless, having more legitimacy granted to the potential leader may influence how the person perceives him or herself as a leader, but to date, no studies have directly tested this relationship between self-perceptions and legitimacy.

The most direct test of self-perceptions of leadership was conducted by Emery, Danilowski, and Hamby (2010). In this longitudinal study, the researchers tested how self-perceptions and others' leadership nominations had reciprocal effects on one another over time. Using social network analysis to map the leadership nomination (defined as who they went to for advice about traveling) network structure, they found that people who perceived themselves as

leaders were more likely to be nominated as leaders by their peers (i.e., emerge as the informal leaders within the groups). However, it is important to note that in this study, the participants were asked to nominate other students who helped with planning trips and traveling, and were not asked explicitly about whom they perceive as leaders.

Thus, the relationships among personality, tendencies to exhibit certain leader-like behaviors, and leadership perceptions have been well established. Additionally, legitimacy (the source of authority) has been shown to influence perceptions of formal and informal leaders. There has been some initial evidence linking perceptions of oneself as a leader to leadership perceptions and emergence as well. However, self-perceptions of leadership have not been tested empirically under conditions where the selection process differs. In the first study, I directly assess these relationships; in the second study, I extend these findings by determining how these self-perceptions relate to others' ratings of the individual as a leader.

The Current Studies

The purpose of the first study was to establish whether self-reported personality traits predict self-perceptions of leadership (both in general and referencing specific leader behaviors). The question to be answered, then, was this: Do individuals who more closely match their own ILTs, and have personality traits consistent with emerging leaders, rate themselves higher in leadership? The second study expanded upon these results to test whether personality and self-perceptions of leadership predict others' leadership perceptions after interacting in small groups that are in either an established hierarchy or a leaderless group.

Hypotheses. The research on implicit leadership theories (ILTs) suggests that when a person (the rater) evaluates a potential leaders' (the target's) leadership, those who more closely match the rater's ILT will be rated as more leader-like. Using the same logic, people who match

their own leadership theories will be more likely to rate themselves as leaders. Therefore, I expected that people who report greater similarities between their own and an ideal leader's behaviors will be more likely to rate themselves higher on self-perceptions of leadership.

Based on past research regarding personality and leader emergence within groups, the Big Five personality traits should relate to self-perceptions of leadership. Specifically, the following relationships were expected: extraversion and conscientiousness would be positively related to leadership self-perceptions, and neuroticism would be negatively related to leadership self-perceptions. Due to the inconsistencies in the literature (explained above), no specific relationships with agreeableness or openness to experience were hypothesized.

In addition to the Big Five personality traits, two of the three Spheres of Control (Paulhus, 1983) should relate to self-perceptions of leadership. Personal efficacy was expected to relate to leadership, as people who feel they are not in control of themselves cannot be expected to feel capable of controlling (or influencing) others. Interpersonal control is a trait that is theoretically similar to extraversion. It refers to feeling in control of social situations—and those who feel like they have some control over their social environment may also believe they behave more like leaders than those who do not. Therefore, personal efficacy and interpersonal control should be positively related to self-perceptions of leadership.

Furthermore, I tested the above relationships in an actual group to see if the same patterns of relationships held and if the relationships differed in conditions where a leader was appointed versus when he or she naturally emerged within the group. I expected personality and self-perceptions of leadership would predict others' leadership ratings. Legitimacy should moderate the relationship between self-perceptions of leadership and others' leadership ratings. Specifically, people who emerge naturally in the group (i.e., those that have more internal

legitimacy) and believe they are more leader-like will be rated as more leader-like by other group members than non-leaders and appointed leaders (i.e., those that have more external legitimacy). Also, leaders—both appointed and emerging—will be more highly rated as leaders than non-leaders.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1

Method

Participants. Undergraduate students ($N = 402$) at a large southern university received course credit for their participation. The mean age was 19.5 years ($SD = 1.77$), and the sample was majority female (72.6%) and Non-Latino (95.5%). Students identified most often as Caucasian (74.9%), followed by African American (10.9%), Asian (10.0%), and Other (4.2%).

Materials and procedure. Participants completed a demographics questionnaire, three personality questionnaires, and four leadership questionnaires. They completed the questionnaires on computers in a lab; questionnaires were presented in the same order for all participants due to an error in the scale presentation software¹. Means and standard deviations, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, and possible ranges for each scale and subscale can be found in Tables 1.

Personality. The NEO Personality Inventory – Revised (NEO-PI-R) is a 240-question personality questionnaire that assesses five major domains of personality: extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Paul T. Costa & McCrae, 1992). Items were answered on a 5-point scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, and summed.

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire – Revised (EPQ-R) short form is a brief measure (57 questions) of the three-factor model of personality (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). The subscales include measures of extraversion-introversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism, as well

as a lie scale to detect socially desirable responding. Participants responded using a force-choice (yes/no) format. Past research attests to the reliability of the EPQ (test-retest values for extraversion subscale were .84). In this study, the reliability alphas for extraversion, neuroticism, and the lie scale were acceptable, but extraversion and neuroticism were redundant with the NEO personality questionnaire ($r = .77$ and $.76$, respectively). Psychoticism did not have an acceptable alpha coefficient ($\alpha = .43$). Given the redundancy of extraversion and neuroticism and the low alpha of psychoticism, only the lie scale was used in the analyses.

The Spheres of Control (SOC) scale is a three-factor model of perceived control, delineated into three behavioral domains: personal efficacy (PE; feeling in control of self or own life), interpersonal control (IPC; feeling in control of social environment), and sociopolitical control (SPC; feeling in control of the greater social or political system). Items are answered on a 7-point Likert scale, with anchors ranging from *disagree strongly* to *agree strongly*. I used a combined version of the SOC-1 and SOC-3 based on the recommendations of Spittal, Siegert, McClure, and Walkey's (2002) review. The coefficients alpha for PE and IPC were questionable ($\alpha < .70$); therefore, the results from these questionnaires will be interpreted with caution.

Leadership. The original General Leadership Impression scale (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987) was modified slightly to assess self-perceptions of one's own leadership (GLI-Self). No specific criteria are given to define "leadership;" therefore, individual's ratings are based on their own personal idea or prototype of a leader. Items were rated on a 5-point scale, anchored at *disagree*, *neutral*, and *agree*. Items were summed to create a total leadership impression score with higher sums indicating more perceptions of being like a leader. The reliability coefficient for this augmented measure was .94 in this sample.

The Leader Behavior Descriptions Questionnaire (LDBQ) XII – Actual Self (LBDQ-Self) is a 100-question measure that assesses the self-reported frequency in which one exhibits certain leader-like behaviors while in a leadership position. The 12 subscales represent the following patterns of behavior: representing subordinates, demanding reconciliation, persuasiveness, initiating structure, displaying tolerance and freedom, leadership role assumption, consideration of others, emphasis on production, predictive accuracy, integration of teams, and orientation with superiors (see Table 2 for brief descriptions). Answers are given on a 5-point scale, and respondents are asked to indicate which behaviors they actually engage in when in a leadership position, from *never* to *always* engaging in the behavior. Items were summed, with higher sums indicating the participant more frequent engaged in those types of behaviors when in a leadership role.

In addition to this scale, the participants were asked, “While answering the previous questions about your own leadership behaviors, what types of leadership experiences were you basing your answers on?”. The question was open-ended, and a coding scheme was created based on the answers given. The coding was used to characterize the leadership experiences into different domains: (a) employment or internships; (b) academic and extracurricular activities; (c) religious or volunteer experiences; (d) occasional gatherings or meetings like in-class assignments or activities; (e) other collections of people not otherwise covered by the other categories (e.g., group of friends or leadership experiences that could not be categorized); and (f) unspecified leadership positions (e.g., “small-group leader” or “previous leadership experience”). Due to inconsistency in the specificity of the answers, the results are exploratory and approximate. Participants reported between zero and six general types of leadership experiences ($M = 1.90$, mode = 1) across zero to five domains ($M = 1.60$, mode = 1). The most common

leadership experience was in academic extracurricular activities (66.2% reported having leadership experiences in this domain), followed by occasional experiences like in-class activities or group projects (32.8%; see Table 3). The participants, perhaps because they are students and the majority are young, had primarily semiformal and informal leadership experiences.

The Leader Behavior Descriptions Questionnaire (LBDQ) XII – Ideal Other (LBDQ-Ideal) is a 100-question measure that assesses the frequency with which respondents believe a hypothetical leader should exhibit specific leader-like behaviors. The 12 subscales were the same as the ones for the LBDQ-Self. Answers are given on a 5-point scale, and respondents are asked to indicate the frequency in which an ideal leader should engage in the abovementioned behaviors, from *never* to *always* engaging in the behavior.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is a 21-question scale measuring an individual's self-rating of leadership style. The subscales reflect transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. Two of the three subscales had poor coefficient alphas, and the substantive questions were better assessed through the other leadership questionnaires. Therefore, the results of these measures were not analyzed.

Results

Pearson r correlations among self-ratings of leadership behaviors (LBDQ-Self subscales) and ratings of an ideal leader's behaviors (LBDQ-Ideal subscales) are presented in Table 4. Out of the 144 correlations, 124 (86.11%) were significant. All correlations were positive, except one (nonsignificant) negative correlation between self-ratings of role assumption and the ideal leaders' tolerance and freedom score. Of the significant correlations, there were 50 small-medium correlations ($.11 < r \leq .25$; 34.72%), 56 medium-large correlations ($.25 < r \leq .40$;

38.89%), and 18 large correlations ($r > .40$; 12.50%). In parallel subscales, the correlations were medium to large ($.29 < r \leq .61$). These results indicate that self-ratings of behaviors are significantly related to people's ideal leadership ratings.

