

A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of PhD at the University of Warwick

Permanent WRAP URL:

<http://wrap.warwick.ac.uk/101934/>

Copyright and reuse:

This thesis is made available online and is protected by original copyright.

Please scroll down to view the document itself.

Please refer to the repository record for this item for information to help you to cite it.

Our policy information is available from the repository home page.

For more information, please contact the WRAP Team at: wrap@warwick.ac.uk

**Leader Reactions to Follower Proactive Behaviours -Not On My
Turf!**

The Role of Leader Identity Threat

By

Asma Bagash

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the degree of PhD

University of Warwick

Warwick Business School

Organization & HRM and Behavioural Science Divisions

September 2017

Contents

| | |
|---|------|
| Acknowledgements | vii |
| Declaration on Inclusion of Material from a Prior Thesis | viii |
| Abstract | ix |
| List of Abbreviations..... | x |
| Chapter 1. Why Do Leaders React Negatively to Follower Proactive Behaviours?1 | |
| 1.1 Gaps in leadership research: Top-down, static approach..... | 1 |
| 1.2 Gaps in proactivity research: Focus on antecedents of proactivity and outcomes for the proactive individual | 3 |
| 1.3 Follower proactive behaviours may trigger leader identity threat | 5 |
| 1.4 Self-evaluation process: An overarching process of the framework | 6 |
| 1.5 Narrative pathways between the variables and the studies of this thesis..... | 9 |
| 1.6 Overview of Chapters | 11 |
| Chapter 2. Leader Reactions to Follower Behaviours: The role of intrapersonal processes | 14 |
| 2.1 Followers' proactive behaviours | 14 |
| 2.2 Followers' proactive and proficient behaviours influence leaders | 17 |
| 2.3 Leader identity: Relevance and role in shaping leader reactions..... | 18 |
| 2.3.1. Role of multiple identities..... | 21 |
| 2.4 Self-evaluation process: Opening the black box of leaders' cognitive processes | 22 |
| 2.4.1. Self-enhancement motive: Driver of the self-evaluation process | 23 |
| 2.5 Proactive behaviours of followers may trigger discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities | 24 |
| 2.6 Leader attributions during the self-evaluation process | 27 |
| 2.7 Role of implicit theories in identity formation and leader perceptions..... | 28 |
| 2.7.1. Implicit Leadership theories..... | 28 |
| 2.7.2. Categorisation of leaders..... | 29 |
| 2.7.3. Connectionist model: Leaders' access to leader schemas is dependent on follower behaviours..... | 31 |
| 2.8 Consequences of leader identity threat: Leaders' negative reactions | 33 |
| 2.9 Female followers proactive behaviours accentuate leader identity threat | 34 |

| | |
|--|----|
| 2.10 Individual differences moderate leaders’ self-evaluation process and their reactions | 36 |
| 2.10.1. Leaders’ self-esteem moderates leader identity threat | 36 |
| 2.10.2. Leaders’ CSE moderates leader identity threat | 38 |
| 2.10.3. Leaders’ implicit motives moderate their reactions towards their followers | 40 |
| 2.11 Summary of the theoretical framework | 43 |
| Chapter 3. An Overview of the Research Methodology and Ethical Considerations | 46 |
| 3.1 Use of experimental method | 46 |
| 3.2 Use of experimental methodology in identity, proactivity, and leadership research | 47 |
| 3.3 Experimental vignette: A tool to induce manipulations..... | 48 |
| 3.4 Overview of the three studies..... | 48 |
| 3.5 Ethical considerations | 49 |
| 3.6 Summary | 50 |
| Chapter 4. Study 1-Follower Proactive Behaviours as Triggers of Leader Identity Threat | 51 |
| 4.1 Leader identity threat due to followers’ proactive behaviours..... | 51 |
| 4.2 Role of gender as a moderator of leader identity threat | 52 |
| 4.3 Research methodology | 53 |
| 4.3.1. Sample and procedure | 53 |
| 4.3.2. Research design and procedure | 54 |
| 4.3.3. Measures | 54 |
| 4.3.4. Analytical strategy | 56 |
| 4.4 Manipulation check validity: Follower behaviours..... | 57 |
| 4.5 Results | 58 |
| 4.6 Discussion | 61 |
| 4.7 Conclusion | 64 |
| Chapter 5. Study 2 - Follower Proactive Behaviours Increase Leader Identity Threat: A Discrepancy between Ideal and Actual Leader Identities | 65 |
| 5.1 Leader identity threat due to followers’ proactive behaviours..... | 65 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 5.2 Leader identity threat is the discrepancy between actual and ideal leader identities | 67 |
| 5.3 Leaders attribute followers' proactive behaviours to followers' personal characteristics | 71 |
| 5.4 Leaders' self-esteem moderates leader identity threat | 72 |
| 5.5 Role of followers' gender in influencing leader identity threat | 73 |
| 5.6 Research methodology | 74 |
| 5.6.1. Sample and procedure | 74 |
| 5.6.2. Research design and procedure | 75 |
| 5.6.3. Measures | 76 |
| 5.6.4. Analytical strategy | 80 |
| 5.7 Manipulation check validity: Follower behaviours..... | 81 |
| 5.8 Manipulating leader identity salience | 82 |
| 5.9 Manipulation check validity: Leader identity salience | 82 |
| 5.10 Results | 83 |
| 5.11 Discussion | 99 |
| 5.12 Conclusion | 102 |
| Chapter 6. Study 3 - Follower Proactive Behaviours Trigger Leader Identity Threat: The Role of ILTS, CSE, and Implicit Motives | 103 |
| 6.1 Leader identity threat due to followers' proactive behaviours..... | 103 |
| 6.2 Leaders' positive and negative affect are manifestations of leader identity discrepancy..... | 104 |
| 6.3 Variations in leaders' ILTs due to follower proactive behaviours..... | 107 |
| 6.4 Role of follower gender in shaping leaders' perceptions of follower behaviours | 109 |
| 6.5 CSE moderates leader identity threat | 109 |
| 6.6 Implicit affiliation and power motives moderate leader reactions..... | 111 |
| 6.7 Research Methodology..... | 114 |
| 6.7.1. Sample and procedure | 114 |
| 6.7.2. Research design and procedure | 115 |
| 6.7.3. Measures | 116 |
| 6.7.4. Analysis strategy | 121 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 6.8 Manipulation check validity: Follower behaviours..... | 122 |
| 6.9 Results..... | 123 |
| 6.10 Discussion..... | 141 |
| 6.11 Conclusion..... | 146 |
| Chapter 7. General Discussion and Conclusion..... | 147 |
| 7.1 Theoretical contributions..... | 147 |
| 7.1.1. Flip-side of proactivity from the perspective of leaders..... | 147 |
| 7.1.2. Leaders do not appreciate followers claim of leader identity..... | 150 |
| 7.2 Methodological strengths and limitations..... | 154 |
| 7.2.1. Three-study approach: Validation of core premise..... | 154 |
| 7.2.2. Operationalisation of leader identity threat..... | 155 |
| 7.3 Practical Implications..... | 157 |
| 7.4 Conclusion..... | 158 |
| References..... | 159 |
| Appendix 1: Scenarios used in experiments..... | 179 |
| Appendix 2: Survey form for Study 1..... | 180 |
| Appendix 3: Survey form for Study 2..... | 183 |
| Appendix 4a: Survey form Phase 1 for Study 3..... | 190 |
| Appendix 4b: Survey form phase 2 for Study 3..... | 193 |
| Appendix 5: Frequencies regarding participant distribution over the eight conditions in Study 2..... | 202 |
| Appendix 6: Paired samples t-test for ILT variables in Study 3..... | 203 |
| Appendix 7: Table Affiliation and power motive as the moderators of threat and follower behaviours for Study 3..... | 204 |

List of Figures

| | |
|---|-----|
| Figure 2. 1 Theoretical framework of leader reactions to follower behaviours and the interplay of intrapersonal factors in an interpersonal event | 45 |
| Figure 5. 2.1 Theoretical framework of leader reactions to follower behaviours and the interplay 1 Theoretical model for Study 2 | 74 |
| Figure 5.2 Leader identity threat mediating follower behaviours and performance evaluation | 86 |
| Figure 5.3 Change in leaders' agitation due to follower behaviours | 89 |
| Figure 5. 4 Change in leaders' dejection due to follower behaviours..... | 90 |
| Figure 6.1 Theoretical framework of Study 3 | 113 |
| Figure 6.2 Leader identity threat as mediator of follower behaviours and interpersonal incivility | 128 |
| Figure 6.3 Change in leaders' negative affect due to followers' behaviours..... | 130 |
| Figure 6.4 Change in leaders' positive affect due to followers' behaviours..... | 131 |
| Figure 6.5 CSE as moderator of follower behaviour and leader identity threat . | 140 |

List of Tables

| | |
|---|-----|
| Table 1.1 Summaries of the research focus and design for each study..... | 9 |
| Table 4.1 Correlations for proactive and proficient conditions for Study 1 | 60 |
| Table 5.1 Means, standard deviations, correlations of manipulation checks for Study 2 | 82 |
| Table 5.2 Means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 2 | 84 |
| Table 5.3 Summary of one-way ANOVA for leader identity threat, leaders' evaluation of followers and leaders' need for leader identity enhancement..... | 85 |
| Table 5.4 Mediation analysis for leader identity threat as a mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers and leader identity enhancement | 88 |
| Table 5.5 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' agitation as a mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers and leader identity enhancement..... | 92 |
| Table 5.6 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' dejection as a mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations and leader identity enhancement .. | 94 |
| Table 5.7 One-way ANOVA results of leader attributions due to follower behaviours | 96 |
| Table 6.1 Company-wide distribution of participants for pre-experimental and experimental phases | 115 |
| Table 6.2 Means, standard deviations, correlations of manipulation checks, Study 3 | 122 |
| Table 6.3 Means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 3 | 124 |
| Table 6.4 One-way ANOVA results of leaders' evaluation of follower behaviours | 126 |
| Table 6.5 Mediation analysis of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader evaluations of the follower mediated by leader identity threat | 129 |
| Table 6.6 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' negative affect as mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers..... | 134 |
| Table 6.7 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' positive affect as mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers..... | 136 |

Acknowledgements

This work would not have been possible without its *anchor and compass*, Dr. Karoline Strauss. A master guide, who moulded my academic sensibilities, made the logic of this thesis sound, and enabled me to think out of the box. I thank Dr. Dawn Eubanks for correcting me whenever I went off course and Prof. Tina Kiefer for her kind mentorship. I thank Yasin Rofcanin, my friend, who helped me paddle through the unknown waters of the sea of statistics.

This journey with its highs and lows was made easier by my friends at Warwick. Especially Lauren Schrock, Hala Elbilbaisi, Anni Jahn, Victoria Jelicic, Yazhou He and Ila Bharatan, who were there for me, in sharing the small delights during this journey and also when the going was rough.

I thank my mentor, Radhakrishnan Nair, for giving me courage to start this adventure and supporting me throughout. A very special thanks to Emmanuel David for helping me navigate that difficult barrier of access to participants. I thank all the participants without whom the empirical work would never have been possible.

But, most importantly, this quest would not have been possible without the role of my mother, whose steel-like strength and courage are an inspiration to me, and whose smile, like the warm glow of the sun, encourages me to pursue journeys that matter to me.

Declaration on Inclusion of Material from a Prior Thesis

This thesis is the personal work of Asma Bagash. The thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the degree of PhD at the University of Warwick. The thesis has not been submitted for a degree at any other university.

Abstract

This thesis presents three studies which explore leader identity threat as a cause for leaders' negative reactions to followers' proactive behaviours. Proactive behaviours can be considered as signs of emerging leadership (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and leaders may construe such behaviours as a claim to their leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). As a result, leaders experience leader identity threat. This thesis argues that in order to restore their leader identity (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996; Kramer, 2010), leaders negatively evaluate their followers. By contrasting follower proactive behaviours with proficient behaviours in its experiments, this thesis investigates followers' proactive behaviours as triggers of leader identity threat. In addition, the role of followers' gender in accentuating leader identity threat is probed (Study 1).

Study 2 broadens the scope of research from Study 1 to include the investigation of leader identity threat as a discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities. Increases in leaders' agitation and dejection due to follower proactive behaviours suggest discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal leader identities. This study explores leaders' attributions regarding follower proactive behaviours as being due to the personal characteristics of the followers, and explores the role of leaders' self-esteem as a moderator of leader identity threat. Study 3 further expands the scope of the thesis by focusing on change in leaders' positive and negative affect as manifestations of leader identity discrepancy triggered by follower behaviours. This study investigates changes in leaders' implicit leadership theories due to follower proactive behaviours. This study also explores the role of leaders' core self-evaluation as a moderator of leader identity threat and the role of leaders' implicit power and affiliation motives as moderators of leaders' reactions towards their followers.

This thesis extends the leadership literature by focusing on the outcomes of followers' behaviour on leaders and contributes towards the understanding of leaders' cognitions about their followers' engagement in proactive behaviours and their reactions towards their followers. This thesis contributes to the proactivity literature by highlighting the negative outcomes of proactive behaviours.

List of Abbreviations

| | |
|--------|---|
| BCa CI | Bias corrected and accelerated confidence intervals |
| CFA | Confirmatory factor analysis |
| CI | Confidence intervals |
| CSE | Core self-evaluations |
| EFA | Exploratory factor analysis |
| EVM | Experimental Vignettes Methodologies |
| df | Degrees of freedom |
| IFTs | Implicit followership theories |
| IPML | Integrated process model of leadership |
| ILTs | Implicit leadership theories |
| LMX | Leader member exchange |
| M | Mean |
| PSE | Picture story experience |
| SD | Standard Deviation |
| SE | Standard Error |
| IAT | Implicit Association Test |

Chapter 1. Why Do Leaders React Negatively to Follower Proactive Behaviours?

Proactive behaviours by followers are desired by organisations (Crant, 2000); however, such behaviours are not always appreciated by leaders (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009) and, as a consequence, leaders may react negatively (Burris, 2012). This thesis proposes that leaders experience leader identity threat when followers engage in proactive behaviours. To restore their leader identity (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996), leaders react negatively to followers' proactive behaviours.

Although meta-analyses find positive correlations between proactive behaviour and supervisor ratings of performance (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010), yet there are a few studies demonstrate that proactive behaviours are sometimes not positively related to performance evaluations, namely Grant, Parker, & Collins, (2009), and Fuller, Marler, Hester, & Otondo, (2015). Both the leadership and proactivity streams of research have yet to explain the nuances of why individuals in leadership positions sometimes react negatively to followers' proactive behaviours. This thesis addresses this question.

This chapter sets out the theoretical framework for this thesis. I first discuss some of the gaps in the leadership and proactive literature as they relate to the above-mentioned question. Then, this chapter highlights the main theories used to explore the reasons for leaders' negative reactions to follower proactive behaviours. This is followed by an overview of the chapters of this thesis.

1.1 Gaps in leadership research: Top-down, static approach

Although leadership has been defined as an influencing process that occurs between leaders and followers working towards a common goal (Yukl, 2002), scholars have mainly taken a top-down approach towards leadership research, with the individual in the leadership position as the source of leadership generation (Avolio, 2007; Eberly, Johnson, Hernandez, & Avolio, 2013). Scholars have focused on the traits and behaviours of leaders as well as the outcomes of leaders' behaviour (Eberly et al., 2013), for example, trait studies (Maulding, Peters, Roberts, Leonard, & Sparkman,

2012), path-goal theory (House, 1971), charismatic and transformational leadership theories (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Conger, Kanungo, Menon, & Mathur, 1997), situational leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), and implicit leadership theories (ILTs) (Lord & Maher, 1990). These theories mainly focus on either the leader's personality or behaviours or on cognitions that individuals have about leaders. Even relationship theories, such as leader member exchange theory (LMX), imply that the prerogative of the give-and-take relationship between leaders and followers lies with the leader (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Although these theories have increased the understanding of leadership, they do not explain the complex nature of leadership in a holistic manner (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001). Moreover, behavioural leadership theories such as empowering leadership (Conger, 1989; Liu, Lepak, Takeuchi, & Sims Jr, 2003) and abusive leadership (Tepper, 2000) have focussed mainly on how leader's behaviours influence others. For example, Zhang and Bartol (2010) argue that employee creativity is enhanced when leaders engage in empowering behaviours. On the other hand, Tepper (2000) argues that subordinate performance decreases when leaders engage in abusive behaviours. By highlighting these theories, I argue that the focus of leadership research has been on the leader as the stimulus of the leadership process, the outcomes of which are measured, for example, through followers' motivation and performance. Although leadership is a multidirectional process (Yukl, 2010), the influence followers in leadership studies has not been examined to the same degree (Grint, 2000).

In leadership studies, the focus on followers has mainly been as the target of the leader's influence (Shamir, 2011). However, in recent years, interest in the role of followers has been gaining momentum in research, such as implicit followership theories (IFTs) (Sy, 2010) which focus on the cognitive structures and schemas relating to followers. In addition, DeRue and Ashford (2010) suggest that the process of influence in organisations can be independent of hierarchical roles. Furthermore, these authors argue that employees can claim and grant identities depending on social interactions. DeRue and Ashford (2010) suggest that the nature of claiming and granting leader and follower identities is reciprocal in nature and that followers can claim a leader identity and leaders can grant a leader identity to their followers. This thesis focuses on the influence of followers' proactive behaviours on leaders and

proposes that leaders may perceive such emerging leadership behaviours (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) of followers as a claim to their leadership.

Another gap within leadership research is the static approach taken towards the study of leadership, although the definition of leadership stresses that it is a dynamic process (Eberly et al., 2013). Scholars have taken a segmented and siloed approach to theorising and examining leadership (Eberly et al., 2013); for instance, leaders' backgrounds, skills, personalities, self-concepts, and behaviours have been independently or jointly been the focus of research (Shamir, 2011). The nuances of what occurs during the leadership process have not been explored or investigated in a holistic manner (Eberly et al., 2013; Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011). I concur with Eberly et al.'s (2013) argument that most leadership research has been unidirectional and has focused on individuals in leadership positions as the source of leadership. In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the leadership process, scholars suggest that it is important to revisit the leadership literature with a view to integrating leadership theories (Avolio, 2007; Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Yukl, 2010). These Eberly et al.'s (2013) suggest that an integrated approach which takes into consideration various leadership theories for example, cognitive, behavioural and situational leadership theories are required to understand the processual nature of leadership.

1.2 Gaps in proactivity research: Focus on antecedents of proactivity and outcomes for the proactive individual

Crant (2000) has defined proactive behaviours of employees as “taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions” (p. 436). Various proactive behaviours have been researched, for instance, taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), feedback seeking (Ashford & Cummings, 1983), expressing voice (Detert & Burris, 2007; Morrison, 2011), and problem prevention (Frese & Fay, 2001). Scholars have researched the antecedents of proactive behaviours as well as the motivation to engage in proactive behaviours (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Fuller et al., (2015) have summarised the research on the outcomes of proactive behaviours as greater performance evaluations (Grant et al., 2009; Thompson, 2005;

Van Dyne and LePine, 1998), improvements in workplace socialization (Parker and Collins, 2010), increase in salaries and career advancement (Seibert et al., 2001), enhanced feelings of control (Parker, 1998), more positive attitudes (Morrison and Milliken, 2000) and career success (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), these outcomes being mainly for individuals engaging in proactive behaviours and may have outcomes for the organisation. Outcomes of proactive behaviours can be on the self, on others, or on organisations (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Although proactive behaviours have an influence on job performance and attitudes and are important for the individual as well as the organisation, the focus of proactivity research has been on the antecedents of employee proactivity and its outcomes for individuals engaging in such behaviours.

Research on the outcomes of employee proactive behaviours on others, such as leaders, is scarce. Research indicates that not all outcomes of proactive behaviours are positive; for instance, leaders may react negatively by withholding rewards, training, or performance pay to followers who engage in proactive behaviours (Burriss, 2012; Detert & Burriss, 2007; Fast, Burriss, & Bartel, 2014; Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009). Fast et al. (2014) argue that managers with low self-efficacy are more likely to experience ego threat due to improvement-orient voice of their subordinates. In order to compensate for their threatened ego caused by follower proactive voice, managers react negatively. However, the reasons for leaders' negative reactions to follower proactive behaviours and the role of the intrapersonal processes involved have yet to be explored in detail.

In the light of these gaps in leadership and proactivity research, this thesis focuses on leaders as the target of a process triggered by followers engaging in proactive behaviours. This raises the question, "When followers engage in proactive behaviours, what are the cognitive processes that leaders utilise to evaluate follower behaviours?" This thesis examines the intrapersonal process of leaders when followers engage in proactive behaviours.

1.3 Follower proactive behaviours may trigger leader identity threat

This thesis focuses on the cognitive processes of leaders when followers engage in proactive behaviours. Follower proactive behaviours may be construed by leaders as signs of emerging leadership (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Leaders may evaluate followers' proactive behaviours as a claim to their leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). I argue that follower proactive behaviours may be a cause of leaders' leader identity threat. I draw on Elsbach and Kramer's (1996) and Kramer's (2010) argument and posit that in order to restore their threatened leader identity, leaders may react negatively towards their followers. However, it is important to understand what leader identity threat is.

Fast and Chen (2009) suggest that identity threat is the perception that an individual is unable to meet the capabilities required in a particular role. Meanwhile, Aquino and Douglas (2003) suggest that "identity threat is any overt action, by another party that challenges, calls into question, or diminishes a person's sense of competence, dignity, or self-worth" (p.196). Proactive behaviours are agentic in nature (Crant, 2000) and leadership implies being agentic (Eagly & Karau, 2002), leaders may perceive follower proactive behaviours as a challenge to their leadership (Detert et al. 2013). Petriglieri (2011) argues that identity threat is "an experience appraised as indicating potential harm to the value, meanings, or enactment of an identity" (p. 641). I draw on Higgins (1987) self-discrepancy theory to explain leader identity threat. Higgins (1987) argues that identity threat is the discrepancy between ideal and actual identities caused by a stimulus. For instance, leaders may experience devaluation (loss of agency) of their actual leader identity due to follower behaviours but they aspire to be agentic (ideal identity). Higgins's (1997) definition not only takes into consideration the devaluation to the current identity but also explains that this devaluation causes discomfort when the discrepancy between actual and ideal identity increases. For example, leaders may hold the view that it is their prerogative to engage in change and improvement oriented behaviours but when followers engage in such behaviours. Such leaders may perceive this as a change in the status quo and may construe this as a potential harm to their current or actual leader identity, while they may aspire to be agentic leaders (Ideal leader identity). I consider

that leader identity threat is the discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities that may occur due to follower proactive behaviours.

1.4 Self-evaluation process: An overarching process of the framework

I employ the self-evaluation process (Sedikides & Strube, 1997) as the overarching theoretical framework. Self-evaluation is a process whereby individuals interpret a relevant stimulus with respect to one's identity and accordingly take appropriate actions to protect one's identity (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). In other words, when individuals engage in the self-evaluation process, they weigh the pros and cons of a stimulus vis-à-vis their identity (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Therefore, an individual's identity plays an important role in their interpretation of, and reaction to a stimulus (Oyserman & James, 2011). When followers engage in proactive behaviours, I posit that leaders engage in a self-evaluation process and evaluate such follower behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity. Sedikides and Strube (1997) argue that the self-evaluation process not only takes into consideration an individual's identity but also allows for the inclusion of additional theories. I employ self-evaluation as the overarching framework in which various sub-processes, personality traits, and implicit motives can be embedded. I argue that the inclusion of these constructs may bring a better understanding of leaders' self-evaluation process and may provide insights into why there are differences in leaders' perception as well as reactions to the same stimulus.

I use various cognitive and motivation theories to explain what may occur during the self-evaluation process. For instance, I employ the self-discrepancy theory to explain the leaders' experience of identity threat when they evaluate followers' proactive behaviours vis-à-vis their identity. According to the self-discrepancy theory, when individuals evaluate a particular stimulus, they may experience a discrepancy between their actual identity and ideal identity. This discrepancy will be manifested as discomfort (Higgins, 1987). In other words, Higgins (1987) argues that a discrepancy is experienced as discomfort and can be considered as an identity threat. Thus, self-discrepancy theory fits within the self-evaluation process as individuals experience the discrepancy among the various identities while they are evaluating the stimulus vis-à-vis their identity. By employing self-discrepancy theory, I may enrich the

understanding of the nuances involved when leaders experience leader identity threat during the self-evaluation process.

I posit that during the self-evaluation process, leaders use their cognitions to evaluate follower behaviours. Individuals utilise their leadership schemas to interpret a leadership event Engle & Lord (1997). As I focus on leader identity, I argue that leaders may utilise the leadership schemas such as their implicit leadership schemas when they are evaluating follower behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity. I use the implicit leadership theories (ILTs) to explain the changes in leaders' leadership schemas that may occur when they evaluate follower behaviours. This may further clarify the role of leader identity during the self-evaluation process.

Another theory that I employ is the attributions theory. Attributions help individuals understand and manage themselves during an event (Weiner, 1985). Weiner (1985) suggest that when individuals made attributions about others, these attributions help them to react accordingly. I draw from the attribution theory and explain that leaders' attributions influence their reactions towards their followers. I argue that when leaders evaluate follower behaviours, they also make attributions about their followers. These attributions help them to react to their followers. Thus, leaders' attributions about their follower occurs during the self-evaluation process may and enhance the understanding as to why leaders react negatively towards their followers.

To account for potential individual differences in leaders' self-evaluation process, I consider various constructs that may influence leaders' perceptions as well as their reactions. First, I consider leaders self-esteem and CSE. Both these constructs deal with an individual's self-worth (Baumeister, Tice, & Reserve, 1985; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoreson, 2003) and have been considered as important regarding individuals' evaluation of their self (Baumeister et al., 1985; Judge et al., 2003). I argue that both leaders' self-esteem and their CSE may play a role in leaders' self-evaluation process and may explain why some leaders perceive follower proactive behaviours as a threat to their leader identity. This thesis utilises these constructs as moderators of leaders' leader identity threat.

Second, I argue that leaders' implicit motives, i.e., unconscious tendencies of behaviours, may direct leaders' reactions (Schultheiss, 2008). This thesis not only seeks to investigate the question: Why do some leaders react negatively to follower proactive behaviours? Also, why do some leaders may react more negatively in comparison to others? When leaders evaluate follower behaviours as enhancing or detrimental to their identity, leaders implicit motivated may direct their leaders' behaviours and reactions towards their followers. These implicit motives may explain why some leaders react differently despite the experience of leader identity threat that occurs when they evaluate follower behaviours.

Finally, I use the gender incongruity theory to highlight the role of gender of follower shaping leaders' perceptions. Eagly and Karau (2002) argue that not only one's gender is important in shaping one's reactions but also the gender of the stimulus (i.e., followers' gender). Eagly and Karau (2002) argue that when the perceiver (leader) experiences incongruence between the role of the actor (follower) and the gender of the actor (follower), the perceiver may experience threat. As leaders evaluate follower behaviours vis-à-vis their identity, I argue that during the self-evaluation process followers gender may play a role in shaping leaders leader identity threat.

By including the various theories and constructs that may play a role when leaders evaluate follower behaviours, not only highlights the complexities involved during the self-evaluation process but also enables the understanding of this complex process.

In order to tease out the nuances of leaders' reactions to follower behaviours, I contrast proactive behaviours of followers with proficient behaviours of followers. This thesis argues that both of these behaviours may influence leaders' evaluation processes and their reactions towards their followers, albeit in different ways. Comparing the two behaviours allows me to establish whether leaders' negative reactions are unique to follower proactive behaviours.

1.5 Narrative pathways between the variables and the studies of this thesis

This thesis proposes a complex theoretical framework to understand why leaders react negatively to follower proactive behaviours. To examine the proposed framework in detail, this thesis uses a research design consisting of three scenario-based experimental studies (see Table 1.1). These studies investigate various assumptions of theoretical framework. All three studies focus on investigating the core question: Why do some leaders experience leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours? As gender of an individual engaging in a particular behaviour may play an important role in a perceiver's evaluations (Eagly & Karau, 2002). As a result, in all three studies the followers' gender has been investigated as a moderator of leader identity threat. The theoretical framework of this thesis delves into the multiple processes that may occur when leaders evaluate follower behaviours. However, due to the rather complex nature of the theoretical framework, each study focussed on certain aspects. As a result, some variables were added and some dropped from the particular study.

Study 1 is a preliminary study, primarily focusing on investigating leaders' experience of leader identity threat, when followers engage in proactive behaviours and leaders' performance evaluation of the follower. Furthermore, the aim of this study was to validate the efficacy of the manipulating variables, i.e., follower behaviour and follower gender. Study 2 builds on Study 1 by expanding the investigation regarding leader identity threat to include affect related discrepancy manifested by increase in agitation and dejection. In this study, I investigate leader identity discrepancy as a mechanism of leader identity threat. Leader identity discrepancy is investigated through the changes in leaders' affect. Parallel to this, I investigate leader identity threat through a self-reported measure. Furthermore, this study examines leaders' attributions about their followers engaging in proactive or proficient behaviours. This study also investigates the role individual differences play in moderating leaders' leader identity threat by focusing on leaders' self-esteem as a moderator of leaders' leader identity threat. It attempts to investigate leader reactions from two perspectives, i.e., leader reactions towards their followers and leader desire to enhance their leader identity. By doing so, I aim to capture leader reactions, not

only towards their followers but also investigate the leaders self-enhancement motive as an outcome of leaders identity threat.

Building on Study 2, the third study, expands the investigation of affective manifestations of self-discrepancy to include, i.e., the positive and negative affect as manifestations of self-discrepancy. By doing this, further clarity regarding affect related self-discrepancy as an identity threat mechanism may emerge. This study differs from Studies 1 and 2 as it investigates changes in leaders' leader schemas (ILTs) due to follower behaviours. Another difference is that the focus is on moderators that influence leaders' perceptions as well as leaders' reactions. In Study 3, I take into consideration, leaders' CSE moderating leader identity threat instead of self-esteem. CSE is a higher order construct of self-worth and may reveal more insights regarding individual differences in leaders' self-evaluation process. Study 3 investigates leaders' implicit power and affiliation motives as moderators of leaders' reactions. I posit that this investigation may provide answer to the question: Why do some leaders react more negatively to follower proactive behaviours?

To sum up, these studies attempt to address the fundamental core premise that leaders may experience leader identity threat due to follower behaviours. The three studies, in an incremental manner attempt to address this, yet the focus of each study vary to investigate several aspects of the theoretical framework. Moving from a preliminary investigations of Study 1 to a more complex investigations of leaders identity threat as a affect related discrepancy and finally in Study 3, the focus builds by including changes in positive and negative affect due to follower behaviours, leaders' ILTs and moderators of leaders' perception and reactions.

Table 1.1 Summaries of the research focus and design for each study

| Studies | Research focus | Design |
|----------------|--|---|
| Study 1 | Leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours Leader reactions to follower behaviours Role of follower's gender in shaping leader perceptions Validation of follower behaviour scenarios | Online scenario-based experiment (2X2), between-subject design Indian professionals, mainly based in India |
| Study 2 | Leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours The role of affect as a manifestation of leader identity discrepancy Role of leader's self-esteem in influencing leader's self-evaluation process Leader evaluations of follower behaviours | Online scenario-based experiment (2X3), between-subject design Professionals based in the USA |
| Study 3 | Leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours The role of affect as a manifestation of leader discrepancy Change in ILTs due to follower proactive behaviour Leader evaluations of follower behaviours | Field-based experiment (2X2), between-subject design Experiment conducted on the company premises of managers based in Mumbai and Pune, India |

1.6 Overview of Chapters

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter 2 proposes the theoretical framework which explains why follower proactive behaviours may trigger leaders' negative reactions. First, the relevance of follower proactive and proficient behaviours to leaders is discussed, followed by a discussion of leaders' evaluation processes of follower behaviours. I conceptualise leader identity threat as a self-discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal identities. I posit that variations in leader

perceptions of follower behaviours may occur due to the leader's self-esteem and CSE, and employ gender congruence theory to explain why leaders may experience greater leader identity threat when female followers engage in proactive behaviours. Finally, the role of leaders' implicit motives as a variable that may highlight the differences in intensity of leader reactions towards their followers is considered.

Chapter 3 presents my arguments for the experiment methodology employed to test the hypotheses of this thesis. This chapter presents an overview of the experimental design of the three studies and discusses the ethical considerations of this research. Chapter 4 presents Study 1, which is a preliminary study that explores the effects of follower proactive and proficient behaviours on leaders. This study tests the initial hypothesis concerning leaders experiencing leader identity threat when followers engage in proactive behaviours as compared to when they engage in proficient behaviours. In addition, this chapter examines the influence of followers' gender on leader perceptions and their experience of leader identity threat.

Chapter 5 contains Study 2, which builds on Study 1 and examines the construct of leader identity threat in detail, exploring the discrepancy that occurs between leaders' actual and ideal leader identities due to followers engaging in proactive or proficient behaviours. Issues related to leaders' motives for enhancing their leader identity and the attributions of leaders regarding follower behaviours are explored. This study investigates the role of leaders' self-esteem as a moderator of their evaluations of follower behaviours.

Chapter 6 details the testing of the entire theoretical framework through Study 3. It includes most of the core hypotheses of Studies 1 and 2. This chapter explores the discrepancy between leader identities by considering the positive and negative affect of leaders manifested through changes in leaders' affect. This chapter delves into the cognitive processes of leaders by examining changes in leaders' ILTs that may occur due to follower behaviours. In addition, in this chapter, I hypothesise that leaders' CSE will moderate leaders' self-evaluation processes triggered by follower behaviours.

Finally, Chapter 7 provides a general discussion of the thesis and the findings of the three studies. This chapter also highlights the theoretical contributions and practical implications of this thesis. In addition, this chapter discusses the limitations of the thesis and avenues of future research.

Chapter 2. Leader Reactions to Follower Behaviours: The role of intrapersonal processes

The proposed theoretical framework in this chapter endeavours to explain why leaders sometimes react negatively to follower proactive behaviours. When followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders may construe this as a claim to their leadership (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). I argue that leaders employ the self-evaluation process (Sedikides & Strube, 1997) to evaluate follower proactive and proficient behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity. During this process, leaders may experience discrepancy between their actual and ideal leader identities and may experience leader identity threat. Consequently, leaders may desire to enhance threatened leader identity and reduce the discrepancy between their actual and ideal leader identities. In order to restore their threatened leader identity, leaders may negatively evaluate their followers (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996; Kramer, 2010). This framework draws from self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) to explain leader identity threat and the discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal leader identities and draws on the implicit leadership theories (ILTs) (Hanges et al., 2000; Lord et al., 1984) to explore changes in leaders' ILTs due to follower proactive behaviours.

Furthermore, this framework hypothesises that the gender of the follower will moderate the leader identity threat triggered by follower and intrapersonal traits, and that dispositions such as leaders' self-esteem and core self-evaluations (CSE) will moderate leader identity threat due to follower behaviours. Leaders' implicit motives will moderate their reactions when they experience leader identity threat.

2.1 Followers' proactive behaviours

Proactive behaviours are self-initiated; change oriented and future focused (Parker et al, 2016). Research has delved into various types of proactive behaviours that employees engage in (Parker et al, 2016). Parker and Collins (2010) argue that proactive behaviours are can be segmented into three categories person work behaviours, proactive strategic behaviours and proactive person-environment fit behaviour.

Person work behaviours: Such as taking charge, proactive voice and individual innovation are proactive behaviours aimed at changing the internal organizational environment. For instance, taking charge is defined as “entails voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organisations” (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). Try to bring about improved procedures in the work place. Such behaviours of followers may imply change in the status-quo of the relationship (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). I argue that, as taking charge is agentic in nature, leaders may construe such follower behaviours as a shift in agency to the follower.

Follower proactive voice refers to making innovative suggestions for change. It may involve recommending alterations to standard procedures even when others may not agree (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). It is “speaking out and challenging the status quo with the intent of improving the situation” (LePine & Dyne, 1998, p. 853). Detert and Burris (2007) argue that such information may challenge or upset the status quo of power holders. Thus, follower proactive voice may indicate that followers are using their agency to challenge the status quo. Some leaders may perceive this shift in status quo as a claim to their leadership and they may experience leader identity.

Individual innovations are proactive behaviours that involve the individuals to create and implement ideas (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Individual innovation includes identifying an opportunity, being able to generate new idea, and implement the new ideas. This entails searching out new techniques, technologies, and product ideas. (Parker & Collins, 2010). I posit that such behaviours again challenge the status quo regarding leaders’ agency as they entail followers identifying an opportunity and implementing ideas that involve change. Thus, leaders may perceive such follower behaviours as a threat to their leader identity.

Proactive strategic behaviours: Such as issue selling involves changing the organization’s fit with the external environment (Parker & Collins, 2010). When followers engage in issue selling behaviours, they are selling important issues to the leader to influence their leaders (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998). I posit that leader may construe such behaviour of followers a changing the status quo

wherein the leaders is responsible for the organisation fit with the external environment and by issue selling, followers are challenging this status quo about recognising issues and highlighting them.

Proactive person- environment fit behaviour: Such as feedback seeking behaviour and career initiatives entail changing the individual's fit with the organizational environment (Parker & Collins, 2010). When followers actively ask for feedback from their leaders to better assess their capabilities, change or adjust their goal-directed behaviours, they are engage in proactive behaviours (Anseel, Lievens, & Levy, 2007). When seek feedback proactively, employees engage in anticipatory and voluntary actions to obtain information regarding their behaviour (Anseel et al., 2007). I posit that leaders giving feedback to their followers has been considered as the norm, when followers engage in seeking feedback, leaders may construe this as a followers using their agency to seek feedback. Due to which some leader may construe this as a threat to their identity as leaders.

Career initiatives has been argued as proactive behaviours as they are Individual's active attempts to promote his or her career rather than a passive response to the job situation as given (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Engaging in career planning, skill development, and consultation with more senior personnel (Tharenou & Terry, 1998). Such behaviours are agentic in nature as the employee self-initiates such change-oriented behaviours. Such behaviours may directly pose a challenge to the leaders as they may challenge the status quo of the leader.

In this thesis, I focus on the *Person work behaviours* that are aimed at changing the internal organizational environment. As I focus on agency of the follower as a challenge the status quo of leadership, I take into consideration the change oriented, self-initiated and future focussed definition of proactive behaviours (Parker et al, 2016). This thesis is explores leader reactions to follower proactive which are agentic and contrast it with proficient behaviours of followers which are not agentic but not a particular type of proactive behaviour.

2.2 Followers' proactive and proficient behaviours influence leaders

Although followers engage in various behaviours at their workplace (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007), to compare leaders' varied reactions to follower behaviours, this thesis considers followers' proactive and proficient behaviours that may influence leaders' evaluation processes and their reactions towards their followers. Employees may engage in both proactive and proficient behaviours at their workplace (Griffin et al., 2007). Behaviours that fulfil the prescribed or predictive requirements of the work role are considered as proficient behaviours (Griffin et al., 2007). Proactive behaviours are self-starting, change-oriented, and future-focused behaviours (Parker et al., 2010). A key component of proactivity at the work place is that an "employee anticipates, plans for, and attempts to create a future outcome that has an impact on the self or environment" (Grant & Ashford, 2008, p.9).

Proactive behaviours are aimed at bringing a positive change to self, one's team, or organisations (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010). An instance of this is the follower proactive voice, i.e., "speaking out and challenging the status quo with the intent of improving the situation" (LePine & Dyne, 1998, p. 853), while Seibert et al. (1999) suggest that proactivity is linked to career success and employees' issue selling behaviour can bring problems to the notice of management to initiate organisational change (Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, & Lawrence, 2001). Yet, leader reactions to follower proactive behaviours are not always positive (Burriss, 2012; Detert & Burriss, 2007; Grant et al., 2009). Scholars suggest that leaders may experience threat due to the proactive voice of followers (Burriss, 2012; Fast et al., 2014), which can bring about negative attitudes and negative behaviours in leaders (Burriss, 2012). An explanation for this is that proactive behaviours may be evaluated by leaders as a sign of emerging leadership in followers and may challenge the status quo of the relationship (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Leaders may construe such agentic behaviours of their followers as a claim to their leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). However, not all proactive behaviours may challenge the status quo of leadership.

DeRue and Ashford (2010) suggest that a leadership identity is socially constructed and that individuals, through their interactions and behaviours, claim or grant

identities. It is through this this dynamic process of claiming and granting of identities that individuals internalise an identity as a follower or as a leader as well as take on another identity, for example, a follower can take on leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Drawing on this, I propose that some leaders may construe follower proactive behaviours as a claim to their leader identity and evaluate such behaviours as a threat to their leader identity. Proactive behaviours imply the use of one's agency (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Grant et al., 2009). Individuals in leadership roles may require engaging in agentic behaviours and influencing others (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Individuals in leadership positions may perceive follower proactive behaviours as a shift of agency from the leader to the follower and, consequently, construe such follower behaviours as a claim to their leadership and experience threat to their leader identity.

On the other hand, proficient behaviours of followers imply that the followers are following the roles prescribed by the leader or others (Griffin et al., 2007). As in-role behaviours are allocated by leaders or others, they may not be agentic nor anticipatory in nature (Grant & Ashford, 2008). I posit that proficient behaviours may be considered as following the standard set by others. To elaborate, I posit that followers engaging in proficient behaviours will be perceived by the leader as followers who are following the standards set by the leader. Leaders may construe such proficient behaviours in followers as a sign of support for their leadership. I argue that leaders may evaluate that their agency as leaders is therefore intact. Such follower behaviours may bolster leaders' leader identity. By this logic, both proactive and proficient follower behaviours are relevant for leaders as they may provide relevant feedback to leaders about their leader identity. I posit that leaders' leader identity plays an important role in the interpretation of follower behaviours as well as in influencing leader reactions.

2.3 Leader identity: Relevance and role in shaping leader reactions

In order to comprehend leader identity, it is necessary to take a step back and refer to the social psychology literature regarding the concept of the self. Self-concept is a theory about oneself consisting of not only who one is but also who one was and who one will be in the future (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Oyserman & James, 2011). In other

words, it is an idea about oneself (Markus, 1977). Self-concept comprises numerous representations on one's self consisting of ideas, images and thoughts along with goals and tasks (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Individuals develop their self-concept over time from their unique experiences and their unique thought processes (Markus, 1977). It can be viewed as being continually active and changes with experience (Markus & Wurf, 1987). It is not only stored in one's memory but becomes modified with use (Oyserman & James, 2011). Markus and Wurf (1987) suggest that, at any one time, only a few subsets of these numerous representations come to be activated, namely, the working self-concept. In other words, working self-concept consists of the activated aspects of the self-concept in a particular context (Markus & Wurf, 1987). The working self-concept is employed to interpret a situation and react to it (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Lord, Brown and Freiberg, (1999) suggest that the working self-concept is a highly activated, contextually sensitive portion of the self. The working self-concept, wherein the salient self-views are about leadership, enables the interpretation of a leadership event. Such salient leadership self-structures guide information processing during a leadership event. In other words, an individual's expectations about leadership roles direct their perceptions and reactions during a leader event. This may then further formulate their views and schemas about leadership (Lord & Maher, 1993).

However, self-concept and the working self-concept are large and complex concepts. Oyserman and James (2011) suggest that the use of identity is more appropriate while linking it to theoretical frameworks, more so when frameworks consist of linkages and relationships to others. Identity is relevant as it influences a person's perceptions, interpretations, and reactions to stimulus (Oyserman, 2009). Markus and Wurf (1987) suggest that identity is an image of one's self that one conveys or tries to convey to others. It exists not only as a cognitive structure in the mind of the person who is trying to convey it but it is also as an entity in the external environment (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Identity is jointly constructed by the person, the audience, and the situation (Markus & Wurf, 1987) and consists of those aspects of the self-concept made salient in a particular context (Oyserman, 2007). Identities are central to one's self-perception (Gregg, Sedikides, & Gebauer, 2011). As my theoretical framework

discusses the influence on followers' behaviours on leaders, I focus on the leader identity of leaders.

Identity also includes social relations and it is important and relevant for both the individual as well as the interaction (Markus & Wurf, 1987). De Cremer and Tyler (2005) suggest that identity is the means by which individuals define themselves in relation to others and, at the same time, individuals use information from others to define their identity. Identities include a subjective element, that is, how individuals see themselves (Ramarajan, 2014). Thus, social relations form an important part of understanding identity formation.

