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Joseph W. Stewart
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LEADING WITH THE “RIGHT” EMOTION: EXAMINING THE ROLE OF CONTEXT ON IMPLICIT THEORIES OF LEADER EMOTION

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BY THE COMMITTEE CONSISTING OF

DR. SHANE CONNELLY, CHAIR

DR. ERIC DAY

DR. HAIRONG SONG

DR. RYAN BISEL

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Table of Contents

Abstract

Implicit Theories of Leader Emotions (ITLEs) are defined as an individual's schemas about the emotional traits and behaviors characterized by leaders (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021) and initial research suggests that followers expect typical leaders to behave positively, promoting positive emotions such as *Calm, Cheer* and *Pride* over negative emotions such as *Anger, Fear* and *Remorse.* However, connectionist models of implicit theories argue that expectations about leaders demonstrate both stability over time and flexibility across varying contexts, suggesting that followers can hold and apply different prototypes or schemas across different situations. As such, the current research seeks to replicate prior work and explore the role of context in ITLEs. Study 1 replicated prior research, demonstrating a positive bias in ITLEs outside of any explicit context. Studies 2 and 3 examined the role of contextual features on ITLE ratings, examining situational valence, leader industry and leader gender. Findings demonstrate that emotion related aspects of the situation (i.e., situational valence) but not industry context or leader gender, influence ITLE ratings. Specifically, positive situations elicited higher positive emotion and lower negative emotion prototypes than negative situations while the opposite was true of negative situations. Given that implicit theories influence follower evaluations of and attitudes towards leaders, this research critically expands the ITLE literature, enhancing our understanding of follower expectations of leader emotions in various contexts.

Keywords: Implicit Theories of Leader Emotions, Situational Valence, Leader Gender, Leader Industry

Leading with the "Right" Emotion: Examining the Role of Context on Implicit Theories of Leader Emotion

Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) reflect cognitive structures that shape perceptions about leader attributes and how these influence leader behavior and outcomes (Engle & Lord, 1997; Lord, et al., 2020). Early research on leadership categorization theory and ILTs focused on social-cognitive characteristics that are expected of leaders from the perception of followers (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord & Maher, 1991) but overlooked expectations about leader emotions. A leader's emotions can act like the team's weather – clear skies can spark energy and enthusiasm, while a sudden storm can push everyone to take cover and act fast. Just as we form impressions and expectations about a leader's social-cognitive characteristics (i.e., charisma, strength, dedication, etc.), we also notice, and interpret, how they express emotions. Rallying the group with energy and excitement about new opportunities can inspire momentum, while delivering candid feedback or decisively halting an unproductive project can signal urgency and the need for change. Thus, leader emotions, including others' expectations of these states, are critical to understand.

While some studies have focused on follower perceptions of and reactions to leader emotion displays (e.g., Damen, et al., 2008; Fein & Isaacson, 2009; Lewis, 2000; Sy, et al., 2005; 2013; 2018; Sy & Choi, 2013), conceptualizing and empirically studying these as cognition about leader emotions or implicit theories of leadership emotions (ITLEs) is relatively recent. Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) suggest that individuals develop emotion-related schemas based on typical emotional traits and behaviors expressed by leaders. This research conceptualized ITLEs as typical rather than ideal cognitions, allowing for a wider range of positive and negative leader emotion attributes. This distinction is important given that follower expectations of leader

emotions can differ by leader gender and by leader seniority (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). In five studies examining leader ITLEs, Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) found that certain emotions in an individual's implicit theories are more relevant and prototypic of leaders, informing general expectations and elicited responses to leader emotional behavior. Importantly, the factor analysis revealed a second order structure of positive and negative emotions, such that the positive emotions were found to be perceived as more typical of leaders – a positive bias that has been discussed in the leadership literature more broadly (Gooty, et al., 2010). Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) further found that leader gender influences ITLEs, such that female leaders elicited lower levels of negative ITLE prototypes and higher levels of positive ITLE prototypes compared to male leaders. Finally, this ITLE research demonstrated that these implicit theories carry over into leader evaluations, such that, for higher-level leaders, positive ITLEs were associated with greater leader effectiveness ratings while negative ITLEs were associated with poorer ratings and impressions. This research took an important first step in extending implicit leadership theories beyond typical leader attributes, demonstrating that followers also hold expectations of leader emotions.

Beyond leader characteristics, the leadership context may also influence ITLEs. Importantly, the literature suggests that situational features such as organizational culture and leader-follower attributes can affect the leader prototypes that form the basis of ILTs (e.g., Foti, et al., 2008; Hogue & Lord, 2007, etc.). Schemas and prototypes about leaders are likely to be highly affected by contingencies and situations defined from the perspective of both the leader and perceiver, each influenced by individual factors (Ayman & Adams, 2012). The connectionist perspective suggests that implicit theories are both inherently dynamic and context dependent while remaining consistent and stable over time (Hanges, et al., 2000; Lord, et al., 2001b; Foti, et

al., 2008; Brown & Lord, 2001). The fluid nature of these expectations stems from the notion that they are generated in real-time in response to situational features, pulling in leader characteristics that fit with the current context (Lord, et al., 2001b; Epitropaki, et al., 2013). In essence, theories on ILTs suggest that there is both stability and flexibility in how leadership prototypes are developed and applied, where individuals hold several leadership characteristics in their prototype but selectively apply those that are relevant to the given context, generating multiple ILTs (Lord, et al., 2001; Foti, et al., 2008). Given recent discussions about the "context deficit" in leadership research more broadly (Johns, 2024), incorporating context into ITLE studies offers an interesting extension of the literature.

Regarding emotions, it is no surprise that followers have a bias towards positive emotional displays, however research on negative emotions suggests that they can, when appropriately displayed, result in positive outcomes (e.g., Lebel, et al., 2026; Lindebaum, 2014; Sy, et al., 2010; Torrence, 2019). This follows functional theories of emotions, which suggest that many times, emotional reactions, including those that are negative, serve adaptive purposes (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Given the literature on the role of context in influencing ILT development and that context may shape responses to emotional displays, it is important to empirically examine the role of context in ITLE development. Thus, a more nuanced approach to examining ITLEs is needed to test the role of context in interpreting expectations about and responses to leader emotional displays. This research is especially relevant given that ITLEs, and implicit theories in general, serve as an interpretive lens though which individuals form impressions about leaders, informing how leaders are judged, who emerges as a leader, and how organizational outcomes are influenced (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021; Osborn, et al., 2002).

The three studies conducted for this dissertation contribute to the extant literature in novel ways by exploring the effects of leadership context on ITLEs. Serving as a baseline control and replication of prior research, Study 1 explores ITLEs in general, and provides insight into the rank order of emotions rated as typical of leaders. Study 2 examines ITLE ratings as influenced by one contextual variable, situational valence, for both male and female leaders. Study 3 extends Study 2 by examining situational valence within the context of two different leader industries. Extending the work on gender and ITLEs, which focused on employee cognitions about their own leaders, the current research takes a prototype-based approach to examining the influence of leader gender on ITLE ratings to see whether ITLEs differ when people are asked to think about male and female leaders in specific, affectively laden situational contexts. Regarding leader occupational context, the literature has suggested that contextual categories such as leader setting (i.e., military vs business) and industries (i.e., manufacturing vs technology) may influence implicit theories of leaders (Lord, et al., 1982; 1984) suggesting that the job setting may induce a degree of flexibility in ILTs (Shen, 2019). Thus, the current research explores whether leader industry influences ITLE ratings. Given the state of the literature, it is important to consider aspects of the situation relative to ITLE prototypes held by followers.

Further, this research examines situational valence in Studies 2 and 3. Affective events at work have psychological meaning and influence affective states, behaviors, and expectations (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Ohly & Schmitt, 2015).This influence is suggested to be greater than the prediction of affective states from trait affect. Thus, the valence of the situation or context may well modify the manner in which we expect leaders to behave. Further, according to the functional theories of emotions, emotional states are either adaptive or maladaptive depending on the context (Keltner & Gross, 1999; Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Given the notion that

followers leverage leader emotions as a means for gathering social information to determine how they should respond to situations (Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef & Côté, 2022), it is important to consider the situational valence in which leaders are expected to behave in.

Ultimately, this research contributes to our understanding of leadership by (a) attempting to replicate prior research to examine the stability and generalizability of reported ITLE findings, (b) examining the role of situational features (i.e., situational valence) in the formation of prototypes for leader emotions and (c) exploring the role of leader characteristics (i.e., gender and industry) in ITLE ratings. Overall, this study addresses a call to action in the literature for more empirical research on leadership context, expands our understanding of expectations of leader emotional displays, and practically informs leader assessment and development.

Implicit Leadership Theories

Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) are prototypes or schemas that specify the traits and behaviors that are thought to characterize leaders (Lord, et al., 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991; Lord, et al., 2020). These schemas help people cope with information complexity (Fiske & Taylor, 1991) such that those categorized as leaders are done so on the basis of the perceived match between their behaviors or characteristics and the attributes of a leader prototype the follower holds in memory (Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Grossberg, 1999). Importantly, ILTs suggest that perceptions and expectations for leadership reflect a subjective reality and are developed through socialization and social learning, implying that they are contextually derived (Ayman & Adams, 2012; Keller, 2000; Kenney, et al., 1996). As such, the study of ILTs is important for providing insights on the leadership process and the formation of leadership by providing the perspective of followers (Shamir, 2007). Research on these beliefs' sheds light on how these implicit theories

influence the manner in which leaders and followers interpret each other's behavior and how they choose to behave (e.g., Hollander & Julian, 1969; Van Gils, et al., 2010).

The importance of understanding implicit theories resides in their use as interpretive frameworks for information processing and sensemaking (Chiu, et al., 1997; Weick, 1995; Weick, et al., 2005). It is through being classified as a leader by followers that leaders, in part, derive influence (Lord & Maher, 1991) and are evaluated (Hansbrough, et al., 2015). Critically, regardless of the accuracy of these theories, followers will leverage their ILTs to understand, respond to, and evaluate leaders (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Implicit theories in general have been found to be robust to contradictory scientific evidence (Lewandowsky, et al., 2013), which suggests their pervasive nature when applied to organizational settings and calling for further study of their development and application.

Given the impact of ILTs on organizational and individual outcomes, it is important to note how ILTs are suggested to develop. These leader categorizations are postulated to stem from both category-based representations (i.e., prototypes) and target-based representations (i.e., exemplars) which represent these categories (Lord, et al., 1982; Smith & Zarate, 1990; Rosch, 1978). Serving as a sensemaking guide, these schemas or prototypes may be oriented towards a follower's view of *typical* or *ideal* leaders (Junker & van Dick, 2014; Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Schyns & Meindl, 2005). Typicality is descriptive, describing how raters think members of this group typically are or are not (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Ideals are more extreme where only a few category members possess these attributes (Barsalou, 1985) and are injunctive, such that expectations represent how perceivers would like a member to be or not be (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). These leader prototypes are often correlated (Van Quaquebeke, et al., 2014), where *typical* prototypes are more comprehensive while *ideal* prototypes likely reflect more positive attributes

and differences in levels of endorsement (Keller, 2000; Schyns & Schilling, 2011; Sy, 2010). The literature suggests that lay individuals are more likely to rely on a *typical* leader approach to categorization (Fehr & Russell, 1984; Russell, 1991) which may be a result of considering the context in which a leader is embedded. As such, the current research takes a typicality approach.

Returning to the consequences of implicit theories, followers are thought to apply their ILTs to reduce uncertainty in their environment, comparing their leader to their prototype, forming impressions of that manager, and evaluating their behavior and interactions based on the perceived match (Epitropaki, et al., 2013). Thus, serving as a basis for how leaders are expected to behave from the perspective of followers, ILTs can ultimately influence perceptions of leader effectiveness and shape leader assessment (Lord & Emrich, 2000; Offerman, et al., 1994; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004, 2005; Lord, et al., 2001; Lord & Maher, 1991). Importantly, ILTs influence how we think and act, biasing the rating of leader behavior such that individuals often rate impressions of leadership rather than actual leader behaviors (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Weiss & Adler, 1981; Hansbrough, et al., 2015; Scullen, et al., 2000; Rush & Russell, 1988). This is an important note as these ratings have real impacts on organizational outcomes such as promotions, terminations, and development (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000; Schyns, 2006) and thus are critical to better understand.

Early research on ILTs suggested that leaders are most often associated with attributes that fall into the categories of *Masculinity, Intelligence, Sensitivity, Tyranny, Dedication* and *Dynamism* (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Offerman, et al., 1994). Despite large societal changes, ILTs have generally demonstrated stability, with updated research finding the factors of *Sensitivity, Dedication, Tyranny, Charisma, Strength, Well-Groomed, Masculinity* and *Creativity* to be associated with attributes of leaders (Offerman & Coats, 2018). While valuable for

understanding leaders from a social-cognitive perspective, these leader attributes do not capture prototypes of leader emotions despite emotions being suggested as a fundamental mechanism for leader influence (Bass, 1990; Sy, et al., 2005; Sy & Choi, 2013). Further, prototypes are characterized along two dimensions, the norm (i.e., typical or ideal prototypes) and valence (Junker & van Dick, 2014) yet ILTs neglect the emotional aspect of leadership. As such, Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) developed and tested implicit theories of leadership emotions (ITLEs).

Implicit Theories of Leadership Emotions

Categorization theories of leadership (Lord, et al., 1982, 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991; Rosch, 1978) provided insights into the schemas of the cognitive structures and expectations of leadership, however these theories do not discuss how followers develop prototypes relative to leader emotions. Research has demonstrated that individuals hold expectations about emotional displays at work which may extend to expectations of leaders (e.g., Briner & Totterdell, 2002; Glasø & Einarsen, 2008, etc.). Given the study of leadership and emotions (Gooty, et al., 2010) and the manner in which leaders can leverage emotions to influence followers (e.g., Fein & Isaacson, 2009; Mumford, 2006, etc.) it is important to understand follower expectations of leader emotions. Further, emotions play a critical role in the perception of others (e.g., McArthur & Baron, 1983; Trichas, 2015; Zebrowitz & Montepare, 2008) such that the dimensions central to implicit theories can be inferred from emotional displays (Trichas & Schyns, 2012). Therefore, implicit theories of leadership emotions are defined as an individual's schemas about the emotional traits and behaviors characterized by leaders (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021).

Similar to social-cognitive-based ILTs, ITLEs are suggested to develop as a sensemaking function as individuals experience the world around them and attempt to create schemas of correlated elements (Shondrick, et al., 2010; Epitropaki, et al., 2013). Despite individual

development of ITLEs, they contain socially shared content given that they are experience based and are likely to be developed through socialization and social learning (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021; Keller, 2000; Lord & Maher, 1994). Therefore, while these leader perceptions are inherently individual, they are embedded in macro-organizational contexts which can constrain their expression (Lord, et al., 2001; Foti, et al., 2008). This is an important feature as their shared nature may make them more influential towards perceptions of leader effectiveness. In other words, while there may be individual differences that influence one's endorsement of an ITLE, these prototypes serve as abstract representations of commonly shared leader attributes (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021; Lord, et al., 1982; Rosch, 1978). Research on ITLEs has demonstrated that the higher order emotions of *Calm, Cheer,* and *Pride* were perceived as more typical of a leader than the higher order emotions of *Anger, Fear,* and *Remorse* (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021).

There is a notable positive bias to the emotions associated with leaders which follows prior literature which suggests that effective leadership is often associated with positive emotions and therefore may serve as the basis for subjective representations of leadership (Bono, et al., 2007; Gooty, et al., 2010; Sy, et al., 2005; Sy & Choi, 2013). There are obvious benefits to leader emotional displays that are inherently positive, and people often respond favorably to displays of positive emotions. For instance, consider emotional contagion. Emotional contagion has effects on follower affect, leader perceptions, and other outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Johnson, 2008). Thus, followers likely enjoy a leader's positive emotional display as it may induce feelings of positivity in themselves. As such, displays of positive emotions are likely to demonstrate positive benefits for leaders, followers, and the organization as a whole. However, emotional labor research and functional theories of emotion argue for the adaptive

nature of negative emotions as well (e.g., Gaddis, et al., 2004; Gooty, et al., 2010; Lebel, et al., 2026; Lindebaum, et al., 2018, etc.), warranting further exploration of the role of negative emotions in leadership.

Positive Emotion Bias in Leadership Research

The literature has noted that people often associate positive emotions with good leadership, and with better leadership relative to negative emotions (Gooty, et al., 2010). This is a common phenomenon to human nature that extends outside of organizational contexts as well. "Emotionologies" are the attitudes that society maintains towards discrete emotions and their appropriate expression (Stearns & Stearns, 1985) which influence how we perceive the appropriateness of both experiencing and expressing emotions in the self and others at work (Fineman, 2008). Often, these emotions are characterized as inherently positive or negative creating a dichotomy of valence and suggesting that positive emotions are always good and negative emotions are always bad. Therefore, if emotions are fixed to be either "negative" or "positive," the connotations of the emotion can be misleading. For instance, if anger is labeled strictly as a "negative" emotion, this may result in efforts meant to eliminate or mitigate this emotion at work preventing otherwise effective organizational practices such as learning about upset employees (Geddes, et al., 2018). This can further lead to misattributions of the cause and consequences of emotions, suggesting that the extent to which positive biases towards emotions becomes pervasive in our research should be limited. As such, the literature cautions the use of blanket statements on the downsides of negative leader emotions given the mixed research on the effects of negative leader emotions on follower outcomes (Gooty, et al., 2010). Thus, while the initial work on ITLEs took an important first step, greater exploration is needed to better understand follower perceptions of negative leader emotions.

To replicate the findings from past research and evaluate the prevalence of the positive bias in ITLEs, this research deployed a baseline control study, asking individuals to rate the emotions they associated with a typical leader outside of any explicit context.

H1: When asked to consider typical leaders, the emotions of *Calm, Cheer,* and *Pride* will receive higher ratings in ITLEs than the emotions of *Anger, Fear,* and *Remorse.*

Study 1 Method

Experimental Design

Study 1 examined ITLEs of typical leaders outside of any explicit context. Participants in this study did not receive any random assignment to manipulated conditions. Rather, they were simply asked to complete the ITLE measure based on their thoughts regarding a typical leader as well as covariate survey measures and demographics. The results of this study serve as a baseline comparison group for the participants in the following studies who did receive various contextual manipulations. Additionally, the results of this study serve as a replication effort of Sy & Van Knippenberg (2021).