Prior to running any analyses, I also calculated item-level within-person correlations between the ratings of the participants' own leadership behaviors and their ratings of an ideal leader's behavior. Higher within-person correlations signify a greater match or similarity between the participants' self-perceptions of leadership and their self-defined "ideal" leader, which I refer to as the *self-ideal similarity scores*. Correlations ranged from $-.18$ to $.81$, with an average $r = .41$. These results show that the amount of similarity people feel between themselves and their ideal leaders is quite variable. Specifically, only nine (2.2%) of 402 participants showed negative relationships between their behaviors and their ideal leader ratings. There were 79 small-medium correlations ($r \leq .25$; 19.7%), 102 medium-large correlations ($.25 < r \leq .40$; 25.4%), and 221 large correlations ($r > .40$; 55.0%). This shows that few participants viewed themselves as dissimilar to their idea of an ideal leader, and the majority of the participants rated themselves as very similar to their ideal leader. The within-person correlations were normalized by applying the Fisher z transformation, and the Fisher z scores were used in the following analyses.

Pearson r correlations among personality and leadership measures are presented in Table 5. As can be seen from the table, overall perceptions of leadership and self-ideal similarities were significantly positively correlated. Many of the personality traits were significantly interrelated and correlated with the two leadership measures. Of note, both the overall self-perceptions of leadership (measured with the GLI-Self) and the self-ideal similarity scores (as measured with the transformed within-person correlations) were significantly positively correlated with

extraversion, conscientiousness, personal efficacy, and interpersonal control. Overall self-perceptions were significantly negatively correlated with neuroticism and agreeableness, while the self-ideal similarity ratings were negatively correlated with neuroticism only. Table 6 provides more detailed information on the relationships among the personality traits and each leadership behavior for both the self-rating and ideal leader rating. The self-ratings and personality scores were significant in 87.5% of the correlations. Extraversion and interpersonal control were both significantly positively related, and neuroticism significantly negatively related, to the self-ratings of all 12 leadership behaviors, with relationships ranging from small to large. Of note, extraversion was strongly related to persuasiveness and representation (willingness to represent subordinates). Interpersonal control was strongly related to persuasiveness and representation as well, but also strongly associated with demanding reconciliation and role assumption. Both extraversion and interpersonal control are socially oriented traits, so the relationships with these leadership behaviors (which require interacting and influencing others) are theoretically consistent. Neuroticism is most strongly related to tolerance of uncertainty. This is also theoretically consistent, because neuroticism is characterized by anxiety.

Conscientiousness and personal efficacy were significantly positively related to 11 leadership behaviors, with relationships ranging from moderate to large. Conscientiousness was most strongly related to initiating structure, demanding reconciliation, superior orientation, predictive accuracy, and role assumption. All of these behaviors require consideration of goals and outputs, directing subordinates toward shared goals, and making decisions appropriate both for the successful completion of the goals and to satisfy superiors. These behaviors are consistent with the skill set of conscientious individuals (Costa & McCrae, 1995). Personal efficacy was

related to role assumption, initiating structure, and demanding reconciliation. Feeling in control over oneself seems to relate significantly to the willingness to control others through acting as a leader, delegating tasks, and decreasing conflict.

Agreeableness and the lie scale (measuring socially desirable responding) both correlated significantly with nine leadership behaviors. The correlations with agreeableness were small to moderate, while the lie scale correlations were primarily small. Interestingly, the correlations between agreeableness and the leadership behaviors were inconsistent: five behaviors correlated positively and four behaviors correlated negatively. While agreeableness was positively related to behaviors like consideration and tolerating uncertainty, it was negatively related to behaviors like production emphasis and persuasion. Thus, it seems that while agreeable individuals may be more willing to consider others' well-being and tolerate uncertain outcomes, they are also less likely to attempt to influence or control others. Openness was inconsistently related to leadership behaviors; it significantly positively correlated with only seven of the 12 behaviors, with correlations that tended to be small as well. The strongest correlation was with consideration, indicating that open individuals tended to be more considerate when in leadership positions than less open individuals.

The correlations among the ideal leader behavioral ratings and the participants' personalities tended to be smaller overall (none of the correlations were greater than .30), and fewer correlations were significant (only 57.3%). The following is a brief summary of the patterns of correlations highlighting a few of the strongest correlations for each personality trait. Extraversion, conscientiousness, and interpersonal control were significantly positively related to 10 out of 12 of the ideal leader behaviors. Extraversion showed small to moderate correlations with consideration, superior orientation, and production emphasis. People who are higher in

extraversion tend to view ideal leaders as being considerate, liaisons to superiors, and output-oriented. Conscientiousness showed small to moderate correlations with superior orientation, initiating structure, and demanding reconciliation. More conscientious individuals believed leaders should be liaisons to superiors, delegate tasks to subordinates, and should help to resolve employee conflicts. Personal efficacy was significantly related to nine out of 12 behaviors; people who feel more in control of themselves believed ideal leaders should initiate structure for completing goals and demand reconciliation among subordinates.

Openness to experience and agreeableness were related to seven of the 12 behaviors of ideal leaders. Openness was correlated with behaviors like demanding reconciliation and consideration. People higher in openness believe ideal leaders should be considerate and help to resolve conflicts. Agreeableness showed inconsistent relationships to leadership behaviors: agreeableness was positively related to five leadership behaviors and negatively related to two leadership behaviors. The strongest positive correlations were with tolerance of uncertainty and consideration. People who rated themselves as more agreeable believed that ideal leaders should be tolerant to uncertain situations and considerate of employees' feelings. However, agreeableness was negatively related to an ideal leader's production emphasis and superior orientation behaviors. This indicates that agreeable people believe ideal leaders should not emphasize outcomes or be liaisons with superiors.

Both neuroticism and social desirable responding (measured by the lie scale) were generally unrelated to ratings of an ideal leader. Neuroticism was only related significantly to the ideal leader's tolerance of uncertainty, and the correlation was small and negative. People who are higher in neuroticism tend to believe leaders are less tolerant of uncertain outcomes. Socially desirable responding was significantly correlated with representation. The correlation was small,

but it indicated that people who tended to respond in a socially desirable manner tend to believe that ideal leaders should represent the group.

Thus far, these results support the hypothesized relationships between personality and self-perceptions of leadership. The results further indicate that personality—particularly traits that have been previously related to emerging leadership—are also associated with ratings of ideal leaders. Self-ratings of leadership and ideal ratings are also significantly related, such that those who see more of a match between themselves and their self-defined ideal leader are more likely to rate themselves as leaders. To determine which variables best predicted self-perceptions of leadership, I conducted a regression analysis (see Table 7). The results show that personality and feelings of similarity to a personally defined ideal leader significantly predicted self-perceptions of leadership, $F(8, 393) = 38.92, p < .001$. The hypotheses were partially supported: Extraversion, conscientiousness, interpersonal control, and self-ideal similarity scores were significant positive predictors of self-perceptions of leadership. However, contrary to the hypothesis, neuroticism and personal efficacy were not significant predictors, while agreeableness negatively predicted self-perceptions of leadership.

Discussion

To summarize, the correlational results show that self-perceptions of leadership behaviors are generally related to ratings of ideal leaders. Personality traits that have been previously shown to relate to leadership perceptions and leader emergence are significantly related to self-perceptions of leadership. Personality, overall, was less related to ratings of ideal leaders. The stronger the relationship between the self-ratings and the rating of an ideal leader (as captured by the self-ideal similarity correlation), the more the participants rated themselves as leaders. The hypotheses were partially supported by the regression analyses: Self-perceptions of leadership

were significantly related to extraversion, conscientiousness, interpersonal control, and self-ideal similarity scores. However, neuroticism and personal efficacy were unrelated to self-perceptions of leadership. Thus, people who are social, comfortable in groups, reliable, or see themselves as similar to their ideal leader are more likely to think of themselves as leaders.

This study had limitations. Specifically, the context of the questionnaires (particularly the leadership behavior measures) was hypothetical: Participants were asked to think back to past group or leadership experiences and estimate how frequently they may have exhibited the leadership behaviors. Self-report has known drawbacks, but asking people to recall past events (which differed in frequency, type, and context) may have produced two additional issues: (1) the differences in their past experiences may be influencing participants' answers differently, and (2) recall is imperfect. Specifically, participants were college students with limited leadership experience; they tended to cite extracurricular activities and occasional classroom group work. However, some participants also reported employment and volunteer experiences. The participants' abilities to recall specific events and behaviors could be suspect due to differences in the mental procedures they used to average their experiences into a single (if general) count. Additionally, people's abilities to accurately recall the frequency of specific behaviors and interactions are flawed due to attention and memory limitations (Lavie, 1995). This could be compounded by the fact that some participants recalled recent events while others recalled earlier events. Memory research shows that experiences that are pleasant, more recent, or easier to access tend to be recalled first (Kahneman, Slovic, & Tversky, 1982; Walker, Skowronski, & Thompson, 2003), and these tendencies could influence the results of Study 1.

Both previous research (Keller, 1999) and the results found in Study 1 indicate that personality relates to leadership behaviors. The results could logically indicate that people may

be reflecting their own personalities onto their ideal leaders. This possibility, in addition to the tendency for people to believe they are better than the average person on desirable traits and skills (the "better-than-average" effect; Pedregon, Farley, Davis, Wood, & Clark, 2012), could prove problematic. These factors could decrease variability in responses and bias the responses. However, if people are comparing themselves to an ideal leader, as opposed to other people on average, the results may be more accurate. In fact, Livi, Kenny, Abright, and Pierro (2008) reviewed 15 studies, and calculated metrics to assess the consistency of the self-ratings of leadership and other's ratings in groups of various sizes. In smaller groups, agreement in ratings of oneself and the average peer was more consistent than peer-to-peer ratings. In addition, attempts to self-enhance (when self-ratings are higher than peer ratings) were infrequent and relatively small. These results suggest that people may be accurate in their assessments of their own leadership—at least when compared to others' ratings when group size is small.

Despite the limitations listed above, these results show initial evidence for the relatedness of self-perceptions to traits and behaviors previously associated with leadership. Participants seem to recognize these leader-like traits in themselves and evaluate themselves using the same criteria present in their ILTs. I examine these relationships further in Study 2.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2

The purpose of this study was to address the limitations of Study 1 by testing the associations between self-perceptions of leadership and others' leadership perceptions in a group setting. In doing so, I provided a constant context from which participants can base their self-ratings. From Study 1, the results showed personality traits usually associated with leader emergence tended to predict self-perceptions of leadership. These results indicate that people seem to accurately judge their traits as being consistent or inconsistent with their ideas of a "leader," and rate themselves accordingly. A question remains, though: Do self-perceptions of leadership actually influence others' perceptions of leadership? To answer this question, in Study 2 I assessed how distal predictors of leadership emergence and perceptions (personality, self-perceptions, and implicit leadership theories [ILTs]) and legitimacy may influence others' leadership perceptions after completion of two group tasks.

