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Leadership involves the dyadic relationship between a leader and his or her followers. As such, the thoughts and attitudes of followers are an integral part of this relationship. Romance of leadership (ROL) is the degree to which followers believe that leadership "is the premiere force in the scheme of organizational events or occurrences" (Felfe, 2005; Meindl & Ehrilich, 1987). The current research examined ROL by looking at 1) the dimensionality and construct validity of ROL, 2) the difference between explicit and implicit measurement of ROL, and 3) the relationship between ROL and evaluations of leader effectiveness in a changing environment. ROL was found to be best conceptualized as a three-dimensional construct with the various dimensions having differing relationships with constructs of interest. While implicit ROL was not significantly related to explicit ROL, implicit ROL did not demonstrate incremental validity over explicit ROL. Finally, ROL was minimally related to changes in employee thoughts and attitudes in two instances of environmental change. However, when participants read about a leader's intention to retire in a scenario, *interchangeability of the leader* moderated the relationship between organizational performance and employees' projections of future leader effectiveness. Implications and future research directions are discussed.

The Romance of Leadership: Construct Clarification and Its Relationship with Reactions to Organizational Change

How leaders behave and how these behaviors influence followers have received extensive attention in both popular press and academia (Beyer, 1999), suggesting that leadership is extremely important. Recent literature focuses on romance of leadership (ROL), which questions the inordinate importance that individuals place on leaders. ROL posits that individuals tend to perceive leaders in a heroic, larger-than-life, and near-mystical manner (Bligh & Schyns, 2007; Meindl & Ehrilich, 1987; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2006). This results in leaders being thought of as a preeminent cause of organizational success and failure (Meindl et al., 1985; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Although leaders may play a role in organizational performance, there is a myriad of additional factors that influence organizational success, such as the economic climate, technological changes, societal changes, and the performance of other organizational members (Tourigny, Dougan, Washbush, & Clements, 2003). ROL may lead individuals to attribute too much causal power to their leaders (Meindl et al., 1985; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). The goal of the present research is to more thoroughly examine the ROL construct, including how ROL impacts perception of leadership effectiveness when environmental changes occur.

ROL can be seen in numerous settings, including government, business, and even sports teams (Tourigny et al., 2003). For example, from December 2007 to June 2009 the United States experienced an economic recession (The National Bureau of Economic Research, 2010), partially brought on by the subprime mortgage crisis and the resulting global financial crisis; the economy continued to struggle well into 2012. Even though

presidents have little direct control of the United States economy, when asked if President Bush is to blame for the state of the current economy, 69% of Americans agreed; likewise, 53% of Americans agreed that President Obama is responsible (Saad, 2011). Similarly, the collapse of Enron has received negative publicity with the public blaming former CEO Kenneth Lay, even though the extent to which he was involved in the actions which went against SEC regulations is still unclear (Biskupic, 2002). Whereas these are examples of leaders perhaps inappropriately being held accountable for negative organizational outcomes, the same can be seen for positive organizational outcomes. Jack Welch has been highly praised for effectively leading General Electric through many successful years, even though numerous additional people were key contributors to its success (Surowiecki, 2000). Together, these examples suggest that the majority of people tend to hold leaders inappropriately accountable for organizational success or failure.

The current research had three focuses. The first focus involved improving understanding of ROL by examining its dimensionality. Examining dimensionality is necessary for both theoretical and applied advancement of the ROL construct. Whereas past research has examined the overall construct validity of ROL (e.g., Felfe, 2005; Meindl, 1990; Schyns, Felfe, & Bank, 2007), several studies have suggested that there may be three dimensions of ROL (see Schyns, Meindl, & Croon, 2007). However, research on these dimensions remains inconclusive. Therefore, Study 1 examined the dimensionality and construct validity of ROL.

Although ROL is an implicit leadership theory (Felfe, 2005), the only measures of ROL that have been examined have been explicit measures. Therefore, a second focus of the proposed research was to create an implicit association test (IAT; Greenwald,

McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) and examine differences between explicit and implicit measures of ROL. A third focus of the proposed research was examining the relationship between ROL and evaluations of leadership effectiveness in a changing environment. Examining implicit and explicit ROL in a changing environment is important because follower-leader relationships develop over a period of time during which changes occur. The relationship between explicit and implicit ROL and leadership evaluations was examined in regard to changes in organizational performance (Study 2) and changes in leadership personnel (Study 3).

A Brief History of Leadership

Historically, the leadership literature has had a leader-centric agenda; it has primarily examined the characteristics and behaviors of leaders with the underlying assumption that leader behaviors influence follower behaviors (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Meindl, 1995). Therefore, the majority of leadership research has focused on characteristics that are related to leadership emergence and/or effectiveness. Intelligence ($r = .52$), masculinity ($r = .34$), and dominance ($r = .17$) were found to be related to leadership effectiveness (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Similarly, openness to experience and extraversion were positively related to leader emergence ($r = .24$; $r = .33$) and effectiveness ($r = .33$; $r = .24$), conscientiousness was positively related to leader emergence ($r = .33$), and neuroticism was negatively related to leader effectiveness ($r = -.22$; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002).

Whereas the leadership literature has focused much attention on the characteristics of leaders, the relationship between leaders and followers has also played a significant role. Leadership theories such as Fielder's contingency theory (1967), path-

goal theory (House, 1971), and leader-member exchange (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Gerstner & Day, 1997) have focused on the relationship between the leader and the follower. Whereas these theories take the role of the follower more seriously, the follower is only examined in light of his or her relationship with the leader; followers are not the primary people of interest.

This historical emphasis on leaders is problematic. After all, "leadership is very much in the eyes of the beholder: followers, not the leaders – and not researchers – define it" (Meindl, 1995). Leaders are useless without followers; if there are no followers there can be no leaders (Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson, & Morris, 2006). A follower-centric approach to leadership focuses on followers' understanding of leadership and how other factors (e.g., the environment and individual differences) impact this understanding. For instance, attribution theory posits that people "interpret behavior in terms of its causes and these interpretations play an important role in determining reactions to the behavior" (Kelley & Michela, 1980, p. 333). Applied to followers, this theory suggests that followers look for causal explanations to make sense of their current organizational environment. One potential explanation for the organizational environment is the leader. Many factors can influence interpretations of causation, including implicit leadership theories. It is important to study these factors which can impact the formation of these attributions because, as attribution theory suggests, attributions can impact followers' behaviors.

Implicit Leadership Theories

Research on implicit leadership theories is concerned with understanding people's underlying leadership assumptions. These implicit theories of leadership are believed to

be "conceptual factors that the respondents brought with them to the measurement situation" (Eden & Leviatan, 1975, p. 738) and contain both traits and behaviors that people consider to be typical of leaders (Eden & Leviathan, 1975; Hansbrough, 2005). Implicit leadership theories are utilized to make sense of the environment for two primary reasons. First, these implicit leadership schemata allow for the rapid categorization of the environment. Second, these schemata are efficient and thus require little cognitive effort (Philips & Lord, 1986). Therefore, these schemata simplify the process of encoding and retrieving information.

Followers' implicit leadership theories are important because they can impact followers' understandings of actual leaders. Followers' conceptualizations of what leadership entails (their implicit leadership schemata) may impact the leadership behaviors they observe, how they interpret those behaviors, and how they recall these behaviors. Implicit leadership schemata may therefore have an important impact on followers' perceptions of leaders' actions, potentially introducing systematic bias into leadership ratings (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Hall & Lord, 1995; Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996; Philips & Lord, 1986). Philips and Lord (1986) found that raters tended to describe hypothetical leaders in a manner similar to how they described actual leaders, suggesting that implicit leadership schemata do impact actual ratings. Given this, it is important to further examine how implicit leadership schemata influence followers' ratings of their leaders. Particularly, it is important to examine how differences in certain aspects of leadership schemata can explain variability in leadership ratings (Felfe, 2005). The importance of one specific leadership theory, ROL, will be discussed next.

Romance of Leadership

Romance of leadership is a specific aspect of followers' implicit leadership schemata. ROL is the tendency for followers to believe that leadership "is the premiere force in the scheme of organizational events or occurrences" (Felfe, 2005; Meindl & Ehrilich, 1987). ROL is the tendency for followers to over-attribute organizational performance to leaders' behaviors. Leaders are presumed to both have control over and be able to influence the fate of organizations, regardless of extenuating circumstances (Bligh & Schyns, 2007).

In accordance with implicit leadership theories, ROL arises from the need of individuals to make sense of their world. There are numerous and complex determinants of organizational performance. It is easier to reduce these complexities, which are difficult to understand, indeterminate, and sometimes unknowable, to the simpler idea that organizational performance is due to leadership (Bligh & Schyns, 2007; Meindl, 1995; Meindl & Ehrilich, 1987; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2006). This likelihood to over-attribute organizational performance to its leaders can occur not only with positive organizational performance but also with negative organizational performance (Bligh & Schyns, 2007; Meindl et al., 1985). In either case, the notion that leadership is the cause of organizational performance is easy to understand communicate, and reduces follower uncertainty as it provides security and comfort (Meindl, 2004; Meindle & Ehrilich, 1987; Shamir, 1992).

Support for ROL was initially demonstrated by Meindl and Ehrilich (1987), who found that individuals evaluated a firm's performance more positively when its performance was explained as due to the organization's leader than when it was due to

other factors. This study demonstrated that individuals prefer to attribute organizational performance to leaders. The effect of this romantic reaction can most readily be seen in extreme cases. When presented with extreme organizational performance, individuals were even more likely to attribute organizational performance to the leader (Meindl et al., 1985). Similarly, in extreme environmental conditions, individuals were more likely to turn to their leaders as either a focus of blame or a source of salvation. Finally, individuals who were higher in the organizational hierarchy were more likely to be romanticized than individuals who were lower in the hierarchy (Gibson & Schroeder, 2003). Such attributions provide a way of coping with environmental uncertainty (Bligh, Kohles, & Meindl, 2004).

Whereas ROL refers to the tendency for people to over-attribute organizational performance to leaders, it can also be viewed as an individual difference variable as some individuals are more likely than others to attribute organizational performance to leaders (Meindl, 1990). Individuals who romanticize leadership are more likely to rate their leaders higher in transformational leadership, although the relationship between ROL and transformational leadership was low enough to suggest discriminant validity ($r = 0.25$; Schyns, Felfe, & Bank, 2007). ROL was negatively related to occupational self-efficacy, extraversion, conscientiousness, and dominance, whereas ROL was positively related to neuroticism. Tolerance for uncertainty, need for structure, and need for leadership were not significantly related to ROL (Felfe, 2005).

Study 1: Construct Validity and Dimensionality of Romance of Leadership

While previous research has examined the nomological net of overall ROL, more recent exploratory factor analyses of the romance of leadership scale (RLS) have

typically found three dimensions: 1) *influence of the leader* (leader's influence on organizational outcomes), 2) *interchangeability of the leader* (the repercussions of replacing a leader), and 3) *influence of other factors* (factors other than leadership that impact organizational performance). But the stability of all three dimensions remains questionable as other EFAs did not find these three dimensions (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Schyns, Meindl, & Croon, 2007), and EFAs but not CFAs were utilized. The exclusive use of an EFA may provide results which are sample specific and not generalizable to a different population. In addition, no research has examined similarities or differences between the three dimensions.

The goals of Study 1 were twofold. First, the study endeavored to determine if the three dimensions suggested by past research are both conceptually and statistically appropriate. If differences between the dimensions are not evident, it may not be necessary to separately examine them. One possibility is that a parsimonious single-factor conceptualization of ROL may be appropriate in future research. Assuming that conceptual and statistical differences exist among the dimensions, the next step is to extend the nomological net of the dimensions of ROL by examining the relationship of the dimensions of ROL with various constructs.

To determine if the dimensions make conceptual sense, a Q-sort procedure was used in which participants sort the questions into the appropriate dimension. High agreement among the raters suggests conceptual clarity, whereas low agreement suggests conceptual ambiguity, which may indicate that the RLS is unidimensional. The dimensions of the RLS were then statistically examined using a CFA. Three models were examined (see Figures 1.1 – 1.3). First, a model examined ROL as a unidimensional

construct, as some previous research has either considered ROL to be unidimensional (e.g., Al-Dmour & Awamleh, 2002) or has found dimensions but has still treated ROL as a unidimensional construct (e.g., Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Schyns et al., 2004). In other words, even though three dimensions of ROL were found in an EFA, the researchers did not examine each separate dimensions' relationships with the criteria of interest. To examine this one-dimensional model, all the items were loaded onto the latent factor of ROL. Second, a model examined a three-factor model of ROL, as suggested by Schyns et al. (2007). This would indicate that ROL is best thought of as three separate factors as indicated by past EFAs (e.g., Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Schyns et al., 2007). Third and finally, a 2nd order model where the three factors load onto a 2nd order latent factor of ROL was examined. Examining a 2nd order model is beneficial because it preserves the conceptual clarity and parsimony of a multidimensional construct when high multicollinearity exists among the dimensions. The mixed results of past research on the dimensionality of ROL make hypothesizing about the factor structure difficult. Therefore, Research Question 1 and Research Question 2 were as follows:

Research Question 1.1: Are raters able to sort the questions of the RLS into the appropriate dimensions?

Research Question 1.2: What is the statistical dimensionality of the RLS?