Sample

A Prolific sample of 180 working adults from the United States representing a diverse array of industries served as the sample (M_{age}=41.24 (11.54), 60% Male, 76.7% White) and were paid $4 for completing the 15-minute survey. An a priori power analysis was conducted in R to determine the appropriate sample size for the mixed-effects model. Based on a simulation-based power analysis in R using the simr package, modeling a linear mixed model with six non-independent dependent variables, a sample of approximately 48 participants is estimated to achieve 80% power (mean power = 0.865; 95% CI: 0.81–0.91) to detect an expected effect size of $\beta \approx 0.25$, assuming an intraclass correlation coefficient of 0.33. The reason our sample is

larger than the recommendation is to equate cell sizes for comparison across the following studies. For data cleaning, responses completed in less than five minutes were reviewed for incomplete or careless responding and attention check questions were reviewed. No participants were removed from the study due to these data cleaning procedures, leaving the final sample size at 180. The sample consists of 84.4% full-time employees from a variety of industries who are well educated (88.8% completed at least some college), with an average years of work experience of 19.49(10.70).

Procedure

Participants signed up for the study through Prolific and were sent a link to complete the study online via the Qualtrics survey website. Once logged in, participants read an online informed consent form. Consenting participants were then provided general instructions for the study and were asked to complete a work experience questionnaire. Then, participants were asked to respond to the Implicit Theory of Leader Emotions scale (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021) to assess their ITLE of a typical leader. Finally, participants were asked a brief open-ended question about their rationale, followed by demographics. Once complete, participants were notified and paid for their participation.

Measures

Implicit Theories of Leader Emotion Scale

Using the 15-item ITLE measure from Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021), participant implicit theories of leader emotions were assessed (Appendix B). Taking a typicality approach, participants were asked to rate the extent to which it is characteristic of typical leaders to express each emotion term, capturing expectations of communicated emotions (1=not characteristic at all; 4=neutral; 7=extremely characteristic). Emotion items in this measure are aggregated to form

six emotional attributes. These include the positive emotions of (1) *Cheer* (items include *Cheerful, Excitement,* and *Enthusiasm*; α=0.789), (2) *Pride* (items include *Proud* and *Pride*; *r*=0.584), and (3) *Calm* (items include *At Ease, Relaxed,* and *Serene*; α=0.785) and the negative emotions of (4) *Anger* (items include *Anger, Upset, Disgust* and *Aggravated*; α=0.867), (5) *Fear* (items include *Afraid, Scared, Fear,* and *Nervous*; α=0.841) and (6) *Remorse* (items include *Regret, Shame* and *Guilt*; α=0.781). Each emotion is represented by a single item, and these items are aggregated to the higher levels of emotions. Following the completion of this measure, participants were asked to answer a short, open-ended question regarding their ratings.

Work Experiences Questionnaire

Participant work experience was captured across seven questions addressing the participants employment status, industry, years on the job, hours worked per week, level of interaction with one's supervisor and higher-level leadership, and personal leadership experience.

Analysis

First, descriptive statistics on the sample and ITLE measure were conducted as well as bi-variate correlations and scale reliabilities. Additionally, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to confirm the factor structure of the ITLE measure as outlined in the literature (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). Given that participants provided ratings for multiple individual level emotions, the emotion ratings constituted repeated observations nested within individuals. To account for the non-independence of observations and individual differences in overall rating tendencies, a linear mixed-effects model was conducted with emotion specified as a fixed effect and random intercepts for participants. This analysis allows for the valid inference regarding mean differences across emotions while appropriately modeling between-person variability in baseline rating levels.

Study 1 Results

Prior to hypothesis testing, descriptive statistics, correlations, scale reliability and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted. Table 1 reflects the correlations, descriptives and scale reliabilities of the first order ITLE emotions and covariates.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To confirm the factor structure described in prior research (see Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021), a CFA using maximum likelihood (ML) was estimated in which the emotion items loaded onto the suggested first-order six-factor model (Calm, Cheer, Pride, Anger, Fear, Remorse) using the *lme4* package in R (Bates, et al., 2015). Each item was specified to load only onto its designated factor, factor correlations were freely estimated, and item error terms were assumed to be uncorrelated. Latent factor variances were fixed to 1 to set the metric of the latent variables. Standardized factor loadings (std.all), which represent the standardized solution and are interpreted as regression coefficients, were used to evaluate the strength of the relationships between the individual emotion items and their corresponding first-order factor. Further, model fit indices were assessed using conventional fit indices (e.g., χ^2, CFI, RMSEA, SRMR) and compared to acceptable standards. These standards include CFI values ≥ 0.90, RMSEA values ≤ 0.10, and SRMR values ≤ 0.08 (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980; Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Kline, 2005; Marsh, et al., 2004). A χ^2 statistic that is non-significant indicates excellent fit; however, it is highly sensitive to small deviations from the model in the data when the sample size is large. This often results in the rejection of models that are parsimonious and reasonably approximate the data (Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Schumaker & Lomax, 2004). This analysis confirmed the factor structure outlined in prior research ($\chi^2(137)=304.467$, $p<0.000$, CFI=0.90, RMSEA=0.08, SRMR=0.06). See Table 2 for full factor loadings and model fit statistics.

To evaluate the presence of a higher-order structure as outlined in prior research, a second-order CFA was subsequently estimated such that the three positive first-order emotions (Calm, Cheer, Pride) were specified to load onto a higher-order Positive factor while the three negative first-order emotions (Anger, Fear, Remorse) were specified to load onto a higher-order Negative factor. The loadings of the first-order factors onto the second-order factors were freely estimated and the second-order factors were allowed to correlate. Due to a boundary estimation for the Remorse factor, the model converged but resulted in unreliable estimates as the model struggled to estimate the variance. As such, model fit statistics for the higher-order structure in this study were not calculated.

Mixed Effects Model

Intraclass Correlation Coefficients (ICCs) suggested that the nested nature of the data accounted for 33.3% (ICC_{Adj}=0.333) of the variance in ITLE ratings, justifying the use of a mixed effects model to account for the dependency due to clustering. To test the hypothesis that the positive first-order emotions would be rated higher than the negative first-order emotions, the linear-mixed model revealed a significant main effect of the first-order emotions indicating that at least one of the first-order emotions differs from the others ($F(5, 1074) = 549.362$, $p<0.001$). The estimated marginal means were evaluated and the pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni corrections indicated that all of the positive emotions were rated significantly higher than all of the negative emotions supporting Hypothesis 1 (Figure 1). An evaluation of estimated marginal means indicated the emotions ranked in order of those rated as characteristic of a typical leader are as follows: Pride (M=5.62, SD=0.73), Cheer (M=5.41, SD=0.73), Calm (M=4.80, SD=0.73), Anger (M=2.62, SD=0.73), Fear (M=1.81, SD=0.73), and Remorse (M=1.79, SD=0.73) (Table 3).

As a post-hoc test, the individual level emotions were evaluated to better understand their rank ordering. The linear mixed-effects model revealed a significant main effect of emotion indicating that at least one emotion mean differs from the others ($F(18, 3401) = 329.77$, $p<0.001$). Estimated marginal means indicated that the emotions ranked in order of those rated as characteristic of a typical leader. Pairwise comparisons with a Bonferroni correction indicated that all of the individual level, positive emotions were rated significantly higher than all of the individual level negative emotions, supporting Hypothesis 1 and replicating Sy and Van Knippenberg's (2021) initial findings. An evaluation of estimated marginal means indicated the emotions ranked in order of those rated as characteristic of a typical leader are as follows: Enthusiastic (M=5.86, SD=0.88), Proud (M=5.68, SD=0.88), Pride (M=5.55, SD=0.88), Excitement (M=5.47, SD=0.88), (M=5.86, SD=0.88), At Ease (M=5.18, SD=0.88), Relaxed (M=5.12, SD=0.88), Cheer (M=4.90, SD=0.88), Serene (M=4.09, SD=0.88), Aggravated (M=2.99, SD=0.88), Upset (M=2.72, SD=0.88), Anger (M=2.69, SD=0.88), Nervous (M=2.16, SD=0.88), Disgust (M=2.08, SD=0.88), Regret (M=1.98, SD=0.88), Fear (M=1.79, SD=0.88), Guilt (M=1.74, SD=0.88), Scared (M=1.70, SD=0.88), Shame (M=1.64, SD=0.88), and Afraid (M=1.60, SD=0.88).

Study 1 Discussion

Prior to examining the role of context, this research first sought to replicate prior research on ITLEs, establishing a baseline for future comparison. The results demonstrated that ITLEs in a vacuum do demonstrate a positive bias as found in prior research (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). All of the higher order, positive emotions were rated significantly higher than all of the higher order, negative emotions when participants were asked to rate the emotions that are characteristic of a typical leader. Beyond simple replication, this research further enhanced our

understanding of which emotions were endorsed by followers by examining rank order. Specifically, the emotions were rank ordered such that Pride was the highest rated higher-order emotion, followed by Cheer, Calm, Anger, Fear and Remorse being rated as the lowest higher-order emotion. Going deeper, the individual emotions were rank ordered such that Enthusiasm was rated as the highest rated individual emotion followed by Proud, Pride, Excitement, At Ease, Relaxed, Cheer, Serene, Aggravated, Upset, Anger, Nervous, Disgust, Regret, Fear, Guilt, Scared, Shame and Afraid being rated as the lowest individual emotion. This is an important aspect of the research, as independent studies have now been able to confirm that followers hold positively biased ITLEs when asked to consider typical leaders in general. As discussed, this positive bias can negatively influence leader well-being, in the form of masking and surface acting, as well as leader evaluations for those leaders that do display negative emotions, even when appropriate. Further, the literature discusses how the positive factors of ITLE ratings may be rated substantially different relative to when they would be appropriate to display and relative to their implications (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). These findings and recommendations from the literature further highlight the need to investigate ITLEs in context.

Study 2 Introduction

Leader Emotions in Context

The impact of specific leader emotional displays are contextually dependent (Gooty, et al., 2010) and thus should be explored in greater detail to better understand whether followers can distinguish the value and importance of negative emotional displays on the part of leaders when the context calls for such reactions. For instance, Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) suggest that ITLEs may be contextually dependent, resulting in variations in the emotions thought to be typical of leaders. In particular, Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) demonstrate the different ITLEs

that emerge when considering one's own leader's gender and management level. Relative to leader gender, women leaders elicited lower levels of negative ITLE prototypes than male leaders. Regarding management level, ITLEs were shown to apply to higher-level leaders rather than lower-level leaders, validating ITLEs as prototype-based influences on evaluations of leaders (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). While this research considered individual characteristics of leaders that may influence ITLEs, more work needs to be done to better understand the role of situational factors and alternative approaches to studying leader characteristics on ITLE development and application.

The literature has noted that emotions serve as important stimuli for examining the flexibility of ILTs as they place constraints on their activation and application (Trichas, et al., 2017). However, a weakness in the emotion in the workplace literature is that the emotional measurement is often decontextualized despite the fact that emotions are not simply felt but rather are a reaction to something or someone specific (Elfenbein, 2023). Thus, referring back to the positive bias in the literature, while positive emotions serve as an adaptive function to increase resources (Diener, et al., 2020), negative emotions also serve a functional role in the workplace and among leaders under certain circumstances (e.g., George, 2011; Lebel, et al., 2026; Min, et al., 2021). It has been noted that leaders need not be positive in all situations (e.g., Gaddis, et al., 2004; Gooty, et al., 2010; Keltner & Gross, 1999; Lindebaum, et al., 2018), yet the appropriate display of negative emotions in the appropriate context is under investigated, indicating a great need for further exploration. Therefore, based on the literature of implicit theories and emotions, ITLEs should also consider both the situation and leader characteristics to minimize the challenges associated with the positive emotion bias.

Leadership Context and Implicit Leadership Theories

The literature has argued that there is a context deficit in empirical leadership research (e.g., Johns, 2024) despite the fact that leadership is embedded in a larger social system. Popular ideas in the leadership space such as "there are specific things that all great leaders do," "all leadership is the same," or "leadership is always good and it is always good for everyone" neglect the importance of context and circumstances when evaluating and considering leadership (Haslam, et al., 2024). The typical leadership study often fails to take into account the role of the situation, with an estimated less than 20% of studies providing sufficient information to afford effective comparisons (Hunter, et al., 2007; Johns, 2017). Based on modern theorizing around ILTs and emotions, it is imperative to consider the leadership context in order to best understand followers' implicit theories of leader emotions.

Implicit leadership schemas, describing leaders as fitting (or failing to fit) one's prototype for a perceived leader, may be rated in a biased manner given the social development through which these prototypes are formed (Gioia & Sims, 1985; Phillips & Lord, 1986; Yukl, et al., 2020; Lord & Maher, 1991). For instance, modern approaches to ILT research suggests that situational features such as organizational culture, task type, and other leader-follower attributes may influence the perceptions and prototypes of effective leaders (Hanges, et al., 2000; Foti, et al., 2008; Hogue & Lord, 2007; Sy, et al., 2010; Fischbein & Lord, 2004). It is evident that no single prototype or style of leadership applies to all situations, and the literature has argued that the definitions of leadership depends on innumerable situational and contextual factors related both to the leader being perceived and to the broader external environment (Lord, et al., 2001b). Therefore, leader prototypes may be malleable depending on the context of the leadership.

Leadership does not occur in a vacuum, but rather the situation surrounding leadership can influence critical outcomes. Generally, the notion that leadership effectiveness is context dependent has been thoroughly discussed (e.g., Fiedler, 1964). The literature has noted that context, contingencies and situations are often needed to explain the relationships between leader traits or behaviors and outcomes (e.g., Judge, et al., 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004) suggesting that context may well moderate the relationship between leadership behavior and leadership outcomes (Cheng, et al., 2015; Dust, et al., 2014). This relationship may well be the result of particular leader expectations or prototypes. Therefore, especially at the macro level of situations (i.e., institutional forces, where, who, when, etc.), examining context is an important and interesting area of research related to implicit leadership theories (Oc, 2018). Despite the obvious practical implications of context, there is a notable context deficit in both leadership (Johns, 2024) and emotions research (Elfenbein, 2023), which applies to the study of ITLEs.

Connectionist Theories of Implicit Leadership

As discussed, implicit theories are socially developed and thus are theoretically malleable. The connectionist perspective of implicit theories attempts to capture this inherently dynamic and complex nature of leadership prototypes, offering an explanation of how leadership perceptions can be fluid and context dependent while still producing consistency and stability over time (Hanges, et al., 2000; Lord, et al., 2001b; Foti, et al., 2008; Brown & Lord, 2001; Shondrick, et al., 2010). The argument raised from this perspective is that leadership categories are sensitive to context and are generated in real-time as a response to contextual factors while still allowing for generalizability and stability (Lord, et al., 2001b; Epitropaki, et al., 2013). Early ILT literature suggested that leader categories are organized hierarchically, such that the superordinate level distinguishes leaders from non-leaders, the basic level contextualizes

categories across leader types (i.e., military vs business settings), and the subordinate level differentiates leaders within specific contexts (i.e., manufacturing vs technology industries) suggesting that there is value in contextualizing ILT research (Lord, et al., 1982; 1984). Further research has now established that leadership prototypes between and within individuals are influenced by factors such as business context (i.e., business vs. military), hierarchical level (upper vs. lower management) (Lord, et al., 1984; Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021), national culture (Chong & Thomas, 1997; Den Hartog, et al., 1999; Gerstner & Day, 1994; O'Connell, et al., 1990), task type and gender (Hall, et al., 1998; Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999; Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). The connectionist perspective provides a framework within which leadership categories can be generated in real time in accordance with the requirements of varying contexts, tasks, followers and group history (Lord, et al., 2001b).

The connectionist network is built on "units" which are activated either by environmental input or by other units in the network (Hanges, et al., 2000). The memory schemas, according to connectionist models, are flexible since they are represented by different activation patterns over the same units spread throughout a single network (Bechtel & Abrahamsen, 1996). In other words, different environmental cues or context can influence the way we think about leaders by activating different schemas of leader characteristics. This perspective, applied to leadership, acknowledges the contextual factors that influence ILTs such as culture characteristics (e.g., group performance), leader characteristics (e.g., sex, age, actual behavior), follower characteristics (e.g., education level, leadership experience), and task characteristics (e.g., job demands) (Lord, et al., 2001b; Hanges, et al., 2000). As such, it is theorized that leadership prototypes are constructed as a response to these contextual factors through automatic processing, where the environmental activation selectively spreads throughout the entire network

and initiates a pattern of activation (Strauss & Quinn, 1997). Building on this literature, it is now suggested that ILTs are continually revised and regenerated over time as they are used and applied, as opposed to initial theorizing that suggested that they are stored and retrieved from long term memory (Lord, et al., 2001b; Lord, et al., 1999; Strauss & Quinn, 1997). Thus, the re-creation of these schemas enables them to be sensitive to differences in situational constraints or contexts (Hanges, et al., 2000).

In addition to the connectionist perspective, adaptive resonance theory suggests that existing categories are modifiable and refined, indicating a dynamic interaction between ILTs and context (Grossberg, 1999; Shondrick & Lord, 2010; Epitropaki, et al., 2013). When individuals form impressions, they compare the current information to previously held schemas. When there is a match between the perceived information and the schema, there is resonance, resulting in that person being labeled as a leader. It is through this resonance that we expect new memories and experiences to be consolidated over time, making an ILT malleable and based on patterns of traits and characteristics (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Individuals therefore search through multiple schemas for appropriate categories and constraint satisfaction as defined by the given context, fine tuning the prototype to the situation (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). This framework therefore provides a mechanism that explains how ILTs are activated, how prototypes are matched, and how implicit theories are developed, modified, and remembered within leadership categories (Shondrick, et al., 2010).