Method

Participants. Undergraduate students ($N = 352$) at a large southern university signed up in groups of four to six ($N_g = 68$) and were given course credit for their participation. The mean age was 19.3 years ($SD = 1.57$), and the sample was majority female (73.9%) and Non-Hispanic or Latino (95.5%). The participants mostly identified as Caucasian (76.4%), followed by Asian (9.9%), African American (8.2%), and Mixed/Other (5.4%). Participants were assigned to one of two conditions where I manipulated the leaders' source of legitimacy: appointed leader ($n = 174$, $n_g = 33$) and emerging leader ($n = 178$, $n_g = 35$). The appointed leader for each group was

assigned randomly by the experimenter prior to the start of the group tasks, and the emerging leader was determined by the number of nominations received after completion of the group tasks (after deleting self-nominations and including who was chosen as the “spokesperson” in the first task). The appointed leader’s job was to make sure everyone expressed their opinions during the tasks, and to ensure that each part of the tasks was completed in a timely manner. Groups in the emerging leader condition were just asked to ensure that everyone was able to express their opinions during the tasks and that the tasks were done in a timely manner.

Materials and procedure. The demographics questionnaire, the personality questionnaires, and the questionnaire about group members' perceptions of an “ideal” leader’s behaviors² were administered before the group tasks. Two questionnaires about their self-perceptions of leadership and two questionnaires about each group member’s leadership behaviors and overall leadership perceptions were administered after the group tasks were completed. Means and standard deviations, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients, and possible ranges for each scale and subscale can be found in Tables 8. The presentation of all the questionnaires was counterbalanced, except the self-ratings, which were completed before the participants rated one another.

The two group tasks were (1) a marketing task and (2) an abridged version of the Lost in the Desert Task (see Schaumberg & Flynn, 2012). These two tasks were used because they were cooperative, requiring participants to express ideas and persuade one another in order to reach consensus. The tasks increased interaction among participants; the longer the interaction and exposure the participants have to one another, the more likely their ratings of each other will be accurate (Atwood, Mora, & Kaplan, 2010). Each participant was given a nametag with a letter on it. The assigned letter was used in two of the leadership rating scales (the GLI-Other and LBDQ-

Other) to identify each group member, and it helped make the participants feel more anonymous and (thus) more comfortable evaluating one another (Schaumberg & Flynn, 2012).

Personality. Participants completed the same 240-question NEO personality inventory and combined SOC scale used in Study 1. The coefficients alpha for the SOC were superior to the previous study's results; only the sociopolitical control scale (which is not used in the analyses) failed to reach the generally accepted .70 threshold.

Leadership. The original General Leadership Impression Scale (GLI-Other) is a five-question assessment of each group member's perceptions of one another's leadership. The term "leader" was not defined, so that the participants' ratings would be based on their own personal idea or prototype of a leader. The word "ratee" was changed to refer to each group member (using the participants' assigned letter). In addition, the modified GLI (GLI-Self) from Study 1 was used to assess self-perceptions of leadership.

Three versions of the LBDQ were used in Study 2; each version had nearly the same wording except for the shift in the referent. The three referents were (a) a hypothetical ideal leader, (b) the participants themselves, and (c) the other members of their respective groups. Only four of the 12 subscales described in Study 1 were used in Study 2 in order to decrease participant fatigue: persuasiveness, initiation of structure, role assumption, and consideration. In the LBDQ-Ideal, the participants are asked to rate the frequency in which they believe an ideal leader should act across the abovementioned behavioral domains. In the LBDQ-Self and LBDQ-Other, the participants are asked to report on their perceptions of their own behaviors and the other group members' behaviors (respectively) during the group tasks.

Changes were made to the subscales to fit the procedures used for this study. For the LBDQ-Self and LBDQ-Ideal questionnaires, one question from the role assumption subscale was

omitted because it did not apply to all the groups (“I am the leader of the group in name only”). Also, one question from the consideration subscale was omitted because it did not apply to the group situations (“I gave advanced notice of changes”). The LBDQ-Other was modified slightly: each item was changed to refer to each group member using the participants’ assigned letters.

Marketing task. In the first task, participants were told to pretend they were a team in a marketing firm whose job was to plan a marketing strategy for one of three items. As a group, they were required to pick what they believed was the most marketable item, brainstorm names and taglines for the item, and then create and present a short pitch to the experimenter using the best product name and tagline. They were asked to agree on the best name, the best tagline, and nominate one individual to be their group’s spokesperson and present their pitch.

Lost in the Desert task (abridged version). After the spokesperson presented the group’s marketing pitch, the participants started the second task. Continuing with the cover story of their being a marketing team, the participants were told that their plane had crashed in the Sonoran Desert on a business trip and only they had survived. Their job was to determine whether they wanted to stay by the crashed plane or try go elsewhere, and to rank eight items as to their importance for the team’s survival. They first answered the questions individually, then came to a team consensus about both walking versus staying and the rankings. Their results were compared to an expert’s survival guide’s recommendations.

After completing the two group tasks, participants (individually) reported their assigned letter, indicated whether or not they were friends with any of the other group members, and nominated who they perceived as the leader of their group. Finally, the participants rated themselves and one another on overall leadership impressions and frequency of exhibited leader-like behaviors.

Results

The analyses from Study 1 were partially replicated prior to running the analyses for Study 2. First, Pearson r correlations among the selected subscales of the three LBDQ (self-ratings, ideal leader ratings, and average behavioral ratings of the other group members) are reported in Table 9. Between the self and ideal measures, there were small to medium significant correlations in corresponding subscales. Only seven out of 16 (43.8%) correlations were significant, and they tended to be smaller in magnitude compared to the correlations found in Study 1. The average leadership behavior ratings from others were only correlated with four of 16 self-ratings (25.0%).

Second, I calculated item-level within-person correlations between the self-ratings of leadership behaviors and the ratings of ideal leader's behaviors. Correlations ranged from $-.41$ to $.76$, with an average $r = .25$. The similarity between one's own leadership behaviors and ratings of an ideal leader were again quite variable, but were not as strongly associated. There were 164 small-medium correlations ($r \leq .25$; 46.7%), 91 medium-large correlations ($.25 < r \leq .40$; 25.9%), and 221 large correlations ($r > .40$; 27.4%). Overall, the relationships between self and ideal ratings were much smaller in Study 2 than in Study 1, indicating that fewer people in Study 2 feel strongly similar to their ideal leaders. The within-person correlations were normalized using the Fisher z transformation, and the Fisher z scores were used in the analyses.

Third, Pearson r correlations among personality and leadership measures are presented in Table 10. As the table shows, overall perceptions of leadership and self-ideal similarities were significantly positively correlated. The magnitude of the correlation was smaller in Study 2 than in Study 1. Many of the personality traits and leadership measures were significantly correlated with one another. Specifically, self-perceptions of leadership (measured with the GLI-Self) were

strongly correlated with extraversion and interpersonal control. Self-perceptions were moderately (positively) correlated with conscientiousness and personal efficacy, and (negatively) correlated with neuroticism. Self-ideal similarity scores (measured with the transformed within-person correlations) were correlated significantly with extraversion and agreeableness. Table 11 provides more detailed information about the relationships among personality traits and each leadership behavior for both the self and ideal leadership ratings. Personality and self-ratings of leadership were significantly related in 23 of the 35 (65.7%) correlations. Extraversion, personal efficacy, and interpersonal control were moderately to strongly related to all four self-ratings of leadership behaviors. Those who are more socially oriented and feel in control of themselves and others are more likely to rate themselves as exhibiting leadership behaviors. Neuroticism was negatively related to all four self-ratings of leadership behaviors, indicating that people who feel more anxious are less likely to believe they exhibit leader-like behaviors. Agreeableness was significantly positively related to consideration, and negatively related to persuasiveness, initiating structure, and role assumption. Conscientiousness and openness to experience were less related to self-ratings of leadership behaviors. Conscientiousness was only related to role assumption and consideration behaviors, while openness to experience was only related to persuasive behaviors.

Correlations among the ideal leader behaviors and participants' personalities ranged from small to large, although 13 of the 15 significant correlations were small to moderate. Participants' extraversion was significantly positively correlated with all four ideal leader behaviors. That is, people higher in extraversion believed leaders should assume the role of a leader, delegate tasks to others, and be considerate and persuasive. Openness to experience and conscientiousness were significantly related to three of the four ideal leader behaviors.

Specifically, openness was positively related to persuasiveness and consideration in ideal leaders, and strongly negatively related to initiating structure in ideal leaders. Open individuals think ideal leaders should attempt fewer behaviors related to initiating structure, instead attempting more behaviors related to persuading and considering others' feelings.

Conscientiousness correlated positively with initiating structure, role assumption, and consideration. Conscientious individuals believed ideal leaders should initiate structure during the tasks, assume the role of a leader, and be considerate of others. Personal efficacy and interpersonal control were both significantly related to initiating structure and role assumption. This indicates that those who feel they are in control of themselves and others believe that leaders should assume their roles and delegate to others as well. Agreeableness was strongly related to one behavior: consideration. Agreeable individuals believed ideal leaders should be considerate of others.

Table 10 also includes correlations among personality and others' leadership ratings. Extraversion, openness to experience, and interpersonal control were significantly related to all four leadership behaviors. Personal efficacy was significantly related to three behaviors. Neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness were unrelated to leadership behavior ratings. Others' overall perceptions of leadership were significantly related to extraversion and interpersonal control (strongly positive), personal efficacy and openness to experience (small-moderately positive), and neuroticism (negative). The ratings of others' leadership and the overall leadership perceptions were very highly intercorrelated (ranging from .62 to .90). This seems to indicate that the participants' overall perceptions were based on either evaluating each other's behaviors or the perceptions of the behaviors greatly influenced overall perceptions. Either way, their ratings were very consistent, and possessed multicollinearity issues. Therefore,

due to these high correlations, each behavioral scale and the leader perception scales were converted to z scores and aggregated into a composite score reflecting others' leadership perceptions. These standardized composite scores were then used as the outcome variable in the final regression analysis.