Figure 1.1. ***Unidimensional Model***

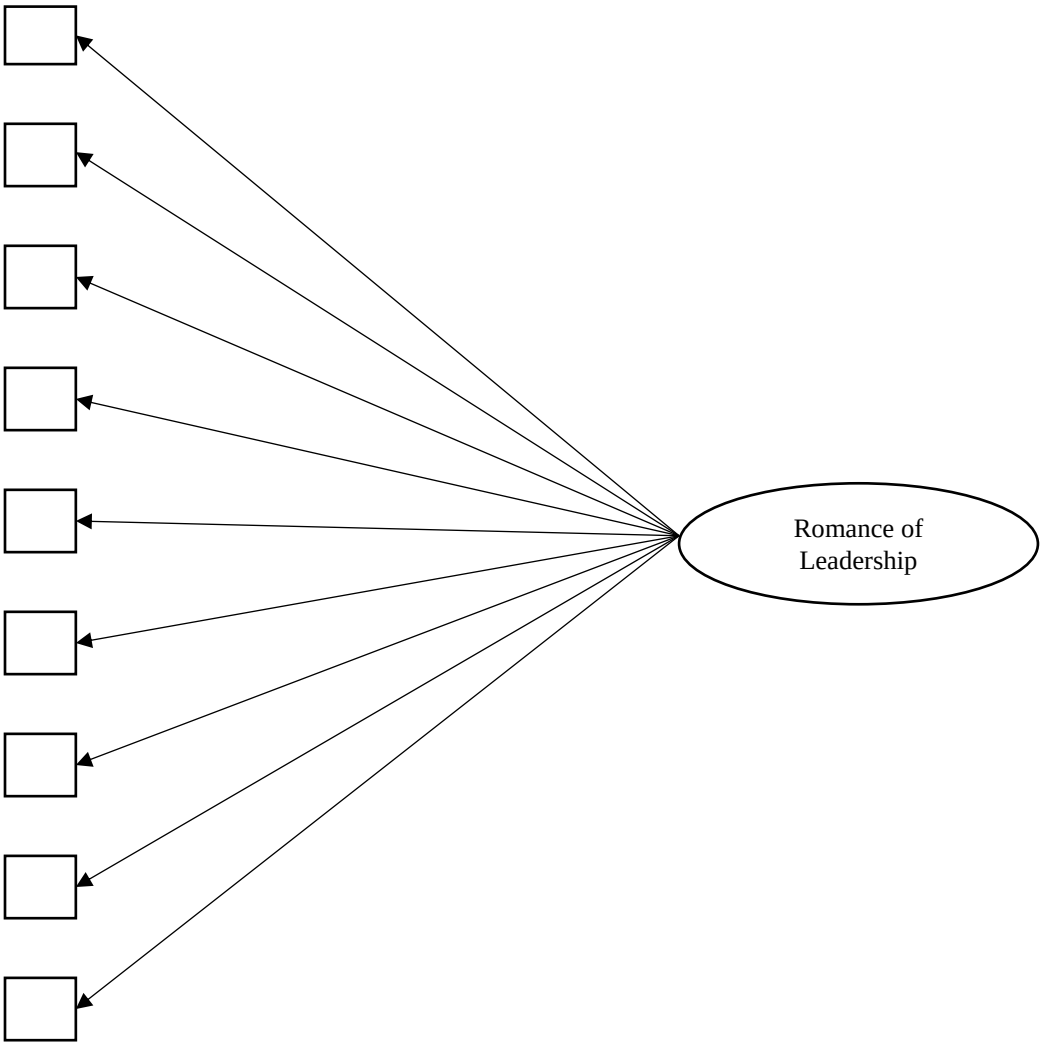


Figure 1.2. ***Three Factor Model***

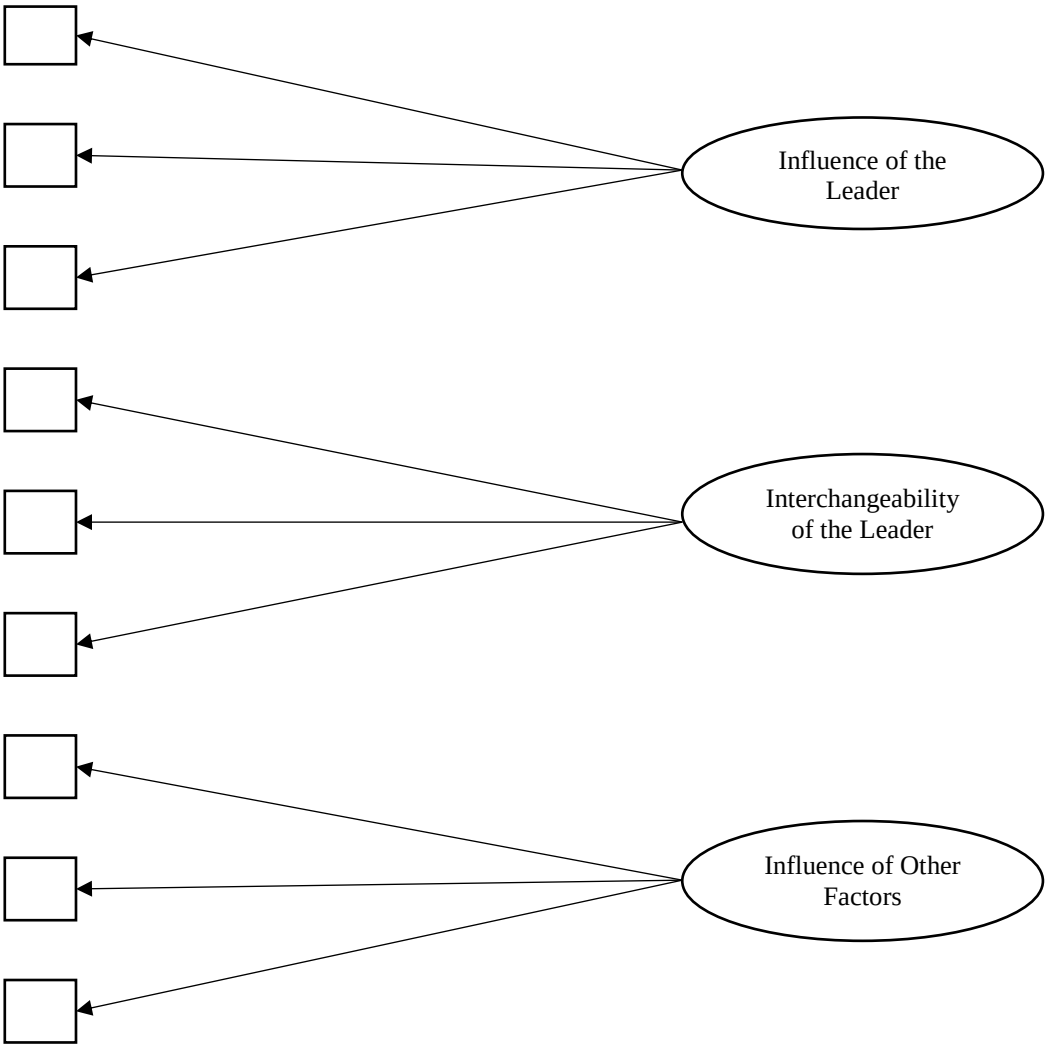
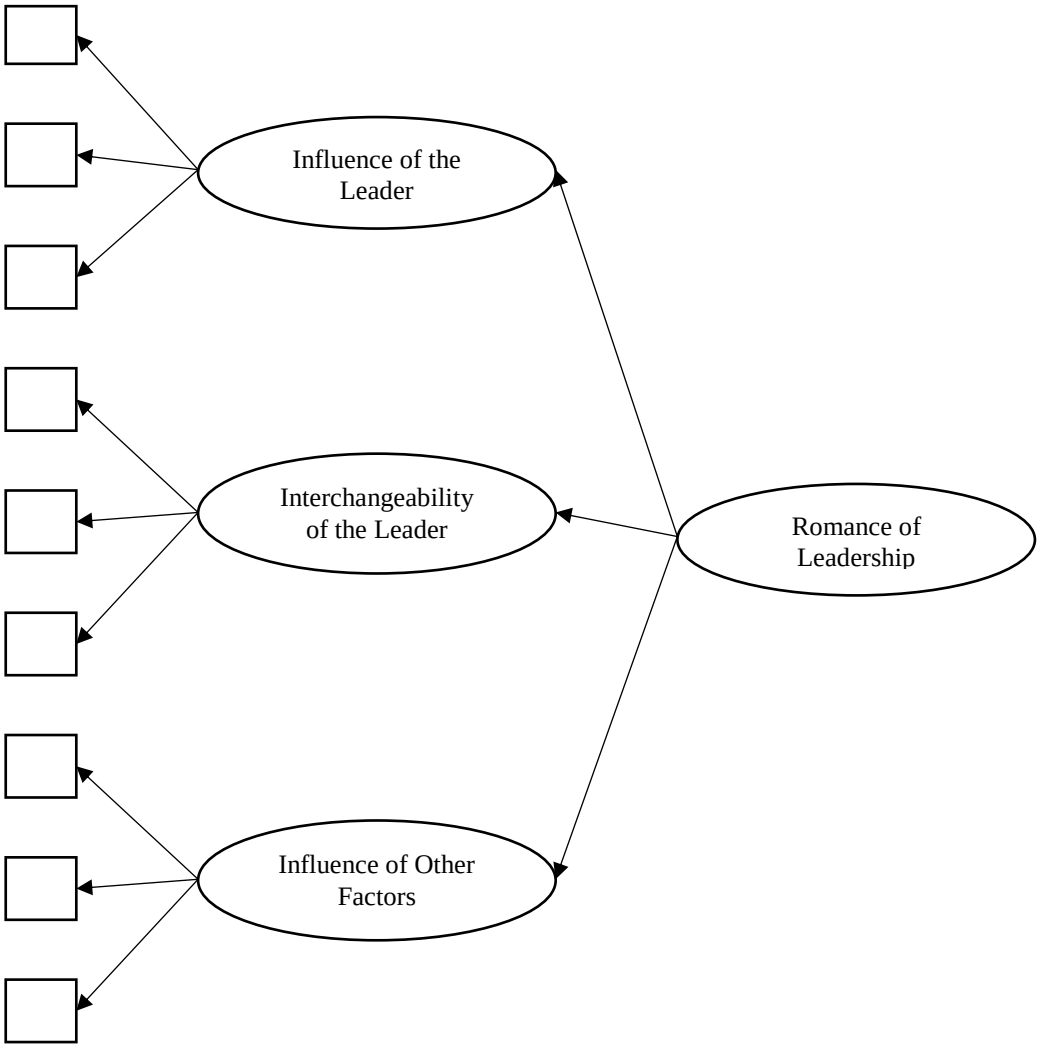


Figure 1.3. ***2nd Order Model***



Assuming that conceptual and statistical differences were found in the RLS dimensions, the next step would be to establish a nomological net of the dimensions. This would provide a better understanding of the similarities and differences among the dimensions. Theoretically, *influence of the leader* is negatively related to *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* because someone who is high in ROL is more likely to think leaders are influential and less likely to think they are interchangeable or that other factors influence organizational performance. Therefore, similarities among the dimensions exist if *influence of the leader* would be positively related to the construct of interest and both *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* would be negatively related to the construct of interest. Conversely, similarity among the dimensions would exist if *influence of the leader* was negatively related to the construct of interest and both *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were positively related to the construct of interest.

Although there are numerous factors that may relate to the dimensions of ROL, the current study focused on constructs that have been found to relate to ROL in past research (transformational leadership and self-efficacy) or are conceptually related to ROL (need for cognition, power distance orientation, and locus of control). This allowed not only the integration of the findings with past research but also expanded understanding of ROL's nomological net.

Past research has found that ROL was positively related to ratings of transformational leadership (Schyns, Felfe, & Blank, 2007), which is made up of four primary behaviors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Idealized influence refers to

providing followers a vision for the future which is aligned with longitudinal organizational success. Inspirational motivation entails inspiring employees to achieve more than they initially thought possible, even in the midst of setbacks. Intellectual stimulation involves encouraging the follower to think independently and innovatively. Finally, leaders high in individualized consideration are cognizant of followers' well-being and actively develop their followers.

In contrast, ROL was negatively related to occupational self-efficacy (Felfe, 2005). Self-efficacy refers to the belief that one has the ability to influence one's environment resulting in certain outcomes (Banudra, 1977). Occupational self-efficacy is more domain specific, referring specifically to the work domain, whereas general self-efficacy is not domain specific and refers to the general belief that one is able to successfully influence the overall environment (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). These two constructs are highly correlated ($r = 0.57$; Schyns & von Collani, 2002). As ROL measures the extent to which followers romanticize leadership in general and not specific leaders, in this study it was decided to utilize general self-efficacy in order to match levels of specificity (Swann, Chang-Schneider, & McCarty, 2007). A more thorough examination of transformational leadership and general self-efficacy's relationships with the individual dimensions of ROL was warranted to see if certain dimensions of ROL would be uniquely related to these constructs.

In addition, several variables that have not been examined in past research on ROL were examined, including cognitive ability, need for cognition, power distance orientation, and locus of control. It was expected that people with high cognitive ability will be more able to take multiple factors into account in explaining organizational

performance, as opposed to merely praising or blaming the leader. Need for cognition refers to an individual's preference for complex thinking (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982; Cacioppo, Petty, & Morris, 1983). Whereas some individuals enjoy complex tasks and find the challenge invigorating, other individuals enjoy simple, easily comprehendible tasks. ROL involves reducing the complex determinants of organizational performance to the simple explanation that organizational leaders are the primary cause of organizational performance (Bligh & Schyns, 2007; Meindl, 1995; Meindl & Ehrilich, 1987, Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2006). Therefore, it is likely that ROL and need for cognition are related constructs.

Power distance, the degree to which people accept the idea that power is unequally distributed in organizations (Hofstede, 2001), has traditionally been examined at a cultural level (e.g., House, Javidan, Dorfman, Gupta, and GLOBE Associates, 2004). For example, China is typically described as having a high power distance whereas the United States is described as having a low power distance (Brockner et al., 2001). While traditionally examined at the cultural level, it can also be examined as an individual difference variable, where it is referred to as power distance orientation (Brockner et al., 2001; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). As power distance reflects individuals' values regarding authority and power in leadership, it was expected to be related to ROL.

Locus of control is the degree to which people believe that they have control over their environment (Ng, Sorensen, & Evy, 2006). Individuals can either have an internal locus of control, where they believe that they can directly influence and change their environment, or an external locus of control, where they believe that they cannot directly

influence their environment (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control and ROL are similar in that, whereas locus of control refers to the extent an individual has control over his or her environment, ROL involves the extent to which an individual believes leaders have control over the organizational environment. However, as no research has specifically examined the dimensions of ROL, their relationships with transformational leadership, occupational self-efficacy, cognitive ability, need for cognition, power distance, and locus of control remain unclear.

Research Question 1.3. What are the relationships between the dimensions of ROL and transformational leadership, general self-efficacy, cognitive ability, need for cognition, power distance orientation, and locus of control?

Study 1: Method

Q-sort task

Participants. Sixteen subject matter experts (SMEs; graduate students in Industrial-Organizational Psychology) and 23 undergraduate students completed the Q-sort procedure. Of the participants, 33 (85%) were White, 4 (10%) were Black or African American, 1 (3%) was Asian or Pacific Islander, and 1 (3%) indicted Other. The average age of the participants was 24.59 (SD = 5.89) with 5 (13%) males and 34 (87%) females. They worked an average of 25.21 (SD = 7.74) hours a week. Three undergraduates failed the manipulation check. Removing these participants from the analyses did not change the results so the subsequent analyses contain the entire sample.

Procedures. The participants read the definitions of the three hypothesized dimensions of ROL. Following this, they read each question of the RLS and indicated which dimension they believed the question best assessed. Participants were able to

indicate if they were unsure of which dimension the question measured.

Measures. Scale descriptives and correlations are found in Table 1.3.1.

Romance of leadership. As best as can be determined, the only existing measure of an individual's level of ROL is the 32-item Romance of Leadership Scale (RLS; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1998). An example item is "High-versus low quality leadership has a bigger impact on a firm than a favorable versus unfavorable business environment." A 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) was used. A list of the scale items are found in Table 1.1.1. Scale descriptives and inter-item correlations are found in Table 1.2.1.

Statistical dimensionality and nomological network

Participants. To examine the relationship between the dimensions of ROL and the related constructs, 355 undergraduate and graduate students at a Midwestern university participated. To be included in the final sample, participants had to pass both of the attention check items.[1] Fifty-one participants were removed from the sample resulting in a total sample size of 304 participants.[2] Of the participants, 215 (70.7%) were White, 49 (16.1%) were Black or African American, 16 (5.3%) were Asian or Pacific

[1] In several instances, participants would answer the questions before and after the attention check item but fail to answer the attention check item. It is likely that these participants were paying attention in that they noticed the attention check item but that they were confused with how to respond. The demographics and scale means for people who failed to answer the attention check items were similar to the responses of people who correctly answered the attention check items. Therefore, these missing responses were coded as correct in all three studies.

[2] The demographics of participants who failed the attention-check items differed from the demographics of participants who did not fail the attention-check items. Participants who failed the attention-check items had lower GPAs ($t_{59.16} = -3.55$, $p < 0.05$, $d = -0.58$), ACT scores ($t_{231} = -2.96$, $p < 0.05$, $d = -0.57$), and were more likely to be a minority ($\chi^2 = 17.11$, $p < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.91$). No differences were found with age, hours worked, gender, and year in school.

Islander, 9 (3.0%) were Hispanic or Latino, 14 (4.6%) indicted Other, and one chose not to respond. On average, the participants were 23.91 years old (SD = 6.02), 93 (26.2%) were male and 262 (73.8%) were female, and they worked 26.11 hours a week (SD = 9.03). Whereas these subjects took the majority of scales, only a subset of these participants (140 participants) took the transformational leadership scale.[3]

Procedures. Participants completed a questionnaire measuring ROL, general self-efficacy, cognitive ability, need for cognition, power distance orientation, and locus of control. The smaller subset of the sample then read a scenario in which they were asked to imagine themselves. The scenario described a technology company and included an ambiguous description of the company's CEO. After reading the scenario, the participants filled out the transformational leadership scale.

Measures. ***Transformational leadership.*** The transformational leadership rating for the leader in the scenario was assessed using the 20 transformational leadership items on the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (5X Short; Bass & Avolio, 1990). An example item is "Articulates a compelling vision of the future" (1 = not at all to 5 = frequently, if not always). The following fit indices were utilized to evaluate model fit in this and subsequent analyses: Chi square and degrees of freedom, RMSEA (Steiger, 1990), CFI (Bentler, 1990), and GFI (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996).[4] The CFA of this one-factor model exhibited adequate fit although RMSEA and GFI was lower than desired

[3] Participants who took the transformational leadership scale were similar in GPA, ACT, minority status, age, hours worked, and gender to participants who did not take the transformational leadership scale. There were, however, some differences in school year ($\chi^2 = 8.85$, $p < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.47$).

[4] The overall fit of the CFAs was determined by examining all of the fit statistics. In some instances, however, certain fit statistics would suggest good fit while others would not. In these instances, primary weight in determining the overall fit was given to the chi square and RMSEA fit statistics. Low fit indices were noted.

(χ^2_{170}= 552.62, p < 0.01, RMSEA = 0.09, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.83) and coefficient alpha was 0.98.

General self-efficacy. General self-efficacy was measured using the general self-efficacy scale created by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001). An example item from the 8-item scale is "I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The hypothesized one-factor structure did not exhibit adequate fit (χ^2_{20}= 117.61, p < 0.01, RMSEA = 0.14, CFI = 0.98, GFI = 0.90). The fit of the model improved when the error of several items were allowed to covary. However, because allowing these errors to covary did not make theoretical sense and because coefficient alpha was 0.92, these errors were not allowed to covary in subsequent analyses.

Cognitive ability. Cognitive ability was assessed as students' self-reports of their ACT/SAT score. Previous research has found ACT/SAT scores to be an indicator of cognitive ability (Koenig, Frey, & Detterman, 2008).

Need for cognition. Need for cognition was measured using an 18-item scale developed by Cacioppo, Petty, and Kao (1984) with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. An example item is "I would prefer complex to simple problems." The one-factor CFA for need for cognition did not exhibit adequate fit (χ^2_{135}= 446.79, p < 0.01, RMSEA = 0.09, CFI = 0.93, GFI = 0.84). Modification indices suggested that the error of the positively worded items should be allowed to covary, suggesting the poor fit was the result of some of the items being positively worded and some of the items being negatively worded. Coefficient alpha was acceptable (alpha = 0.87). In addition previous research has treated need for cognition as unidimensional.

Given this, no modifications were made to the scale.

***Power distance orientation*.** Individuals' power distance orientation was measured using an 8-item, 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) created by Eagly and Erez (1997). An example item is "Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it." The hypothesized one-factor model did not exhibit adequate fit (χ^2_{20}= 103.65, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.13, CFI = 0.83, GFI = 0.91) and coefficient alpha was lower than desired (alpha = 0.69). Allowing the error to covary among several of the items significantly improved model fit which resulted in an adequate fitting CFA. However, covarying the errors did not make theoretical sense and the pattern among the errors may be sample specific; therefore no modifications were made.

Locus of control. Locus of control was measured using a 23-item scale created by Rotter (1966). For each question, participants chose which statement of a pair of statements best represented their beliefs. An example item is "Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck" (external locus of control) and "People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make" (internal locus of control). Locus of control was determined by adding up how many internal locus of control items they selected; a higher score indicated a higher internal locus of control, whereas a lower score indicated a higher external locus of control. On average, people chose 13 internal locus of control statements and 10 external locus of control statements.

Demographic variables. The following information was also obtained: gender, ethnicity, age, year in school, college GPA, employment status, and the number of hours they work in a typical week.

Study 1: Analyses

Q-Sort task.

Kappa was used to determine the accuracy of question categorization on the RLS. Overall, raters had fair accuracy (Kappa = 0.38); however, undergraduate and graduate raters had different levels of accuracy. Undergraduates had lower accuracy (Kappa = 0.27) whereas graduate students had higher accuracy (Kappa = 0.53).

Upon further examination, both undergraduates and SMEs did an adequate job of correctly sorting *influence of the leader* (undergraduates = 0.46 accuracy; graduates = 0.80 accuracy) and *influence of other factor* (undergraduates = 0.46 accuracy; graduates = 0.85 accuracy; see Tables 1.1.1 – 1.1.3).[5] Participants were, however, less effective in sorting *interchangeability of the leader* (undergraduates = -0.03 accuracy; graduates = 0.02 accuracy) with an accuracy rating less than 0 indicating that there is less accuracy than would be expected if the participants randomly selected one of the dimensions of ROL. On average, the *interchangeability of the leader* items were sorted into *interchangeability of the leader* 29% of the time. They were sorted into *influence of other factors* 36% of the time, *influence of the leader* 26% of the time, and *do not know* 9% of the time. Five items were especially problematic: “Most things in an organization have very little to do with the decisions and activities of its leaders,” “Many times, it doesn't matter who is running the show at the top, the fate of an organization is not in the hands

[5] Accuracy was calculated by dividing the number of correct responses by the total number of responses in each dimension. To account for agreement occurring by chance, the total number of responses in each dimension was multiplied by the likelihood of selecting the correct dimension by chance (0.33). This was subtracted from both the number of correct responses and the total number of responses in each dimension.

of its leaders," "The connection between leadership and overall company performance is often a weak one," "So what if the organization is doing well; people who occupy the top level leadership positions rarely deserve their high salaries," and "The President of the United States can do very little to shape the course of our country." This suggests that conceptual ambiguity may exist among the dimensions of ROL especially in *interchangeability of the leader*.