In summary, there is flexibility in the application of leader prototypes and the complexity involved in implicit theory activation needs to be considered as a product of the current context (Lord, et al., 2001b). Research has demonstrated that ILTs may exhibit stability due to similarity to the self (i.e., individual differences) while exhibiting change related to differences in

organizational culture or environmental cues (Shen, 2019). The connectionist perspective can help us understand both the stability and flexibility in the application of leadership prototypes. The stability of these prototypes comes from the fact that, while environmental inputs and their importance changes over time, they change slowly and the meaning is derived from entire networks rather than a single network, thus they are stable to small input changes (Lord, et al., 2001b; Lord, et al., 2020). On the other hand, the flexibility comes from the fact that the network meanings are dependent on patterns of input features and the contextual constraints that are activated (Lord, et al., 2001b; Lord, et al., 2020). Thus, once formed, leadership perceptions may be slow to change. However, the context may modify the prototype and interpretation to a particular leader without initially changing the views of leaders in general. They then can be modified on a larger scale over time if there are a number of unsuccessful matches of stimulus to prototype (Lord, et al., 2001b; Shondrick & Lord, 2010; Offerman & Coats, 2018).

The notion that ILTs are re-created based on patterns of activation follows other literature on leadership. Research in other domains supports this finding that patterns of leadership traits have effects on leadership perceptions above the effects of individual traits (Smith & Foti, 1998). Therefore, having a strict definition of leadership based on individual traits or characteristics is too rigid. Applying these principles to ITLEs, the broader contextual features in which leadership is embedded need to be considered in order to effectively understand followers' implicit theories relative to leader emotions. Referring back to the literature on emotions, the functionalist perspective highlights that not every emotion is adaptive in every situation, but rather we need to consider multiple factors or patterns to determine the appropriateness and effectiveness of a given emotion. As such, while it is interesting to understand ITLEs generally, it is important to

understand these follower perceptions and expectations relative to theories of emotions and in the context of affect inducing events.

Affective Events

Situations in psychological research are defined as a set of circumstances that lie external to an individual in their surroundings (Rauthmann & Sherman, 2019). These situations can vary in duration and stability, where some can be dynamic (i.e., momentary situations perspective) or relatively static (i.e., chronic situations perspective) (Rauthmann, & Sherman, 2021). These situations can also vary in their valence. According to the Taxonomy of Workplace Emotion Elicitors, which leverages both Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Ellsworth, 1991; Elfenbein, 2007), affective events predict affective states beyond individual differences such as trait affect (Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). Thus, the psychological meaning of affective situations at work matters to employees and are dependent on situational and individual characteristics (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Lazarus, 1991). While there is value in distinguishing between distinct positive and negative dimensions of events, discussing them in terms of dichotomous dimensions is still useful. Negative situations tend to be appraised as incongruent with work-relevant goals and congruent with deterrence and withdrawal (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003) while positive situations tend to be appraised as favorable and perceived as congruent with personal goals and needs (Elliot, 2006; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Importantly, it is suggested that the occurrence of negative situations is more likely to lead to negative emotions while the occurrence of positive situations is more likely to lead to positive emotions (Frijida, 1986). Therefore, the valence of a situation or context may well influence our expectations of a leader such that we may expect a different leader emotional reaction in a negative situation

compared to how we might expect a leader to react in a positive situation or in a vacuum. This difference in expectation due to the emotion-eliciting event may then modify follower attitudes towards the leader and perceptions of their effectiveness.

H2a: Positive situations will elicit higher positive emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) negative situations and (b) a baseline control group.

H2b: Negative situations will elicit higher negative emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) positive situations and (b) a baseline control group.

Leader Gender

Leader gender has been well studied relative to perceptions of leadership emergence, effectiveness and emotional displays (i.e., Badura, et al., 2018; Buss, et al., 2025; Brescoll, 2016; Eagly, et al., 1995; Lewis, 2000; Paustian-Underdahl, et al., 2014; Plant, et al., 2000; etc.). When considering the influence of gender on these leader criteria, it is critical to consider perceptual biases (Dwivedi, et al., 2021), contextual factors (Post, 2015) and role expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002). For instance, the behavioral and emotional expectations for leaders include being agentic, dominant, and emotionally controlled which align more with the stereotypes and expectations associated with traditionally male gender roles and contrast those of traditionally female gender roles (Koenig, et al., 2011; Fischbach, et al., 2015; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Spence & Buckner, 2000; Foti, et al., 2008). Thus, there is inherent competition between the expectations of gender roles and the expectations of leadership roles for women in leadership. This competition may subsequently influence our perceptions and evaluations of female leaders, frequently in a negative manner (Brescoll & Uhlman, 2008; Brescoll, 2016; De Paola, et al., 2022; Rudman, 1998; Rudman, et al., 2012; Rudman & Phelan, 2008; Nye & Forsyth, 1991).

Specifically related to emotions, the belief that women are more emotional than men is one of the strongest stereotypes in Western cultures (Shields, 2002). Given this stereotype, men and women are subject to different emotional display rules (Citrin & Roberts, 2004). For male leaders, it is encouraged that they show emotions associated with power and status (e.g., anger) (Tiedens, 2001; Tiedens, et al., 2000) or achievement and personal accomplishment (e.g., pride) (Brody, 1997). However, showing vulnerability, weakness or powerlessness is discouraged for men and displaying these types of emotions are stigmatized (Kimmel, 2012; Gaia, 2013). For female leaders, negative emotions that communicate dominance or one's own sense of power (e.g., anger, contempt, pride) are not prescribed (Plant, et al., 2000) and tend to elicit negative reactions from others when expressed (Lewis, 2000). Conversely, people believe that women should both express positive emotions towards others (LaFrance, et al., 2003; Stoppard & Gruchy, 1993) and share their emotions to convey vulnerability (Gaia, 2013; Timmers, et al., 2003). Considering the relationship between emotions and leadership, the traits encouraged by male gender roles, compared to female gender roles, are more closely related to leadership. Research has even demonstrated that in situations where women display the same type and intensity of emotions as men, they may be viewed as less capable of controlling how these emotions influence them and are susceptible to negative appraisals relative to men (Brescoll & Uhlman, 2008). Further, the literature notes that perceivers blend the information associated with a gender role and a leader role (i.e., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, et al., 1995; Huddy & Terkildsen, 1993; Martell, et al., 1998; Mueller, 1986; Sapiro, 1983, etc.). Therefore, we may have expectations of male leaders that differ from the expectations of female leaders, warranting an exploration of this leader characteristic on ITLEs. Taking a target-based approach (Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Schneider, 2005), Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) found that followers of female

leaders rated negative ITLE prototypes lower and positive ITLE prototypes higher compared to followers of male leaders, suggesting that female leaders are expected to display positive emotions significantly more and negative emotions significantly less than their male counterparts. This difference then subsequently influenced leader evaluations as seen in other areas of the literature.

While research on ILTs suggests that target-based and prototype-based approaches produce similar schema structures (Eden & Leviatan, 1975), this has not been explicitly tested relative to ITLEs and specifically relative to the influence of leader gender. Importantly, female leaders can be penalized for even moderate displays of emotion that counter the female stereotype (Brescoll, 2016). Considering that female leaders are aware of the potential negative consequences of violating prescriptive or proscriptive gender stereotypes (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Moss-Racusin & Rudman, 2010), it may be the case that a target-based approach is biased by the actual emotional displays of female leaders which are influenced by social norms. Thus, it is important to attempt to replicate the results of prior research taking the alternative, prototype-based approach where participants are asked to rate the emotions of a typical leader, generating an understanding of impressions of a category of people rather than a specific target (Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Junker & van Dick, 2014; Lord, et al., 2020; Lord & Dinh, 2014).

To summarize, considering (1) that female leaders may have a more difficult time than non-leader women determining the type and amount of emotion to display (Brescoll, 2016), (2) the different emotional expectations placed on males and females in general (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Citrin & Roberts, 2004) and in leadership (Dwivedi, et al., 2021; Koenig, et al., 2011), and (3) the need to explore the influence of gender on ITLEs taking an alternative approach

(prototype-based vs target-based) to replicate prior work (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021), this research extends the exploration of the relationship between leader gender and ITLE ratings.

H3a: Leader gender will elicit higher positive emotions in ITLEs for female leaders compared to male leaders.

H3b: Leader gender will elicit lower negative emotions in ITLEs for female leaders compared to male leaders.

While it is interesting to consider leader characteristics (i.e., leader gender) and features of the situation (i.e., situational valence) separately, situations at work are complex and consist of several characteristics that co-occur. Importantly, the literature suggests that gender differences in various leadership outcomes are contingent on contextual cues (Eagly & Karau, 1991; Paustian-Underdahl, et al., 2014, Post, 2015). As discussed, perceivers blend the information associated with gender and leader roles and that the expectations of females are in competition with the expectations of leaders. Despite the notion that successful female leaders are described as similar to successful managers in general and successful male leaders, since effective female leaders likely violate traditional gender roles (i.e., behaving with more agentic rather than communal tendencies) they may be punished given their gender role violation, at least by those who endorse traditional gender roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman, 1998; Rudman, et al., 2012; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). As such, the valence of the situation may deepen the gender stereotypes of male versus female leaders.

H4a: Situational valence will moderate the effects of leader gender on ITLEs such that negative situations will elicit more positive emotions for female leaders compared to male leaders.

H4b: Situational valence will moderate the effects of leader gender on ITLEs such that negative situations will elicit more negative emotions for male leaders compared to female leaders.

Study 2 Method

Experimental Design

Study 2 explored (1) whether situational valence changes the nature of the emotions reflected in individual's ITLEs, (2) the relationship between leader gender and individual ITLEs, extending Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) by taking a prototype-based approach rather than a target-based approach, and (3) whether situational valence moderates expectations of typical emotions held in individual's ITLEs for male and female leaders. Thus, this study implemented a 2 (situational valence) by 2 (leader gender) between-person design. Situational valence included positive or negative situational features and leader gender included male or female. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four possible conditions reflecting different leader genders and differently valanced situations. Participants were provided with a written scenario and asked to respond to survey questions which were scored and analyzed.

Sample

A Prolific sample of 415 working adults from the United States representing a diverse array of industries served as the sample (M_{age}=41.40 (11.13), 52.5% Male, 70.1% White) and were paid $4 for completing the 15-minute survey. An a priori power analysis was conducted in G*Power to determine the appropriate sample size for a MANCOVA with an estimated effect size f=0.25, estimated power of 0.80, 4 groups, 2 predictors and 6 response variables. The analysis suggested a sample of 145 participants. A larger sample was recruited to enhance the likelihood of detecting small differences and as a safeguard for data cleaning procedures. For

data cleaning, two participants were removed who did not consent to participate, eight were removed for not completing the dependent variable measure or covariates, 14 were removed for incomplete or careless responding and a time of less than 5 minutes, one was removed for a failed attention check, two were removed for lack of work experience, and one was removed for incoherent qualitative reasoning checks. This resulted in a final sample of 385 (Condition 1: *N*=95; Condition 2: *N*=99; Condition 3: *N*=96; Condition 4: *N*=95). The sample consists of 81.1% full-time employees from a variety of industries who are well educated (73.13% completed at least some college), with an average years of work experience of 19.83(11.12).

Procedure

Participants signed up for the study through Prolific and were sent a link to complete the study online via the Qualtrics survey website. Once logged in, participants were provided an online informed consent form. Consenting participants were then provided general instructions for the study (Appendix A) and were asked to complete a work experience questionnaire. Then, participants were randomly assigned to a condition, provided with the written situations describing a scenario that senior leaders in many different kinds of organizations might face (Appendix B), and asked to respond to the Implicit Theory of Leader Emotions scale (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021) to assess their ITLE for what reflects a typical leader in situations like the one provided. Compared to other research which took a target-based approach to studying the relationship between gender and ITLE ratings (i.e., Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021), a prototype-based approach was used, asking participants to consider a typical leader in the described scenario. Finally, participants were asked a brief open-ended questions about their rationale, followed by covariate measures and demographics (Appendix D). Once complete, participants were notified and paid for their participation.

Scenarios

This study employed written scenarios that manipulated leader gender and situational valence following best practice recommendations for designing and implementing vignettes (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). In condition one, participants received a positive situation with pronouns reflecting a male leader, in condition two, participants received a negative situation with pronouns reflecting a male leader, in condition three, participants received a positive situation with pronouns reflecting a female leader, and in condition four, participants received a negative situation with pronouns reflecting a female leader. The scenarios were created to be equivalent in content and structure with modifications occurring to the gender and valence only. A pilot study was conducted on the materials to ensure that participants were able to meaningfully distinguish differences in leader gender and valence in the written scenarios. In a small sample (N=22), participants distinguished the leader gender ($t(42)=4.243$, $p<0.001$) and situational valence ($t(42)=6.589$, $p<0.001$) appropriately. Thus, the scenarios were implemented in the full study (Appendix B).

Manipulations

Leader Gender

Leader gender consists of male and female and is subtly manipulated in the written scenarios by using gendered pronouns (He/Him vs She/Her) to describe the leader situation. Importantly, each situation reflects a high-level leader as it is suggested that ILTs typically apply to higher level leaders who often have limited leader-follower interactions, thus a lack of individuating information is more likely to induce prototype-based judgments and a greater reliance on category prototypes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1989; Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord & Maher, 1991). Following the completion of the task, participants were asked to select whether their

situation described a male (1) or a female leader (2) which served as a manipulation check (Appendix D). See Figures 1 and 2 for example statements. It should be noted that the manipulated content is bolded and italicized in the figures for clarity, however this was not done in the scenarios the participants read.

Figure 1

Male Leader Sample Statement

The executive leader is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. ***His*** organization has clear safety policies required at all locations… Safety is a core value of ***his*** organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture.

Figure 2

Female Leader Sample Statement

The executive leader is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. ***Her*** organization has clear safety policies required at all locations… Safety is a core value of ***her*** organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture.

Situational Valence

Affective events are situations that occur in the context of work that elicit emotional reactions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The manipulated events in this study were either positive or negative. The written descriptions contain elements of emotion eliciting events as identified by the Taxonomy of Workplace Emotion Elicitors (Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). For instance, according to the emotion elicitor taxonomy, negative events are related to aspects of work such as goal hindrances, conflict, technical difficulties, personnel problems, insecurity, personal problems and client problems while positive events are related to aspects of work such as goal attainment, appreciation, feeling competent and good news (Ohly & Schmitt, 2015). While the

events in our study are dichotomous, the elements of the situations are guided by this taxonomy. A manipulation check was issued to ensure that participants distinguished between the positive and negative events. Participants were asked to rate 4 items on a 5-point Likert scale (1= not at all accurate; 5= very accurate) based on the extent to which they match the valence of the situation they were exposed to. Items include "I would describe the situation as positive," "I would describe the situation as negative," "Overall the situation seemed good for the organization," and "Overall the situation seemed detrimental to the organization" (α=0.978) (Appendix D). See Figures 3 and 4 for sample statements. Once again, it should be noted that the manipulated content is bolded and italicized in the figures for clarity, however this was not done in the scenarios the participants read.

Figure 3

Positive Situation Sample Statement

Biannual safety audit reports from several of the major locations in his company have shown significant ***decreases in safety violations, high levels of compliance in use of protective gear and ongoing proactive communication*** about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior ***reduces the risk of injuries to employees and visitors***. The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have ***initiated safety recognition awards*** to enhance these behaviors.

Figure 4

Negative Situation Sample Statement

Biannual safety audit reports from several of the major locations in his company have shown significant ***increases in safety violations, inconsistencies in the use of protective gear as well***

as dismissive attitudes and poor communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. ***This behavior enhances the risk of injuries to employees and visitors***. The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have ***intentionally undermined safety protocols*** to enhance efficiency.

Dependent Variables

Implicit Theories of Leader Emotion Ratings

Study 2 leveraged the same dependent variable measure as discussed in Study 1 (Appendix D). Emotion items in this measure are aggregated to form six emotional attributes or into two general positive and negative factors. These include the positive emotions of (1) *Cheer* (items include *Cheerful, Excitement,* and *Enthusiasm*; α=0.929), (2) *Pride* (items include *Proud* and *Pride*; r=0.908), and (3) *Calm* (items include *At Ease, Relaxed,* and *Serene*; α=0.899) and the negative emotions of (4) *Anger* (items include *Anger, Upset, Disgust* and *Aggravated*; α=0.942), (5) *Fear* (items include *Afraid, Scared, Fear,* and *Nervous*; α=0.923) and (6) *Remorse* (items include *Regret, Shame* and Guilt; α=0.902). Following the completion of this measure, participants were asked to answer a short, open-ended question regarding their ratings.

Covariates

Work Experiences Questionnaire

The same work experiences questions from Study 1 was used for Study 2.

Participant Occupation

The personal relevance of leader behavior and participant engagement affects the variance seen in leader networks such that less engaged followers exhibit more stable cognitive representations of leadership (Foti, et al., 2008). Given that participant occupation/industry may influence the level of relevance between their experience and the described situation, participant

occupation information was collected. This was captured in a workplace experience questionnaire where participants were asked to state their occupation and industry (Appendix D).

Job Level

Experience with leaders can affect perceptions of leadership (e.g., Abdalla & Al-Hamoud, 2001; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Ling, et al., 2000, etc.). Further, management level has shown to moderate the relationship between ITLEs, and leader perceptions (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021) as limited leader-follower interactions induce greater reliance on prototype-based judgments (Fiske & Neuberg, 1989). Follower characteristics such as leadership experience have also been suggested as a factor that can influence implicit theories (Hanges, et al., 2000; Lord, et al., 2001b). Thus, job level of the participant and years of work experience were captured in the work experience questionnaire (Appendix D).

Trait Positive and Negative Affect

Perceptions of leader capability and competence is influenced by emotions expressed in leader-follower interactions (Gooty, et al., 2010). Research demonstrates that emotions felt by followers during leader emotional displays relate to judgments of their effectiveness (Damen, et al., 2008; Johnson, 2008). Thus, follower trait affect was assessed using the 20-item PANAS (Watson, et al., 1988). Measuring trait affect required asking participants to rate the extent to which they feel each emotion on a regular, day-to-day basis. Thus, participants rated ten positive and ten negative emotions on a 5-point Likert scale (1=*very slightly or not at all*; 5=*extremely*) on the extent to which they experience each emotion regularly (Appendix D).

Demographics

In general, follower characteristics (i.e., education level) have been suggested as factors that can influence implicit theories (Hanges, et al., 2000; Lord, et al., 2001b). Further, implicit

theories have shown to differ depending on the context (i.e., gender, culture, ethnicity) (e.g., Chong & Thomas, 1997; Den Hartog, et al. 1999; Sy and Van Knippenberg, 2021; Sy, et al., 2010, etc.). Additionally, age may be related to work experience which may influence leader perceptions (e.g., Abdalla & Al-Hamoud, 2001; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Ling, et al., 2000, etc.). While some of these characteristics are typically held by the leader, it was important to capture the demographics of our sample to ensure that individual differences were controlled for in our analysis (Appendix D).