The first regression analysis was a partial replication of results in Study 1, to see whether the relationships from Study 1 held in a non-hypothetical situation across differing leadership legitimacy conditions. That is, I tested whether personality and feelings of similarity to ideal leaders predicted self-perceptions of leadership (see Table 12). I used hierarchical regression to control for the condition, because I manipulated whether the group had an appointed leader or not. In the first step, I included personality and self-ideal similarity scores; the second step contained the condition variable (coded as 0 = emerging leader condition and 1 = appointed leader condition). The results indicate that personality and self-ideal similarities significantly predicted self-perceptions of leadership, $F(9, 341) = 18.61, p < .001$. Specifically, extraversion, interpersonal control, and self-ideal similarity positively predicted self-perceptions of leadership; agreeableness negatively predicted self-perceptions of leadership. These results are mostly consistent with the results from Study 1, with the exception that conscientiousness did not relate to self-perceptions of leadership in Study 2. This lends more support for the claim that personality and feelings of similarity between oneself and one's self-defined leader predict whether participants rate themselves as leader-like.

The second regression analysis assessed whether self-perceptions of leadership and the source of legitimacy relate to others' overall perceptions of leadership. This was done using hierarchical moderated regression and the composite score made from the leadership behavior (LBDQ-Other) and general leadership impression (GLI-Other) measures as the outcome

variable³. All of the continuous predictor variables were mean-centered. In the first step, I include the personality traits and self-ideal similarity, which I hypothesized would be more distally related to others' perceptions. In the second step, I added the condition (whether the group had an appointed or emerging leader), self-perceptions of leadership, and two contrast-coded vectors representing participant's status as either an appointed leader, emerging leader, or group member not chosen as a leader. Vector one was a test of whether appointed or emerging leaders significantly differed from one another (appointed leader = -1, emerging leader = 1, not a leader = 0). Vector two was a test of whether leaders (either appointed or emerging) and group members not chosen as leaders significantly differed from one another (appointed or emerging leader = .5, not a leader = -1). These vectors and the mean-centered measure of self-perceptions of leadership were then multiplied to create two interaction terms to test the moderating effect of legitimacy on self-perceptions. These interaction terms were entered into Step 3.

The results of the hierarchical moderated analysis are reported in Table 13; the final model was significant, $F(14, 336) = 15.04, p < .001, R^2 = .39$. In the final model, openness was the only personality trait that significantly predicted others' leadership perceptions. Both vectors representing legitimacy were significant, as were the interaction terms between legitimacy and self-perceptions of leadership. Thus, as I hypothesized, the effects of leadership self-perceptions on others' perceptions were moderated by legitimacy.

I examine these relationships further by plotting the interactions (see Figure 1). First, vector one represented the contrast between appointed and emerging leaders, and the interaction between the vector and self-perceptions is illustrated in Figure 1(a). For participants who were appointed as the leader of the group (i.e., granted external authority), self-perceptions did not seem to have an effect others' perceptions of leadership. Appointed leaders were rated similarly,

regardless of the person's self-perceptions. For participants who emerged during the group task (i.e., were granted internal authority), self-perceptions had an effect on others' perceptions of leadership. Specifically, emerging leaders with low leadership self-perceptions were rated as less leader-like by others. Emerging leaders with high leadership self-perceptions were rated higher on leadership. This seems to indicate that self-perceptions of leadership matter most in situations where authority is not externally granted.

Second, vector two represented the contrast between participants who were leaders (both appointed and emerging) and those not chosen as leaders. The interaction between vector two and self-perceptions is shown in Figure 1(b). Legitimate leaders, regardless of the source of legitimacy, were rated higher than group members who were not chosen as leaders. Self-perceptions mattered most for non-leaders: participants who were not leaders, but had high self-perceptions of leadership, were rated higher on leadership than participants with low self-perceptions.

Discussion

To summarize, the results show that self-ratings of leadership behaviors and ratings of an ideal leader's behaviors were significantly correlated in only half of the scales, and these correlations tended to be small to moderate. Item-level within-person correlations showed that participants generally rated themselves similar to their ideal leaders, but the similarities tended to be small as well. In the context of an actual group task, while rating their perceptions of their actual behaviors during the interactions, participants were less likely to see similarities between themselves and their ideal leaders.

The personality traits previously associated with leadership perceptions and emergence tended to be related to self-perceptions of leadership, but not as consistently related to self-ideal

similarity scores. Extraversion, openness, and agreeableness were significantly related to self-ideal similarity scores. All personality traits, except openness, significantly correlated with self-perceptions. Similarly, all the personality traits except openness and conscientiousness related to the four leadership behaviors (persuasion, consideration, assuming the role of the leader, and initiating structure during the group tasks). In the analysis predicting self-perceptions of leadership based on personality and similarity to an ideal leader, the hypotheses were supported partly: extraversion, interpersonal control, and self-ideal similarity scores significantly predicted self-perceptions of leadership. However, agreeableness negatively predicted self-perceptions of leadership as well. This indicates that being social and comfortable in groups, disagreeable, or seeing oneself as similar to a self-defined ideal leader all significantly contribute to thinking of oneself as a leader.

In the last hypotheses, I wanted to assess the role of the leader's source of legitimacy, self-perceptions, and personality on others' leadership perceptions. I expected to see extraversion, conscientiousness, low neuroticism, self-perceptions, and similarity to ideal leaders all predict others' perceptions. Furthermore, I hypothesized that legitimacy would moderate the relationship between participants' self-perceptions and others' perceptions because leaders who are not endorsed by others are not likely to see themselves as leader-like (Emery et al., 2010). The model was significant, indicating that personality, self-perceptions, self-ideal similarity, and legitimacy all together predict others' perceptions. However, few of the specific, expected relationships proved significant in the final model. The only personality trait associated with others' leadership ratings was openness to experience. Interestingly, this is one of the traits that showed inconsistent results in the literature, although it was expected to relate to transformational leader behaviors such as creativity (Derue et al., 2011). Creativity may have

played a role in the first group tasks, where participants were required to market a product. Because openness is related to creativity, this trait may have become salient early during the groups interactions, and was seen as a necessary leader trait (Reiter-Palmon & Illies, 2004). Appointed leaders were rated significantly higher on leadership than emerging leaders, and leaders in general were rated significantly higher on leadership than non-leaders. These main effects remained significant even after adding in the moderator variables.

Contrary to the hypotheses, feeling similar to a self-defined ideal leader did not predict others' perceptions. The hypothesis linking self-perceptions of leadership to others' perceptions was partially supported. Self-perceptions of leadership was significant predictors of others' perceptions before accounting for the moderation, but this relationship was shown to be fully moderated by legitimacy in the final model. When the leader was appointed, others' leadership ratings were not affected by self-perceptions of leadership. However, self-perceptions mattered when the person was an emerging leader. Emerging leaders with lower self-rated leadership were more likely to be rated low on leadership by their fellow group members. Participants who were emerging leaders and had high self-perceptions of leadership were rated higher—equal to that of the appointed leader. In fact, people with high self-perceptions of leadership were rated by others' as being approximately equal in leadership.

Having legitimacy in general—regardless of whether it came from the appointment or the group—also had an effect on others' perceptions. Appointed and emerging leaders were rated similarly, regardless of their self-perceptions of leadership. However, participants who had not been chosen as the leader of their groups were rated higher on leadership only if they rated themselves as high on leadership. Non-leaders who had lower self-perceptions of leadership were very unlikely to be seen as leader-like by others in the group. These results indicate that

having high self-perceptions of leadership only influence others' perceptions of whether the person is seen as legitimate—even if that legitimacy is granted arbitrarily by an authority figure, as in the case of the group tasks.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In these studies, self-perceptions of leadership were significantly related to ratings of ideal leaders, with correlations stronger in Study 2 than Study 1. This could have resulted from the hypothetical nature of Study 1. Participants, thinking back to (a variety of) past experiences, could have been biased by only recalling positive leadership experiences, or they could have succumb to the common tendency of rating themselves positively on domains that are desirable (Pedregon et al., 2012). They may have been reporting on an idealized version of themselves that corresponded more strongly with the ratings of an ideal leader. In Study 2, the participants were asked to report on their actual behaviors during the group task. The group tasks had the benefit of making the timing and quality of the experiences among participants the same (same group, same task, all done in recent memory), and probably reflected more accurate assessments of their behaviors. The smaller within-person correlations found in Study 2 were probably affected for the same reasons. Fewer people seemed to see themselves as similar to their ideal leaders in Study 2.

Despite possible differences in the contexts, we found similar results in both Study 1 and Study 2 when predicting self-perceptions of leadership. Based on the differences in the correlational results discussed above, it is unsurprising that personality and self-ideal similarity more strongly predicted self-perceptions in Study 1. Both regression results show participants who are higher in extraversion, disagreeableness, interpersonal control, and self-ideal similarity were more likely to think of themselves as leaders. Extraversion (and by extension, interpersonal

control) are both strongly related to leadership perceptions and leader emergence. These results seem to indicate that people are evaluating themselves by comparing themselves to their ideal leaders. When they possess traits like extraversion and interpersonal control, they seem to recognize those more social traits as leader-like, and rate their own leadership accordingly. They did not seem to consider their own conscientiousness or emotional stability (i.e., low neuroticism) as essential to their evaluation of themselves as a leader. It is unclear why people who are low in agreeableness would be more likely to rate themselves as high in leadership. One possible explanation is that those who were more narcissistic were more likely to rate themselves as higher in leadership (Brunell et al., 2008; Higgs, 2009). Narcissists tend to emerge as leaders in leaderless groups because they exhibit traits and behaviors that are associated with ideal leaders, like confidence, dominance, and social skills (Brunell et al., 2008). Though I did not measure narcissism directly, narcissism is consistently correlated with both high extraversion and low agreeableness—the two traits that predicted self-perceptions of leadership in the regression models of both Study 1 and Study 2. Thus, the self-perceptions scale could be picking up some variance that is better explained by narcissism.