Table 1.1.1 ***Romance of Leadership Scale Items***

Influence of the Leader
ROL1. When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization
ROL2. Anybody who occupies the top level leadership position in an organization has the power to make or break the organization
ROL3. The great amount of time and energy devoted to choosing a leader is justified because of the important influence that person is likely to have
ROL4. Sooner or later, bad leadership at the top will show up in decreased organizational performance
ROL5. High versus low quality leadership has a bigger impact on a firm than a favorable versus unfavorable business environment
ROL6. It is impossible for an organization to do well unless it has high-quality leadership at the top
ROL7. A company is only as good or as bad as its leaders
ROL8. With a truly excellent leader, there is almost nothing that an organization can't accomplish
ROL9. Even in a bad economy, a good leader can prevent a company from doing poorly
ROL10. Top level leaders make life and death decisions about their organizations
ROL11. It's probably a good idea to find something out about the quality of top level leaders before investing in a firm
ROL12. When a company is doing poorly, the first place one should look to is its leaders
ROL13. The process by which leaders are selected is extremely important
ROL14. When the top leaders are good, the organization does well; when the top leaders are bad, the organization does poorly
ROL15. There's nothing as critical to the "bottom line" performance of a company as the quality of its top-level leaders
ROL16. Leadership qualities are among the most highly prized personal traits I can think of
ROL17. No expense should be spared when searching for and selecting a leader

Table 1.1.1 ***Romance of Leadership Scale Items con't.***

Interchangeability of the Leader
ROL18. Most things in an organization have very little to do with the decisions and activities of its leaders
ROL19. When faced with the same situation, even different top-level leaders would end up making the same decision
ROL20. Many times, it doesn't matter who is running the show at the top, the fate of an organization is not in the hands of its leaders
ROL21. You might as well toss a coin when trying to choose a leader
ROL22. The connection between leadership and overall company performance is often a weak one
ROL23. Many times, organizational leaders are nothing more than figureheads like the King and Queen of England
ROL24. So what if the organization is doing well; people who occupy the top level leadership positions rarely deserve their high salaries
ROL25. In many cases, candidates for a given leadership position are pretty much interchangeable with one another
ROL26. The President of the United States can do very little to shape the course of our country
ROL27. One leader is as good or bad as the next
Influence of Other Factors
ROL28. The majority of business failures and poor organizational performance are due to factors that are beyond the control of even the best leaders
ROL29. Luck has a lot to do with whether or not business leaders are successful in making their firms profitable
ROL30. In comparison to external forces such as the economy, government regulations, etc., a company's leaders can have only a small impact on a firm's performance
ROL31. Leaders should not be held totally responsible for what happens to a firm's performance
ROL32. There are many factors influencing an organization's performance that simply cannot be controlled by even the best of leaders

Table 1.1.2 ***Q-Sort Frequencies and Percentages: Total Sample***

	Influence of the Leader		Interchange-ability of the Leader		Influence of Other Factors		Do Not Know	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Influence of the Leader								
ROL1	32	82%	2	5%	4	10%	1	3%
ROL2	31	79%	6	15%	2	5%	0	0%
ROL3	26	67%	8	21%	5	13%	0	0%
ROL4	32	82%	2	5%	4	10%	1	3%
ROL5	25	64%	5	13%	5	13%	4	10%
ROL6	32	82%	5	13%	1	3%	1	3%
ROL7	27	69%	4	10%	6	15%	2	5%
ROL8	36	92%	1	3%	2	5%	0	0%
ROL9	24	63%	2	5%	11	29%	1	3%
ROL10	31	82%	2	5%	3	8%	2	5%
ROL11	24	63%	5	13%	7	18%	2	5%
ROL12	31	82%	1	3%	6	16%	0	0%
ROL13	19	50%	13	34%	4	11%	2	5%
ROL14	23	61%	7	18%	6	16%	2	5%
ROL15	25	66%	3	8%	5	13%	5	13%
ROL16	23	61%	5	13%	5	13%	5	13%
ROL17	16	41%	14	36%	4	10%	5	13%
Interchangeability of the Leader								
ROL18	7	18%	3	8%	26	67%	3	8%
ROL19	10	26%	17	44%	10	26%	2	5%
ROL20	7	18%	6	15%	24	62%	2	5%
ROL21	4	10%	21	54%	9	23%	5	13%
ROL22	17	44%	4	10%	14	36%	4	10%
ROL23	16	41%	7	18%	11	28%	5	13%
ROL24	9	23%	3	8%	18	46%	9	23%
ROL25	6	15%	28	72%	3	8%	2	5%
ROL26	18	46%	2	5%	18	46%	1	3%
ROL27	6	15%	24	62%	7	18%	2	5%
Influence of Other Factors								
ROL28	4	10%	3	8%	31	79%	1	3%
ROL29	8	21%	2	5%	27	69%	2	5%
ROL30	6	15%	4	10%	28	72%	1	3%
ROL31	11	28%	4	10%	22	56%	2	5%
ROL32	5	13%	0	0%	32	82%	2	5%

Table 1.1.3. ***Q-Sort Frequencies and Percentages: Undergraduates***

	Influence of the Leader		Interchange-ability of the Leader		Influence of Other Factors		Do Not Know	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Influence of the Leader								
ROL1	16	70%	2	9%	4	17%	1	4%
ROL2	18	78%	3	13%	2	9%	0	0%
ROL3	13	57%	6	26%	4	17%	0	0%
ROL4	16	70%	2	9%	4	17%	1	4%
ROL5	11	48%	5	22%	5	22%	2	9%
ROL6	17	74%	4	17%	1	4%	1	4%
ROL7	13	57%	3	13%	6	26%	1	4%
ROL8	21	91%	0	0%	2	9%	0	0%
ROL9	9	41%	2	9%	10	45%	1	5%
ROL10	15	68%	2	9%	3	14%	2	9%
ROL11	13	59%	2	9%	6	27%	1	5%
ROL12	16	73%	1	5%	5	23%	0	0%
ROL13	13	59%	5	23%	3	14%	1	5%
ROL14	7	32%	7	32%	6	27%	2	9%
ROL15	10	45%	3	14%	4	18%	5	23%
ROL16	12	55%	4	18%	5	23%	1	5%
ROL17	11	48%	6	26%	3	13%	3	13%
Interchangeability of the Leader								
ROL18	5	22%	3	13%	12	52%	3	13%
ROL19	8	35%	9	39%	4	17%	2	9%
ROL20	6	26%	3	13%	13	57%	1	4%
ROL21	3	13%	9	39%	6	26%	5	22%
ROL22	9	39%	3	13%	7	30%	4	17%
ROL23	10	43%	4	17%	5	22%	4	17%
ROL24	5	22%	3	13%	10	43%	5	22%
ROL25	6	26%	14	61%	1	4%	2	9%
ROL26	10	43%	2	9%	10	43%	1	4%
ROL27	5	22%	12	52%	4	17%	2	9%
Influence of Other Factors								
ROL28	3	13%	3	13%	16	70%	1	4%
ROL29	7	30%	2	9%	12	52%	2	9%
ROL30	5	22%	4	17%	13	57%	1	4%
ROL31	6	26%	4	17%	12	52%	1	4%
ROL32	5	22%	0	0%	16	70%	2	9%

Table 1.1.4. ***Q-Sort Frequencies and Percentages: Graduates***

	Influence of the Leader		Interchange-ability of the Leader		Influence of Other Factors		Do Not Know	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Influence of the Leader								
ROL1	16	100%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
ROL2	13	81%	3	19%	0	0%	0	0%
ROL3	13	81%	2	13%	1	6%	0	0%
ROL4	16	100%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
ROL5	14	88%	0	0%	0	0%	2	13%
ROL6	15	94%	1	6%	0	0%	0	0%
ROL7	14	88%	1	6%	0	0%	1	6%
ROL8	15	94%	1	6%	0	0%	0	0%
ROL9	15	94%	0	0%	1	6%	0	0%
ROL10	16	100%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
ROL11	11	69%	3	19%	1	6%	1	6%
ROL12	15	94%	0	0%	1	6%	0	0%
ROL13	6	38%	8	50%	1	6%	1	6%
ROL14	16	100%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
ROL15	15	94%	0	0%	1	6%	0	0%
ROL16	11	69%	1	6%	0	0%	4	25%
ROL17	5	31%	8	50%	1	6%	2	13%
Interchangeability of the Leader								
ROL18	2	13%	0	0%	14	88%	0	0%
ROL19	2	13%	8	50%	6	38%	0	0%
ROL20	1	6%	3	19%	11	69%	1	6%
ROL21	1	6%	12	75%	3	19%	0	0%
ROL22	8	50%	1	6%	7	44%	0	0%
ROL23	6	38%	3	19%	6	38%	1	6%
ROL24	4	25%	0	0%	8	50%	4	25%
ROL25	0	0%	14	88%	2	13%	0	0%
ROL26	8	50%	0	0%	8	50%	0	0%
ROL27	1	6%	12	75%	3	19%	0	0%
Influence of Other Factors								
ROL28	1	6%	0	0%	15	94%	0	0%
ROL29	1	6%	0	0%	15	94%	0	0%
ROL30	1	6%	0	0%	15	94%	0	0%
ROL31	5	31%	0	0%	10	63%	1	6%
ROL32	0	0%	0	0%	16	100%	0	0%

Statistical dimensionality and nomological network.

To examine the dimensionality of the RLS, three separate CFA models were examined. A unidimensional model was analyzed where all the questions loaded onto a single latent construct, a three-dimensional model was analyzed where the questions loaded onto the three dimensions of ROL (in this model the dimensions were not allowed to covary), and an additional model was analyzed where the three dimensions loaded onto a 2nd order latent variable. The fit of these models was then compared (see Table 1.2.1 for inter-item correlations and Tables 1.2.2 – 1.2.5 for CFA results).

The fit for the unidimensional model was not adequate (χ^2_{464}= 1628.01, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.10, CFI = 0.81, GFI = 0.73). There were also numerous items with lower factor loadings. This suggests that it may be problematic to conceptualize ROL as unidimensional.

The three-dimensional model where the dimensions were not allowed to correlate exhibited improved fit (χ^2_{464} = 890.68, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.89, GFI = 0.83). However, the 2nd order factor model had significantly improved fit compared to the three-factor model ($\Delta\chi^2_3$ = 87.17, $p < 0.01$; χ^2_{461}= 803.51, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.05, CFI = 0.92, GFI = 0.84) indicating that the dimensions are related to each other. When the relationships between the dimensions were examined, *influence of the leader* was moderately negatively related to *interchangeability of the leader* (β = -0.22, $p < 0.01$) and *influence of other factors* (β = -0.40 $p < 0.01$), whereas *interchangeability of the leader* was highly positively related to *influence of other factors* (β = 0.70, $p < 0.01$). These results are in accordance with the theoretical relationship among the dimensions. Given the high relationship between *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other*

factors, a model was examined which combined these two dimensions into one dimension. Combining these two dimensions did not result in improved model fit compared to the 2nd order factor model ($\Delta\chi^2_1$= -45.46, $p < 0.05$; χ^2_{463}= 848.97, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.91, GFI = 0.84).

In addition to the CFAs, an EFA was also conducted on the romance of leadership scale. Parallel analysis indicated that there should be two factors. However, as theory and previous research suggested three factors, both a three factor EFA and a two factor EFA were conducted (see Tables 1.2.6 – 1.2.10). Principle axis factoring with Direct Oblimin rotation were utilized to better examine the latent factor structure of the items. For the three factor solution, the majority of the items loaded as hypothesized onto *influence of the leader*, *interchangeability of the leader*, and *influence of other factors.* However, there were several items that did not load onto the hypothesized factor (see Tables 1.2.8 and 1.2.9). For the two factor solution, the items loaded onto factors relating to positively worded items (*influence of the leader*) and negatively worded items (*interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors*).

The items with low conceptual clarity (from the Q-sort task), low beta weights (from the CFAs), and low factor loadings (from the EFAs) were compared to determine if certain items in the scale were problematic. No strong pattern emerged which would suggest removing an item or items from the scale in future analyses. Therefore, all items were kept in subsequent analyses.

Because the previous analyses have indicated that conceptual and statistical differences are found in the RLS dimensions, the next step was to determine if these dimensions had different relationships with transformational leadership, general self-

efficacy, cognitive ability, need for cognition, power distance orientation, and locus of control. Two separate SEM models were examined. (Note: it was necessary to analyze the results in two separate models because there were two separate samples). The first model examined the relationship of the three ROL dimensions with transformational leadership. The second model examined the relationship of the three dimensions of ROL with general self-efficacy, cognitive ability, need for cognition, power distance orientation, and locus of control (see Table 1.3). *Influence of the leader* was positively related to ratings of transformational leadership ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$), self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$), and locus of control ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$). *Interchangeability of the leader* was positively related to self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < 0.01$) and power distance orientation ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$) but was negatively related to transformational leadership ($\beta = -0.18$, $p < 0.01$), cognitive ability ($\beta = -0.13$, $p < 0.01$), need for cognition ($\beta = -0.35$, $p < 0.01$), and locus of control ($\beta = -0.22$, $p < 0.01$). *Influence of other factors* was positively related to power distance orientation ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$) and negatively related to transformational leadership ($\beta = -0.18$, $p < 0.01$), need for cognition ($\beta = -0.23$, $p < 0.01$), and locus of control ($\beta = -0.25$, $p < 0.01$). Together, these results indicate that the dimensions of the RLS do have different relationships with various constructs of interests.

Table 1.2.1. ***RLS Item Descriptives and Inter-Item Correlations***

	Mean	*SD*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
ROL1	3.30	0.99										
ROL2	3.70	0.80	.25**									
ROL3	3.99	0.72	.21**	.25**								
ROL4	4.09	0.69	.05	.18**	.29**							
ROL5	3.34	0.86	.26**	.15**	.18**	.09						
ROL6	3.42	1.00	.28**	.21**	.19**	.27**	.28**					
ROL7	3.42	0.95	.28**	.30**	.22**	.19**	.11	.26**				
ROL8	3.58	0.97	.27**	.24**	.29**	.21**	.22**	.21**	.33**			
ROL9	3.52	0.90	.22**	.14*	.10	.06	.02	.13*	.19**	.15**		
ROL10	3.56	0.82	.11	.18**	.24**	.22**	.16**	.18**	.12*	.12*	.15**	
ROL11	4.14	0.59	.07	.05	.32**	.28**	.02	.03	.12*	.09	.16**	.19**
ROL12	3.63	0.79	.19**	.21**	.26**	.21**	.10	.12*	.23**	.16**	.26**	.21**
ROL13	4.15	0.63	.07	.11	.36**	.26**	.06	.13*	.09	.11	.21**	.25**
ROL14	3.49	0.91	.20**	.24**	.19**	.09	.20**	.26**	.29**	.29**	.23**	.18**
ROL15	3.40	0.87	.21**	.18**	.22**	.16**	.22**	.16**	.29**	.20**	.18**	.24**
ROL16	3.63	0.89	.25**	.07	.16**	.06	.11	.08	.15**	.19**	.24**	.13*
ROL17	3.02	1.11	.11*	.10	.08	.09	.03	.01	.13*	.18**	.08	.11*
ROL18	2.28	0.88	-.01	-.05	-.24**	-.30**	-.05	-.10	-.02	-.10	-.03	-.03
ROL19	2.63	0.92	.12*	-.06	-.11*	-.08	.05	-.05	-.03	.01	.07	.08
ROL20	2.48	0.96	-.09	-.15*	-.13*	-.22**	-.15*	-.16*	-.13*	-.12*	-.02	-.03
ROL21	1.72	0.80	.02	.02	-.35**	-.27**	-.03	-.11	-.14*	-.08	-.05	-.10
ROL22	2.22	0.76	.04	-.16**	-.17**	-.16**	-.10	-.15**	-.06	-.05	-.02	-.09
ROL23	2.50	1.01	.09	-.03	-.06	-.07	-.08	-.11	.02	-.01	.08	.03
ROL24	2.73	0.92	-.02	.05	-.15*	-.10	-.11	-.08	-.04	-.06	-.04	.00
ROL25	2.60	0.98	.13*	.03	-.22**	-.27**	-.02	-.03	.03	-.06	.11	-.04
ROL26	2.37	1.03	-.08	-.01	-.14*	-.12*	-.03	-.12*	-.13*	-.04	.00	-.01
ROL27	2.08	0.92	.07	.06	-.19**	-.24**	.02	-.06	.03	-.08	.07	-.04
ROL28	2.86	0.92	-.06	-.14*	-.16**	-.15**	.02	-.09	-.12*	-.05	-.10	-.12*
ROL29	2.31	0.98	-.05	-.08	-.21**	-.16**	-.09	-.07	-.10	-.19**	-.05	.02
ROL30	2.48	0.96	-.05	-.08	-.17**	-.23**	-.01	-.10	-.09	-.11	-.08	-.07
ROL31	3.13	1.00	-.16**	-.11	-.12*	-.07	-.08	-.12*	-.06	-.15**	-.15**	-.13*
ROL32	3.52	0.93	-.20**	-.01	-.07	-.06	-.16**	-.18**	-.12*	-.17**	-.08	-.07

Table 1.2.1. ***RLS Item Descriptives and Inter-Item Correlations con't.***

	11	*12*	*13*	*14*	*15*	*16*	*17*	*18*	*19*	*20*	*21*	22
ROL1												
ROL2												
ROL3												
ROL4												
ROL5												
ROL6												
ROL7												
ROL8												
ROL9												
ROL10												
ROL11												
ROL12	.23**											
ROL13	.31**	.17**										
ROL14	.07	.18**	.12*									
ROL15	.22**	.30**	.16**	.27**								
ROL16	.05	.13*	.23**	.14*	.22**							
ROL17	.03	.10	.07	.12*	.03	.01						
ROL18	-.24**	-.08	-.23**	.01	-.04	.01	.11*					
ROL19	-.14*	-.02	.03	.04	-.03	.06	.15*	.24**				
ROL20	-.13*	-.17**	-.07	-.12*	-.11*	.02	.07	.39**	.24**			
ROL21	-.23**	-.07	-.37**	-.07	-.16**	-.06	.01	.33**	.19**	.27**		
ROL22	-.11	-.03	-.11	-.11	-.07	-.01	.02	.37**	.21**	.36**	.36**	
ROL23	-.09	.01	.01	.04	-.05	-.01	.08	.30**	.18**	.35**	.23**	.35**
ROL24	-.14*	-.10	-.08	-.06	-.02	-.09	.07	.36**	.18**	.27**	.31**	.29**
ROL25	-.12*	.02	-.05	.09	.01	.06	.02	.35**	.24**	.30**	.39**	.27**
ROL26	-.01	.00	-.10	-.03	-.02	-.05	.09	.25**	.15*	.32**	.21**	.21**
ROL27	-.11	.01	-.14*	.01	-.02	.03	.04	.35**	.27**	.31**	.31**	.29**
ROL28	-.13*	-.18**	-.02	-.12*	.02	.12*	-.02	.21**	.14*	.19**	.17**	.13*
ROL29	-.10	-.12*	-.20**	-.12*	.01	-.04	.04	.34**	.15**	.22**	.22**	.31**
ROL30	-.26**	-.08	-.10	-.03	-.09	.09	.11	.38**	.27**	.32**	.19**	.32**
ROL31	-.12*	-.29**	-.02	-.07	-.11	.02	.03	.15*	.04	.17**	.07	.16**
ROL32	-.03	-.09	.11	-.22**	-.12*	.05	-.02	.13*	.03	.27**	.03	.13*