Analysis

First, descriptive statistics on the sample and ITLE measure were conducted as well as bi-variate correlations and scale reliabilities. Additionally, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to confirm the factor structure of the ITLE measure as outlined in the literature (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). Next, independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare condition means on the manipulation check scales for situational valence and leader gender. To test the hypotheses, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANCOVA) was conducted to examine the main and interactive effects of situational valence and leader gender on follower ITLE ratings where the first-order emotions served as the dependent variables.

Study 2 Results

Prior to hypothesis testing, descriptive statistics, correlations, scale reliability, manipulation checks and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. Table 4 reflects the correlations, descriptives and scale reliabilities of the first order ITLE emotions and covariates.

Manipulation Checks

Independent samples t-tests were conducted to evaluate the manipulations of situational valence (positive or negative) and leader gender (male or female). The results revealed that the situational valence manipulation resulted in significant mean differences based on the condition

($t(357)=38.85$, $p<0.001$) such that those in the positive condition ($M=4.46$, $SD=0.73$) perceived the situation as more positive on average than participants in the negative condition ($M=1.54$, $SD=0.69$) where higher scores indicated perceiving the situation as positive. Similarly, the results of the t-tests revealed that the leader gender manipulation resulted in significant mean differences based on the condition ($t(357)=-20.99$, $p<0.001$) such that those in the male leader condition ($M=1.07$, $SD=0.26$) perceived a male leader more on average than participants in the female leader condition ($M=1.81$, $SD=0.39$) where rating a 1 indicated perceiving a male leader and rating a 2 indicated perceiving a female leader.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The same CFA process as outlined above in Study 1 was conducted in this independent sample to confirm the factor structure as outlined in the literature in the new sample. Similar to the Study 1, this analysis confirmed the factor structure outlined in prior research. Unlike Study 1, the higher-order CFA was able to converge and yielded reliable fit statistics ($\chi^2(137)=571.07$, $p<0.000$, CFI=0.95, RMSEA=0.09, SRMR=0.05). As with the first-order CFA, the higher-order analysis confirmed the factor structure as outlined in prior research ($\chi^2(145)=700.655$, $p<0.000$, CFI=0.93, RMSEA=0.10, SRMR=0.07) (Table 5).

MANCOVA

To test the hypotheses, which focused on the relationship between situational valence, leader gender, and ITLE ratings, a MANCOVA was conducted. When checking for outliers, box plots revealed that there were no univariate outliers to be concerned with. Mahalanobis distance revealed two potential multivariate outliers, however, after further investigation of ITLE ratings, it was determined that these were legitimate but unusual multivariate profiles rather than issues with the data and therefore the participants were retained. Checking the MANCOVA assumption

of variance-covariance equality, it was revealed that the first-order emotions failed Box's M test. As such, Pillai's Trace was interpreted which is robust to violations of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. Significant Pillai's Trace values indicate that there is evidence that the groups differ on at least one linear combination of the dependent variables and warrants exploration of the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects to determine which specific dependent variables contribute to the multivariate effect (Pillai, 1954).

Theory informed the covariates to include in the study and correlations guided the selection of covariates to be included in the model for the dependent variables of interest. Initially, participant industry, age, years of work experience and all of the PANAS emotions were included in the model. Those covariates with significant relationships according to Pillai's Trace were retained in the next iteration of the model. As such, PANAS At Ease and Scared were retained in the final analysis. According to Pillai's Trace, situational valence was a significant predictor of ITLE ratings (Pillai's Trace=0.56, $F(6, 526)= 112.035$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.561$) while leader gender (Pillai's Trace=0.011, $F(6, 526)= 0.960$, $p=0.451$, $\eta^2= 0.011$) and the two-way interaction between situational valence and leader gender (Pillai's Trace=0.002, $F(6, 526)= 0.144$, $p=0.990$, $\eta^2= 0.002$) were not significant.

The Tests of Between-Subjects Effects revealed main effects of situational valence on each of the first-order emotions and pairwise comparisons with a Bonferroni correction were evaluated. First, looking at the positive first-order emotions, for Cheer ($F(6, 526)= 415.864$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.439$) the positive situation ($M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.09$) elicited higher levels than did the negative situation ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 0.09$) but lower levels than the baseline control ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 0.09$). For Pride ($F(6, 526)= 321.868$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.377$) the positive situation ($M = 5.58$, $SD = 0.11$) elicited higher levels than did the negative situation ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 0.11$) but was

not significantly different than the baseline condition (M = 5.60, SD = 0.11). For Calm (F(6, 526)= 256.369, p<0.001, η^2= 0.326) the positive situation (M = 5.61, SD = 0.09) elicited higher levels than did the negative situation (M = 2.59, SD = 0.09) but was not significantly different than the baseline condition (M = 4.77, SD = 0.09). These results demonstrate partial support for Hypothesis 2a.

Next, looking at the negative first-order emotions, for Anger (F6, 526)= 440.280, p<0.001, η^2= 0.453) the negative situation (M = 4.58, SD = 0.09) elicited higher levels than did the positive situation (M = 1.83, SD = 0.09) and the baseline control (M = 2.61, SD = 0.09). For Fear, (F(6, 526)= 158.691, p<0.001, η^2= 0.230) the negative situation (M = 3.41, SD = 0.09) elicited higher levels than did the positive situation (M = 1.89, SD = 0.09) and the baseline control (M = 1.79, SD = 0.09). For Remorse (F(6, 526)= 278.792, p<0.001, η^2= 0.344) the negative situation (M = 3.60, SD = 0.08) elicited higher levels than did the positive situation (M = 1.64, SD = 0.08) and the baseline control (M = 1.78, SD = 0.08). These results demonstrate full support for Hypothesis 2b.

With the non-significant results of leader gender and the situational valence by leader gender interaction, hypotheses H3a, H3b, H4a, and H4b are not supported. See Tables 6-8 for full results and Figure 2 for a visualization.

Study 2 Discussion

Study 2 examined the influence of both situation and leader characteristic variables on ITLEs by examining the leader characteristic of gender and the situational characteristic of valence. Prompting participants to consider a specific context when rating their ITLEs encouraged a shift in the emotions that were endorsed, examining whether individuals modified their ITLEs to match the context they are in. Confirming our hypothesis, situational valence

significantly influenced ITLE ratings, demonstrating large effect sizes. Positively valanced conditions elicited higher positive emotions and lower negative emotions compared to negatively valanced conditions. Compared to baseline, the positively valanced condition was actually slightly lower on the positive emotions of Cheer and Pride and the negative emotion of Anger while not being significantly different on the positive emotion of Calm or the negative emotions of Fear or Remorse. Though not in line with our hypothesis, this is not a particularly surprising finding given the positive bias demonstrated in the baseline condition to begin with. What is arguably most interesting however, is the findings for the negatively valanced conditions. Negative context elicited significantly lower positive emotions and significantly higher negative emotions than both the positive condition and baseline condition. More specifically, the negatively valanced conditions rated all of the negative emotions as more typical of a leader in the presented context than all of the positive emotions. This is a critical finding as it demonstrates that ITLEs are malleable to the context which suggests that the connectionist perspective can also be applied to follower perceptions of leader emotions. The practical and theoretical significance of this finding will be discussed in greater detail in later sections.

While the situational valence significantly influenced follower ITLEs, leader gender did not significantly influence the emotions endorsed despite prior research suggesting that leader gender plays a role in ITLE ratings (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021) and the prevalence of gender biases on emotional expectations (Shields, 2002). To first address the lack of replication between this research and prior studies, it is important to acknowledge the differences in approach to evaluating the role of leader gender on ITLEs. Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) took a "target-based approach" to explore this relationship, asking participants to consider their own leader when rating the ITLEs, and splitting the sample based on leader gender. Conversely, this research

took a "prototype-based approach," asking participants to rate the emotions of a typical leader in the described scenario. Target-based approaches are schema-based impressions of a target person across situations and time while prototype-based approaches are schema-based impressions of a category of people (Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Schneider, 2005). While research has demonstrated that these are comparable approaches to studying implicit theories (Eden & Leviatan, 1975), this may not be the case for research on gender and emotions. For instance, research on backlash effects suggest that female leaders are aware of the potential negative consequences for violating prescriptive gender stereotypes (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Moss-Racusin & Rudman, 2010). Thus, when asked to think about a target leader, and considering a female leader's awareness of gender stereotypes and the consequences of incongruence (Eagly & Karau, 2002), it may be the case that gender differences emerged due to observed behavior of female leaders which may follow stereotypes rather than true expectations or schemas. Future research should explore whether there are true differences between target-based and prototype-based approaches in relation to the influence of leader gender on ITLE ratings.

Beyond differences in experimental approaches, there are theoretical reasons that may help explain the lack of significant findings. First, leadership requires enhanced emotional control and a belief in one's competence and deservingness to exercise power (Brescoll, 2016; Ridgeway, 2001). Thus, leaders are not expected to lack emotion, just control them (Shields, 2005). While these expectations tend to align with display rules for men but not for women (Citrin & Roberts, 2004), it may be the case the ITLEs are concerned more with emotional control aligned with the valence of a given situation rather than specific leader characteristics. Future research should thus explore whether there are additional factors of ITLEs that cover emotional control or regulation.

A second theoretical reason for the non-significant findings is that differing contexts may require men and women to display emotions that may not be congruent with gendered display rules (Fischer, et al., 2013) and gender differences in various leadership outcomes are contingent on contextual cues (Eagly & Karua, 1991; Paustian-Underdahl, et al., 2014). Therefore, in a negatively valanced situation, gender display rules may break down which would excuse female leader displays of negative emotions and limit differences in evaluations of effectiveness between male and female leaders. In essence, ITLEs may be based more on the situational characteristics such as valence, rather than leader characteristics such as gender. Future research is needed to test whether (in)congruence between expectations from ITLEs and actual displays of emotions results in penalties or rewards for leaders of different genders.

Finally, it is important to acknowledge that women are holding a larger percentage of managerial positions (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2004; 2015; 2022) which may shift societal stereotypes of women (Koenig & Eagly, 2014; Weber & Crocker, 1983; Wood & Eagly, 2012). As such, perceptions of leadership roles and gender roles may change over time. For instance, research has shown that female stereotypes are shifting to reflect more agentic content which aligns with leader stereotypes (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Donnelly & Twenge, 2016). Simultaneously, perceptions of leadership have become more communal over time which aligns with female stereotypes (Koenig, et al., 2011; Powell, et al., 2002). Thus, gender display rules are becoming more homogenous, aligning more succinctly with leader stereotypes. Future research should take a longitudinal approach to studying ITLEs, evaluating whether changes in gender stereotypes align with leader emotional expectations.

Taken all together, the findings laid out indicate that ITLEs are consistent across genders but change depending on the situation. While this is counter to our hypotheses, it is an important

and promising finding for leader gender equality relative to evaluations. With the knowledge that gender stereotypes and emotional expression influence leader evaluations, it is a positive finding that expectations of emotions seem to lack gender influence such that expectations rely more on characteristics of the situation than on differences in leader characteristics.

Study 3 Introduction

Beyond situational valence, it is also important to consider aspects of the leader's occupation or industry on follower ILTEs. The literature has indicated that the strength and interrelationships between situational factors and the degree of particular traits in ILTs can differ across other contextual variables such as occupation (i.e., military vs business leaders), fields (i.e., political vs religious) and industry (i.e., manufacturing vs healthcare), suggesting that combinations of ILT factors and traits may be more salient depending on the context (Lord, et al., 1982; 1984; Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Epitropaki, et al., 2013). This could also be the case for ITLEs. Referring back to the connectionist models, these theories allow for greater flexibility and different prototypes to be represented across leader industry. Thus, while ILTs and ITLEs demonstrate moderate stability, there is notable a degree of flexibility across job settings (Shen, 2019). This suggests that not only the current context, but the industry and leader type may influence ITLEs. Situational valence is likely to endure across different industries and occupations. Given that valence can be salient regardless of other contextual features, Study 3 similarly examined valence in an attempt to replicate the findings from Study 2 for H2a and H2b.

H5a: Positive situations will elicit higher positive emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) negative situations and (b) a baseline control group.

H5b: Negative situations will elicit higher negative emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) positive situations and (b) a baseline control group.

As discussed, followers tend to rely on inferential processes when forming perceptions of leadership (Lord & Maher, 1991). Along these lines, the cognitive judgment approach suggests that environmental features of work can influence perceptions of an event which are then compared to a set of standards (i.e., prototypes or schemas) and the perceived match between these perceptions and schemas can subsequently influence work related attitudes (e.g., Ilgen, 1971; Lawler, 1973; Mitchell, 1974, etc.). Using this framework, it is logical to postulate that the situation in which a leadership event is occurring may influence a follower's perception of the event. In other words, the external context in which leadership occurs (i.e., industry/occupation) may influence the followers' expectations of how leaders should behave emotionally, beyond the situation itself. While most instances in practice encourage elevating positive emotions while suppressing negative displays, this is not always the case. For instance, there are careers where negative emotions are more appropriate (e.g., funeral directors displaying sadness) (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). Therefore, it is interesting to explore whether some industries elicit expectations of different emotional valance and/or greater variability as acceptable than other industries, especially with respect to negative emotions.

RQ1: Will leader industry elicit different positive and negative emotions in individual's ITLEs?

As discussed in Study 2, while it is interesting to consider leader characteristics (i.e., leader industry) and features of the situation (i.e., situational valence) separately, the complexity of situations in true organizational contexts calls for an exploration of the joint effects of both situational features and leader characteristics simultaneously. Since the literature has not yet explored the relationship between valence across varying industries, I propose the following research question:

RQ2: Will situational valence moderate the relationship between leader industry and the emotions elicited in individual's ITLEs?

Study 3 Method

Experimental Design

Study 3 once again tested whether situational valence changes the nature of the emotions reflected in individual's ITLEs for leaders. Additionally, this study examined the leader characteristic of industry to understand whether this contextual variable would influence ITLE ratings. Finally, this study explored whether situational valence moderates expectations of typical emotions held in individual's ITLEs regarding leaders of different industries. Thus, this study implemented a 2 (situational valence) by 2 (leader industry) between person design. Situational valence included positive or negative and leader industry included healthcare and manufacturing. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four possible conditions reflecting different leader industries and differently valanced situations. Participants were provided with the written scenario and asked to respond to survey questions which were scored and analyzed.

Sample

A Prolific sample of 411 working adults from the United States representing a diverse array of industries served as the sample (M_{age}=40.86 (10.99), 49.5% Male, 64.4% White) and were paid $4 for completing the 15-minute survey. An a priori power analysis was conducted in G*Power to determine the appropriate sample size for a MANCOVA with an estimated effect size f=0.25, estimated power of 0.80, 4 groups, 2 predictors and 6 response variables. The analysis suggested a sample of 145 participants. A larger sample was recruited to enhance the likelihood of detecting small differences and as a safeguard for data cleaning procedures. For data cleaning, one participant was removed who did not consent to participate, 23 were removed

for not completing the dependent variable measure or covariates, two were removed for incomplete or careless responding and a time of less than 5 minutes, six were removed for a failed attention check, and three were removed for incoherent qualitative reasoning checks. This resulted in a final sample of 376 (Condition 1: *N*=95; Condition 2: *N*=89; Condition 3: *N*=97; Condition 4: *N*=95). The sample consists of 81.6% full-time employees from a variety of industries who are well educated (84.0% completed at least some college), with an average years of work experience of 19.80(10.83).

Procedure

The procedure followed that which was outlined in Study 2.

Scenarios

This study employed written scenarios that manipulated leader industry and situational valence following best practice recommendations for designing and implementing vignettes (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). In condition one, participants received a positive situation with the scenario described in a manufacturing industry, in condition two, participants received a negative situation with the scenario described in a manufacturing industry in condition three, participants received a positive situation with the scenario described in a healthcare industry, and in condition four, participants received a negative situation with the scenario described in a healthcare industry. The scenarios were created to be equivalent in content and structure with modifications occurring to the industry and valence only (Appendix C).

Manipulations

Leader Industry

Leader industry consists of manufacturing and healthcare and is manipulated in the written scenarios by explicitly stating the industry the leader works in. These occupations were

selected given their differences in requirements and social norms (e.g., blue-collar vs white-collar). Research has demonstrated differences in ITLs between industries that hold different requirements (e.g., manufacturing vs service) (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004) which led to the selection of the aforementioned industries in this study. Importantly, each occupation reflects a high-level leader as it is suggested that ILTs typically apply to higher level leaders who often have limited leader-follower interactions, thus a lack of individuating information is more likely to induce prototype-based judgments and a greater reliance on category prototypes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1989; Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord & Maher, 1991). Following the completion of the task, participants were asked to select whether they considered a particular industry in their response and to indicate which industry they considered which served as a manipulation check (Appendix D). See Figures 5 and 6 for example statements. Similar to Study 2, the manipulated content is bolded and italicized in the figures for clarity, however this was not done in the scenarios the participants read.

Figure 5

Manufacturing Scenario

The executive leader from the ***manufacturing*** industry is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. The organization has clear safety policies required at all ***manufacturing*** locations.

Figure 6

Healthcare Scenario

The executive leader from the ***healthcare*** industry is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. The organization has clear safety policies required at all ***healthcare*** locations.

Situational Valence

Situational valence was manipulated similarly to that described in Study 2. A manipulation check was issued to ensure that participants distinguished between the positive and negative events. Participants will be asked to rate 4 items on a 5-point Likert scale (1= not at all accurate; 5= very accurate) based on the extent to which they match the valence of the situation they were exposed to. Items include "I would describe the situation as positive," "I would describe the situation as negative," "Overall the situation seemed good for the organization," and "Overall the situation seemed detrimental to the organization" (α=0.981) (Appendix D). See Figures 3 and 4 for sample statements.