Ibarra (1999) argues that “the notion of identity work is based on two underlying assumptions: the importance of external (public) display of role-appropriate characteristics, and the desirability of internal identity coherence” p. 12. Identity work fundamentally seeks the conservation of prevailing identities or compliance with externally imposed image requirements. The concept of identity work focusses on the extent of agency is essential in the process of identity formation. Identity work is motivated by the desire for positive meaning and is used to defend personal identities from excessive or unwanted role expectations or threats (Ibarra, 1999). The author argues that the processes of identity work may include social relations, for instance, through the means of grants and claims, with respect to the leader and follower identities, i.e., in establishing and maintaining these identities (DeRue and Ashford 2010).

Guillén, Mayo and Korotov (2015) argue that managers work towards the development of a leader identity as a central part of their self-concept. Individuals are motivated to align their expectations with their sense of self (Ibarra et al., 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005). If leaders' self-image matches their perceived leadership role, they may view themselves as leaders (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Day and Dragoni (2015) argue that an individual's self-views regarding leadership may mediate between individual capabilities and more individual-level outcomes. As a leader identity develops, individuals may be motivated to attempt new leadership activities that are relevant leadership.

Day et al. (2009) argue that spirals of leader identity develop over time and that these spirals can be either positive or negative. For instance, in the case of developing a positive leader identity, an individual may be more likely to participate actively and effectively in leadership processes when needed (a positive spiral). Whereas, negative identity development spirals contribute to an individual being less willing and able to participate in effective leadership processes. Consequently, the active leader identity becomes a mediating structure linking interpretations to situationally appropriate actions (Lord, Gatti, & Chui, 2016). I argue that this concurs with DeRue and Ashford's (2010) argument that there is a give-and-take process involved in shaping leader identity.

Adding to the complexity of leader identity, Lord, Brown and Freiberg, (1999) argue that leader identity shifts between various levels (e.g., individual, interpersonal, group) depending on the context (Lord et al., 1999). In other words, leaders' salient leader identity may differ from the one in the context of a group. Therefore, when leaders activate different levels of their leader identity, they can have various motivational and affective influences on their subordinates. This then extends to their behaviours towards their subordinates (Johnson & Lord, 2010). As leadership is a reciprocal process, I posit that followers can also influence their leaders and leaders' leader identity.

2.3.1. Role of multiple identities

Individuals do not possess a single identity but may hold multiple identities (Oyserman & James, 2011). For instance, a woman may be an employee, a mother and a friend. Oyserman and James (2011) suggest that some identities are more likely to be salient than others, depending on the specific context. During an interaction, a particular identity is salient, while the other identities are in the background (Markus & Wurf, 1987; Oyserman & James, 2011). For instance, a team leader's leader identity may not be salient when he or she is interacting with his or her superiors but, rather, during such events, their follower identity may be salient. In other words, in organisations, many individuals may have multiple identities, for instance, the identity of an employee, and at the same time hold other identities with respect to their role in the organisation, i.e., it may range from being that of leaders to that of

followers. The salience of these identities is dependent on the context (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Consequently, individuals react to a stimulus with respect to their activated identity (Oyserman & James, 2011).

Drawing on the literature of multiple identities, Ramarajan (2014) argues that most approaches capture identities acting one at a time, and proposes that many types of relationships among multiple identities may exist and are activated in a given context. The author argues through the connectionist theory of identity that individuals are in a constant conversation among multiple identities and these multiple identities may contradict each other or serve to stabilise the relationship between identities and depending on the situation, the network between these identities is activated. Therefore, the activated identity is dependent on multiple linkages and the power between them.

However, I follow Oyserman and James (2011) in their conceptualisation and utilisation of identities. I argue that, in the context of leader-follower interactions, the leader's leader identity and the follower's follower identity may be salient. I focus on the leader identities rather than on the entire self-concept. I follow Markus and Wurf (1987) in their conceptualisation of multiple identities that leaders may utilise during their interactions with their followers actual and ideal leader identities

2.4 Self-evaluation process: Opening the black box of leaders' cognitive processes

I argue that leaders evaluate followers' proactive and proficient behaviours vis-à-vis their actual and ideal leader identities. Self-evaluation is a process of interpreting relevant stimuli with regard to one's identity, i.e., weighing benefits against consequences (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Self-evaluation is a process by which people perceive themselves positively or negatively in the light of a stimulus (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Individuals (e.g., leaders), interpret a stimulus (e.g., follower proactive behaviours), by weighing the pros and cons, with a view to whether this information maintains and enhances their positive regard (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Self-evaluation process has two components, i.e., information and action (Strube & Yost, 1993). The information component consists of processing

information from the environment in order to weigh the pros and cons against one's self while the action component consists of reactions to a particular situation (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). I argue that leaders may evaluate follower behaviours as enhancing or threatening their leader identity and that this evaluation directs their response.

Markus and Wurf (1987) have suggested that during interactions individuals' judge behaviours of others based on their own standards, or the standards of others. I argue that follower proactive and proficient behaviours provide feedback to leaders about their leadership. Such follower behaviours may then be relevant to leaders and may influence leaders and their leader identity. I propose that leaders will weigh the pros and cons of follower proactive and proficient behaviours from their standpoint as leaders.

Sedikides and Strube (1997) suggest that individuals undertake the self-evaluation process in order to maintain or enhance a particular identity. In the following section, I argue that leaders' motives for engaging in the self-evaluation process is driven by their need to enhance and maintain their leader identity.

2.4.1. Self-enhancement motive: Driver of the self-evaluation process

The main purpose of self-evaluation is to maintain or enhance positive regard about oneself (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). During the self-evaluation process, motives direct the accumulation of self-relevant information through assessments as well as enable a response (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Sedikides and Strube (1997) suggest that the self-enhancement motive is the main driver for the self-evaluation process and that the self-enhancement motive may guide and direct an individual's self-evaluation process. It is the motive that drives both thought and behaviour with the aim to maintain and enhance one's positive self (Sedikides & Luke, 2008).

My proposed framework considers the self-enhancement motive as the driver of the leaders' self-evaluation process. The self-enhancement motive is an unconscious psychological tendency that focuses on and emphasizes on the positive aspects of one's self-concept (Sedikides & Luke, 2008). It is the desire to be viewed positively, by oneself and by others (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Individuals desire to increase

the positivity of one's self and diminish the negativity of oneself (Ferris, Lian, Brown, & Morrison, 2015; Sedikides & Strube, 1997). Based on this motive, individuals engage in the self-evaluation process to weigh the pros and cons of a stimulus vis-à-vis their identity (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). For instance, when leaders evaluate follower proactive and proficient behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity, the aim of the leaders' evaluation process will be to maintain or enhance their leader identity.

Drawing from this argument, I theorise that when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviour, leaders' self-evaluation is primarily driven by their self-enhancement motive. I posit that the aim of leaders' self-evaluation is to attain and maintain positive regard for their leader identity and that leaders may desire to possess and retain their agency as leaders. When followers engage in proficient behaviours, leaders may evaluate such follower behaviours as an endorsement of their leadership. Followers meeting prescribed performance requirements may be perceived by leaders as evidence of their leadership being intact. Leaders may evaluate such follower behaviours as not causing any loss of their agency as leaders. Consequently, their self-enhancement motive may be satisfied and leaders will not experience leader identity threat.

In contrast, proactive behaviours imply being agentic (Grant & Ashford, 2008). I posit that through the self-evaluation process, leaders may evaluate such behaviours as a loss of their agency as leaders to their actual (current) leader identity while their ideal leader identity may aspire agency. In other words, follower proactive behaviours may cause a discrepancy between leaders ideal and actual leader identities.

2.5 Proactive behaviours of followers may trigger discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities

I argue that leaders may evaluate followers' proactive behaviours as leader identity threat. To understand leader identity threat, I draw on Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory to explain that follower proactive behaviours may trigger a

discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities when leaders evaluate follower proactive behaviours as a loss of their agency as leaders.

An essential argument of self-discrepancy theory is that when individuals encounter a relevant event (e.g., follower proactive behaviours), they evaluate this event with respect to their actual self, relative to their ideal self (what one aspires to) or ought self (what one should be) (Higgins, 1987; Higgins, Klein, & Strauman, 1985). This also parallels the arguments made by Markus and Nurius (1986) that individuals not only have many identities but also various future identities.

Higgins (1987) describes self-discrepancy as the difference, or mismatch, existing between the various identities of the self, i.e., discrepancy experienced by individuals between the current, ought and ideal constructs (representations) of the self¹. When a stimulus causes discrepancy between these identities, individuals experience discomfort (Higgins, 1987; Strauman & Higgins, 1987). The perception that there may be a likelihood of negative outcomes in the future for oneself (ideal identity) is a source of discomfort (Higgins, 1987; Strauman & Higgins, 1987). This discomfort is a manifestation of identity discrepancy and can be considered as identity threat (Higgins, 1987; Tesser, 1988).

I argue that the discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal identities may be triggered by follower proactive behaviours. Leaders' ideal identities may consist of "I desire agency". When leaders evaluate follower behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity, their actual identity may experience loss of agency due to follower proactive behaviours. Consequently, the discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal identities increases and they experience discomfort. This framework focuses on the ideal and actual leader identities triggered by follower behaviours but not the discrepancy between actual and ought leader identities. Leaders ought identity (should be) may consist of "I should be giving agency to followers". I argue that in

¹ Higgins (1987) argues the actual (current), ideal and ought constructs are states of the particular identity. I draw on the identity literature of Markus and Nurius (1986) of possible future identity as distinct from the actual or current identity. I define actual and ideal identities as distinct identities and not states of the same identity.

such cases, the discrepancy between actual and ought identities will not be greater and leaders may not experience discrepancy.

Higgins (1987) argues that due to the increase in discrepancy between identities, individuals experience discomfort. One of the manifestations of identity self-discrepancy and the discomfort is observed through change in the individual's affect (Higgins, 1987). Tesser (1988) argues through the self-evaluation process, when individuals experience threat, this should result in their affect turning negative. Individuals may experience nervousness, anxiety, or emotional discomfort (Higgins, 1987; Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997). Higgins (1987) and Higgins et al. (1997) argue that increases in agitation and dejection are manifestations of identity discrepancy. Drawing from this argument, I posit that due to follower proactive behaviours, leaders may evaluate a loss of their agency as leaders for their actual leader identity but their ideal leader identity may aspire to have their agency. As a result, leaders may experience discrepancy between their actual and ideal leader identities. Due to such a discrepancy, there would be an increase in the leader's agitation and dejection. However, when followers engage in proficient behaviours, leaders may evaluate such behaviours as a sign of their leadership being supported, as followers are following the standard set by the leader. In such cases, leaders may not experience a discrepancy between their actual and ideal leader identities. Consequently, their agitation and dejection will not increase.

Another important aspect of the self-discrepancy theory is the magnitude of discrepancy, where Higgins (1987) and Higgins et al. (1986) argue that larger magnitudes of difference between the various representations of the self may result in greater discomfort and may be perceived as a greater threat to identity. Drawing from these arguments, I posit that the magnitude of discrepancy will indicate the intensity of a leader's leader identity threat. For instance, some leaders may evaluate greater loss of their agency due to follower proactive behaviours. In such instances, the discrepancy between that particular leader's actual and ideal leader identities is large. Consequently, they experience greater discomfort. In comparison, leaders who evaluate followers' behaviours as a slight loss of their agency may not experience as

much of a discrepancy between their ideal and actual leader identities. Such leaders may experience minimal or no discomfort.

In order to understand the nuances of leader identity threat, it is important to understand the cognitive processes that may be involved. In this thesis, I focus on the cognitive processes of leaders when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours.

2.6 Leader attributions during the self-evaluation process

When followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours, leaders evaluate these stimuli vis-à-vis their identity through the self-evaluation process and make attributions regarding their followers. Attributions help individuals understand and manage themselves during an event (Weiner, 1985). In other words, behaviours of actor (source of stimulus) may prime the perceiver to make attributions about the actor (source of stimulus). Therefore, leaders' attributions of follower behaviours may further clarify why leaders react negatively to follower behaviours. Furthermore, leader attributions about the causes of follower behaviours may add further clarity as to why leaders react negatively to follower proactive behaviours. As attribution theory suggests, perceivers, when faced with negative consequences, for example, threat to their identity, due to another individuals behaviours, are likely to attribute the cause of such behaviour to the personality (internal) causes of the behaviours (Weiner, 1985). I argue that follower proactive behaviours leaders may perceive this loss of their agency as leaders and leaders' may experience leader identity threat. Leaders may perceive these negative consequences due to follower behaviours. I argue that due to the possibility of these negative outcomes for one's self, leaders will attribute such behaviours to followers' personalities and not to any external causes. In contrast, when followers engage in proficient behaviours leaders may perceive followers are supporting their leadership, this is not a negative outcome for the leader. In such cases, leaders may attribute follower proficient behaviours to an external source, for instance, followers proficient behaviours are due to the role assigned by the leader.

2.7 Role of implicit theories in identity formation and leader perceptions

This section delves into the nuances of the role of leadership schemas, i.e., ILTs, in leader identity formation and the role of leaders' ILTs in shaping their perceptions of follower behaviours as a threat to their leader identity. Lord and Maher (1990) suggest that an individual's cognitive mechanisms can be explained through the implicit theories that they hold.

Implicit theories are the mental schemas or ideas that individuals have regarding a particular subject (Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986). These mental schemas, i.e., cognitive constructions, are formed over time through socio-cultural and personal experiences (Lord et al., 1984). For instance, Engle and Lord (1997) suggest that, due to unique individual experiences, individuals' leadership schemas may differ. ILTs are cognitive structures and schemas that individuals have concerning the specific attributes and abilities of leaders (Lord et al., 1984), and implicit followership theories (IFTs) are cognitive structures and schemas regarding followers (Sy, 2010). Individuals hold both ILTs as well as IFTs (Epitropaki, Sy, Martin, Tram-Quon, & Topakas, 2013). Both ILTs and IFTs are relevant for leaders with regard to their interpretation of an event (Epitropaki et al., 2013), and may contribute to leadership schemas of individuals.

2.7.1. Implicit Leadership theories

I focus on the relevance of leaders' ILTs as a guide for leaders' perceptions when they evaluate follower behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity. Weick (1995) suggests that schemas are essential to organisational sense making and provide the basis for understanding and responding to managerial behaviour (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). Furthermore, scholars have argued that ILTs may contribute to the identity of leaders by shaping their actual and ideal (aspired) leader identities (Van Quaquebeke & Van Knippenberg, 2012). Scholars have utilised ILTs with respect to research regarding ideal leader identities as well as current leader identities (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Van Quaquebeke, Graf, & Eckloff, 2014; Van Quaquebeke & Van Knippenberg, 2012; van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, & Eckloff, 2011). Lord and Maher (1990) argue that individuals use their ILTs to

interpret and respond to a situation. Following this logic, I argue ILTs are an important aspect of a leader's identity. I postulate that leaders may use their ILTs to interpret follower behaviours with respect to their leader identity. I focus on leaders' ILTs to explain the cognitive information processing and accessing of leader identity schemas (actual and ideal leader schemas), when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours.

Researchers have delved in to ILTs and have argued through categorisation theory that individuals have categories of leadership schemas (Lord et al., 1984). Medvedeff and Lord (2007) argue that individuals implicitly match their perceptions against their mental leadership prototypes; when this match occurs, it allows the classification of the target.

2.7.2. Categorisation of leaders

Rosch (1978) posits that categorisations are based on the match between the stimulus characteristics and prototypes derived from characteristics common to the category members. In other words, categorisation is an effort to achieve cognitive economy and consists of grouping schemas based on similarities in characteristics. Shondrick, Dinh and Lord (2010) argue that during interactions, individuals utilise their schemas and, based on these schemas, categorise people with whom they interact. Categorisation takes place on the basis of the perceived match between the actual behaviour and the attributes of a pre-existing leader category or prototype that an individual represents (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). For instance, the distinction between leaders and non-leaders (Shondrick et al., 2010).

Individuals may have various categories about leadership; however, the two higher order factors of categorisation of ILTs are: prototypical leader, i.e., supportive, intelligent, honest, understanding, wise, and determined, and anti-prototypical leader, i.e., domineering and masculine (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). Perceivers can then react to the information based on the categorisation. Engle & Lord (1997) suggest that due to unique individual experiences, individuals' perceptions may differ. For instance, individuals from authoritarian backgrounds may not perceive authoritative leadership as being anti-prototypical. However, individuals who may have developed

the idea of leadership as being more democratic may perceive authoritarian leadership as anti-prototypical. Hence, individuals may react based on their unique perception of the event and their leadership schemas may influence their perceptions of the event.

Although categorisation theory focusses on categorisation of others (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Lord et al., 1984; Shondrick et al., 2010), I use this concept to understand the categorisation of the self. For instance, leaders could evaluate their actual and ideal leader identities as supportive, i.e., prototypical leaders or being more domineering leaders, i.e., anti-prototypical. For instance, individuals may also hold ideal identities, that is, what they may aspire to in the future for themselves. For example, a leader may aspire to be more prototypical, i.e., more supportive as a leader but evaluate their actual identity as being less prototypical. I argue that individuals implicitly match their perceptions against their mental leadership prototypes; when this match occurs, it allows the classification of the target.

Drawing on these arguments, I posit that ILTs and the categories of schemas (e.g., prototypical and anti-prototypical) are not only relevant with respect to leaders' identity formation but also during their self-evaluation process. In my proposed framework, I argue that leaders may use this classification of their actual and ideal leader identities when they self-evaluate follower behaviours. For instance, when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours, leaders may utilise the ILTs that they hold, with respect to their ideal and actual leader identities, to evaluate follower behaviour. A leader with prototypical leadership schemas may not evaluate a follower's proactive behaviours as a threat to their leader identity, as they identify with the idea of empowering their followers. The reverse may apply for leaders with anti-prototypical and tyrannical leader schemas.

I explain below the implications of the combinations of leadership schemas that leaders may hold when they evaluate follower behaviours.

1. Prototypical actual identity and ideal identity

When followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders with prototypical ILTs, i.e., being supportive and encouraging of followers as part of their actual and

ideal leader identities, may not experience self-discrepancy. Due to the congruence between ideal and actual identities, the discrepancy experienced by leaders is low or may not exist. They may not perceive the proactive behaviour of followers as a threat to their identity. In addition, such leaders may evaluate the proactive behaviours of followers as appropriate endorsement of their leadership, as they hold the idea that leaders should encourage followers to step in and assume responsibility.

2. Leaders with anti-prototypical actual and ideal identities

Leaders holding more anti-prototypical ILTs, i.e., domineering and in control, may experience greater self-discrepancy as they may evaluate follower proactive behaviour as a claim on their leadership. Such leaders may evaluate loss of control and loss of agency while they aspire to be in control, and may experience threat. Such leaders may evaluate the proactive behaviours of followers as a threat to their leader identity.

However, ILTs are by themselves dynamic, they can change and can be adjusted to fit changing contexts and changing input patterns (Lord & Shondrick, 2010). This may also occur during leader-follower interactions. For this, I draw on connectionist network theory (Hanges et al., 2000) to explain variations in leaders' cognitive processes due to follower behaviours.

2.7.3. Connectionist model: Leaders' access to leader schemas is dependent on follower behaviours

Just as ILTs are relevant in the formation of leader identity and guide leaders' interpretations of follower behaviours, the accessing of these mental schemas is also relevant to understanding leaders' evaluation processes. The connectionist model, a branch of ILT research, highlights the mechanism of accessing particular schemas during a particular event (Hanges et al., 2000). The accessibility and availability of these leadership schemas may influence the interpretation of the information available to individuals and may also influence their consequent reactions (Hanges et al., 2000). I draw from the connectionist model to explain variations when leaders access their ILTs to interpret proactive behaviours follower.

Hanges et al. (2000) suggest that, according to the information process models, individuals possess a limited set of schemas which are composed of discrete set of units (symbols). Depending on the context, these symbols can change or be modified (Hanges et al., 2000). Drawing from the information processing model, the connectionist model suggests that the ILTs that individuals hold are stable patterns created by units (symbols) that are connected (Hanges et al., 2000; Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). Hanges et al. (2000) argue that an aggregate pattern is evoked when such networks are activated. These schemas do not change permanently but are context dependent and are regenerated with variations (Hanges et al., 2000). The amount of activation (or inhibition) received by a particular unit is dependent upon the strength and content of the stimuli (Hanges et al., 2000). These authors posit that the connectionist network transfers activation and inhibition between connected units. When the behaviours of individuals (e.g., followers' proficient behaviours) meets expectations of the perceiver, then the perceiver may effortlessly retrieve schemas that are more stable. However, when the stimulus or the behaviour is not as expected (e.g., followers' proactive behaviours), then the patterns that evoke a particular schema may vary, and effort is required; in such instances, the schemas evoked may include variations (Hanges et al., 2000). To elaborate, when a stimulus is in line with an individual's expectations, then the stable patterns are evoked and an individual is not required to put in much effort to evoke these patterns (Lord & Kernan, 1987). However, when a stimulus is not according to expectations, then the individual experiences a barrier with respect to the activation of stable patterns and then has to pay more attention; accordingly, the schemas that may be evoked include variations (Lord & Kernan, 1987).

Drawing on these arguments, I argue that there will be variations in the patterns of leadership schemas accessed by leaders due to the proactive or proficient behaviour of followers. When followers engage in proficient behaviours, such behaviours are expected behaviours, as leaders may not experience a barrier in evoking their stable schemas. Leaders will effortlessly access their prototypical leadership schemas, as these schemas may occur through stable, set pathways. However, when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders may consider such behaviours as unexpected. Leaders may find it difficult to access their stable prototypical leadership schemas. I

posit that due to follower proactive behaviours there will be variations in leaders accessing their ILTs. This will influence the self-evaluation process of leaders and their interpretation of follower behaviours.

2.8 Consequences of leader identity threat: Leaders' negative reactions

I argue that during leader-follower interactions, leaders may not be merely passive receipts of follower behaviours but interpret such follower behaviours as a threat to their leader identity. Leaders react based on their self-enhancement motive. In this section, I focus on leaders' negative reactions, i.e., cognition and behaviours, when they experience leader identity threat triggered by follower proactive behaviours. I also propose that when leaders experience leader identity threat, they may desire to enhance their leader identity.

Striving for self-enhancement, a primary motive, for which individuals develop strategies for maintaining or enhancing their self-view (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009). These strategies are contingent upon the perceived threat to identity and manifested through an individual's cognitions and behaviour (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009). When an individual's identity is threatened, they aim to restore their devalued leader identity (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996; Kramer, 2010). Petriglieri (2011) posits that when individuals (e.g., leaders) are threatened, they may respond by engaging in derogation or discrediting of the source of the threat (e.g., followers engaging in proactive behaviours). In order to restore their threatened identities, individuals may form negative views of the source of the threat (Alicke & Govorun, 2005). I argue that in order to enhance and maintain their leader identity, leaders may form a negative attitude of the follower, for example, "the follower is rebellious". Leaders may engage in negative behaviours towards followers, such as sidelining their follower, rating the performance of the follower more negatively, engaging in petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997), or engaging in autocratic leadership towards the follower (Tepper, 2000). Leaders may evaluate proficient behaviours of followers as bolstering their leader identity. In such cases, leaders will view such followers more favourably, and consequently, leaders' behaviour towards the follower and leaders' perceptions of the follower will be more positive.

Besides these leader reactions, which may be considered as overt manifestations for maintaining their leader identity, I consider leaders' desire to enhance their leader identity when leaders experience leader identity threat due to followers' proactive behaviours. Self-enhancement is a primary motive that directs not only the evaluation process of individuals but also their reactions (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). When individuals evaluate a stimulus as a threat to their identity they desire to enhance their identity (Beer, Chester, & Hughes, 2013). In other words, when individuals experience identity threat, which devalues their identity, individuals desire to enhance their identity (Alicke, LoSchiavo, Zerbst, & Zhang, 1997). Landau, Greenberg, and Sullivan (2009) argue that individuals faced with identity threat may desire to enhance their identity. As a consequence, leaders may engage in self-affirmation of their leader identity (Fast et al., 2014). Some of the manifestations of the desire to enhance an identity are, for instance, thinking of oneself as a better-than-the-average individual or peer (Alicke & Govorun, 2005), expressing optimism for one's future self (Beer et al., 2013), or forming positive illusions about one's abilities (Robins & Beer, 2001). Drawing on these arguments, I hypothesise that leader identity threat will increase leaders' desire for leader identity enhancement.

2.9 Female followers proactive behaviours accentuate leader identity threat

I consider the gender of followers engaging in proactive or proficient behaviours to influence leaders' self-evaluation process. Gender roles are automatically activated and enable perceivers to interpret the target person's behaviours (Eagly & Karau, 2002). I posit that the gender of the follower will moderate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' leader identity threat. My framework considers that a follower's gender influences leaders' self-evaluation processes. I draw on the gender congruence theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) to argue that a leader's leader identity threat will be accentuated when female followers engage in proactive behaviours, as compared to male followers engaging in the same behaviour.

Social role theory argues that individuals expect people to behave in accordance with the stereotypical characteristics of their gender (Biddle, 1986). Gender roles include the attributes of women and men and the expectations or behavioural tendencies believed to be desirable for women and men (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Eagly and Karau (2002) suggest that characteristics that are strongly associated with women are mainly related to a concern with the welfare of people, i.e., having communal characteristics, while agentic characteristics, such as being independent, ambitious, and being a leader, are associated with men.

Eagly and Karau (2002) argue that incongruence between the expected gender role and the actual behaviour of individuals is a source of prejudice. Women engaging in agentic behaviours are perceived as violating the standards set for their gender, i.e., women should engage in supportive and communal behaviours (Eagly & Karau, 2002). As a result, women are unfavourably evaluated compared to men engaging in agentic behaviour (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Furthermore, at the workplace, men's traits are generally viewed more favourably in comparison to those of women, and men are judged as more competent (Ridgeway, 1997). In addition, Rudman and Glick (2001) argue that women are in a double-bind when they strive for leadership positions as they face the risk of being disqualified for leadership roles because agentic leadership roles are incongruent with their gender role, which require them to be supportive and engage in communal behaviours (Rudman & Glick, 2001). Karelaia and Guillén, (2014) argue that in male-dominated organisations, women leaders are more often “reminded” of general female stereotypes and female employees find it difficult to claim leader identity due to their gender.

Drawing on these arguments as well as the gender incongruity arguments (Eagly & Karau, 2002), I argue that gender incongruence further accentuates leader identity threat. I posit that when female followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders may not only evaluate female followers’ proactive behaviours as a threat to their leader identity, but leaders may also perceive these agentic behaviours as incongruent (deviating from the norm) with the female followers’ gender role. In other words, female followers’ proactive behaviours are incongruent with their expected gender role, i.e., that of being supportive and engaging in communal behaviours. However, when male followers engage in the same behaviour, leaders may not find their behaviour incongruent with their expected gender roles, due to which the intensity of leader identity threat experienced by leaders may be lower.

2.10 Individual differences moderate leaders' self-evaluation process and their reactions

Besides gender of follower being an influence on leaders evaluation process, I propose that due to individual differences there will be variations in leaders' experience of leader identity threat due to follower behaviours, and that leaders' reactions towards their followers may also vary. Individuals differ in their capabilities to regulate their thoughts as well as their behaviours (Miyake & Friedman, 2012). Individual differences can be found on various dimensions to explain cognitive and behavioural variations that occur in a given context (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010; Leary, Mark & Hoyle, 2009). Individual differences in thought and reaction may be influenced by the variations in the intrapersonal dispositions, including emotional, cognitive, motivational, and self-related dispositions among others (Bosson & Swann, 2009; Fodor, 2010; Schultheiss, 2008).

My framework considers four moderators that may highlight the individual differences in leaders' evaluation process and their reactions to follower behaviours. Although various dispositions may affect leaders' self-evaluation process, I take into consideration the influence of leaders' self-esteem and CSE in moderating leaders' self-evaluation process, when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours. I also focus on leaders' self-esteem and CSE, as these intrapersonal dispositions consist of the evaluative components of the self and comprise the individual's fundamental beliefs regarding their self-worth (Baumeister, 1999; Judge et al., 2003). I postulate that leaders' self-esteem and CSE will moderate leaders' evaluations of threat to leader identity due to follower behaviours. The next two sections discuss these moderators of leaders' self-evaluation processes. After which the moderators, i.e., leaders' implicit power and affiliation motives that may influence leaders' reactions towards their followers are discussed.

2.10.1. Leaders' self-esteem moderates leader identity threat

Self-esteem refers to an individual's general sense of his or her value or worth and is an important trait for assessing one's self-worth (Crocker & Knight, 2005; Locke, McClear, & Knight, 1996; Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995). I

postulate that leaders' self-esteem will moderate their evaluation of follower behaviours, such that a leader with high self-esteem will perceive follower proactive behaviours as less threatening compared to a leader with low self-esteem.

Scholars have highlighted the significant role of self-esteem in the self-system (Baumeister, 2011; Tesser, 1988). Self-esteem comes into play when information is self-relevant to and consists of value judgement regarding one's self. Scholars have categorised self-esteem as high and low (Crocker, Luhtanen, & Sommers, 2004). Individuals with high self-esteem have a clear and stable idea about themselves, whereas individuals with low self-esteem question themselves (Baumeister, 1999). Research indicates that individuals with high self-esteem are more positive in their outlook towards life (Crocker et al., 2004). "High self-esteem is desirable and adaptive and is an indicator of good adjustment" (Baumeister et al., 1996, p. 5). By this logic, individuals with high self-esteem individuals adapt to changes easily. Conversely, individuals with low self-esteem are unsure of themselves (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999). Individuals with low self-esteem may favour avoidance of negative feedback and want to protect themselves (Baumeister, Tice, & Hutton, 1989). Campbell and Sedikides (1999) suggest that one's self-esteem may influence the interpretation and analysis of an interaction.

The construct of self-esteem has been examined as an antecedent, as a moderator as well as an outcome variable in the social psychology literature. For instance, the role of self-esteem in self-regulation failure (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993); social judgements (Beauregard & Dunning, 2001); deviant behaviours (Ferris, Lian, Brown, Pang, & Keeping, 2010); and self-regulation (Tesser, Crepaz, Collins, Cornell, & Beach, 2000). I argue that self-esteem influences and may moderate the self-evaluation process of leaders. For instance, when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders with low self-esteem may evaluate such follower behaviours as negative feedback on their leadership, i.e., loss of agency. Such leaders may be unsure of themselves in their role as leaders and may consider their followers' proactive behaviours as a negative feedback about their leadership. Such leaders may evaluate their followers' proactive behaviours a greater threat to their leader identity. However, I posit that leaders with high self-esteem will adapt and adjust to follower

proactive behaviours, as they believe in their capabilities as leaders and will evaluate follower proactive behaviours as less threatening to their leader identity.

Although self-esteem is considered as a major evaluative components of an individual's identity (Baumeister, 2011), I posit that other components, in a combination, such as the emotional stability, locus of control and self-efficacy along with leaders' self-esteem. However, this does not mean that self-esteem equates to CSE. The additional components along with the leaders' self-esteem are considered as a higher order factor Judge et al (2003). In other words, both self-esteem and CSE are different in their operationalisations and this may add robustness to the investigations.

2.10.2. Leaders' CSE moderates leader identity threat

My framework also takes into consideration leaders' CSE as a moderator that influence leaders' self-evaluation when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours. CSE are a higher order factor which reflect an individual's assessment about herself or himself (Judge et al., 2003). They are fundamental assessments that people make about their worthiness, competence, and their ability to control their actions; such evaluations vary from positive to negative self-appraisal (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005; Judge et al., 2003). Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) argue that CSE represent fundamental conclusions that individuals have about themselves and their functioning in the world. Judge et al. (2003) argue that this construct captures and explains employee dispositions on their level of job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001), work performance (Erez & Judge, 2001; Srivastava, Locke, Judge, & Adams, 2010), and life satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998).

CSE is a superordinate construct that integrates four traits: self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (neuroticism) (Judge et al., 2003). The authors argue that these traits are central to one's self-concept and are evaluative in their focus.

1. Self-esteem: The overall self-worth that one places on oneself (Harter, 1990) and is considered as a major evaluative dimension of one's self-concept (Baumeister, 1999).

2. Generalised self-efficacy: self-efficacy is the perception of possessing the competency that is required to be effective, mobilise resources; both motivational as well as cognitive and generate outcomes in one's environment (Bandura, 1977; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). While generalise self-efficacy provides a general estimate of one's ability to perform and successfully cope in a situation (Bandura, 1977).

3. Locus of control: Rotter (1966) suggests that locus of control is the belief in one's capacity to influence the situation and produce preferred effects. Johnson, Rosen, and Levy, (2008) highlight Rotter's (1966) suggestion that individuals with internal locus of control believe that consequences of an interaction are dependent upon one's own behaviour. Conversely, individuals with an external locus of control would feel that they do not have the capability to control their environment and would feel helpless (Johnson et al., 2008).

4. Neuroticism/Emotional stability: emotional stability is the tendency to feel calm and secure (Johnson et al., 2008). Individuals with low emotional stability may focus more on the negative aspects of themselves (Watson, 2000) while individuals with high emotional stability are likely to be more confident and have a positive outlook (Johnson et al., 2008).

Judge et al. (2003) argue that each of these traits has their own uniqueness and importance; however, there is a high level of significant correlation between the four traits which suggests an underlying common core, i.e. CSE. Judge, Van Vianen, and De Pater (2004) recommend that a person's standing concerning CSE traits should be considered as a unitary factor. For instance, an individual who may have high self-esteem, high-generalised self-efficacy, and a high locus of control but who is low on emotional stability may think differently from a person who is high in all four traits. CSE have been employed as moderators in research, for instance, on perceived social stress and satisfaction (Kacmar, Collins, Harris, & Judge, 2009), and perceived prosocial behaviour and emotional exhaustion (Grant & Sonnentag, 2010). I argue that an examination of the CSE of leaders may reveal insights into leaders' evaluation processes that may be overlooked by considering self-esteem alone.

Drawing from this, I argue that leaders with a high CSE will have a more positive disposition and may believe in their abilities as leaders. Leaders with high CSE may perceive that they have the capacity to control their environment and may be emotional stable. Such leaders may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as being less threatening when compared to leaders with low CSE. On the other hand, when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders with low CSE may evaluate such circumstances as not in their control. Due to their negative disposition, they may not believe in the capability as leaders due to which they may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as more threatening to their leader identity.

2.10.3. Leaders' implicit motives moderate their reactions towards their followers

I argue that leaders react negatively to follower proactive behaviours in a bid to restore their threatened leader identity; however, leaders' reactions will be moderated by their implicit motives. Implicit motives are typically described as "wishes and desires-states of affairs that they would like to bring about (consciously or unconsciously) or, in the case of avoidance motives, states of affairs they would like to prevent" (Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen, & Duncan, 1998. p.231). Implicit motives predict the spontaneous behavioural tendencies individuals (Brunstein & Schmitt, 2004; McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989). In other words, implicit motives are motivational needs that may direct and shape an individual's behaviours in order to fulfil basic needs (Carver & Scheier, 2008; McClelland, 1987; Schultheiss, 2008). Brunstein et al. (1998) draw from McClelland (1985, 1987) and suggest that motivated behaviour is triggered once the individual perceives that there may be incentives to be obtained in the given context. McClelland (1985, 1987) argues that there are three main implicit motives that drive an individual's tendencies of behaviours: Implicit achievement motive, implicit power motive and implicit affiliation motive.

Achievement motive reflects the aspiration of individuals to pursue the best goal and engage the best possible means to achieve it. Such individuals want and believe that to do things better, they need and must have full control over the procedure (Brunstein, Schultheiss, & Grässmann, 1998; Schultheiss, 2008; Schultheiss &

Brunstein, 2005). Affiliation motive is an individual's need to derive contentment from creating, maintaining, preserving and restoring positive relationships with others (Schultheiss, 2008; Winter, 1994). While the desire to influence and impact others, and to obtain recognition, are associated with power-motivated individuals (Fodor, 2010; Schultheiss et al., 2005; Winter, 1973). People with high need for power endeavour to impress others (Fodor, 2010).

Achievement motive represents a nonconscious and recurring preference aimed at improving one's performance in order to attain rewarding experiences (Atkinson, 1957). Individuals with high achievement motive are driven to maximize the chances of succeeding at the achievement task (Pang, 2010). Implicit achievement motive indicates an individual's tendency to improve one's performance in order to achieve a particular goal. For instance, leaders may strive through their performance to build their leader identity. However, in this thesis, the focus is not on leaders own performance regarding their leadership but rather on leaders reactions to follower behaviours.

Power motives directly relate to the definition of leadership being an influencing process and the arguments of this thesis are based on loss of agency (loss of power) of leaders. Thus, leaders' implicit power motive may play a role in shaping leaders' reactions. At the same time, leadership entails a relationship between various stakeholders. Leaders' implicit affiliation motive focuses on the need to maintain positive relationships that may moderate leaders' reactions towards their followers. I argue that implicit affiliation motive may shape the strength of leaders negative reactions. In other words, greater the leaders need for affiliation, leaders will desire positive relationship with their follower and hence leaders will react less negatively. Hence, I take into consideration these two motives as moderators of leaders reactions.

Power motive or the need for power is the desire of an individual to influence and impact upon others (Schultheiss et al., 2005; Sschultheiss & Brunstein, 2002). Power motivated individuals learn and employ behaviours that allow them to impress others (Fodor, 2010; Schultheiss et al., 2005). Fodor and Smith, (1982) argue that managers and leaders who are high in power motive may select or opt for an autocratic style of management, and such leaders leave little room for subordinates' inputs and

opinions. Such leaders desire compliance from their employees with regards to their opinions (Fodor & Smith, 1982). Furthermore, in a bid to influence others, individuals with a high need for power may engage in aggressive behaviours towards others and prefer to outdo others but not get outdone by others (Fodor, 2009; Blankenship & Mason, 1987; Winter, 1973). In other words, individuals who have a high need for power dislike being influenced or impacted by others. Such individuals may behave aggressively or react negatively when others try to influence them (McClelland, 1987).

The inclusion of the power motive as a moderator of leaders' identity threat and leaders' reactions towards their followers aligns seamlessly with my theoretical framework. I posit that the perceived shift in power due to follower behaviours may bring to the forefront a leader's need for power in shaping the intensity of their reactions towards their followers; more so when leaders perceive followers engaging in proactive behaviours as claiming leadership. To elaborate, leaders may perceive follower proactive behaviours as a loss of influence and of their agency. I argue that leaders who have a high need for power would desire to influence their followers and not be influenced by them. When, due to follower behaviours, the leader identity of leaders with a high need for power is threatened, then, in order to maintain their influence, such leaders may react more negatively as compared to leaders with a low need for power.

Heyns et al. (1958) suggest that affiliation motive is the need to derive contentment and satisfaction from establishing, preserving, and repairing positive relationships with others (Weinberger, Cotler, & Fishman, 2010). Furthermore, Weinberger et al. (2010) highlight Rokeach's (1973) argument that individuals with high affiliation motive "value" peace. Furthermore, such individuals will alter their interpersonal behaviour to achieve it amicable relationships (Weinberger et al., 2010). In other words, individuals with a high need for affiliation consider disruption of sociable and positive relationships as unpleasant and are willing to make concessions to others in order to avoid such disruptions (Schultheiss, 2008). However, I follow Exline's, (1962) findings that affiliation motive is inversely related to control over others.

This, then, is relevant for my framework, as leaders with a high need for affiliation will react less negatively towards their followers despite the leader identity threat being triggered by the followers' proactive behaviours. Such leaders desire to maintain amicable relations with their followers and may avoid strong negative reactions, as a strong negative reaction towards the follower may damage the relationship between the leader and follower. However, leaders with a low affiliation motive who experience threat to their leader identity due to the proactive behaviours of their followers will be less concerned about the disruption to leader-follower relations and may react more negatively.

2.11 Summary of the theoretical framework

Follower proactive behaviours are agentic in nature and that such behaviours can be considered as signs of emergence of leadership in followers (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Leaders may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as a shift in agency from the leader to the follower and construe such behaviours as a claim to leadership (DeRue & Ashford, 2010).

I argue that leaders evaluate follower behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity based on their self-enhancement motive (Sedikides & Strube, 1997), i.e., where such follower behaviours threaten or enhance their leader identity. Furthermore, during the self-evaluation process, leaders may experience self-discrepancy between their actual leader identity (experience loss of agency) and ideal leader identity (desires for agency). Increase in an individual's negative affect is a manifestation of this discrepancy (Higgins, 1987).

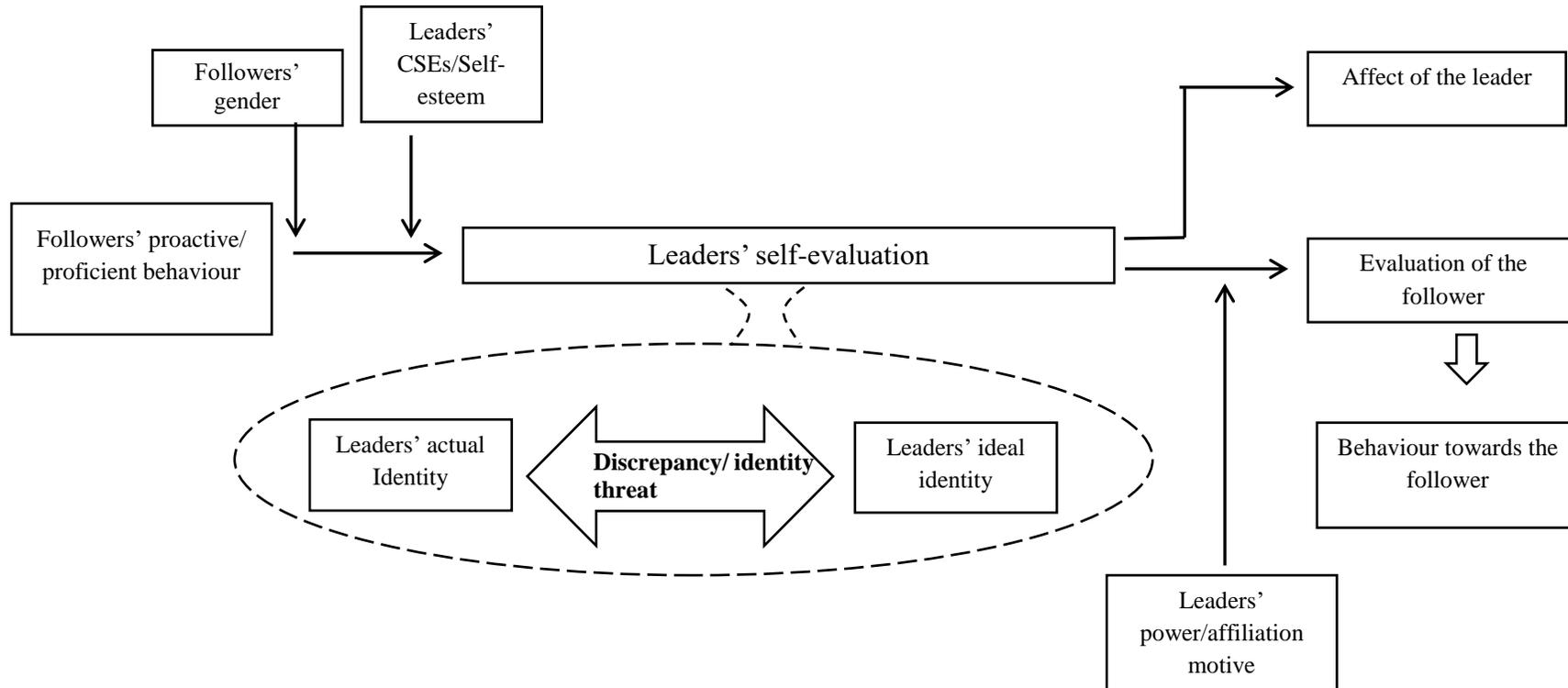
This framework also discusses leaders' cognitive processes at work when they evaluate follower behaviours. I posit that when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders' may access their anti-prototypical ILTs more easily than their prototypical ILTs

This framework highlights that leaders' self-worth, will moderate their self-evaluation process. Leaders with high self-esteem and high CSE have a higher self-worth and positive regard for themselves. Such leaders evaluate follower proactive

behaviours as less threatening to their leader identity when compared to leaders with low self-esteem or low CSE.