Table 1.2.1. ***RLS Item Descriptives and Inter-Item Correlations con't.***

	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
ROL1									
ROL2									
ROL3									
ROL4									
ROL5									
ROL6									
ROL7									
ROL8									
ROL9									
ROL10									
ROL11									
ROL12									
ROL13									
ROL14									
ROL15									
ROL16									
ROL17									
ROL18									
ROL19									
ROL20									
ROL21									
ROL22									
ROL23									
ROL24	.30**								
ROL25	.32**	.23**							
ROL26	.07	.20**	.21**						
ROL27	.22**	.17**	.35**	.20**					
ROL28	.15**	.05	.29**	.17**	.17**				
ROL29	.20**	.18**	.21**	.23**	.25**	.25**			
ROL30	.17**	.19**	.31**	.27**	.35**	.33**	.28**		
ROL31	.04	.14*	.03	.08	.06	.28**	.25**	.23**	
ROL32	.16**	.14*	.18**	.14*	.15**	.37**	.14*	.16**	.28**

Table 1.2.2. ***CFA: Unidimensional Model***

	df	χ^2	*RMSEA*	*CFI*	*GFI*	*B*
	464	1628.01**	0.10	0.81	0.73	
ROL1						0.17*
ROL2						0.23**
ROL3						0.49**
ROL4						0.46**
ROL5						0.20*
ROL6						0.31**
ROL7						0.27**
ROL8						0.30**
ROL9						0.15*
ROL10						0.22*
ROL11						0.37**
ROL12						0.29**
ROL13						0.34**
ROL14						0.23**
ROL15						0.26**
ROL16						0.10
ROL17						-0.02
ROL18						-0.61**
ROL19						-0.32**
ROL20						-0.56**
ROL21						-0.54**
ROL22						-0.53**
ROL23						-0.38**
ROL24						-0.42**
ROL25						-0.48**
ROL26						-0.37**
ROL27						-0.47**
ROL28						-0.39**
ROL29						-0.47**
ROL30						-0.53**
ROL31						-0.31**
ROL32						-0.41**

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 1.2.3. ***CFA: Three-Dimensional Model***

	df	χ^2	*RMSEA*	*CFI*	*GFI*	*B*
	464	890.68**	0.06	0.89	0.83	
Influence of the Leader						
ROL1						0.46**
ROL2						0.44**
ROL3						0.53**
ROL4						0.40**
ROL5						0.34**
ROL6						0.43**
ROL7						0.51**
ROL8						0.50**
ROL9						0.37**
ROL10						0.41**
ROL11						0.34**
ROL12						0.46**
ROL13						0.39**
ROL14						0.47**
ROL15						0.50**
ROL16						0.33**
ROL17						0.19**
Interchangeability of the Leader						
ROL18						-0.64**
ROL19						-0.39**
ROL20						-0.60**
ROL21						-0.56**
ROL22						-0.58**
ROL23						-0.50**
ROL24						-0.49**
ROL25						-0.57**
ROL26						-0.38**
ROL27						-0.53**
Influence of Other Factors						
ROL28						-0.66**
ROL29						-0.42**
ROL30						-0.49**
ROL31						-0.49**
ROL32						-0.49**

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 1.2.4. ***CFA: 2nd Order Model***

	df	χ^2	*RMSEA*	*CFI*	*GFI*	*B*
	461	803.51**	0.05	0.92	0.84	
Influence of the Leader						
ROL1						0.44**
ROL2						0.35**
ROL3						0.40**
ROL4						0.29**
ROL5						0.29**
ROL6						0.43**
ROL7						0.48**
ROL8						0.48**
ROL9						0.32**
ROL10						0.33**
ROL11						0.21**
ROL12						0.37**
ROL13						0.25**
ROL14						0.42**
ROL15						0.42**
ROL16						0.28**
ROL17						0.20*
Interchangeability of the Leader						
ROL18						0.57**
ROL19						0.36**
ROL20						0.59**
ROL21						0.43**
ROL22						0.44**
ROL23						0.49**
ROL24						0.44**
ROL25						0.56**
ROL26						0.41**
ROL27						0.49**
Influence of Other Factors						
ROL28						0.50**
ROL29						0.51**
ROL30						0.58**
ROL31						0.42**
ROL32						0.39**

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 1.2.5. ***CFA: Positive-Negatively Worded Items Model***

	df	χ^2	*RMSEA*	*CFI*	*GFI*	*B*
	463	848.97**	0.06	0.91	0.84	
Positively Worded Items						
ROL1						0.44**
ROL2						0.43**
ROL3						0.56**
ROL4						0.43**
ROL5						0.34**
ROL6						0.43**
ROL7						0.50**
ROL8						0.49**
ROL9						0.35**
ROL10						0.40**
ROL11						0.36**
ROL12						0.46**
ROL13						0.40**
ROL14						0.46**
ROL15						0.42**
ROL16						0.32**
ROL17						0.18*
Negatively Worded Items						
ROL18						-0.65**
ROL19						-0.38**
ROL20						-0.60**
ROL21						-0.52**
ROL22						-0.57**
ROL23						-0.46**
ROL24						-0.45**
ROL25						-0.55**
ROL26						-0.41**
ROL27						-0.53**
ROL28						-0.40**
ROL29						-0.48**
ROL30						-0.56**
ROL31						-0.28**
ROL32						-0.31**

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 1.2.6. ***EFA: Eigenvalues***

Factor	Total	Variance %	Cumulative %
1	5.17	16.16	16.16
2	3.21	10.02	26.18
3	1.80	5.64	31.82
4	1.56	4.89	36.71
5	1.34	4.20	40.91
6	1.24	3.87	44.77
7	1.13	3.54	48.32
8	1.09	3.40	51.72
9	1.02	3.19	54.91
10	0.95	2.98	57.89
11	0.92	2.88	60.77
12	0.89	2.78	63.55
13	0.82	2.56	66.11
14	0.82	2.55	68.67
15	0.78	2.42	71.09
16	0.76	2.38	73.47
17	0.73	2.29	75.76
18	0.68	2.13	77.88
19	0.68	2.11	80.00
20	0.65	2.04	82.04
21	0.60	1.86	83.90
22	0.59	1.83	85.73
23	0.55	1.73	87.46
24	0.55	1.71	89.17
25	0.54	1.70	90.87
26	0.53	1.65	92.52
27	0.48	1.50	94.02
28	0.46	1.43	95.45
29	0.41	1.30	96.75
30	0.40	1.24	97.98
31	0.35	1.09	99.07
32	0.30	0.93	100.00

Table 1.2.7. ***EFA: Communalities***

	Two Factor Solution		Three Factor Solution	
	Initial	Extraction	Initial	Extraction
Influence of the Leader				
ROL1	0.32	0.29	0.32	0.31
ROL2	0.30	0.21	0.30	0.22
ROL3	0.36	0.31	0.36	0.35
ROL4	0.28	0.19	0.28	0.21
ROL5	0.22	0.13	0.22	0.13
ROL6	0.28	0.17	0.28	0.18
ROL7	0.30	0.29	0.30	0.29
ROL8	0.30	0.22	0.30	0.22
ROL9	0.22	0.15	0.22	0.16
ROL10	0.19	0.11	0.19	0.13
ROL11	0.26	0.14	0.26	0.18
ROL12	0.31	0.24	0.31	0.24
ROL13	0.34	0.12	0.34	0.38
ROL14	0.29	0.22	0.29	0.24
ROL15	0.35	0.27	0.35	0.28
ROL16	0.25	0.13	0.25	0.18
ROL17	0.13	0.05	0.13	0.05
Interchangeability of the Leader				
ROL18	0.39	0.42	0.39	0.42
ROL19	0.21	0.17	0.21	0.17
ROL20	0.38	0.34	0.38	0.37
ROL21	0.43	0.32	0.43	0.42
ROL22	0.38	0.31	0.38	0.30
ROL23	0.34	0.23	0.34	0.23
ROL24	0.29	0.18	0.29	0.18
ROL25	0.38	0.35	0.38	0.35
ROL26	0.22	0.14	0.22	0.14
ROL27	0.32	0.30	0.32	0.31
Influence of Other Factors				
ROL28	0.37	0.14	0.37	0.25
ROL29	0.31	0.22	0.31	0.22
ROL30	0.38	0.33	0.38	0.34
ROL31	0.29	0.10	0.29	0.21
ROL32	0.33	0.09	0.33	0.38

Table 1.2.8. ***EFA: Factor Loading Matrix***

	Two Factor Solution		Three Factor Solution		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Influence of the Leader					
ROL1	-0.24	**0.48**	-0.24	**0.48**	-0.14
ROL2	-0.30	**0.35**	-0.30	**0.35**	-0.07
ROL3	-0.52	**0.19**	-0.53	**0.19**	**0.19**
ROL4	-0.43	**0.03**	-0.43	0.03	**0.15**
ROL5	-0.20	**0.30**	-0.20	**0.30**	-0.07
ROL6	-0.32	**0.26**	-0.32	**0.26**	-0.08
ROL7	-0.38	**0.39**	-0.37	**0.38**	-0.02
ROL8	-0.33	**0.33**	-0.33	**0.33**	-0.04
ROL9	-0.19	**0.34**	-0.19	**0.34**	0.07
ROL10	-0.20	**0.27**	-0.21	**0.27**	0.13
ROL11	-0.37	**0.06**	-0.37	0.06	**0.19**
ROL12	-0.32	**0.37**	-0.32	**0.37**	0.00
ROL13	-0.31	**0.14**	-0.33	0.15	**0.50**
ROL14	-0.26	**0.39**	-0.26	**0.39**	-0.13
ROL15	-0.36	**0.38**	-0.36	**0.38**	0.06
ROL16	-0.17	**0.31**	-0.17	**0.32**	0.23
ROL17	0.01	**0.22**	0.01	**0.22**	0.03
Interchangeability of the Leader					
ROL18	**0.56**	0.32	**0.56**	0.32	-0.07
ROL19	**0.32**	0.26	**0.31**	0.26	0.02
ROL20	**0.56**	0.17	**0.56**	0.17	0.16
ROL21	**0.51**	0.24	**0.52**	0.25	-0.30
ROL22	**0.49**	0.25	**0.49**	0.25	-0.01
ROL23	**0.35**	0.33	**0.35**	0.33	0.06
ROL24	**0.37**	0.22	**0.36**	0.22	-0.04
ROL25	**0.43**	0.40	**0.43**	0.40	-0.01
ROL26	**0.34**	0.15	**0.34**	0.15	0.07
ROL27	**0.44**	0.33	**0.44**	0.33	-0.07
Influence of Other Factors					
ROL28	**0.37**	0.09	**0.37**	0.09	0.32
ROL29	**0.46**	0.09	**0.46**	0.09	0.05
ROL30	**0.52**	0.23	**0.52**	0.23	0.10
ROL31	**0.31**	-0.08	0.32	-0.08	**0.32**
ROL32	**0.29**	-0.05	0.31	-0.06	**0.53**

Table 1.2.9. ***EFA: Pattern Matrix***

	Two Factor Solution		Three Factor Solution		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Influence of the Leader					
ROL1	0.11	**0.55**	0.13	**0.55**	-0.14
ROL2	-0.02	**0.46**	-0.01	**0.46**	-0.07
ROL3	-0.30	**0.42**	-0.32	**0.42**	0.18
ROL4	-0.33	**0.23**	-0.35	**0.23**	0.14
ROL5	0.03	**0.36**	0.04	**0.36**	-0.07
ROL6	-0.09	**0.39**	-0.08	**0.39**	-0.09
ROL7	-0.06	**0.53**	-0.05	**0.52**	-0.03
ROL8	-0.05	**0.46**	-0.05	**0.46**	-0.05
ROL9	0.07	**0.40**	0.06	**0.39**	0.07
ROL10	0.01	**0.34**	-0.01	**0.34**	0.13
ROL11	-0.26	**0.22**	-0.28	**0.22**	0.18
ROL12	-0.02	**0.49**	-0.02	**0.49**	0.00
ROL13	-0.17	**0.27**	-0.22	0.27	**0.49**
ROL14	0.03	**0.47**	0.05	**0.48**	-0.13
ROL15	-0.05	**0.51**	-0.06	**0.51**	0.06
ROL16	0.06	**0.36**	0.04	**0.36**	0.23
ROL17	0.15	**0.19**	0.14	**0.19**	0.04
Interchangeability of the Leader					
ROL18	**0.65**	0.03	**0.65**	0.02	-0.05
ROL19	**0.42**	0.09	**0.41**	0.08	0.04
ROL20	**0.55**	-0.11	**0.53**	-0.13	0.18
ROL21	**0.56**	-0.02	**0.60**	-0.01	-0.29
ROL22	**0.55**	-0.01	**0.55**	-0.01	0.00
ROL23	**0.49**	0.14	**0.48**	0.13	0.07
ROL24	**0.43**	0.03	**0.43**	0.02	-0.03
ROL25	**0.60**	0.16	**0.59**	0.15	0.01
ROL26	**0.36**	-0.03	**0.35**	-0.04	0.08
ROL27	**0.56**	0.09	**0.56**	0.08	-0.06
Influence of Other Factors					
ROL28	**0.35**	-0.09	**0.32**	-0.12	0.33
ROL29	**0.43**	-0.13	**0.42**	-0.14	0.06
ROL30	**0.56**	-0.04	**0.55**	-0.05	0.12
ROL31	**0.20**	-0.22	0.17	-0.24	**0.33**
ROL32	**0.20**	-0.18	0.15	-0.22	**0.54**

Table 1.2.10. ***EFA: Factor Correlation Matrix***

	Two Factor Solution		Three Factor Solution		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1	1.00		1.00		
Factor 2	-0.19	1.00	-0.17	1.00	
Factor 3	-	-	0.07	0.03	1.00

Table 1.3.1 ***Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations***

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. ROL (Overall)	3.55	0.35	(0.81)										
2. Influence of the Leader	3.61	0.40	0.76**	(0.77)									
3.Interchangeability of the Leader	2.36	0.54	-0.72**	-0.16**	(0.78)								
4. Influence of Other Factors	2.86	0.61	-0.67**	-0.27**	0.48**	(0.64)							
5. Implicit (ROL)	-1.09	0.71	-0.06	-0.04	0.09	-0.02	-						
6. Transformational Leadership	3.66	0.93	0.25**	0.23**	-0.15**	-0.15**	-0.14*	(0.98)					
7. General Self-Efficacy	4.14	0.48	0.27**	0.24**	-0.19**	-0.11*	-0.03	0.12*	(0.92)				
8. Cognitive Ability	24.01	3.59	0.16*	0.10	-0.18*	-0.07	-0.07	0.08	0.10	-			
9. Need for Cognition	3.48	0.46	0.28**	0.14*	-0.30**	-0.16**	-0.07	0.21**	0.42**	0.30**	(0.87)		
10. Power Distance Orientation	2.71	0.52	-0.11	0.07	0.21**	0.17**	0.00	-0.09	-0.128	-0.12	-0.27**	(0.69)	
11. Locus of Control	12.84	3.80	0.37**	0.23**	-0.31**	-0.31**	-0.03	0.12*	0.15**	0.04	0.27**	-0.02	-

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 1.3.2. ***SEM Models***

	df	χ^2	*RMSEA*	*CFI*	*GFI*	*B*
Model 1						
SEM	2187	5010.74**	0.07	0.75	0.65	
Influence of the Leader --> Self Efficacy						0.23**
Influence of the Leader --> Cognitive Ability						0.08
Influence of the Leader --> Need for Cognition						0.04
Influence of the Leader --> Power Distance Orientation						0.07
Influence of the Leader --> Locus of Control						0.23**
Interchangeability of the Leader --> Self Efficacy						0.15**
Interchangeability of the Leader --> Cognitive Ability						-0.13**
Interchangeability of the Leader --> Need for Cognition						-0.35**
Interchangeability of the Leader --> Power Distance Orientation						0.29**
Interchangeability of the Leader --> Locus of Control						-0.22**
Influence of Other Factors --> Self Efficacy						-0.01
Influence of Other Factors --> Cognitive Ability						-0.02
Influence of Other Factors --> Need for Cognition						-0.23**
Influence of Other Factors --> Power Distance Orientation						0.31**
Influence of Other Factors --> Locus of Control						-0.25**
Model 2						
SEM	1271	3008.99**	0.07	0.92	0.70	
Influence of the Leader --> Transformational Leadership						0.28**
Interchangeability of the Leader --> Transformational Leadership						-0.18**
Influence of Other factors --> Transformational Leadership						-0.18**

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Study 1: Discussion

The current study adds to the ROL literature by more thoroughly examining ROL by looking at both its conceptual dimensionality and statistical dimensionality. For the conceptual dimensionality, Graduate students more accurately sorted the questions into the appropriate dimension than undergraduate students. This suggests that people who are more familiar with the leadership literature and the relationship between leaders and organizational performance may be better at understanding different factors that impact organizational performance. In addition, while sorting accuracy was higher for *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors*, accuracy was lower for *interchangeability of the leader*. In fact, for *interchangeability of the leader*, accuracy levels were around what would have been expected if the participants randomly selected a ROL dimension. This suggests that conceptual ambiguity may exist around the *interchangeability of the leader* dimension.

Whereas previous research has predominantly treated ROL as a unidimensional construct, several EFAs have suggested that dimensions may exists (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Schyns et al., 2004, Schyns et al., 2007), the present study attempted to more thoroughly examine the statistical dimensionality of ROL by conducting several CFAs. A three-factor model of ROL suggested by Schyns et al. (2007) fit the data fairly well; however, a second-order model where the dimension loaded onto an overall ROL variable fit the data better as the dimensions were related to one another. As anticipated, *influence of the leader* was negatively related to *interchangeability of the* leader and *influence of other factors.*

The relationship between the three dimensions of ROL with transformational

leadership and locus of control indicated that treating ROL as a unidimensional construct may be appropriate (*influence of the* leader was positively related to these constructs and both *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were negatively related to these constructs). In contrast, the relationships between the dimensions of ROL with self-efficacy, cognitive ability, need for cognition, and power distance orientation differed. In some instances certain dimensions were significantly related to a construct while other dimensions were not significantly related. Or, the directions of the relationship between the dimension of ROL and the construct of interest would not follow a pattern that suggests ROL can be conceptualized as a unidimensional construct. Ultimately, while treating ROL as a unidimensional construct may be appropriate in certain situations, researchers should first examine the dimensions relationships with the constructs of interest as treating ROL as a unidimensional construct may mask important differences among *influence of the leader*, *interchangeability of the leader*, and *influence of other factors.*

Specifically, the dimensions of ROL demonstrated similar relationships with transformational leadership; *influence of the leader* was positively related to ratings of transformational leadership, *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were negatively related to transformational leadership which suggests that individuals who romanticize their leader are more likely to view leaders as transformation. This is consistent with past research which found ROL to be positively related to ratings of transformational leadership (Schyns, Felfe, & Bank, 2007).