Dependent Variables

Implicit Theories of Leader Emotion Ratings

Study 3 leveraged the same dependent variable measure as discussed in Studies 1 and 2 (Appendix D). Emotion items in this measure are aggregated to form six emotional attributes or into two general positive and negative factors. These include the positive emotions of (1) *Cheer* (items include *Cheerful, Excitement,* and *Enthusiasm*; α=0.938), (2) *Pride* (items include *Proud* and *Pride*; *r*=0.908), and (3) *Calm* (items include *At Ease, Relaxed,* and *Serene*; α=0.874) and the negative emotions of (4) *Anger* (items include *Anger, Upset, Disgust* and *Aggravated*; α=0.936), (5) *Fear* (items include *Afraid, Scared, Fear,* and *Nervous*; α=0.934) and (6) *Remorse* (items include *Regret, Shame* and Guilt; α=0.910).

Covariates

The same covariates as described in Study 2 were used in Study 3 (Appendix D).

Analysis

The same analysis plan as described in Study 2 was used in Study 3.

Study 3 Results

Prior to hypothesis testing, descriptive statistics, correlations, scale reliability, manipulation checks and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. Table 9 reflects the correlations, descriptives and scale reliabilities of the first order ITLE emotions and covariates.

Manipulation Checks

Independent samples t-tests were conducted to evaluate the manipulations of situational valence (positive or negative) and leader industry (manufacturing or healthcare). The results revealed that the situational valence manipulation resulted in significant mean differences based on the condition ($t(350)=31.34$, $p<0.001$) such that those in the positive condition ($M=4.48$, $SD=0.72$) perceived the situation as more positive on average than participants in the negative condition ($M=1.62$, $SD=0.98$) where higher scores indicated perceiving the situation as positive. Similarly, the results of the t-tests revealed that the leader industry manipulation resulted in significant mean differences based on the condition ($t(341)=-3.44$, $p<0.001$) such that those in the manufacturing condition ($M=2.06$, $SD=1.00$) perceived the leader's industry to be manufacturing more on average than participants in the healthcare condition ($M=2.36$, $SD=0.77$) where lower scores indicate a manufacturing industry and higher scores indicate a healthcare industry. It should be noted that some participants listed N/A, Other or left blank the manipulation check for leader industry. To check the stability of the findings, the analysis was conducted with and without these individuals and the results of the manipulation check and subsequent findings remained the same, thus these participants were retained.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The same CFA process as outlined above in the Baseline Control and Study 2 results sections was conducted in this independent sample to confirm the factor structure as outlined in

the literature in the new sample. Similar to the Baseline Control and Study 1, this analysis confirmed the factor structure outlined in prior research ($\chi^2(137)=537.73$, $p<0.000$, CFI=0.95, RMSEA=0.09, SRMR=0.04). Unlike the Baseline Control study but similar to Study 2, the higher-order CFA was able to converge and yielded reliable fit statistics. As with the first-order CFA, the higher-order analysis confirmed the factor structure as outlined in prior research ($\chi^2(145)=639.29$, $p<0.000$, CFI=0.94, RMSEA=0.10, SRMR=0.06). See Table 10 for full factor loadings and model fit statistics.

MANCOVA

To test the hypotheses, which focused on the relationship between situational valence, leader industry, and ITLE ratings, a MANCOVA was conducted. When checking for outliers, box plots revealed that there were no univariate outliers to be concerned with. Mahalanobis distance revealed two potential multivariate outliers, however after further investigation of ITLE ratings it was determined that these were legitimate but unusual multivariate profiles rather than issues with the data and therefore the participants were retained. Checking the MANCOVA assumption of variance-covariance equality, it was revealed that the first-order emotions failed Box's M test. As such, Pillai's Trace was interpreted which is robust to violations of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. Significant Pillai's Trace values indicate that there is evidence that the groups differ on at least one linear combination of the dependent variables and warrants exploration of the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects to determine which specific dependent variables contribute to the multivariate effect (Pillai, 1954).

Theory informed the covariates to include in the study and correlations guided the selection of covariates to be included in the model for the dependent variables of interest. Initially, age, race, years of work experience, level of interaction with one's supervisor and all of

the PANAS emotions were included in the model. Those covariates with significant relationships according to Pillai's Trace were retained in the next iteration of the model. As such, Race as well as PANAS At Ease, Discouraged, Enthusiastic and Irritated were retained in the final analysis. According to Pillai's Trace, situational valence was a significant predictor of ITLE ratings (Pillai's Trace=0.575, $F(6, 515)= 115.935$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.575$) while leader industry (Pillai's Trace=0.009, $F(6, 515)= 0.811$, $p=0.562$, $\eta^2= 0.01$) and the two-way interaction between situational valence and leader industry (Pillai's Trace=0.015, $F(6, 515)= 1.328$, $p=0.243$, $\eta^2= 0.015$) were not significant.

The Tests of Between-Subjects Effects revealed main effects of situational valence on each of the first-order emotions and pairwise comparisons with a Bonferroni correction were evaluated. First, looking at the positive first-order emotions, for Cheer ($F(6, 515)= 446.483$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.462$) the positive situation ($M = 5.13$, $SD = 0.08$) elicited higher levels than did the negative situation ($M = 2.58$, $SD = 0.09$) but was not significantly different than the baseline control ($M = 5.40$, $SD = 0.08$). For Pride ($F(6, 515)= 352.94$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.404$) the positive situation ($M = 5.64$, $SD = 0.10$) elicited higher levels than did the negative situation ($M = 2.84$, $SD = 0.11$) but was not significantly different than the baseline condition ($M = 5.61$, $SD = 0.10$). For Calm ($F(6, 515)= 239.673$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.315$) the positive situation ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 0.09$) elicited higher levels than did the negative situation ($M = 2.63$, $SD = 0.09$) but was not significantly different than the baseline condition ($M = 4.80$, $SD = 0.09$). These results demonstrate partial support for Hypothesis 5a.

Next, looking at the negative first-order emotions, for Anger ($F(6, 515)= 422.602$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.448$) the negative situation ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 0.09$) elicited higher levels than did the positive situation ($M = 1.82$, $SD = 0.09$) and the baseline control ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 0.09$). For

Fear, ($F(6, 515)= 157.485$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.232$) the negative situation ($M = 3.65$, $SD = 0.09$) elicited higher levels than did the positive situation ($M = 2.00$, $SD = 0.09$) and the baseline control ($M = 1.82$, $SD = 0.09$). For Remorse ($F(6, 515)= 347.266$, $p<0.001$, $\eta^2= 0.400$) the negative situation ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 0.09$) elicited higher levels than did the positive situation ($M = 1.58$, $SD = 0.08$) and the baseline control ($M = 1.79$, $SD = 0.08$). These results demonstrate full support for Hypothesis 5b.

With the non-significant results of leader industry and the interaction between situational valence and leader industry, RQ3.1 and RQ3.2 are addressed. Leader industry, comparing manufacturing and healthcare leaders, did not elicit different positive or negative ITLEs. Further, situational valence did not moderate the relationship between leader industry and the ITLEs elicited. See Tables 11-13 for full results and Figure 3 for visualization. See Table 14 for a summary of hypotheses and findings.

Study 3 Discussion

Study 3 matched the design of Study 2, exploring the role of both situational features and leader characteristics in shaping ITLEs by examining the situational characteristic of valence, but changing the leader characteristic to industry. Replicating prior results, situational valence significantly influenced the ITLEs endorsed by followers. Once again positively valanced conditions elicited higher positive emotions and lower negative emotions compared to negatively valanced conditions. This study demonstrated slightly different patterns compared to the baseline condition such that, compared to baseline, the positively valanced condition was slightly lower on the negative emotion of Anger while not being significantly different on any of the positive emotions or the negative emotions of Fear or Remorse. As stated previously, this is not a particularly surprising finding given the positive bias demonstrated in the baseline condition.

Importantly, the patterns of negative context replicated across studies such that the negative conditions elicited significantly lower positive emotions and significantly higher negative emotions than both the positive condition and baseline condition and the negatively valanced conditions rated all of the negative emotions as more typical of a leader in the presented context than all of the positive emotions. Not only is this finding important for the reasons discussed above relative to the connectionist perspective, but the replicated findings across studies demonstrate stability in the relationship between situational valence and ITLEs.

Similar to Study 2, while situational valence influenced ITLE ratings, the leader characteristic, this time leader industry (i.e., manufacturing or healthcare), did not influence the expectations of leader emotions addressing research questions one and two. Research has explored the role of leader industries relative to ILTs in general, demonstrating that leader categories can modify the degree of particular traits that are endorsed, suggesting that combinations of ILT factors and traits may be more salient depending on the context (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Epitropaki, et al., 2013; Lord, et al., 1982; 1984). For instance, differences across industries such as service and manufacturing have emerged where manufacturing employees rated leader characteristics such as Sensitivity lower and Tyranny as higher than service employees (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). While this is the case, it is important to acknowledge two reasons why similar findings did not occur in this research.

First, different approaches were taken to explore the relationship between industry and implicit theory ratings. Prior research on ILTs that explored this relationship gathered data from followers within the industry of interest, whereas the current study asked participants about a leader in a specific industry, regardless of the industry the participants themselves worked in. This operationalization of industry may result in differences in implicit ratings and should be

noted. However, participant industry was captured as a covariate and was found to be non-significant. An exploratory post-hoc analysis revealed that follower industry did not significantly influence ITLE ratings (F=0.641, p=0.981, η^2=0.02) and those followers that stated that they worked in healthcare (N=32) and manufacturing (N=42) specifically did not significantly differ on their ratings of any of the emotions. Thus, while not the focus of the study, follower industry also did not influence ITLE ratings. Future research should explore whether industry differences emerge in ITLE ratings when followers are asked to consider leaders in their own industry.

Second, ILTs address the social-cognitive expectations of leaders as perceived by followers which substantively differ from emotional expectations. It may be the case that followers expect their leaders to behave differently in the social-cognitive space depending on the industry but not emotionally. For instance, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) found that those working in a manufacturing industry rated traits such as domineering, pushy and manipulative higher whereas those working in a service industry rated traits such as sensitive and helpful higher. There are clear differences in the demand of these industries and thus, these social-cognitive differences make sense. Relative to emotional expectations however, the results here suggest that leader industry does not modify emotional expectations, but rather the situational circumstances determine the emotions deemed appropriate to be displayed by leaders. These findings suggest that leaders are expected to behave emotionally similar across industries but differ depending on the specific situation. Similar to the comments made regarding leader gender, the generalizability of ITLEs across leader industry is promising, suggesting that leader training and training against rater biases relative to ITLEs, two important practical implications to be discussed, may also be generalizable.

General Discussion

Leader influence is ultimately derived from being categorized as a leader by followers (Lord & Maher, 1991) thus the study of implicit leadership theories is critical to understanding the process of leadership (Shamir, 2007). However, the literature on ILTs had not included follower expectations of leader emotions until recently, when implicit theories of leader emotions were developed (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). While this work took an important first step in understanding follower expectations of leader emotions, more work was needed to better understand the role of contextual features on ITLEs. The literature on leader perception argues that they are grounded in social, cultural, task and interpersonal environments (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Lord & Smith, 1999; Zaccaro, 2001), thus leader behavior also needs to be grounded in the context and adjusted to fit the needs of such context in order to meet the demands of perceivers across different situations (Lord, et al., 2001a; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). The study of leadership and emotions should therefore be contextualized to better understand which leader prescriptions apply universally and which are dependent on the situation (Johns, 2024; Gooty, et al., 2010; Matthews, et al., 2025).

Narrow views on leadership and leader effectiveness may translate to narrow attempts to identify optimal styles and training which is likely to have limited success given the contextual nature of leadership (Lord, et al., 2001b; Johns, 2024; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). Further, situational variables are thought to influence subordinate preferences for a particular pattern of leadership behaviors, thereby influencing the impact of the leader on subordinate satisfaction (Yukl, et al., 2020). Successful leadership requires flexible adjustment to the contextual constraints (Hall, et al., 1998) and thus evaluation rests on others awareness of this requirement and the contextual factors that may influence perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Further, research has demonstrated that implicit theories can bias leader ratings of effectiveness (e.g., Hansbrough, et al., 2015; Eden & Leviatan, 1975). As such, it is strongly recommended that contextual factors be included in leadership research to better understand their role in implicit theory development (Junker & van Dick, 2014; Antonakis, et al., 2004; Johns, 2024). Additionally, the literature cautions the over-reliance on prototypes for making judgments about leaders in specific situations as this can lead to contextual factors and situational characteristics being overlooked which can ultimately bias the recall of actual leader behavior (Lord, et al., 1982; Rush & Russell, 1988). Understanding that emotions and perceptions of leader emotion displays can influence leader ratings as well (Gooty, et al., 2010; Madera & Smith, 2009; Rothman, 2011; Visser, et al., 2013; DeRue, et al., 2011), this knowledge can inform the best ways to minimize biases in leader ratings such as encouraging employees to consider their implicit assumptions (Junker & van Dick, 2014; Schyns & Schilling, 2011). This research, therefore, provides clarity on the role of context relative to implicit theories of leader emotions to better understand affective biases which can then inform leader assessment and shape knowledge on the functional perspective of emotions relative to leaders.

Study 1 sought to replicate prior research, exploring ITLEs outside of any explicit context. The findings of Sy and Van Knippenberg (2021) were effectively replicated such that ITLEs demonstrated a strong positive bias, where followers rated positive emotions as more characteristic of typical leaders than negative emotions. While important, there are critical issues associated with considering ITLEs in a vacuum and perpetuating the positive bias we see relative to emotions and the literature recommends evaluating the contextual variables that may modify these prototypes. Thus, Studies 2 and 3 explored the influence of situational features and leader characteristics on ITLE ratings by manipulating the situational characteristic of valence and

leader characteristics of gender and industry respectively. The findings across both studies demonstrated that situational characteristics do influence ITLE ratings as stable patterns emerged regarding the influence of situational valence. The results demonstrated that followers are able to modify their expectations of leader emotions such that positive situations called for expectations of positive leader emotions and negative situations called for expectations of negative leader emotions. This pattern follows the connectionist perspective of implicit theories, suggesting that the context may influence which aspects of our prototype is activated to best fit the situation. Importantly, across both studies, the findings showed that leader characteristics (i.e., gender and industry) did not influence ITLE ratings. Taken together, these findings are encouraging as it demonstrates that leaders may be afforded the opportunity to display negative emotions, which has implications for surface acting, well-being, and effectiveness, and that ITLEs are generalizable across leader characteristics, which improves equality across leader evaluations and makes training in this context more generalizable.

Therefore, this research takes a step towards reducing the positive emotional bias in leadership and encourages a more nuanced examination of ITLEs. As such, it is noted in the literature that it is important for leaders to have an awareness of their emotional expression as these can benefit or harm their perceptions on behalf of followers where it is more beneficial when these emotions are congruent with leadership more broadly (Trichas, et al., 2017). Further, it is encouraged that organizations and leaders establish a culture and norm that is accepting and understanding of negative emotions in order to promote the functional aspects of negative emotions (Elfenbein, 2023; Hochschild, 1983) and not dismiss their value to organizations (Geddis, et al., 2018). Thus, research in this area provides a basis for understanding how context

influences the expectations and perceptions of leaders and can inform practice on leader assessment and development.

Limitations

Study limitations should be noted before discussing potential theoretical and practical implications. First, this study was conducted using an online scenario-based presentation of an organizational situation and paper leader, varying across industries and genders. Participants may not have felt engaged with the scenario, industry or leader since these were hypothetical and not tailored to the participant's experience. While the scenarios were designed according to best practice recommendations (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014), stratified sampling across particular industries should be considered in future research and participants should be asked about situations and leaders they would expect to normally encounter to enhance engagement. Additionally, the use of online studies involving leadership hold merit given the wide transition to remote and hybrid work environments. However, lab experiments online limit the fidelity of the simulation, and thus future research should consider the use of high-fidelity methods such as videos or critical incidents of personal experiences.

Second, regarding Study 2 on situational valence and leader gender, a prototype-based approach was used to explore whether participants held different ITLEs depending on leader gender. Prior research took a target-based approach, which considers a specific target over time and conditions by asking participants to consider their specific leader, finding significant results (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). While the current research serves as an extension to prior work, leveraging a different approach to test whether leader gender influences ITLE ratings, it is limited to the use of a single approach (i.e., the use of a prototype-based approach). Future research should consider both a target-based approach and prototype-based approach in the same

study to more effectively compare the results. Additionally, leader gender was considered as a binary variable in this study (male or female). Future research should explore whether other leader gender identities influence ITLE ratings and expectations of emotions.

Third, regarding Study 3 on situational valence and leader industry, only two leader industries were explored, manufacturing and healthcare, which were chosen given their differences in job demands and environments (e.g., blue-collar vs. white-collar, etc.). Future research should explore whether the findings of this research hold across other industry comparisons.

Implications

Leader effectiveness is often defined as the success of the leader's team and can be evaluated both subjectively (i.e., ratings of effectiveness) or objectively (i.e., based on follower performance) (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). While there are different sources used to determine leader effectiveness, the field relies heavily on follower ratings of behavior, such as 360-degree feedback, given that leadership reflects a dynamic interaction between leaders and followers (Riggio, et al., 2008; Shamir, et al., 2007; Hansbrough, et al., 2015). Beyond leader ratings, the literature often debates the differences between leader emergence and leader effectiveness where leader emergence reflects being viewed as "leader-like" and being promoted into leadership roles and effectiveness reflects the leaders' influence on key outcomes (Hogan, et al., 1994; Kaiser, et al., 2008; Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; Galvin, et al., 2024). Importantly, those that emerge as leaders are not always the same as those who are going to be effective leaders (e.g., Kaiser, et al., 2008; Kalish & Luria, 2016; Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015; Treglown, et al., 2020, etc.). This issue may be related to the biased manner in which leaders are rated and the value that organizations place on these ratings for outcomes such as promotion (Hansbrough, et al., 2015; DeNisi & Kluger, 2000;

Schyns, 2006). These biases are related to individual differences among followers (Bono, et al., 2012), the follower's role as contributors in a process they are rating (Hunter, et al., 2007), and the implicit theories held by followers (Shondrick, et al., 2010). Relative to the current research, it is established that follower ratings of leadership effectiveness often reflects impressions and perceptions of leadership based on implicit theories often with greater weight than actual observed behaviors (Hansbrough, et al., 2015; Rush & Russell, 1988). Further, initial research has demonstrated that ITLEs can influence ratings of leader effectiveness and follower impressions of their leaders (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). Considering that perceptions of emotions and emotional displays influence leader ratings (Gooty, et al., 2010; Madera & Smith, 2009; Rothman, 2011; Visser, et al., 2013; DeRue, et al., 2011), there are real implications for better understanding follower implicit theories of leader emotions, both theoretical and practical.

Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, this research expands on the literature studying implicit leadership theories. Specifically, it contributes to the development of the emotional aspect of implicit theories which is critical to better understanding leader expectations and perceptions (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). Firstly, this research serves as a replication of prior research on ITLEs outside of any explicit context, verifying that there is a positive emotion bias in these implicit theories in a vacuum. Building on this initial work, this research establishes a rank order of the higher order emotions that facilitate this positive bias. The findings contribute to both the verification of ITLEs and builds on the literature discussing the positive bias in leadership and emotions research (Gooty, et al., 2010). To further address this, Studies 2 and 3 added context to the study of ITLEs.

While theories have been developed and research has been conducted on earlier versions of ILTs relative to the role of context on schema development, the literature has yet to explore these relationships with the newer ITLEs. As such, this research critically examined several contextual variables, to test the stability or malleability of ITLEs. This evaluation contributes to both the ITLE literature and addresses the context deficit in leadership research (Johns, 2024). The findings that characteristics of the situation itself, but not necessarily characteristics of the leader, influence ITLE ratings is important as it contributes to the connectionist perspective on implicit theories relative to leader emotions. Future research should continue to explore contextual variables, both features of the situation and broader context (e.g., situational strength, task types, etc.) and leader or organizational characteristics (e.g., generation, organization size, culture, etc.), relative to ITLE ratings.

Finally, this research took alternative approaches to evaluating leader characteristics. For instance, a prototype-based approach was used in Study 2 to study leader gender and participants were asked to rate leaders from industries that do not necessarily align with their own in Study 3. These are theoretically and methodologically important as they inform future research on the differences in approaches and encourages further exploration. Future research should explore different approaches and methods simultaneously and compare the results to better understand the stability of the findings. Overall, this research contributes to the body of work on ITLEs, building the literature and furthering our understanding of leadership expectations and perceptions relative to emotions and across contexts.

Practical Implications

In terms of practical implications, it is important to acknowledge that there is a "dark side" of schema stability, where leaders who become reluctant to change and make unpleasant

decisions fear a loss of prototypicality (Epitropaki, et al., 2013). In other words, leaders may feel limited in their ability to be flexible due to strong leadership schemas (Hogg & Van Knippenberg, 2003). To break this pattern, it is valuable to consider ITLEs in context and as dynamic as it is important for leader evaluation and leader development. The literature has suggested a need for the development of an awareness in both leaders and followers about how leadership expectations in context shape action tendencies such as leader evaluation and trust (Epitropaki, et al., 2013). As such, this research considers ITLEs in context and as dynamic which informs organizations on the expected emotional displays of leaders and the value of understanding context which can subsequently be encouraged as a consideration in leader evaluations. Ultimately, this research positions ITLEs in real-world contexts for practical use.

Leader ratings are influenced by subordinate cognitive and emotional sensemaking (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Staw, 1975; Hansbrough, et al., 2015), reflecting rater information processing and implicit theories rather than the leader's behavior, however this is still a dominant methodology in leadership research and practice (Hunter, et al., 2007; Hansbrough, et al., 2015). For instance, raters typically recall prior judgments based on ILTs and use leader impressions rather than actual behaviors to inform their ratings (Hastie & Park, 1986; Hansbrough, et al., 2015; Rush & Russell, 1988). Further, ITLEs specifically have been shown to predict ratings of leader effectiveness and leader impression (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021). To better capture actual leader behavior, ratings of effectiveness should focus on explicit events occurring in specific contexts (Shondrick & Lord, 2010) as techniques that emphasize the event level may improve leader measurement accuracy (Kuhnen, et al., 2001; Naidoo, et al., 2010; Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Further, more research on the role of context relative to leader emotions and implicit leadership theories is critical for informing and improving leader assessment given that

there are affective biases in leadership measures as well (Brown & Keeping, 2005). This research highlights the role of context in the ratings of emotions in implicit leadership theories, demonstrating ITLEs dynamic nature similar to ILTs.

Given that job performance metrics for leaders often involve subordinate evaluation, it is important to be aware of potentially biasing factors that may influence these ratings. As discussed, there are limitations of employee survey measures of leaders when considering the systematic biases of implicit theories (Phillips & Lord, 1986; Hansbrough, et al., 2015). As such, the findings from this research can be used to improve employee frame of reference training on rating performance metrics, such as leader effectiveness, by providing insight on the role of prototypes, emotional bias, and the importance of context on perceptions of leader emotions. Future research should explore the effectiveness of introducing ITLEs in rater training on reducing bias in leader effectiveness ratings. Another option for organizations may be the routine assessment of global leadership perception within their firm which can subsequently be used as a control for implicit theory effects on the analysis of leader ratings (Phillips & Lord, 1986). Future research should explore whether measuring ITLEs in organizations serve as an adequate control for the implicit theory bias on leadership evaluation. Either way, this research enhances our understanding of how ITLEs are not only developed but how they are applied in organizations, informing practices relative to leader assessment and development.

Beyond the consideration of ratings, this research highlights a cautionary approach to labeling negative emotions as purely negative, as perceivers may then isolate these behaviors and miss or distort adaptive negative emotional displays and label them as ineffective or inappropriate in the case of leaders. Promisingly, the results of this research suggest that situational characteristics such as valence may minimize the positive bias demonstrated in the

literature, affording leaders the opportunity to appropriately display negative emotions. The importance of this allowance lies in the experience of emotional labor for leaders who feel the need to engage in surface-acting and faking to remain consistent with display norms and perceived expectations (Hochschild, 1983; Zapf, et al., 2021). This emotional labor can harm perceptions of leader authenticity, well-being, and follower trust in the leader (Hunt, et al., 2008; Gardner, et al., 2009). In consideration of these findings and to provide suggestions on how to minimize the rate of leader burnout due to emotional labor, training and coaching programs can leverage these findings to make leaders aware of follower expectations and provide guidance on determining accurate display rules for emotions that align with specific contexts and situations. The literature has suggested that leader training programs are rarely attuned to the role of emotions (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021), thus ITLEs and the current work may provide further justification for their inclusion. Additionally, the findings discussed demonstrate that situational characteristics rather than leader characteristics shape ITLE ratings. Despite gender stereotypes and differences in industry requirements, ITLEs demonstrated stability across leader characteristics which helps to ease the challenges associated with designing training programs that are generalizable across leaders. Rather, these programs can now focus on situational characteristics such as valence which transcend industries, organizations, and genders. Future research should explore the development of leadership training and development programs that introduce an awareness of one's ITLE.

Conclusion

The purpose of the current research is to develop a better understanding of follower expectations of leader emotions across varying contexts. The results from prior research are replicated, highlighting that there is a positive bias relative to leader emotions when examined

outside of any explicit context. Importantly, this work demonstrated that characteristics of the situation (i.e., valence), but not necessarily characteristics of the leader (i.e., gender or industry), influence the emotions endorsed as typical of a leader. Given that the prototypes of leader emotions have shown to influence ratings of effectiveness and impressions, these findings suggest the importance of considering leadership context in leader evaluation and training to limit the role of implicit theory bias. As such, the importance of the role of context on emotion schemas of leadership is demonstrated, highlighting the value of taking a nuanced approach to the study of ITLEs and suggests implications for leader assessment and development.

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Tables

Table 1

Study 1 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Covariates														
1. Age	41.25	11.54	--											
2. Gender	--	--	0.162*	--										
3. Race	--	--	0.211**	-0.045	--									
4. EFL	--	--	0.137	0.000	-0.294**	--								
5. Education	--	--	0.011	0.032	-0.117	0.141	--							
6. Employment	--	--	0.147*	0.137	0.026	0.005	-0.151*	--						
7. Industry	--	--	-0.084	-0.210**	-0.046	-0.032	-0.010	0.129	--					
8. YearsExp	19.49	10.70	0.861**	0.133	0.272**	0.015	-0.109	0.097	-0.145	--				
9. Leadership1	--	--	-0.059	0.000	0.040	-0.039	-0.050	0.191*	0.118	-0.094	--			
10. Leadership2	--	--	0.142	-0.125	0.072	-0.157	-0.020	-0.060	0.061	0.078	-0.077	--		
11. P_Angry	1.48	0.68	-0.107	-0.057	0.064	-0.019	0.014	0.003	0.011	-0.144	0.013	0.078	--	
12. P_Calm	3.49	0.99	0.183*	-0.094	-0.020	0.019	-0.031	-0.041	0.084	0.157*	-0.060	0.068	-0.457**	--
13. P_Cheer	2.95	1.14	0.151*	0.173*	-0.034	0.039	0.107	-0.003	-0.040	0.103	-0.103	0.139	-0.322**	0.505**
14. P_Guilty	1.45	0.76	-0.087	-0.096	-0.006	-0.011	-0.036	0.094	-0.104	-0.153*	-0.044	0.028	0.372**	-0.355**
15. P_Proud	2.84	1.14	0.070	0.066	-0.020	-0.035	0.085	-0.162*	0.051	0.095	-0.160*	0.142	-0.353**	0.411**
16. P_Scared	1.51	0.76	-0.144	-0.021	-0.113	0.021	-0.083	0.017	-0.018	-0.165*	0.019	0.144	0.460**	-0.384**
Dependent Variables														
17. ITLE_Anger	2.62	1.27	0.067	-0.122	0.011	-0.076	-0.045	0.115	-0.042	0.125	0.040	0.094	0.310**	-0.220**
18. ITLE_Calm	4.80	1.14	0.090	-0.041	-0.011	0.020	0.044	0.041	0.200**	0.049	-0.038	0.123	-0.233**	0.383**
19. ITLE_Cheer	5.41	0.90	0.100	0.117	-0.098	0.061	0.105	0.046	0.114	0.026	-0.106	0.185*	-0.286**	0.294**
20. ITLE_Fear	1.81	0.91	-0.012	-0.192**	-0.054	-0.049	-0.064	0.036	0.074	-0.008	-0.027	0.262**	0.266**	-0.103
21. ITLE_Pride	5.62	1.04	0.034	0.067	0.001	0.062	0.114	0.049	-0.053	0.031	-0.069	-0.019	-0.114	-0.015
22. ITLE_Remorse	1.79	0.86	0.001	-0.193**	-0.046	-0.024	-0.129	0.061	0.040	0.020	-0.004	0.248**	0.298**	-0.165*

Note. N=180. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities presented along diagonals. ITLE_Pride diagonal represents the correlation between Pride and Proud items. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$. EFL=English as first language. Employment=Employment Status. YearsExp=Years of Experience. Leadership1=Leadership Experience. Leadership2=Leadership level. P_EMOTION=PANAS Trait Emotions. ITLE_Emotion= ITLE Emotion ratings.

Table 1 cont'd

Study 1 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Covariates										
1. Age										
2. Gender										
3. Race										
4. EFL										
5. Education										
6. Employment										
7. Industry										
8. YearsExp										
9. Leadership1										
10. Leadership2										
11. P_Angry										
12. P_Calm										
13. P_Cheer	--									
14. P_Guilty	-0.230**	--								
15. P_Proud	0.612**	-0.303**	--							
16. P_Scared	-0.280**	0.565**	-0.273**	--						
Dependent Variables										
17. ITLE_Anger	-0.248**	0.224**	-0.277**	0.349**	(0.87)					
18. ITLE_Calm	0.222**	-0.093	0.207**	-0.168*	-0.312**	(0.79)				
19. ITLE_Cheer	0.383**	-0.056	0.357**	-0.158*	-0.322**	0.524**	(0.79)			
20. ITLE_Fear	-0.051	0.211**	-0.110	0.364**	0.509**	-0.253**	-0.183*	(0.84)		
21. ITLE_Pride	-0.002	-0.056	0.063	-0.139	-0.037	0.236**	0.320**	-0.163*	(0.58)	
22. ITLE_Remorse	-0.160*	0.276**	-0.125	0.387**	0.618**	-0.271**	-0.191*	0.784**	-0.170*	(0.78)

Note. N=180. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities presented along diagonals. ITLE_Pride diagonal represents the correlation between Pride and Proud items. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$. EFL=English as first language. Employment=Employment Status. YearsExp=Years of Experience. Leadership1=Leadership Experience. Leadership2=Leadership level. P_EMOTION=PANAS Trait Emotions. ITLE_Emotion= ITLE Emotion ratings.

Table 2

Study 1 CFA Model Fit and Factor Loadings

Model Fit	$\chi^2(137)$	*p*	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	BIC
6-factor	304.467**	0.000	0.90	0.08	0.06	9694.85
ITLE Scales			**Factor Loadings** (R^2)			
	Anger	*Calm*	*Cheer*	*Fear*	*Pride*	*Remorse*
Aggravated	0.842 (0.709)					
Anger	0.873 (0.762)					
Disgust	0.630 (0.397)					
Upset	0.809 (0.655)					
At Ease		0.740 (0.574)				
Relaxed		0.822 (0.676)				
Serene		0.674 (0.455)				
Cheer			0.606 (0.367)			
Enthusiasm			0.875 (0.766)			
Excitement			0.745 (0.556)			
Afraid				0.658 (0.479)		
Fear				0.722 (0.521)		
Nervous				0.744 (0.553)		
Scared				0.866 (0.786)		
Pride					0.693 (0.481)	
Proud					0.842 (0.701)	
Guilt						0.658 (0.432)
Regret						0.790 (0.624)
Shame						0.772 (0.596)

Note. N=180. Acceptable Comparative Fit Index (CFI) > 0.90, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) ≤0.10, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) ≤0.08. Factor loadings reflect the completely standardized solution (std.all) or regression weights. R^2 represented in parentheses.

Table 3

Study 1 Mixed Effects Model

Type III Tests of Fixed Effects				
Source	Numerator df	Denominator df	*F*	*p*
Intercept	1	2	25.378	0.037
Emotion	5	1074	549.362	<0.001

Estimated Marginal Means			
Emotion	Mean	Std. Error	df
ITLE_Pride	5.617	0.733	2.037
ITLE_Cheer	5.409	0.733	2.037
ITLE_Calm	4.798	0.733	2.037
ITLE_Anger	2.619	0.733	2.037
ITLE_Fear	1.810	0.733	2.037
ITLE_Remorse	1.787	0.733	2.037

Note. N=180. Pairwise comparisons with a Bonferroni correction indicated that all of the positive emotions were rated significantly higher than all of the negative emotions (all *p* values <0.001).

Table 4

Study 2 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Covariates														
1. Age	41.40	11.13	--											
2. Gender	--	--	0.145**	--										
3. Race	--	--	0.140**	0.034	--									
4. EFL	--	--	0.101	0.011	-0.215**	--								
5. Education	--	--	-0.104*	0.061	-0.073	0.043	--							
6. Employment	--	--	0.017	0.026	-0.071	0.012	-0.108*	--						
7. Industry	--	--	-0.114*	-0.145**	-0.012	0.008	-0.017	0.057	--					
8. YearsExp	19.83	11.11	0.909**	0.143**	0.190**	0.055	-0.158**	-0.061	-0.071	--				
9. Leadership1	--	--	-0.213**	-0.036	-0.053	0.095	-0.075	0.069	-0.020	-0.235**	--			
10. Leadership2	--	--	0.193**	0.010	-0.074	0.067	0.113	0.167**	0.123*	0.154*	-0.119	--		
11. P_Angry	1.47	0.75	-0.053	-0.065	0.032	-0.024	-0.069	0.022	0.021	-0.065	0.088	-0.034	--	
12. P_Calm	3.44	1.03	0.065	0.003	-0.117*	0.050	0.068	-0.108*	-0.061	0.071	-0.104*	0.047	-0.337**	--
13. P_Cheer	2.79	1.13	0.104*	0.103	-0.078	0.005	0.201**	-0.057	-0.090	0.072	-0.160**	0.137*	-0.173**	0.534**
14. P_Guilty	1.43	0.76	-0.127*	-0.037	0.030	-0.046	-0.118*	0.147**	0.026	-0.132*	0.003	-0.093	0.407**	-0.321**
15. P_Proud	2.70	1.21	0.098	0.058	-0.015	-0.021	0.133*	-0.127*	-0.036	0.049	-0.175**	0.092	-0.191**	0.415**
16. P_Scared	1.44	0.79	-0.032	-0.036	0.057	0.010	-0.013	0.101	0.059	-0.033	0.013	-0.027	0.491**	-0.350**
Dependent Variables														
17. ITLE_Anger	3.18	1.89	-0.040	-0.033	-0.004	0.062	-0.022	0.071	0.121*	-0.047	0.042	0.090	0.078	-0.069
18. ITLE_Calm	3.60	1.64	0.050	0.026	0.013	-0.020	0.049	-0.049	-0.144**	0.050	-0.094	-0.076	-0.015	0.142**
19. ITLE_Cheer	3.81	1.78	0.102	-0.011	0.047	-0.001	-0.010	-0.051	-0.106*	0.084	-0.083	-0.065	0.038	0.066
20. ITLE_Fear	2.64	1.52	-0.106*	0.007	0.049	-0.001	-0.012	0.008	0.024	-0.138**	-0.010	0.021	0.090	-0.131*
21. ITLE_Pride	4.21	2.09	0.077	-0.007	0.053	0.002	0.000	-0.062	-0.112*	0.068	-0.071	-0.103	0.086	-0.006
22. ITLE_Remorse	2.58	1.57	-0.142**	-0.018	-0.003	0.000	-0.034	-0.005	0.101*	-0.165**	0.038	0.065	0.061	-0.037

Note. N=358. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities presented along diagonals. ITLE_Pride diagonal represents the correlation between Pride and Proud items. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$. EFL=English as first language. Employment=Employment Status. YearsExp=Years of Experience. Leadership1=Leadership Experience. Leadership2=Leadership level. P_EMOTION=PANAS Trait Emotions. ITLE_Emotion= ITLE Emotion ratings.