The consequence of leader identity threat triggered by follower behaviours is that leaders will desire to enhance their leader identity and restore it by negatively evaluating their followers. Leader's implicit motives will moderate the relationship between leader identity threat and their evaluations of their followers. Leaders' with a high power motive would react more negatively, while the intensity of negative reactions will be lower for leaders with a high need for affiliation.

Figure 2. 1 Theoretical framework of leader reactions to follower behaviours and the interplay of intrapersonal factors in an interpersonal event



Chapter 3. An Overview of the Research Methodology and Ethical Considerations

This thesis uses follower proactive and proficient behaviours in its experiments, to explain variations in leader reactions to such follower behaviours and focuses on the role of leader identity threat in shaping the reactions of leaders. This chapter explains the reasons for the use of experiments for this thesis, and highlights the experiments previously undertaken by scholars in the areas of interest of this thesis. This is followed by an explanation of the research design employed to collect data to validate the theoretical framework of this thesis. Finally, an overview of the three studies is presented and then the ethical considerations are elaborated upon.

3.1 Use of experimental method

I follow a scenario-based experimental method approach in order to prove causality between follower behaviours and leader reactions. The goal of the experimental method is the prediction of control and casualty (Watson, 1994). When researchers change conditions in order to observe their consequences, they are utilising the experimental method (Cronbach, 1975). Researchers use the experimental method and employ manipulations in their experiments to prove causality (Cronbach, 1975). From an experimental method perspective, the scientist can change the conditions to observe their consequences and the observed differences can be attributed to the change in conditions (Watson, 1994).

Another advantage of the experimental method is that it allows the experimenter to bring situational variables under control and permits rigorous tests of hypotheses and confident statements about causation (Cronbach, 1975). Experiments remove the effects of certain factors that may influence the subjects' reactions. For example, in field-based research, correlation method factors not in the control of the scientist can influence the results (Cronbach, 1975). For example, if a survey method or diary studies are to be employed to study leaders' reactions to followers, these leader reactions may be influenced by the performance history of the follower, or leaders may take into account their relationship status with the follower. Leaders may also take into account the personality of followers. These variables may dilute the

causality of the influence of follower behaviour on leader reactions. My study manipulates follower proactive or proficient behaviours to observe variations in leader reactions. Moreover, additional rigour in research takes place as experiments allow the use of manipulation checks in order to check the efficacy of the manipulation employed (Singleton & Straits, 2010). In the three studies of this thesis, manipulations checks have been employed to check the validity of the manipulations.

3.2 Use of experimental methodology in identity, proactivity, and leadership research

Besides field studies, researchers have employed experimental methodologies in order to find causality in the areas of self-evaluation (Sedikides & Strube, 1997), identity-threat (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Higgins, 1987; Menon, Thompson, & Choi, 2006) and managerial threat experience (Burriss, 2012; Fast et al., 2014). Identity research has employed the use of the experimental method to verify hypotheses regarding self-concept and its relation to mood, identity threat, self-esteem, narcissism, justice, and self-discrepancy (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999; DeCremer & Sedikides, 2005; Green, Pinter, & Sedikides, 2005; Higgins, 1987; Menon et al., 2006; Scheepers & Ellemers, 2005; Sedikides, 1988). Self-esteem and its impact on attention, attitude, and self-affirmation have been researched using experiments (Haddock & Gebauer, 2011). Core self-evaluations and their relationship to task complexities and performance (Debusscher, Hofmans, & De Fruyt, 2017) is also an area where the use of experimental design is observed. Leadership research has also employed experiments extensively to ascertain causation, for example, for understanding team structures and processes, performance, and leader attachment to the team and team member satisfaction (Kane, Zaccaro, Tremble, & Masuda, 2002; Philips, Douthitt, & Hyland, 2001). Experiments have also been conducted in the area of the dark side of leadership (Liu, Liao, & Loi, 2012), and implicit leadership (Lord et al., 1984). The experimental method has also been employed in proactivity research, such as feedback-seeking behaviour (Anseel, Van Yperen, Janssen, & Duyck, 2011), and challenging and supportive subordinate voice (Fast et al., 2014). I adopted an experimental method to establish causal associations between the study variables, i.e., follower behaviours and leader reactions.

3.3 Experimental vignette: A tool to induce manipulations

I chose to use experimental vignettes in this thesis to manipulate the variables in order to examine leader reactions. Experimental vignette methodologies (EVM) are extensively used in social psychology and are a way of addressing the issues surrounding increasing internal validity by strengthening the causal relationship of the research whilst at the same time increasing the external validity which is generally found in non-experimental research (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). EVM studies enhance experimental realism and allow researchers to manipulate and control independent variables by presenting participants with carefully created and realistic scenarios to assess various dependent variables (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). I employ vignettes as a tool to manipulate follower proactive and proficient behaviours as well as the gender of the follower in the three studies conducted, and to test the proposed theoretical framework.

3.4 Overview of the three studies

I developed three experimental studies in order to test the hypothesis of my theoretical framework. The purpose of Study 1 is to examine the relationship between leader reactions to follower proactive and proficient behaviours. This study endeavours to examine leaders' leader identity threat when followers engage in proactive behaviours, as well as the downstream consequences of leaders' evaluations regarding their followers. This study also tests the hypothesis that the gender of the follower will moderate leaders' perceptions and influence leader identity threat. An additional aim of this study was to validate the vignettes through the manipulation checks included in this study. Data were collected online, on a sample comprised mainly of participants with Indian management experience.

Study 2 expands the scope of research of Study 1 to test the hypothesis of the theoretical framework and includes the examination of leader identity discrepancy through affect. This study includes the hypotheses contained in Study 1 and broadens the scope of the conceptual model presented in Study 1 by including leader evaluations of followers' promotion potential. This study includes leader's self-esteem as a moderator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader

identity threat. Additionally, this study seeks to examine leader attributions regarding follower behaviour. This study was an online experiment conducted on a sample with managerial experience based in the USA.

Study 3 adopts the main constructs examined in Studies 1 and 2. This study also examines the role of leaders' ILTs and variations in the accessing of these ILTs in influencing leader interpretation of follower behaviours. As well as leaders' evaluations of performance and potential it also includes leaders' cognitions regarding follower interpersonal incivility. In this study, the moderator of leaders' perceptions regarding follower behaviours includes followers' gender and leaders' CSE. As well as ILTs, leaders' implicit power and affiliation motives are examined in this study. The research methodologies of each of the three studies are discussed in detail in the chapters pertaining to the specific study.

As this thesis explores the processes and outcomes of a workplace-based leadership event to explore leader reactions to follower behaviours, using participants with leadership experience would make the data collection more relevant to the theoretical assumptions and arguments. Therefore, the participants recruited for all three studies were professionals with a significant amount of work experience.

3.5 Ethical considerations

The three studies in this thesis follow the code of ethics and conduct as stated in the ethics guidelines of The University of Warwick. The research was conducted with utmost responsibility and integrity. The research design and methodology and procedure for each of the studies were submitted to the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of The University of Warwick and approval was granted for the studies to be conducted. Study 1 and Study 2 were conducted anonymously, and personal data relating to the participants were not collected. Study 2 entailed deception in the form of leadership potential feedback given to the participant. Hence, full board approval was sought and granted by The University of Warwick's ethics committee. The participants were informed of the deception at the end of the experiment. Study 3 was a field-based experiment that entailed collecting each participant's identity and email address. For this, full board approval from the

ethics committee was required and attained. As the responsibility for maintaining confidentiality lies with the researcher, the personal information of the participants remains confidential. Only the researcher herself has access to the data. All the data are kept under password protection. For Study 3, the data of individual participants were not shared with their companies. On completion of the data collection activity for this study, each participant received individualised reports regarding their inputs by email.

In keeping with the principle of respect, participants in all three studies were informed about the procedure of the study, and they gave their informed consent. For Studies 2 and 3, participants were given post-experiment feedback regarding the implications of the study. For all three studies, participants were informed that the studies were for scientific research and that their data would be kept strictly confidential. Participants were also informed that they could withdraw from the studies at any given time.

3.6 Summary

This chapter discussed the argument for the use of experiments to collect data for this thesis. This chapter also provided a preview of the research methodology employed for the three studies and explained the use of scenarios as a tool to manipulate variables. In addition, this chapter elaborated the ethical considerations followed to conduct the studies.

Chapter 4. Study 1-Follower Proactive Behaviours as Triggers of Leader Identity Threat

This preliminary study tests the hypothesis that leader identity threat will accentuate when followers engage in proactive behaviours as opposed to when followers engage in proficient behaviours. Consequently, leaders will evaluate the performance of followers engaging in proactive behaviours more negatively when compared to followers engaging in proficient behaviours. This study also tests the hypothesis that the gender of followers moderates leader identity threat when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours.

4.1 Leader identity threat due to followers' proactive behaviours

When followers engage in proactive behaviours, they use their agency to create change and improvements at the workplace (Crant, 2000). Such behaviours go beyond the standards set by leaders and “can be viewed as demonstrating a form of leadership” (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 415). Leaders may construe follower behaviours as a shift in agency from the leader to the follower and a claim to their leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). I propose that when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders may evaluate such behaviours as a threat to their leader identity.

As proposed in the theoretical framework of this thesis (see Chapter 2), leaders are not passive recipients of follower behaviours but react in order to maintain and enhance their leader identity. Alicke et al. (1997) suggest individuals may hinder the performance of other individuals who threaten their identity or when others outperform them. Negative reactions towards the source of identity threat may be a strategy employed by individuals to protect or restore their threatened identity (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009; Elsbach & Kramer, 1996). Using this logic, I propose that leaders will react negatively to followers engaging in proactive behaviours and may negatively evaluate the performance of followers engaging in proactive behaviours. However, when followers engage in proficient behaviours, leaders may conclude the followers are following standards set by them. This, in turn, will bolster their leader identity and the leader may not experience a threat to their leader identity. Leaders

may evaluate proficient behaviours as signs of followers supporting them in their role as leaders. Consequently, leaders may positively evaluate the performance of followers engaging in proficient behaviours. I propose:

Hypothesis 1: When followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders will experience greater leader identity threat and will evaluate follower performance lower as compared to when followers engage in proficient behaviours.

4.2 Role of gender as a moderator of leader identity threat

In addition to its link with leadership, agency is also associated with gender-specific role expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002). When individuals engage in a particular behaviour, gender roles are automatically activated. These gender roles influence the perceiver regarding the target person's behaviour (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The emergence of leadership behaviour (agentic behaviour) in female followers may be incongruent with the gender roles of the follower (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Men are expected to engage in agentic behaviours while the expectation from women is to engage in supportive and communal roles (Eagly, 1987). When women engage in agentic behaviours, their behaviour may be perceived as a violation of the expected gender role (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The incongruence perceived between the expected gender role and the actual behaviour of individuals can be a source of prejudice (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Ridgeway (2001) argues that there is a tendency to appraise female leaders less positively. Also there are penalties for women who engage and succeed in tasks that are expected from men (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004). Ridgeway (2001) further argues that even in same sex dyads when the perceiver is at a disadvantage, then, the perceiver showed resistance. I posit that female followers' proactive behaviours may be perceived by leaders as being agentic and incongruent with their expected gender roles of being supportive communal. Consequently, due to this incongruence, leaders may not only experience leader identity threat due to the female followers' proactive behaviour but leaders may perceive female followers engaging in agentic behaviours as a violation of the expected gender related norm. I posit that leaders' leader identity threat may get accentuated due to gender incongruence. I propose:

Hypothesis 2: The gender of followers engaging in proactive behaviours will moderate leaders' leader identity threat and the performance evaluation of the follower, such that female followers engaging in proactive behaviour will be perceived by leaders as more threatening compared to male followers engaging in proactive behaviours. Such female followers will be evaluated more negatively in comparison to male followers engaging in proactive behaviours.

4.3 Research methodology

4.3.1. Sample and procedure

In October and November 2014, these two hypotheses were tested on a sample of 61 participants who were recruited using social network platforms such as Facebook and LinkedIn from my personal network, which mainly consists of Indian professionals. The location identity information of most participants indicated that they were based in India. I used the snowballing method to recruit participants; participants were requested to refer their colleagues and networks to the study. Snowballing as a technique to recruit participants has been used by scholars in previous research (Gooty & Yammarino, 2013; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Tepper, 1995).

The sample consisted of 44 males, 11 females, and six participants who did not disclose their gender. The average age category was ($M = 4.98$, $SD = 1.77$) which indicates that the average age of the participants was in the age group 31-35 years. Seventeen participants had a Bachelor's degree, 37 participants had a Masters' level education, two had doctorates and five had technical certification as their highest qualification. The average company tenure was 16.56 years. The average number of current subordinates that participants had was 11.36 and the average of the maximum number of subordinates they had ever led was 25.44. Sixteen participants were assigned to the proactive female follower condition, 15 were assigned to the proactive male follower condition, 15 were assigned to the proficient female follower condition, and 15 were assigned to the proficient male follower condition.

4.3.2. Research design and procedure

As this study had a two-factor design, 2 (proactive vs. proficient follower behaviour) X 2 (female vs. male follower), a between-subject online experiment design was employed. First, participants gave their voluntary consent and then the participants answered demographic questions, such as age, gender, education, years of experience, number of subordinates they have currently, and the maximum number of subordinates throughout their career.

In order to make the participant's leader identity salient, the participants were asked to write a description of a real-life experience as a leader. Engaging in activities related to a particular identity enhances the salience of that particular identity (Forehand, Deshpandé, & Reed, 2002). The leader identity salience task was adapted from Forehand et al. (2002) . *“Think back to a time when you were a leader. By this we mean when you were formally in charge, either of a team or of a subordinate, and tried to motivate them. Reflect on a specific situation and try to recall how you felt, what actions you took and what happened next. (Please write between a minimum 50 words and maximum 150 words)”*.

The experiment consisted of a description of a hypothetical work situation involving interaction between a leader and a follower who displayed either proactive or proficient behaviour. Participants were asked to imagine themselves in the position of the leader. The gender of the follower was manipulated in the scenario by changing the personal pronouns (see Appendix 1 for scenarios). Each participant received only one condition, i.e., scenarios consisting of a female or male proactive follower or a female or male proficient follower. The scenario was first presented individually and then repeated on every page of the survey before the participants answered the survey questions (see form in Appendix 2). In all, there were four conditions and one survey form was developed per condition. The randomiser tool in Qualtrics was employed to randomise the conditions.

4.3.3. Measures

Leader identity threat. This variable was measured with a single item rated on a five-point scale: *“If you were the company director, to what extent you would be*

threatened by the employee's behaviour?" ranging from 1 "not at all" to 5 "very much". This enabled the measurement of leader identity threat that the participants would experience due to follower behaviours. One-item measures have previously been used by researchers to measure the dependent variable. In the meta-analysis of one-item measures related to job satisfaction, Wanous et al. (1997) found the reliability of single-item measures for job satisfaction to be as high as 0.69. This bolstered the argument for using a single-item measure with regard to leader identity threat.

Performance evaluation. Three items were adapted from Heilman and Chen (2005) regarding leaders' evaluations of follower performance. The authors used this composite measure to study the differences in supervisors' performance evaluations of employees due to the employees' gender. In this study, leaders evaluated follower performance on three items: "*Overall, how would you rate Pat's performance over the past year?*" The rating scale range was 1 "average" to 7 "excellent". "*In your opinion, how likely is it that Pat will advance in the company?*" "*What is your assessment of Pat's likelihood of success?*" For these two items, the scale range was 1- "very unlikely" to 7- "very likely". However, the model had zero degrees of freedom and was not testable. Cronbach's alpha was 0.86.

Manipulation checks. To assess the effectiveness of the follower behaviour manipulation, participants were presented with a scale to rate the proactive and proficient behaviours adapted from Griffin et al. (2007). Participants rated follower behaviours for proactive as well as proficient items on a five-point rating scale ranging from 1 "not at all" to 5 "very much". In addition, participants were provided with descriptions of proactive and proficient behaviours drawn from the proactivity literature.

The three items measuring the proactive behaviour of the follower in the scenarios included: to what extent do you think Pat "*Suggested ways to make his/her work unit more effective*", "*Developed new and improved methods to help his/her work unit perform better*" and "*Improved the way his/her work unit does things*". Cronbach's alpha was 0.94.

The three items measuring proficient behaviour of the follower in the scenarios were: to what extent do you think Pat “*Coordinated her/his work with co-workers*”, “*Communicated effectively with her/his co-workers*” and “*Provided help to her/his co-workers when asked or needed*”. Cronbach’s alpha was 0.95

At the end of the experiment, participants were provided with descriptions of proactive and proficient behaviours. These descriptions were drawn from the proactivity literature (Crant, 2000; Griffin et al., 2007; Parker et al., 2010). The aim was to check whether the participants would perceive scenarios as aligned with the descriptions of proactive or proficient behaviours. Participants rated the scenario on the proactive behaviour description, “*To what extent do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the description: Initiates change, is self-starting and future-directed?*” Participants also rated the scenario on the proficient behaviour description, “*To what extent do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the Description: Fulfils the prescribed or predictable requirements of the role?*”

I conducted a series of CFAs for the key variables in the pilot study (i.e. performance evaluation, proficient behaviour, proactive behaviours) in order to examine the discriminant validity of the measures. The single item measure leader identity threat was not included in this analysis. Results indicate that the proposed 3-factor model fits the data best with a fit indices of $\chi^2 = 31, 52, p > .001$ CFI = .98, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .07. This is a better fit than, for example, the 2-factor model which combines proficient behaviour, proactive behaviours and performance evaluation and the second factor, $\chi^2 = 212.20, 26, CFI = .43, TLI = .259$ RMSEA = .35; $\Delta\chi^2 = 181.2, df = 26; p < .001$.

4.3.4. Analytical strategy

For this study, parametric analyses were conducted using SPSS version 22. As the experiment design was between-subject, analyses using independent samples t-tests and one-way ANOVA were conducted to analyse the differences between group means (Field, 2013). For this, I created an independent variable, ‘follower behaviour’, which consisted of the conditions- follower proactive and proficient behaviours as given in the scenarios. Follower proactive behaviour condition was

coded as 1 and proficient behaviour condition as 0. In order to analyse the influence of gender on leader identity threat, an independent variable, named 'all conditions' was created. This variable consisted of all the four conditions (follower behaviours X follower gender).

4.4 Manipulation check validity: Follower behaviours

Follower behaviour manipulations were embedded in the scenarios and analysis was run to check the efficacy of the follower behaviour manipulations. Table 4.1 contains the mean, standard deviations, and correlations of the manipulation check variables as well as the other variables.

One-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders who read the proactive behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat engaged in proactive behaviour ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.76$), as compared to leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenarios ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.27$); ($F(1, 56) = 12.12$, $p < .01$).

One-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat engaged in proficient behaviour ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 0.64$), as compared to leaders who received scenarios where followers engaged in proactive behaviours ($M = 2.55$, $SD = .98$; $F(1, 56) = 58.82$, $p < .001$).

One-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders who read the proactive behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat's behaviours were aligned to the proactive behaviours description ($M = 4.24$, $SD = 0.51$), as compared to leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenarios ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.15$); $F(1, 55) = 26.71$, $p < .001$).

One-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat's behaviour was aligned to the proficient behaviour description ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 0.48$), as compared to leaders who received scenarios where followers engaged in proactive behaviours ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 0.78$); ($F(1, 56) = 18.21$, $p < .001$).

These results suggest that the follower proactive and proficient behaviours presented in the scenarios were distinct from each other and aligned to their respective

descriptions given in the proactivity literature (Griffin et al., 2007). Hence, the descriptions of proactive and proficient follower behaviour in the scenarios were effective as manipulations.

4.5 Results

An independent-samples t-test indicated a significant difference in the leader identity threat between proactive ($M = 1.81$, $SD = 0.83$) and proficient follower conditions ($M = 1.27$, $SD = 0.45$,); $t(59) = 3.13$, $p < .01$). There were no significant differences between conditions in the leaders performance evaluation of followers between proactive follower behaviour conditions ($M = 5.98$, $SD = 0.70$) and follower proficient behaviour conditions ($M = 5.90$, $SD = 1.01$,); $t(59) = 0.41$, $p = .68$). However, there was a moderate negative correlation between leader identity threat and their evaluation of followers ($r = -0.33$, $p < .05$). This suggests that although there were no significant differences between the experimental groups, leaders whose identity was threatened tended to evaluate follower performance more negatively as compared to leaders whose identity was not threatened. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

To test Hypothesis 2, a one-way ANOVA was conducted in order to compare the four conditions. The results indicated significant differences between conditions for leader identity threat ($F(3, 57) = 3.76$, $p < .05$), but not in their performance evaluation of followers ($F(3, 57) = 0.37$, $p = .77$). Post-hoc tests revealed that leader identity threat was significantly higher for female followers who engaged in proactive behaviour than for female followers who engaged in proficient behaviour ($M = 1.94$, $SD = 0.92$, and $M = 1.20$, $SD = 0.41$, $F(3, 57) = 3.76$, $p = .035$ respectively). No significant differences were found between proactive and proficient behaviours when the follower described in the scenario was male. These results partially support Hypothesis 2. Leaders perceived a higher level of threat in response

to the proactive behaviour of followers, more so for female followers engaging in proactive behaviours².

² Results of one-way ANOVA (post hoc) 2 (follower behaviours) X 2 (follower gender) conducted separately for the male and female samples revealed no differences between the groups.

Table 4. 1 Correlations for proactive and proficient conditions for Study 1

| Variables | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|--------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|--------|-------|------|
| Gender | 1.20 | .40 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age ¹ | 4.98 | 1.77 | -.32* | | | | | | | | | | |
| Highest education ² | 1.92 | .80 | -.35** | .22 | | | | | | | | | |
| Work experience | 16.56 | 10.75 | -.29* | .96** | .14 | | | | | | | | |
| Current subordinates | 11.77 | 17.80 | -.09 | .26 | -.01 | .24 | | | | | | | |
| Maximum subordinates | 25.44 | 42.89 | -.13 | .38** | -.14 | .44** | .51** | | | | | | |
| Leader identity threat | 1.54 | .72 | -.05 | -.07 | .16 | -.05 | -.06 | .02 | | | | | |
| Performance evaluation | 5.92 | .86 | .24 | .26* | -.13 | .26* | .25 | .18 | -.31* | | | | |
| Proficient behaviour | 3.39 | 1.17 | .00 | -.07 | .10 | -.15 | .01 | .08 | -.31* | .08 | | | |
| Proactive behaviour | 3.39 | 1.14 | .19 | .23 | -.17 | .23 | .19 | .18 | .03 | .52** | -.23 | | |
| Proactivity alignment | 3.64 | 1.07 | .08 | .27* | -.16 | .262* | .24 | .17 | .17 | .40** | -.37** | .83** | |
| Proficiency alignment | 3.98 | .74 | .03 | -.08 | .03 | -.13 | .02 | -.05 | -.25 | .30* | .60** | .06 | -.19 |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

¹Gender variable is categorical 1= female, 2 = male. ²Education is categorical: 1 = Bachelors, 2= Master 3= PhD, 4 = Technical

Age was categorised as 1 = under 18 year, 2 = 18-25 years, 3 = 26 to 30 years, 4 = 31-35 years, 5 = 36-40 years, 6 = 41-50 years, 7 = 51-60 years, 8 = 61 and above

4.6 Discussion

This study provided an initial test of the idea that follower proactive and proficient behaviours may influence leaders' leader identity and that leaders may construe the proactive behaviours of followers as a threat to their leader identity. Furthermore, the findings of this study indicate that leaders' leader identity threat was even more accentuated when female followers engaged in proactive behaviours. This section discusses the theoretical and research contributions and limitations of this study.

Theoretical contributions to the leadership literature: Leadership literature has focused on the influence of individuals in leadership positions (Avolio, 2007); however, this study provides support for the argument that followers can also influence leaders through their behaviours. The findings of this study suggest that leaders' leader identity threat increased due to follower proactive behaviours as compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours. These findings provide support for the argument that leaders may perceive a shift in agency due to follower behaviours. These findings lend support to DeRue and Ashford's (2010) argument that followers, through their behaviours, can influence leaders.

Secondly, the findings of this study indicate that leaders experience leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours; this highlights the finding that leaders' identity plays a role when they evaluate follower behaviours. This finding supports the argument that identity plays an important role in individuals' evaluation of a stimulus (Oyserman & James, 2011; Sedikides & Strube, 1997). This study adds to the findings of Fast et al. (2014) that leaders experience threat due to their follower behaviours. By focusing on leader identity threat, researchers may gain better clarity about leaders' cognitions and behaviours when followers' behaviours initiate the process of leadership.

Contributions to the proactivity literature: The result of proactive behaviours can be negative or positive for the target of the self, other people, and the organisation (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). Positive outcomes of proactive behaviour have been widely researched, such as bringing about improvement-oriented change (Crant, 2000), and bringing about positive change in

organisations (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Employees also benefit from their proactive behaviour, for instance, through higher salaries, higher promotions, and better career success (Seibert et al., 1999; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). However, the results of Hypothesis 1 support the finding that follower proactive behaviours can be associated with leader identity threat – a negative outcome for the leader. Fast et al. (2014) argue that subordinate challenging voice may prompt an ego defensive mechanism in leaders to which leaders may react negatively. Taking into account Fast et al.'s (2014) research, as well as this study, one can indeed suggest that followers engaging in activities that are proactive in nature may have negative outcomes for leaders. The findings of this study concur with Detert and Burris's (2007) argument that leaders do not always appreciate followers' proactive behaviours. Researchers can draw from these findings to examine the negative or unintended outcomes of different types of proactive behaviours.

Moreover, this study adds to the repertoire of experimental studies in the proactivity literature. The experimental design of this study has enabled causal explanations about leader identity threat and the reactions of leaders to follower behaviour. Experiments have previously been employed in proactivity research, such as, challenging and supporting voice (Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014; Howell, Harrison, Burris, & Detert, 2015), and the influence of proactivity and prosocial values (Grant & Rothbard, 2013). This study extends the use of experiments in proactivity research by contrasting follower proactive behaviours and proficient behaviours in order to tease out the distinct influences of these follower behaviours on leaders. Fast et al. (2014) examined the construct of voice and its role as an improvement, and change-oriented discretionary communication of suggestions and ideas (Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011). In contrast, this study examined the effect of proactive behaviours, capturing the implementation of change by followers on leaders. As the scenarios stated that the “client is satisfied” with both the proactive and proficient behaviours of the follower, this rules out the possibility that leaders reacted to the uncertainty of the outcome of proactive behaviour. Researchers can use similar experimental designs to study the outcomes of proactive behaviours, such as taking charge, issue selling, feedback-seeking behaviours, and contrast these with other work behaviours.

This study also explored the role of followers' gender as a moderator of leader perceptions. The findings suggest that female followers accentuated leader identity threat. Scholars have taken cognisance that the gender of the leader plays an important role in shaping individual's perceptions about women leaders, as well as their behaviour towards women in leadership roles (Eagly, 1987; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Even though researchers have delved into the antecedents to the outcomes of proactivity (Grant & Ashford, 2008), the role of women in the proactivity literature has been fairly muted.

Gender and gender roles are entwined with social hierarchies and leadership (Ridgeway, 2001). Gender stereotypes and gender biases are an existing reality (Ridgeway, 2001). This study highlights the "cognitive distortions" (Heilman, 2001) that occur in workplace events due to the gender of the actors involved. By folding in gender as a moderator of leader identity threat, the findings of this study suggest that female followers engaging in proactive behaviours, i.e., being agentic, may be perceived by leaders as being incongruent with female followers' gender roles, i.e., being supportive. This finding enriches both the proactivity as well as leadership literatures. This finding may provide a platform for further research into building arguments regarding the implications of proactive behaviour on the emergence of leadership in women.

Although variations in leaders' evaluation of follower performance was not a significant finding, the correlations indicate that an increase in leader identity threat reduced leaders' evaluation of follower performance. Although Seibert et al. (1999) show that proactive behaviours increase career growth prospects, this study highlights the finding that leaders are likely to evaluate follower proactive behaviours lower on performance if their leader identity is threatened. This highlights the subjectivity of leaders' evaluation of follower performance, despite the positive outcomes of follower behaviours. This implication enriches the proactivity literature by highlighting the finding that proactive behaviours may not necessarily lead to positive outcomes for the individuals engaging in proactive behaviours.

Limitations: One of the limitations of this study was the unequal gender distribution of the sample. One of the reasons for this may be due to the disproportionate

representation of women in the Indian labour force. The participation rate for females in the Indian workforce was 25.33% of the total labour force in 2011, for example (The World Bank, 2012). A balanced representation of male and female leaders would have enriched the outcomes of leader cognitions in this study. Furthermore, the sample consisted of participants who were mainly professionals from India. For the findings of this study to be generalisable, a replication of this study with proportionate gender participation in other cultural contexts is required.

Although this study explores and examines the causality between follower behaviour and leader identity threat, a more detailed examination is required. How does leader identity threat occur and what are the processes involved in its occurrence? Do individual differences matter in shaping leaders' interpretation of, and reactions to, follower behaviours? These questions need answers. The following Studies 2 and 3 intend to address these issues.

4.7 Conclusion

The results of this study provide initial support for the idea that leaders may perceive follower proactive behaviour as a claim to leadership. This finding contributes to the literature on leadership where followers' behaviours influence leaders and relates to the proactivity literature that delves into outcomes of proactivity. Leaders may evaluate such follower behaviours as a threat to their leader identity, more so in the case of female followers. This preliminary study lays the groundwork for the next two studies of this thesis.

Chapter 5. Study 2 - Follower Proactive Behaviours Increase Leader Identity Threat: A Discrepancy between Ideal and Actual Leader Identities

This chapter tests the hypotheses that followers' proactive behaviours may cause leader identity threat, the discrepancy between their ideal and actual leader identities. Due to this leader identity threat, leaders may desire to restore their threatened leader identity by negatively evaluating their followers. This study hypothesises that the discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal leader identities will be manifested through an increase in leaders' agitation and feelings of dejection. This discrepancy will influence leaders' reactions. When threatened by follower proactive behaviours, leaders may desire to enhance their leader identity.

Also, this study explores leaders' attributions regarding follower proactive and proficient behaviours. As well as followers' gender moderating leader identity threat, leaders' self-esteem is also investigated as a moderator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat (see Figure 5.1). Finally, in order to probe the influence of leader identity salience task on leaders' self-evaluation process, this study manipulates the task–leader identity salience, in its experiment.

5.1 Leader identity threat due to followers' proactive behaviours

I posit that leaders evaluate follower proactive and proficient behaviours vis-à-vis their leader identity. Drawing from Sedikides and Strube (1997), I argue that the self-evaluation process undertaken by leaders is driven by their self-enhancement motive which guides their interpretation of follower behaviours as well as their reactions. Drawing from Morrison and Phelps (1999) argument, I postulate that leaders may perceive follower proactive behaviours as a claim to their leadership as a loss of their agency as leaders. As a result, leaders may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as leader identity threat. This then diminishes their positive regard for their leader identity (Sedikides & Strube, 1997). The arguments for which have been presented in the theoretical framework (see Chapter 2) as well as in Study 1 (see Chapter 4). The experience of identity threat may motivate individuals to enhance and restore their identity, and leaders may engage in strategies such as negatively evaluating their

followers (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009; Elsbach & Kramer, 1996; Major & O'Brien, 2005). I posit that in a bid to restore their leader identity which may be threatened due to followers' proactive behaviours, leaders will negatively evaluate the performance and promotion potential of followers' engaging in proactive behaviours. These arguments have been discussed in the theoretical framework and Study 1 of this thesis (see Chapters 2 and 4).

In this study, I also explore leaders' desire to enhance their leader identity when they evaluate followers' proactive behaviours as a threat to their leader identity. When individuals evaluate a stimulus as a threat to their identity, then, they are motivated to enhance and protect their identity as they desire positive self-regard (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009; Elsbach & Kramer, 1996). Landau et al. (2009) argue that individuals, when faced with identity threat, desire to enhance their identity. Individuals who desire to enhance their identity may have a tendency to depict themselves as more positive than necessary (Green, Sedikides, & Gregg, 2008). Taylor and Armor (1996) suggest that an individual's positive self-perceptions are related to positive psychological outcomes. For instance, evaluating one's self as significantly better than peers (Alicke & Govorun, 2005) is considered as evidence of an underlying self-enhancement motivation (Beer et al., 2013). Drawing from these arguments, I propose that follower proactive behaviours may be evaluated by leaders as a threat to their leader identity and, as a consequence, leaders may desire to enhance their leader identity. Leaders need for identity enhancement will be manifested in leaders' assessment of themselves as leaders with high potential. In comparison, when followers engage in proficient behaviours, leaders will not experience threat and their desire for leader identity enhancement will be much lower.

I posit that leader identity threat mediates the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers as well as leaders' need for leader identity enhancement. I propose:

Hypothesis 1: Leader identity threat will mediate the relationship between followers' behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers, such that follower proactive behaviours will (a) increase leader identity threat. This,

in turn, will be negatively related to leaders' evaluation of followers' (b) performance and (c) promotion potential, but will be positively related to leaders' need for (d) leader identity enhancement.

5.2 Leader identity threat is the discrepancy between actual and ideal leader identities

In this thesis, I argue that follower proactive behaviour may result in discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal identities. Higgins (1987) argues that self-discrepancy is the discrepancy experienced by individuals between the actual leader identity and the ideal leader identity. Furthermore, Higgins (1987) suggests that discrepancy between ideal and actual identities is an evaluation of not achieving the aspired positive outcomes one "hoped for" for a particular identity. When a stimulus causes discrepancy between these identities, individuals experience discomfort (Higgins, 1987; Strauman & Higgins, 1987). Higgins et al., (1986) argue that the discomfort is the individual's vulnerability that causes emotional distress and is manifested through increase in negative affective states. Higgins et al. (1986) and Higgins (1987) posit that affect changes are manifestations of identity discrepancy, i.e., an increase in agitation and dejection affect are manifestations of self-discrepancy.

Higgins et al. (1986) and Higgins (1987) suggest that specific types of self-discrepancies lead to specific types or patterns of discomfort, i.e., a discrepancy between actual-ought identities occurs when ought standards are violated, and this leads to an increase in agitation (feelings of fear and restlessness). When individuals experience discrepancy between their actual-ideal identities, they experience dejection (worthlessness, disappointment, dissatisfaction, and sadness) (Higgins et al., 1997).

Higgins (1987) argues that discrepancy between identities can be inferred through changes that occur in an individual's affect. The author argues that increase in an individual's agitation is a manifestation of discrepancy between ought and actual identities. Meanwhile an increase in dejection can be inferred as a manifestation of increase of discrepancy between ideal and actual identities. As Higgins (1987) states,

the discrepancy between an individual's identities are manifested through an increase in leaders' agitation and dejection. This argument has been challenged by Heppen and Ogilvie (2003); they argue that discrepancies between ideal-actual identities predict dejection but discrepancies between ought and actual identities did not predict agitation. In another study, Tangney et al. (1998) found that discrepancies related to both ideal and ought identities predicted both agitation and dejection.

In this study, the change in leaders' agitation and dejection is a manifestation of leaders' ideal and actual discrepancy and this discrepancy is inferred as leader identity threat. I posit that leaders may hold an ought leader identity which may consist of "leaders ought to have agency," while their ideal leader identity may desire agency. I argue that leaders' ought identity may be part of their ideal leader identity. I also argue that in those cases where identity discrepancy is experienced by leaders, their agitation as well as their feelings of dejection will increase. However, in the case where leaders' ought identity and ideal identity consists of "sharing agency" with followers, then they will not experience discrepancy because of follower proactive behaviours. Hence, I do not take into consideration leaders' ought leader identity but focus on the discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal identities that may occur due to follower proactive behaviours.

Drawing from these arguments, I theorise that leaders may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as a loss of their agency regarding their actual leader identity. This evaluation may increase the discrepancy between their actual leader identity (experiencing loss of agency) and ideal leader identity (aspiring agency). As the actual and ideal discrepancy is inferred and has been captured through the lens of affect. As Higgins (1987) states that discrepancy will be manifested through an increase in leaders' agitation as the discrepancy between ideal and actual identities. While increase in dejection is a manifestation of discrepancy between ideal and actual identities. The change in leaders' agitation and dejection is a manifestation of leader identity discrepancy and indicates leader identity threat.

Higgins (1987) argues that an increase in agitation is a manifestation of discrepancy between ought and actual identities while increase in dejection is a manifestation of increase of discrepancy between ideal and actual identities. Previous studies (Carver,

Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999; Higgins, Bond, Klein, & Strauman, 1986; Phillips & Silvia, 2005) have employed agitation to measure the actual-ought discrepancy and have measured increased in dejection to infer discrepancy between actual-ideal identities. However, as Tangney et al. (1998) have argued that both agitation and dejection predicted ideal and actual discrepancy but not actual and ought identity discrepancy. In the light of Tangney et al.'s (1998) argument, I included both measures of affect to investigate the discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal leaders identities, in Study 2.

The magnitude of this discrepancy is manifested in the degree of discomfort that individuals experience (Higgins et al., 1986). A larger the magnitude of discrepancy indicates greater discomfort, a manifestation of identity threat (Higgins, 1987). To elaborate, when leaders evaluate follower proactive behaviours as causing a greater loss to their agency as leaders then the discrepancy between their ideal and actual leader identities is also large and leaders may experience greater discomfort (greater increase in agitation and dejection affect). However, when followers engage in proficient behaviours, then leaders may evaluate such behaviours as signs of support for their leadership. In such cases, leaders may not experience a discrepancy between their leader identities.

As argued in the theoretical framework (see Chapter 2) of this thesis, reacting negatively towards the source of identity threat are some of the strategies and responses that individuals employ to restore their threatened identity (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009; Elsbach & Kramer, 1996). In other words, individuals react in ways to reduce the discrepancy between their ideal and actual identities and desire to restore their threatened identity (Landau et al., 2009). I argue that leaders may react negatively towards followers engaging in proactive behaviours and at the same time, leaders will desire to enhance their leader identity. I posit that change in leaders' agitation and dejection will explain the association of follower behaviours with leader negative evaluations of the follower, as well as their desire for leader identity enhancement. I propose:

Hypothesis 2: (a) When followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders' agitation affect will increase as compared to when followers engage in

proficient behaviours; (b) When followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders' dejection affect will increase as compared to when followers engage in proficient behaviours.

Hypothesis 3: Change in leaders' agitation will mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of the follower, such that followers' proactive behaviours will be positively related to change in leaders' agitation, which, in turn, will be negatively related to their evaluation of followers' (a) performance and (b) promotion potential, but positively related to leaders' need for (c) leader identity enhancement.

Hypothesis 4: Change in leaders' dejection will mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of the follower, such that followers' proactive behaviours will be positively related to change in leaders' dejection, which, in turn, will be negatively related to their evaluation of followers' (a) performance and (b) promotion potential, but positively related to leaders' need for (c) leader identity enhancement.

Hypothesis 5: Leader identity threat will be related to change in leaders' agitation and leader reactions. Specifically, there will be mediation effects of leader identity threat through change in leaders' agitation (parallel mediation) on the three measures of leader reactions. Leader identity threat will be positively associated with increase in leaders' agitation due to follower behaviours which will in turn negatively associated with leaders' evaluation of follower (a) performance and (b) promotion potential, and positively associated with leaders' (c) leader identity enhancement.

Hypothesis 6: Leader identity threat will be related to change in leaders' dejection and leader reactions. Specifically, there will be mediation effects of leader identity threat through change in leaders' dejection (parallel mediation) on the three measures of leader reactions. Leader identity threat will be positively associated with increase in leaders' dejection due to

follower behaviours which will in turn negatively associated with leaders' evaluation of follower (a) performance and (b) promotion potential, and positively associated with leaders' (c) leader identity enhancement.

5.3 Leaders attribute followers' proactive behaviours to followers' personal characteristics

This study explores leaders' judgements about followers engaging in proactive and proficient behaviours. I posit that leaders are likely to attribute, follower proactive behaviours to the personality and internal characteristics of the follower. Attributions are the perceived cause of an event by the target (e.g., leader) as being internal (e.g., follower personality) or external (e.g., the context) (Weiner, 1985). Attributions are relevant as they may influence the perceivers' subsequent behaviours, motivations, cognitions, and affect (Weiner, 1985).

Attributions are an individual's attempt to understand the causes of an observed behaviour as the personal dispositions of the actor (internal attribution) and their surrounding (external attribution) (Storms, 1973; White, 1991). Kelley (1971) states that the goal of the attributor to engaging in such an exercise is to enhance his/her knowledge so that he/she can effectively manage her/himself in a particular situation. Weiner (1985) suggests that the perceiver attributes personally relevant negative outcomes (e.g., leader identity threat) to the internal characteristics (e.g., followers' personal characteristics) of the person that caused the negative outcome for the perceiver.

Drawing from these arguments, I postulate that the proactive behaviours of followers may cause leaders to experience leader identity threat and as a result, leaders may then attribute this to the personal characteristics (internal attribution) of the follower. To elaborate, leaders may construe the follower proactive behaviours as a claim to leaders' agency. In such cases, leaders may evaluate the outcome of followers' proactive behaviours as being negative for themselves. As Weiner (1985) suggest if the outcomes of an individual's behaviour are negative for the perceiver, then the perceiver attributes this behaviour to the individual's personal characteristics. In this thesis, I postulate that leaders will attribute follower proactive behaviours to the

personal characteristics of the follower. I theorize that leaders may evaluate that followers proficient behaviours as following the standards set by the leaders. In such cases, leaders are not threatened by follower proficient behaviours. Drawing from Weiner (1985), I posit that leaders will not attribute follower proficient behaviours to the internal/personal characteristics of the follower; rather, they may attribute it to an external context, for example, leaders' leadership as the reason for followers' proficient behaviour.

Molm, Peterson, and Takahashi (2003) argue that in an exchange relationship (e.g., leader-follower relations), there is a stake for both partners. Molm et al. (2003) suggest that the actors in this relationship evaluate fairness in terms of their interest. If the outcome of one actor's behaviour (e.g., follower proactive behaviour), is negative (e.g., causing leader identity threat), then the decision-maker's (e.g., the leader's) perceptions regarding the individual causing the adverse outcome are altered (Molm et al., 2003). Consequently, the decision-maker (e.g., the leader) attributes the responsibility of the actor's behaviours (e.g., the proactive behaviour) to the actor (e.g., the follower) (Molm et al., 2003). I propose:

Hypothesis 7: When followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders will attribute the (a) responsibility of follower behaviour more to the follower and (b) leaders will attribute followers' proactive behaviour to the personal characteristics (internal attribution) of the follower in comparison to when followers engage in proficient behaviours.

5.4 Leaders' self-esteem moderates leader identity threat

This study argues that leaders' self-esteem moderates the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat. Self-esteem is an appraisal of one's self and plays a significant role in the interpretation of workplace events (Baumeister, 1999; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Furthermore, self-esteem not only affects and individual's interpretation of an event but also the individual's ability to adapt to a particular situation (Crocker & Park, 2004; Kernis, 2003). Self-esteem has been associated with a wide range of psychological adjustments and shapes how people think about themselves (Crocker & Park, 2004; Kernis, 2003).

Researchers have explored self-esteem as a trait, i.e., people with high or low self-regard (Crocker & Park, 2004). Individuals with high self-esteem have a greater belief in themselves and a higher self-worth; such individuals are well anchored and secure (Baumeister et al., 1985). Conversely, individuals with low self-esteem are unsure of themselves (Baumeister et al., 1985). Such individuals have low self-concept clarity and their self-concept is held with little confidence (Kernis, 2003). Masten and Coatsworth (1998) recognise self-esteem as a characteristic of resilient people, those who can thrive despite adverse life experiences.

I propose that leaders' self-esteem will moderate leaders' interpretation of follower behaviours and that leaders with low self-esteem will be unsure and have low confidence in themselves in their leadership roles. I postulate that leaders with low self-esteem will evaluate followers proactive behaviours as a claim to their leader identity, such leaders will experience greater leader identity threat. Conversely, I posit that leaders with high self-esteem will be confident about themselves as leaders and may not interpret proactive behaviours as threatening to their leader identity in comparison to leaders with low self-esteem. I propose:

Hypothesis 8: Leaders' self-esteem will moderate the relationship between followers' behaviours and leaders' leader identity threat, such that the relationship between follower proactive behaviours and leader identity threat will be stronger for leaders with low self-esteem as compared to leaders with high self-esteem.