Previous research found ROL to be negatively related to occupational self-efficacy, which is self-efficacy applied to the work domain (Felfe, 2005). If the

dimensions of ROL have similar relationships with self-efficacy, it would have been expected that *influence of the leader* would have been negatively related to occupational self-efficacy while *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* would have been positively related to occupational self-efficacy. In contrast to this, both *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were positively related to self-efficacy while *interchangeability of the leader* was not significantly related; the dimensions had differing relationships with occupation self-efficacy. This suggests that people who believe that they can control and influence their environment hold the same thoughts about leaders, regardless of who the particular leader is. That is, they believe that leaders can influence organizational performance. As the results of the current study are different than past research, future research should continue to examine this relationship and examine potential moderators.

Differences among the dimensions were also found for cognitive ability and need for cognition. Cognitive ability was negatively related to *interchangeability of the leaders* such that individuals high in cognitive ability were less likely to think that leaders were interchangeable. One explanation for this relationship is that individuals with high cognitive ability may better understand the complexity in the relationship between specific leaders and organizational performance. Need for cognition was negatively related to both *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors.* These two dimensions of ROL have questions that negate the impact of the leader; they remove leadership as a cause of organizational success or failure. Individuals who are high in need for cognition may be less inclined to negate any factor that may play a role in impacting organizational performance.

Power distance orientation was positively related to *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* which indicates differences among the dimensions. People who thought that leaders deserve more respect and obedience thought that leaders are more interchangeable and that other factors are more likely to influence organizational performance. It is likely that people with high power distance are more likely to believe that it is the power inherent in the organizational position that matters as opposed to the leaders themselves. This ultimately results in the belief that leaders are interchangeable (because the hierarchical organizational position remains the same) and other factors are more important in influencing organizational performance.

The dimensions of ROL demonstrated similar relationships with locus of control. Locus of control was positively related to *influence of the leader* and negatively related to *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors.* Individuals with a high internal locus of control believe that people have higher control over the environment and that less is subject to chance, so it follows that they would believe that leaders' actions are impactful. Individuals with a low internal locus of control believe that the environment is more subject to chance. For both *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* there is an element of chance. That is, it is not so much the leaders' actions that make the difference, rather there are chance occurrences that can impact organizational performance. Therefore, individuals who believe chance and luck plays a large role in general are also likely to believe that this plays a role in how leadership impacts organizational performance.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research

One of the strengths of the current study is that it thoroughly examines the

dimensionality of ROL which is necessary to ensure a robust understanding of the construct. Scale dimensionality was examined through both a conceptual and statistical lens to ensure that dimensional differences are meaningful. An additional strength is that the current study expands the nomological net of the dimensionality of ROL. Although this is a good first step in understanding similarities and differences among the dimensions, future research needs to be conducted to improve understanding of how these dimensions relate to various constructs.

One limitation of the current study involves the sample. Although the participants worked an average of 26.11 a week, it would be beneficial to study the structure of ROL with a more diverse sample. Future research should examine the impact of how organizational tenure and position in the organization impact ROL. The more interaction people have with leaders or the extent to which they themselves have to lead other people may impact the way in which they romanticize leadership. Therefore, it is an area ripe for future study.

Future research should also expand the nomological net of the dimensions of ROL. Whereas the present research indicates that there are differences among the dimensions, future research should further explore these differences and also the stability of the dimensions over time. This is especially true for the *influence of other factors* dimension. It is likely that certain environmental changes may cause the *influence of other factors* to become more salient, thereby altering the extent to which people believe that other factors impact organizational performance. For example, when the economy goes through a recession it is likely that people are more likely to believe that other factors impact organizational performance and that these factors are beyond the control of

the leader.

In summary, the current results suggest that ROL is best conceptualized as a three- dimensional construct and that not looking at the relationship the various dimensions have with constructs of interest may mask important relationships.

Study 2: Changing Organizational Performance

Whereas some research has examined how individual-level ROL relates to evaluations of leaders (e.g., Schyns, Felfe, & Blank, 2007), the current studies help further the ROL literature by examining differences between explicit and implicit measures of ROL and how ROL impacts perceptions of leadership in dynamic environments.

Implicit ROL

Implicit attitudes are the result of associative processes. When an individual encounters an environmental stimulus, pattern activation occurs (Smith, 1996). Pattern activation involves the activation of areas of the brain which are associated with the stimulus. Which patterns are activated is largely determined by both the external environment and preexisting schemata (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006). For example, when one hears the word coffee the associative pattern activated might include words such as sugar, cream, and scones. Likewise, an associative pattern will be activated when the leadership construct is activated.

As previously discussed, implicit leadership theories entail traits and behaviors that are considered to be typical of leadership. These impact the ratings of actual leaders (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). Dual process models suggest that judgments and behaviors are the result of automatic (implicit) and/or controlled processes. As a result, implicit and

explicit attitudes may differ from each other and may have unique predictive validity (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006; Wilson, Lindsey, & Schooler, 2000).

As implicit attitudes are largely inaccessible to conscious awareness, measurement methods that rely on self-assessment may not accurately assess implicit attitudes (Gawronski, LeBel, & Peters, 2007). So, measuring ROL using explicit measures (i.e., the RLS) may not accurately assess the construct (Felfe, 2005). It is likely that there will be a discrepancy between explicit and implicit measures of ROL because explicit measures of ROL may force individuals to consider factors other than leadership as preeminent causes of organizational success or failure. That is, when a questionnaire explicitly asks about the causes of organizational success or failure, individuals may be forced to think about non-leadership factors even though thinking about these non-leadership factors may be atypical for them. The current study attempts to address this by 1) creating an implicit measure of ROL and 2) examining the similarity between implicit and explicit measures of ROL.

ROL in a Dynamic Environment

The majority of the literature on ROL, and leadership in general, takes a cross-sectional approach where all measures are taken at one point in time. This one-time approach to measuring leadership may mask important changes that occur over periods of time because leader-follower relationships are longitudinal, changing, and exist in a dynamic environment. Cross-sectional research cannot accurately represent the continuous nature of leader-follower relationships (Chen & Meindl, 1991). Examining the dynamic nature of implicit leadership should be flexible, sensitive to contexts, and capable of operating within the real-time constraints of social interactions (Lord, Brown,

Harvey, & Hall, 2001).

Understanding both explicit and implicit ROL in a dynamic environment is especially important given the nature of the construct. People who romanticize leaders view them in a heroic and larger-than-life manner (Bligh & Schyns, 2007; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2006), but situational changes do occur. Given that little is known about how these changes affect ROL, two common situational changes will be examined in the proposed studies. Study 2 will examine followers' evaluations of their leader after varying levels of organizational performance. Study 3 will examine leadership evaluations before and after changes in leadership personnel.

ROL posits that organizational success or failure is overattributed to leaders even though organizational performance can change as the result of external and internal factors (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). The extent to which a change in organizational performance impacts evaluations of leaders is still unknown. The processes through which initial evaluations of a leader are formed, how they change, and the role of ROL will be discussed next.

At the beginning of an interaction between a follower and a leader, a follower will start with an implicit leadership schema which may include a romanticized view of leadership (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Meindl et al., 1985). In turn, these implicit schemata impact how followers attend to, interpret, and retrieve information concerning the leader (Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2000; Macrae, Bodenhausen, Milne, & Jetten, 1994; Philips & Lord, 1986). Ultimately, followers will form an image of the leader based on a combination of their implicit theories, the leaders' behaviors, and organizational

outcomes (Chen & Meindl, 1991). However, additional information can change the image (Hall & Lord, 1995). For example, a follower hearing about a very successful organization may form a positive image of the leader, but if the organization starts to experience failure, it is likely that the follower's image of the leader will change to incorporate the new information (Chen & Meindl, 1991; Hall & Lord, 1995).

Romance of leadership is expected to relate to both the initial formation and subsequent changes of leadership images. Followers who have a romantic view of leaders and observe an organization with high levels of performance will likely provide high ratings of leader effectiveness. In contrast, individuals low in ROL will provide lower ratings as they are less likely to attribute the organization's success to the leader. The current study also examines the incremental validity of an implicit measure of ROL over an explicit measure of ROL.

Hypothesis 2.1.1. When provided information about the positive performance of an organization, ROL and ratings of leadership effectiveness will be positively related.

Hypothesis 2.1.2. Implicit ROL will have incremental validity over explicit ROL in predicting ratings of leader effectiveness.

But what happens to an initially positive image when information is provided that does not support the existing schema? The perseverance effect suggests that it is difficult to change already established beliefs (Ross, Lepper, & Hubbard, 1975). Once a belief is established, new information that is mixed or inconclusive seldom changes the belief. Even if new information discounts the previously held belief, this new information often is either ignored or discounted so that the initial belief can be maintained (Lord, Ross, & Lepper, 1979; Ross et al., 1975). Bias assimilation can occur when mixed evidence about

one's initial beliefs is discovered. Individuals perceive evidence that is in line with their initial beliefs as more convincing than information that goes against their initial beliefs (Boysen & Vogel; Lord et al., 1979; Munro & Ditto, 1997). This tendency to support initial beliefs is so strong that in many cases individuals' initial beliefs are actually strengthened in the presence of this new ambiguous evidence. This is known as attitude polarization (Boysen & Vogel, 2007; Lord et al., 1979). Thus, after initially receiving positive information about organizational performance and subsequently receiving information about ambiguous organizational performance, it is expected that leadership evaluations that were initially positive will become even more positive.

Hypothesis 2.2.1. ROL will be positively related to changes in perceptions of leader effectiveness when organizational performance changes from positive to mixed.

Hypothesis 2.2.2. Implicit ROL will have incremental validity over explicit ROL in predicting changes in perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Study 2: Method

Participants

Altogether, 179 undergraduate and graduate students at a Midwestern university participated in the study; however, 30 individuals were dropped after failing to correctly answer the attention check items resulting in 140 participants.[6] Of the participants, 92 (65.7%) were White, 26 (18.6%) were Black or African American, 10 (7.1%) were Asian or Pacific Islander, 7 (5.0%) were Hispanic or Latino, and 5 (3.6%) indicted Other. The

[6] Participants who failed the attention-check items were different than participants who did not fail the attention-check items. Participants who failed the attention-check items were more likely to be minority ($\chi^2 = 8.70$, $p < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.65$). Participants who failed the attention items were not different than participants who did not fail the attention-check items were similar in the following areas: GPA, ACT, age, hours worked, gender, and year in school.

average age of the participants was 24.32 (SD = 6.65) with 39 (27.9%) males and 101 (72.1%) females. They worked an average of 25.86 (SD = 10.31) hours a week.

Procedures

Participants took a survey assessing their demographics and implicit and explicit ROL. They then read a scenario in which they were asked to imagine themselves and respond accordingly. The scenario began with a brief description of a technology company that included a biography of the company's CEO. The description of the CEO provided minimal details so that evaluations of leader effectiveness could be primarily based on followers' implicit leadership schemata. The scenario described the company as having a high level of performance which was communicated in a company profile summarizing the steadily improving past financial performance of the company, including sales, profit, and market share from the last 10 years. After reading the Time 1 scenario, the participants then rated the leader's effectiveness. The participants then read the Time 2 scenario that described how the organization's performance stopped increasing and began performing ambiguously. Following the Time 2 scenario, the participants rated the leader's effectiveness. Throughout the scenarios the only manipulation was the decreasing financial performance of the company. Attention-check items were included in the surveys.

As the scenarios were created for this study, pilot testing was conducted to ensure that participants perceived the change in organizational performance. A total of 39 undergraduate and graduate students rated the performance of the company on a 5-point scale (1 = low performance to 5 = high performance); the company was perceived as having higher performance at Time 1 (M = 4.62, SD = 0.63) and lower performance at

Time 2 (M = 3.44, SD = 0.75). A paired-samples t-test indicated that the performance was significantly lower at Time 2 (t_{38} = -8.06, $p < 0.05$, d = -1.70).

Measures

Explicit ROL. The measure of explicit ROL was the same as the one described in Study 1. As Study 1 found ROL to be best conceptualized as a three-dimensional construct, the current study examined the impact of the three dimensions separately. The three-dimensional model had adequate fit (χ^2_{461}= 719.09, p < 0.01, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.90, GFI = 0.76), although the CFI and GFI were lower than desired. Coefficient alpha was 0.78 for *influence of the leader*, 0.81 for *interchangeability of the leader*, and 0.68 for *influence of other factors*.

Implicit ROL. A new implicit ROL measure was created for this study using an implicit association test (IAT; Greenwald et al., 1998, see also Nosek, Greenwald, & Banaji, 2007). In IATs, participants are given two superordinate categories. The participants are then given a word from an evaluative category and are told to sort it into the appropriate superordinate category as quickly as possible. Response latencies are then used to measure the strength of the associations. Short response latencies indicate stronger associations, while long response latencies indicate weaker associations (Greenwald et al., 1998). In the ROL IAT, the two superordinate categories were the leadership category (represented by "leader" and "follower") and the ROL category (represented by "important" and "trivial"). The subordinate categories contained words that described the leadership category (e.g., manager, boss, helper, and associate) and the ROL category (e.g., influential, impactful, meaningless, and insignificant).

The participants first completed a number of practice blocks in which they

practiced sorting the words from the subordinate categories into the appropriate superordinate category. Participants then sorted the subordinate category words into combined superordinate categories. For example, they sorted subordinate category words (manager, supporter, influential, meaningless) into the appropriate combined superordinate category (e.g., "leader or important" and "follower or trivial"). In subsequent blocks, the combined superordinate categories were changed (e.g., "leader or trivial" and "follower or important"). In addition, the keys that they press ("i" or "e" to indicate into which superordinate category to sort the subordinate words) were also change in subsequent blocks, thereby minimizing the likelihood of response times being due to right- or left-handedness.

The time taken to sort the subordinate categories into the superordinate categories was measured. Mistakes must be corrected by participants, resulting in an increased reaction time. If an individual has a high implicit ROL, he or she will able to quickly and accurately sort the subordinate categories into the superordinate categories when the combined superordinate categories are "leader or important" and "follower or trivial," and have slower reaction times when the combined superordinate categories are "leader or trivial" and "follower or important." Scoring was performed using the D procedure (Greenwald, Nosek, & Banaji, 2003), which measures the response times and is similar to Cohen's *d*.

To determine a participant's D, reaction time outliers were first removed (less than 300 ms or more than 10,000 ms; Greenwald, Nosek, & Banaji, 2003). On average, 3% of a participant's response times were removed due to being outside the accepted range. No participant had more than 27% of their responses removed. The average

reaction time from when "leader or trivial" and "follower or important" were the categories was subtracted from when "leader or important" and "follower or trivial" were the categories. The resulting difference score was divided by the participant's standard deviation in reaction times to account for individual differences in reaction times. The split-half reliability was examined by testing the relationship between Block 1 and Block 2. The implicit ROL demonstrated lower levels of reliability ($r = 0.59$, $p < 0.01$). Overall, participants were able to more quickly respond to when "leader or important" and "follower or trivial" were the categories than when "leader or trivial" and "follower or important" were the categories, resulting in predominantly negative D scores. Implicit ROL was not significantly correlated with explicit ratings of *influence of the leader* ($r = -0.15$, $p = 0.07$) or *influence of other factors* ($r = 0.12$, $p = 0.16$) but was significantly related to *interchangeability of the leader* ($r = 0.20$, $p = 0.02$) although the relationship was small.

Leader effectiveness. Perceived leadership effectiveness was measured using the following three items: "Is effective in leading the organization," "Is successful in directing the organization," and "Does a good job managing organizational performance." (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The one-dimensional model exhibited adequate fit ($\chi^2_8 = 14.43$, $p < 0.05$, RMSEA = 0.08, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.97; note: to prevent model saturation Time 1 and Time 2 leader effectiveness were analyzed together). Alpha was 0.94 and 0.92 for Time 1 and Time 2, respectively.

Study 2: Analyses

Scale means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations can be found in Table 2.1.1. A regression analyses (see Table 2.2.1) was used to test if the dimensions of ROL

were positively related to leader effectiveness when organizational performance was high (Hypothesis 2.1.1). Leader effectiveness was not significantly predicted by *influence of the leader* ($\beta = 0.37$, $p = 0.41$), *interchangeability of the leader* ($\beta = -0.59$, $p = 0.10$), or *influence of other factors* ($\beta = -0.53$, $p = 0.12$), although *interchangeability of the leader* was approaching significance. When implicit ROL was added to the model it did not significantly predict ratings of leader effectiveness (Hypothesis 2.1.2; $\beta = 0.32$, $p = 0.30$).

Next, the relationships between the dimensions of ROL and ratings of leader effectiveness were examined after participants had read the Time 2 scenario which depicted mixed organizational performance (Hypotheses 2.2.1 and 2.2.2). Ratings of leader effectiveness were not significantly predicted by *influence of the leader* ($\beta = 0.63$, $p = 0.20$) or *influence of other factors* ($\beta = 0.13$, $p = 0.71$), but they were significantly predicted by interchangeability of the leader ($\beta = -1.20$, $p < 0.01$). Individuals who were high in *interchangeability of the leader* were less likely to think that the leader was effective. Implicit ROL did not incrementally predict ratings of leader effectiveness ($\beta = -0.19$, $p = 0.58$).

The relationship between ROL and the change in evaluations of leader effectiveness was examined by correlating the dimensions of ROL with the difference in ratings of leader effectiveness between Time 1 and Time 2. Whereas leader effectiveness significantly decreased from Time 1 to Time 2 ($t_{139} = 4.21$, $p < 0.01$, $d = 0.45$), the change in leader effectiveness was not significantly related to *influence of the leader* ($r = -0.02$, $p = 0.78$), *interchangeability of the leader* ($r = 0.04$, $p = 0.61$), or *influence of other factors* ($r = -0.07$, $p = 0.43$).

Table 2.1.1. ***Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations***

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Influence of the Leader	3.65	0.42	(0.78)					
2. Interchangeability of the Leader	2.35	0.59	-0.23**	(0.81)				
3. Influence of Other Factors	2.80	0.64	-0.36**	0.52**	(0.68)			
4. Implicit ROL	-0.95	0.58	-0.16	0.20*	0.12	-		
5. Leader Effectiveness (Time 1)	4.01	0.71	0.16	-0.27**	-0.27**	0.03	(0.94)	
6. Leader Effectiveness (Time 2)	3.68	0.77	0.18*	-0.29**	-0.15	-0.12	0.16	(0.92)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 2.2.1. ***Regression: Time 1 Leader Effectiveness***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	13.78	2.17	6.36	0.00	
	Influence of the Leader	0.37	0.45	0.83	0.41	0.09
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.59	0.36	-1.65	0.10	
	Influence of Other Factors	-0.53	0.34	-1.57	0.12	
Block 2	Implicit ROL	0.32	0.32	1.03	0.30	0.09

Table 2.2.2. ***Regression: Time 2 Leader Effectiveness***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	11.00	2.31	4.76	0.00	
	Influence of the Leader	0.63	0.48	1.30	0.20	0.12
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-1.20	0.38	-3.15	0.00	
	Influence of Other Factors	0.13	0.36	0.37	0.71	
Block 2	Implicit ROL	-0.19	0.33	-0.56	0.58	0.12

Study 2: Discussion

The current study expands the ROL literature by creating a measure of implicit ROL and examining the differences between explicit and implicit ROL in a dynamic environment. Whereas previous research has found implicit attitudes to exhibit unique predictive validity (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006; Wilson et al., 2000), the current research did not find implicit ROL to be significantly related to ratings of leader effectiveness. Implicit attitudes are outside of conscious awareness making them difficult to measure. Therefore, one possibility is that the ROL IAT did not do an effective job at measuring implicit ROL. Future research should attempt to use alternative methods for measuring implicit ROL as these may be more effective. An example of an alternative way of measuring implicit ROL is the Go/No-Go Task where participants discriminate items in the target category and attributes from distractor items (Nosek & Banaji, 2001). It is also possible that implicit ROL did not predict because of the explicit nature of the outcomes. Although the ROL IAT did not exhibit incremental validity in this research, future research should continue to examine how implicit leadership theories impact follower thoughts and attitudes.