Table 4 cont'd

Study 2 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Covariates										
1. Age										
2. Gender										
3. Race										
4. EFL										
5. Education										
6. Employment										
7. Industry										
8. YearsExp										
9. Leadership1										
10. Leadership2										
11. P_Angry										
12. P_Calm										
13. P_Cheer	--									
14. P_Guilty	-0.200**	--								
15. P_Proud	0.635**	-0.216**	--							
16. P_Scared	-0.200**	0.633**	-0.203**	--						
Dependent Variables										
17. ITLE_Anger	-0.163*	0.175**	-0.134*	0.151**	(0.94)					
18. ITLE_Calm	0.186**	-0.074	0.159**	-0.036	-0.764**	(0.87)				
19. ITLE_Cheer	0.273**	-0.047	0.222**	-0.034	-0.764**	0.818**	(0.94)			
20. ITLE_Fear	-0.121*	0.217**	-0.114*	0.197**	0.702**	-0.561**	-0.579**	(0.93)		
21. ITLE_Pride	0.147**	-0.012	0.182**	-0.019	-0.689**	0.680**	0.813**	-0.519**	(0.91)	
22. ITLE_Remorse	-0.122*	0.187**	-0.081	0.149**	0.780**	-0.614**	-0.672**	0.819**	-0.632**	(0.91)

Note. N=358. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities presented along diagonals. ITLE_Pride diagonal represents the correlation between Pride and Proud items. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$. EFL=English as first language. Employment=Employment Status. YearsExp=Years of Experience. Leadership1=Leadership Experience. Leadership2=Leadership level. P_EMOTION=PANAS Trait Emotions. ITLE_Emotion= ITLE Emotion ratings.

Table 5

Study 2 CFA Model Fit and Factor Loadings

Model Fit	$\chi^2(137)$	*p*	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	BIC
6-factor	571.074**	0.000	0.95	0.09	0.05	22475.85
ITLE Scales			**Factor Loadings** (R^2)			
	Anger	*Calm*	*Cheer*	*Fear*	*Pride*	*Remorse*
Aggravated	0.917 (0.841)					
Anger	0.926 (0.857)					
Disgust	0.830 (0.689)					
Upset	0.919 (0.845)					
At Ease		0.920 (0.846)				
Relaxed		0.888 (0.788)				
Serene		0.788 (0.620)				
Cheer			0.914 (0.836)			
Enthusiasm			0.876 (0.767)			
Excitement			0.918 (0.843)			
Afraid				0.869 (0.755)		
Fear				0.936 (0.876)		
Nervous				0.802 (0.643)		
Scared				0.881 (0.776)		
Pride					0.901 (0.811)	
Proud					1.008 (NA)	
Guilt						0.838 (0.703)
Regret						0.875 (0.766)
Shame						0.895 (0.801)

Note. N=385. Acceptable Comparative Fit Index (CFI) > 0.90, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) ≤0.10, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) ≤0.08. Factor loadings reflect the completely standardized solution (std.all) or regression weights. R^2 represented in parentheses.

Table 6

Study 2 MANCOVA – Multivariate Tests

Effect	*F*	Hypothesis df	Error df	*p*	η_p^2
Intercept	123.86**	6.00	526.00	<0.001	0.586
P_AtEase	10.70**	6.00	526.00	<0.001	0.11
P_Scared	10.00**	6.00	526.00	<0.001	0.10
Gender Condition	0.96	6.00	526.00	0.45	0.01
Valence Condition	112.04**	6.00	526.00	<0.001	0.56
Two-Way Interaction	0.14	6.00	526.00	0.99	0.00

Note. N=385. Statistics reported using Pillai's Trace. Covariates include PANAS At Ease and Scared. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$.

Table 7

Study 2 MANCOVA – Tests of Between Subjects Effects on Negative ITLE Emotions

	Negative ITLE Emotions								
	ITLE Anger			ITLE Fear			ITLE Remorse		
	F	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Corrected Model	83.32**	0.001	0.49	45.01**	0.001	0.34	61.38**	0.00	0.41
Intercept	128.57**	0.001	0.20	70.69**	0.001	0.12	86.30**	0.001	0.14
Main Effects									
Situational Valence	440.28**	0.001	0.45	158.69**	0.001	0.23	278.79**	0.001	0.34
Leader Gender	2.17	0.141	0.004	0.66	0.416	0.001	2.47	0.117	0.005
Two-Way Interaction									
SV*LG	0.00	0.995	0.000	0.10	0.755	0.000	0.24	0.625	0.000

Note. N=385. Statistics reported using Pillai's Trace. Covariates include PANAS At Ease and Scared. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$.

Table 8

Study 2 MANCOVA – Tests of Between Subjects Effects on Positive ITLE Emotions

	Positive ITLE Emotions								
	ITLE Calm			ITLE Cheer			ITLE Pride		
	F	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Corrected Model	71.83**	0.001	0.45	112.28**	0.001	0.56	72.84**	0.00	0.45
Intercept	120.01**	0.001	0.18	218.29**	0.001	0.29	199.22**	0.001	0.27
Main Effects									
Situational Valence	256.37**	0.001	0.33	415.86**	0.001	0.44	321.87**	0.001	0.38
Leader Gender	0.05	0.616	0.000	0.06	0.815	0.000	0.60	0.437	0.001
Two-Way Interaction									
SV*LG	0.07	0.798	0.000	0.00	0.953	0.000	0.34	0.563	0.001

Note. N=385. Statistics reported using Pillai's Trace. Covariates include PANAS At Ease and Scared. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$.

Table 9

Study 3 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Covariates														
1. Age	40.86	10.99	--											
2. Gender	--	--	0.014	--										
3. Race	--	--	0.178**	0.123*	--									
4. EFL	--	--	-0.054	0.001	-0.174**	--								
5. Education	--	--	0.018	-0.017	-0.030	0.012	--							
6. Employment	--	--	0.067	0.206**	0.057	-0.018	-0.116*	--						
7. Industry	--	--	0.015	-0.140**	-0.006	-0.113*	-0.048	0.014	--					
8. YearsExp	19.90	10.83	0.916**	0.039	0.227**	-0.051	-0.129*	0.082	0.035	--				
9. Leadership1	--	--	-0.212**	0.074	-0.124*	0.018	-0.117*	0.145**	0.004	-0.233**	--			
10. Leadership2	--	--	0.236**	-0.068	0.124*	0.010	0.102	-0.060	0.072	0.216**	-0.033	--		
11. P_Angry	1.50	0.78	-0.038	-0.077	-0.005	0.000	-0.076	0.055	-0.077	-0.061	-0.032	0.030	--	
12. P_AtEase	3.36	1.11	0.134*	-0.116*	0.010	-0.003	0.081	-0.114*	0.016	0.116*	-0.045	0.040	-0.455**	--
13. P_Discouraged	1.82	1.03	-0.066	0.181**	0.024	-0.062	-0.095	0.167**	-0.131*	-0.059	0.008	0.057	0.582**	-0.590**
14. P_Enthusiastic	2.99	1.20	0.165**	-0.054	0.095	-0.073	0.060	-0.016	0.045	0.114*	-0.124*	0.109	-0.307**	0.502**
15. P_Irritated	1.99	1.04	-0.048	0.072	0.034	-0.019	-0.071	0.081	-0.100	-0.032	0.027	-0.027	0.583**	-0.557**
Dependent Variables														
16. ITLE_Anger	3.04	1.76	-0.068	0.027	0.006	-0.007	0.048	-0.025	-0.047	-0.055	0.008	0.005	0.205**	-0.117*
17. ITLE_Calm	3.68	1.62	0.074	-0.104	-0.039	-0.008	-0.061	-0.046	0.028	0.046	-0.041	0.009	-0.145**	0.176**
18. ITLE_Cheer	3.92	1.82	0.139**	-0.036	0.062	-0.068	-0.026	-0.008	0.027	0.116*	-0.082	0.041	-0.103	0.122*
19. ITLE_Fear	2.79	1.64	-0.157**	0.044	-0.108*	0.045	0.061	0.005	-0.042	-0.164**	0.026	-0.063	0.267**	-0.143**
20. ITLE_Pride	4.32	2.06	1.25*	-0.044	0.062	-0.002	-0.108*	0.037	0.056	0.136*	-0.016	0.035	-0.020	0.071
21. ITLE_Remorse	2.66	1.67	-0.147**	0.042	-0.052	0.005	0.075	-0.009	-0.047	-0.148**	-0.018	-0.054	0.200**	-0.096

Note. N=350. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities presented along diagonals. ITLE_Pride diagonal represents the correlation between Pride and Proud items. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$. EFL=English as first language. Employment=Employment Status. YearsExp=Years of Experience. Leadership1=Leadership Experience. Leadership2=Leadership level. P_EMOTION=PANAS Trait Emotions. ITLE_Emotion= ITLE Emotion ratings.

Table 9 cont'd

Study 3 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Covariates									
1. Age									
2. Gender									
3. Race									
4. EFL									
5. Education									
6. Employment									
7. Industry									
8. YearsExp									
9. Leadership1									
10. Leadership2									
11. P_Angry									
12. P_AtEase									
13. P_Discouraged	--								
14. P_Enthusiastic	-0.421**	--							
15. P_Irritated	0.682**	-0.448**	--						
Dependent Variables									
16. ITLE_Anger	0.213**	-0.142**	0.252**	(0.94)					
17. ITLE_Calm	-0.151**	0.163**	-0.128*	-0.721**	(0.90)				
18. ITLE_Cheer	-0.129*	0.257**	-0.108*	-0.764**	0.818**	(0.93)			
19. ITLE_Fear	0.240**	-0.131*	0.238**	0.702**	-0.561**	-0.579**	(0.92)		
20. ITLE_Pride	-0.085	0.111*	-0.061	-0.689**	0.680**	0.813**	-0.519**	(0.91)	
21. ITLE_Remorse	0.205**	-0.103	0.172**	0.780**	-0.614**	-0.672**	0.819**	-0.632**	(0.91)

Note. N=350. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities presented along diagonals. ITLE_Pride diagonal represents the correlation between Pride and Proud items. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$. EFL=English as first language. Employment=Employment Status. YearsExp=Years of Experience. Leadership1=Leadership Experience. Leadership2=Leadership level. P_EMOTION=PANAS Trait Emotions. ITLE_Emotion= ITLE Emotion ratings.

Table 10

Study 3 CFA Model Fit and Factor Loadings

Model Fit	$\chi^2(137)$	*p*	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	BIC
6-factor	537.73**	0.000	0.95	0.09	0.04	22051.76
ITLE Scales			**Factor Loadings** (R^2)			
	Anger	*Calm*	*Cheer*	*Fear*	*Pride*	*Remorse*
Aggravated	0.897 (0.805)					
Anger	0.912 (0.831)					
Disgust	0.846 (0.715)					
Upset	0.900 (0.810)					
At Ease		0.858 (0.736)				
Relaxed		0.858 (0.737)				
Serene		0.791 (0.626)				
Cheer			0.894 (0.799)			
Enthusiasm			0.931 (0.866)			
Excitement			0.919 (0.845)			
Afraid				0.840 (0.705)		
Fear				0.920 (0.846)		
Nervous				0.884 (0.782)		
Scared				0.894 (0.800)		
Pride					0.916 (0.839)	
Proud					0.992 (0.982)	
Guilt						0.866 (0.751)
Regret						0.859 (0.738)
Shame						0.910 (0.829)

Note. N=350. Acceptable Comparative Fit Index (CFI) > 0.90, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) ≤0.10, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) ≤0.08. Factor loadings reflect the completely standardized solution (std.all) or regression weights. R^2 represented in parentheses.

Table 11

Study 3 MANCOVA – Multivariate Tests

Effect	*F*	Hypothesis df	Error df	*p*	η_p^2
Intercept	50.18**	6.00	515.00	<0.001	0.37
Race	2.74**	6.00	515.00	0.012	0.03
P_Angry	3.30**	6.00	515.00	0.003	0.04
P_AtEase	4.06**	6.00	515.00	<0.001	0.05
P_Discouraged	2.14**	6.00	515.00	0.048	0.02
P_Enthusiastic	10.09**	6.00	515.00	<0.001	0.11
P_Irritated	6.08**	6.00	515.00	<0.001	0.07
Industry Condition	0.81	6.00	515.00	0.575	0.01
Valence Condition	115.94**	6.00	515.00	<0.001	0.58
Two-Way Interaction	1.33	6.00	515.00	0.243	0.02

Note. *N*=350. Statistics reported using Pillai's Trace. Covariates include Race, PANAS Angry, At Ease, Discouraged, Enthusiastic, and Irritated. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$.

Table 12

Study 3 MANCOVA – Tests of Between Subjects Effects on Negative ITLE Emotions

	Negative ITLE Emotions								
	ITLE Anger			ITLE Fear			ITLE Remorse		
	F	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Corrected Model	54.76**	0.001	0.51	30.39**	0.001	0.37	47.81**	0.001	0.48
Intercept	9.89**	0.002	0.02	15.60**	0.001	0.03	14.10**	0.001	0.03
Main Effects									
Situational Valence	422.60**	0.001	0.45	233.36**	0.001	0.23	347.27	0.001	0.40
Leader Industry	0.95	0.330	0.002	0.23	0.629	0.000	0.01	0.914	0.000
Two-Way Interaction									
SV*LG	0.01	0.925	0.000	0.02	0.884	0.000	0.01	0.935	0.000

Note. *N*=350. Statistics reported using Pillai's Trace. Covariates include Race, PANAS Angry, At Ease, Discouraged, Enthusiastic, and Irritated. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$.

Table 13

Study 3 MANCOVA – Tests of Between Subjects Effects on Positive ITLE Emotions

	Positive ITLE Emotions								
	ITLE Calm			ITLE Cheer			ITLE Pride		
	F	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2	*F*	*p*	η_p^2
Corrected Model	40.79**	0.001	0.44	75.05**	0.001	0.59	47.57	0.001	0.48
Intercept	98.78**	0.001	0.16	122.82**	0.001	0.19	118.51**	0.001	0.19
Main Effects									
Situational Valence	239.67**	0.001	0.32	446.48**	0.001	0.46	352.94**	0.001	0.40
Leader Industry	0.00	0.994	0.000	2.15	0.143	0.004	0.16	0.688	0.000
Two-Way Interaction									
SV*LG	4.85*	0.028	0.01	4.05*	0.045	0.01	3.94	0.048	0.01

Note. *N*=350. Statistics reported using Pillai's Trace. Covariates include Race, PANAS Angry, At Ease, Discouraged, Enthusiastic, and Irritated. *Indicates $p<0.05$. ** Indicates $p<0.001$. While the Two-Way Interaction does have significant between subject effects for all three positive ITLE emotions, these should not be interpreted given the non-significant multivariate tests according to Pillai's Trace. See Table 11.

Table 14

Summary of Hypotheses and Findings

Study	Hypothesis / Research Question	Findings
1	**H1:** When asked to consider typical leaders, the emotions of *Calm, Cheer,* and *Pride* will receive higher ratings in ITLEs than the emotions of *Anger, Fear,* and *Remorse.*	Supported
2	**H2a:** Positive situations will elicit higher positive emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) negative situations and (b) a baseline control group.	Partially Supported
2	**H2b:** Negative situations will elicit higher negative emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) positive situations and (b) a baseline control group.	Supported
2	**H3a:** Leader gender will elicit higher positive emotions in ITLEs for female leaders compared to male leaders.	Not Supported
2	**H3b:** Leader gender will elicit lower negative emotions in ITLEs for female leaders compared to male leaders.	Not Supported
2	**H4a:** Situational valence will moderate the effects of leader gender on ITLEs such that negative situations will elicit more positive emotions for female leaders compared to male leaders.	Not Supported
2	**H4b:** Situational valence will moderate the effects of leader gender on ITLEs such that negative situations will elicit more negative emotions for male leaders compared to female leaders.	Not Supported
3	**H5a:** Positive situations will elicit higher positive emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) negative situations and (b) a baseline control group.	Partially Supported
3	**H5b:** Negative situations will elicit higher negative emotions in individual's ITLEs compared to (a) positive situations and (b) a baseline control group.	Supported
3	**RQ1:** Will leader industry elicit different positive and negative emotions in individual's ITLEs?	Non-Significant Main Effects
3	**RQ2:** Will situational valence moderate the relationship between leader industry and the emotions elicited in individual's ITLEs?	Non-Significant Interaction Effects