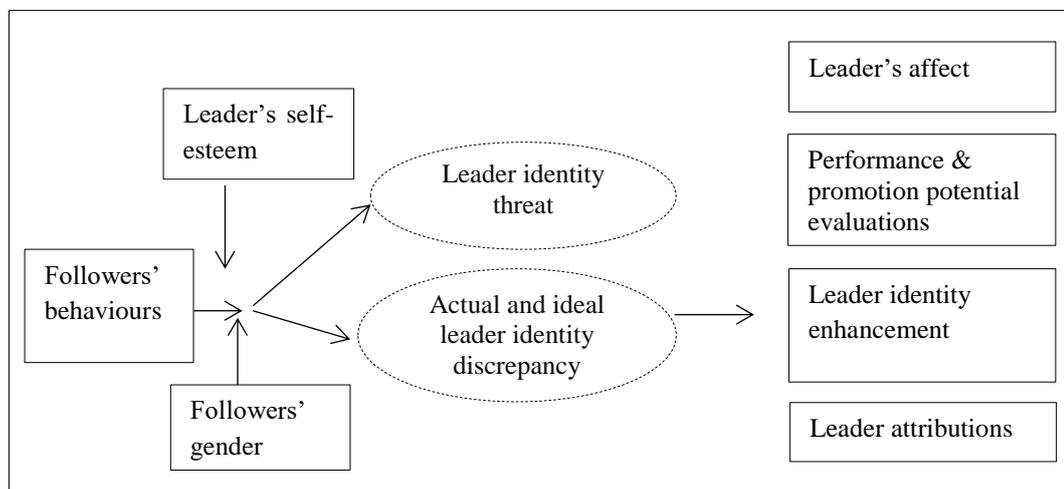
5.5 Role of followers' gender in influencing leader identity threat

As, according to gender incongruity theory (Eagly & Karau 2010), female followers are expected to engage in supportive behaviours and not agentic behaviours, I posit that when female followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders may perceive such behaviours as being incongruent with the gender roles that female followers ought to engage in. Such incongruity will further accentuate the leader's leader identity threat. In this study, as well as in Study 3, I take into consideration followers' gender as a moderator of leader identity threat.

The results of Study 1 indicate that leaders may perceive the proactive behaviours of female followers as a greater threat to their leader identity compared to when male followers engage in proactive behaviours. Implementing a set of experiments, this study also tests this hypothesis. I propose:

Hypothesis 9: The gender of followers will moderate leader identity threat, such that leaders will experience more leader identity threat when female followers engage in proactive behaviours, as compared to when male followers engage in the same behaviour.

Figure 5.1 Theoretical model for Study 2



5.6 Research methodology

5.6.1. Sample and procedure

Data collection was anonymous, through a UK-based panel agency, Prolific Academic. The sample consisted of 273 professionals based in the USA. The participant selection criteria were English as a first language, a minimum of two years of work experience, and the participants should have supervised a minimum of two subordinates in their career. Participants received £4 for their participation (\$

5.90)³. I launched two identical online experiments simultaneously for male and female participants. Twelve participants did not meet the supervisory experience criteria and ten cases were blank. The final sample had 251 participants, of whom 137 were men, 112 women, and two individuals did not disclose their gender. The average age of participants was 35.16 years. The average period of work experience was 15.23 years. The average number of current subordinates supervised by the participants was 8.80, while the average of the maximum number of subordinates supervised was 16.52. Regarding the highest education qualification, 40 had completed high school, 155 participants held a Bachelor's degree, 40 held a Master's degree and seven held Doctorates.

5.6.2. Research design and procedure

The study was an online experiment conducted on the Qualtrics platform. Participants had one hour to complete the experiment. The experiment consisted of a 3X2 factor design (proactive vs. proficient follower behaviour) x (female vs. male follower) x (leader identity salience vs. no salience). This experiment consisted of both between and within subject measures. The follower behaviour and gender manipulations in the scenarios were identical to Study 1. In this study, participants were randomly assigned to the leader identity salience task. One hundred and twenty four participants wrote an account of their experiences as leaders (see Chapter 4). One hundred and twenty six participants were not assigned to this task and formed the control group (see condition-wise distribution in Appendix 5). Then, all the participants had to complete the task, *“Please tell us about yourself in your own words. Please take about a minute to do so.”* This check for leader identity salience was adapted from Forehand et al., (2002). The expectation was that participants who received the leader salience treatment would write more about themselves as leaders, an indication of increase in participants' leader identity salience.

³ Funded by ESSEC Business School (Paris).

Participants then completed a pre-test affect measure. Then participants read one of the four randomly-assigned scenarios (see Appendix 1). After this, participants completed the post-test affect measure. Then the participants completed a series of measures of leader evaluation of followers' performance and potential as well as leaders' attributions of follower behaviours. Participants also completed the leader identity enhancement measures and, finally, this was followed by the follower behaviour manipulation checks. These checks were identical to those in Study 1.

5.6.3. Measures

Leader identity threat. This measure consisted of seven items. The first item was identical to the leader identity threat item in Study 1 and of the other six items, four were adapted from Menon et al. (2006). The first three items were (a) *"If you were the company director, to what extent would you be threatened by Pat's behaviour?"* (b) *"To what extent would your position as the leader be threatened by Pat's behaviour?"* (c) *"To what extent would your competence as a leader be threatened by Pat's behaviour?"* These items were measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 "Not at all threatened" to 5 "Highly threatened". The next four items were (d) *"How important would it be for you to maintain the original procedure you had established?"* (e) *"How likely is it that others in the management team will question your ability as an effective leader if they heard about Pat's actions?"* (f) *"How likely is it that you will lose status in the organization if your superiors heard about Pat's actions?"* (g) *"How important would it be for you that Pat follows the procedure you devised?"* These items were measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 "Not at all likely" to 7 "Very likely".

Due to the variations in the ranges of the scales, (1 to 5) and (1 to 7), these seven items were standardised using "z-transformation" procedures. Colman et al., (1997) suggest the use of this method when scale ranges differ. Because of the single item included along with Menon et al. (2006) items, I conducted an EFA on these standardised z-score items with principal axis factoring and oblimin rotation. The results supported a two-factor solution. The factor with five items represented leader identity threat, the item loadings were a = .85, b = .92, c = .87, e = .83 and f = .87 and the internal reliability was $\alpha = 0.94$. Two items were loaded onto the second factor,

which represented importance of procedure and not leader identity threat. These items, (d) and (g), were dropped.

Leaders' agitation and dejection. Higgins et al.'s (1997) six dejection-cheerfulness-related affect items (*disappointed, discouraged, low, sad, happy, and satisfied*) and six agitation-acquiescence-related affect items (*agitated, on edge, uneasy, tense, calm, relaxed*) were used to measure discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual identities. Items were presented in randomised order. Participants rated the items on a six-point scale ranging from 1 "not at all" to 6 "extremely". Four items were reverse coded (*calm, relaxed, happy, and satisfied*).

Four variables were created: Pre-test agitation ($\alpha = 0.87$); Post-test agitation ($\alpha = 0.87$); Pre-test dejection ($\alpha = 0.84$); and Post-test dejection ($\alpha = 0.85$).

Performance evaluation. The three items measuring performance evaluation of followers were identical to those used in Study 1. Cronbach's alpha for these three items was 0.84.

Promotion potential. Four items from Heilman and Chen (2005) measured leaders' perceptions of followers' promotion potential. The items were: "Would you recommend Pat for the following: (a) "promotion", (b) "bonus", (c) "salary increase" and (d) "high profile project". Participants rated the items on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 "not at all likely" to 7 "very likely. The internal reliability of these four items was ($\alpha = 0.90$).

Leader identity enhancement. To measure the influence of follower proactive behaviours on leaders' need for leader identity enhancement, I used the procedure described by Landau et al. (2009). First, participants completed a 12-item leadership potential questionnaire adapted from Northouse (2010). Regardless of their responses, all participants received standard feedback about their leadership potential, indicating that their leadership potential score was above 92% and that they were among the top eight percent of the sample. Participants then indicated how much confidence they had in the (a) reliability, (b) precision, and (c) validity of the feedback. Participants rated these items on a seven-point scale ranging from "not at

all” to “very much” ($\alpha = 0.90$). Landau et al. (2009) argued that higher ratings indicate individuals’ need to enhance their identity.

Leaders’ attributions of follower behaviours. Leaders attributing follower behaviours to the personal characteristics of followers or to the external context was analysed using five items.

The first item assessed leaders’ attribution about responsibility of follower behaviour. A single-item measure adapted from Molm et al. (2003), “*Who would you say would be responsible for the way Pat acted?*” was measured on a five-point scale ranging from 1 “solely you” to 5 “solely Pat”. This variable taps into the attribution of responsibility ranging from the perceiver to the actor (Molm et al., 2003), i.e., attribution of responsibility of follower behaviours either to the leader or to the follower.

Attribution judgments require leaders to report the extent to which each of the two sets of causes (internal and external) influenced the follower behaviour. Four items were adapted from Kitayama et al. (2006), of which two items measured the leader’s internal and external attributions of follower behaviours. The items were, “*Features of Pat (such as her/his character, attitude, or temperament) influenced her/his behaviour*” and “*Features of the environment that surround Pat (such as the social atmosphere, social norms, or other contextual factors) influenced her/his behaviour.*” Kitayama et al. (2006) suggest that to ascertain attributions, one should take into account not only the causal attributions but also the counterfactual attributions. Kitayama et al. (2006) suggest that in order to gain clarity about internal and external attributions not only the direct attributions of an individual need to be assessed but also the counterfactual attributions.

Kitayama et al. (2006) argue that counterfactual attributions require participants to account for the extent to which he or she considers that the behaviour of the person would have changed, if one or more of the causes of this person’s behaviour would be different. Drawing on this, I posit that if leaders perceived an internal (or external) factor as an important cause for the followers’ behaviour, then, they should also report that the followers’ behaviour would have been different if the internal (or

external) factors had been different. If leaders attributed follower proactive behaviours to the follower then they should also attribute the counter-factual internal attribute to the followers. The same applies for external attribution. Two items measured counterfactual person and counterfactual external attributions. “*Pat would have acted differently if his/her features (such as his character, attitude, or temperament) had been different?*” “*Pat would have acted differently if features of the environment that surround his/her (such as the social atmosphere, social norms, or other contextual factors) had been different?*” All four items adapted from Kitayama et al. (2006) were measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”.

Self-esteem. Rosenberg’s (1965) global self-esteem scale consisting of 10 items was employed. Participants rated themselves on a four-point scale ranging from 1 “strongly agree” to 4 “strongly disagree”. Five items were reverse coded, for example, “*I feel I don’t have much to be proud of*” (see Appendix 3) (10 items; $\alpha = 0.93$).

. Manipulation checks. These manipulation checks were identical to those used in in Study 1.

Proactive behaviours: (3 items; $\alpha = 0.89$).

Proficient behaviours: (3items; $\alpha = 0.92$).

A proactive behaviour description and proficient behaviour description were also included in this study.

I conducted a series of CFAs for the key variables in Study 2 (i.e. leader identity threat, Time1 and Time 2 agitation and dejection, performance evaluation, promotion potential and leader enhancement, self-esteem and, proficient behaviour and proactive behaviours manipulation checks) in order to examine the discriminant validity of the measures. Single item measures of attribution were not included in this analysis. Results indicate that the proposed 11-factor model fits the data best with a fit indices of $\chi^2 = 3180, 1352, p > .001$ CFI = .85, RMSEA = .07. This is a better fit than, for example, the 9-factor model which combines Time 1 agitation and dejection into one factor and Time 2 agitation and dejection with the rest of the variables of the

11 factor model were the same, $\chi^2 = 4464.82$, 1392, CFI = .75, RMSEA = .09; $\Delta\chi^2 = 1284.82$, df = 40; $p < .001$.

5.6.4. Analytical strategy

Analyses for this study were conducted in SPSS version 23. First, I created an independent variable “follower behaviour”, which consisted of the conditions, follower proactive and proficient behaviours given in the scenarios. Follower proactive behaviour was coded as 1 and proficient behaviour as 0. The analysis initially controlled for the demographic variables; however, neither the direction nor the strength of the results changed when these control variables were included in the analyses, and they were thus excluded.

To analyse change in leaders’ agitation and dejection due to follower behaviours, a mixed-design repeated measures ANOVA was used. This analytical technique is used to test for differences between two or more independent groups when participants are also subjected to a repeated measure (Field, 2013). This tests for significant change in a leader’s agitation from pre-test agitation to post-test agitation (within subject) due to proactive or proficient follower behaviours (between subject). The same strategy was used to analyse change in leaders’ dejection affect.

To analyse change in leaders’ agitation as a mediator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders’ evaluation of the follower and need for leader identity enhancement, I used the difference method (VanderWeele, 2016). Post-test agitation was considered as the mediator in Model 4 of PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012), and pre-test agitation as a covariate (in both the first and second stage). This means that the effect of the change in affect is being estimated and allows testing of the indirect effect (Prof. Jeremy Dawson, personal communication, January 13, 2017). The same method was repeated to analyse change in leader’s dejection affect as a mediator.

To analyse differences in leaders’ attributions about follower behaviours, one-way ANOVAs were conducted on all five attribution items. As per Kitayama et al.’s (2006) guidelines for the internal and external attributions to be clearly distinct there

had to be an agreement regarding significance of ANOVA results between the factual and counterfactual attributions.

5.7 Manipulation check validity: Follower behaviours

Follower behaviour manipulations were embedded in the scenarios and an analysis was run to check the efficacy of the follower behaviour manipulations. Descriptives and correlations for the follower behaviours and statement checks can be found in Table 5.1.

One-way ANOVA results indicated significant differences: leaders who read the proactive behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat engaged in proactive behaviour ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 0.78$), as compared to leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenarios ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 0.98$); ($F(1, 249) = 22.20$, $p < .001$).

One-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat engaged in proficient behaviour ($M = 4.17$, $SD = 0.72$), as compared to leaders who received scenarios where followers engaged in proactive behaviours ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 0.92$); ($F(1, 249) = 213.25$, $p < .001$).

Finally, the one-way ANOVA results suggest that leaders who read the proactive behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat's behaviour was aligned to the proactive behaviour description ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 0.66$), as compared to leaders who read the proficient behaviour description ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 0.86$); ($F(1, 249) = 28.44$, $p < .001$).

The one-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat's behaviour was aligned to the proficient behaviour description ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 0.60$), as compared to leaders who received scenarios where followers engaged in proactive behaviour ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 0.87$); ($F(1, 249) = 194.89$, $p < .001$).

These results indicate that leaders found follower proactive and proficient behaviours were present in the scenarios, aligned with the proactive and proficient behaviour

descriptions given in the proactivity literature (Griffin et al., 2007). Hence, the follower behaviour manipulations in the scenarios were effective.

Table 5. 1 Means, standard deviations, correlations of manipulation checks for Study 2

| Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|------------------------|------|------|-------|------|-------|---|
| Proactive behaviour | 3.36 | 0.92 | | | | |
| Proactive description | 3.86 | 0.81 | .58** | | | |
| Proficient behaviour | 3.42 | 1.12 | .00 | -.08 | | |
| Proficient description | 3.90 | 0.99 | -.08 | -.08 | .72** | |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

5.8 Manipulating leader identity salience

In Study 1, the leader identity salience task was employed to make the participants leader identity salient. Forehand et al. (2002) suggest that sensitisation accentuates the perception and reactions of the individual receiving the stimulus. Hence, the leader identity salience task is relevant to the experiment. Forehand et al. (2002) argue that heightened sensitivity to identity-relevant stimuli is a characteristic of identity salience. In this study, leader identity salience task is manipulated in order to check whether leaders' leader identity is more salient because of the leader identity salience task. Although participants are constantly cued throughout the experiment for their leader identity to be activated and salient via the scenario prime "you are the Head of Marketing...", I posit that leaders who are assigned the leader salience task will have their leader identity more salient as compared to leaders who are not assigned this task.

5.9 Manipulation check validity: Leader identity salience

Leaders who were assigned the leader identity salience task should have their leader identity activated and be more salient as compared to the control group. To examine this, it was necessary to check whether the manipulation worked. First, the qualitative inputs of all participants regarding the item asking what they "*felt in the current moment*" were coded. When leaders used words indicating identity salience (e.g.

supervisor, achiever, enterprising, manager, team leads), the researcher coded this input as 1, otherwise a score of 0 was assigned. Independent samples t-tests were used to test the differences in leader identity salience between the treatment group and the control group. The results indicated that there were no significant differences for leader identity salience between leaders who were assigned the leader salience task and the control group, ($t(248) = -0.31, p = .76$). Hence, manipulating leader salience task was not effective.

5.10 Results

Table 5.2 displays means, standard deviations, and correlations of the study variables.

Table 5.2 Means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 2

| Variables | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |
|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Gender ¹ | 1.45 | .50 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age | 35.16 | 9.55 | .10 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Education ² | 2.02 | .68 | -.09 | .02 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Work Experience | 15.23 | 9.76 | .07 | .88** | -.09 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Current subordinates | 8.80 | 21.31 | .03 | .04 | -.05 | .06 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Maximum subordinates | 16.52 | 38.31 | -.04 | .18** | .01 | .18** | .61** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Leader identity threat [†] | .00 | .90 | -.08 | -.12 | -.05 | -.10 | -.05 | -.11 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Performance Evaluation | 5.89 | .75 | .18** | .08 | -.08 | .08 | .01 | .01 | -.42** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Promotion potential | 5.39 | .99 | .03 | .01 | .00 | .02 | .00 | -.09 | -.39** | .68** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Leader ID enhancement | 4.79 | 1.43 | .03 | .10 | -.09 | .10 | .10 | .03 | .10 | .17** | .11 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Attribution self-follower | 3.62 | .73 | .08 | .03 | -.13* | .05 | .04 | .00 | .22** | -.14* | -.13* | -.11 | | | | | | | | | |
| Attribution person | 5.56 | .96 | .07 | .02 | -.08 | .00 | -.02 | .01 | -.15* | .33** | .29** | -.02 | .11 | | | | | | | | |
| Attribution external | 4.91 | 1.29 | .06 | .04 | .05 | .03 | .06 | .11 | -.28** | .16* | .19** | .09 | -.21** | .24** | | | | | | | |
| Counterfactual personal | 5.00 | 1.36 | .03 | -.09 | -.02 | -.06 | -.02 | .01 | .00 | .10 | .08 | -.12 | .17** | .44** | -.01 | | | | | | |
| Counterfactual external | 4.73 | 1.31 | .00 | -.05 | .04 | -.08 | .02 | .08 | -.14* | .03 | .10 | -.05 | -.14 | .16* | .62** | .28** | | | | | |
| Self-esteem | 1.72 | .63 | -.03 | -.19** | .00 | -.18** | -.10 | -.12* | .32** | -.20** | -.19** | -.20** | -.04 | -.08 | -.01 | .04 | .13* | | | | |
| Pre-test agitation | 2.00 | .88 | .03 | -.21** | .01 | -.18** | -.07 | -.11 | .23** | -.10 | -.02 | -.18** | -.17** | -.05 | -.04 | .11 | .19** | .48** | | | |
| Post-test agitation | 2.13 | .96 | .04 | -.15* | -.01 | -.11 | -.05 | -.09 | .56** | -.36** | -.32** | -.04 | .05 | -.14* | -.15* | .11 | .06 | .43** | .58** | | |
| Pre-test dejection | 1.97 | .79 | -.04 | -.15* | -.07 | -.12 | -.07 | -.11 | .14* | -.13* | -.07 | -.26** | -.11 | -.01 | -.05 | .11 | .140* | .53** | .76** | .54** | |
| Post-test dejection | 1.90 | .81 | -.02 | -.11 | -.01 | -.07 | -.04 | -.09 | .54** | -.40** | -.36** | -.14* | .07 | -.14* | -.18** | .14* | .02 | .44** | .1** | .83** | .62** |

* p < .05, ** p < .001 ¹Gender: 1= Female, 2= Male. ²Education : 1= High school, 2= Bachelors, 3 = Masters, 4 = Phd.

[†]For leader identity threat variable, standardised z scores were used.

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be significant differences in leaders' experience of leader identity threat due to follower behaviours, and leader identity threat would mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers': (a) performance; (b) promotion potential; and, leaders' need for (c) leader identity enhancement. In order to test this hypothesis, I first conducted a one-way ANOVA to test the differences in the above-mentioned outcomes due to follower behaviours. The results are summarised in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Summary of one-way ANOVA for leader identity threat, leaders' evaluation of followers and leaders' need for leader identity enhancement

| Variables | Follower proactive behaviour | | Follower proficient behaviour | | F | p |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|-------|-----|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | |
| Leader identity threat | 0.48 | 0.85 | -.47 | 0.68 | 95.87 | .00 |
| Performance evaluation | 5.60 | 0.75 | 6.17 | 0.63 | 44.03 | .00 |
| Promotion potential | 5.05 | 1.04 | 5.72 | 0.81 | 32.79 | .00 |
| Leader identity enhancement | 4.63 | 1.58 | 4.94 | 1.25 | 2.83 | .09 |

*Standardised Z scores, df (1,249)

One-way ANOVA results indicated that the leader identity threat of leaders was significantly greater when followers engaged in proactive behaviours ($M = 0.48$, $SD = 0.85$) as compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours ($M = -0.47$, $SD = 0.68$, $F(1, 249) = 95.87$, $p < .001$).

One-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders evaluated the performance of the follower to be significantly lower ($M = 5.60$, $SD = 0.75$) when followers engaged in proactive behaviours as compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours ($M = 6.17$, $SD = 0.63$, $F(1, 249) = 44.03$, $p < .001$).

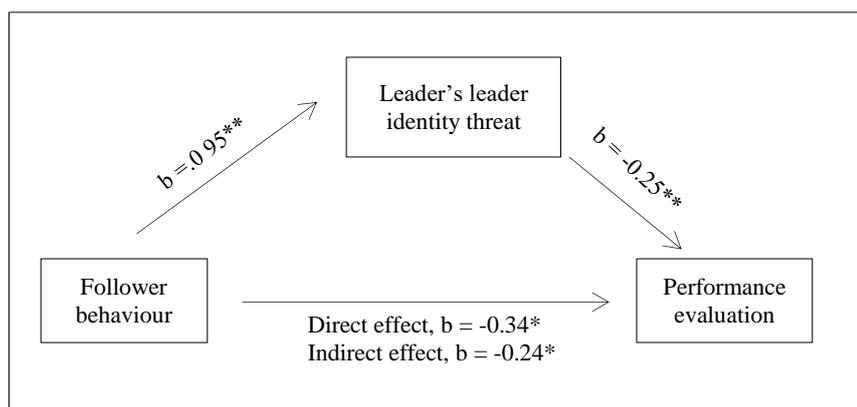
One-way ANOVA results indicated that leaders evaluated the promotion potential of the follower to be significantly lower ($M = 5.05$, $SD = 1.04$) when followers engaged in proactive behaviours as compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours ($M = 5.72$, $SD = 0.81$, $F(1, 249) = 32.79$, $p < .001$).

There were no significant differences in leaders' need for leader identity enhancement when followers engaged in proactive ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.58$) or proficient behaviours ($M = 4.94$, $SD = 1.25$, $F(1, 249) = 2.83$, $p = .09$).

Mediation analyses with a bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 cases with bias-correction were conducted using Model 4 of the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012). The results indicate that leaders' leader identity threat significantly increased ($b = 0.948$, $SE = 0.098$, $p < .001$) due to follower proactive behaviour. Thus, Hypothesis 1(a) was supported.

The indirect effect of leader identity threat for leaders' evaluation of the followers' performance was significant ($b = -0.236$, $SE = 0.06$, $BCa\ CI [-.363, -.122]$). This suggests that leader identity threat mediated the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' performance evaluation of followers. Increases in leader identity threat were associated with decreases in leaders' performance evaluation of the follower. However, the direct effect was also significant ($b = -0.342$, $SE = 0.11$, $CI [-.559, -.124]$; see Figure 5.2), suggesting partial mediation. Thus, there was partial support for Hypothesis 1(b).

Figure 5.2 Leader identity threat mediating follower behaviours and performance evaluation



The indirect effect for leaders' evaluation of follower promotion potential was significant ($b = -0.301$, $SE = 0.10$, $BCa\ CI [-.504, -.124]$). Increases in leader identity threat were associated with decreases in leaders' evaluation of follower promotion potential. However, the direct effect was also significant ($b = -0.373$, $SE = 0.14$, $CI [-.644, -.102]$). Thus, Hypothesis 1(c) was partially supported.

The indirect effect of leaders' need for leader identity enhancement was significant ($b = 0.332$, $SE = 0.12$, $BCa\ CI [.123, .575]$). This indicated that leader identity threat mediated this relationship. Increases in leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours were associated with an increased need for leader identity enhancement. The direct effect was also significant ($b = -0.634$, $SE = .023$, $CI [-1.084, -.185]$), suggesting partial mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 1(d) was partially supported.

Table 5.4 Mediation analysis for leader identity threat as a mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers and leader identity enhancement

Hypothesis 2(b): Performance evaluation

| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
|-----------------------|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| Path a: X on M | 0.948 | 0.098 | 9.726 | .00 | [.756, 1.140] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.249 | 0.066 | -3.768 | .00 | [-.380, -.119] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.578 | 0.088 | -6.595 | .00 | [-.750, -.405] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.342 | 0.111 | -3.086 | .00 | [-.559, -.124] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.236 | 0.063 | | | [-.363, -.122] |

Hypothesis 2(c): Promotion potential

| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
|-----------------------|--------|-------|--------|------|----------------|
| Path a: X on M | 0.948 | 0.098 | 9.726 | .00 | [.756, 1.140] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.317 | 0.098 | -3.227 | .001 | [-.511, -.124] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.674 | 0.119 | -5.686 | .00 | [-.908, -.441] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.373 | 0.138 | -2.714 | .01 | [-.644, -.102] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -.0301 | 0.097 | | | [-.504, -.124] |

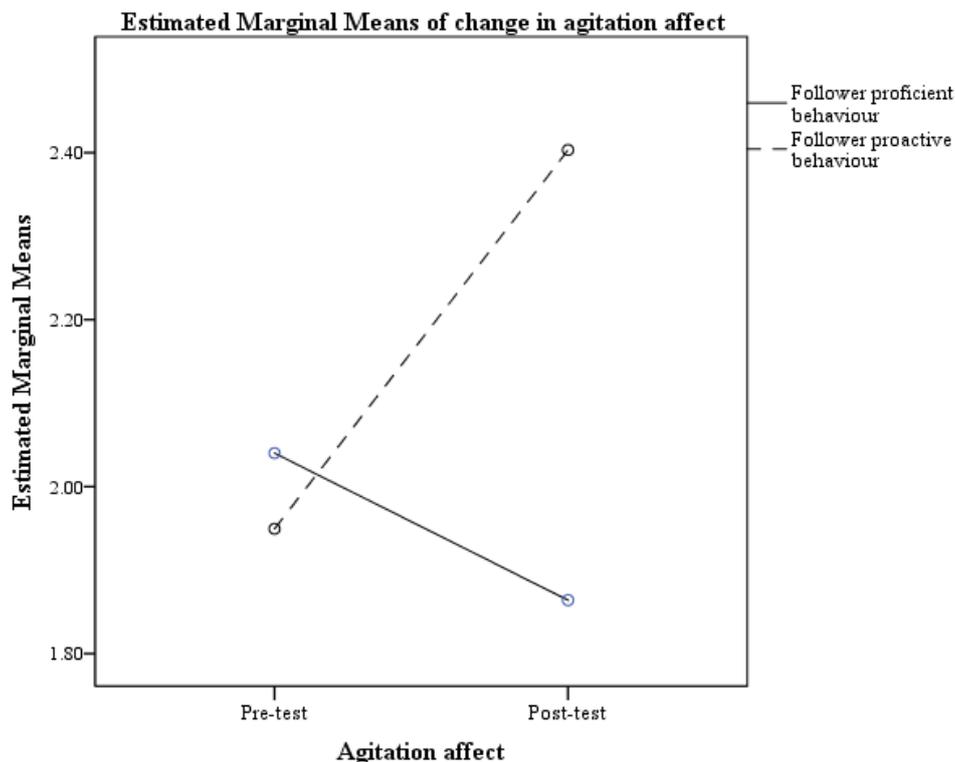
Hypothesis 2(d): Leader identity enhancement

| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
|-----------------------|--------|-------|--------|------|-----------------|
| Path a: X on M | 0.954 | 0.097 | 9.793 | .00 | [.762, 1.140] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.350 | 0.112 | 3.117 | .002 | [.129, .571] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.303 | 0.181 | -1.671 | .09 | [-.659, .054] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.634 | 0.228 | -2.782 | .01 | [-1.084, -.185] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | 0.332 | 0.116 | | | [.123, .575] |

b = unstandardised scores. Path a = effect of follower behaviours on leader identity threat, Path b = effect of leader identity threat on DVs, Path c = effect of follower behaviours on DVs.

Hypotheses 2 stated that follower behaviours would increase leaders' (a) agitation and (b) dejection affects as compared to when followers engage in proficient behaviours. The results of the mixed repeated measures ANOVA indicate that there was a significant main effect on leaders' agitation (Wilks' Lambda = 0.86, $F(1,249) = 40.72$, $p < .001$). This indicates that leaders' agitation changed significantly from pre-test to post-test. There was a significant main effect of followers' proactive and proficient behaviours ($F(1,249) = 4.79$, $p < .05$). The estimated marginal means graph shows that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' agitation from pre-test to post-test, while leaders' agitation decreased from pre-test to post-test when followers engaged in proficient behaviours (see Figure 5.3). Thus, Hypothesis 2(a) was supported.

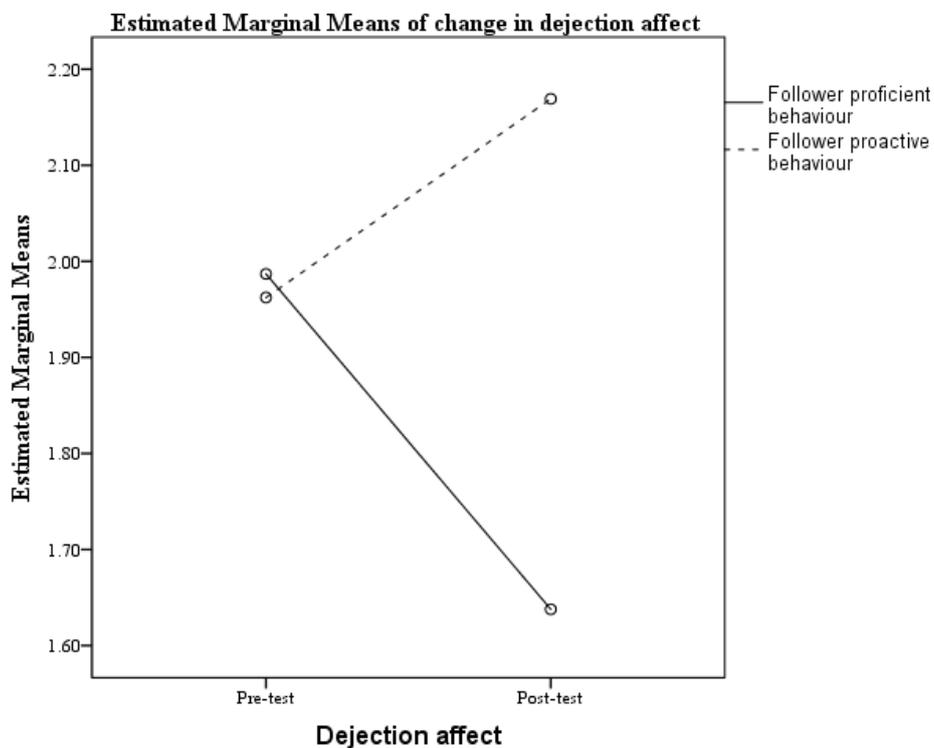
Figure 5.3 Change in leaders' agitation due to follower behaviours



The results of the mixed repeated measures ANOVA indicated a significant main effect on leaders' dejection (Wilks' Lambda = 0.84, $F(1,249) = 46.72$, $p < .001$). This indicates that leaders' dejection changed significantly from pre-test to post-test. The

results indicated a significant main effect of followers' proactive and proficient behaviours ($F(1,249) = 8.05, p < .05$). The estimated marginal means graph shows that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' dejection, from pre-test to post-test, while leaders' dejection decreased from pre-test to post-test when followers engaged in proficient behaviours (see Figure 5.4). Thus, Hypothesis 2(b) was supported.

Figure 5.4 Change in leaders' dejection due to follower behaviours



Hypothesis 3 stated that change in leaders' agitation would mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' (a) performance and (b) promotion, and leaders' need for (c) leader identity enhancement. Mediation analysis was conducted using Model 4 of the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012) with a bootstrapping procedure of 1,000 cases with post-test agitation as the mediator, while controlling for pre-test agitation. A summary of results appears in Table 5.5.

The results for change in leaders' agitation mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' performance indicate that

the indirect effect was significant ($b = -0.147$, $SE = 0.04$, $BCa\ CI[-.237, -.071]$). This suggests that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' agitation and this, in turn, was associated with a lower evaluation of follower performance. However, the direct effect was significant ($b = -0.44$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(249) = -4.86$, $p < .001$, $CI[-.620, -.262]$), suggesting partial mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 3(a) was partially supported.

Results for change in leaders' agitation affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' promotion potential indicate a significant indirect effect ($b = -0.226$, $SE = 0.07$, $BCa\ CI[-.375, -.105]$). This suggests that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' agitation and this, in turn, was associated with a lower evaluation of follower promotion potential. However, the direct effect was also significant ($b = -0.452$, $SE = 0.12$, $t(248) = -3.69$, $p < .001$, $CI[-.663, -.210]$), suggesting partial mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 3(b) was partially supported.

Finally, the results for change in leaders' agitation mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' need for leader identity enhancement indicate that the indirect effect was significant ($b = 0.156$, $SE = 0.08$, $BCa\ CI[.001, .320]$). However, the direct effect was also significant ($b = -0.486$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(248) = -2.55$, $p < .05$, $CI[-.862, -.111]$), suggesting partial mediation. Change in leaders' agitation mediated this relationship. Thus, Hypothesis 3(c) was partially supported.

Table 5.5 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' agitation as a mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers and leader identity enhancement

| Hypothesis 3(a): Performance evaluation | | | | | |
|---|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.599 | 0.092 | 6.542 | .00 | [.419, .779] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.660 | 0.524 | 12.591 | .00 | [.556, .763] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.245 | 0.058 | -4.212 | .00 | [-.359, -.130] |
| Covariate T 1† | 0.055 | 0.061 | 0.898 | .37 | [-.066, .176] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.587 | 0.087 | -6.786 | .00 | [-.758, -.417] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.441 | 0.091 | -4.859 | .00 | [-.620, -.262] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.147 | 0.043 | | | [-.237, -.071] |

| Hypothesis 3(b): Promotion potential | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.599 | 0.092 | 6.542 | .00 | [.419, .779] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.660 | 0.524 | 12.591 | .00 | [.556, .763] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.378 | 0.078 | -4.818 | .00 | [-.532, -.223] |
| Covariate T 1† | 0.208 | 0.083 | 2.506 | .01 | [.044, .371] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.678 | 0.118 | -5.743 | .00 | [-.910, -.445] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.452 | 0.122 | -3.688 | .00 | [-.663, -.210] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.226 | 0.068 | | | [-.375, -.105] |

| Hypothesis 3(c): Leader identity enhancement | | | | | |
|--|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.599 | 0.092 | 6.542 | .00 | [.419, .779] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.660 | 0.052 | 12.591 | .00 | [.556, .763] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.261 | 0.122 | 2.136 | .03 | [.020, .502] |
| Covariate† | -0.475 | 0.129 | -3.678 | .00 | [-.729, -.220] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.330 | 0.177 | -1.861 | .06 | [-.679, .019] |
| Direct effect: C` | -0.486 | 0.191 | -2.550 | .01 | [-.862, -.111] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | 0.156 | 0.082 | | | [.001, .320] |

b = unstandardised coefficient, Path a = effect of follower behaviours on change in leaders' agitation, Path b = effect of change in leaders' agitation on DVs, Path c = effect of follower behaviours on DVs. Covariate T 1* = pre-test agitation 1st stage, Covariate T 1† = pre-test agitation 2nd stage

Hypothesis 4 stated that change in leaders' dejection affect would be associated with leaders' evaluation of followers (a) performance and (b) promotion and leader's need for (c) leader identity enhancement. Mediation analysis was conducted with a bootstrapping procedure of 1,000 cases with post-test dejection as the mediator, while controlling for pre-test dejection. The results are summarised in Table 5.6.

The results for change in leaders' dejection mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' performance indicate that the indirect effect was significant ($b = -0.188$, $SE = 0.05$, $BCa\ CI[-.297, -.095]$). This suggests that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' dejection and this, in turn, was associated with a lower evaluation of follower performance. However, the direct effect was also significant ($b = -0.393$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(248) = -4.285$, $p < .001$, $CI[-.574, -.212]$), suggesting partial mediation. Thus, Hypothesis 4(a) was partially supported.

The results for change in leaders' dejection mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' promotion potential indicate a significant indirect effect ($b = -0.260$, $SE = 0.08$, $BCa\ CI[-.426, -.114]$). This suggests that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' dejection affect and this, in turn, was associated with a lower evaluation of follower promotion potential. However, the direct effect was also significant ($b = -0.417$, $SE = 0.12$, $t(248) = -3.34$, $p < .01$, $CI[-.662, -.171]$), suggesting partial mediation. Hypothesis 4(b) was partially supported.

The results for change in leaders' dejection mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' need for leader identity enhancement indicate that the indirect effect was not significant ($b = 0.114$, $SE = 0.88$, $BCa\ CI [-.047, .292]$). The mediation was not supported. Accordingly, Hypothesis 4(c) was not supported.

Table 5.6 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' dejection as a mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations and leader identity enhancement

| Hypothesis 4(a): Performance evaluation | | | | | |
|--|--------|--------|--------|------|----------------|
| | B | SE | T | p | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.547 | 0.073 | 7.511 | .00 | [.403, .690] |
| Covariate* | 0.634 | 0.046 | 13.724 | .00 | [.543, .725] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.344 | 0.072 | -4.757 | .00 | [-.486, -.201] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | 0.091 | 0.070 | 1.305 | .19 | [-.046, .228] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.581 | 0.086 | -6.729 | .00 | [-.751, -.411] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.393 | 0.092 | -4.285 | .00 | [-.574, -.212] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.188 | 0.052 | | | [-.297, -.095] |
| Hypothesis 4(b): Promotion potential | | | | | |
| | B | SE | T | p | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.547 | 0.073 | 7.511 | .00 | [.403, .690] |
| Covariate* | 0.634 | 0.046 | 13.724 | .00 | [.543, .725] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.475 | 0.098 | -4.839 | .00 | [-.669, -.282] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | 0.202 | 0.095 | 2.136 | .03 | [.016, .389] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.677 | 0.118, | -5.755 | .00 | [-.908, -.445] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.417 | 0.125 | -3.341 | .001 | [-.662, -.171] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.260 | 0.078 | | | [-.426, -.114] |
| Hypothesis 4(c): Leader identity enhancement | | | | | |
| | B | SE | T | p | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.547 | 0.073 | 7.511 | .00 | [.403, .690] |
| Covariate* | 0.634 | 0.046 | 13.724 | .00 | [.543, .725] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.209 | 0.151 | 1.379 | .17 | [-.089, .506] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | -0.614 | 0.146 | -4.202 | .00 | [-.901,-.326] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.314 | 0.174 | -1.809 | .07 | [-.657, .028] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.428 | 0.192 | -2.230 | .03 | [-.807, -.050] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | 0.114 | 0.883 | | | [-.047, .292] |

b = unstandardised coefficient, Path a = effect of follower behaviours on change in leaders' dejection, Path b = effect of change in leaders' dejection on DVs, Path c = effect of follower behaviours on DVs. Covariate T 1^{*}= pre-test dejection in the 1st stage, Covariate T 1[†]= pre-test dejection in the 2nd stage

Hypothesis 5 stated that there would be parallel mediation between follower behaviours and leader reaction with leader identity threat and change in leader agitation as mediators. Using Process (Hayes, 2012) for parallel mediation analysis with pre-test agitation as a co-variate analysis was conducted. For the dependent variable performance evaluation, the total indirect effect was significant b = -.261, BCa CI [-.390, -.136]. In addition, the indirect effects were significant for leader

identity threat $b = -.156$, BCa CI $[-.326, -.009]$ and for change in agitation affect $b = -.105$, BCa CI $[-.220, -.007]$. However, the direct effect was also significant. This indicated that the parallel mediation was significant and the results were partially supported Hypothesis 5a.

For the dependent variable promotion potential, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.379$, BCa CI $[-.577, -.186]$. Also indirect effects were significant for leader identity threat $b = -.207$, BCa CI $[-.451, -.022]$ and for change in agitation affect $b = -.0171$, BCa CI $[-.330, -.052]$. However, the direct effect was also significant $b = -.299$, BCa CI $[-.555, -.043]$. Thus, hypothesis 5b was partially supported.

For the dependent variable leader enhancement, the total indirect effect was significant $b = .497$, BCa CI $[.260, .754]$. Also indirect effects were significant for leader identity threat $b = .463$, BCa CI $[.198, .725]$ and for change in agitation affect $b = .034$, BCa CI $[-.137, .198]$. However, the direct effect was also significant $b = -.827$, CI $[-1.271, -.382]$. Thus, hypothesis 5c was partially supported⁴.

Hypothesis 6 stated that the parallel mediation with leader identity threat and change in leader dejection as mediators for follower behaviours and leader reactions would be significant. Using Process Model 4 for parallel mediation analysis with pre-test dejection as a co-variate analysis was conducted. For the dependent variable performance evaluation, the indirect effect was significant $b = -.279$, BCa CI $[-.414, -.156]$. The indirect effects were not significant for leader identity threat $b = -.138$, BCa CI $[-.290, .001]$ but were significant for change in dejection $b = -.141$, BCa CI $[-.275, -.041]$. However, the direct effect was also significant $b = -.302$, BCa CI $[-.514, -.09]$. This indicated that the parallel mediation was significant and the results were partially supported Hypothesis 6a.

⁴ Parallel mediation was also conducted with all three mediators (leader identity threat, agitation and dejection). The indirect effect for all three mediators were not significant for the dependent variable performance evaluation. For the dependent variable promotion potential, the indirect effect was significant only for the mediator leader identity threat $b = -.193$, SE = .10, BCa CI $[-.409, -.606]$ and also in the case of leader enhancement, $b = .42$, SE=.14, BCa CI $[.149, .707]$.”

For the dependent variable promotion perception, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.375$, BCa CI $[-.577, -.165]$. Also, the indirect effect was significant for leader identity threat $b = -.174$, BCa CI $[-.400, .007]$ and for change in dejection affect $b = -.201$, BCa CI $[-.382, -.061]$. However, the direct effect was also significant $b = -.301$, BCa CI $[-.564, -.03]$. Thus, hypothesis 6b was partially supported.

For the dependent variable leader enhancement, the total indirect effect was significant $b = .414$, BCa CI $(.186, .665)$. Also, indirect effects were significant for leader identity threat $b = .454$, BCa CI $[.205, .718]$ but not for change in dejection affect $b = -.040$, BCa CI $[-.215, .150]$. The direct effect was also significant $b = -.728$, CI $[-1.173, -.283]$. Thus, hypothesis 6c was partially supported.

Hypothesis 7 stated that leaders would attribute follower proactive behaviour to followers' personal characteristics, rather than to external factors. One-way ANOVAs were conducted for the five leader attribution items (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7 One-way ANOVA results of leader attributions due to follower behaviours

| Variables | Follower proactive behaviour | | Follower proficient behaviour | | df | F | p |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|-------|-------|-----|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | | |
| Responsibility of follower | 3.96 | 0.68 | 3.28 | 0.62 | 1,249 | 68.30 | .00 |
| Internal attribution | 5.50 | 1.02 | 5.61 | 0.89 | 1,249 | 0.89 | .35 |
| External attribution | 4.56 | 1.33 | 5.24 | 1.16 | 1,249 | 18.60 | .00 |
| Counterfactual internal attribution | 5.18 | 1.33 | 4.83 | 1.37 | 1,248 | 4.25 | .04 |
| Counterfactual external attribution | 4.60 | 1.37 | 4.85 | 1.23 | 1,249 | 2.22 | .14 |

For leaders' attributions of the responsibility of follower behaviours, the results indicate that when followers engaged in proactive behaviours, leaders were more likely to attribute followers as responsible for the behaviours ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 0.68$), compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 0.62$); ($F(1,249) = 68.30$, $p < .001$). This suggested that leaders attributed the responsibility of follower behaviours to the follower. Hypothesis 7(a) was supported.