In contrast to the hypothesis (*Hypothesis 2.1.1*), the dimensions of ROL were not significantly related to leader evaluations after reading a scenario depicting a high performing organization, although *interchangeability of the leader* was approaching significance. After subsequently reading a scenario depicting ambiguous performance, *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were not significantly related to evaluations of leader effectiveness. However, *interchangeability of the leader* was negatively related to evaluations of leader effectiveness. Together, these results suggest

that in certain conditions individuals high in *interchangeability of the* leader may be more likely to rate leaders lower in effectiveness. Finally, in contrast to the hypothesis (*Hypothesis 2.2.1*), ratings of leader effectiveness did not increase from Time 1 to Time 2. Instead, they significantly decreased. None of the dimensions of ROL significantly related to the change in leader evaluations.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research

A strength of the current research is that the relationship between changes in leadership personnel and employee attitudes was not examined in a vacuum; organizational performance was examined to provide a more complete understanding of factors that impact employee attitudes and thoughts. The use of scenarios allowed for the impact of organizational performance to be examined while also minimizing the contamination of other factors.

The use of scenarios allowed for higher internal validity, but this came at the expense of external validity. Whereas participants can attempt to project what their attitudes and thoughts would be when hearing about a change in leadership, this may not actually reflect what they would actually think or feel. To improve external validity, field studies should be conducted to isolate any differences from lab studies. For example, it is possible that the results of the current study would be stronger the field because employees might experience a stronger connection with their leader and be more impacted when organizational performance changes.

The current study adds to the literature by beginning to look at implicit leadership schemata. Whereas the ROL IAT was not significantly related to ratings of leader effectiveness, a more thorough examination of implicit attitudes toward leaders is still

warranted. One possible avenue for future research is examining the impact that priming can have on ROL. Individuals may be primed to over-attribute organizational success or failure to the leader. For example, after reading a story in the popular press about an effective leader, individuals may be more inclined to romanticize other leaders in their lives.

Whereas the current study examined ratings of leader effectiveness when organizational performance went from high to ambiguous, future research should examine the impact of alternative organizational performance trajectories. ROL may have a strong impact on ratings of leader effectiveness when organizational performance changes from low to high but not when organizational performance changes from high to low. A more thorough examination is warranted to improve understanding of the relationship between ROL and organizational performance

In summary, the dimensions of ROL were not initially predictive of ratings of leader effectiveness. After the performance of the company changed from high to ambiguous, *interchangeability of the leader* was related to decreased perceptions of leader effectiveness. In addition, the ROL IAT did not have incremental validity over the dimensions of ROL in predicting ratings of leader effectiveness.

Study 3: Changes in Leadership Personnel

Changes in leadership personnel occur in all organizations and may result in organizational instability (Grusky, 1960). Leadership change is sometimes under the control of the organization such as when leaders are promoted, reassigned, or fired. In other situations, the organization has no control over the change as leaders may voluntarily leave the organization to pursue alternative career options or simply retire.

Regardless of the cause, changes in leadership personnel do occur.

Leader succession remains a popular area of study in both popular press and academic research (Giambatista, Rowe, & Riaz, 2005). Numerous studies have examined the causes and effects of leadership succession, including topics such as organizational performance, stock value, and the organizational environment (see Giambatista et al., 2005 for a review). One area that has received little attention is how changes in leadership impact followers' attitudes (Hyde & Thomas, 2003). This lack of attention given to the impact that leadership changes can have on follower attitudes and cognitive evaluations is problematic given the influence of attitudes on behaviors such as performance and intent to turnover (e.g., Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Glasman & Albarracin, 2006).

There is a wide range of potential attitudinal and cognitive responses to changes in leadership personnel. To provide an initial understanding of the attitudes associated with leadership changes, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intent will be examined as they are related to important organizational outcomes including performance and actual turnover. Organizational commitment is defined as "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Porter et al., 1974). More recently, organizational commitment has been conceptualized as being comprised of types of commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1990). Affective commitment is an employee's emotional connection to the organization, continuance commitment is an employee's cost-benefit evaluation of the cost leaving the organization, and normative commitment is the extent to which an employee feels obligated to remain with the

organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Organizational commitment has been found to be an important attitudinal variable as it is related to decreased turnover (r = -0.46, corrected for attenuation; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Job satisfaction is also an important organizational attitude and has been found to be positively related to job performance (r = 0.30, corrected for unreliability; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001) and negatively related to intent to turnover (r = -0.54, corrected for unreliability; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Finally, intent to turnover has been found to be a predictor of actual turnover (r = 0.50; corrected for attenuation; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

One situational factor that is expected to impact followers' attitudes and thoughts concerning a change in leadership personnel is organizational performance. Followers who are members of highly, moderately, and poorly performing organizations are expected to have different reactions to changes in leadership personnel. Past research on ROL has found that there is an overall tendency for people to romanticize leadership but also that certain individuals are more likely to romanticize leadership (Meindl et al., 1985; Meindl, 1990; Schyns, Felfe, & Bank, 2007). Given the overall tendency to romanticize leadership is most prevalent in extreme cases (i.e., high or low organizational performance; Meindl et al., 1985), it is thought that high and low organizational performance will be attributed to the leader. Therefore, for high performing organizations followers will have a negative reaction to an announcement that a leader will leave her or his position while for low performing organizations followers will have a positive reaction to the announcement. Since the tendency to romanticize leadership is lower in less extreme cases, it is hypothesized that followers in an organization with ambiguous performance will have neutral reactions to changes in leadership personnel.

Hypothesis 3.1.1: For a high performing organization, the announcement of a change in leadership personnel will result in more negative employee attitudes (lower organizational commitment, lower job satisfaction, and higher turnover intent) and thoughts (lower future organizational performance and decreased effectiveness of the future leadership).

Hypothesis 3.1.2: For a low performing organization, the announcement of a change in leadership personnel will result in more positive employee attitudes (higher organizational commitment, higher job satisfaction, and lower turnover intent) and thoughts (higher future organizational performance and higher effectiveness of the future leadership).

Hypothesis 3.1.3: For an ambiguously performing organization the announcement of a change in leadership personnel will result in neutral employee attitudes (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intent) and thoughts (future organizational performance and effectiveness of the future leadership).

Whereas there is an overall tendency for individuals to romanticize leaders, ROL is also an individual difference variable (Meindl et al., 1985; Meindl, 1990; Schyns, Felfe, & Bank, 2007). As individuals high in ROL are more likely to over attribute organizational success or failure to the leader, it is expected that changes in leadership personnel will be especially salient for individuals who are high in ROL. That is, individuals who are high in ROL will have stronger reactions to changes in leadership personnel because they are more prone to attribute organizational success or failure to the leader. Given this, it is expected ROL will moderate the relationship between organizational performance and employee attitudes and thoughts.

Hypothesis 3.2: The relationship between organizational performance and employee attitudes and thoughts will be moderated by ROL. This relationship will be especially extreme for individuals who are high in ROL as compared to individuals who are low in ROL.

Study 3: Methods

Participants

Altogether, 187 undergraduate and graduate students at a Midwestern university participated in the experiment. To be included in the sample, participants had to successfully answer all three of the attention check items. In total, 28 (15.0%) participants were removed from the sample, resulting in a sample size of 159.[7] Of the participants, 120 (75.5%) were White, 22 (113.8%) were Black or African American, 6 (3.8%) were Asian or Pacific Islander, 2 (0.7%) were Hispanic or Latino, 8 (5.0%) indicted Other, and 1 (0.6%) did not respond. The average age of the participants was 23.49 (SD = 5.86), with 39 (24.5%) males and 120 (75.5%) females. They worked an average of 26.37 (SD = 9.60) hours a week.

Procedures

Participants took a survey assessing their demographics and ROL. Following this, the participants read one of three scenarios in which they were asked to imagine themselves and respond accordingly. All three scenarios included a brief biography of a technology company and the current CEO. The description of the CEO was neutral; the

[7] Participants who failed the attention-check items were different than participants who did not fail the attention-check items. Participants who failed the attention-check items had a lower GPA ($t_{33.51} = -2.09$, $p < 0.05$, $d = -0.46$), had lower ACT scores ($t_{127} = 3.03$, $p < 0.05$, $d = -0.91$), and were more likely to be minority ($\chi^2 = 5.69$, $p < 0.05$, $\phi = 0.42$). Participants who failed the attention items were not different than participants who did not fail the attention-check items on age, hours worked, gender, and year in school.

CEO was not portrayed in a positive or negative light. The performance of the organization was manipulated in each scenario so that there was one scenario in which the organization had low performance, one where the organization had ambiguous performance, and one where the organization had high performance. The company performance was conveyed through a company profile summarizing the financial performance of the company, including sales, profit, and market share from the last 10 years. The low performing firm showed a decrease in their financial performance, the financial performance of the ambiguously performing firm remained the same, and the high performing company showed an increase in their financial performance. The scenarios then described the CEO's intentions to retire. The descriptions of company performance were the same as the ones that were in Study 2 and pilot testing indicated that the performance levels of the company was successfully conveyed in the scenarios. After reading the scenario, the participant rated what they thought their organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions would be if they worked in the organization. In addition, they rated their expectations for future organizational performance and their expectations for the future effectiveness of the CEO.

Measures

See Table 3.1.1 for scale descriptives.

Explicit ROL. The measure of explicit ROL was the same as the one described in Study 1. The three-dimensional model exhibited adequate fit ($\chi^2_{461} = 714.78$, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.83, GFI = 0.78), although the CFI and GFI were lower than desired. Coefficient alpha was 0.76 for *influence of the leader*, 0.76 for *interchangeability of the leader*, and 0.58 for *influence of other factors.*

Leader effectiveness. The measure for leader effectiveness was the same as that used in the previous studies. The hypothesized one-factor structure had adequate fit (χ^2_8 = 12.89, p = 0.12, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.97; note that the CFA for leader effectiveness was analyzed with the CFA for future leader effectiveness to prevent model saturation) and coefficient alpha was 0.95.

Organizational commitment. Projected organizational commitment was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). Each dimension (affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment) was measured on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). An example item for affective commitment is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization." An example item for continuance commitment is "Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire." An example of normative commitment is "I think that people these days move from company to company too often." Affective commitment was measured using 7 items, continuance commitment was measured using 8 items, and normative commitment was measured using 7 items.

The one-factor CFA did not exhibit adequate fit for affective commitment (χ^2_{14}= 59.39, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.14, CFI = 0.88, GFI = 0.90). However, when the uniqueness for "I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organization" was allowed to covary with "I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization" the model fit became adequate (χ^2_{13}= 22.41, $p < 0.05$, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.98, GFI = 0.96). It is likely that the errors of these two questions are related because they encompass a sense of connectedness with other organizational members. Coefficient alpha was 0.76.

The one-factor CFA for continuance commitment exhibited adequate fit (χ^2_{20}= 19.80, $p > 0.05$, RMSEA = 0.00, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.97), however some of the items had low factor loadings. Likewise coefficient alpha was low for this scale (0.59). These lower than desired numbers may be the result of participants not knowing the extent to which other job opportunities may exist, which may make it difficult to rate cost of leaving the organization.

For normative commitment the one-factor CFA exhibited adequate fit, although CFI was low (χ^2_{14}= 31.66, $p < 0.01$, RMSEA = 0.09, CFI = 0.89, GFI = 0.95). Coefficient alpha was 0.71.

Job satisfaction. Projected job satisfaction was measured using three items from the job satisfaction subscale of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). An example item is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The CFA demonstrated adequate fit (χ^2_{13}= 5.90, $p = 0.95$, RMSEA < 0.01, CFI = 1.00, GFI = 0.99; note that the CFA for job satisfaction was analyzed with the CFA for turnover intention to prevent model saturation) and coefficient alpha was 0.86.

Turnover intention. The extent to which participants believed they would leave the organization in the scenario was measured with four items on a 5-point Likert scale (Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001). An example item is "I will probably look for a new job in the future" (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The CFA demonstrated adequate fit (χ^2_2= 0.01, $p = 0.95$, RMSEA < 0.01, CFI = 1.00, GFI = 1.00; to prevent model saturation the CFA for turnover intention was analyzed with job satisfaction) and coefficient alpha was 0.78.

Future organizational performance. In order to assess expected future organizational performance, the following three items were utilized: "The financial performance of this company will improve in the future," "The company's market share will continue to grow," and "The company will become an important player in the field of technology." Items were assessed on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The CFA demonstrated adequate fit (χ^2_8= 20.59, p = 0.01, RMSEA = 0.10, CFI = 0.98, GFI = 0.95; to prevent model saturation the CFA for future organizational performance was analyzed with future leader effectiveness). Coefficient alpha was 0.77. Two qualitative questions were also asked to gain a better understanding of the participants' thought processes ("What will the future performance of the organization be?" and "What factors will be most important in contributing to future organizational success or failure?").

Future leader effectiveness. Leader effectiveness was examined with three items which asked the extent to which they believe the future CEO of the company will be effective in leading the organization, will be successful in directing the organization, and will do a good job of managing organizational performance (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The CFA for future leader effectiveness demonstrated adequate fit (χ^2_8= 12.89, p = 0.12, RMSEA = 0.06, CFI = 0.99, GFI = 0.97; to prevent model saturation the CFA for future leader effectiveness was analyzed with future organizational performance). Coefficient alpha was 0.93.

Table 3.1.1. ***Scale Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations***

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Influence of the Leader	3.59	0.38	(0.76)										
2. Interchangeability of the Leader	2.37	0.50	-0.07	(0.76)									
3. Influence of Other Factors	2.92	0.58	-0.17*	0.43**	(0.58)								
4. Leader Effectiveness	3.44	1.11	0.16*	-0.03	-0.03	(0.95)							
5. Affective Commitment	3.20	0.61	0.14	-0.12	0.03	0.48**	(0.76)						
6. Continuance Commitment	3.26	0.58	0.17*	0.09	0.21*	0.16*	0.13	(0.59)					
7. Normative Commitment	3.25	0.55	0.21*	-0.07	0.10	0.24**	0.34**	0.34**	(0.71)				
8. Job Satisfaction	3.64	0.76	0.14	-0.16	0.09	0.35**	0.46**	0.12	0.25**	(0.86)			
9. Turnover Intent	2.87	0.80	-0.14	0.07	-0.11	-0.24**	-0.53**	-0.14	-0.22**	-0.55**	(0.78)		
10. Future Org. Performance	3.47	0.67	0.15	-0.07	0.05	0.27**	0.33**	0.188	0.15	0.32**	-0.33**	(0.77)	
11. Future Leader Effectiveness	3.56	0.62	0.21**	-0.04	0.03	0.35**	0.15	0.17*	0.22*	0.21**	-0.09	0.36**	(0.93)

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Study 3: Analyses

Differences in follower reactions to changes in leadership personnel due to organizational performance, the dimensions of ROL, and the interaction between organizational performance with the dimensions of ROL was tested using three-step regression (see Tables 3.2.1 – 3.2.7). Organizational performance was dummy coded: low performance was coded as -1, ambiguous performance was coded as 0, and high performance was coded as 1. The ROL dimensions were centered to reduce multicollinearity.

It was hypothesized (Hypotheses 3.1.1-3.1.3) that organizational performance would be negatively related to employee attitudes and thoughts such that employees would be more upset about a leader leaving when an organization was performing well compared to when an organizational was performing poorly. However, organizational performance was positively related to affective commitment ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$) but was not significantly related to either continuance commitment ($\beta = 0.07$, $p = 0.19$) or normative commitment ($\beta = 0.07$, $p = 0.18$). Similar to affective commitment, the relationship between organizational performance and satisfaction was positive ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$). The relationships between organizational performance and turnover intent ($\beta = -0.13$, $p = 0.09$) and thoughts about future organizational performance ($\beta = 0.12$, $p = 0.07$) was approaching significance, although the beta weights were smaller. Organization performance was significantly related to thoughts about future leader effectiveness, although not in the hypothesized direction ($\beta = 0.12$, $p = 0.04$).

Although not specifically hypothesized, the relationship of the dimensions of ROL with employee attitudes and thoughts was examined. Overall, a pattern emerged

where *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were related to positive employee thoughts and attitudes whereas *interchangeability of the leader* was related to negative employee thoughts and attitudes. *Influence of the leader* was positively related to continuance commitment ($\beta = 0.27$, $p = 0.03$), normative commitment ($\beta = 0.28$, $p = 0.02$), and future leader effectiveness ($\beta = 0.29$, $p = 0.03$). While not statistically significant, the same pattern emerged between *influence of the leader* and affective commitment ($\beta = 0.19$, $p = 0.14$), job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.26$, $p = 0.10$), turnover intent ($\beta = -0.30$, $p = 0.08$), and future organizational performance ($\beta = 0.27$, $p = 0.06$). Likewise, *influence of other factors* was related to continuance commitment ($\beta = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$), normative commitment ($\beta = 0.18$, $p = 0.03$), job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.30$, $p = 0.01$), and turnover intent ($\beta = -0.27$, $p = 0.03$). While not statistically significant, the same pattern was found between *influence of other factors* and future organizational performance ($\beta = 0.18$, $p = 0.08$). In contrast to this pattern of results, *interchangeability of the leader* was negatively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.33$, $p = 0.01$) and, while not significant, with affective commitment ($\beta = -0.17$, $p = 0.10$), normative commitment ($\beta = 0.14$, $p = 0.13$), and turnover intent ($\beta = 0.22$, $p = 0.12$).

The relationship between organizational performance and employee attitudes and thoughts was not moderated by *influence of the leader* or *influence of other factors*. However, *interchangeability of the leader* did moderate the relationship between organizational performance and future leader effectiveness ($\beta = -0.25$, $p = 0.05$) although this relationship was only marginally significant. Compared to individuals low in *interchangeability of the leader*, individuals high in *interchangeability of the leader* provided lower ratings of future leader effectiveness for a poor performing organization

and higher ratings of leader effectiveness for a high performing organization (see Figure 1).