Though self-perceptions were significantly predicted by personality in both Study 1 and Study 2, others' perceptions were not as influenced by the group members' personalities. Only openness to experience seemed to have a lasting influence, but only after including the condition, self-perceptions, and the differences in legitimacy. Self-perceptions became nonsignificant when the interaction terms were included; that is, the effects of self-perceptions on others' perceptions were moderated by legitimacy. The results concerning legitimacy somewhat contradict past research. Emerging leaders were usually perceived as more legitimate leaders (Ben-Yoav et al., 1983; Read, 1974); however, I found that appointed leaders were seen as more leader-like.

Appointed leaders in these contexts may have been more salient to the groups—the emerging leaders were voted on after the group tasks, and the identity (or identities, when nomination were equal) of those individuals was not made explicitly known to the groups. Lack of consensus regarding who the informal leader could have influenced the results as well, since (in that case) informal leaders and non-leaders would be hard, or impossible, to distinguish. However, only three groups showed multiple leaders emerging, so this explanation may not fully explain these unexpected results.

Leadership ratings from others differed only when self-perceptions were low for emerging leaders or for participants not chosen to be a leader. Thus, when legitimacy is not appointed from an authority figure, the group members with higher self-perceptions were more likely to be rated as higher in leadership by others. While emerging leaders tend to arise from authority being granted by group members, it may be that another “internal” source of authority is having high perceptions of oneself as a leader. That is, people with high self-perceptions of leadership do not require external validation of their authority in order to act as a leader. Future research may want to explore this explanation to see if it holds true.

Limitations and Future Directions

The generalizability of these results may be limited in some respects. In particular, the role of the appointed leader was set arbitrarily, did not involve any required skills, and did not place extra responsibility or substantial power over the other group members. However, even arbitrary appointment has been shown to produce a difference in perceptions between appointed leaders and others in the group (Read, 1974). Also, the use of college student samples may not generalize to other populations. The students in these samples had limited employment experiences, although the students in Study 1 indicated leadership experiences in other domains.

The nature of the interaction may not reflect situations in which the teams or groups are expected to interact for long periods of time, where the groups' outcomes are more meaningful, or when the group's goal requires competition among members.

Despite the limitations, these results provide more evidence for the importance of leadership self-perceptions in influencing others' perceptions. Self-perceptions of leadership matter when legitimacy is not bestowed from an authority figure. Though people believe that having social traits (like extraversion and interpersonal control) make them more similar to their ideal leader and indicate that they are leader-like, others see openness to experience as a more important trait in those they consider leaders. Though some research has indicated self-perceptions have downstream effects (Chemers, 2000), the role of self-perceptions in predicting others' perceptions is complex. Future research should attempt to manipulate self-perceptions to see under what other conditions, besides differing legitimacy, a leader's (or potential leader's) self-perceptions matter.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, C., Spataro, S. E., & Flynn, F. J. (2008). Personality and organizational culture as determinants of influence. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(3), 702–10.
doi:10.1037/0021-9010.93.3.702
- Atwood, M. A., Mora, J. W., & Kaplan, A. W. (2010). Learning to lead: Evaluating leadership and organizational learning. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 31*(7), 576–595. doi:10.1108/01437731011079637
- Ben-Yoav, O., Hollander, E. P., & Carnevale, P. J. D. (1983). Leader legitimacy, leader-follower interaction, and followers' rating of the leader. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 121*, 111–115.
- Bresnen, M. J. (1995). All things to all people? Perceptions, attributions, and constructions of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6*(4), 495–513. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(95)90024-1
- Brunell, A. B., Gentry, W. a, Campbell, W. K., Hoffman, B. J., Kuhnert, K. W., & Demarree, K. G. (2008). Leader emergence: The case of the narcissistic leader. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 34*(12), 1663–76. doi:10.1177/0146167208324101
- Campbell, L., Simpson, J. A., Stewart, M., & Manning, J. (2003). Putting personality in social context: Extraversion, emergent leadership, and the availability of rewards. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*(12), 1547–59. doi:10.1177/0146167203256920
- Chemers, M. M. (2000). Leadership research and theory: A functional integration. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 4*(1), 27–43. doi:10.1037//1089-2699.4.1.27

- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) Professional Manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1995). Domains and facets: hierarchical personality assessment using the revised NEO personality inventory. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *64*(1), 21–50. doi:10.1207/s15327752jpa6401_2
- Cronshaw, S. F., & Lord, R. G. (1987). Effects of categorization, attribution, and encoding processes on leadership perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *72*(1), 97–106. doi:10.1037//0021-9010.72.1.97
- De Vries, R. E. (2012). Personality predictors of leadership styles and the self–other agreement problem. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *23*(5), 809–821. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.03.002
- Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*(1), 7–52. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x
- Eden, D., & Leviatan, U. (1975). Implicit leadership theory as a determinant of the factor structure underlying supervisory behavior scales. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *60*(6), 736–41. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1194175>
- Emery, C. (2012). Uncovering the role of emotional abilities in leadership emergence: A longitudinal analysis of leadership networks. *Social Networks*, *34*(4), 429–437. doi:10.1016/j.socnet.2012.02.001
- Emery, C., Calvard, T. S., & Pierce, M. E. (2013). Leadership as an emergent group process: A social network study of personality and leadership. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, *16*(1), 28–45. doi:10.1177/1368430212461835

- Emery, C., Daniloski, K., & Hamby, A. (2010). The reciprocal effects of self-view as a leader and leadership emergence. *Small Group Research, 42*(2), 199–224.
doi:10.1177/1046496410389494
- Engle, E., & Lord, R. (1997). Implicit theories, self-schemas, and leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*(4), 988–1010. Retrieved from <http://amj.aom.org/content/40/4/988.short>
- Ensari, N., Riggio, R. E., Christian, J., & Carslaw, G. (2011). Who emerges as a leader? Meta-analyses of individual differences as predictors of leadership emergence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 51*(4), 532–536. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.05.017
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2004). Implicit leadership theories in applied settings: Factor structure, generalizability, and stability over time. *The Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(2), 293–310. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.2.293
- Ertac, S., & Gurdal, M. Y. (2012). *Personality, group decision-making and leadership* (No. 1227) (pp. 1–28). Istanbul.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, M. W. (1985). *Personality and individual differences: A natural science approach*. New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Goldman, M., & Fraas, L. A. (1965). The effects of leader selection on group performance. *Sociometry, 28*(1), 82–88.
- Higgs, M. (2009). The Good, the Bad and the Ugly: Leadership and Narcissism. *Journal of Change Management, 9*(2), 165–178. doi:10.1080/14697010902879111
- Hollander, E. P. (1958). Conformity, status, and idiosyncrasy credit. *Psychological Review, 65*(2), 117–27. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/13542706>

- Hollander, E. P. (1992). Leadership, followership, self, and others. *Leadership Quarterly*, 3(1), 43–54.
- Hollander, E. P., & Julian, J. W. (1969). Contemporary trends in the analysis of leadership processes. *Psychological Bulletin*, 71(5), 387–97. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/4893725>
- Hollander, E. P., & Julian, J. W. (1970). Studies in leader legitimacy, influence, and innovation. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 5(3), 33–69.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 765–780. doi:10.1037//0021-9010.87.4.765
- Kahneman, D., Slovic, P., & Tversky, A. (1982). *Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases* (pp. 2–20). Retrieved from http://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=_0H8gwj4a1MC&oi=fnd&pg=PR8&dq=Judgment+under+uncertainty:+Heuristics+and+biases&ots=YCf9aVT8VI&sig=WtTbw20ahq3-NjYb-3Vp4hZRwnk
- Kaiser, R. B., & Hogan, J. (2011). Personality, leader behavior, and overdoing it. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 63(4), 219–242. doi:10.1037/a0026795
- Keller, T. (1999). Images of the familiar: Individual differences and implicit leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(4), 589–607. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00033-8
- Keller, T. (2003). Parental images as a guide to leadership sensemaking: An attachment perspective on implicit leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(2), 141–160. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(03)00007-9

- Kenney, R. A., Blascovich, J., & Shaver, P. R. (1994). Implicit leadership theories: Prototypes for new leaders. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 15*(4), 409–437.
doi:10.1207/s15324834basp1504_2
- Kickul, J., & Neuman, G. (2000). Emergent leadership behaviors: The function of personality and cognitive ability in determining teamwork performance and KSAs. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 15*(1), 27–52.
- Lavie, N. (1995). Perceptual load as a necessary condition for selective attention. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 21*(3), 451–68.
- Li, Y., Chun, H., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Ahlstrom, D. (2012). A multi-level study of emergent group leadership: Effects of emotional stability and group conflict. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 29*(2), 351–366. doi:10.1007/s10490-012-9298-4
- Lonetto, R., & Williams, D. (1974). Personality, behavioural and output variables in a small group task situation: An examination of consensual leader and non-leader differences. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 6*(1950), 59–74. doi:10.1037/h0081856
- Lord, R. G., de Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 402–410. doi:10.1037//0021-9010.71.3.402
- Lord, R. G., Foti, R. J., & De Vader, C. L. (1984). A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 34*(3), 343–378. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(84)90043-6
- Lord, R. G., & Hall, R. J. (1992). Contemporary views of leadership and individual differences. *The Leadership Quarterly, 3*(2), 137–157. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(92)90030-J

- Neubert, M. J. (2014). Too much of a good thing of the more the merrier? Exploring the dispersion and gender composition of informal leadership in manufacturing teams. *Small Group Research, 30*(5), 635–646.
- Neubert, M. J., & Taggar, S. (2004). Pathways to informal leadership: The moderating role of gender on the relationship of individual differences and team member network centrality to informal leadership emergence. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*(2), 175–194.
doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.02.006
- Offermann, L. R., Kennedy, J. K., & Wirtz, P. W. (1994). Implicit leadership theories: Content, structure, and generalizability. *The Leadership Quarterly, 5*(1), 43–58. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(94)90005-1
- Parkes, K. R. (1988). Locus of control in three behavioural domains: Factor structure and correlates of the “spheres of control” scale. *Personality and Individual Differences, 9*(3), 631–643. doi:10.1016/0191-8869(88)90160-2
- Paulhus, D. (1983). Sphere-specific measures of perceived control. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44*(6), 1253–1265. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.44.6.1253
- Paulhus, D. L., & Van Selst, M. (1990). The spheres of control scale: 10 yr of research. *Personality and Individual Differences, 11*(10), 1029–1036.
- Pedregon, C. a., Farley, R. L., Davis, A., Wood, J. M., & Clark, R. D. (2012). Social desirability, personality questionnaires, and the “better than average” effect. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*(2), 213–217. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.10.022
- Phillips, J. S., & Lord, R. G. (1981). Causal attributions and perceptions of leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 28*(2), 143–163. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(81)90020-9

- Pielstick, C. D. (2000). Formal vs. Informal Leading: A Comparative Analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 7(3), 99–114.
doi:10.1177/107179190000700307
- Read, P. B. (1974). Source of authority and the legitimation of leadership in small groups. *Sociometry*, 37(2), 189–204. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/4432077>
- Reichard, R. J., Riggio, R. E., Guerin, D. W., Oliver, P. H., Gottfried, A. W., & Gottfried, A. E. (2011). A longitudinal analysis of relationships between adolescent personality and intelligence with adult leader emergence and transformational leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(3), 471–481. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.04.005
- Reiter-Palmon, R., & Illies, J. J. (2004). Leadership and creativity: Understanding leadership from a creative problem-solving perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(1), 55–77.
doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.12.005
- Schaumberg, R. L., & Flynn, F. J. (2012). Uneasy lies the head that wears the crown: The link between guilt proneness and leadership. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 103(2), 327–42. doi:10.1037/a0028127
- Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2010). Implicit Leadership Theories: Think Leader, Think Effective? *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 20(2), 141–150. doi:10.1177/1056492610375989
- Spittal, M. J., Siegert, R. J., McClure, J. L., & Walkey, F. H. (2002). The Spheres of Control scale: the identification of a clear replicable three-factor structure. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 32(1), 121–131. doi:10.1016/S0191-8869(01)00010-1
- Stodgill, R. M. (1963). *Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire--Form XII*. Columbus, OH: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1963). *Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII*.

- Taggar, S., Hackett, R., & Saha, S. (1999). Leadership emergence in autonomous work groups: Antecedents and outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, *52*, 899–926.
- Tracy, L. (1987). Consideration and initiating structure: Are they basic dimensions of leader behavior. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *15*(1), 21–33. Retrieved from <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/sbp/sbp/1987/00000015/00000001/art00003>
- Turetgen, I. O., Unsal, P., & Erdem, I. (2008). The Effects of Sex, Gender Role, and Personality Traits on Leader Emergence: Does Culture Make a Difference? *Small Group Research*, *39*(5), 588–615. doi:10.1177/1046496408319884
- Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (2007). The role of the situation in leadership. *The American Psychologist*, *62*(1), 17–24; discussion 43–7. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.62.1.17
- Walker, W. R., Skowronski, J. J., & Thompson, C. P. (2003). Life is pleasant--and memory helps to keep it that way! *Review of General Psychology*, *7*(2), 203–210. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.7.2.203
- Weiss, H. M., & Adler, S. (1981). Cognitive complexity and the structure of implicit leadership theories. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *66*(1), 69–78. doi:10.1037//0021-9010.66.1.69
- Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Trait-based perspectives of leadership. *The American Psychologist*, *62*(1), 6–16. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.62.1.6
- Zaccaro, S. J., Kemp, C., & Bader, P. (1990). Leader Traits and Attributes. In *The Major Schools of Leadership* (pp. 101–124).
- Zaccaro, S. J., Mumford, M. D., Connelly, M. S., Marks, M. A., & Gilbert, J. A. (2000). Assessment of leader problem-solving capabilities. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(1), 37–64. Retrieved from <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1048984399000429>

Zhu, H., Kraut, R., & Kittur, A. (2012). Effectiveness of shared leadership in online communities. In *Proceedings of the ACM 2012 conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work* (pp. 407–416). New York, New York: ACM Press.
doi:10.1145/2145204.2145269

FOOTNOTES

¹ I had intended to counterbalance these questionnaires. However, it was only after the completion of the first study that I discovered that the counterbalancing procedure on the computer program did not work as intended. The questionnaires were not administered in a random order, but in the same order for every participant. Many of the same questionnaires were used in Study 2 with a counterbalancing procedure, though, and the pattern of correlations among the measures is consistent between both studies. Based on these results, I do not believe the results were biased by using the same presentation order in Study 1.

² If the groups had fewer than four people, an augmented version of the Study 1 procedure was used instead. That is, participants completed the first set of personality and “ideal” leader questionnaires, then skipped straight to the self-assessments. They were given the same instructions for the self-rating questionnaires as were used in Study 1. They did not nominate a leader or rate one another on leader-likeness or leader behaviors.

³ To ensure the pattern of results was similar for the composite leadership perception score, I ran separate regression analyses for each leadership questionnaires. All of the separate models were significant (Step 3 R^2 values ranged from .24 to .43), but the magnitude and significance levels of individual predictors differed. Though the direction of results was pretty similar in all cases, p -values for the legitimacy vectors and the interaction terms varied in the final models. Specifically, when the criterion was leader impressions (measured using the GLI-Other), only the legitimacy vector comparing leaders to non-leaders ($V2; \beta = .38, p < .001$), and the V2-by-self-perceptions interaction term ($\beta = -.29, p < .001$) were significant. The same pattern was observed

with both initiating structure and consideration behaviors, with beta values around the same magnitude. However, when the criterion was persuasion, both legitimacy vectors (V1: $\beta = -.14$, $p < .05$; V2: $\beta = .39$, $p < .001$) and both interaction terms (V1*Self-perceptions: $\beta = .13$, $p < .001$; V2*Self-perceptions: $\beta = -.29$, $p < .001$) were significant. When the criterion was role assumption behaviors, both legitimacy vectors (V1: $\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$; V2: $\beta = .24$, $p < .001$) and the interaction between appointed and emerging leaders and self-perceptions (V1*Self-perceptions: $\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) were significant.

Table 1

Descriptive Information for Study 1 Questionnaires

Scales	Subscales	Mean	SD	Range	α
NEO-PI-R	Neuroticism	142.58	22.17	48 - 240	.92
	Extraversion	170.76	20.05	48 - 240	.90
	Openness to Experience	164.50	17.40	48 - 240	.86
	Agreeableness	165.45	18.47	48 - 240	.89
	Conscientiousness	165.22	20.31	48 - 240	.92
EPQ	Psychoticism	1.95	1.61	0 - 17	.43
	Extraversion	8.58	3.26	0 - 12	.85
	Neuroticism	6.22	3.50	0 - 12	.84
	Lie Scale	5.29	3.13	0 - 16	.73
SOC	Personal Efficacy	53.01	6.41	11 - 77	.69
	Interpersonal Control	49.19	7.11	10 - 70	.68
	Sociopolitical Control	40.34	6.95	10 - 70	.68
GLI-Self		19.70	4.75	5 - 25	.94
LBDQ-Self	Representation	18.78	3.64	5 - 25	.84
	Demands Reconciliation	18.26	2.97	5 - 25	.71
	Tolerance of Uncertainty	33.44	5.13	10 - 50	.73
	Persuasiveness	37.60	5.69	10 - 50	.86
	Initiation of Structure	38.73	5.04	10 - 50	.83
	Tolerance and Freedom	36.04	3.87	10 - 50	.64
	Role Assumption	36.47	6.06	10 - 50	.83
	Consideration	39.51	4.80	10 - 50	.76
	Production Emphasis	35.86	4.60	10 - 50	.74
	Predictive Accuracy	18.02	2.68	5 - 25	.74
	Integration	20.24	2.81	5 - 25	.79
	Superior Orientation	39.31	4.94	10 - 50	.82
	LBDQ-Ideal	Representation	20.82	2.51	5 - 25
Demands Reconciliation		21.30	2.81	5 - 25	.70
Tolerance of Uncertainty		39.02	4.89	10 - 50	.68
Persuasiveness		42.34	4.65	10 - 50	.79
Initiation of Structure		42.16	4.33	10 - 50	.79
Tolerance and Freedom		37.55	3.94	10 - 50	.62
Role Assumption		41.12	5.01	10 - 50	.74
Consideration		43.38	4.24	10 - 50	.71
Production Emphasis		36.72	4.22	10 - 50	.67
Predictive Accuracy		19.90	2.47	5 - 25	.70
Integration		22.42	2.25	5 - 25	.70
Superior Orientation		41.21	4.43	10 - 50	.74
MLQ		Transformational Leadership	33.39	6.30	12 - 60
	Transactional Leadership	16.56	3.05	6 - 30	.65
	Laissez-faire Leadership	6.42	1.88	3 - 15	.47

Table 2
Subscales and Descriptions for the Leader Behavior Descriptions Questionnaires

Subscale	Abbr.	Description
Representation Demands	Rp	Speaks for the groups, and is seen as representing the group.
Reconciliation	Rc	Assists in decreasing conflict and keeping things organized.
Tolerance of Uncertainty	TU	Able to tolerate uncertainty of future without anxiety.
Persuasiveness	Pr	Argues persuasively and exhibits strong convictions.
Initiation of Structure	St	Defines own and others' roles and expectations.
Tolerance and Freedom	TF	Gives others opportunity to contribute and make decisions.
Role Assumption	RA	Actively takes the leadership role.
Consideration	Cn	Considers the well-being and contributions of others.
Production Emphasis	PE	Emphasizes completing jobs and getting output.
Predictive Accuracy	PA	Can anticipate problems and predict potential outcomes.
Integration	In	Helps individuals work together as teams within an organization.
Superior Orientation	SO	Acts as a liaison with superiors.

Table 3

Percentages of Leadership Experiences Reported by Domain

Leadership Domains	Percentage
Employment-related and internship-related supervisory positions	18.91%
Academic-related extracurricular activities <i>Ex.</i> Sports, clubs, sororities and fraternities, student government	66.17%
Religious-related or volunteer-related groups	12.94%
Occasional gathering or meetings <i>Ex.</i> Classroom assignments or activities, study groups	32.84%
Other experiences not better explained by the other domain categories <i>Ex.</i> Other departments, units, or collections of people	17.91%
Unspecified experiences <i>Ex.</i> Includes vague or unclear answers	10.70%

Note. Domains are not exclusive.

Table 4
Pearson Correlations Among Leadership Behaviors (Self and Ideal Subscales)

Variables	LBDQ-Self											
	Rp	Rc	TU	Pr	St	TF	RA	Cn	PE	PA	In	SO
LBDQ-Ideal												
Representation (Rp)	.29***	.14**	.09	.22***	.31***	.09	.18***	.17**	.25***	.25***	.25***	.32***
Demands Reconciliation (Rc)	.12*	.43***	.27***	.25***	.30***	.13**	.44***	.47***	.18***	.14**	.34***	.31***
Tolerance of Uncertainty (TU)	.08	.31***	.48***	.13**	.20***	.24***	.29***	.42***	.02	.02	.27***	.21***
Persuasiveness (Pr)	.20***	.21***	.18***	.37***	.36***	.15**	.30***	.28***	.25***	.20***	.37***	.36***
Initiation of Structure (St)	.30***	.26***	.14**	.32***	.50***	.16**	.30***	.26***	.36***	.33***	.42***	.48***
Tolerance and Freedom (TF)	.10*	.04	.21***	.07	.09	.52***	.04	.20***	.01	.05	.18***	.15**
Role Assumption (RA)	.13**	.36***	.18***	.21***	.32***	.03	.52***	.41***	.18***	.09	.31***	.30***
Consideration (Cn)	.07	.31***	.28***	.15**	.24***	.27***	.33***	.61***	.08	.05	.35***	.27***
Production Emphasis (PE)	.22***	.17**	.01	.33***	.35***	.03	.20***	.10	.56***	.33***	.28***	.39***
Predictive Accuracy (PA)	.17**	.15**	.13*	.25***	.35***	.12*	.17***	.15**	.30***	.45***	.31***	.38***
Integration (In)	.18***	.27***	.22***	.26***	.37***	.20***	.29***	.39***	.27***	.22***	.46***	.36***
Superior Orientation (SO)	.31***	.22***	.12*	.35***	.43***	.14**	.23***	.21***	.37***	.42***	.39***	.54***

Note. Diagonal values representing the correlations between parallel subscales are bolded.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Table 5
Pearson Correlations Among Personality and Leadership

Variables	N	E	O	A	C	PE	IPC	L	S-I	Self
<i>Personality</i>										
Neuroticism (N)	-									
Extraversion (E)	-.34***	-								
Openness to Experience (O)	.05	.19***	-							
Agreeableness (A)	-.30***	.16**	.06	-						
Conscientiousness (C)	-.36***	.19***	-.06	.09	-					
Personal Efficacy (PE)	-.31***	.30***	.04	-.00	.54***	-				
Interpersonal Control (IPC)	-.53***	.62***	.12*	.13**	.35***	.40***	-			
Lie Scale (L)	-.28***	-.05	-.04	.28***	.41***	.21***	.08	-		
<i>Leadership</i>										
Self-Ideal Similarity (S-I)	-.36***	.26***	.10	.09	.35***	.27***	.30***	.19***	-	
Self-perceptions (Self)	-.30***	.51***	.07	-.10*	.41***	.38***	.50***	.05	.37***	-

Note. Self-perceptions = measured using the General Leadership Impression scale, Self-Ideal Similarity = Fisher z -transformed within-person correlation between LBDQ-Self and LBDQ-Ideal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 6
Pearson Correlations Among Personality Traits and LBDQ-Self Subscales

Subscales	N	E	O	A	C	PE	IPC	L
<i>LBDQ-Self</i>								
Representation	-.22***	.41***	.03	-.08	.37***	.35***	.43***	.12*
Demands	-.40***	.28***	.16**	.13**	.44***	.40***	.40***	.22***
Reconciliation								
Tolerance of Uncertainty	-.54***	.23***	.14**	.30***	.23***	.22***	.31***	.20***
Persuasiveness	-.26***	.46***	.17**	-.17**	.32***	.35***	.50***	.06
Initiation of Structure	-.15**	.30***	.04	-.11*	.47***	.41***	.36***	.11*
Tolerance and Freedom	-.15**	.19***	.17**	.20***	.03	.09	.18***	-.01
Role	-.26***	.35***	.12*	.01	.43***	.41***	.42***	.15**
Assumption								
Consideration	-.28***	.36***	.24***	.39***	.33***	.29***	.34***	.19**
Production	-.10*	.25***	.02	-.22***	.37***	.32***	.19***	.02
Emphasis								
Predictive Accuracy	-.20***	.19***	.06	-.14**	.41***	.37***	.30***	.14**
Integration	-.31***	.36***	.11*	.11*	.37***	.34***	.39***	.16**
Superior Orientation	-.20***	.36***	.09	-.05	.44***	.39***	.34***	.12*
<i>LBDQ-Ideal</i>								
Representation	-.05	.08	-.06	.00	.17**	.19***	.12*	.14**
Demands	-.05	.13*	.23***	.18***	.22***	.15**	.14**	.05
Reconciliation								
Tolerance of Uncertainty	-.12*	.12*	.15**	.29***	.18***	.09	.16**	.04
Persuasiveness	-.05	.14**	.12*	-.04	.12*	.15**	.16**	.01
Initiation of Structure	-.02	.13*	.01	-.07	.26***	.23***	.13*	.01
Tolerance and Freedom	-.03	.13*	.10*	.17**	-.05	-.02	.05	-.05
Role	-.01	.09	.12*	.08	.19***	.17***	.11*	-.01
Assumption								
Consideration	-.00	.17**	.21***	.29***	.09	.10	.12*	.00
Production	-.03	.16**	.01	-.18***	.14**	.18***	.09	-.05
Emphasis								
Predictive	-.08	.10*	.09	-.08	.17**	.18***	.13*	.02

Accuracy								
Integration	-.05	.15**	.11*	.14**	.18***	.15**	.12*	.02
Superior Orientation	-.08	.18***	.04	-.14**	.23***	.27***	.16**	-.04

Note. N = Neuroticism; E = Extraversion; O = Openness to Experience; A = Agreeableness; C = Conscientiousness; PE = Personal Efficacy; IPC = Interpersonal Control; L = Lie Scale.

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

Table 7

Regression Analysis Predicting Self-Perceptions of Leadership (N = 402)

Variable	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β
Neuroticism	.00	.01	-.00
Extraversion	.08	.01	.33***
Openness to Experience	-.00	.01	-.01
Agreeableness	-.05	.01	-.21***
Conscientiousness	.05	.01	.22***
Personal Efficacy	.03	.04	.04
Interpersonal Control	.12	.04	.18**
Self-Ideal Similarity	3.31	.87	.16***
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)			.44(.43)
<i>F</i>			38.92***

Note. Self-Ideal Similarity = Fisher *z*-transformed within-person correlation between LBDQ-Self and LBDQ-Ideal.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 8
Descriptive Information for Study 2 Questionnaires

Scales	Subscales	Means	SD	Ranges	Alpha
NEO-PI-R	Neuroticism	142.49	20.64	48 - 240	.91
	Extraversion	167.29	20.00	48 - 240	.90
	Openness to Experience	163.82	18.57	48 - 240	.89
	Agreeableness	164.63	16.56	48 - 240	.87
	Conscientiousness	164.78	20.83	48 - 240	.92
SOC	Personal Efficacy	66.92	8.11	11 - 77	.70
	Interpersonal Control	54.09	7.97	10 - 70	.74
	Sociopolitical Control	39.83	6.78	10 - 70	.68
GLI-Self		17.16	4.64	5 - 25	.91
LBDQ-Self	Persuasiveness	33.69	6.38	10 - 50	.88
	Initiation of Structure	32.31	6.38	10 - 50	.84
	Role Assumption ¹	34.39	4.86	9 - 45	.71
	Consideration ¹	39.22	4.25	9 - 45	.65
LBDQ-Ideal	Persuasiveness	40.95	4.21	10 - 50	.74
	Initiation of Structure	41.51	3.98	10 - 50	.74
	Role Assumption ¹	41.67	4.38	9 - 45	.72
	Consideration ¹	43.97	3.82	9 - 45	.70

¹One question from each subscale was removed because they did not apply to all the groups (“I am the leader of the group in name only” and “I gave advanced notice of changes”).

Table 9

Pearson Correlations Among Leadership Behaviors (Self and Ideal Subscales)

Subscales	LBDQ-Self			
	Pr	St	RA	Cn
LBDQ-Ideal				
Persuasiveness (Pr)	.19***	.09	.03	.08
Initiation of Structure (St)	.07	.16**	.11*	.11*
Role Assumption (RA)	.07	.07	.25***	.14**
Consideration (Cn)	-.03	-.03	.04	.33***
LBDQ-Other				
Persuasiveness (Pr)	.10	.03	.08	.01
Initiation of Structure (St)	.11*	.03	.11*	.02
Role Assumption (RA)	.12*	.07	.08	.05
Consideration (Cn)	.05	.05	.14**	.05

Note. Diagonal values representing the correlations between parallel subscales are bolded.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .001$.

Table 10
Pearson Correlations Among Personality and Leadership

Variables	N	E	O	A	C	PE	IPC	S-I	Self	LBDQ-Other				Lead	
										Pr	St	RA	Cn		
<i>Personality</i>															
Neuroticism (N)	-														
Extraversion (E)	-.27***	-													
Openness (O)	.14*	.16**	-												
Agreeableness (A)	-.15**	.11*	.12*	-											
Conscientiousness (C)	-.43***	.09	-.19***	.05	-										
Personal Efficacy (PE)	-.44***	.32***	-.03	.09	.59***	-									
Interpersonal Control (IPC)	-.47***	.58***	.05	.02	.30***	.41***	-								
<i>Leadership</i>															
Self-Ideal Similarity (S-I) ^a	-.09	.11*	.15**	.17**	.00	.07	.10	-							
Self-Perceptions (Self)	-.16**	.48***	.10	-.11*	.15**	.25***	.45***	.18**	-						
<i>LBDQ-Other:</i>															
Persuasiveness (Pr)	-.08	.26***	.18***	-.02	.06	.12*	.28***	.06	.50***	-					
Initiation of Structure (St)	-.05	.31***	.15**	-.04	.06	.13*	.30***	.07	.51***	.90***	-				
Role Assump. (RA)	-.08	.24***	.15**	-.03	.05	.14**	.27***	.09	.46***	.79***	.67***	-			
Consideration (Cn)	-.05	.17**	.14*	.04	.03	.07	.18***	.06	.36***	.75***	.70***	.62***	-		
Others' Percept. (Lead)	-.10*	.34***	.17**	-.04	.07	.15**	.34***	.12*	.57***	.89***	.86***	.79***	.72***	-	

Note. GLI = General Leadership Impression scale, LBDQ = Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Self-Ideal Similarity = Fisher z -transformed within-person correlation between LBDQ-Self and LBDQ-Ideal.

^a One participant's responses were removed because the Self-Ideal within-person correlation could not be calculated (no variability in the ratings of both the ideal and of the self). Therefore, the within-person correlations were calculated using $N = 351$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 11

Pearson Correlations Among Personality Traits and LBDQ-Self Subscales

Subscales	N	E	O	A	C	PE	IPC
<i>LBDQ-Self</i>							
Persuasiveness	-.16**	.38***	.18**	-.20***	.09	.26***	.42***
Initiation of Structure	-.11*	.34***	.04	-.14**	.03	.14**	.36***
Role Assumption	-.26***	.30***	.01	-.12*	.19***	.31***	.43***
Consideration	-.17**	.38***	.09	.22***	.12*	.29***	.38***
<i>LBDQ-Ideal</i>							
Persuasiveness	.06	.15**	.12*	-.08	.04	.05	.10
Initiation of Structure	-.04	.11*	-.41**	-.01	.16**	.14**	.18***
Role Assumption	-.06	.13*	-.01	.04	.12*	.18***	.20***
Consideration	-.02	.17**	.12**	.32***	.11*	.09	.08

Note. N = Neuroticism; E = Extraversion; O = Openness to Experience; A = Agreeableness; C = Conscientiousness; PE = Personal Efficacy; IPC = Interpersonal Control; L = Lie Scale.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 12

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Self-Perceptions of Leadership (N = 351)

Variable	Step 1			Step 2		
	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β
Step 1						
Neuroticism	.02	.01	.07	.02	.01	.07
Extraversion	.08	.01	.35***	.08	.01	.36***
Openness to Experience	.01	.01	.04	.01	.01	.04
Agreeableness	-.05	.01	-.16***	-.05	.01	-.16***
Conscientiousness	.02	.01	.08	.02	.01	.09
Personal Efficacy	.02	.03	.03	.02	.03	.02
Interpersonal Control	.13	.04	.22***	.13	.04	.22***
Self-Ideal Similarity ^a	2.70	.90	.14**	2.70	.90	.14**
Step 2						
Condition				.69	.42	.08
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)			.32(.31)			.33(.31)
ΔR^2						.01
F			20.48***			18.61***

Note. Self-Ideal Similarity = Fisher z -transformed within-person correlation between LBDQ-Self and LBDQ-Ideal.

^a One participant's responses were removed because the Self-Ideal within-person correlation could not be calculated (no variability in the ratings of both the ideal and of the self). Therefore, the within-person correlations were calculated using $N = 351$.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 13

Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Others' Overall Perceptions of Leadership^a (N = 351)^b

Variable	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β
Step 1									
Intercept	-.00	.05		.25	.08		.46	.10	
Neuroticism	.00	.00	.06	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.03
Extraversion	.01	.00	.15*	-.00	.00	-.02	-.00	.00	-.03
Openness to Experience	.01	.00	.14*	.01	.00	.11*	.01	.00	.13**
Agreeableness	-.00	.00	-.05	.00	.00	.03	.00	.00	.01
Conscientiousness	.00	.00	.03	-.00	.00	-.01	.00	.00	-.01
Personal Efficacy	.00	.01	.02	.00	.01	.04	.01	.01	.04
Interpersonal Control	.02	.01	.21**	.01	.01	.06	.01	.01	.08
Self-Ideal Similarity	.17	.20	.04	-.09	.17	-.02	-.07	.17	-.02
Step 2									
Self-Perceptions ^c				.08	.01	.41***	.03	.02	.14
Condition ^d				.01	.09	.00	-.01	.09	-.00
Legitimacy (V1) ^e				-.05	.10	-.02	-.27	.13	-.14*
Legitimacy (V2) ^f				.38	.07	.25***	.57	.09	.39***
Step 3									
V1*Self-Perceptions							.05	.03	.13*
V2*Self-Perceptions							-.06	.02	-.29**
R^2 (Adjusted R^2)			.14(.12)**			.36(.34)			.39(.36)
ΔR^2						.23			.02
<i>F</i>			6.78***			15.97***			15.04***

Note. Self-Ideal Similarity = Fisher *z*-transformed within-person correlation between LBDQ-Self and LBDQ-Ideal.

^a Others' perceptions were created by calculating a composite score of the four LBDQ-Other scores and the GLI-Other scores.

^b One participant's responses were removed because the Self-Ideal within-person correlation could not be calculated (no variability in the ratings of both the ideal and of the self). Therefore, the within-person correlations were calculated using $N = 351$.

^c Self-perceptions (measured with the GLI-Self) were mean-centered in these analyses.

^d Condition: Coded as 0 = emerging leader condition, 1 = appointed leader condition.

^e Legitimacy (V1) = Coded to assess the difference between appointed and emerging leaders.

^f Legitimacy (V2) = Coded to assess the difference between leaders and non-leaders.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

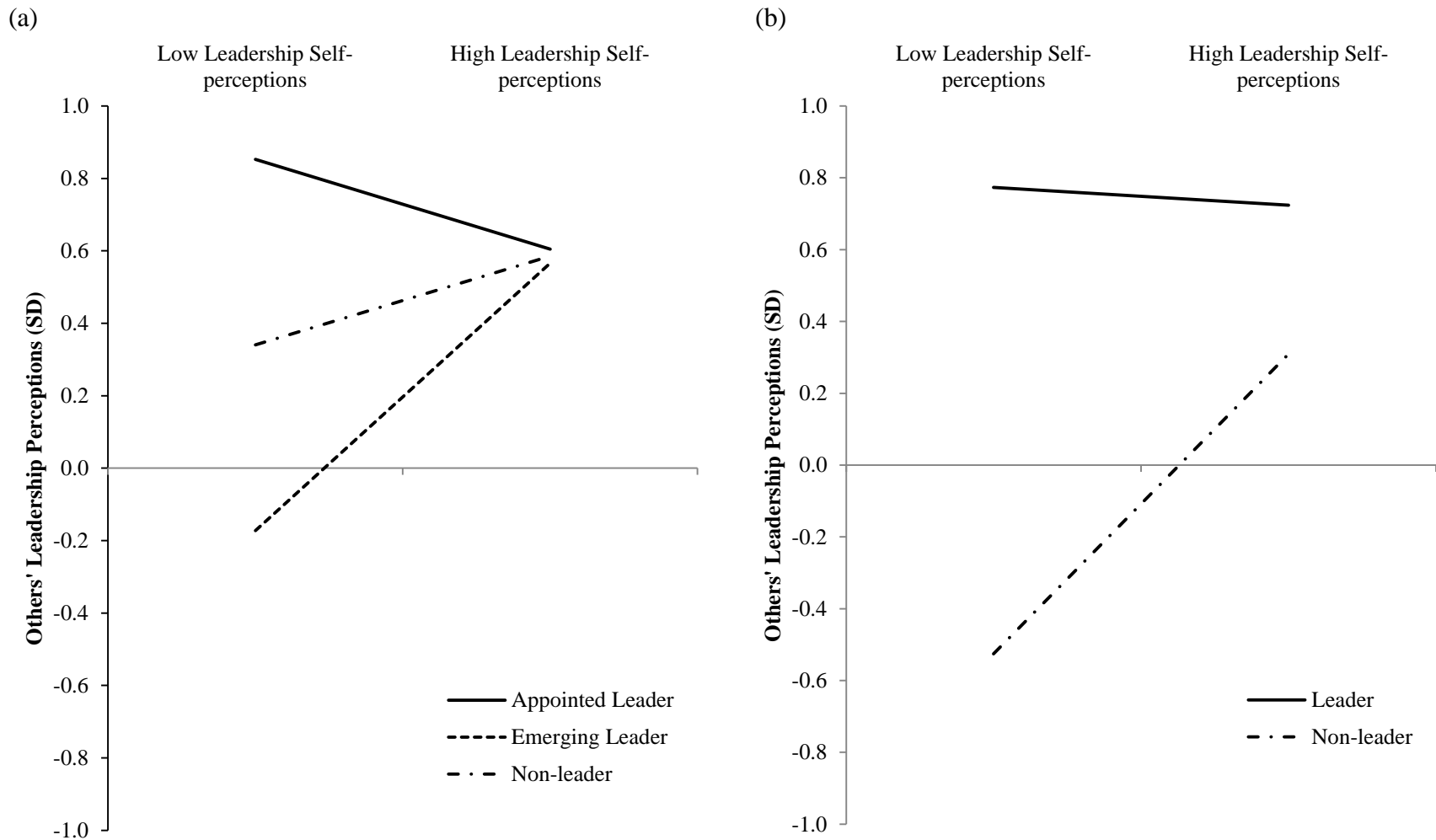


Figure 1. Plot (a) illustrates the interaction between vector 1 (a contrast between appointed leaders, emerging leaders, and participants not chosen as leaders) and self-perceptions of leadership. Plot (b) illustrates the interaction between vector 2 (a contrast between leaders [both appointed and emerging] and participants not chosen as leaders) and self-perceptions of leadership.