Attribution judgements require leaders to report the extent to which each of the two sets of causes (internal and external) influenced the follower behaviour. Kitayama et al. (2006) suggest that to ascertain attributions one should take into account not only the causal attributions but also the counterfactual attributions. The results indicate that attributions and counterfactual attributions (internal and external) did not agree. Hypothesis 7(b) was not supported.

Hypothesis 8 stated that leaders' self-esteem would moderate the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat. The results of the moderation analysis indicated that the interaction of follower behaviours with self-esteem in predicting leader identity threat was not significant ($b = 0.106$, $SE = 0.172$, $p = .54$, $CI [-.234, .446]$). Hence, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Hypothesis 9 stated that female followers engaging in proactive behaviours would accentuate the leader identity threat of leaders when compared to males. A one-way ANOVA conducted to compare the four conditions 2 (follower behaviours) X 2 (follower gender) indicated significant differences between the conditions ($F(1,250) = 32.48$, $p < .001$). However, post-hoc analysis did not reveal any significant differences for leaders' leader identity threat due to the gender of the follower⁵. Accordingly, the results did not support Hypothesis 9.⁶

Finally, to test the model, moderated mediations using Process Model 7 (Hayes, 2012) was conducted. The results indicate that the index of moderated mediation for leader identity threat as a mediator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader reactions. With leaders' self-esteem as the moderator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat. The indirect effect for the dependent variable follower performance evaluation were not significant (indirect

⁵ A three-way ANOVA was conducted to ascertain the significant interactions between the three manipulations – follower behaviour, follower gender, and leader salience – with the dependent variables. The three-way interaction was not significant for DV- leader identity threat $F(1,243) = 2.43$, $p = .12$. Results were not significant for other DVs.

⁶ Results of one-way ANOVA (post hoc) 2 (follower behaviours) X 2 (follower gender) conducted separately for the male and female samples revealed no differences between the groups

effect, $b = -.026$, CI[-.125, .054]. The indirect effect for the dependent variable promotion potential were not significant (indirect effect $b = -.034$, BCa CI [-.159, .071]). The indirect effect for the dependent variable follower leader identity enhancement were not significant (indirect effect $b = .037$, BCa CI [.073, -.172]).

Moderated mediations for change in leaders' agitation as a mediator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader reactions and self-esteem as the moderator of the relationship between follower behaviours and change in leaders' agitation were conducted. Leaders' post-test agitation was considered as the mediation and pre-test agitation was considered as a covariate. Results for leaders' evaluation of follower performance were not significant (indirect effect $b = -.001$, BCa CI [-.075, .065]). Results for the index of moderated mediation for the dependent promotion potential were not significant (indirect effect $b = -.008$, BCa CI [-.120, .096]). Results for the index of moderated mediation for the dependent leaders' need for leader identity enhancement were not significant (indirect effect $b = .005$, BCa CI [-.066, .120]).

Moderated mediations for change in leaders' dejection as a mediator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader reactions and self-esteem as the moderator of the relationship between follower behaviours and change in leaders' dejection were conducted. Leaders' post-test dejection was considered as the mediation and pre-test dejection was considered as a covariate. Results for leaders' evaluation of follower performance were not significant (indirect effect $b = -.014$, BCa CI [-.097, .062]). Results for the index of moderated mediation for the dependent promotion potential were not significant were not significant (indirect effect $b = -.020$, BCa CI [-.141, .120]). Results for the index of moderated mediation for the dependent leaders' need for leader identity enhancement were not significant (indirect effect $b = .009$, BCa CI [-.031, .129])⁷.

⁷ Moderated mediation was conducted using model 7 of the PROCESS (Hayes 2012) with all three mediators (leader identity threat, agitation and dejection) and moderator leaders' self-esteem. Result of the moderated mediation index was not significant

5.11 Discussion

As expected, the results of this study supported for the main premise of this thesis that follower proactive behaviours increase leaders' leader identity threat and that leader identity threat plays a role in influencing leader evaluations. This study also supported the premise that leaders' agitation and dejection affect increase due to followers' proactive behaviours, an indication of discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual identities. This section discusses the significant theoretical contributions and findings of this study and discusses the limitations of the study and possibilities for future research.

Theoretical Contributions

The findings that leaders' experience leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours and such behaviours influence leaders' reactions contribute to the leadership literature. The finding that followers' proactive behaviours increase leaders' negative reactions contributes to the proactivity literature. These have been discussed in Chapter 4. The additional theoretical contributions of this study are discussed below.

Contributions to the leadership literature: Central to this study was the deconstruction of leader identity threat as leader identity discrepancy. The findings of this study support the argument that followers' proactive behaviour increase leader identity threat as well as leader identity discrepancy. This study brought Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory closer to the leadership literature by simultaneously examining the self-reported leader identity threat and discrepancy between ideal and actual identities of leaders. Parallel mediation investigations with leader identity threat along with change in leaders' agitation and dejection as mediators, indicated that follower proactive behaviours accentuate both leaders' identity threat and leaders' agitation and dejection; in turn, leaders react more negatively towards their followers. This suggests that a discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities may increase due to such follower behaviours. One may infer that discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities may increase due to such follower behaviours. In other words, this study supports Higgins's (1987)

argument that identity discrepancy is a source of discomfort and that this discomfort is a manifestation of identity threat. Deconstructing leader identity threat as a discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal leader identities I extend the work of researchers (Burris, 2012; Fast et al., 2014; McClean, Burris, & Detert, 2013) who study leader reactions to proactive behaviours of followers. This may provide leadership researchers with a better understanding of the cognitive processes that leaders undertake to understand and evaluate their environment. For instance, researchers can draw on work regarding prosocial behaviours (Bolino & Grant, 2016) and rule-breaking behaviours (Morrison, 2006) by employees' to examine the role of leader identity threat and leader identity discrepancy in influencing leader reactions.

Furthermore, findings suggest that leader identity threat increases the desire of leaders' to enhance their leader identity. This supports the argument that identity threat accentuated the desire to enhance ones identity (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009; Landau et al., 2009). This has implications for future leadership research, to consider the influence of leaders' self-enhancement motive and their desire to maintain a positive in directing leaders' cognitions and behaviours.

Contributions to the proactivity literature: An interesting finding of this study is that the mediation analysis of leader identity threat has an influence on leaders' desire to enhance their leader identity. The proactivity literature has focused on the required internal resources (motivations) required by individuals to engage in proactive behaviours (Parker et al., 2010). This findings of my study that leaders are likely to the negatively evaluate followers engaging in proactive behaviours indicates that leaders' negative reactions towards follower proactivity may deplete the motivational resources of followers and affect the future proactive behaviours of followers. Morrison, See, and Pan (2014) stress that employees do not engage in voicing their suggestions due to fear of reprisals. This may also explain why followers sometimes hold back from engaging in proactive behaviours due to the potential consequences on their performance appraisal and career growth. The findings of my study may provide impetus for proactivity researchers to further probe employees' inhibitions when it comes to engaging in proactive behaviours.

Other findings

On examination, some of the hypotheses of this study were not supported. Leaders' self-esteem did not moderate the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat. Tharenou and Harker (1984) argue that "self-esteem is more likely to be a direct predictor rather than a moderator variable" (p. 630). This could be a potential reason as to why self-esteem as a moderator did not yield a significant result.

The findings regarding leader attributions indicated that leaders attributed the responsibility of followers' proactive behaviours to the followers but not to themselves. However, agreement between leaders' causal attribution and counterfactual attributions was not found. One of the possible causes could be that no further information regarding the follower was presented in the scenarios. De Stobbeleir, Ashford, and Sully de Luque, (2010) have argued that managers take into account the employee's performance history while making attributions about their employees' performance. Grant et al.'s (2009) field study indicated that employees' values influenced leaders' attributions regarding follower proactive behaviours. As this was a scenario-based experiment, the performance history or values of the follower were not a part of the experiment.

Although the explicit findings of Study 1 were significant regarding female followers accentuating leader identity threat in comparison to male followers, the findings of this study did not reveal any significant differences due to followers' gender. Even when a one-way ANOVA was conducted separately for male and female participants, the results regarding gender moderating leader identity threat were not significant. A potential explanation could be that there were cultural differences between participants of both studies. Study 1 consisted of mainly Indian professionals, while in this study, participants were based in the USA. The GLOBE studies indicate that the Anglo-American culture is more gender egalitarian compared to some other cultures (Javidan et al., 2006)⁸, and this may explain the non-significant results.

⁸ The authors mention certain Middle Eastern and eastern cultures but not specifically South Asian.

Future studies may probe the cultural aspects related to gender and leaders' interpretation of follower behaviours.

Limitations and future research

The affect-related measures gave support to the argument that leaders may experience discrepancy between leaders' actual and ideal leader identities due to follower proactive behaviour. However, a self-reported measure that captures the change in leaders' ideal and actual identities would further clarify the nuances of leader identity discrepancy. Furthermore, this study did not probe leaders' cognitive processes that may occur when leaders experience leader identity discrepancy. Future research needs to delve into the cognitive processes that occur when leaders experience leader identity threat due to follower behaviours.

5.12 Conclusion

This study provides evidence that follower proactive behaviours can influence leaders and increase leaders' leader identity threat. An increase in leaders' agitation and dejection due to follower proactive behaviours indicated that leaders experience discomfort due to follower behaviours. By drawing on Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory, this implies that leaders experienced discrepancy between their ideal and actual leader identities. Leaders' negative reactions towards their followers are a strategy to restore their threatened leader identity.

Chapter 6. Study 3 - Follower Proactive Behaviours Trigger Leader Identity Threat: The Role of ILTS, CSE, and Implicit Motives

This chapter contains the third study of this thesis. The study tests the essential hypothesis of this thesis that leaders may experience leader identity threat due to followers' proactive behaviours. In a bid to restore their threatened leader identity, leaders react negatively towards their followers. This study draws on Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory to examine the influence of follower proactive behaviours on leaders' leader identity discrepancy manifested through changes in leaders' positive and negative affect. In addition, this study focuses on the changes in leaders' cognitive processes and their accessing of leadership schemas (ILTs) due to follower behaviours. This study hypothesises that leaders' CSE moderates the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat and that leaders' need for affiliation and need for power will moderate the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluations of their followers (see Figure 6.1).

6.1 Leader identity threat due to followers' proactive behaviours

As in Study 1 and Study 2 of this thesis, this study also examines follower proactive behaviours as triggers of leader identity threat. I posit that leaders' may evaluate followers' proactive behaviours as a claim to their leader identity, which may generate leader identity threat. In order to restore their leader identity, leaders react negatively towards their followers. I argue that leader identity threat explains the association of follower proactive behaviours with leaders' negative evaluations of followers (see sections 4.1 of Study 1 and 5.1 of Study 1 and 2). Besides leaders' evaluations of follower performance and promotion potential, two additional leader reactions are included here: leaders' evaluation of followers' competence and leaders' attitude towards followers' interpersonal incivility. Both relate directly to leaders' attitudes towards their subordinates (Heilman & Chen, 2005). When individuals experience identity threat, they develop strategies to enhance or protect their identity (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009). One such strategy is to develop negative perceptions and attitudes about the source of the threat (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009).

Drawing from Elsbach and Kramer (1996) and Kramer (2010), I posit that to restore their threatened leader identity, leaders' perceptions regarding their followers' competence will and leaders will experience negative cognitions regarding followers' interpersonal civility. In contrast, when followers engage in proficient behaviours, leaders' leader identity will be bolstered. Consequently, leaders will evaluate followers more positively, as compared to when followers engage in proactive behaviours. Leader identity threat will mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leader evaluations. I propose:

Hypothesis 1: Leader identity threat will mediate the relationship between followers' behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers, such that (a) followers' proactive behaviours will increase leader identity threat. This, in turn, will be negatively related to leaders' evaluation of followers' (b) performance evaluation, (c) promotion potential, and (d) competence, but will be positively related to leaders' evaluation of followers' (e) interpersonal incivility.

6.2 Leaders' positive and negative affect are manifestations of leader identity discrepancy

In this thesis, I explore leader identity threat as a discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual identities. Study 2 focused on the increase in leaders' agitation and dejection as manifestations of leader identity discrepancy. Both agitation and dejection are negative emotional states that occur when individuals experience a discrepancy between their actual and aspired-to identities (Higgins et al., 1997)⁹. In this study, I take into consideration the overarching negative affect as a manifestation of leader identity discrepancy and the changes in leaders' positive affect to examine

⁹ Study 2 focussed on agitation and dejection as manifestations of identity discrepancy. Higgins et al. (1997) argue that both of these types of affect are negative affect; Drawing from this argument, I argue that by investigating the negative as well as the positive affect of leaders not only bolsters Higgins et al.'s (1997) argument but may further add to the understanding of affect related discrepancy triggered by follower proactive behaviours. Study 3 expands the discrepancy argument and examines both leaders' negative and positive affects as manifestations of leader identity discrepancy. By doing so, a clearer picture of the role played by affect may emerge.

leader identity discrepancy. Positive and negative affect are two dominant yet distinctive dimensions that can be used in analytic studies of affect (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). I propose that using positive and negative affect as manifestations of self-discrepancy may reveal further insights. I propose that using positive and negative affect as manifestations of self-discrepancy may reveal further insights.

Tesser (1988) has argued that an individual's identity threat is manifested through an increase in negative affect. Tangney et al. (1998) argue that self-discrepancy has been associated with negative affect. Negative mood is an indicator that "something is wrong" (Morris, 1999). Drawing from these arguments and Higgins's self-discrepancy theory (1987), I argue that follower proactive behaviours will increase the discrepancy between the leaders' actual and ideal leader identities, and this will be manifested through an increase in leaders' negative affect.

In addition, I suggest that leaders' positive and negative affect may operate in a hydraulic fashion, such that when leaders' negative affect increases due to follower behaviour their positive affect will automatically decrease or vice versa. Remington, Fabrigar, and Visser (2000) argue that affect states that oppose each other would also have negative correlations with one another (e.g., increase in happiness versus reduction in sadness). Drawing from this, I propose that when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders' negative affect will increase and leaders' positive affect will decrease. In order to reduce the discrepancy and restore their threatened leader identity (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996; Kramer, 2010), leaders will evaluate followers negatively on the parameters of performance and promotion potential. Leaders will also perceive the followers to be less competent and more uncivil.

However, when followers engage in proficient behaviours, leaders may construe this as followers adhering to standards set by the leader. Leaders may not experience a discrepancy between their actual and ideal leader identities, but may conclude that the follower is supporting their leadership. Tesser (1988) argues that when self-evaluation is affirmative, then an individual's affect turns positive. As a result, leaders may not experience any discomfort but, rather, their positive affect may increase. In addition, there will be a decrease in leaders' negative affect. An increase

in positive affect correlates positively with a positive evaluation of subordinates (Judge & Ferris, 1993); in such cases, leaders may evaluate followers more positively. The change in leaders' negative (positive) affect due to follower behaviours will mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leader evaluations. I propose:

Hypothesis 2: (a) When followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders' negative affect will increase as compared to when followers engage in proficient behaviours; (b) when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders' positive affect will decrease as compared to when followers engage in proficient behaviours.

Hypothesis 3: Change in leaders' negative affect will mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers, such that followers' proactive behaviours will be positively related to change in leaders' negative affect which, in turn, will be negatively related to their evaluation of followers' (a) performance, (b) promotion potential, and (c) competence, but positively related to (d) interpersonal incivility.

Hypothesis 4: Change in leaders' positive affect will mediate the relationship between followers' behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers, such that followers' proactive behaviours will be negatively related to change in leaders' positive affect, which, in turn, will be positively related to their evaluation of followers' (a) performance, (b) promotion potential, and (c) competence, but negatively related to (d) interpersonal incivility.

Hypothesis 5: There will be links between leader identity threat and change in leaders positive and leader reactions. Specifically, there will be mediation effects of leader identity threat through change in leaders' positive affect (parallel mediation) on leader reactions. Leader identity threat would be positively associated with decrease in leaders' positivity

due to follower behaviours and, in turn, be negatively associated with leaders' evaluation of follower (a) performance, (b) promotion potential and (c) competence, while there will be positive associations with leaders' perceptions of follower (d) incivility.

Hypothesis 6: There will be links between leader identity threat and change in leaders' negative affect and leader reactions. Specifically, there will be mediation effects of leader identity threat through change in leaders' negative affect (parallel mediation) on the three measures of leader reactions. Leader identity threat would be positively associated with increase in leaders' negative affect due to follower behaviours and, in turn, be negatively associated with leaders' evaluation of follower (a) performance, (b) promotion potential and (c) competence, while there will be positive associations with leaders' perceptions of follower (d) incivility.

6.3 Variations in leaders' ILTs due to follower proactive behaviours

This study postulates that leaders' ILTs evoked due followers proactive behaviours will vary from the stable ILTs that they hold. However, such variations will not occur when followers engage in proficient behaviours. ILTs are mental schemas concerning the specific attributes and abilities of leaders, and these schemas play a role in the interpretation of stimuli (Lord et al. 1984). Following this logic, leaders' ILTs are relevant to leader identity and play a role in shaping leaders' perceptions and influencing their behaviour. Leaders' ILTs may play a role in leaders' evaluation processes when followers engage in proactive or proficient behaviours. The accessing of leadership schemas is a cognitive process activated when individuals interpret a particular stimulus (Hanges et al., 2000).

Connectionist network perspective argues that the accessing of a particular leadership schema is dependent on the content and strength of the stimulus (Hanges et al., 2000). Schemas are sensitive to context and, depending on the context, specific schemas are evoked (Hanges et al., 2000). This is because due to the stimulus a particular pathway is activated and this then evokes particular schemas (patterns) (Hanges et al., 2000). The authors suggest that the schemas do not change

permanently, but may vary according to the situation. In other words, they are regenerated with variations (Hanges et al., 2000). Following this logic, the prototypes of particular schemas are recreated each time they are used (Lord et al., 2001). This makes the ILTs dynamic, as they are not only used to guide the leadership perception of the perceiver but are also recreated at the time of use (Meindl, 1995). ILTs can be adjusted to fit the change in input patterns (Lord & Shondrick, 2010). For instance, depending on whether follower engage in proactive or proficient behaviours leaders, leaders' access to their ILTs will vary in order to adjust to the situation.

Hanges et al. (2000) suggest that when behaviours accord with expectations, the pathways activated are stable, and familiar patterns of leadership schemas are evoked. For instance, when followers engage in proficient behaviours, these follower behaviours are aligned with the leaders' expectations about follower behaviours and a familiar pattern of stable prototypical leadership schemas will be evoked. As argued in the theoretical framework (see Chapter 2), leaders evaluate follower behaviours vis-à-vis their actual and ideal identities. When followers engage in proficient behaviours, I posit that leaders will be able to effortlessly evoke their stable leadership schemas, consisting of both prototypical ILTs as well as anti-prototypical ILTs, for both their ideal and actual leader identities.

Bechtel and Abrahamsen (2002) suggest that change in schemas can occur when the context changes. When there is a barrier in a particular pathway, then individuals switch to an alternate pathway (Lord & Kernan, 1987). Drawing from these arguments, I postulate that leaders may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as unexpected, causing a loss of their agency as leaders (a barrier). Such events diverge from the familiar scripts and require conscious attention that may change the nature of the cognitive processes (Lord & Kernan, 1987). Drawing from this argument, I theorise when followers engage in proactive behaviours, this will require more attention from leaders. The pathways that will be activated to access leaders' ILTs will differ from those activated when followers engage in proficient behaviours. This may result in variations regarding the leader schemas (ILTs) evoked by leaders. I posit that as a result of the evaluation of loss of agency due to follower proactive behaviours leaders may evoke their leadership schemas which contain less

prototypical ILTs (e.g., less supportive of follower). At the same time, leaders may access more anti-prototypical ILTs from their leadership schemas (e.g., leaders should be more dominating). I propose:

Hypothesis 7: When followers engage in proactive behaviours, there will be variations in leaders' ILTs, such that when followers engage in proactive behaviours, leaders' ILTs will be less prototypical and more anti-prototypical as compared to when followers engage in proficient behaviours.

6.4 Role of follower gender in shaping leaders' perceptions of follower behaviours

As in Study 1 and Study 2 (see Chapters 4 and 5), this study also examines the role of followers' gender-moderating leader identity threat in response to followers' proactive behaviours. Gender of an individual plays a significant role in shaping their identity. I propose:

Hypothesis 8: The gender of followers will moderate leader identity threat, such that leaders will experience more leader identity threat when female followers engage in proactive behaviours, as compared to when male followers engage in the same behaviour.

As argued in the theoretical framework (see Chapter 2), variations in leaders' evaluations of follower behaviours and their reactions towards their followers may occur. Such variations may occur due to individual differences in leaders' CSE and their implicit motives. This study examines leaders' CSE as a moderator of leaders' leader identity threat and leaders' implicit motives as moderators of their reactions towards their followers.

6.5 CSE moderates leader identity threat

This study focuses on leaders' CSE as a moderator of their leader identity threat caused by follower behaviours. CSE are self-evaluations of one's worthiness and enable individuals' interpretation of an event as well as their reactions to an event (Judge et al., 2003).

Judge et al. (2004) argue that individuals with positive CSE appraise themselves positively across situations. Individuals with high CSE have greater self-worth, they manage uncertainties better and are emotionally stable, even in uncertain situation (Srivastava et al., 2010). Following this logic, individuals with low CSE will have lower self-worth, feel less capable of managing uncertain situations, and will experience emotional instability (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998). Individuals with a low CSE may perceive a stimulus that they find as a stressor to be highly threatening (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009). Conversely, “individuals with high CSE consistently appraise themselves positively across situations; such individuals see themselves as capable, worthy, and in control of their lives” (Judge, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2004, p. 326–327). These individuals are more satisfied with their work performance and adapt better to uncertain situations (Judge & Bono, 2001).

Drawing on these arguments, I postulate that leaders’ CSE will influence their evaluations of follower proactive behaviours as leader identity threat. As argued leaders may construe followers’ proactive behaviours as a claim to their leadership and such follower behaviours may be a stressor for leaders. Leaders with low CSE may lack self-worth or may find it difficult to adapt to unexpected or uncertain situations, for example, follower proactive behaviours, as compared to individuals with high CSE. Furthermore, individuals with low CSE focus more on weaknesses than on strengths when receiving feedback (Bono & Colbert, 2005). For instance, individuals with low CSE focus more on the lower rating of the feedback, which reduces their expectation of being able to improve their performance (Bono & Colbert, 2005). I argue that leaders with low CSE may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as a greater threat to their leader identity than leaders with high CSE. I propose:

Hypothesis 9 Leaders’ CSE will moderate leader identity threat due to followers’ behaviours; such that the relationship between follower proactive behaviours and leader identity threat will be more positive for leaders with low CSE and they will experience greater leader identity threat as compared to leaders with high CSE.:

6.6 Implicit affiliation and power motives moderate leader reactions

Implicit motives direct individuals' behaviours toward outcomes that they view as positive for themselves (Schultheiss, 2008; Schultheiss & Pang, 2007). This study postulates that leaders' implicit affiliation motive will moderate the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluation of followers. McClelland (1987) argues that individuals with a high affiliation motive do what they can to maintain a good relationship. A need for affiliation signifies a greater desire to care for and have intimate personal relationships with others, and disruption to relationships is viewed as unpleasant by individuals with a high need for affiliation (Schultheiss, 2008). Studies indicate that individuals with high affiliation motives are more accommodating towards their opponents and avoid interpersonal conflicts avoid raising decision issues in order to avoid the social costs. In other words, individuals high in affiliation motive avoid power struggle and may attempt to reduce the negative outcomes of an interaction for others by behaving in a less supervisory manner (Exline, 1962; Wegner, Bohnacker, Mempel, Teubel, & Schüler, 2014). Drawing from these arguments, I posit that despite leader identity threat caused due to follower proactive behaviours, leaders having high affiliation motive will be apprehensive about reacting negatively towards their followers. Such leaders may be concerned about disrupting their relationship with their followers. In comparison, when threatened by follower behaviours, leaders having low affiliation motive would not be as apprehensive about disrupting their relations with followers. Such leaders will evaluate their followers more negatively. I propose:

Hypothesis 10: Leaders' affiliation motive will moderate the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluation of followers, such that the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluation of followers will be more negative for leaders with a high affiliation motive. Such leaders will evaluate the followers a) performance, (b) promotion potential, (c) competence more positively than leaders with low affiliation motive. Whereas, the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluation of followers' d) interpersonal incivility will be more negative for leaders with a high affiliation motive and leaders will rate

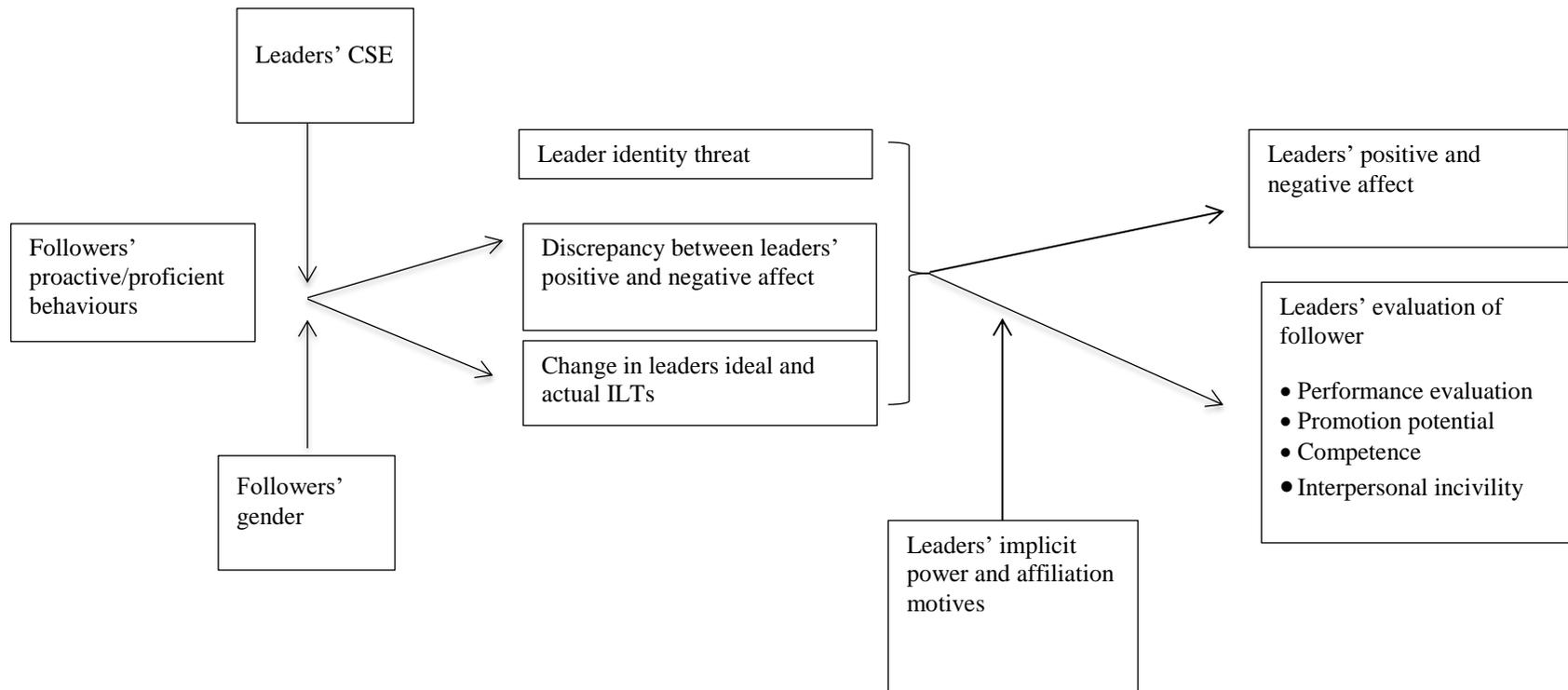
followers less negatively on interpersonal civility than leaders with low affiliation motive

Individuals with high power motive desire to influence others, but not to be influenced by others (Winter, 1994). Individuals with a strong power motive experience the act of influencing others as pleasurable (Schultheiss, 2007). Winter (1973) argues that individuals with high need for power have aversive reactions to the assertiveness of others. Blankenship and Mason (1987) suggest that individuals who have a high need for power have a tendency to be more abusive in their relationships. Power-motivated individuals respond positively to low dominance and submission (e.g., follower proficient behaviours) and dislike the dominance of others (Schultheiss & Hale, 2007; Schultheiss et al., 2005). I argue that leaders' negative reactions are guided by the desire to enhance or restore their position as influencers, i.e., as leaders. In other words, leaders with a high need for power desire being able to influence others. I posit that when follower proactive behaviours are evaluated by leaders as a threat to leader identity, leaders with high need for power will be particularly motivated to restore their agency. In an attempt to reassert influence on their followers, they will evaluate their follower more negatively as compared to leaders with a low need for power. I argue that leaders' implicit power motive moderates the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluation of the followers. I propose:

Hypothesis 11: Leaders' power motive will moderate the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluations of followers, such that the relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluation of followers' a) performance, (b) promotion potential, (c) competence will be more negative for leaders with high power motive. Such leaders will rate the follower more negatively on these parameters than leaders with low power motive.

The relationship between leader identity threat and leaders' evaluation of followers' (d) interpersonal incivility will be more positive for leaders with high power motive and leaders will rate the follower higher on interpersonal incivility than for leaders with low power motive.

Figure 6.1 Theoretical framework of Study 3



6.7 Research Methodology

This study consisted of a pre-experimental phase and the experimental phase. The pre-experimental phase of this study comprised an online survey. In order to capture the changes in leaders' ILTs arising from followers' behaviours, the participants' pre-test ILTs were assessed through a web-based survey using Qualtrics. This took place a minimum of five days before the experiment was conducted on-site at the participants' workplace.

6.7.1. Sample and procedure

I used my professional network to gain access to five companies based in two Indian cities, Mumbai and Pune. The companies were from the banking, telecommunications, infrastructure, automobile, and consumer durables sectors. The companies' HR departments randomly selected participants from their middle management¹⁰. The selection criteria comprised: participants should have a minimum of two years of work experience, and should have supervised a minimum of two subordinates in their career. The survey and experiments were administered in English as it is the language of communication in the corporate sector in India.

One hundred and sixty one employees participated in a pre-experiment survey. Only those participants who had successfully completed this survey received an invitation to participate in the experiment. As expected, there were drop-outs from the experiment. In addition, unforeseen disruptions such as computer crashes during the on-site experiments reduced the number of participants by five, producing a final data set of 117 participants. Of these, 98 were male and 19 female. Their average age was 43.68 years. Fifteen had technical qualifications, 40 had a Bachelor's degree and 62 had a Master's-level degree. On average, the participants had 20.9 years of work experience, and their average tenure with their current company was 11 years. The participants supervised a mean of 5.27 subordinates in their current job and had a

¹⁰ As all the companies were large, with over 10,000 employees, to avoid self-selection bias participants were randomly selected from the middle management level.

mean of 44.5 subordinates supervised throughout their career. The final distribution of participants was 29 for the female proactive follower condition, 39 for the male proactive follower condition, 25 for the female proficient follower condition and 24 for the male proficient follower condition (see Table 6.1).¹¹

Table 6.1 Company-wide distribution of participants for pre-experimental and experimental phases

| | Pre- experiment survey | Experiment |
|-----------|------------------------------|------------|
| Company 1 | 35 | 31 |
| Company 2 | 38 | 33 |
| Company 3 | 44 | 23 |
| Company 4 | 22 | 19 |
| Company 5 | 22 | 11 |
| Total | 161 | 117 |

6.7.2. Research design and procedure

The experiment had a two-factor design (proactive vs. proficient follower behaviour) X (female vs. male follower). Data collection was conducted via Qualtrics.

Participants were requested to complete the pre-experiment online survey through a link provided in the invitation email. Using participants' email ID¹², demographic details, actual and ideal ILTs and CSE. In order to reduce recall bias regarding data collected with regard to ILTs, there was a minimum gap of five days between the two phases. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) suggest that temporal separation reduces common retrieval cues. The maximum gap was 31 days¹³. In addition, the ILT items were presented in a random order.

¹¹ This unequal randomisation of conditions resulted from a new experiment survey launched separately for each company and due to computer crashes.

¹² Email id was a unique code used to combine data from Phase 1 and Phase 2.

¹³ Gap in days was controlled for in ANCOVA for the ILT dimensions and there was no significant differences between pre and post-test ILT dimensions.

The experiment was one hour long. First, I welcomed the participants and briefed them on the experiment; at the end of the experiment, participants were de-briefed about the research (see Appendix 4b). The first task that the participant completed was the picture story experience (PSE), following the guidelines of Winter (1994) and Schultheiss and Pang (2007). Five pictures were presented in a random order for ten seconds each. After each picture had been revealed, the page automatically moved to a screen on which the participants had to write a short story based on the picture they had seen. A series of questions as suggested by Schultheiss and Pang (2007) appeared above the text space: “*What is happening? Who are the people? What happened before? What are the people thinking about and feeling? What do they want? What will happen next?*” Participants were informed that they had approximately five minutes per picture to write their story.

Then, as in Study 1, all participants completed the leader identity salience task. Next, the participants’ pre-test affect was measured. As in Studies 1 and 2, they read scenarios containing the manipulations (see Appendix 1), and then rated items measuring their post-test affect. Next, participants completed a series of measures related to leader evaluation followed by the follower behaviour manipulation checks. These checks were identical to those in Studies 1 and 2.

6.7.3. Measures

Leader identity threat. Five items relating to leader identity threat (Burriss, 2012) and (Menon et al., 2006) were adapted for this study. Items used in this study were, “*How important would it be for you to maintain the originality of your ideas?*”, “*How likely is it that you will lose status in the organisation by using ideas from Pat?*” (see Appendix 4 for list of items). These items were measured on a scale ranging from 1 “Very unlikely” to 7 “Very likely”. An additional item from Study 1 was included: “*If you were the company director, to what extent would you be threatened by Pat’s behaviour?*” on a scale from 1 “Not at all threatened” to 5 “Highly threatened”. Due to the variations in ranges of the scales (1 to 5) and (1 to 7), these six items were standardised using “z-transformation” procedures. I conducted an EFA on these standardised z-score items with principle axis factoring and oblimin rotation. The results supported a two-factor solution. However, five items were

highly correlated on both the factors. This could be due to the combination of the single item measure, items from Menon et al., (2006) and Burris (2012)¹⁴. Only the single item “*If you were the company director, to what extent would you be threatened by Pat’s behaviour?*” used in Study 1 loaded on to one factor and had a high factor loading of 0.95. Hence, only this item was used for leader identity threat. In Study 2, a high correlation ($r = .83^{**}$) was observed between this item and Menon et al.’s (2006) five items. This high correlation suggests that the single item effectively captures leader identity threat.

Performance evaluation. The items were identical to those in Study 2. For the item, “*Overall, how would you rate Pat’s performance over the past year?*” the scale range was 1 “Excellent” to 7 “Average”. The ratings for this item were reverse coded. Cronbach’s alpha for these three items was = 0.67.

Promotion potential. The four items were identical to those in Study 2, ($\alpha = 0.81$).

Competence. For this measure, four items were used from Heilman and Chen (2005). Leaders rated the items on a scale ranging from 1 “Very little” to 7 “Very much”. The items were “productive”, “effective”, “competent”, and “decisive”. Confirmatory factor analysis the internal reliability increased from four items ($\alpha = .78$) to three items ($\alpha = .87$) after the item “decisive” was removed. (CFA)¹⁵ of the follower competence items revealed that the standardised factor loading for “decisive” was low at 0.21, while the other three items ranged from 0.63 to 0.72.

Interpersonal incivility. For this measure, items drawn from Heilman and Chen (2005) were “nasty”, “selfish”, and “manipulative”. Leaders rated these items on a 7-point scale, from 1 “Very little” to 7 “Very much”. The aim of this measure was to capture leaders’ negative attitude towards followers ($\alpha = 0.75$).

¹⁴ For this study, I had integrated three measures to investigate leader identity threat (the single item measure used in Study 1, the identity threat measures of Menon et al. (2006), and Burris’s (2012) voice-related identity threat measure). The EFA conducted revealed high cross-loadings across three factors. Hence, only the single item measure from Study 1 was used to measure leader identity threat.

Positive affect and negative affect. This measure consisted of 12 adjectives, six assessing positive affect, “calm”, “contented”, “relaxed”, “cheerful”, “enthusiastic”, and “optimistic”, and six describing negative affect, “tense”, “uneasy”, “worried”, “depressed”, “gloomy”, “miserable” (Warr, 1990). Participants were asked: “*How do you feel at this particular moment?*” The measures were presented twice, pre-test and post-test, and rated on a scale from 1 “Not at all or very slightly” to 5 “Extremely”.

Pre-test positive affect (6 items; $\alpha = .75$). **and post-test positive affect** (6 items; $\alpha = 0.79$).

Pre-test negative affect: The internal reliability of pre-test negative affect increased from (6 items; $\alpha = 0.69$) to (5 items; $\alpha = 0.76$). The CFA was conducted for both pre-test negative affect and post-test negative affect. Except for the item “gloomy”, which loaded at .21 for pre-test negative affect, all other items had factor loadings between .54 and 0.72. Gloomy had a factor loading of .23 for post-test negative affect, while all other items loaded over .40

Post-test negative affect: The internal reliability of pre-test negative affect increased from (6 items; $\alpha = 0.73$) to (5 items; $\alpha = 0.78$) for post-test 2 negative affect. The CFA revealed that the item gloomy had a factor loading of .23 for post-test negative affect, while all other items loaded over .40. Hence, “gloomy” was dropped from the pre-test as well as the post-test negative affect.

Actual and ideal ILTs. Twenty-one traits from Epitropaki and Martin (2005) were employed to measure participants’ actual (self) and ideal ILTs in the pre and post-tests (see Appendix 4a). The participants were instructed to “*Indicate the degree to which you see the image of yourself as a leader representing each of the below given attributes*” and “*Indicate the degree to which you see the image of an ideal leader representing each of the below given attributes*” on a scale ranging from 1 “Not at all Characteristic” to 9 “Extremely Characteristic”.

I conducted an EFA on these items with principle axis factoring with oblimin rotation. An EFA was run for pre-test and post-test ILTs for both the ideal and actual leader ILTs measures. Only those factors that matched consistently across the four measures were used to create the ILT dimensions: self-dynamism and ideal

dynamism (“motivated” and “dynamism”); self-tyranny and ideal tyranny: (“loud”, “domineering”, and “pushy”); self-intelligence and ideal intelligence (“knowledgeable” and “intelligence”). Variables for pre-test (P1) and post-test (P2) were, Self P1 Dynamism ($\alpha = 0.81$), Self P2 Dynamism ($\alpha = 0.72$), Ideal P1 Dynamism ($\alpha = 0.62$), Ideal P2 Dynamism ($\alpha = 0.73$), Self P1 Intelligence ($\alpha = 0.82$), Self P2 Intelligence ($\alpha = 0.73$), Self P1 Intelligence ($\alpha = 0.66$), Self P2 Intelligence ($\alpha = 0.71$), Self P1 Tyranny ($\alpha = 0.68$), Self P2 Tyranny ($\alpha = 0.76$), Ideal P1 Tyranny ($\alpha = .61$), Ideal P2 Tyranny ($\alpha = .70$).

Core self-evaluation. Twelve CSE items from Judge et al. (2003) were employed in this study. The participants were asked to rate themselves on items such as “*I am confident I get the success I deserve in life*”. These were rated on a scale ranging from 1 “Strongly disagree” to 5 “Strongly agree”. Six items were then reverse coded (see details in Appendix 4a). The internal reliability was 0.78

Power motive and affiliation motive. The pictures used in this study were of a ship’s captain, an arguing couple, a couple by a river, a couple at a party, and three people sitting¹⁶ (see Appendix 4b). The stories written by participants were coded by me and a trained scorer using Winter’s (1994) manual¹⁷. The sum of scores for the leaders’ power motive and affiliation motive were analysed in the stories written by the participants. The average word count per picture was ($M = 81.72$, $SD = 29.59$). Participants wrote words containing affiliation motive ($M = 4.80$, $SD = 2.36$) and power motive ($M = 1.89$, $SD = 2.09$). Motive scores were summed separately for both

¹⁶Pictures were sourced from Dr. Joyce Pang (Joyce Pang, personal communication, 22, June 2015). Two pictures (Ship captain and arguing couple) contained cues to elicit power motives, the third and fourth (couple by the river and party) contained cues to elicit affiliation motives, and the fifth picture (three people sitting) contained cues for both power and affiliation motives. Schultheiss and Pang (2007) suggest that a combination of five pictures is appropriate to measure two motives.

¹⁷Winters Manual (1994) was used for scoring motive imagery in running text and states a minimum of 12 hours of training is required to attain a success rate of 85 per cent correct scoring; this was achieved by both coders. The interrater reliability score on the data set of this study was .83. In order to maintain the quality of coding, the coders then jointly discussed the scores before the final score for each motive (per participant) was included in the data set.

motives across all five stories. Correlation analysis indicated that the raw scores of the motives were highly and positively correlated with the protocol length ($r = .43^{**}$) for power motive and ($r = .38^{**}$) for affiliation motive. As suggested by Winter (1994), if the correlations are significant, then the sum of raw scores cannot be used. This was solved by converting the residuals to z scores corrected for protocol length by regression (Schultheiss, Wirth, et al., 2005). The converted power and affiliation motive scores did not significantly deviate from a normal distribution and were used for moderation analysis using Hayes (2012) Model 1 of the PROCESS Macro¹⁸.

Manipulation checks. The manipulation checks were identical to those in Studies 1 and 2 of this thesis.

Proficient behaviours: $\alpha = 0.95$.

Proactive behaviours: The internal reliability for the proactive behaviour was $\alpha = 0.87$.

As in Studies 1 and 2, participants also rated the follower behaviours in the scenarios for alignment with the proactive behaviours description and the proficient behaviour description.

I conducted a series of CFAs for the key variables in Study 3 (i.e. Time 1 and Time 2 positive and negative affect, performance evaluation, promotion potential, competence, interpersonal incivility, CSE and proficient behaviour and, proactive behaviours manipulation checks) in order to examine the discriminant validity of the measures. Single item measures, for example leader identity threat were not included. The six variables pertaining to the ILTs were not included in this analysis. ILT measures required matching between Time 1 and Time 2 Ideal and actual ILTs. These were analysed through EFA.

Results for the CFA conducted indicate that the proposed 11-factor model did not fit best with a fit indices of $\chi^2 = 11747, 1154, p > .001$ CFI = .78, RMSEA = .06. The 9-

¹⁸ This procedure was evaluated as appropriate. (Joyce Pang, personal communication, August 15, 2017).

factor model created by removing the manipulation check variables (proactive and proficient behaviours) had a better fit, $\chi^2 = 923.41$, 693, $p < .001$, CFI = .89, RMSEA = .05. As these were not key to the analysis of the hypothesised model. The 9-factor model is acceptable as compared to the 11-factor model, $\Delta\chi^2 = 10814.9$, $df = 459$; $p < .001$.

6.7.4. Analysis strategy

Analysis for this within-subjects and between-groups design study was done in SPSS version 22. As in Study 2 (see Chapter 5), an independent variable was created, namely follower behaviour, consisting of follower proactive behaviour condition coded as 1 and proficient behaviour condition coded as 0. In order to analyse the influence of gender on leader identity threat, an independent variable, named 'all conditions' was created. This variable consisted of all the four conditions (follower behaviours X follower gender).

The analysis initially controlled for the demographic variables and companies¹⁹, however, neither the direction nor strength of the results changed when these control variables were included in the analyses, and they were thus excluded.

Mixed-design repeated measures ANOVA technique was employed to analyse change in leaders' negative affect due to follower behaviours by using pre-test negative affect and post-test negative affect (within-subject) and follower proactive or proficient behaviours (between-subjects). The same technique was employed to analyse change in leaders' positive affect due to follower behaviours.

I used the difference method (VanderWeele, 2016) to analyse change in leaders' negative affect as a mediator of the relationship between followers' behaviours and leaders' reactions; post-test negative affect was considered as the mediator in Model 4 of the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012) and pre-test negative affect as a covariate (in both the first and second stage). The same technique was employed to analyse

¹⁹ Dummy codes were created for the companies and regressions run with leader identity threat as the mediator variable and company variable as the covariate. Company variable did not have any significant effect on the regressions.

change in leaders' positive affect as a mediator of the relationship between followers' behaviours and leaders' reactions.

6.8 Manipulation check validity: Follower behaviours

Table 6.2 displays means, standard deviations, and correlations for the manipulation checks.

Table 6.2 Means, standard deviations, correlations of manipulation checks, Study 3

| Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|------------------------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Proactive behaviour | 3.70 | 0.92 | | | |
| Proactive description | 4.94 | 0.80 | .67** | .05 | |
| Proficient behaviour | 3.75 | 1.07 | .08 | 1.00 | |
| Proficient description | 3.98 | 0.81 | .19* | .59** | .29** |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

One-way ANOVA results suggest that leaders who read the proactive behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat engaged in proactive behaviour ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 0.81$), as compared to leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenarios ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 0.98$; $F(1, 115) = 10.75$, $p < .01$).

One-way ANOVA results suggest that leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat engaged in proficient behaviour ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 0.52$), as compared to leaders who received scenarios where followers engaged in proactive behaviours, ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.11$; $F(1, 115) = 44.43$, $p < .001$).

Finally, one-way ANOVA results suggest that leaders who read the proactive behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat's behaviour was aligned to the proactive behaviour description ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 0.72$), as compared to leaders who read the proficient behaviour description ($M = 4.71$, $SD = 0.87$; $F(1, 115) = 7.04$, $p < .05$).

One-way ANOVA results suggest that leaders who read the proficient behaviour scenario were more likely to indicate that Pat's behaviour was aligned to the proficient behaviour description ($M = 4.39$, $SD = 0.49$) as compared to leaders who

received scenarios where followers engaged in proactive behaviour description ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 0.87$; $F(1, 114) = 25.57$, $p < .001$).

These results suggest that the follower behaviour manipulations in the scenarios were effective. Leaders found follower behaviours presented in the scenarios to be aligned with the proactive and proficient behaviour descriptions from the proactivity literature (Griffin et al., 2007).

6.9 Results

Table 6.3 displays means, standard deviations, and correlations of the study variables.

Table 6.3 Means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 3

| | Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
|----|---------------------------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|--------|--------|-------|
| 1 | Gender ¹ | 1.16 | 0.37 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Age | 43.68 | 5.62 | .05 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | Education ² | 2.40 | 0.71 | .08 | -.19* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | Experience(current) | 11.23 | 7.62 | .07 | .50** | -.24* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | Experience(total) | 20.90 | 6.01 | .04 | .93** | -.24* | .52** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 | Current subordinates | 5.72 | 4.22 | -.14 | .01 | .06 | .01 | .02 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | Maximum subordinate | 45.81 | 68.24 | -.12 | .24* | -.04 | .16 | .34** | .20* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | CSE | 3.79 | 0.46 | -.03 | -.02 | .05 | -.07 | .00 | -.23* | .07 | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | Leader identity threat | 1.69 | 0.75 | .12 | .18 | .07 | .21* | -.02 | -.12 | -.10 | -.21* | | | | | | | | |
| 10 | Performance evaluation | 5.98 | 0.82 | .06 | -.03 | .03 | -.07 | .17 | -.03 | .15 | .11 | -.35** | | | | | | | |
| 11 | Promotion potential | 5.56 | 0.89 | .06 | -.12 | .06 | -.01 | .04 | -.13 | .11 | .08 | -.32** | .63** | | | | | | |
| 12 | Follower competence | 6.06 | 0.80 | .09 | -.16 | .01 | -.01 | -.06 | -.03 | .193* | .15 | -.27** | .49** | .59** | | | | | |
| 13 | Interpersonal incivility | 2.39 | 1.29 | -.17 | .06 | .00 | .07 | -.10 | .01 | -.08 | .01 | .42** | -.51** | -.36** | -.44** | | | | |
| 14 | Pre-test Positive affect | 3.89 | 0.67 | -.08 | .02 | -.10 | -.14 | .01 | -.07 | .03 | .23* | -.14 | .17 | .02 | .05 | -.19* | | | |
| 15 | Post-test Positive affect | 3.84 | 0.69 | -.03 | .04 | -.01 | -.25** | .03 | -.17 | .14 | .24** | -.15 | .26** | .14 | .187* | -.244** | .62** | | |
| 16 | Pre-test Negative affect | 1.37 | 0.51 | -.06 | .13 | .09 | .10 | .01 | -.05 | .00 | -.17 | .17 | -.25** | -.12 | -.22* | .27** | -.39** | -.29** | |
| 17 | Post-test Negative affect | 1.43 | 0.55 | -.08 | .01 | .05 | .15 | .08 | -.03 | -.16 | -.29** | .40** | -.34** | -.20* | -.31** | .37** | -.25** | -.52** | .43** |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Gender¹ is categorical a variable 1= Male, 2 = Female. Education² categorised 1= Technical, 2= Bachelors, 3 = Masters, 4= PhD

Table Contd.

| | | Correlations | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|------|--------------|-------|--------|------|------|------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Variable | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 |
| 18 Self P1 Intelligence | 7.61 | 0.85 | -.06 | .05 | .01 | .00 | .02 | -.13 | -.01 | .37** | -.12 | .10 | .08 | .13 | -.01 | .16 | .19* | -.02 | -.16 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 19 Self P2 Intelligence | 7.65 | 0.92 | -.01 | .07 | .01 | .04 | .08 | -.16 | .02 | .24** | -.02 | .15 | .200* | .18* | -.18* | .15 | .25** | .00 | -.18* | .55** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20 Ideal P1 Intelligence | 8.03 | 0.84 | .13 | .08 | -.04 | .08 | .10 | -.22* | .00 | .28** | -.14 | .16 | .24** | .12 | -.11 | .01 | .03 | -.05 | -.11 | .545** | .36** | | | | | | | | | |
| 21 Ideal P2 Intelligence | 8.22 | 0.78 | .12 | -.01 | -.02 | .08 | .03 | -.07 | -.09 | .13 | .01 | .15 | .22* | .24** | -.23* | .06 | .07 | -.04 | -.07 | .35** | .58** | .43** | | | | | | | | |
| 22 Self P1 Dynamism | 7.82 | 0.91 | .00 | -.05 | -.03 | -.02 | -.01 | -.05 | .01 | .50** | -.11 | .00 | -.04 | .14 | .01 | .27** | .21* | -.22* | -.28** | .57** | .32** | .39** | .28** | | | | | | | |
| 23 Self P2 Dynamism | 7.91 | 0.86 | -.01 | -.11 | -.09 | -.06 | -.04 | -.07 | .08 | .43** | -.17 | .22* | .13 | .33** | -.09 | .34** | .31** | -.19* | -.34** | .38** | .47** | .33** | .30** | .55** | | | | | | |
| 24 Ideal P1 Dynamism | 8.38 | 0.77 | .10 | -.11 | -.05 | -.05 | -.06 | -.03 | .06 | .33** | -.08 | .08 | .09 | .23* | -.04 | .13 | .16 | -.19* | -.26** | .40** | .12 | .36** | .04 | .62** | .41** | | | | | |
| 25 Ideal P2 Dynamism | 8.53 | 0.55 | .19* | -.25** | -.11 | -.04 | -.17 | .01 | -.07 | .33** | -.19* | .22* | .22* | .43** | -.27** | .12 | .08 | -.19* | -.34** | .10 | .23* | .16 | .34** | .37** | .53** | .34** | | | | |
| 26 Self P1 Tyranny | 4.88 | 1.56 | -.21* | .01 | .02 | -.12 | .02 | .10 | -.05 | .04 | -.02 | -.06 | -.06 | -.13 | .10 | .03 | .03 | .12 | .06 | .07 | .03 | -.01 | -.03 | .10 | .00 | .06 | -.01 | | | |
| 27 Self P2 Tyranny | 4.94 | 1.66 | -.15 | .04 | .11 | -.15 | .05 | .11 | .03 | .02 | .04 | -.01 | .00 | -.14 | .16 | -.06 | .04 | .09 | -.01 | .01 | -.02 | .01 | -.07 | .06 | -.01 | .03 | .01 | .79** | | |
| 28 Ideal P1 Tyranny | 4.88 | 1.53 | -.15 | -.01 | .06 | -.11 | .00 | .08 | -.05 | -.03 | -.01 | -.05 | -.02 | -.15 | .12 | -.03 | .02 | .14 | .14 | -.03 | -.05 | .00 | -.07 | -.03 | -.15 | -.08 | -.10 | .77** | .64** | |
| 29 Ideal P2 Tyranny | 4.80 | 1.77 | -.19* | .00 | .13 | -.14 | -.05 | .12 | -.06 | -.12 | .07 | -.13 | -.06 | -.27** | .31** | -.13 | -.09 | .14 | .13 | -.10 | -.12 | -.14 | -.19* | -.08 | -.22* | -.09 | -.14 | .67** | .79** | .72** |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be significant differences in leaders' experiences of leader identity threat due to follower behaviours and that leader identity threat would mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers. First, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted to analyse the differences for the above-mentioned outcomes due to follower proactive and proficient behaviours. The results are summarised in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 One-way ANOVA results of leaders' evaluation of follower behaviours

| Variable | Followers' proactive behaviour | | Followers' proficient behaviour | | F | P |
|--------------------------|--------------------------------|------|---------------------------------|------|-------|------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | |
| Leader identity threat | 1.82 | 0.81 | 1.51 | 0.62 | 5.18 | .03 |
| Performance evaluation | 5.89 | 0.95 | 6.11 | 0.57 | 2.12 | .15 |
| Promotion potential | 5.53 | 0.97 | 5.60 | 0.78 | 0.21 | .65 |
| Competence | 5.94 | 0.89 | 6.23 | 0.62 | 3.98 | .048 |
| Interpersonal incivility | 2.77 | 1.35 | 1.86 | 0.98 | 16.16 | .00 |

df (1,115)

The results indicate that leaders' leader identity threat was significantly higher when followers engaged in proactive behaviours compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours. There were no significant differences for leaders' evaluation of followers' performance or promotion potential due to follower proactive or proficient behaviours. However, there was a moderate negative correlation between leader identity threat and their evaluation of followers' performance ($r = -0.35$, $p < .001$) and followers' promotion potential ($r = -0.32$, $p < .001$). This suggests that although there were no significant differences for leaders' evaluation of follower performance or promotion potential between the experimental groups, leaders whose identity was threatened tended to evaluate follower performance and promotion potential more negatively as compared to leaders whose identity was not threatened.

Leaders evaluated the competence of the follower significantly lower when followers engaged in proactive behaviours than when followers engaged in proficient behaviours. Leaders evaluated interpersonal incivility significantly higher when

followers engaged in proactive behaviours as compared to followers engaging in proficient behaviours.

Mediation analyses with a bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 cases with bias-corrected percentile method were conducted using Model 4 of the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012). The mediation analyses are summarised in Table 6.5. The results indicate that follower proactive behaviours had a significant effect on leader identity threat ($b = 0.313$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(115) = 2.28$, $p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 1(a) was supported.

The indirect effect for performance evaluation was significant ($b = -0.116$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(115)$, $BCa\ CI [-.309, -.018]$). This suggests that leader identity threat mediated the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' performance evaluation of followers. Increases in leader identity threat were associated with decreases in leaders' performance evaluation of the follower. However, the direct effect was not significant ($b = -0.105$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(115) = -0.71$, $p = .48$, $CI [-.397, .187]$). This suggests that leader identity threat completely mediated the negative relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers. Thus, Hypothesis 1(b) was fully supported.

The indirect effect for leaders' evaluation of followers' promotion potential was significant ($b = -0.121$, $SE = 0.07$, $BCa\ CI [-.318, -.022]$). This suggests that increases in leader identity threat were associated with decreases in leaders' evaluation of followers' promotion potential. The direct effect was non-significant ($b = 0.045$, $SE = 0.16$, $t(115) = 0.27$, $p = .78$, $CI [-.279, .368]$). This suggests that leader identity threat fully mediated the negative relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' promotion potential. Accordingly, full support was found for Hypothesis 1(c).

In the case of leaders' evaluation of followers' competence, the indirect effect was significant ($b = -0.080$, $SE = 0.06$, $CI [-.256, -.010]$), suggesting that increases in leader identity threat were associated with decreases in leaders' evaluation of followers' competence. The direct effect was non-significant ($b = -0.215$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(115) = -1.46$, $p = .15$, $CI [-.507, .077]$). This suggests that leaders' leader identity threat completely mediated the negative relationship between follower behaviours

and leaders' perceptions of follower competence. Therefore, Hypothesis 2(d) was fully supported.

Results for leaders' evaluation of followers' interpersonal incivility indicate that the indirect effect was significant ($b = 0.194$, $SE = 0.10$, $CI = [.041, .450]$). This suggests that increases in leader identity threat were associated with increases in leaders' evaluation of followers' interpersonal incivility. The direct effect was also significant ($b = 0.717$, $SE = 0.22$, $t(115) = 3.33$, $p < .001$, $CI [.290, 1.144]$). This indicated that the mediation was partial. Hence, Hypothesis 2(e) was partially supported (see Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Leader identity threat as mediator of follower behaviours and interpersonal incivility

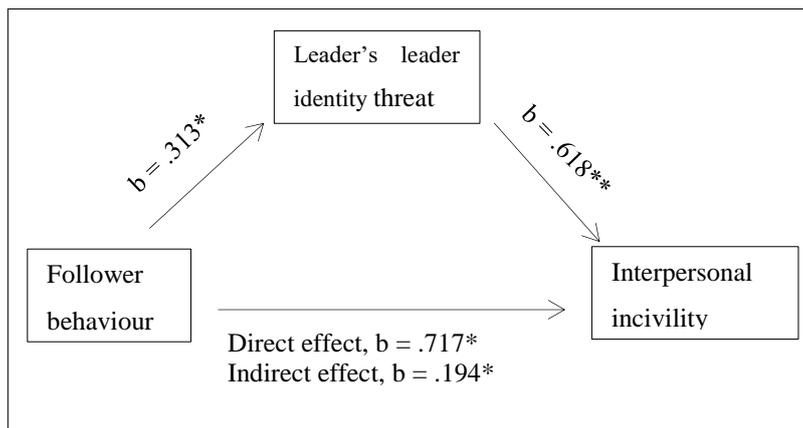


Table 6.5 Mediation analysis of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader evaluations of the follower mediated by leader identity threat

| Hypothesis 1(b): Performance evaluation | | | | | |
|---|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.313 | 0.137 | 2.275 | .03 | [.041, .586] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.371 | 0.098 | -3.806 | .00 | [-.565, -.178] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.222 | 0.152 | -1.455 | .15 | [-.523, .080] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.116 | 0.070 | | | [-.309, -.018] |
| Direct effect : C` | -0.105 | 0.147 | -0.714 | .48 | [-.397, .187] |

| Hypothesis 1(c): Promotion potential | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------|-------|--------|-----|-----------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.313 | 0.137 | 2.275 | .03 | [.041, .586] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.386 | 0.108 | -3.570 | .00 | [-.6005, -.172] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.076 | 0.168 | -0.46 | .65 | [-.409, .256] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.121 | 0.072 | | | [-.318, -.022] |
| Direct effect : C` | 0.045 | 0.163 | 0.274 | .78 | [-.279, .368] |

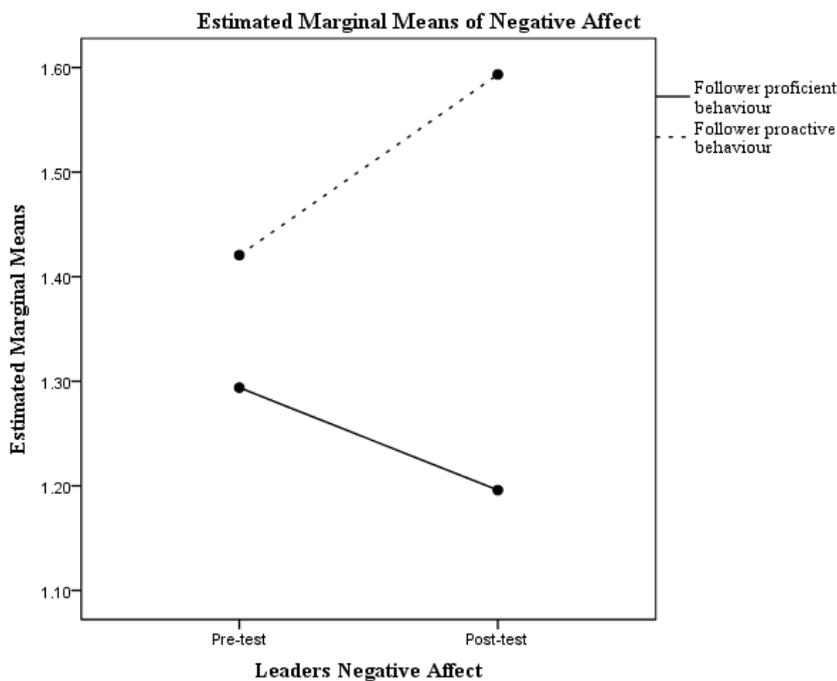
| Hypothesis 1(d): Competence | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|--------|-------|--------|------|-----------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.313 | 0.137 | 2.275 | .03 | [.041, .586] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.256 | 0.098 | -2.616 | .00 | [-.450, -.062] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.295 | 0.148 | -1.995 | .049 | [-0.588, -.002] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | -0.080 | 0.056 | | | [-.256, -.010] |
| Direct effect: C` | -0.215 | 0.148 | -1.457 | .15 | [-.507, .077] |

| Hypothesis 1(e): Interpersonal incivility | | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-------|------|---------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.313 | 0.137 | 2.275 | .03 | [.041, .586] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.618 | 0.143 | 4.325 | .00 | [.335, .900] |
| Path c: X on Y | 0.911 | 0.265 | 4.019 | .00 | [.462, 1.359] |
| Indirect effect: C-C` | 0.194 | 0.101 | | | [.041, .450] |
| Direct effect: C` | 0.717 | 0.216 | 3.326 | .001 | [.290, 1.144] |

b = unstandardised scores. Path a = effect of follower behaviours on leader identity threat, Path b = effect of leader identity threat on DVs, Path c = effect of follower behaviours on DVs

Hypothesis 2(a) stated that leaders' negative affect would increase when followers engaged in proactive behaviours as compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours. The results of the mixed repeated measures ANOVA indicate a significant interaction between leaders' negative affect and follower behaviours (Pillai = 0.056, $F(1, 115) = 6.80, p < .05$)²⁰. This suggests that leaders' negative affect changed significantly from pre-test to post-test due to follower behaviours. There was a significant main effect of followers' proactive and proficient behaviours ($F(1, 115) = 10.53, p < 0.01$). This effect indicates that follower proactive and proficient behaviours had a significantly different effect on leaders' negative affect. The estimated marginal means graph shows that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' negative affect from pre-test to post-test, while leaders' negative affect decreased from pre-test to post-test when followers engaged in proficient behaviours (see Figure 6.3). Accordingly, Hypothesis 2(a) was supported.

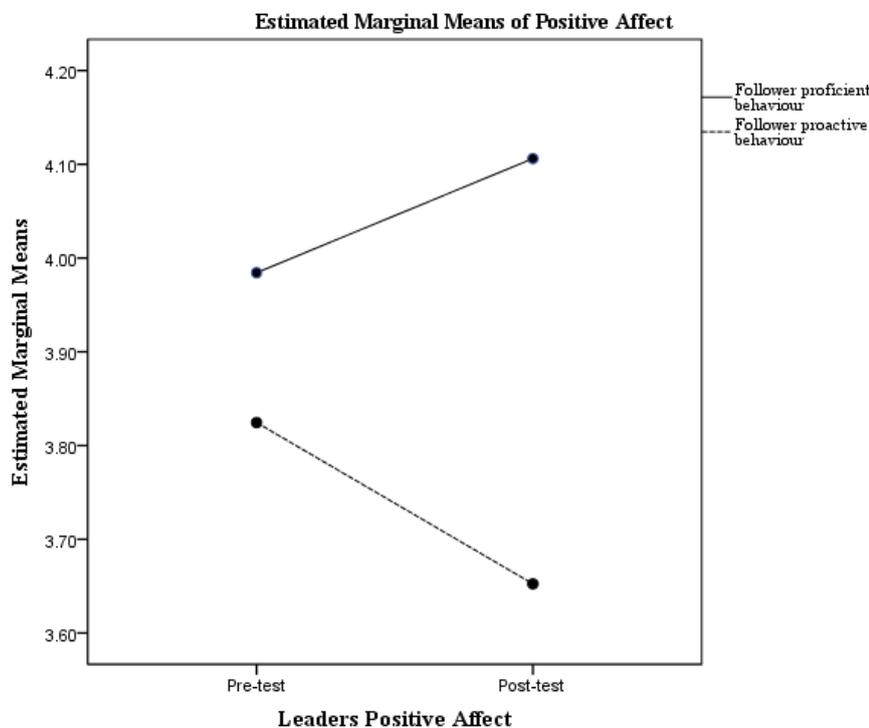
Figure 6.3 Change in leaders' negative affect due to followers' behaviours



²⁰ Box's test was significant ($p < .001$). This indicates that the test for homogeneity between the groups was violated and the groups were unequal (Field, 2013). In such instances, it is recommended that results based on Pillai's trace be used (Field, 2013).

Hypothesis 2(b) stated that leaders' positive affect would decrease when followers engaged in proactive behaviours as compared to when followers engaged in proficient behaviours. The results of the mixed repeated measures ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between leaders' positive affect and follower behaviours (Wilks' Lambda = 0.94, $F(1, 115) = 7.25$, $p < .01$). This indicated that leaders' positive affect changed significantly from pre-test to post-test due to follower behaviours. There was a significant main effect of followers' proactive and proficient behaviours for positive affect ($F(1, 115) = 7.57$, $p < .01$). This effect indicated that follower proactive and proficient behaviours had a significantly different effect on leaders' positive affect. The estimated marginal means graph shows that follower proactive behaviours decreased leaders' positive affect from pre-test to post test. In contrast, leaders' positive affect increased from pre-test to post-test when followers engaged in proficient behaviours (see Figure 6.4). Thus, Hypothesis 2(b) was supported.

Figure 6.4 Change in leaders' positive affect due to followers' behaviours



Hypothesis 3 stated that change in leaders' negative affect would mediate the relationship between followers' behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers.

Mediation analysis was conducted using Model 4 of the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012) with a bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 cases. Post-test negative affect was considered as the mediator, while controlling for pre-test negative affect as the covariate. A summary of the mediation analysis is given in Table 6.6.

Analysis revealed that the indirect effect was significant ($b = -0.142$, $SE = 0.08$, BCa CI [-.318, -.019]) for change in leaders' negative affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' performance. This suggests that increases in leaders' negative affect were associated with decreases in leaders' evaluation of followers' performance. However, the direct effect was non-significant ($b = -0.03$, $SE = 0.16$, $t(114) = -0.21$, $p = .83$, CI [-.339, .275]). This suggests that change in leaders' negative affect fully mediated the negative relationship between follower behaviours and performance evaluation. Therefore, full support was found for Hypothesis 3(a).

The results for change in leaders' negative affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' promotion potential indicated a non-significant indirect effect ($b = -0.109$, $SE = 0.07$, CI [-.273, .001]). Thus, Hypothesis 3(b) was not supported.

The indirect effect was significant ($b = -0.111$, $SE = 0.07$, BCa CI [-.282, -.006]) for change in leaders' negative affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' competence. This suggests that increases in leaders' negative affect were associated with decreases in leaders' evaluation of followers' competence. The direct effect was non-significant ($b = -0.14$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(114) = -0.93$, $p = .35$, CI [-.447, .161]). This suggests that a change in leaders' negative affect fully mediated the negative relationship between follower behaviours and follower competence. Accordingly, Hypothesis 3(c) was fully supported.

Finally, the indirect effect was significant ($b = -0.172$, $SE = 0.10$, BCa CI [.019, .393]) for leaders' evaluation of followers' interpersonal incivility. This suggests that increases in leaders' negative affect was associated with increases in leaders' evaluation of followers' interpersonal incivility. The direct effect was also significant

($b = 0.67$, $SE = 0.23$, $t(114) = 2.86$, $p < .05$, $CI [.205, 1.129]$). This suggests that change in leaders' negative affect partially mediated the positive relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of follower interpersonal incivility. As a result, Hypothesis 3(d) was partially supported.

Table 6.6 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' negative affect as mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers

| Hypothesis 3(a): Performance evaluation | | | | | |
|---|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.344 | 0.089 | 3.866 | .00 | [.167, .520] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.421 | 0.864 | 4.879 | .00 | [.250, .593] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.413 | 0.154 | -2.689 | .01 | [-.717, -.109] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | -0.198 | 0.156 | -1.270 | .21 | [-.759, .3636] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.175 | 0.149 | -1.164 | .25 | [-.718, -.108] |
| Indirect effects: C-C [^] | -0.142 | 0.075 | | | [-.318, -.019] |
| Direct effect: C [^] | -0.032 | 0.155 | -0.21 | .83 | [-.339, .275] |
| Hypothesis 3(b): Promotion potential | | | | | |
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.344 | 0.089 | 3.866 | .00 | [.167, .520] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.421 | 0.864 | 4.879 | .00 | [.250, .593] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.316 | 0.176 | -1.796 | .08 | [-.664, .032] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | -0.067 | 0.178 | -0.376 | .71 | [-.420, .286] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.051 | 0.169 | -0.302 | .76 | [-.385, .283] |
| Indirect effect: C-C [^] | -0.109 | 0.068 | | | [-.273, .001] |
| Direct effect: C [^] | 0.058 | 0.178 | 0.325 | .75 | [-.294, .410] |
| Hypothesis 3(c): Competence | | | | | |
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.344 | 0.089 | 3.866 | .00 | [.167, .520] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.421 | 0.864 | 4.879 | .00 | [.250, .593] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.324 | 0.152 | -2.131 | .04 | [-.624, -.023] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | -0.183 | 0.154 | -1.188 | .24 | [-.488, .122] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.255 | 0.147 | -1.737 | .09 | [-.545, .036] |
| Indirect effect: C-C [^] | -0.111 | 0.067 | | | [-.282, -.006] |
| Direct effect: C [^] | -0.143 | 0.153 | -0.934 | .35 | [-.447, .161] |
| Hypothesis 3(d): Interpersonal incivility | | | | | |
| | b | SE | T | P | CI |
| Path a: X on M | 0.344 | 0.089 | 3.866 | .00 | [.167, .520] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.421 | 0.864 | 4.879 | .00 | [.250, .593] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.499 | 0.231 | 2.164 | .03 | [.042, .956] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | 0.359 | 0.234 | 1.534 | .13 | [-.105, .822] |
| Path c: X on Y | 0.839 | 0.223 | 3.767 | .00 | [.398, 1.279] |
| Indirect effect: C-C [^] | 0.172 | 0.096 | | | [.019, .393] |
| Direct effect: C [^] | 0.667 | 0.233 | 2.862 | .01 | [.205, 1.129] |

b = unstandardised coefficient. Path a = effect of follower behaviours on leaders' negative affect, Path b = effect of change in leaders' negative affect on DVs, Path c = effect of follower behaviours on DVs. Covariate T 1* = Pre-test negative affect 1st stage, Covariate T 1[†] = Pre-test negative affect 2nd stage.

Hypothesis 4 stated that change in leaders' positive affect would mediate the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers. Mediation analyses were conducted using Model 4 of the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012) with a bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 cases with post-test positive affect as the mediator, while controlling for pre-test positive affect. The results are summarised in Table 6.7.

The results for change in leaders' positive affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' performance indicated that the indirect effect was significant ($b = -0.097$, $SE = 0.51$, $BCa\ CI [-.220, -.016]$). This suggests that increases in leaders' positive affect was associated with decreases in leaders' evaluation of follower performance. However, the direct effect was non-significant ($b = -0.095$, $SE = 0.16$, $t(114) = -0.60$, $p = .55$, $CI [-.410, .220]$). This suggests that a change in leaders' positive affect fully mediated the negative relationship between follower behaviours and performance evaluation. Thus, Hypothesis 4(a) was fully supported.

The indirect effect was not significant ($b = -0.094$, $SE = 0.062$, $BCa\ CI [-.232, .012]$) for change in leaders' positive affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' promotion potential. Accordingly, Hypothesis 4(b) was not supported.

Mediation results for a change in leaders' positive affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' competence suggested that the indirect effect was non-significant ($b = -0.084$, $SE = 0.06$, $BCa\ CI [-.219, .018]$). Thus, Hypothesis 4(c) was not supported.

The results for a change in leaders' positive affect mediating the relationship between follower behaviours and leaders' evaluation of followers' interpersonal incivility indicated that the indirect effects were not significant ($b = .055$, $SE = .084$, $BCa\ CI [-.127, .218]$). Hypothesis 4(d) was not supported.

Table 6.7 Mediation analysis for change in leaders' positive affect as mediator of follower behaviours and leaders' evaluations of followers

| Hypothesis 6(a): Performance evaluation | | | | | |
|---|--------|-------|--------|------|----------------|
| | b | SE | T | p | CI |
| Path a: X on M | -0.357 | 0.099 | -3.618 | .00 | [-.552, -.161] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.607 | 0.073 | 8.295 | .00 | [.462, .752] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.271 | 0.143 | 1.891 | .06 | [-.013, .554] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | 0.023 | 0.141 | 0.161 | .87 | [-.257, .303] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.192 | 0.152 | -1.259 | .21 | [-.493, .109] |
| Indirect effect: C-C' | -0.097 | 0.051 | | | [-.220, -.016] |
| Direct effect: C' | -0.095 | 0.159 | -0.599 | .55 | [-.410, .220] |
| Hypothesis 6(b): Promotion potential | | | | | |
| | b | SE | T | p | CI |
| Path a: X on M | -0.357 | 0.099 | -3.618 | .00 | [-.552, -.161] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.607 | 0.073 | 8.295 | .00 | [.462, .752] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.263 | 0.160 | 1.643 | .10 | [-.054, .580] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | -0.135 | 0.158 | -0.851 | .40 | [-.448, .179] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.072 | 0.170 | -0.426 | .67 | [-.408, .264] |
| Indirect effect: C-C' | -0.094 | 0.062 | | | [-.232, .012] |
| Direct effect: C' | 0.021 | 0.179 | 0.120 | .90 | [-.331, .374] |
| Hypothesis 6(c): Competence | | | | | |
| | b | SE | T | p | CI |
| Path a: X on M | -0.357 | 0.099 | -3.618 | .00 | [-.552, -.161] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.607 | 0.073 | 8.295 | .00 | [.462, .752] |
| Path b: M on Y | 0.235 | 0.141 | 1.663 | .10 | [-.045, .514] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | 0.113 | 0.139 | -0.810 | .41 | [-.389, .163] |
| Path c: X on Y | -0.290 | 0.150 | -1.941 | .05 | [-.587, .006] |
| Indirect effect: C-C' | -0.084 | 0.059 | | | [-.219, .018] |
| Direct effect: C' | -0.207 | 0.157 | -1.32 | .19 | [-.517, .104] |
| Hypothesis 6(d): Interpersonal incivility | | | | | |
| | b | SE | T | p | CI |
| Path a: X on M | -0.357 | 0.099 | -3.618 | .00 | [-.552, -.161] |
| Covariate T 1* | 0.607 | 0.073 | 8.295 | .00 | [.462, .752] |
| Path b: M on Y | -0.153 | 0.215 | -0.710 | .48 | [-.580, .274] |
| Covariate T 1 [†] | -0.188 | 0.213 | -0.882 | .38 | [-.610, .234] |
| Path c: X on Y | 0.866 | 0.226 | 3.824 | .00 | [.417, 1.314] |
| Indirect effect: C-C' | 0.055 | 0.084 | | | [-.127, .218] |
| Direct effect: C' | 0.811 | 0.240 | 3.386 | .001 | [.337, 1.286] |

b = unstandardised coefficient. Path a = effect of follower behaviours on leaders' positive affect, Path b = effect of change in leaders' positive affect on DVs, Path c = effect of follower behaviours on DVs. Covariate T 1* = Pre-test negative affect 1st stage, Covariate T 1[†] = Pre-test positive affect 2nd stage.

Hypothesis 5 stated that the parallel mediation with leader identity threat and change in leaders' positive affect as mediators for follower behaviours and leader reactions would be significant. Using Process Model 4 for parallel mediation analysis with pre-test positive as a co-variate analysis was conducted. For the dependent variable performance evaluation, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.195, -.279$, BCa CI $[-.401, -.064]$. The indirect effects were significant for leader identity threat $b = -.103$, BCa CI $[-.288, .0122]$ and were significant for change in leaders' positive affect $b = -.092$, BCa CI $[-.214, -.023]$. The direct effect was not significant $p = .98$. Hence, the results supported Hypothesis 6a.

For the dependent variable promotion perception, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.202$, BCa CI $[-.408, .056]$. Also, the indirect effect was significant for leader identity threat $b = -.113$, BCa CI $[-.297, -.0127]$ but not for change in leaders' positive affect $b = -.089$, BCa CI $[-.217, .002]$. However, the direct effect was not significant, $p = .45$. Thus, hypothesis 6b was supported.

For the dependent variable competency, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.154$, BCa CI $[-.382, -.017]$. Also, indirect effects were significant for leader identity threat $b = -.074$, BCa CI $[-.232, -.007]$ but not for change in leaders' positive affect. The direct effect was not significant $b = -.728$, CI $[-1.17, -.283]$. For the dependent variable incivility, the total indirect effect was not significant $b = .221$, BCa CI $[-.007, .472]$. However, indirect effects were significant for leader identity threat $b = .174$, BCa CI $[-.027, .416]$ but not for change in leaders' positive affect. The direct effect was significant $b = .644$, BCa CI $[-.193, 1.096]$ ²¹.

Hypothesis 6 stated that the parallel mediation with leader identity threat and change in leader negative affect as mediators for follower behaviours and leader reactions would be significant. Using Process Model 4 for parallel mediation analysis with pre-test negative affect as a covariate analysis was conducted. For the dependent variable

²¹ Parallel mediation with all three mediators (leader identity threat, positive and negative affect). was also conducted revealed that the indirect effect for all three mediators for the four dependent variables was not significant.

performance evaluation, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.175$, BCa CI [-.381, -.022]. The indirect effects were not significant for leader identity threat $b = -.082$, BCa CI [-.239, -.005] but were not significant for change in leaders negative affect $b = -.093$, BCa CI [-.244, .026]. However, the direct effect was not significant. This indicated that the parallel mediation was significant and the results supported Hypothesis 6a.

For the dependent variable promotion perception, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.148$, BCa CI [-.337, -.007]. Also, the indirect effect was significant for leader identity threat $b = -.099$, BCa CI [-.277, -.007] and for change in negative affect the indirect effect was not significant. Thus, hypothesis 6b was partially supported. For the dependent variable competency, the total indirect effect was significant $b = -.132$, BCa CI [-.320, -.011]. However, on scrutiny the indirect effects for leader identity threat were significant but the direct effect was significant for change in leaders' negative affect. Thus, hypothesis 6c was partially supported.

Hypothesis 7 stated that there would be change in the ILTs due to follower behaviours. In order to test this hypothesis, paired t-tests were conducted for the pre-test (P1) and post-test (P2) ILT dimensions, i.e., Self-Dynamism, Ideal Dynamism, Self-Intelligence, Ideal Intelligence, Self-Tyranny, Ideal Tyranny. The results indicated significant differences between the pre-test, Ideal P1 intelligence ($M = 8.03$, $SD = 0.84$) and the post-test, Ideal P2 intelligence ($M = 8.22$, $SD = 0.78$), ($t(116) = -2.30$, $p < .05$). This indicates that there was a significant change in leaders' ILTs dimension for ideal intelligence from pre-test to post-test.

The results of the paired t-test revealed significant differences for leaders' ILTs for the dynamism dimension. The pre-test, Ideal P1 dynamism ($M = 8.38$, $SD = 0.77$) was lower as compared to the post-test, Ideal P2 dynamism ($M = 8.53$, $SD = 0.55$), ($t(116) = -2.20$, $p < .05$) indicating that there was a significant change in leaders' ideal dynamism from pre-test to post-test. No significance was found for other ILT-related variables (see Appendix 7). This indicates that change occurred in leaders' ideal dynamism and ideal intelligence from pre-test to post test. However, on all the other dimensions no change was observed.

Based on the results of the paired t-test, a mixed repeated measures ANOVA was conducted. The results of the mixed repeated measures ANOVA indicated that the interaction between follower behaviours and ideal dynamism was not significant (Wilks' Lambda = 0.99, $F(1, 114) = 1.11$, $p = .30$). This indicated that follower behaviours did not influence leaders' ILT dimension - Ideal dynamism.

The results of the mixed repeated measures ANOVA indicated that the interaction between follower behaviours and ideal intelligence was not significant (Wilks' Lambda = 0.99, $F(1, 115) = 1.18$, $p = .28$). This indicated that follower behaviours did not influence leaders' ILT dimension - Ideal intelligence. Thus, support for the hypothesis that there would be change in leaders' ILTs due to follower proactive behaviours was not found. Accordingly, Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

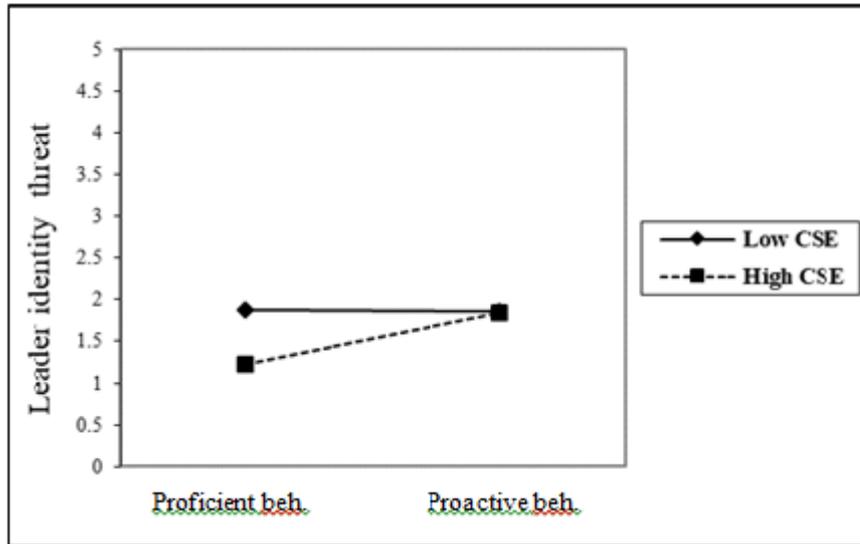
Hypothesis 8 stated that female followers' engaging in proactive behaviours would accentuate leaders' leader identity threat as compared to male followers. The results of the one-way ANOVA test with post hoc analysis indicated that there were no significant differences between the groups for leader identity threat ($F(3, 113) = 2.28$, $p = .08$)²². Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Hypothesis 9 stated that leaders' CSE would moderate the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat. The results revealed that the relationship between CSE and leader identity threat was significant ($b = -0.775$, $SE = 0.24$, $t(113) = -3.28$, $p < .01$). This suggested that leaders with high CSE experienced less leader identity threat. The interaction of follower behaviours and CSE for leader identity threat was significant ($b = 0.703$, $SE = 0.30$, $t(113) = 2.37$, $p < .05$, $CI [.0115, 1.291]$). The results suggested that follower proactive behaviours increased leader identity threat for leaders with high CSE more than for leaders with low CSE.

²² Results of one-way ANOVA (post hoc) 2 (follower behaviours) X 2 (follower gender) conducted separately for the male and female samples revealed no differences between the groups.

This contradicted the postulations of Hypothesis 9 (see Figure 6.5). Thus, Hypothesis 9 was not supported.

Figure 6.5 CSE as moderator of follower behaviour and leader identity threat



Hypothesis 10 stated that leaders' affiliation motive and Hypothesis 11 stated that leaders' power motives would moderate the relationship between leader identity threat and leader reactions. These standardised residuals were used in procedures to conduct moderation analysis (Brunstein et al., 1998; Schultheiss, 2001), using Model 1 of the PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2012). However, none of the simple slope interactions with leaders' power motive and affiliation motive were significant²³ (see Appendix 8). Hence, the results did not support Hypothesis 10 or Hypothesis 11.

To test the model (see Figure 6.1), moderated mediations using Process Model 7 (Hayes, 2012) were conducted. The results indicated that the index of moderated mediation for leader identity threat as a mediator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader reactions, CSE as the moderator of the relationship between follower behaviours and leader identity threat and affiliation motives as moderator of leader identity threat and leader reactions for the dependent promotion potential were

²³ Moderation analysis was conducted with motive raw scores, mean scores, standardise z scores, yet the moderation interaction results for both power and affiliation motive were not significant.

not significant (indirect effect, $b = -117$, BCa CI [-.426,056]). Similarly, the results were not significant for all other moderated mediations with performance evaluations, competence and follower incivility as dependent variables. Results were not significant with leader identity threat as well as positive and negative affect as mediators and CSE and leaders' power and affiliation implicit motives as moderators of the relationships²⁴.

6.10 Discussion

As expected, the results of this study indicated that followers' proactive behaviours trigger leader identity threat and that this threat influences leaders' evaluation of followers. The contributions of the above findings have been discussed in earlier chapters (see Discussion sections, Chapters 4 and 5). This section discusses the additional theoretical contributions to the leadership literature and limitations of this study.

Theoretical contributions to the leadership and proactivity literature

In Study 2 of this thesis, follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' agitation and dejection as manifestations of leader identity discrepancy (Higgins, 1987). The focus of this study was to examine the change in leaders' positive and negative affect due to follower proactive and proficient behaviours. By taking into account leaders' positive and negative affect as manifestations of leader identity discrepancy due to follower proactive behaviours, this study adds to the literature of both proactivity and leadership.

The findings of this study suggest that not only are agitation and dejection manifestations of self-discrepancy (Higgins et al., 1985, 1997), but that an overarching negative affect may also be associated with self-discrepancy. Thus, the study supports the argument of Tesser (1988), Tangney et al. (1998) and Morris

²⁴ Moderated mediation was conducted using model 21 of the PROCESS (Hayes 2012) with all three mediators (leader identity threat, positive and negative affect) and moderators CSE and implicit motives. Result of the moderated mediation index was not significant.

(1999) that negative affect is a manifestation of discomfort and indicates self-discrepancy and identity threat. Leaders' negative affect increased and their positive affect decreased when followers engaged in proactive behaviours. This change in leaders' affect influenced their evaluation of the follower, more so in the case of leaders' negative affect. These findings concur with Baumeister et al.'s (2001) argument that events that are evaluated by individuals as negative have a greater influence on the individual's affect, cognitions, behaviour, and memory than those that are evaluated as being positive. The findings of this study indicate that leaders evaluated follower proactive behaviours as a threat to their leader identity. This increased leaders' negative affect and decreased positive affect. However, the mediation results indicated that leaders' negative affect had a greater effect on leaders' negative evaluations in comparison to leaders' positive affect. This supports Baumeister et al.'s (2001) argument that negative affect is stronger and more impactful than positive affect.

Researchers have examined the consequences of leaders' negative affect on others, such as leaders' negative emotions may influence both followers' affect and followers perceptions of their leaders (Lewis, 2000; Madera & Smith, 2009). Recent research has focused on leaders' affect influencing followers' proactive voice (Liu, Song, Li, & Liao, 2017). This study suggest that leader's positive affect was positively related to follower proactive voice. While my study indicates that follower proactive behaviours may elicit and increase leaders' negative affect. This suggests that there are possible cyclical effects of affect between the leader follower dyad and this may have impact on future proactivity of the follower. My study suggests that there could be a possibility of followers withdrawing from engaging in proactive behaviour. For instance, followers may be apprehensive about engaging in proactive voice due to the perceived negative consequences (Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Another implication that emerges from the findings of this study is the impact of follower proactive behaviours on the well-being of both leaders and followers. There is research showing positive effects of proactive behaviour (Fuller et al., 2015), and the increased life satisfaction of the individual engaging in proactive behaviours (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2010). However, in my study the leaders' negative affect

increased due to follower proactive behaviours, implying that the leaders' well-being may be affected by follower proactive behaviours. For instance, an increase in negative affect is an indicator of a decrease in well-being (Warr, 1990). Hence, there may be a cost to the well-being of leaders under certain circumstances. The findings of this study indicate that follower proactive behaviours increased leaders' negative affect this may indicate a decrease in leaders' well-being. This study highlighted the association between leaders' negative affect and leaders' negative reactions towards their follower. These negative outcomes for the followers may, in turn, have an impact on followers' well-being. Researchers may wish to examine the consequences of follower behaviours, such as organisation citizenship behaviours, proactive behaviours, and prosocial behaviours (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010), and proactive voice (Fast et al., 2014) on leaders and then, in turn, leaders' reactions influencing followers' affect and well-being.

Other findings

The findings did not support the argument that there would be variations in leaders' leadership schemas due to follower proactive behaviours but, rather, supported Epitropaki and Martin's (2004) argument that ILTs of individuals remain stable over time.²⁵ The research design could be another possible explanation for the lack change in leader ILTs. In this study the means employed to measure and assess the leaders ILTs were explicit (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Epitropaki et al., 2013). However, since ILTs are about the schemas held in the subconscious (Lord et al., 1984) a measure, that assesses ILTs implicitly may indicate subtle shifts. For example, supraliminal priming methodology (Sy, 2010) such as using word puzzles or using implicit association tests (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995) are implicit means that may reveal changes in leaders' ILTs .

An interesting finding in this study was the contradictory results about the moderating effects of leaders' CSE. Due to follower proactive behaviours, leaders

²⁵ One way ANOVA for pre- and post-test ILTs variables was run regardless of follower behaviour condition and no significant differences were recorded.

with high CSE scores experienced more leader identity threat as compared to leaders with low CSE scores. Although CSE has a negative relationship with stressors, and individuals with high CSE appraise situations more positively (Judge et al., 2003), in their meta-analysis of CSE studies, (Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012) found contradictory results for individuals with high CSE and political stressors. Chang et al. (2012) highlight the findings of Kacmar et al.'s (2009) study, which indicated that organisational politics was more damaging to individuals with high CSE. I argue that leaders may evaluate follower proactive behaviours as a claim to their leadership, and this may be a political stressor for leaders. Hence, leaders with high CSE may experience more vulnerability. This may be a possible explanation for the contradictory findings regarding CSE in this study. However, this study did highlight that leaders' CSE influenced leaders' interpretation of follower behaviours. Researchers can integrate CSE with the approach and avoidance literature (Chang et al., 2012). For instance, leaders with high CSE may be most satisfied when working with followers with similar CSE to themselves and, in turn, leaders would have an approach motivation to such followers. The vice versa may take place if leaders and followers' CSE are divergent.

The findings of this study did not support the argument that leaders' need for power and affiliation would moderate their evaluation regarding their followers. Implicit motives are more likely to be aroused by nonverbal cues and are manifested in spontaneous behaviour over which individuals, mainly, may have no conscious control (Schultheiss & Pang, 2007). Meanwhile, in this study, leaders' spontaneous behaviours were not captured rather leaders' evaluation of followers were cognitive (conscious) in nature. This may be one of the possible explanations for the hypotheses not finding support.

Chhokar (2007) argues that in India, leaders in the big business houses are often looked upon with admiration, adulation, and respect. Leadership is relationship-oriented and is more humane than the American culture. Chhokar (2007) argues that concerning gender egalitarianism, the Indian society is male-dominated and the number of women in the higher leadership positions of all professions remains minuscule. A large majority of women continue to be homemakers and are expected

to be so. Chhokar (2007) argues that, in India, more women work outside their homes in urban areas, mainly in caring professions such as nursing and teaching. Chhokar (2007) argues that these have been considered more appropriate for women. In this study, as well as in the first study, the number of female participants was much lower when compared to male participants.

The low participation of women concurs with the argument of Chhokar (2007) that the number of women working in India is much less compared to their male counterpart. Furthermore, three of the five companies were related to the manufacturing and infrastructure sectors. In India, male employees have historically dominated these sectors. Therefore, a large disparity existed regarding male and female sample sizes. Future research should consider looking at avenues such as separate male and female surveys to reduce this gender disparity between female and male respondents in India. The number of female participants in this study was only 19 of the total of 117. The arguments made in Study 1 regarding low female participation in the Indian workforce are also applicable to this study (see Discussion section, Chapter 4).

Limitations

The data collection procedure in Phase 2 of this study was cumbersome. Participants were required to write six short paragraphs, five for the implicit motives and one for the leader identity salience. This may have caused them to be tired by the end of the experiment. As the study consisted of two phases, this resulted in a high number of dropouts. In addition, launching new online experiments for each company led to unequal groups for each condition.

Rudman and Glick (2001) argue that women while striving for leadership positions may face the risk of being disqualified for leadership roles because agentic leadership roles are incongruent with their gender roles. Karellaia and Guillén, (2014) argue that in male-dominated organisations, women leaders are more often “reminded” of general female stereotypes and female employees find it difficult to claim leader identity due to their gender.

Furthermore, gender influences leadership perceptions and it is likely that identity processes differ for men and women (Guillén et al., 2015). These authors argue that the gender of leaders may matter in the leaders' self-perceptions and that these self-perceptions might affect self-comparisons. Bolstering this argument, the findings of Karelaia and Guillén, (2014) suggest that an individual's gender identity may be important concerning an individual's self-view. Drawing from this, for all three studies a variable follower behaviours and participants gender was created. In all three studies analysis with this variable was conducted. Results of the one-way ANOVAs (post hoc) for leader identity threat and other dependent variables indicated no significant differences due to gender of respondent. Univariate analysis with three conditions: Participants gender, follower in scenarios gender and follower behaviours did not reveal any significance due to gender of participant. Future researchers may keep in mind that the equal representation of both genders in the sample may aid their investigations regarding the effect of perceivers' gender.

6.11 Conclusion

This was the final study in the trilogy of studies examining leaders' interpretations and reactions to follower behaviours. The findings of this study support the argument of this thesis that follower proactive behaviours increase leaders' leader identity threat and that leaders react negatively towards their followers to restore their leader identity. The examination of followers' proactive behaviours as one of the causes of leaders' leader identity threat and the change in leaders affect unknotted some of the issues as to why leaders react negatively when followers engage in proactive behaviours. Moreover, the findings of this study suggest that leaders with high CSE are more vulnerable to leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours.

Chapter 7. General Discussion and Conclusion

In order to answer the question, “why do leaders react negatively to follower proactive behaviours?” this thesis argues that leaders may construe followers’ proactive behaviours as a claim to their leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010), and leaders may experience leader identity threat due to such follower behaviours. In a bid to restore their threatened leader identity (Elsbach & Kramer, 1996), leaders react negatively towards their followers. This thesis focuses on intra-personal processes of leaders when they interpret and react to follower behaviours. This thesis also takes into consideration leaders’ self-worth as well as leaders’ implicit motives as factors that may influence leaders’ interpretation and reactions. These postulations led to an empirical examination of 15 hypotheses in three separate studies

This chapter focuses on the contributions of this thesis. It discusses the theoretical contributions and future research that may arise from these contributions, and the strengths of the methodology used in this thesis as well as the limitations. This chapter also discusses the practical implications that arise from this thesis. Finally, the conclusion is presented.

7.1 Theoretical contributions

This thesis focuses on followers’ proactive behaviours as an influence on leaders. This thesis makes theoretical contributions to both the proactivity and leadership literatures.

7.1.1. Flip-side of proactivity from the perspective of leaders

The effects of proactive behaviours are not limited to the person engaging in proactive behaviours; proactive behaviours may also influence others (e.g., leader or team members) or the context (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Proactive behaviours have been argued to have desirable consequences not only for the person engaging in proactive behaviours but also for the promotion of organisational effectiveness (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Seibert et al., 1999), as well as stimulating team effectiveness (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Research in proactivity has mainly focused on the positive consequences for the person engaging in proactive behaviours

(Grant & Ashford, 2008). Recently, proactivity scholars have turned their attention to the effects of employee proactive behaviours on leaders (Detert & Burris, 2007; Fast et al., 2014; Fuller et al., 2015). This thesis examines the effects of follower proactive behaviours on others, i.e., leaders.

The examination of the effects of follower proactive behaviours on leaders revealed a dark side to proactive behaviours. The findings of this thesis demonstrate that leaders may experience identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours and, consequently, may react negatively towards their followers. The findings of this thesis support the argument made by a number of scholars (Burris, 2012; Campbell, 2000; Detert & Burris, 2007; Fast et al., 2014) that leaders react negatively to follower proactive behaviours. This thesis extends this argument by highlighting the effects of follower proactive behaviours on leaders, i.e., leaders' identity threat and an increase in leaders' negative affect. Furthermore, it brings to the forefront the resulting consequences on followers, i.e., leaders' negative attitude towards and evaluations of their followers engaging in proactive behaviours.

Proactive behaviours are more likely to occur when individuals are intrinsically motivated by the task (Parker, 1998; Parker et al., 2010), in addition, individuals with a proactive personality often engage in proactive behaviours (Crant, 2000), and their engagement in such behaviours remains stable over time (Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007). Yet, scholars have indicated that for proactivity to occur it needs to be appropriately incentivised and rewarded (Unsworth & Parker, 2003). For instance, an individual's innovative behaviours may be considered as proactive behaviours (Unsworth & Parker, 2003). Amabile (1997) suggests that rewards may contribute to innovation (Unsworth & Parker, 2003), while lack of these may act as a constraint to engaging in proactive behaviours (Unsworth & Parker, 2003).

My research highlights the finding that leaders prefer and reward followers engaging in proficient behaviours as compared to proactive behaviours. This, then, from the perspective of followers, implies that their proactive behaviours may consequently have a low return on their investment. As leaders are typically the powerful and influential parties in the workplace (Hogg, 2001), their reactions to follower behaviours ultimately determine the effectiveness of such behaviours (Rahim, 1989;

Rahim, Antonioni, Krumov, & Ilieva, 2000; Emerson, 1962). McClean et al. (2013) suggest that supporting or not supporting an employees' proactive voice is dependent on the discretion of managers, and hence the outcome (e.g., employees' morale and turnover rate) of employee proactive voice rests with the managers. It follows that, if leaders are threatened by follower proactive behaviours, then such behaviours may ultimately prove to be of little benefit to employees. This thesis supports the argument of scholars (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Morrison et al., 2015) as to why employees are apprehensive about engaging in proactive behaviours and are concerned about likely negative repercussions.

Field research has shown that proactive behaviours have positive results for employees as well as organisations (Fuller et al., 2015; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Seibert et al., 1999). When leaders perceive that the responsibility for positive change lies with them, or that they will receive credit for follower proactive behaviours, then employees' proactive behaviours are rewarded (Fuller et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2009). In the scenarios presented in this thesis, change-oriented proactive behaviours on the part of the follower accentuated leader identity threat while proficient behaviours did not. In the three studies presented in this thesis, the scenarios focused only on follower proactive behaviours and did not indicate whether leaders would receive any credit or benefit. Leaders' reactions were found to be negative towards followers who engaged in proactive behaviours as compared to followers engaged in proficient behaviours, purely based on follower behaviours. The lack of incentive or gain for leaders due to followers' proactive behaviours could be a possible reason as to why leaders were less inclined to appreciate follower behaviours in the studies conducted for this thesis. This implies that when leaders evaluate follower proactive behaviours, their self-enhancement motive is the primary motive and leader reactions are based on this motive. This supports Sedikides and Strube's (1997) argument that self-enhancement is the primary motive that drives an individual's self-evaluation process.

I recommend that when proactivity research is coupled with identity and motives research, a better understanding about the outcomes of proactive behaviours on the individual engaging in proactive behaviours, as well as on others, may be gained.

7.1.2. Leaders do not appreciate followers claim of leader identity

DeRue and Ashford (2010) suggest that the process of leadership is a social construction that involves leaders claiming and followers granting leaders leader identities. In addition, through their behaviours, followers can claim and leaders can grant leader identity to followers. This thesis indicates that leaders are averse to followers' proactive behaviours when such behaviours are construed as a claim to the leaders' leader identity. Consequently, leaders' reactions may be negative. In other words, followers intruding on leaders' "turf" is not appreciated by leaders. By focusing on leaders' reactions to follower behaviours that may be construed by leaders as signs of emerging leadership (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), this thesis extends DeRue and Ashford's (2010) argument regarding the claiming and granting of leader identity.

The findings of this thesis also relate to Ibarra's (2003) argument of identity work, which states that individuals pursue in order to form a desired identity. I argue that leaders may desire to work towards an agentic leader identity. However, when followers claim this agency through their proactive behaviours, this may disrupt leaders' identity work concerning their leader identity. Leaders may construe such follower behaviours as a disruption towards them building an agentic leader identity. As a result, leaders elicit negative reactions towards their followers. In other words, I argue that claims of leader identity (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) by followers may relate to disruption in leaders' of work identity.

This thesis contributes in highlighting leader identity as a mediating structure. This concurs with the argument that leader identity is a mediator linking interpretations to situationally appropriate actions (Lord et al., 2016). In addition, Day et al. (2009) argue that spirals of leader identity develop over time and that these spirals can be either positive or negative. For instance, in the case of developing a positive leader identity, an individual may be more likely to participate actively and effectively in leadership processes when needed (a positive spiral). When leaders construe claims on their identity due to follower proactive behaviours, may be perceived as a disruption towards building a positive spiral of developing an agentic leader identity. Hence, leaders may react negatively in order to protect their position as leaders.

Previous research has considered identity threat as influencing leaders' interpretation of follower proactive behaviours and leaders' reactions to such behaviours (Burriss, 2012; Fast et al., 2014; Menon et al., 2006). Depletion of leaders' self-worth due to follower proactive behaviours and leaders' ego defensiveness as a driver of leaders' negative reactions towards followers engaging in proactive behaviours have been examined (Fast et al., 2014). By drawing from Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory to explain that leader identity discrepancy and leader identity threat can occur due to follower proactive behaviours, this thesis has attempted to open the "black box" of cognitive processes involved in leaders' interpretation and reactions to followers. In doing so, this thesis extends the work of Detert and Burriss (2007) and Fast et al. (2014) that delves into negative outcomes of proactive behaviours for leaders and focuses on ego defensiveness as a mechanism that influenced the reactions of leaders. This thesis brings further clarity to the causes of leaders' negative reactions by taking into account leader identity threat and the discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual leader identities.

In terms of future research, researchers may utilise leader identity discrepancy and leader identity threat to explore the following questions: What level of follower proactivity behaviour (individual, team, and organisation) (Griffin et al., 2007), and what type of proactive behaviours – such as, taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), innovation (Campbell, 2000; Unsworth & Parker, 2003), and personal initiative (Frese & Fay, 2001) – cause leader identity threat? When do leaders grant a leader identity to followers engaging in proactive behaviours? In which instances of followers' proactive behaviours do leaders submit to the followers' claim of leader identity? Studies delving into these questions will extend the proactivity, leadership, and followership literatures.

This thesis highlights the vulnerability of leaders' leader identity due to follower proactive behaviours as the resultant negative reactions towards their followers. However, researcher can employ the construct of self-regulation (Carver & Scheier, 2001) in the leadership process gain clarity about variations in leader reactions. To elaborate, researcher can seek to answer the question: Do leaders regulate their behaviours despite leader identity threat caused by follower behaviours? One of the

causes of the regulation of their behaviours may be, for instance, managing their impression as leaders (Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Turnley & Bolino, 2001), which may lead to the regulation of their behaviour despite leader identity threat. On the other hand, researchers may also examine factors involved when leaders fail to employ self-regulation due to fragile self-esteem or narcissism (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Campbell & Sedikides, 1999). Such studies would explore the next level of research into the influence of follower behaviours on leaders.

Researchers have delved into of leader inclusiveness being positively correlated with the employee psychological safety and resulting in better work unit performance (Hirak, Peng, Carmeli, & Schaubroeck, 2012). However, my findings highlight that leaders may experience leader identity threat due to follower behaviours. Proactivity researchers may in the future explore the outcomes of proactive behaviours and its implications for lens of psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson & Lei, 2014). For instance, study the impact on the psychological safety on those individuals who are the targets of the proactive behaviours and may perceive such behaviours as a violation. Such behaviours may diminish the self-worth of the perceiver or the target of proactive behaviours. Researchers may choose to study the role of the psychological safety of leaders when followers engage in proactive behaviours.

Although this thesis focussed on follower proactive and proficient behaviours, the issue related to follower beliefs regarding their work was given adequate focus. Followership beliefs that followers hold, i.e., how they should behaviours and get involved in the work play may direct the behaviours of followers. Carsten, Uhl-Bien and Huang (2017) argue that followers who hold a passive orientation believe that leadership is the responsibility of leaders and that followers do not contribute to the leadership process and leaders may believe that followers need to have a passive orientation. Carsten et al. (2013) argue that such individuals perceive leaders to have more expertise and agency than their followers. Individuals with passive orientation believe that followers should be silent, abstain from being active participants, and not participate in the decision-making process. Such individuals may believe that the goal attainment of the team is the leader's responsibility. I argue that followers with a

passive orientation may not engage in activities that are agentic but they may engage in behaviours that are proficient in nature.

However, followers who have stronger co-production and co-influencing beliefs may engage in a role involving partnering with leaders and may play an essential role in the leadership process (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013). In other words, such followers may engage in agentic behaviours. I posit that followers with an active orientation about their role will engage in agentic behaviours, for example proactive behaviours. Future research may bridge the gap from follower beliefs to follower behaviours at the work place and investigate the impact of these at a workplace.

This thesis did not delve into the IFT that leaders may hold. However, IFTs of leaders may also influence their evaluation of follower behaviours. IFTs are mental schemas about followership that individuals have and are formed over time and with experience (Sy, 2010). Leaders not only hold ILTs but also schemas about followership and followers (IFTs). Some leaders may believe that followers need to passively conform to leaders while some leaders may believe that followers need to be agentic or followers need to have an active orientation (Carsten et al., 2017). Leaders holding IFTs that followers need to have passive orientation will dislike followers engaging in proactive behaviours. On the other hand, leaders who hold IFTs of co-production of leadership may expect followers to engage in agentic behaviours. Such IFTs may also influence leaders' evaluation of follower behaviours.

Sy (2010) differentiates six dimensions of followership: Industry, enthusiasm, good citizen as well as conformity, insubordination, and incompetence. These dimensions form two second order factors of followership as anti-prototypical and prototypical IFTs. For instance, I argue that on the dimension of conformity, if leaders hold schemas of followers as conformists then they may be threatened by follower proactive behaviours. However, if leaders hold schemas that followers need not be acquiescent but, rather, should play a more active role, then there may be a lesser likelihood of leaders experiencing leader identity threat due to follower proactive behaviours. Future research may utilise leaders IFTs along with leaders ILTs jointly or separately to explore and investigate leader reactions mediated through leaders'

IFTs. Such research may highlight the role of both ILTS as well as IFTs in leaders' experience of leader identity threat.

7.2 Methodological strengths and limitations

The specific methodological contributions of each study have been discussed in the corresponding chapters. This section focuses on the general methodological strengths of this thesis and its limitations.

7.2.1. Three-study approach: Validation of core premise

Each of the studies of this thesis had the essential goal of examining the core premise of the three studies, i.e., leaders' evaluation of follower proactive behaviours poses a threat to their leader identity and this, in turn, influences leaders' reactions. The three studies examined this core premise and further extended the scope of my investigations in an incremental manner. This method of replicating studies to examine the findings strengthened the validity of the research questions and built stability into the research work (Epstein, 1980). Furthermore, the replication of studies restores confidence in social psychology (Earp & Trafimow, 2015; Campbell & Jackson, 1979). This replication reinforced the core arguments of this thesis.

Strength of three studies of this thesis was the sample used, which had a total of 428 individuals, as participants, with work experience averaging 17.49 years. The three studies of this thesis comprised of participants with actual managerial experience, so they were likely to be better able to imagine being in the situation described in the scenarios employed in the experiments of this thesis. Participants of Studies 1 and 3 were from India, while participants of Study 2 were from the USA. The results indicate that, across cultures, leaders' leader identity threat accentuated when followers engaged in proactive behaviours due to which their reaction towards their followers was negative. Hence, testing the hypotheses across cultures and with different data sets (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) increased the generalisability of the research.

7.2.2. Operationalisation of leader identity threat

In this thesis, I used two different operationalisations of leader identity threat. In Study 2, the first was the self-reported identity threat measure (Menon et al., 2006). The second was to examine the increase in leaders' agitation and dejection as a manifestation of leader identity discrepancy (Higgins et al., 1997). In Study 3, besides the self-reported leader identity threat measure, leaders' positive and negative affect (Warr, 1990) were considered as manifestations of the discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual identity. The operationalisation of leader identity threat by employing the self-reported leader identity threat measure and the affect related discrepancy measures further supported the argument that leader identity threat parallels discrepancy between leader identities. By operationalising leader identity threat in these ways enabled me to highlight the finding that leader identity threat is the discomfort caused by the discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual identities, and that this discomfort is manifested through an increase in leaders' negative affect. In doing so, this operationalisation revealed that two ways that can be employed to examine and answer research questions.

Although this thesis focused on leader identity threat manifested through change in leaders' affect, a detailed picture of leaders' cognitive processes concerning their ILTs did not emerge. An examination of leaders' cognitive processes about their leader identity would enable a clearer understanding of discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual identities.

A methodological limitation was that the research method employed in this thesis used self-reports. All three empirical studies of this thesis captured leaders' leader identity threat due to followers' proactive behaviours through self-reported data. Also, data concerning leader reactions with regards to leaders' affect as well as cognitions was captured through self-reports. However, using self-reported data is a source of errors as there is a risk of variation in ratings due to factors such as social desirability (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Method variance can either inflate or deflate observed relationships between constructs, thus leading to both Type I and Type II errors (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012). Although the experimental design of this thesis alleviates this concern for some of the

relationships between follower behaviour and leader reactions, this concern may exist with regard to other relationships. For instance, in Study 2, leaders' self-esteem did not moderate the relationship between leader identity threat and follower behaviours. However, the extensive literature on self-esteem indicates that self-esteem and threat have a significant correlation (Campbell & Sedikides, 1999). However, participants can inflate their ratings due to various biases, ranging from leniency, appearing to be socially desirable, or participants demonstrate to have consistency in ratings (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This could be a limitation in the three studies of this thesis.

One of the possible limitations of the studies was the social desirability bias. Social desirability refers to the fact that items may be written in such a way as to reflect more socially desirable attitudes, behaviours, or perceptions (Podsakoff et al., 2003). For instance, the attribution items of Study 2 which attempted to investigate the cause of follower behaviours a personal or environmental attribute may have been influenced by the respondents' desire to appear as being socially acceptable. Second, followers' gender did have any significance with regards to leader identity threat. This could be due to the respondents desire to appear as not being biased or prejudiced. Podsakoff et al. (2003) recommends that such issues can be avoided by providing clear concepts keeping questions simple, specific, and concise; avoid double-barrelled questions and reducing the questions relating to more focused questions; and avoiding complicated language. In this thesis, the vignettes were simple as well as the questions asked to the participants were focussed (e.g., would you recommend Pat for –Bonus). Furthermore, the findings of the studies indicate that leader's ratings for many of the measures were significantly different for the proactive and proficient condition, suggesting that social desirability may not have significantly affected participants ratings. In addition, the question order was randomised in each block and the answer scales varied in the blocks for instance ILT scale range was from 1-9 and the competency, performance potential scale range was from were from 1-5. These methods helped reduce social desirability biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

However, there is a potential that social desirability bias may affect ratings of participants. Future researchers may take cognisance of this and use methods to reduce its impact by following the recommendation of Podsakoff et al. (2003).

7.3 Practical Implications

Several important practical implications derive from the findings of this thesis. First, although organisations desire their employees to be proactive (Crant, 2000), my findings suggest a disconnect between an organisation's desire for "proactive" employees and leaders' negative reactions to such follower behaviours. Researchers suggest that proactive personality is a stable disposition and such individuals are more likely to engage in proactive behaviours (Frese et al., 2007) and gain benefits due to their proactive behaviours (Seibert et al., 1999; Seibert et al., 2001). However, drawing from Amabile (1997) and Unsworth and Parker (2003), it is possible that a lack of rewards and autonomy may restrict employees from engaging in proactive behaviours. My research indicates leaders' negative reactions towards their followers engaging in proactive behaviours may thwart the possibilities of followers engaging in proactive behaviours in the future. Organisations need to take cognisance of this possible backlash to promoting proactive work behaviours and take into consideration leaders' attitudes and perceptions towards such follower behaviours.

Secondly, leaders' attitude towards employee proactive behaviours can be assessed through the use of assessment centres. Assessment centres can help collect data to gauge attitudes (Arnold et al., 2005; Thornton, 1982). Assessment centres that focus on leader development may include leader identity and leader identity threat as a part of the assessment. Organisations can use simulated activities in assessment centres to identify how their current leaders and future leaders interpret and react to follower proactive behaviours. Thirdly, based on the data collected, prescriptive leadership development programmes can be developed to overcome this disconnect between organisations' desire for employees to engage in more proactive behaviours and leaders' negative reactions towards employees engaging in proactive behaviours. For instance, training courses enable managers to overcome leader identity threat and leaders are then able to support their followers' proactive behaviours. These may be valuable in organisations' leadership development endeavours.

7.4 Conclusion

This thesis aimed to explore the causes of leaders' negative reactions to followers' proactive behaviours. By focusing on the role of leader identity and threat to leader identity due to follower behaviours, this thesis was able to provide some answers that clarify why leaders react negatively to proactive behaviours of followers.

This exploration entailed integrating research about cognitions, affect, leader identity, and leader identity threat from the field of social psychology as well as organisational behaviour. In addition, by folding in several constructs to explain leader reactions, the three studies of the thesis provided a more detailed understanding of leaders' evaluations of follower behaviours and their reactions towards their followers.

This thesis offers support for the idea that followers' behaviours can be a cause of discrepancy between leaders' ideal and actual identities and that this discrepancy is leader identity threat. This thesis may stimulate further research on follower behaviours that may have a positive as well as negative influence on leaders in the field of leadership, and on the dark side of proactive behaviours in the proactivity literature.

References

- Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J. (2014). Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies. *Organizational Research Methods, 17*(4), 351-371.
- Alicke, M. D., & Govorun, O. (2005). The better-than-average effect. In M. D. Alicke, D. Dunning, & J. Kruger (Eds.), *The self in social judgment* (1st ed., pp. 85–106). New York: Psychology Press.
- Alicke, M. D., LoSchiavo, F. M., Zerbst, J., & Zhang, S. (1997). The person who outperforms me is a genius: maintaining perceived competence in upward social comparison. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*(4), 781–789.
- Alicke, M. D., & Sedikides, C. (2009). Self-enhancement and self-protection: What they are and what they do. *European Review of Social Psychology, 20*(1), 1–48.
- Amabile, T. M. (1997). Motivating Creativity in Organizations: On Doing What You Love and Loving What You Do. *California Management Review, 40*(1), 39–58.
- Anseel, F., Lievens, F., & Levy, P. E. (2007). A self-motives perspective on feedback-seeking behavior: Linking organizational behavior and social psychology research. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 9*(3), 211–236.
- Anseel, F., Van Yperen, N. W., Janssen, O., & Duyck, W. (2011). Feedback type as a moderator of the relationship between achievement goals and feedback reactions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 84*(4), 703–722.
- Aquino, K., & Douglas, S. (2003). Identity threat and antisocial behavior in organizations: The moderating effects of individual differences, aggressive modeling, and hierarchical status. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 90*(1), 195–208.
- Arnold, J., & Silvester, J. (2005). *Work psychology: Understanding human behaviour in the workplace*. Pearson Education.
- Ashford, S. J. (1986). Feedback-seeking in individual adaptation: A resource perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 29*(3), 465–487.
- Ashford, S. J., & Cummings, L. L. (1983). Feedback as an individual resource: Personal strategies of creating information. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 32*(3), 370–398.
- Ashford, S. J., Rothbard, N. P., Piderit, S. K., & Dutton, J. E. (1998). Out on a limb: The role of context and impression management in selling gender-equity issues. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 23*-57.

- Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Petty Tyranny in Organizations: A Preliminary Examination of Antecedents and Consequences. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 14(2), 126–140.
- Avolio, B. J. (2007). Promoting more integrative strategies for leadership theory-building. *The American Psychologist*, 62(1), 25-33.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191–215.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Transformational Leadership and Organizational Culture. *The International Journal of Public Administration*, 17(3–4), 541–554.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1999). Self-Concept, Self-Esteem and Identity. In V. J. Derlega, W. B.A., & W. H. Jones (Eds.), *Personality: Contemporary Theory and Research* (2nd ed., pp. 246–280). Chicago: Nelson Hall Inc.
- Baumeister, R. F. (2011). Self and identity: A brief overview of what they are, what they do, and how they work. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1234, 48–55.
- Baumeister, R. F., Bratslavsky, E., Finkenauer, C., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Bad is stronger than good. *Review of General Psychology*, 5(4), 323–370.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Heatherton, T. F. (1996). Self-Regulation failure: An overview. *Psychological Inquiry*, 7(1), 1–15.
- Baumeister, R. F., Heatherton, T. F., & Tice, D. M. (1993). When ego threats lead to self-regulation failure: negative consequences of high self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64(1), 141–156.
- Baumeister, R. F., Smart, L., & Boden, J. M. (1996). Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: the dark side of high self-esteem. *Psychological Review*, 103(1), 5–33.
- Baumeister, R. F., Tice, D. M., & Hutton, D. G. (1989). Self -Presentational Motivations and Personality Differences in Self -Esteem. *Journal of Personality*, 57(3), 547–579.
- Baumeister, R. F., Tice, D. M., & Reserve, C. W. (1985). Self-esteem and responses to success and failure: Subsequent performance and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality*, 53(3), 450–467.
- Beauregard, K. S., & Dunning, D. (2001). Defining self-worth : Trait self-esteem moderates the use of self-serving trait definitions in social judgment. *Motivation and Emotion*, 25(2), 135-161.
- Beer, J. S., Chester, D. S., & Hughes, B. L. (2013). Social threat and cognitive load magnify self-enhancement and attenuate self-deprecation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 49(4), 706–711.
- Bechtel, W., & Abrahamsen, A. (2002). *Connectionism and the mind: An*

- introduction to parallel processing in networks* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell.
- Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2010). Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2010). *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 83(2), 475–498.
- Biddle, B. J. (1986). Recent developments in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 12(1), 67–92.
- Blankenship, V., & Mason, A. (1987). Power and affiliation motivation, stress, and abuse in intimate relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 203-210.
- Bolino, M. C., & Grant, A. M. (2016). The bright side of being prosocial at work, and the dark side, too: A review and agenda for research on other-oriented motives, behavior, and impact in organizations. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 10(1), 599-670.
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (1999). Measuring impression management in organizations: A scale development based on the Jones and Pittman taxonomy. *Organizational Research Methods*, 2(2), 187-206.
- Bono, J. E., & Colbert, A. E. (2005). Understanding responses to multi source feedback: The role of core self-evaluations. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(1), 171–203.
- Bosson, J. K., & Swann, W. B. J. (2009). Self-esteem. In R. Leary, Mark & R. H. Hoyle (Eds.), *Handbook of individual differences in social behavior* (pp. 572–546). Guildford Publications.
- Brunstein, J. C., & Schmitt, C. H. (2004). Assessing individual differences in achievement motivation with the Implicit Association Test. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 38(6), 536–555.
- Brunstein, J. C., Schultheiss, O. C., & Grässmann, R. (1998). Personal goals and emotional well-being: The moderating role of motive dispositions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(2), 494–508.
- Burris, E. R. (2012). The risks and rewards of speaking up: Managerial responses to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(4), 851–875.
- Campbell, D. J. (2000). The proactive employee: Managing workplace initiative. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 14(3), 52–66.
- Campbell, K. E., & Jackson, T. T. (1979). The role of and need for replication research in social psychology. *Replications in Social Psychology*, 1(1), 3-14
- Campbell, W. K., & Sedikides, C. (1999). Self-threat magnifies the self-serving bias: A meta-analytical integration. *Review of General Psychology*, 3(1), 23–43.
- Carsten, M. K., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2013). Ethical Followership. *Journal of Leadership*

& *Organizational Studies*, 20(1), 49–61.

- Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., & Huang, L. (2017). Leader perceptions and motivation as outcomes of followership role orientation and behavior. *Leadership*, 0(0), 1–26.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (2001). *On the self-regulation of behavior*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (2008). Feedback Processes in the Simultaneous Regulation of Action and Affect. In J. Y. Shah & W. L. Gardner (Eds.), *Handbook of Motivation Science* (pp. 308–324). New York: Guilford Press.
- Carver, C. S., & Connor-Smith, J. (2010). Personality and Coping. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 61(1), 679–704.
- Chang, C.-H., Ferris, D. L., Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., & Tan, J. A. (2012). Core Self-Evaluations: A Review and Evaluation of the Literature. *Journal of Management*, 38(1), 81–128.
- Chhokar, J. S. (2007). India: Diversity and complexity in action. Culture and leadership across the world. In J. S. Chhokar, F. C. Brodbeck, & R. J. House (Eds.), *The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of*, 25, (pp. 971–1004). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Colman, A. M., Norris, C. E., & Preston, C. C. (1997). Comparing rating scales of different lengths: equivalence of scores from 5-point and 7-point scales. *Psychological Reports*, 80, 355–362.
- Conger, J. A. (1989). Leadership: The art of empowering others. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 3(1), 17–24.
- Conger, J. A., Kanungo, R. N., Menon, S. T., & Mathur, P. (1997). Measuring Charisma: dimensionality and validity of the Conger-Kanungo Scale of charismatic leadership. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 14(3), 290–301.
- Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive Behavior in Organizations. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 435–462.
- Crocker, J., & Knight, K. M. (2005). Contingencies of Self-Worth, *Current directions in psychological science*, 14(4), 200–203.
- Crocker, J., Luhtanen, R. K., & Sommers, S. R. (2004). Contingencies of self-worth: Progress and prospects. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 15(1), 133–181.
- Crocker, J., & Park, L. E. (2004). The costly pursuit of self-esteem. *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(3), 392–414.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1975). The two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American Psychologist*, 30(2), 116–127.

- Day, D. V., & Dragoni, L. (2015). Leadership Development: An Outcome-Oriented Review Based on Time and Levels of Analyses. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 2(1), 133–156.
- DeCremer, D., & Sedikides, C. (2005). Self-uncertainty and responsiveness to procedural justice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 41(2), 157–173.
- De Cremer, D., & Tyler, T. R. (2005). Am I respected or not? Inclusion and reputation as issues in group membership. *Social Justice Research*, 18(2), 121–153.
- De Stobbeleir, K. E. M., Ashford, S. J., & Sully de Luque, M. (2010). Proactivity with image in mind: How employee and manager characteristics affect evaluations of proactive behaviours. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(2), 347–369.
- Debusscher, J., Hofmans, J., & De Fruyt, F. (2017). Core self-evaluations as a moderator of the relationship between task complexity, job resources, and performance. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 26(3), 411-420.
- DeRue, S. D., & Ashford, S. J. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow ? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(4), 627–647.
- Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice : Is the door really open ? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(4), 869–884.
- Dutton, J. E., Ashford, S. J., O'Neill, R. M., & Lawrence, K. A. (2001). Moves that matter: Issue selling and organizational change. *Academy of Management ...*, 44(4), 716–736.
- Eagly, A. H. (1987). Sex Differences in. *Social Behaviour: A Social-Role Interpretation*. Chicago: NJ: Erlbaum.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109(3), 573–598.
- Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J., & Makhijani, M. G. (1995). Gender and the effectiveness of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(1), 125–145.
- Eberly, M. B., Johnson, M. D., Hernandez, M., & Avolio, B. J. (2013). An integrative process model of leadership: examining loci, mechanisms, and event cycles. *The American Psychologist*, 68(6), 427–43.
- Edmondson, A. C. (1999). Psychological Safety and Learning Behavior in Work Teams. *Admi*, 44(2), 350–383.
- Edmondson, A. C., & Lei, Z. (2014). Psychological Safety: The History, Renaissance, and Future of an Interpersonal Construct. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 1(1), 23–43.

- Earp, B. D., & Trafimow, D. (2015). Replication, falsification, and the crisis of confidence in social psychology. *Frontiers in psychology*, 6.
- Edwards, J. R. (2001). Ten Difference Score Myths. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(3), 265–287.
- Edwards, J. R., & Parry, M. E. (1993). On the use of polynomial regression equations as an alternative to difference scores in organisational research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(6), 1577–1613.
- Elsbach, K. D., & Kramer, R. M. (1996). Members' responses to organisational identity threats: Encountering and countering the business week rankings. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(3), 442–476.
- Engle, E. M., & Lord, R. G. (1997). Implicit theories, self-schemas, and leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(4), 988–1010.
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2004). Implicit leadership theories in applied settings: factor structure, generalizability, and stability over time. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(2), 293–310.
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2005). From ideal to real: a longitudinal study of the role of implicit leadership theories on leader-member exchanges and employee outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 659–76.
- Epitropaki, O., Sy, T., Martin, R., Tram-Quon, S., & Topakas, A. (2013). Implicit Leadership and Followership Theories “in the wild”: Taking stock of information-processing approaches to leadership and followership in organizational settings. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(6), 858–881.
- Epstein, S., 1980. The stability of behavior: II. Implications for psychological research. *American Psychologist*, 35(9), pp. 790-806.
- Erez, A., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations to goal setting, motivation, and performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(6), 1270-1279.
- Exline, R. V. (1962). Effects of need for affiliation, sex, and the sight of others upon initial communications in problem-solving groups. *Journal of Personality*, 30(4), 541–556.
- Fast, N. J., Burris, E. R., & Bartel, C. A. (2014). Managing to stay in the dark: Managerial self-efficacy, ego defensiveness, and the aversion to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 57(4), 1013–1034.
- Fast, N. J., & Chen, S. (2009). When the boss feels inadequate: Power, incompetence, and aggression. *Psychological Science*, 20(11), 1406–1413.
- Ferris, D. L., Lian, H., Brown, D. J., & Morrison, R. (2015). Ostracism, self-esteem, and job performance : When do we self-verify and when do we self-enhance ? *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(1), 279–297.
- Ferris, D. L., Lian, H., Brown, D. J., Pang, F. X., & Keeping, L. M. (2010). Self-

- Esteem and Job Performance: The Moderating Role of Self-Esteem Contingencies. *Personnel Psychology*, 63(3), 561–593.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. (3rd ed.). London: SAGE Publications.
- Fodor, E. M. (2009). Power motivation. *Handbook of individual differences in social behavior*, 426-440.
- Fodor, E. M. (2010). Power motivation. In O. C. Schultheiss & J. C. Brunstein (Eds.), *Implicit Motives, Handbook of personality Theory and Research* (2010th ed., pp. 3–29). Oxford University Press.
- Fodor, E. M., & Smith, T. (1982). The power motive as an influence on group decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(1), 178.
- Forehand, M. R., Deshpandé, R., & Reed, A. (2002). Identity salience and the influence of differential activation of the social self-schema on advertising response. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(6), 1086–1099.
- Frese, M., & Fay, D. (2001). Personal initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 23, 133–187.
- Frese, M., Garst, H., & Fay, D. (2007). Making things happen: Reciprocal relationships between work characteristics and personal initiative in a four-wave longitudinal structural equation model. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(4), 1084–1102.
- Fuller, B., Marler, L. E., Hester, K., & Otondo, R. F. (2015). Leader reactions to follower proactive behavior: Giving credit when credit is due. *Human Relations*, 68(6), 879-898
- Gooty, J., & Yammarino, F. J. (2013). The Leader-Member Exchange Relationship: A Multisource, Cross-Level Investigation. *Journal of Management*, 42(4), 915-935.
- Gosserand, R. H., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2005). Emotional display rules and emotional labor: the moderating role of commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(6), 1256–1264.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219–247.
- Grant, A. M. (2008). Employees without a cause: The motivational effects of prosocial impact in public service. *International Public Management Journal*, 11(1), 48–66.
- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28, 3–34.

- Grant, A. M., Parker, S.K., & Collins, C. (2009). Getting credit for proactive behavior: Supervisor reactions depend on what you value and how you feel. *Personnel Psychology*, *62*(1), 31–55.
- Grant, A. M., & Rothbard, N. P. (2013). When in doubt, seize the day? Security values, prosocial values, and proactivity under ambiguity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *98*(5), 810–819.
- Grant, A. M., & Sonnentag, S. (2010). Doing good buffers against feeling bad: Prosocial impact compensates for negative task and self-evaluations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *111*(1), 13–22.
- Green, J. D., Pinter, B., & Sedikides, C. (2005). Mnemic neglect and self-threat: Trait modifiability moderates self-protection. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *35*(2), 225–235.
- Green, J. D., Sedikides, C., & Gregg, A. P. (2008). Forgotten but not gone: The recall and recognition of self-threatening memories. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *44*, 547–561.
- Greenwald, A. G., & Banaji, M. R. (1995). Implicit social cognition: attitudes, self-esteem, and stereotypes. *Psychological Review*, *102*(1), 4–27.
- Gregg, A. P., Sedikides, C., & Gebauer, J. E. (2010). Dynamics of Identity: Between Self-Enhancement and Self-Assessment. In S. J. Schwartz, K. Luyckx, & V. L. Vignoles (Eds.), *Handbook of identity theory and research* (Vol. 196, pp. 305–327). New York: Springer.
- Greguras, G. J., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2010). Why does proactive personality predict employee life satisfaction and work. *Personnel Psychology*, *63*(3), 539–560.
- Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(2), 327–347.
- Grint, K. (2000). *The arts of leadership*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Guillén, L., Mayo, M., & Korotov, K. (2015). Is leadership a part of me? A leader identity approach to understanding the motivation to lead. *Leadership Quarterly*, *26*(5), 802–820.
- Haddock, G., & Gebauer, J. E. (2011). Defensive self-esteem impacts attention, attitude strength, and self-affirmation processes. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *47*(6), 1276–1284.
- Hanges, P. J., Lord, R. G., & Dickson, M. W. (2000). An Information-processing Perspective on Leadership and Culture: A Case for Connectionist Architecture. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *49*(1), 133–161.
- Harter, S. (1990). *Causes, correlates, and the functional role of global self-worth: A life-span perspective*.

- Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A Versatile Computational Tool for Observed Variable Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Modeling. *White Paper*, 1–39.
- Heilman, M. E. (2001). Description and Prescription: How Gender Stereotypes Prevent Women's Ascent Up the Organizational Ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 657–674.
- Heilman, M. E., & Chen, J. J. (2005). Same behavior, different consequences: reactions to men's and women's altruistic citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(3), 431–441.
- Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D., & Tamkins, M. M. (2004). Penalties for success: reactions to women who succeed at male gender-typed tasks. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3), 416–427.
- Heppen, J. B., & Ogilvie, D. M. (2003). Predicting Affect from Global Self-discrepancies: The Dual Role of the Undesired Self. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 22(4), 347–368.
- Hernandez, M., Eberly, M. B., Avolio, B. J., & Johnson, M. D. (2011). The loci and mechanisms of leadership: Exploring a more comprehensive view of leadership theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(6), 1165–1185.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). Grid Principles and Situationalism: Both! A Response to Blake and Mouton. *Group & Organization Studies*, 7(2), 207–210.
- Heyns, R. W., Veroff, J., & Atkinson, J. W. (1958). A scoring manual for the affiliation motive. *Motives in fantasy, action, and society*, 205–218.
- Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94(3), 319–340.
- Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52(12), 1280–300.
- Higgins, E. T., Bond, R. N., Klein, R., & Strauman, T. J. (1986). Self-discrepancies and emotional vulnerability: how magnitude, accessibility, and type of discrepancy influence affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(1), 5–15.
- Higgins, E. T., Klein, R., & Strauman, T. J. (1985). Self-Concept Discrepancy Theory: A Psychological Model for Distinguishing among Different Aspects of Depression and Anxiety. *Social Cognition*, 3(1), 51–76.
- Higgins, E. T., Shah, J., & Friedman, R. (1997). Emotional Responses to Goal Attainment: Strength of Regulatory Focus as Moderator. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(3), 515–525.
- Hirak, R., Peng, A. C., Carmeli, A., & Schaubroeck, J. M. (2012). Linking leader inclusiveness to work unit performance: The importance of psychological safety and learning from failures. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(1), 107–117.