Table 3.2.1. ***Regression: Affective Commitment***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.19	0.05	69.23	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.21	0.06	3.71	0.00	0.11
Block 2	Influence of the Leader	0.19	0.12	1.48	0.14	
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.17	0.10	-1.66	0.10	
	Influence of Other Factors	0.13	0.09	1.44	0.15	0.13
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Influence of the Leader	-0.04	0.14	-0.26	0.79	
	Organizational Performance x Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.19	0.12	-1.62	0.11	
	Organizational Performance x Influence of Other Factors	-0.03	0.11	-0.30	0.77	0.15

Table 3.2.2. ***Regression: Continuance Commitment***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.26	0.04	72.61	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.07	0.05	1.30	0.19	0.02
Block 2	Influence of the Leader	0.27	0.12	2.23	0.03	
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.01	0.10	-0.07	0.95	
	Influence of Other Factors	0.26	0.09	2.99	0.00	0.10
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Influence of the Leader	0.17	0.14	1.19	0.24	
	Organizational Performance x Interchangeability of the Leader	0.07	0.11	0.60	0.55	
	Organizational Performance x Influence of Other Factors	-0.04	0.10	-0.35	0.73	0.11

Table 3.2.3. ***Regression: Normative Commitment***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.24	0.04	75.01	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.07	0.05	1.33	0.18	0.02
Block 2	Influence of the Leader	0.28	0.12	2.36	0.02	
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.14	0.09	-1.54	0.13	
	Influence of Other Factors	0.18	0.08	2.14	0.03	0.09
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Influence of the Leader	0.16	0.14	1.21	0.23	
	Organizational Performance x Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.01	0.11	-0.13	0.90	
	Organizational Performance x Influence of Other Factors	0.07	0.10	0.68	0.50	0.10

Table 3.2.4. ***Regression: Job Satisfaction***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.64	0.06	62.97	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.24	0.07	3.49	0.00	0.09
Block 2	Influence of the Leader	0.26	0.16	1.65	0.10	
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.33	0.13	-2.62	0.01	
	Influence of Other Factors	0.30	0.11	2.65	0.01	0.15
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Influence of the Leader	-0.16	0.18	-0.86	0.39	
	Organizational Performance x Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.02	0.15	-0.14	0.89	
	Organizational Performance x Influence of Other Factors	-0.16	0.13	-1.16	0.25	0.16

Table 3.2.5. ***Regression: Turnover Intent***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	2.87	0.06	45.01	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	-0.13	0.08	-1.70	0.09	0.03
Block 2	Influence of the Leader	-0.30	0.17	-1.76	0.08	
	Interchangeability of the Leader	0.22	0.14	1.59	0.12	
	Influence of Other Factors	-0.27	0.13	-2.20	0.03	0.08
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Influence of the Leader	0.02	0.20	0.12	0.90	
	Organizational Performance x Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.05	0.16	-0.33	0.74	
	Organizational Performance x Influence of Other Factors	0.01	0.15	0.08	0.93	0.08

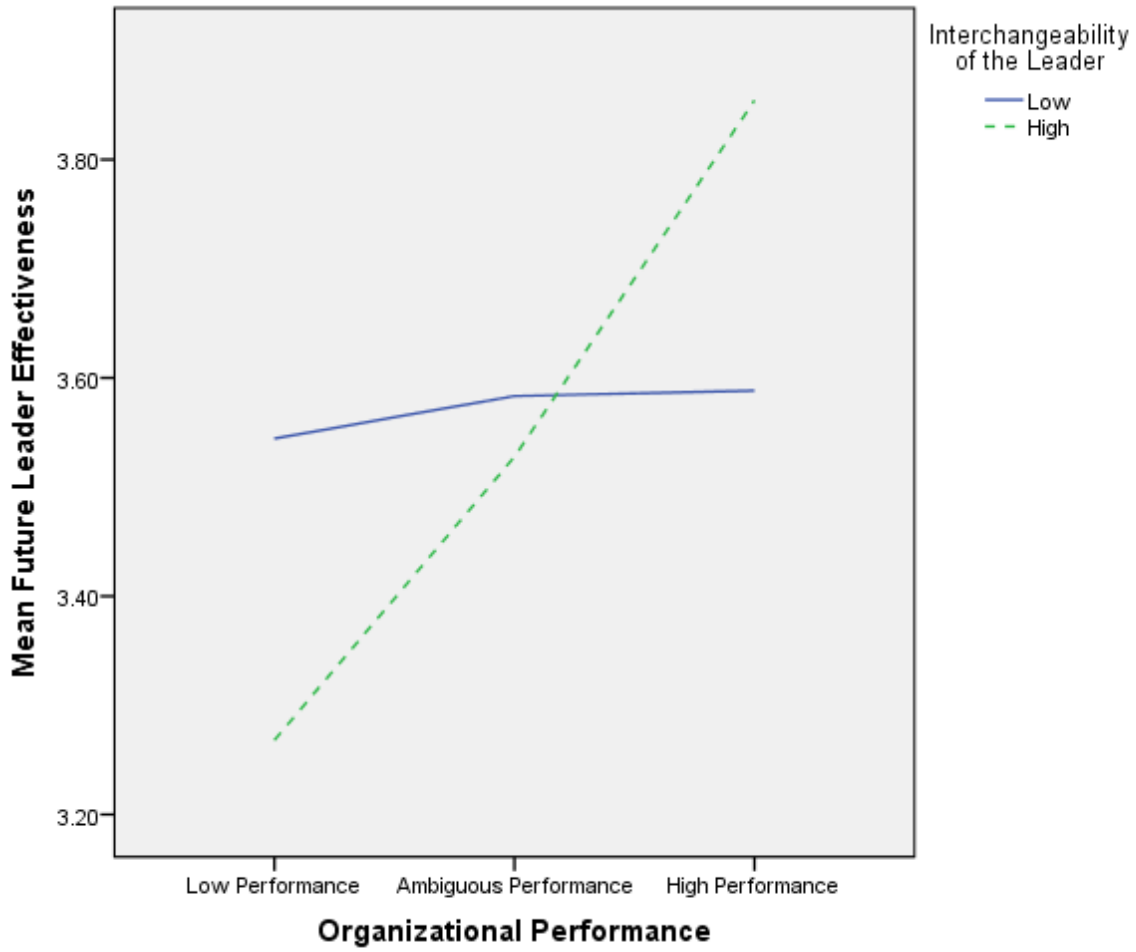
Table 3.2.6. ***Regression: Future Organizational Performance***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.48	0.05	65.90	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.11	0.06	1.81	0.07	0.03
Block 2	Influence of the Leader	0.27	0.14	1.92	0.06	
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.15	0.11	-1.27	0.21	
	Influence of Other Factors	0.18	0.10	1.75	0.08	0.06
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Influence of the Leader	-0.15	0.17	-0.88	0.38	
	Organizational Performance x Interchangeability of the Leader	0.01	0.13	0.08	0.94	
	Organizational Performance x Influence of Other Factors	-0.19	0.12	-1.51	0.13	0.08

Table 3.2.7. ***Regression: Future Leader Effectiveness***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.56	0.05	73.11	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.12	0.06	2.11	0.04	0.04
Block 2	Influence of the Leader	0.29	0.13	2.16	0.03	
	Interchangeability of the Leader	-0.06	0.11	-0.59	0.56	
	Influence of Other Factors	0.10	0.10	1.01	0.31	0.07
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Influence of the Leader	0.05	0.15	0.35	0.72	
	Organizational Performance x Interchangeability of the Leader	0.25	0.12	2.00	0.05	
	Organizational Performance x Influence of Other Factors	-0.04	0.11	-0.36	0.72	0.10

Figure 1. ***Interaction Between Interchangeability of the Leader and Leader Effectiveness***



Additional Analyses

The degree to which implicit ROL moderates the relationship between organizational performance and employee attitudes and thoughts was also examined. Implicit ROL did not significantly moderate any of the relationships (see Tables 3.3.1 – 3.3.7).

The qualitative responses to "What factors will be most important in contributing to future organizational success or failure?" were coded into one of two groups: 1) leadership is an important factor or 2) leadership is not an important factor. Participants who said leadership is an important factor and participants who did not say leadership is an important factor were similar in *influence of the leader* and implicit ROL (*influence of the leader:* $t_{137} = 0.72$, $p = 0.48$, $d = 0.10$; implicit ROL: $t_{137} = 0.29$, $p = 0.77$, $d = 0.05$). Individuals who said leadership is an important factor had higher levels of *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* than individuals who did not say leadership is an important factor (*interchangeability of the leader:* $t_{137} = -2.43$, $p = 0.02$, $d = -0.47$; *influence of other factors:* $t_{136} = -2.40$, $p = 0.02$, $d = -0.41$; see Table 3.4.1).

Table 3.3.1. ***Regression: Affective Commitment***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.19	0.05	68.29	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.24	0.06	4.26	0.00	0.11
Block 2	Implicit ROL	-0.01	0.07	-0.09	0.93	0.11
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Implicit ROL	0.04	0.10	0.42	0.68	0.11

Table 3.3.2. ***Regression: Continuance Commitment***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.26	0.05	69.17	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.09	0.06	1.50	0.14	0.02
Block 2	Implicit ROL	-0.02	0.08	-0.29	0.77	0.02
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Implicit ROL	-0.01	0.10	-0.08	0.94	0.02

Table 3.3.3. ***Regression: Normative Commitment***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.25	0.04	73.60	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.08	0.05	1.52	0.13	0.01
Block 2	Implicit ROL	0.02	0.07	0.22	0.83	0.01
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Implicit ROL	0.04	0.09	0.49	0.62	0.02

Table 3.3.4. ***Regression: Job Satisfaction***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.63	0.06	60.84	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.29	0.07	3.99	0.00	0.09
Block 2	Implicit ROL	0.00	0.10	0.04	0.97	0.09
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Implicit ROL	0.08	0.12	0.67	0.51	0.10

Table 3.3.5. ***Regression: Turnover Intent***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	2.88	0.07	44.67	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	-0.15	0.08	-1.90	0.06	0.03
Block 2	Implicit ROL	0.04	0.10	0.42	0.67	0.03
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Implicit ROL	0.01	0.13	0.11	0.92	0.03

Table 3.3.6. ***Regression: Future Organizational Performance***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.45	0.05	64.31	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.15	0.07	2.31	0.02	0.04
Block 2	Implicit ROL	0.06	0.09	0.71	0.48	0.04
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Implicit ROL	-0.06	0.11	-0.59	0.55	0.04

Table 3.3.7. ***Regression: Future Leader Effectiveness***

		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*	R^2
Block 1	Constant	3.56	0.05	71.84	0.00	
	Organizational Performance	0.14	0.06	2.55	0.01	0.04
Block 2	Implicit ROL	0.01	0.08	0.06	0.95	0.04
Block 3	Organizational Performance x Implicit ROL	0.08	0.10	0.82	0.41	0.04

Table 3.4.1. ***T-Tests: Factors that Impact Future Organizational Performance***

	Leadership Factors		*Non-Leadership Factors*				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*d*
Implicit ROL	-0.63	0.37	-0.65	0.43	0.29	0.77	0.05
Influence of the Leader	3.61	0.38	3.57	0.40	0.72	0.48	0.10
Interchangeability of the Leader	2.25	0.47	2.46	0.53	-2.43	0.02	-0.47
Influence of Other Factors	2.81	0.52	3.05	0.64	-3.40	0.02	-0.41

Study 3: Discussion

Whereas previous research has examined the impact that changes in leadership can have on organizational-level factors such as performance (Giambatista et al., 2005), the present study examined how changes in leadership impact individual-level factors. More specifically, the current research adds to the literature by examining how changes in leadership impact employee attitudes and thoughts at varying levels of organizational performance, ultimately improving understanding of the impact that changes in leadership can have. In addition, the moderating role of ROL was examined to see if people high in ROL are more strongly impacted by changes in leadership.

Organizational Performance and Employee Attitudes and Thoughts

Whereas organizational performance was a predictor of employee attitudes and thoughts, this relationship did not go in the hypothesized direction. It was hypothesized that organizational performance would be negatively related to employee attitudes such that employees in high performing organizations would be more upset and have negative reactions whereas employees in low performing organizations would have positive reactions to changes in leadership personnel. Organizational performance was positively related to affective commitment, satisfaction, and thoughts about future leadership effectiveness whereas it was not significantly related to continuance commitment, normative, turnover intent, or thoughts about future organizational performance. Even though it was not in the hypothesized direction the fact that organizational performance was related to employee attitudes and thoughts indicates that various external factors may impact how followers react to change in leadership personnel. The environment may play an important role in impacting how employees respond to changes in leadership

personnel.

ROL and Employee Attitudes and Thoughts

The dimensions of ROL had differing relationships with employee thoughts and attitudes. While not all of the relationships were significant, a pattern emerged where *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were related to positive employee thoughts and attitudes while *interchangeability of the leader* was related to negative employee thoughts and attitudes. This suggests that individuals who are high in *influence of the leader* and *interchangeability of the leader* may be less negatively impacted by a change in leadership personnel whereas individuals high in *interchangeability of a leader* may be more negatively impacted by a change in leadership personnel.

If ROL was a unidimensional construct it would be expected that *influence of the leader* would be positively related to employee thoughts and attitudes whereas *influence of the leader* and *interchangeability of the leader* would be negatively related to employee thoughts and attitudes. However, this pattern did not emerge among the dimensions, suggesting that ROL is best conceptualized as a three dimensional construct and that looking at ROL as a unidimensional construct may mask important differences between the dimensions. These differences among the dimensions suggest that in certain situations certain dimensions of ROL may be more predictive of employee thoughts and attitudes while in other situations other dimensions may be more predictive.

Moderating Impact of ROL

For the majority of relationships examined, the dimensions of ROL did not moderate the relationship between organizational performance and employee attitudes and thoughts. The exception was that *interchangeability of the leader* moderated the

relationship between organizational performance and future leader effectiveness. Compared to individuals low in *interchangeability of the leader*, individuals high in *interchangeability of the leader* (individuals who think leaders are interchangeable) were more likely to believe that the future leader would be effective when organizational performance was high and less likely to believe that the future leader would be effective when organizational performance was low. This suggests that individuals high in *interchangeability of the leader* may take external factors (such as organizational performance) into account when thinking about causes of leader success or failure.

Predictors of Future Organizational Performance

When asked to list factors that will impact future organizational performance, individuals who were high in *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were less likely to attribute future organizational performance to the leader. Individuals high in these dimensions are more likely to think that leaders are interchangeable and other factors are important, so, leadership is less of a driver of future organizational performance. *Influence of the leader*, on the other hand, was not significantly related to attributing future organizational performance to the leader. This is surprising because it would have been expected that if people believe that leaders strongly influence organizational performance (high in *influence of the leader*) then they would be more likely to mention leadership as contributing factor to future organizational performance. More qualitative research should be done to understand how ROL impacts thoughts and attitudes.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research

As with the previous study, there are benefits and drawbacks of using scenarios.

In this particular study, one of the drawbacks is that the participants did not have time to form a relationship or develop a sense of connection with the leader. Individuals would likely have stronger reactions to learning about a leader leaving if they had connections with her or him.

Whereas organizational performance is one situational factor that impacts how employees react to changes in leadership personnel, there may be different situational factors that impact how employees respond and these factors may interact with ROL. Future research should examine this. For example, employees may have different reactions when a leader leaves an organization if the leader is charismatic versus not charismatic and this may interact with ROL. A second potential factor is the leadership history of the organization. An employee may have different reactions to a change in leadership if the organization is relatively new and the current CEO was influential in the start-up of the company compared to an organization that has been around for numerous years and has seen several successful changes in leadership. A third potential factor is the organizational level of the leader. Whereas the current research examined the reaction to a change when a current CEO announced his or her intention to leave, leadership changes can occur at all organizational levels. Given the dyadic relationship between a leader and his or her follower, the organizational level of the both the leader and the follower should be considered. The patterns observed with a high-level leader and a low-level follower may be different than the patterns with a high-level leader and a mid-level follower. A fourth potential factor is the manner in which the leader exits the organization. Employees may have different reactions when a leader is forced to resign, resigns after preparing a successor, or resigns with little to no advanced warning.

Overall, organizational performance and ROL can play a role in how employees respond to changes in leadership personnel. However, the interaction between organizational performance and ROL appears to be minimal; ROL does not appear to significantly interact with ROL in accounting for employee thoughts and attitudes.

Overall Discussion

The current studies more thoroughly examined the ROL construct in three separate areas: the dimensionality of ROL, differences between implicit and explicit measures of ROL, and the relationship between ROL and evaluations of leader effectiveness and organizational attitudes in a changing environment.

Dimensionality of ROL

ROL was initially conceptualized as a unidimensional construct and the RLS was designed to assess this (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1998). In line with the theoretical conceptualization of ROL, previous research has predominantly treated ROL as a unidimensional construct (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Schyns et al., 2004, Schyns et al., 2007). However, several CFAs have been conducted on the scale and found that multiple dimensions exist (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999, Schyns et al., 2004, Schyns et al., 2007). In accordance with previous research, the current studies found that the RLS is best conceptualized as being comprised of three dimensions. Compared to the unidimensional model, a 2nd-order model where the three dimensions loaded onto ROL fit the data better (Study 1) although some of the fit indices for the CFAs were lower than desired. Likewise, participants demonstrated moderate accuracy in sorting the questions in the *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors*, although they were not able to accurately sort *interchangeability of the leader.* In addition, *influence of other factors* had

low levels of alpha in all three studies.

While the present research indicates that it is inappropriate to treat the RLS as unidimensional, theoretical and measurement ambiguity exists around the three dimensions. As ROL was initially conceptualized to be unidimensional, the emergence of *influence of the leader, influence of other factors,* and *interchangeability of the leader* was not the result of a priori theory. Instead, the dimensions were the result of how the items statistically related with each other, although there seems to be some unique meaning in each factor. Of the three dimensions, *influence of the leader* aligns the closest with the original conceptualization of ROL whereas the theoretical role of *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* with ROL remains unclear.

There are several possibilities regarding the relationship that *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* have with ROL. The first possibility is that *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* are important aspects of ROL. If this is true then the definition of ROL needs to be expanded to encompass these two additional dimensions. The second possibility is that *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* are not aspects of ROL but are instead separate beliefs. Given this, it would be possible for someone to have high levels of belief in both *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors.* If *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* are indeed separate beliefs which are independent of ROL, then items pertaining to these dimensions should be removed from the RLS as they do not measure ROL. Future research should then examine the nomological network of these separate beliefs and look at what factors influence these beliefs and the consequences of these beliefs. The third possibility is that *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of*

other factors are not aspects of ROL but are instead the opposite of ROL. In this case, it would not be possible for someone to have high levels of belief in both *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors*. Instead they would have to have high levels of belief in *influence of the leader* and low levels of belief in *influence of other factors* or vice versa. If these dimensions are anti-ROL, then they likely measure potential substitutes for leadership. Future research should expand upon the leadership substitutes currently examined in the RLS (e.g., luck, economy) to other leadership substitutes (e.g., ability of followers in the organization). Whether the three dimensions are all a part of ROL or are separate constructs, future research needs to improve the measurement of ROL, especially in regard to *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors.* A new scale needs to be created to intentionally measure *interchangeability of the leader* and *influence of other factors* and possibly expand upon *influence of other factors* to look at the influence of specific factors.