Figures

Figure 1

Study 1 Mean Ratings of ITLEs

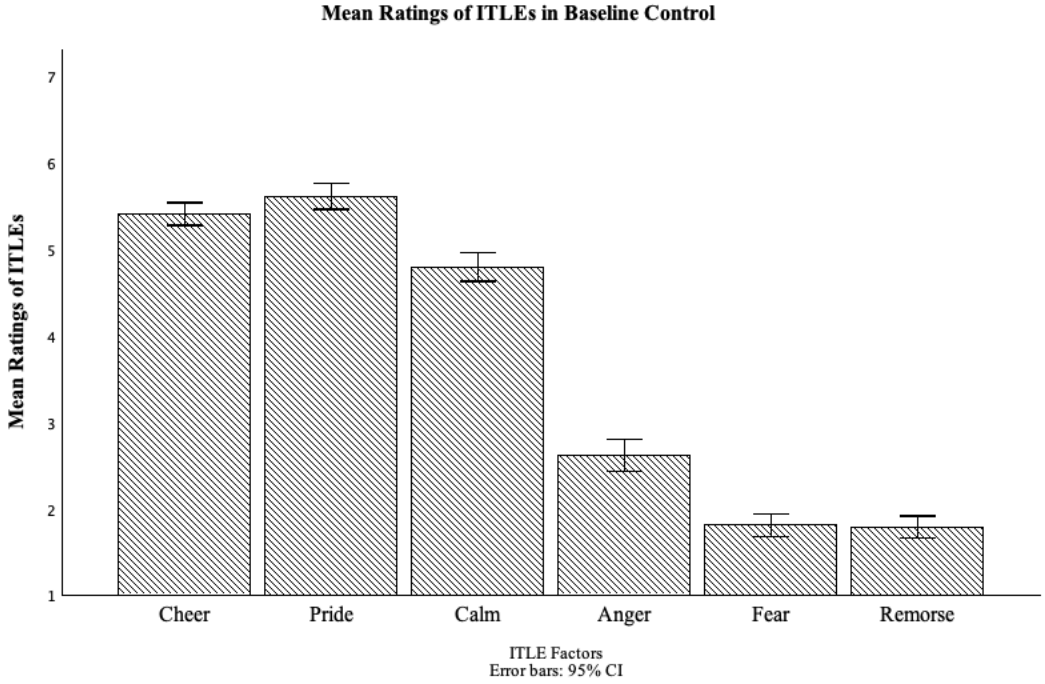
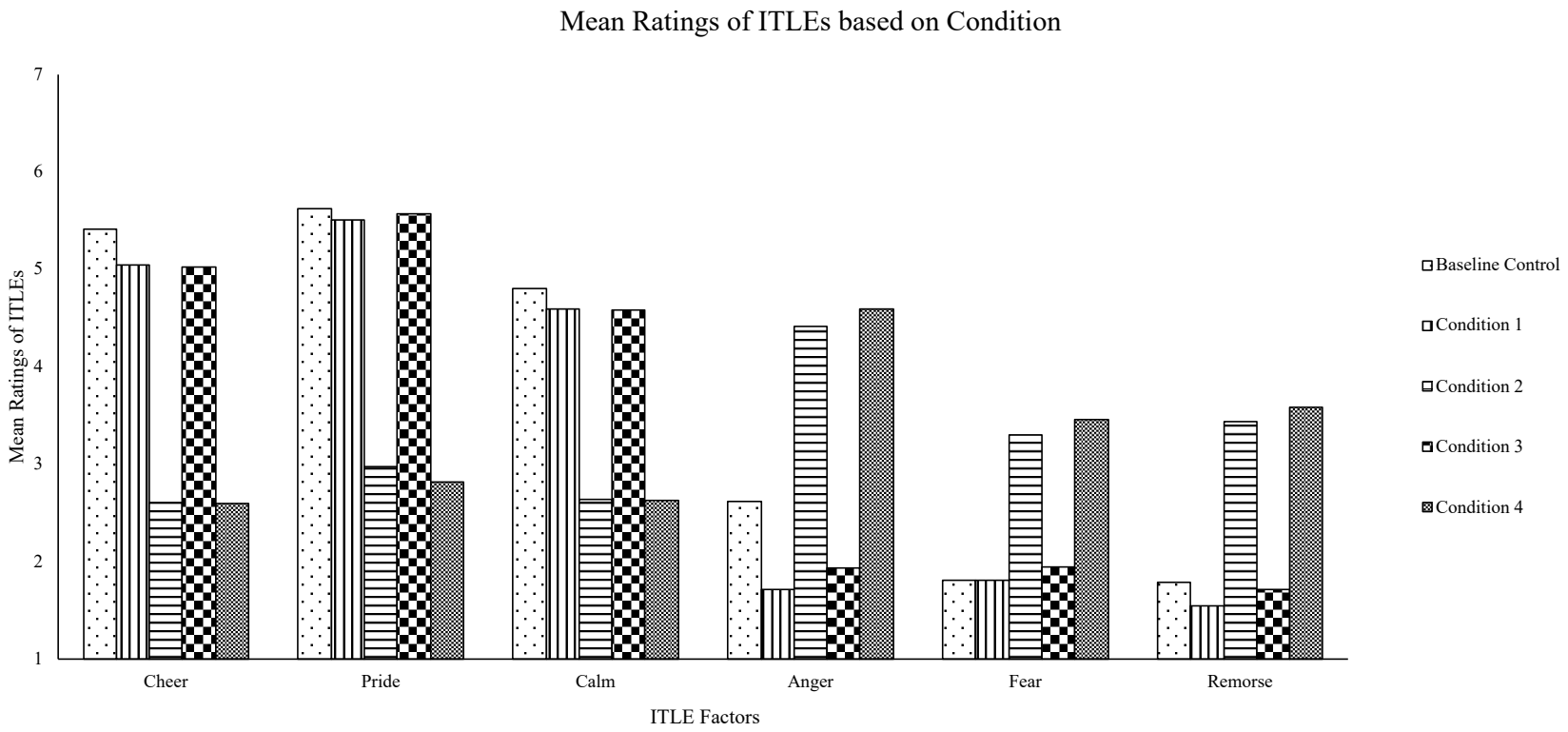


Figure 2

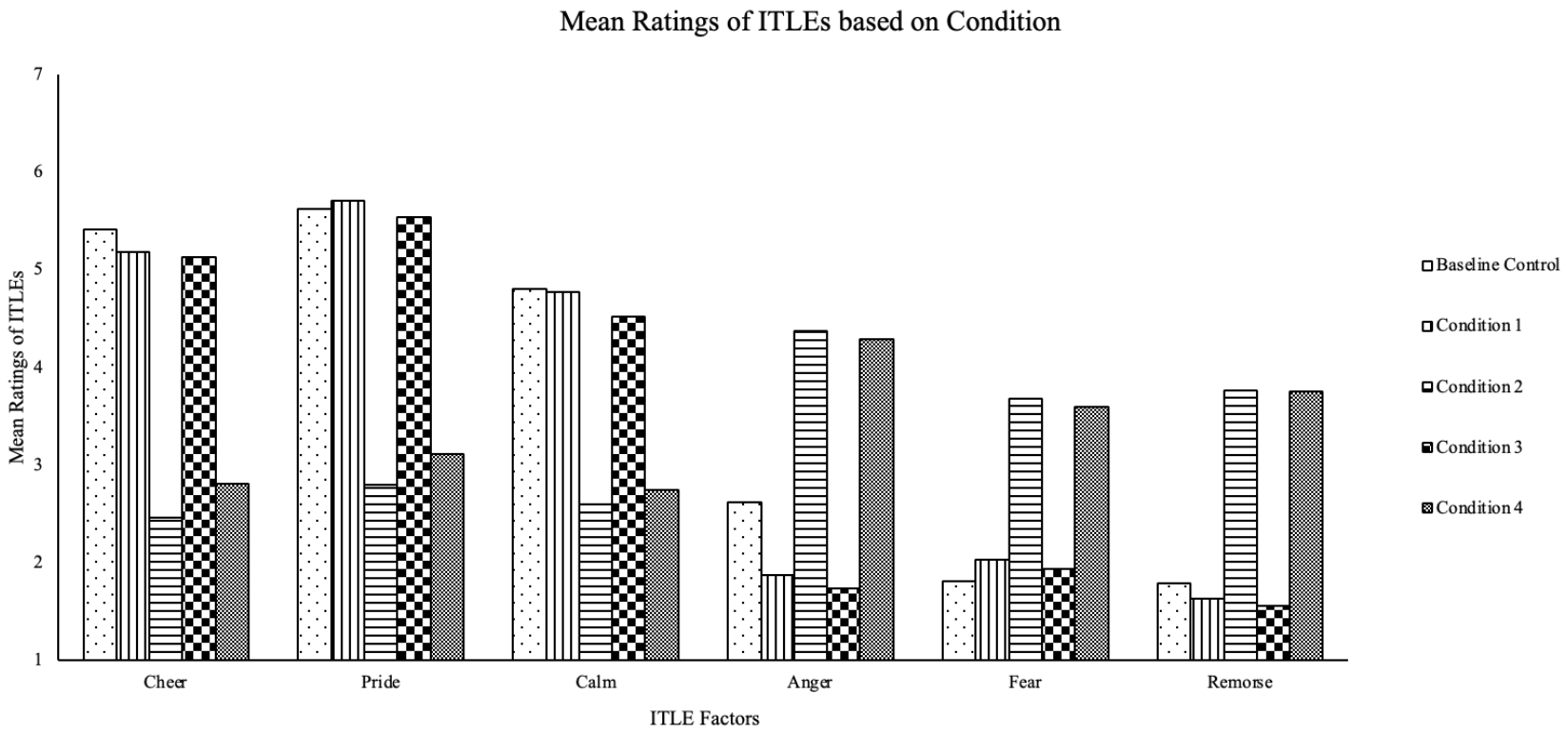
Study 2 Mean Ratings of ITLEs by Condition



Note. Baseline Control data comes from Study 1 (*N*=180). Condition 1: Positive Valence, Male Leader (*N*=95); Condition 2: Negative Valence, Male Leader (*N*=99); Condition 3: Positive Valence, Female Leader (*N*=96); Condition 4: Negative Valence, Female Leader (*N*=95).

Figure 3

Study 3 Mean Ratings of ITLEs by Condition



Note. Baseline Control data comes from Study 1 (*N*=180). Condition 1: Positive Valence, Manufacturing Industry (*N*=95); Condition 2: Negative Valence, Manufacturing Industry (*N*=89); Condition 3: Positive Valence, Healthcare Industry (*N*=97); Condition 4: Negative Valence, Healthcare Industry (*N*=95).

Appendices

Appendix A

General Instructions Studies 2 and 3

On the next page you will be presented with a leadership situation that a **senior leader could reasonably expect to experience**. Please review the situation thoroughly and provide ratings to the questions, keeping the situation in mind.

Your responses should reflect your own thoughts and not those of someone else or AI. As such, there should be no use of AI during this study. AI detection may be used to reject your submission if your response is flagged.

Appendix B

Study 2 Leadership Scenarios: Situational Valence and Leader Gender

NOTE: The situations are matched in content regarding personnel and safety

Condition 1: Situation reflecting a **Male Leader** in a Positive Situation

As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level. ***His*** *role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

The executive leader is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. ***His*** *organization has clear safety policies required at all locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of the major locations in* ***his*** *company have shown significant decreases in safety violations, high levels of compliance in use of protective gear and ongoing proactive communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior reduces the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.*

The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have initiated safety recognition awards to enhance these behaviors. Safety is a core value of ***his*** *organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions support the organization's values and credibility, improve employee and public trust, and abide by both organizational and federal safety regulations.*

Condition 2: Situation reflecting a **Male Leader** in a Negative Situation

As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level. ***His*** *role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

The executive leader is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. ***His*** *organization has clear safety policies required at all locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of the major locations in* ***his*** *company have shown significant increases in safety violations, inconsistencies in the use of protective gear as well as dismissive attitudes and poor*

communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior enhances the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.

*The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have intentionally undermined safety protocols to enhance efficiency. Safety is a core value of **his** organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions detract from the organization's values and credibility, damage employee and public trust, and fail to abide by both organizational and federal safety regulations.*

Condition 3: Situation reflecting a **Female Leader** in a Positive Situation

*As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level. **Her** role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

*The executive leader is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. **Her** organization has clear safety policies required at all locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of the major locations in **her** company have shown significant decreases in safety violations, high levels of compliance in use of protective gear and ongoing proactive communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior reduces the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.*

*The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have initiated safety recognition awards to enhance these behaviors. Safety is a core value of **her** organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions support the organization's values and credibility, improve employee and public trust, and abide by both organizational and federal safety regulations.*

Condition 4: Situation reflecting a **Female Leader** in a Negative Situation

As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level. ***Her*** *role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

The executive leader is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. ***Her*** *organization has clear safety policies required at all locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of the major locations in* ***her*** *company have shown significant increases in safety violations, inconsistencies in the use of protective gear as well as dismissive attitudes and poor communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior enhances the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.*

The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have intentionally undermined safety protocols to enhance efficiency. Safety is a core value of ***her*** *organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions detract from the organization's values and credibility, damage employee and public trust, and fail to abide by both organizational and federal safety regulations.*

Appendix C

Study 3 Leadership Scenarios: Situational Valence and Leader Industry

NOTE: The situations are matched in content regarding personnel and safety

Condition 1: Situation reflecting a **Manufacturing Leader** in a Positive Situation

As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level in the ***Manufacturing*** *industry. Their role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

The executive leader from the ***manufacturing*** *industry is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. The organization has clear safety policies required at all* ***manufacturing*** *locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of the manufacturing locations in the executive's company have shown significant decreases in safety violations, high levels of compliance in use of protective gear and ongoing proactive communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior reduces the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.*

The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have initiated safety recognition awards to enhance these behaviors. Safety is a core value of the organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions support the organization's values and credibility, improve employee and public trust, and abide by both organizational and federal ***manufacturing*** *safety regulations.*

Condition 2: Situation reflecting a **Manufacturing Leader** in a Negative Situation

As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level in the ***Manufacturing*** *industry. Their role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

The executive leader from the ***manufacturing*** *industry is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. The organization has clear safety policies required at all* ***manufacturing*** *locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of*

the manufacturing locations in the executive's company have shown significant increases in safety violations, inconsistencies in the use of protective gear as well as dismissive attitudes and poor communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior enhances the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.

The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have intentionally undermined safety protocols to enhance efficiency. Safety is a core value of the organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions detract from the organization's values and credibility, damage employee and public trust, and fail to abide by both organizational and federal ***manufacturing*** *safety regulations.*

Condition 3: Situation reflecting a **Healthcare Leader** in a Positive Situation

As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level in the ***Healthcare*** *industry. Their role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

The executive leader from the ***healthcare*** *industry is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. The organization has clear safety policies required at all* ***healthcare*** *locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of the manufacturing locations in the executive's company have shown significant decreases in safety violations, high levels of compliance in use of protective gear and ongoing proactive communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior reduces the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.*

The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have initiated safety recognition awards to enhance these behaviors. Safety is a core value of the organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions support the organization's values and credibility, improve employee and public trust, and abide by both organizational and federal ***healthcare*** *safety regulations.*

Condition 4: Situation reflecting a **Healthcare Leader** in a Negative Situation

As you read the following scenario, think about a leader at the executive level in the ***Healthcare*** *industry. Their role involves organization wide decision-making. Use this context as you evaluate the described situation and complete the survey.*

The executive leader from the ***healthcare*** *industry is tasked with evaluating the organization's safety reports. The organization has clear safety policies required at all* ***healthcare*** *locations. Biannual safety audit reports from several of the manufacturing locations in the executive's company have shown significant increases in safety violations, inconsistencies in the use of protective gear as well as dismissive attitudes and poor communication about the extra safety protocols initiated several years ago to improve the organization's safety culture and processes. This behavior enhances the risk of injuries to employees and visitors.*

The audits also suggest that some of the supervisors have intentionally undermined safety protocols to enhance efficiency. Safety is a core value of the organization, which has invested considerable effort to build a "safety-first" culture. These types of actions detract from the organization's values and credibility, damage employee and public trust, and fail to abide by both organizational and federal ***healthcare*** *safety regulations.*

Appendix D

ITLE Measure (Sy & Van Knippenberg, 2021)

Study 1 Instructions

Please rate the extent to which it is characteristic of **typical leaders** to express each emotion term below (1=not characteristic at all; 4=neutral; 7=extremely characteristic).

Studies 2 and 3 Instructions

Please rate the extent to which it is characteristic of **typical leaders in the described situation** to express each emotion term below (1=not characteristic at all; 4=neutral; 7=extremely characteristic). **Be sure to consider the described context when making your judgment.**

Afraid
Aggravated
Anger
At Ease
Cheer
Disgust
Enthusiasm
Excitement
Fear
Guilt
Nervous
Pride
Proud
Regret
Relaxed
Scared
Serene
Shame
Upset

Anger: Anger, Upset, Disgust, Aggravated

Calm: At Ease, Relaxed, Serene

Cheer: Cheerful, Excitement, Enthusiasm

Fear: Afraid, Scared, Fear, Nervous

Pride: Pride, Proud

Remorse: Regret, Shame, Guilt

Qualitative Questions

1. Please describe the reason why you selected the emotions as characteristic of a typical leader in the described scenario.

Covariate Measures

Follower Emotions – PANAS-T (Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson, 1988)
This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate response next to that word (1=*very slightly/not at all*; 5=*extremely*).

On a regular basis, to what extent did you feel…

Angry	Excited
Anxious	Fatigued
Ashamed	Frustrated
At Ease	Guilty
Bored	Happy
Calm	Irritated
Cheer	Nervous
Disappointed	Proud
Discouraged	Relaxed
Enthusiastic	Scared

Demographics

1. Age
    a. Fill in the blank
2. Gender
    a. Male
    b. Female
    c. Non-binary / Third gender
    d. Prefer not to say
3. Race/Ethnicity
    a. Asian
    b. Black or African American
    c. Hispanic or Latino/a/x
    d. Native American or Alaska Native
    e. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
    f. Other
        i. Fill in the blank
    g. Prefer not to say
4. Country
    a. Drop down of countries
5. Years of Work Experience
    a. Fill in the blank
6. Highest Level of Education
    a. Less than high school
    b. High school diploma or GED
    c. Some college
    d. Associate's degree
    e. Bachelor's degree
    f. Graduate or Professional degree
7. Is English your first language?
    a. Yes
    b. No

Work Experience Questionnaire

1. Employment Status
    a. Employed full-time
    b. Employed part-time
    c. Unemployed and looking for work
    d. Unemployed and not looking for work
    e. Student
    f. Retired
    g. Other
        i. Fill in the blank
2. Please select the industry that best represents the **most recent job** you've held:
    a. Administrative and Support Services
    b. Construction
    c. Education
    d. Food Service
    e. Healthcare
    f. Manufacturing
    g. Military
    h. Retail
    i. Technology
    j. Other
        i. If 'Other' please state the industry you worked in:
            1. Fill in the blank
3. How many years have you held, or did you hold, your most recent job?
    a. Fill in the blank
4. On average, how many hours do (did) you work per week in your current (or most recent) job:
    a. 0-10 hours per week
    b. 11-24 hours per week
    c. 25-40 hours per week
    d. 40+ hours per week
5. On average, how often do (did) you interact with your **immediate supervisor**?
    a. Never
    b. Once when hired
    c. Quarterly
    d. Monthly
    e. Weekly
    f. Every shift
6. On average, how often do (did) you interact with your **supervisor's boss?**
    a. Never

b. Once when hired
c. Quarterly
d. Monthly
e. Weekly
f. Every shift

7. Have you ever held a leadership position at work?
    a. Yes
    b. No
    c. If 'Yes' please select the level that is most appropriate
        i. Frontline Supervisor
        ii. Middle Manager
        iii. Upper Manager
        iv. Executive

Manipulation Checks

1. Situational Valence (Studies 2 and 3)
    a. Q2: Please rate each of the following items based on the valence of the situation you just read:
        i. Q2a: I would describe the situation as positive.
        ii. Q2b: I would describe the situation as negative. (reverse coded)
        iii. Q2c: Overall, the situation seemed good for the organization.
        iv. Q2d: Overall, the situation seemed bad for the organization. (reverse coded)

2. Leader Gender (Study 2)
    a. When rating the emotions, did you consider a male or female leader?

3. Leader Industry (Study 3)
    a. When rating the emotions, did you consider a particular industry?
        i. If so, what was the industry?