- Hogg, M. A. (2001). A Social Identity Theory of Leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5(3), 184–200.
- House, R. J. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 321–339.
- Howell, T. M., Harrison, D. A., Burris, E. R., & Detert, J. R. (2015). Who gets credit for input? Demographic and structural status cues in voice recognition. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research*, 100(6), 1765–1784.
- Ibarra, H., & Petriglieri, J. L. (2010). Identity work and play. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 23(1), 10–25.
- Ibarra, H., Snook, S., & Guillén, R. (2010). Identity-based leader development Identity-Based Leader Development. In *leadership theory and practice* (pp. 657–678).
- Javidan, M., House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. J., & Sully de Luque, M. (2006). Conceptualizing and measuring cultures and their consequences: a comparative review of GLOBE's and Hofstede's approaches. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37(6), 897–914.
- Johnson, R. E., & Lord, R. G. (2010). Implicit effects of justice on self-identity. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(4), 681–95.
- Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., & Levy, P. E. (2008). Getting to the core of core self-evaluation: A review and recommendations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29(3), 391–413.
- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluations traits-self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability-with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 80–92.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., & Bono, J. E. (1998). The Power of being positive: The relation between positive self-concept and job performance. *Human Performance*, 11(2–3), 167–187.
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Erez, A., & Locke, E. A. (2005). Core self-evaluations and job and life satisfaction: the role of self-concordance and goal attainment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2), 257–268.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2003). The Core Self-Evaluations Scale: Development of a Measure. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(2), 303–331.
- Judge, T. A., & Ferris, G. R. (1993). Social Context of Performance Evaluation Decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(1), 80–105.
- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(1), 17–34.

- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., & Durham, C. C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *19*, 151–188.
- Judge, T. A., Van Vianen, A. E. M., & De Pater, I. E. (2004). Emotional stability, core self-evaluations, and job outcomes: A review of the evidence and an agenda for future research. *Human Performance*, *17*(3), 325–346.
- Kacmar, K. M., Collins, B. J., Harris, K. J., & Judge, T. A. (2009). Core self-evaluations and job performance: The role of the perceived work environment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(6), 1572–1580.
- Karelaia, N., & Guillén, L. (2014). Me, a woman and a leader: Positive social identity and identity conflict. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *125*(2), 204–219. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2014.08.002>
- Kelley, H. H. (1971). *Attributions in social interactions*. Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.
- Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., Judge, T. A., & Scott, B. a. (2009). The role of core self-evaluations in the coping process. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(1), 177–195.
- Kane, T. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Tremble, T. R., & Masuda, A. D. (2002). An Examination of the Leader's Regulation of Groups. *Small Group Research*, *33*(1), 65–120.
- Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a Conceptualization of Optimal Self-Esteem. *Psychology Inquiry*, *14*(1), 1–26.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond self-management: Antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *42*(1), 58–74.
- Kitayama, S., Ishii, K., Imada, T., Takemura, K., & Ramaswamy, J. (2006). Voluntary settlement and the spirit of independence: Evidence from Japan's "Northern frontier". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *91*(3), 369–384.
- Kramer, R. M. (2010). Responsive Leaders: Cognitive and Behavioral Reactions to Identity Threats. *Social Psychology and Organizations*, *121*.
- Landau, M. J., Greenberg, J., & Sullivan, D. (2009). Managing terror when self-worth and worldviews collide: Evidence that mortality salience increases reluctance to self-enhance beyond authorities. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *45*(1), 68–79.
- Leary, Mark, R., & Hoyle, R. H. (2009). Situations, Dispositions, and the Study of Social Behavior. In R. Leary, Mark & R. H. Hoyle (Eds.), *Handbook of individual differences in social behavior* (pp. 3–10). Guildford Publications.

- LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (1998). Predicting voice behavior in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *6*(6), 853–868.
- LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (2001). Voice and cooperative behavior as contrasting forms of contextual performance: evidence of differential relationships with big five personality characteristics and cognitive ability. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(2), 326–336.
- Lewis, K. M. (2000). When leaders display emotion: How followers respond to negative emotional expression of male and female leaders. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*(2), 221–234.
- Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R. (2012). The Dark Side of Leadership: A Three-Level Investigation of the Cascading Effect of Abusive Supervision on Employee Creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*(5), 1187–1212.
- Liu, W., Lepak, D. P., Takeuchi, R., & Sims Jr, H. P. (2003). Matching leadership styles with employment modes: strategic human resource management perspective. *Human Resource Management Review*, *13*(1), 127–152.
- Liu, W., Song, Z., Li, X., & Liao, Z. (2017). Why and when leaders' affective states influence employee upward voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, *60*(1), 238–263.
- Locke, E. A., McClellan, K., & Knight, D. (1996). Self-esteem and work. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *11*, 1–32.
- Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., Harvey, J. L., & Hall, R. J. (2001). Contextual constraints on prototype generation and their multilevel consequences for leadership perceptions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *12*(3), 311–338.
- Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the Dynamics of Leadership: The Role of Follower Self-Concepts in the Leader/Follower Relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *78*(3), 167–203.
- Lord, R. G., Gatti, P., & Chui, S. L. M. (2016). Social-cognitive, relational, and identity-based approaches to leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *136*, 119–134.
- 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.
- 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.
- Lord, R. G., & Kernan, M. C. (1987). Scripts as Determinants of Purposeful Behavior in Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *12*(2), 265–277
- Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1990). Alternative Information-Processing Models and

Their Implications for Theory, Research, and Practice. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(1), 9–28.

- Lord, R. G., & Shondrick, S. J. (2010). *Implicit leadership and followership theories: Dynamic structures for leadership perceptions, memory and leader-follower processes*. (G. P. Hodgkinson & J. K. Ford, Eds.) *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (First edit, Vol. 25). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Madera, J. M., & Smith, D. B. (2009). The effects of leader negative emotions on evaluations of leadership in a crisis situation: The role of anger and sadness. *Leadership Quarterly*, 20(2), 103–114.
- Major, B., & O'Brien, L. T. (2005). The social psychology of stigma. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 56(1), 393–421.
- Marion, R., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2001). Leadership in complex organizations. *American Sociological Review*, 12(4), 389–418.
- Markus, H. (1977). Self-schemata and processing information about the self. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 35(2), 63–78.
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist*, 41(9), 954–969.
- Markus, H., & Wurf, E. (1987). The dynamic self-concept: A social psychological perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 38, 299–337.
- Masten, A. S., & Coatsworth, J. D. (1998). The development of competence in favorable and unfavorable environments. Lessons from research on successful children. *The American Psychologist*, 53(2), 205–220.
- Maulding, W. S., Peters, G. B., Roberts, J., Leonard, E., & Sparkman, L. (2012). Emotional intelligence and resilience as predictors of leadership in school administrators. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(4), 20–29.
- McClelland, E. J., Burris, E. R., & Detert, J. R. (2013). When does voice lead to exit? It depends on leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56(2), 525–548.
- McClelland, D. C. (1980). Motive dispositions. The merits of operant and respondent measures. In L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology* (Vol. 1, pp. 10–41). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- McClelland, D. (1985). *Human Motivation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McClelland, D. (1987). *Human Motivation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McClelland, D. C., Koestner, R., & Weinberger, J. (1989). How do self-attributed and implicit motives differ? *Psychological Review*, 96(4), 690–702.
- Medvedeff, M. E., & Lord, R. G. (2007). Implicit leadership theories as dynamic processing structures. In *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A*

tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl (pp. 19–50).

- Meindl, J. R. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(3), 329–341.
- Menon, T., Thompson, L., & Choi, H.-S. (2006). Tainted knowledge vs . Tempting knowledge : People avoid knowledge from internal rivals and seek knowledge from external rivals. *Management Science*, 52(8), 1129–1144.
- Milliken, F. J., Morrison, E. W., & Hewlin, P. F. (2003). An Exploratory Study of Employee Silence : Issues that Employees Don ' t Communicate Upward and Why *. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(6), 1453–1476.
- Miyake, A., & Friedman, N. P. (2012). The nature and organization of individual differences in executive functions: Four general conclusions. *Current directions in psychological science*, 21(1), 8-14.
- Molm, L. D., Peterson, G., & Takahashi, N. (2003). In the eye of the beholder: Procedural justice in social exchange. *American Sociological Review*, 68(1), 128–152.
- Morris, W. N. (1999). The mood system. In K. D. & E. Diene (Eds.), *Well-being: The foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 169–189). New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Morrison, E. W. (2006). *Doing the Job Well: An Investigation of Pro-Social Rule Breaking*. *Journal of Management*, 32 (1), 5-28.
- Morrison, E. W. (2011). Employee voice behavior: Integration and directions for future research. *Academy of Management annals*, 5(1), 373–412.
- Morrison, E. W., & Phelps, C. C. (1999). Taking charge at work: Extrarole efforts to initiate workplace change. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(4), 403–419.
- Morrison, E. W., & Milliken, F. J. (2000). Organizational silence: A Barrier to Change and Development in a pluralistic World. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(4), 706–725.
- Morrison, E. W., Wheeler-Smith, S. L., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Speaking up in groups: a cross-level study of group voice climate and voice. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(1), 183–191.
- Morrison, E. W., See, K. E., & Pan, C. (2015). An approach-inhibition model of employee silence: the joint effects of personal sense of power and target openness. *Personnel Psychology*, 68 (3), 547-580.
- Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership Theory and Practice* (5th ed.). USA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Oyserman, D. (2007). Self-Concept and Identity. In A. Tesser & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Blackwell Handbook of Social Psychology* (pp. 499–517). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

- Oyserman, D. (2009). Identity-based motivation: Implications for action-readiness, procedural-readiness, and consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 19(3), 250–260.
- Oyserman, D., & James, L. (2011). Possible Identities. In S. J. Schwartz, K. Luyckx, & V. L. Vignoles (Eds.), *Handbook of Identity Theory and Research* (1st ed., pp. 117–145). London: Springer.
- Parker, S. K. (1998). Enhancing role breadth self-efficacy: the roles of job enrichment and other organizational interventions. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(6), 835–52.
- Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 827–856.
- Parker, S. K., & Bindl, U. K. (Eds.). (2016). *Proactivity at work: Making things happen in organizations*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis/Routledge.
- Parker S. K. & Collins C (2010) Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 36(3): 633–662.
- Parker, S. K., Williams, H. M., & Turner, N. (2006). Modeling the antecedents of proactive behavior at work. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 636–52.
- Petriglieri, J. L. (2011). Under Threat: Responses to and the Consequences of Threats to Individuals' Identities. *Academy of Management Review*, 36(4), 641–662.
- Philips, J. M., Douthitt, E. A., & Hyland, M. A. M. (2001). The role of justice in team member satisfaction with the leader and attachment to the team. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 2486(2), 316–325.
- Pierce, J. L., & Gardner, D. G. (2004). Self-esteem within the work and organizational context: A review of the organization-based self-esteem literature. *Journal of Management*, 30(5), 591–622.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879.
- Rahim, M. A. (1989). Relationships of leader power to compliance and satisfaction with supervision: Evidence from a national sample of managers. *Journal of Management*, 15(4), 545-556.
- Rahim, M. A., Antonioni, D., Krumov, K., & Ilieva, S. (2000). Power, conflict, and effectiveness: A cross-cultural study in the United States and Bulgaria. *European Psychologist*, 5(1), 28-33
- . Ramarajan, L. (2014). Past, Present and Future Research on Multiple Identities: Toward an Intrapersonal Network Approach. *Academy of Management Annals*, 8(1), 589–659.
- Remington, N. A., Fabrigar, L. R., & Visser, P. S. (2000). Reexamining the

- circumplex model of affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79(2), 286–300.
- Ridgeway, C. L. (1997). Interaction and the Conservation of Gender Inequality: Considering Employment. *American Sociological Review*, 62(2), 218–235.
- Ridgeway, C. L. (2001). Gender, Status, and Leadership. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 637–655.
- Robins, R. W., & Beer, J. S. (2001). Positive Illusions About the Self: Short-Term Benefits and Long-Term Costs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80(2), 340–352.
- Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: Free Press.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C., Schoenbach, C., & Rosenberg, F. (1995). Global Self-Esteem and Specific Self-Esteem: Different Concepts, Different Outcomes. *American Sociological Review*, 60(1), 141.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied*, 80(1), 1–28.
- Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive gender stereotypes and backlash toward agentic women. *The Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 743–762.
- Scheepers, D., & Ellemers, N. (2005). When the pressure is up: The assessment of social identity threat in low and high status groups. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 41(2), 192–200.
- Schultheiss, O. C. (2001). An information processing account of implicit motive arousal. In M. L. Maehr & P. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 12, pp. 1–41). Greenwich: JAI Press.
- Schultheiss, O. C. (2007). A biobehavioral model of implicit power motivation arousal, reward and frustration. In E. Harmon-Jones & P. Winkielman (Eds.), *Social neuroscience: Integrating biological and psychological explanations of social behavior* (pp. 176–196). New York: Guilford Press.
- Schultheiss, O. C. (2008). Implicit Motives. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of Personality Theory and Research* (3rd ed.). New York: Guilford Press.
- Schultheiss, O. C., & Brunstein, J. C. (2002). Inhibited power motivation and persuasive communication: A lens model analysis. *Journal of Personality*, 70(4), 553–582.
- Schultheiss, O. C., & Brunstein, J. C. (2005). An implicit motive perspective on competence. In A. J. Elliot & C. Dweck (Eds.), *Handbook of Competence and*

Motivation (pp. 31–55).

- Schultheiss, O. C., & Hale, J. A. (2007). Implicit motives modulate attentional orienting to facial expressions of emotion. *Motivation and Emotion*, *31*(1), 13–24.
- Schultheiss, O. C., & Pang, J. S. (2007). Measuring implicit motives. In R. W. Robins, R. C. Fraley, & R. Krueger (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in personality psychology*, (pp. 322–344). New York: Guilford.
- Schultheiss, O. C., Wirth, M. M., Torges, C. M., Pang, J. S., Villacorta, M. A., & Welsh, K. M. (2005). Effects of implicit power motivation on men's and women's implicit learning and testosterone changes after social victory or defeat. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *88*(1), 174–188.
- Sedikides, C. (1988). Changes in the valence of the self as a function of mood defining the self. *Emotion and Social Behavior*, 271–311.
- Sedikides, Constantine and Luke, M (2008) *On when self-criticism and self-enhancement function adaptively and maladaptively*. In: Chang, Edward C. (Eds.) *Self-criticism and self-enhancement: Theory, research, and clinical implications*. American Psychological Association, Washington D C, pp. 181-198.
- Sedikides, C., & Strube, M. J. (1995). The multiply motivated self. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *21*(12), 1330–1335.
- Sedikides, C., & Strube, M. J. (1997). Self-Evaluation: To Thine Own Self Be Good, To Thine Own Self Be Sure, To Thine Own Self Be True, and To Thine Own Self be Better. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *29*(C), 209–269.
- Seibert, S. E., Crant, J. M., & Kraimer, M. L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. *84*(3), 416-427
- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Crant, J. M. (2001). What do proactive people do? A longitudinal model linking proactive personality and career success. *Personnel Psychology*, *54*(4), 845–874.
- Shamir, B. (2011). Leadership takes time: Some implications of (not) taking time seriously in leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(2), 307–315.
- Singleton, R., & Straits, B. (2010). *Approaches to social research* (5th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Smither, J. W., & Buda, R. (1989). When Ratee Satisfaction Influences Performance Evaluations : A Case of Illusory Correlation, *74*(4), 599–605.
- Srivastava, A., Locke, E. A., Judge, T. A., & Adams, J. W. (2010). Core self-evaluations as causes of satisfaction: The mediating role of seeking task complexity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *77*(2), 255–265.
- Storms, M. D. (1973). Videotape and the Attribution Process: Reversing Actors' and

- Observers' Points of View. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 27(2), 165–175.
- Strauman, T. J., & Higgins, E. T. (1987). Automatic activation of self-discrepancies and emotional syndromes: when cognitive structures influence affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 53(6), 1004–1014.
- Strube, M. J., & Yost, J. H. (1993). Control motivation and self-appraisal. In *In Control motivation and social cognition* (pp. 220–254). New York: Springer.
- Sy, T. (2010). What do you think of followers? Examining the content, structure, and consequences of implicit followership theories. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 113(2), 73–84.
- Tangney, J. P., Niedenthal, P. M., Covert, M. V, & Barlow, D. H. (1998). Are shame and guilt related to distinct self-discrepancies? A test of Higgins's (1987) hypotheses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(1), 256–68.
- Taylor, S. E., & Armor, D. A. (1996). Positive illusions and coping with adversity. *Journal of Personality*, 64(4), 873–898.
- Tepper, B. J. (1995). Upward Maintenance Tactics in Supervisory Mentoring and Nonmentoring Relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(4), 1191–1205.
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178–190.
- Tesser, A. (1988). Toward a self-evaluation maintenance model of social behavior. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, 21, 181–227.
- Tesser, A., Crepaz, N., Collins, J. C., Cornell, D., & Beach, S. R. H. (2000). Confluence of self-esteem regulation mechanisms: On integrating the self-zoo. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26, 1476–1489.
- Tharenou, P., & Harker, P. (1984). Moderating influence of self-esteem on relationships between job complexity, performance, and satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(4), 623–632.
- The World Bank. (2012). *Gender and equality development*. Washington.
- Thomas, J. P., Whitman, D. S., & Viswesvaran, C. (2010). Employee proactivity in organizations: A comparative meta-analysis of emergent proactive constructs. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(2), 275–300.
- Thompson J (2005) Proactive personality and job performance: A social capital perspective on mediating behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(5): 1011–1017.
- Thornton, G. C. (1982). *Assessment Centers*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Turnley, W. H., & Bolino, M. C. (2001). Achieving desired images while avoiding

- undesired images: exploring the role of self-monitoring in impression management. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(2), 351-360
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Marion, R. (2009). Complexity leadership in bureaucratic forms of organizing: A meso model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(4), 631–650.
- Unsworth, K. L., & Parker, S. K. (2003). Proactivity and Innovation: Promoting a New Workforce for the New Workplace. In D. Holman, T. D. Wall, C. W. Clegg, P. Sparrow, & A. Howard (Eds.), *The New Workplace: A Guide to the Human Impact of Modern Working Practices* (pp. 175–196). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & Parks, J. M. (1995). Extra-role behaviors-in pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews*, 17, 215-285.
- Van Dyne L., and LePine J. (1998) Helping and voice extra-role behavior: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal* 41(1): 108–119.
- van Knippenberg, D., & Sitkin, S. B. (2013). A Critical Assessment of Charismatic—Transformational Leadership Research: Back to the Drawing Board? *Academy of Management Annals*, 7(1), 1–60.
- van Quaquebeke, N., Graf, M. M., & Eckloff, T. (2014). What do leaders have to live up to? Contrasting the effects of central tendency versus ideal-based leader prototypes in leader categorization processes. *Leadership*, 10(2), 191–217.
- van Quaquebeke, N., Kerschreiter, R., Buxton, A. E., & van Dick, R. (2010). Two lighthouses to navigate: Effects of ideal and counter-ideal values on follower identification and satisfaction with their leaders. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 93(2), 293–305.
- van Quaquebeke, N., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2012). Second-Generation Leader Categorization Research: How Subordinates' Self- and Typical Leader Perceptions Moderate Leader Categorization Effects. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(6), 1293–1319.
- van Quaquebeke, N., van Knippenberg, D., & Eckloff, T. (2011). Individual differences in the leader categorization to openness to influence relationship: The role of followers' self-perception and social comparison orientation. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 14(5), 605–622.
- VanderWeele, T. J. (2016). Mediation Analysis: A Practitioner's Guide. *Annual Review of Public Health*, 37(1), 17–32.
- Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., & Hudy, M. J. (1997). Overall Job Satisfaction: How Good Are Single-Item Measures? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(2), 247–252.

- Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(3), 193–210.
- Watson, D. (2000). *Mood and temperament*. Guilford Press.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(6), 1063–1070.
- Watson, J. B. (1994). Psychology as the behaviorist views it. *Psychological Review*, 101(2), 248–253.
- Wegner, M., Bohnacker, V., Mempel, G., Teubel, T., & Schüler, J. (2014). Explicit and implicit affiliation motives predict verbal and nonverbal social behavior in sports competition. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 15(6), 588–595.
- Weick, K. E. (1995). *Sensemaking in organizations* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Weinberger, J., Cotler, T., & Fishman, D. (2010). The Duality of Affiliative Motivation. In O. C. Schultheiss & J. C. Brunstein (Eds.), *Implicit Motives* (pp. 71–88). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92(4), 548–573.
- White, P. A. (1991). Ambiguity in the internal / external in causal attribution. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 27(27), 259–270.
- Whiting, S. W., Maynes, T. D., Podsakoff, N. P., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2012). Effects of message, source, and context on evaluations of employee voice behavior. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(1), 159–82.
- Winter, D. G. (1973). *The power motive*. New York: Free Press
- Winter, D. G. (1994). *Manual for scoring motive imagery in running text* (4.2). Winter.
- Winter, D. G., John, O. P., Stewart, A. J., Klohnen, E. C., & Duncan, L. E. (1998). Traits and motives: toward an integration of two traditions in personality research. *Psychological Review*, 105(2), 230–250.
- Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in organisations* (5th ed.). NJ: Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.
- Yukl, G. A. (2010). *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). NJ: Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.
- Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and creative process engagement. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(1), 107–128.

Appendix 1: Scenarios used in experiments

Follower proactive behaviour scenario (female/male)

Imagine you are the company director for a mid-sized public relations company called *Buzz About*. Pat is a marketing manager and reports directly to you. The company has several big clients and is continuing to grow. You have just emailed Pat and instructed her (him) to meet with a new client this evening. When you became company director of *Buzz About*, you implemented a standard protocol for marketing managers for initial meetings, which is to discuss what *Buzz About* can offer in terms of media exposure, Twitter and Facebook support. Pat met with the client and discussed the portfolio of offerings. Rather than follow the standard procedures you designed, she (he) decided to take a different approach to try and improve the delivery of offerings in the future. To accomplish this, she (he) developed a new client communication and point of contact procedure in meetings. The new client is happy.

Proficient follower behaviour scenario (female/male)

Imagine you are the company director for a mid-sized public relations company called *Buzz About*. Pat is a marketing manager and reports directly to you. The company has several big clients and is continuing to grow. You have just emailed Pat and instructed her (him) to meet with a new client this evening. When you became company director of *Buzz About*, you implemented a standard protocol for marketing managers for initial meetings, which is to discuss what *Buzz About* can offer in terms of media exposure, Twitter and Facebook support. Pat met with the client and discussed the portfolio of offerings. She (he) coordinated with the marketing team to make sure everyone understands their standard roles with this new client. She (he) followed the standard procedures you designed and tasks were properly completed. The new client is happy

Appendix 2: Survey form for Study 1

Consent

Welcome to this study on "**Reactions to subordinate behaviour**". All information will be treated as strictly confidential. By clicking on the "next" button, you consent to your participation and indicate your willingness to voluntarily take part in the study.

Demographic questions

I am...(Male/Female)

How old are you?

Response option: Under 18 years old, 18-25 years old ,26- 30 years old ,31-35 years old , 36- 40 years old, , 41-50 years old , 51-60 years old , 61 + years old

What is your highest education qualification?

Response option: Technical Certification, Bachelors, Masters, Phd

How many years of work experience do you have?

How many subordinates report to you in your **current role**?

What is the maximum number of subordinates reporting to you at any one time in your career?

Leader identity salience task

Think back to a time when you were a leader. By this we mean when you were formally in charge, either of a team or of a subordinate, and tried to motivate them. Reflect on a specific situation and try to recall how you felt, what actions you took and what happened next. (Please write between a minimum 50 words and maximum 150 words)

Leader identity threat

If you were the company director, to what extent would you be threatened by Pat's behaviour?

Response option: Not at all threatened, Not threatened, Slightly threatened, Threatened, Highly threatened

Performance evaluation

Overall, how would you rate Pat's performance over the past year?

Response range: 1- poor 4- Average 7-Ecellent

In your opinion, how likely is it that Pat will advance in the company?

Response options: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely, Undecided, Somewhat likely, Likely, Very likely

What is your assessment of Pat's likelihood of success?

Response options: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely, Undecided, Somewhat likely, Likely, Very likely

Proactive behaviour manipulation check

To what extent do you think Pat:

1. Suggested ways to make his/her work unit more effective
2. Developed new and improved methods to help his/her work unit perform better
3. Improved the way his/her work unit does things

Response range: Not at all, Just a little, A moderate amount, Quite a lot, Very much

Proactive behaviour description

To what extent do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the statement: Initiates change, is self-starting and future-directed.

Response range: Not at all aligned, Not aligned, Slightly aligned, Aligned, Perfectly aligned

Proficient behaviour manipulation check

1. To what extent do you think Pat: Coordinated his/her work with co-workers
2. Communicated effectively with his/her co-workers
3. Provided help to his/her co-workers when asked or needed

Response range: Not at all, Just a little, A moderate amount, Quite a lot, Very much

Proficient behaviour description

To what extent to do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the statement: Fulfils the prescribed or predictable requirements of the role.

Response range: Not at all aligned, Not aligned, Slightly aligned, Aligned, Perfectly aligned

Appendix 3: Survey form for Study 2

Consent

Welcome to the study titled "Workplace interactions" conducted by doctoral researcher Ms. Asma Bagash at WBS, United Kingdom. This is a comprehensive study to understand behaviours in the workplace. This session will take approximately thirty minutes of your time. Please answer all questions honestly and with complete sincerity. All information will be treated as strictly confidential. You are free to withdraw your consent at any time – before, during or after filling in the survey. Should you have any further questions about this research, please contact Asma Bagash (asma.bagash13@mail.wbs.ac.uk) or the principal researcher Dr. Dawn Eubanks (Dawn.Eubanks@wbs.ac.uk). Should you have any complaints relating to the study, you are advised to contact the Director of Delivery Assurance: Director of Delivery Assurance, Registrar's Office University House, University of Warwick, Coventry, CV48UW. Telephone: 2476574774,

Email: complaints@warwick.ac.uk By clicking on the 'Next' button, you consent to your participation and indicate your willingness to voluntarily take part in the study

Prolific academic question

Before you start, please: Maximize your browser window; Switch off phone/e-mail/music & anything else distracting Please enter your Prolific ID [Note for participants: it can be found at the top of this webpage or when going to your account info]:

Demographic questions

Are you...(Male/Female)

How old are you? (In years)

What is your highest education qualification?

High school Bachelors Masters PhD

How many years of work experience do you have?

How many subordinates report to you in your current role?

What is the maximum number of subordinates reporting to you at any one time in your career?

Leader identity salience task

Think back to a time when you were a leader. By this we mean when you were formally in charge, either of a team or of a subordinate, and tried to motivate them. Reflect on a specific situation and try to recall how you felt, what actions you took, and what happened next. (Please write between a minimum 50 words and maximum 150 words)

Leader Identity salience manipulation check

Please tell us about yourself in your own words. Please take about a minute to do so.

Pre-condition Affect

Below are a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Please indicate to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment.

Items: disappointed, discouraged, low, sad*, happy*, satisfied, agitated, on edge, uneasy, tense, calm* and relaxed*

Response option: Not at all, Slightly, Somewhat Moderately, Very Extremely

Followed by randomized scenarios: one condition per participant

- 1) Follower proactive behaviour (Female)
- 2) Follower proactive behaviour (Male)
- 3) Follower proficient behaviour (Female)
- 4) Follower proficient behaviour (Male)

Scenarios were repeated 7 times during the experiment

Post-condition Affect

<<Same as pre condition affect>>

Leader identity threat

Please complete the following questions

1. If you were the company director, to what extent would you be threatened by Pat's behaviour?
2. To what extent would your position as the leader be threatened by Pat's behaviour?
3. To what extent would your competence as a leader be threatened by Pat's behaviour?

Response option: Not at all threatened, Not threatened, Slightly threatened, Threatened, Highly threatened

4. How important would it be for you to maintain the original procedure you had established?

Response option: Not at all important, Not important, Somewhat not important, Seldom Somewhat important, Important, Very Important

5. How likely is it that others in the management team will question your ability as an effective leader if they heard about Pat's actions?
6. How likely is it that you will lose status in the organization if your superiors heard about Pat's actions?
7. How important would it be for you that Pat follows the procedure you devised??

Response options: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely, Undecided, Somewhat likely, Likely, Very likely

Performance evaluation

Please answer the following

1. Overall, how would you rate Pat's performance over the past year?

Response options: 1 –Poor, 4-Average, 7- Excellent

2. In your opinion, how likely is it that Pat will advance in the company?

Response options: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely, Undecided, Somewhat likely, Likely, Very likely

3. Give your assessment of Pat's likelihood of success.

Response options: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely, Undecided, Somewhat likely, Likely, Very likely

Promotion potential

Would you recommend Pat for the following

Items: Salary increase, Promotion, High profile project, Bonus pay

Response options: Definitely not recommend, Not recommend, Probably not recommend, Neutral, Probably recommend, Recommend, Definitely recommend

Attribution

Who would you say would be responsible for the way Pat acted?

Response options: Solely you, Mostly you, Both Pat and you Mostly Pat Solely Pat

Please answer the following

1. Features of Pat (such as her character, attitude, or temperament) influenced her behavior

2. Features of the environment that surrounds Pat (such as the social atmosphere, social norms, or other contextual factors) influenced her behavior
3. Pat would have acted differently if her features (such as her character, attitude, or temperament) had been different
4. Pat would have acted differently if features of the environment that surround her (such as the social atmosphere, social norms, or other contextual factors) had been different

Response options: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Somewhat disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Somewhat agree, Agree, Strongly agree

Proactive behaviour manipulation check

To what extent do you think Pat:

1. Suggested ways to make his/her work unit more effective
2. Developed new and improved methods to help his/her work unit perform better
3. Improved the way his/her work unit does things

Response range: Not at all, Just a little, A moderate amount, Quite a lot, Very much

Proactive behaviour description

To what extent to do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the statement: Initiates change, is self-starting and future-directed.

Response range: Not at all aligned, Not aligned, Slightly aligned, Aligned, Perfectly aligned

Proficient behaviour manipulation check

1. To what extent do you think Pat: Coordinated his/her work with co-workers
2. Communicated effectively with his/her co-workers
3. Provided help to his/her co-workers when asked or needed

Response range: Not at all, Just a little, A moderate amount, Quite a lot, Very much

Proficient behaviour description

To what extent do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the statement: Fulfils the prescribed or predictable requirements of the role.

Response range: Not at all aligned, Not aligned, Slightly aligned, Aligned, Perfectly aligned

Self esteem

Please rate this final set of statements about yourself

1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal basis with others
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities
3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure*
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of*
6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself*
9. I certainly feel useless at times*
10. At times I think I am no good at all*

Response option: Strongly agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree

* Items reverse coded

Debrief

I want to thank you for successfully participating in this research study on work place interactions. We appreciate your effort and the time you have given to this study. This study deals with leader and subordinate interactions. It aims to gain an understanding as to how subordinate behaviours influence leader perception and shapes their behaviours. We are investigating the changes that occur in the leaders' thoughts and behaviours due to subordinate behaviours. This study focuses on your thinking processes and its influence on your behaviour towards your subordinates.

The leadership potential questions that you answered during this study are not a valid measure and your answered were not analysed. A standard positive feedback was given to all participants regarding their leadership potential. The leadership potential feedback does not in any way reflect your leadership potential.

Should anyone have any complaints relating to a study conducted at the University or by Warwick University's employees or students, the complainant should be advised to contact the Director of Delivery Assurance, details as below:

Director of Delivery Assurance
Registrar's Office
University House
University of Warwick
Coventry
CV4 8UW
Telephone: 024 7657 4774
Email: complaints@warwick.ac.uk

Thank you for your participation.

Appendix 4a: Survey form Phase 1 for Study 3

Consent

Welcome to the first phase of the study titled "Workplace interactions "conducted by doctoral researcher Ms. Asma Bagash at WBS, United Kingdom. This is a comprehensive study to understand behaviours at workplace. This session will take approximately ten minutes of your time. Please answer all questions honestly and with complete sincerity. All information will be treated as strictly confidential. You can choose to withdraw at any time even once they have given consent. Should you have any further questions about this research, please contact Asma Bagash (asma.bagash13@mail.wbs.ac.uk). You may also contact the University of Warwick Research and Impact Services, University House, University of Warwick, Coventry, CV4 8UW, UK. 02476575732 should you have wish to make a complaint about the conduct of the researcher. By clicking on the 'Next' button, you consent to your participation and indicate your willingness to voluntarily take part in both phases of the study.

Demographic questions

My name is

First Name /Surname

I am a ...(Male/Female)

I work in (Name of organisation)

I am ___ years old

What is your highest education qualification?

Response option: Technical Qualification, Bachelors, Masters, Ph.D.

What type of education do you have?

Response option: Business, Engineering, Others

How many years of work experience do you have?

How many years have you been with your current organisation?

How many subordinates report directly to you in your current job role?

What is the total number of subordinates that have directly reported to you in your career?

Implicit leadership theories scale

Indicate the degree to which you see **the image of an ideal leader representing each of the below given attributes**. Please answer all questions.

Items: Understanding, Pushy, Sincere, Conceited, Knowledgeable, Clever, Loud, Dedicated, Male, Hard-working, Energetic, Strong, Dynamic, Domineering, Helpful, Manipulative, Educated, Selfish, Intelligent, Masculine, Motivated, Please answer by clicking on Neutral

Response range: 1-Not at all Characteristic to 9- Extremely Characteristic

Please carefully read the instructions for the next set of questions, they are different to the questions you just answered.

Indicate the degree to which you see **the image of yourself as a leader representing each of the below given attributes**. Please answer all the questions.

<<ILTs repeated here>>

Core self-evaluation scale

Below are several statements. Using the response scale, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each statement about you. Please answer all questions

1- I am confident I get the success I deserve in life

- 2- Sometimes I feel depressed*
- 3- When I try, I generally succeed
- 4- Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless*
- 5- I complete tasks successfully
- 6- Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work*
- 7- Overall, I am satisfied with myself
- 8- I am filled with doubts about my competence*
- 9- I determine what will happen in my life
- 10- I do not feel in control of my success in my career*
- 11- I am capable of coping with most of my problems
- 12- There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me*

Response options: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree

Items * Reverse scored

Email ID

Please enter your email address

Appendix 4b: Survey form phase 2 for Study 3

WELCOME brief

Good afternoon everyone, I am Asma Bagash from Warwick Business School. First of all, I want to thank all of you for successfully completing phase one of this research. We appreciate your effort and the time you have given to this study. This research Study deals with workplace interactions and behaviour and IDBI agreed to give us access to employees. You have been selected randomly for this study out of the entire population < Company name>>. The human resource department has been helping us facilitate this process of randomly selecting participants. Your data will be kept confidential and will be kept secure with Warwick business school. You and not shared with any one. The report generated will be handed over to you. These are the ethical guidelines set out by the University of Warwick. This session will last for an hour and consists of multiple activities. For the first activity, you will see 5 pictures one at a time and you have to write a short story based on what think is happening in the pictures. You will see one picture at a time, for 10 seconds only and then a minimum of 4 minutes to write. The spelling, grammar does not matter. This will be followed by you writing a short experience regarding your workplace interactions. here you have to write you experience, a minimum 50 words that is about 5 lines

Then you will read a short story on work place interactions. This will be followed by a few questions that you have to answer.

The same story will be repeated on each page so that if you want to read it again but you don't have to read the story of every page. It is only there for your reference.

Please read the questions carefully and answer all questions sincerely. There are no right or wrong answers. If you need any help you can as me. You can now click on the Next button and start the session.

Consent

Welcome to phase two of this study on "**Workplace interactions**". This session consists of multiple sections and will take approximately one hour to complete. At first, you will see some pictures and then you will need to write short stories based on these pictures. You will also need to write about an experience that you have had with your subordinate. This will be followed by a short scenario consisting of a workplace interaction and then you will be asked a few questions related to the scenario. **Please answer all questions honestly and with sincerity.** All information will be treated as strictly confidential. By clicking on the "next" button, you consent to your participation and indicate your willingness to voluntarily take part in phase 2 of this study.

Gender

I am ...(Male/female)

Name

Name

Surname

Email ID

Please enter your email address

Picture story experience

Five pictures will be presented randomly. Each picture will be presented for ten seconds. After it has disappeared, write whatever story comes to your mind. Don't worry about grammar, spelling, or punctuation - they are of no concern here. You will have about five minutes for each story; the computer will then let you know

when you have 20 seconds left. If you take less than the entire five minutes, the computer will be ready to move on after four minutes.

Ship's captain



A couple by a river



An arguing couple



A couple at a party



Three people sitting



Questions after each picture:

What is happening? Who are the people? What happened before? What are the people thinking about and feeling? What do they want? What will happen next?

Leader identity salience task

Think back to a time when you were a leader. By this we mean when you were formally in charge, either of a team or of a subordinate, and tried to motivate them. Reflect on a specific situation and try to recall how you felt, what actions you took and what happened next. Please write between a minimum 50 words and maximum 150 words.

Pre-condition negative and positive affect

How do you feel at this particular moment?

Items: Tense, Uneasy, Worried Contented, Relaxed, Calm, Depressed, Gloomy, Miserable, Cheerful, Enthusiastic, Optimistic, Please answer by clicking on Moderately

Response range: Not at all or very slightly, Not at all or very slightly, A little, Moderately, Quite a bit, Extremely

Followed by randomized scenarios: one condition per participant

- 1) Follower proactive behaviour (Female)
- 2) Follower proactive behaviour (Male)
- 3) Follower proficient behaviour (Female)
- 4) Follower proficient behaviour (Male)

Scenarios were repeated 7 times during the experiment

Post-condition negative and positive affect

How do you feel at this particular moment?

Items: Tense, Uneasy, Worried Contented, Relaxed, Calm, Depressed, Gloomy, Miserable, Cheerful, Enthusiastic, Optimistic

Response range: Not at all or very slightly, Not at all or very slightly, A little, Moderately, Quite a bit, Extremely

Leaders ILTs actual

Indicate the degree to which you see the image of yourself as a leader representing each of the below given attributes. Please answer all the questions.

<< See items in Appendix 4a>>

Please carefully read the instructions for the next set of questions, they are different to the questions you just answered.

Leaders ideal ILTs

Indicate the degree to which you see the image of an ideal leader representing each of the below given attributes. Please answer all questions.

<< See items in Appendix 4a>>

Leader identity threat

1. How important would it be for you to maintain the originality of your ideas?

Response range: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely Undecided, Somewhat likely

2. How likely is it that your superiors will question your ability to devise an effective plan?

3. Response range: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely Undecided, Somewhat likely How important would it be for you to maintain the originality of your ideas? Response range: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely Undecided, Somewhat likely

4. How likely is it that you will lose status in the organization by using ideas from Pat?

Response range: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely Undecided, Somewhat likely

5. How likely would you be to use the ideas that Pat used in his/her plan, in your plan?

Response range: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely, Undecided, Somewhat likely

6. If you were the company director, to what extent would you be threatened by Pat's behaviour?

Response range: Not at all (1) to highly threatened (5)

Performance evaluation

Overall, how would you rate Pat's performance over the past year?*

Response range: 1- Excellent 7- Average

Item * reverse scored

1. In your opinion, how likely is it that Pat will advance in the company?
2. Give your assessment of Pat's likelihood of success.

Response range: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Somewhat unlikely, Undecided, Somewhat likely, Likely, Very likely

Promotion potential

Would you recommend Pat for the following:

Items: Salary Increase, Promotion, High profile project, Bonus pay

Response range: Definitely not recommend, Not recommend, Probably not recommend, Neutral, Probably recommend, Definitely recommend

Competence

Rate Pat on the following :

Items: Competent, Productive, Effective, Decisive

Response range: Very little, Little, slightly less, About right, Slightly More, Much, Very Much

Interpersonal incivility

Nasty, Selfish, Manipulative

Response range: Very little, Little, slightly less, About right, Slightly More, Much, Very Much

Proactive behaviour manipulation check

To what extent do you think Pat:

1. Suggested ways to make his/her work unit more effective
2. Developed new and improved methods to help his/her work unit perform better
3. Improved the way his/her work unit does things

Response range: Not at all, Just a little, A moderate amount, Quite a lot, Very much

Proactive behaviour description

To what extent do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the statement: Initiates change, is self-starting and future-directed.

Response range: Not at all aligned, Not aligned, Slightly aligned, Aligned, Perfectly aligned

Proficient behaviour manipulation check

1. To what extent do you think Pat: Coordinated his/her work with co-workers
2. Communicated effectively with his/her co-workers
3. Provided help to his/her co-workers when asked or needed

Response range: Not at all, Just a little, A moderate amount, Quite a lot, Very much

Proficient behaviour description

To what extent do you think Pat's behaviour is aligned with the statement: Fulfils the prescribed or predictable requirements of the role.

Response range: Not at all aligned, Not aligned, Slightly aligned, Aligned, Perfectly aligned

Debrief

I want to thank all of you for successfully participating in this research study on work place interactions. We appreciate your effort and the time you have given to this study. This study deals with leader and subordinate interactions. It aims to gain an understanding as to how subordinate behaviours influence leader perception and shapes their behaviours. We are investigating the changes that occur in the leaders' thoughts and behaviours due to subordinate behaviours. This study focuses on your thinking processes and its influence on your behaviour towards your subordinates. You shall be receiving a report on your reactions as a leader. This is a confidential and your will not be shared with any but you. As you are aware that your colleagues will be participating in over the next two (few) days, I request you to not tell anyone about this session.

Appendix 5: Frequencies regarding participant distribution over the eight conditions in Study 2

| Conditions | N |
|--|-----|
| Female Follower, proactive behaviour , leader identity salient | 31 |
| Male Follower, proactive behaviour, leader identity salient | 27 |
| Female follower, proficient behaviour, leader identity salient | 34 |
| Male follower, proficient behaviour, leader identity salient | 32 |
| Female Follower, proactive behaviour, leader identity not salient | 32 |
| Male Follower, proactive behaviour not activated, leader identity not salient | 34 |
| Female follower, proficient behaviour not activated, leader identity not salient | 29 |
| Male follower, proficient behaviour not activated, leader identity not salient | 32 |
| Total | 251 |

Appendix 6: Paired samples t-test for ILT variables in Study 3

| Pairs | Paired Differences | | | p |
|---|--------------------|------|-------|-----|
| | M | SD | t | |
| Self P1 Intelligence - Self P2 Intelligence | -0.04 | 0.84 | -0.49 | .62 |
| Ideal P1 Intelligence – Ideal P Intelligence | -0.18 | 0.87 | -2.30 | .02 |
| Self P1 Dynamism - Self P2 Dynamism | -0.09 | 0.84 | -1.16 | .25 |
| Ideal P1 Dynamism – Ideal P2 Dynamism | -0.16 | 0.78 | -2.20 | .03 |
| Self P1 Tyranny - Self P2 Tyranny | -0.06 | 1.05 | -0.63 | .53 |
| Ideal P1 Tyranny – Ideal P 2 Tyranny | 0.08 | 1.25 | 0.68 | .50 |
| df 116 | | | | |

Appendix 7: Table Affiliation and power motive as the moderators of threat and follower behaviours for Study 3

| Affiliation Motive | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------|-------|--------|-----|----------------|
| | b | SE | T | p | CI |
| Performance | -0.160 | 0.116 | -1.377 | .17 | [-.392,.0718] |
| Promotion | -0.011 | 0.167 | -0.63 | .95 | [-.343, .322] |
| Competence | 0.91 | -0.13 | -1.81 | .36 | [-.103, .273] |
| Interpersonal incivility | 0.16 | 0.16 | .99 | .33 | [-.161,.480] |

| Power motive | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------|------|-------|-----|---------------|
| | b | SE | T | p | CI |
| Performance | -0.167 | 0.12 | -1.41 | .16 | [-.403, .069] |
| Promotion | -0.07 | 0.14 | -0.50 | .62 | [-.353, .212] |
| Competence | -0.105 | 0.09 | 1.11 | .27 | [-.085, .296] |
| Interpersonal incivility | 0.078 | 0.19 | 0.41 | .68 | [-.303, .459] |