While research still needs to be conducted to understanding how these dimensions relate to ROL, the current study indicates that it is inappropriate to consider ROL, as it is currently measured, to be unidimensional. While in some instances the three dimensions demonstrated similar relationships with constructs of interest (self efficacy, locus of control, and transformational leadership), differences were found in other instances. For example, while *influence of the leader* was not related to need for cognition, *interchangeability of the leader* was negatively related to it (Study 1). In addition, whereas *influence of the leader* and *influence of other factors* were not significantly related to evaluations of leader effectiveness, *interchangeability of the leader* was significantly related (Study 2). When a leader announced his intention to retire, *influence*

of the leader and *influence of other factors* was related to positive employee thoughts and attitudes whereas *interchangeability of the leader* was related to negative employee thoughts and attitudes. Finally, *interchangeability of the leader* moderated the relationship between organizational performance and future leader effectiveness whereas *influence of the leader* or *influence of other factors* did not (Study 3). Together these results suggest that future research not treat the RLS as unidimensional.

Implicit vs. Explicit ROL

Implicit ROL did not significantly correlate with the dimensions of ROL. Similarly, it did not exhibit incremental validity in predicting employee thoughts and attitudes (Study 2 and Study 3). There are several possible explanations for this lack of significant results. One possibility is that ROL involves more specific cognitive evaluations of the organizational environment, such that ROL may be difficult to assess through an IAT. Similarly, implicit ROL may better predict outcomes that are not explicit in nature. Another possibility is that implicit ROL should be better assessed. Since the current research indicates that explicit ROL may be comprised of three dimensions, future research should consider creating implicit measures for each of these three dimensions. Before these additional implicit measures are created, however, the theoretical factor structure of ROL should first be determined. The words used in the superordinate and subordinate categories in the IAT should also be considered. The superordinate leadership category was comprised of "leader" and "follower," however, ROL does not entail perceptions of the follower, it only includes perceptions of the leadership. Therefore, future research should create alternative measures of implicit ROL which do not force participants to decide between leader and follower. Even though there

was a lack of incremental validity found in these studies, leadership researchers should begin to integrate implicit measures into leadership research since implicit attitudes have been found to be important in interpersonal interactions and leadership involves interpersonal interaction (Greenwald, Poehlman, Uhlmann, & Manaji, 2009).

ROL in a Changing Environment

None of the dimensions of ROL resulted in changes of leader evaluations when organizational performance went from high to mixed (Study 2). Likewise, for the most part the dimensions of ROL did not moderate the relationship between organizational performance and employee thoughts and attitudes when the leader's intention to retire was announced, although *interchangeability of the leader* moderated the relationship between organizational performance and future leader effectiveness (Study 3). Together, these results suggest that ROL may have little impact on employee thoughts and attitudes following these two instances of changes in the environment. However, a limitation of both of these studies is that they were scenario based. Future research examining the impact of ROL in the organizational environment where people may have stronger connections to their leader may be more impacted by changes in the organizational environment is needed. Future research should also look at other instances of environmental change. Likewise, environmental changes outside organizational performance should be examined. For example, future research could examine how followers' thoughts and attitudes about their leaders change when the economy changes.

Future Research in ROL

Future research in leadership should continue to pay more attention to the follower in understanding leadership. After all, leadership inherently involves both the

leader and the follower. With ROL, future research should take a longitudinal view of the construct and examine ROL at different stages in employees' careers. Future research should begin examining factors that cause the formation of ROL. For example, are people more likely to romanticize leaders in different countries? Do certain economic environments increase or decrease the tendency to romanticize leaders? What role does the media play shaping perceptions of leadership?

Research should also examine how ROL changes throughout employees' careers. As people rise higher in an organization, their level of ROL may decrease as they begin to realize how many other factors can influence organizational success or failure. Likewise, throughout their career people may experience more instances where the leader failed or was not the cause of organizational success or failure, ultimately lowering the extent to which they romanticize leaders. Alternatively, employees may have experiences with highly charismatic leaders which may increase their tendency to romanticize leaders.

While leadership is primarily examined in the organizational domain, there are other domains where leadership plays a key role. For example, leadership plays an important role in both religious institutions and sports teams. ROL may have an impact on follower thoughts and attitudes in both of these domains; however, the extent to which leaders romanticize their leader may vary in strength depending on the domain. In religious organizations followers may be more likely to romanticize a leader because there is a spiritual aspect to their leadership. Therefore, changes in leadership personnel or the environment may be more impactful in certain domains.

One final issue in the ROL literature is that the name "romance of leadership" is somewhat misleading and non-informative. Depending on the relationships that

interchangeability of the leader and *influence of other factors* have with ROL, the field might be better served if ROL changed its name to something more informative such as "leader control," "leader influence," or "respect for leadership."

In summary, the current research takes important steps by more thoroughly examining the ROL construct and conducting initial research on the impact of ROL in a changing environment. However, more research needs to be done in order to thoroughly understand ROL and the complex relationship that exists between leaders and followers.

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Appendix 1

Scales

Participant Demographics
Please indicate the following:

1. Gender: male or female
2. Age:
3. Ethnicity: American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian or Pacific Islander, Black or African-American, Hispanic or Latino, White, Other
4. Year in school: freshmen, sophomore, junior, senior, graduate student
5. College GPA:
6. ACT Score:
7. SAT Score:
8. Employment status: currently or not employed
9. Number of hours worked in a typical week:

Romance of Leadership (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1998)
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following items (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. When it comes right down to it, the quality of leadership is the single most important influence on the functioning of an organization (Influence of the leader)
2. Anybody who occupies the top level leadership position in an organization has the power to make or break the organization (Influence of the leader)
3. The great amount of time and energy devoted to choosing a leaders is justified because of the important influence that person is likely to have (Influence of the leader)
4. Sooner or later, bad leadership at the top will show up in decreased organizational performance (Influence of the leader)
5. High versus low quality leadership has a bigger impact on a firm than a favorable versus unfavorable business environment (Influence of the leader)
6. It is impossible for an organization to do well unless it has high-quality leadership at the top (Influence of the leader)
7. A company is only as good or as bad as its leaders (Influence of the leader)
8. With a truly excellent leader, there is almost nothing that an organization can't accomplish (Influence of the leader)
9. Even in a bad economy, a good leader can prevent a company from doing poorly (Influence of the leader)
10. Top level leaders make life and death decisions about their organizations (Influence of the leader)
11. It's probably a good idea to find something out about the quality of top level leaders before investing in a firm (Influence of the leader)
12. When a company is doing poorly, the first place one should look to is its leaders (Influence of the leader)
13. The process by which leaders are selected is extremely important (Influence of the leader)

14. When the top leaders are good, the organization does well; when the top leaders are bad, the organization does poorly (Influence of the leader)
15. There's nothing as critical to the "bottom line" performance of a company as the quality of its top-level leaders (Influence of the leader)
16. Leadership qualities are among the most highly prized personal traits I can think of (Influence of the leader)
17. No expense should be spared when searching for and selecting a leader (Influence of the leader)
18. Most things in an organization have very little to do with the decisions and activities of its leaders (Interchangeability of the leader)
19. When faced with the same situation, even different top-level leaders would end up making the same decision (Interchangeability of the leader)
20. Many times, it doesn't matter who is running the show at the top, the fate of an organization is not in the hands of its leaders (Interchangeability of the leader)
21. You might as well toss a coin when trying to choose a leader (Interchangeability of the leader)
22. The connection between leadership and overall company performance is often a weak one (Interchangeability of the leader)
23. Many times, organizational leaders are nothing more than figureheads like the King and Queen of England (Interchangeability of the leader)
24. So what if the organization is doing well; people who occupy the top level leadership positions rarely deserve their high salaries (Interchangeability of the leader)
25. In many cases, candidates for a given leadership position are pretty much interchangeable with one another (Interchangeability of the leader)
26. The President of the United States can do very little to shape the course of our country (Interchangeability of the leader)
27. One leader is as good or bad as the next (Interchangeability of the leader)
28. The majority of business failures and poor organizational performance are due to factors that are beyond the control of even the best leaders (Influence of other factors)
29. Luck has a lot to do with whether or not business leaders are successful in making their firms profitable (Influence of other factors)
30. In comparison to external forces such as the economy, government regulations, etc., a company's leaders can have only a small impact on a firm's performance (Influence of other factors)
31. Leaders should not be held totally responsible for what happens to a firm's performance (Influence of other factors)
32. There are many factors influencing an organization's performance that simply cannot be controlled by even the best of leaders (Influence of other factors)

Typical Leader Qualitative

Think of a great leader and describe that leader in the space below:

General Self-Efficacy (Chen et al., 2001)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Need for Cognition (Cacioppo, Petty, & Kao, 1984)

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. I would prefer complex to simple problems
2. I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking
3. Thinking is not my idea of fun (R)
4. I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities (R)
5. I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is likely chance I will have to think in depth about something (R)
6. I find satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours
7. I only think as hard as I have to (R)
8. I prefer to think about small, daily projects to long-term ones (R)
9. I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them (R)
10. The idea of relying on thought to make my way to the top appeals to me
11. I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems
12. Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much (R)
13. I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve
14. The notion of thinking abstractly is appealing to me
15. I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought
16. I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that required a lot of mental effort (R)
17. It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works (R)
18. I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do not affect me personally

Power Distance Orientation (Earley & Erez, 1997)

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates

2. In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates
3. Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective
4. Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it
5. Employees should not express disagreements with their managers
6. Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others
7. Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power
8. A company's rules should not be broken – not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest

Locus of Control (Rotter, 1966)
Each item consists of a pair of alternatives. Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: obviously there are no right or wrong answers.

1. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck. (external)
   People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make. (internal)
2. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics. (internal)
   There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them. (external)
3. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world. (internal)
   Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries. (external)
4. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is non-sense. (internal)
   Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings. (external)
5. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. (external)
   Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities. (internal)
6. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. (external)
   People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others. (internal)
7. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. (external)
   Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making decisions to take a definite course of action. (internal)
8. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test. (internal)
   Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless. (external)
9. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. (internal)

Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time. (external)

10. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. (internal)
    This world is run by the few people in power and there is not much the little guy can do about it. (external)
11. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. (internal)
    It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow. (external)
12. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck. (internal)
    Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin. (external)
13. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. (external)
    Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it. (internal)
14. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control. (external)
    By taking an active part in politics and social affairs the people can control world events. (internal)
15. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings. (external)
    There really is no such thing as "luck." (internal)
16. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you. (external)
    How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are. (internal)
17. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones. (external)
    Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three. (internal)
18. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption. (internal)
    It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in the office. (external)
19. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give. (external)
    There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get. (internal)
20. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me. (external)
    It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life. (internal)
21. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly. (internal)
    There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you. (external)
22. What happens to me is my own doing. (internal)
    Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the directions my life is taking. (external)
23. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do. (external)

24. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on the national as well as local level. (internal)

Implicit Association Test

Superordinate Category

Leadership Category

1. Leader
2. Follower

ROL Category

1. Important
2. Trivial

Subordinate Category

Leadership Category

1. Manager
2. Boss
3. Director
4. Supporter
5. Helper
6. Associate

ROL Category

1. Influential
2. Impactful
3. Powerful
4. Meaningless
5. Inconsequential
6. Insignificant

Leader Effectiveness

Please indicate the extent you agree with each of the following statements about David Bailey (the CEO of Extegra) (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. Is effective in leading the organization
2. Is successful in directing the organization
3. Does a good job of managing organizational performance

Occupational Commitment Questionnaire (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

Affective Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at this organization (R)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
7. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)

Continuance Commitment

8. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (R)
9. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to
10. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now
11. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization right now (R)
12. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire
13. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization
14. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives
15. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here

Normative Commitment

16. I think that people these days move from company to company too often
17. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R)
18. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain
19. If I get another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization
20. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization
21. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers
22. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (R)

Job Satisfaction (Cammann et al., 1983)

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job
2. In general, I don't like my job (R)
3. In general, I like working here

Turnover Intention (Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001)

Please indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. I will probably look for a new job in the near future
2. I do not intend to quit my job (R)
3. It is unlikely that I will actively look for a different organization to work for in the next year (R)
4. I do not think about quitting my job at the present time

Future Organizational Performance

Please indicate the extent you agree with each of the following statements (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. The financial performance of this company will improve in the future
2. The company's market share will continue to grow
3. The company will become an important player in the field of technology
4. What will the future performance of the organization be? [qualitative]
5. What factors will be most important in contributing to future organizational success or failure? [qualitative]

Future Leader Effectiveness

Please indicate the extent you agree with each of the following statements about the future CEO of Extegra (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree)

1. He or she will be effective in leading the organization
2. He or she will be successful in directing the organization
3. He or she will do a good job of managing organizational performance

Study 2: Scenario Manipulation Pilot Items

1. Please rate the performance of Extegra (for each scenario) (1 = low performance to 5 = high performance)

Study 2: Attention-Check Items

1. What type of industry did Extegra specialize in?
    a. Manufacturing
    b. Distribution
    c. Technology
    d. Service
2. What was the overall trend in the performance of Extegra?
    a. Steadily improving performance
    b. Steadily decreasing performance
    c. Decreasing performance followed by a sharp increase in performance
    d. High performance followed by a decrease in performance

Study 3: Scenario Manipulation Pilot Items

1. Please rate the performance of Extegra (for each scenario) (1 = low performance to 5 = high performance)

Study 3: Attention Check Items

1. What type of Industry did Extegra specialize in?
    a. Manufacturing
    b. Distribution
    c. Technology
    d. Service
2. What was the overall trend in the performance of Extegra?
    a. Steadily improving performance
    b. Steadily decreasing performance

c. Consistent average performance

Appendix 2

Scenarios

Study 2: Time 1 Scenario

Extegra is a technology company that is located in the San Francisco Bay area. Extegra specializes in the design and manufacturing of screens used in high tech devices. For example, they have designed the screens used in certain types of Samsung cell phones and GPSs. Extegra was started in 1989 by Michael Flynn who, along with his 3 initial employees, saw strong growth and expansions. In the first 10 years the company grew from a small start-up to a mid-sized company of 150 employees. In 2003 Michael Flynn retired and was succeeded by David Bailey as CEO. At the time of the succession David Bailey already had been with Extegra for 9 years. Before working at Extegra, David Bailey had spent 21 years working in the technology manufacturing field. David Bailey has been the CEO from 2003 to the present.

From 2003 to 2005 the pace of the company's growth was high. Performance was significantly higher than industry averages; Extegra saw sales increase by 23%, profit increase by 18%, and market share increase by 20%. You became an employee of Extegra in 2004, which was during this time of higher than industry average growth.

Study 2: Time 2 Scenario

Whereas Extegra saw higher than industry average growth from 2003 to 2005, the pace of the company's growth slowed from 2006 to 2008. Performance was slightly lower than industry averages; Extegra saw sales increase by 7% and profit increase by 9%, while market share remained constant.

Study 2: Time 3 Scenario

Whereas Extegra saw slightly lower than industry average growth from 2006 to 2008, the pace of the company's growth significantly slowed from 2009 to 2011. Performance was significantly lower than industry averages; Extegra saw sales decrease by 7%, profit decrease by 4%, and market share decrease by 8%.

Study 3: High Performance Scenario

Extegra is a technology company that is located in the San Francisco Bay area. Extegra specializes in the design and manufacturing of screens used in high tech devices. For example, they have designed the screens used in certain types of Samsung cell phones and GPSs. Extegra was started in 1989 by Michael Flynn who, along with his 3 initial employees, saw strong growth and expansions. In the first 10 years the company grew from a small start-up to a mid-sized company of 150 employees. In 2003 Michael Flynn retired and was succeeded by David Bailey as CEO. At the time of the succession David Bailey already had been with Extegra for 9 years. Before working at Extegra, David Bailey had spent 21 years working in the technology manufacturing field. David Bailey has been the CEO from 2003 to the present.

You became an employee of Extegra in 2004, which was during a time of significantly higher than industry average growth for the company. Throughout your time at Extegra the company's performance was significantly higher than industry averages; Extegra saw sales increase by 23%, profit increased by 18%, and market share increased by 20%. Yesterday, however, CEO David Bailey announced his intention to retire in the next month. Please answer the following questions regarding your thoughts after hearing this news:

Study 3: Ambiguous Performance Scenario

Extegra is a technology company that is located in the San Francisco Bay area. Extegra specializes in the design and manufacturing of screens used in high tech devices. For example, they have designed the screens used in certain types of Samsung cell phones and GPSs. Extegra was started in 1989 by Michael Flynn who, along with his 3 initial employees, saw strong growth and expansions. In the first 10 years the company grew from a small start-up to a mid-sized company of 150 employees. In 2003 Michael Flynn retired and was succeeded by David Bailey as CEO. At the time of the succession David Bailey already had been with Extegra for 9 years. Before working at Extegra, David Bailey had spent 21 years working in the technology manufacturing field. David Bailey has been the CEO from 2003 to the present.

You became an employee of Extegra in 2004, which was during a time of slightly lower than industry average growth for the company. Throughout your time at Extegra the company's performance was slightly lower than industry averages; Extegra saw sales increase by 7% and profit increase by 9%, while market share remained constant. Yesterday, however, CEO David Bailey announced his intention to retire in the next month. Please answer the following questions regarding your thoughts after hearing this news:

Study 3: Poor Performance Scenario

Extegra is a technology company that is located in the San Francisco Bay area. Extegra specializes in the design and manufacturing of screens used in high tech devices. For example, they have designed the screens used in certain types of Samsung cell phones and GPSs. Extegra was started in 1989 by Michael Flynn who, along with his 3 initial employees, saw strong growth and expansions. In the first 10 years the company

grew from a small start-up to a mid-sized company of 150 employees. In 2003 Michael Flynn retired and was succeeded by David Bailey as CEO. At the time of the succession David Bailey already had been with Extegra for 9 years. Before working at Extegra, David Bailey had spent 21 years working in the technology manufacturing field. David Bailey has been the CEO from 2003 to the present.

You became an employee of Extegra in 2004, which was during a time of significantly lower than industry average growth for the company. Throughout your time at Extegra the company's performance was significantly lower than industry averages; Extegra saw sales decrease by 7%, profit decrease by 4%, and market share decrease by 8%. Yesterday, however, CEO David Bailey announced his intention to retire in the next month. Please answer the following questions regarding your thoughts after hearing this news: