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The Impact of Personality Traits and Emotional Intelligence on Emergent Leadership

BY

Shinika L. Byrd

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

Of

Doctor of Business Administration

In the Robinson College of Business

Of

Georgia State University

GEORGIA STATE UNIVERSITY  
ROBINSON COLLEGE OF BUSINESS  
2022

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2022

## ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the Shinika L. Byrd Dissertation Committee. It has been approved and accepted by all members of that committee, and it has been accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration in the J. Mack Robinson College of Business of Georgia State University.

Richard Phillips, Dean

## DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

J.J. Po-An Hsieh (Chair)  
Todd J. Maurer  
Likoebe M. Maruping

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## **ABSTRACT**

The Impact of Personality Traits and Emotional Intelligence on Emergent Leadership

BY

Shinika L. Byrd

April 2022

Committee Chair: Dr. JJ Po-An Hsieh

Major Academic Unit: Doctorate in Business Administration

On a corporate level, organizations worldwide compete for leadership talent to achieve their missions and to gain competitive advantages. Emergent leadership is a paradigm used by managers to improve business and to grow companies. Emergent leadership reveals individuals who are capable of leading because they are competent and have an influence on the people with whom they work. There are factors that cause leaders to emerge. Two factors – personality and emotional intelligence – can make positive impressions on individuals who choose to follow one of their coworkers. This research investigates the effects of personality and emotional intelligence on the emergent leadership process.

The method of this study is quantitative with a sample of 175 students from two Southern universities. Students will engage with an online Qualtrics survey to provide self-reported and peer-reported responses at three points during the semester. Each participant will be a member of a four to five-person team that does not have a designated leader. The team will remain in its integrity as one group throughout the semester.

The findings are essential for three reasons. First, the evidence from this study will provide managers within organizations with a list of traits that propel teams to follow certain individuals. Second, and conversely, people seeking jobs can learn which traits they can emulate

to help them land a leadership role within the organization they serve. Third, the information from this study will provide an analysis of boundary conditions associated with the personality trait theory.

*Keywords: Personality Traits, Emotional Intelligence, Emergent Leadership, Leadership Emergence, Leadership*

## **I. CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **I.1 Research Motivation**

Organizations worldwide compete for leadership talent to achieve their missions and gain competitive advantages. Companies have changed their organizational structure to meet strategic goals (e.g., Google, VSCO, and Zappos). Organizational leadership structures have shifted from traditional, centralized models to decentralized models. In a centralized leadership model, authority is held at the top of the hierarchy. Employees follow a well-organized, static chain of command, and decisions are made from upward. Employees have little or no share in the decision-making process. Recently, organizations have veered toward decentralized, horizontal leadership models (e.g., team leadership, shared leadership, and emergent leadership) (Gerpott, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Voelpel, & van Vugt, 2019). In contrast to centralized models, horizontal leadership models have a more visionary approach, allowing employees to accept the challenge of making decisions and taking on leadership roles. Organizations that follow horizontal structures encourage employees' ideas and are driven by team collaboration.

This ubiquitous structural shift in organizations compels a leadership paradigm and the associated coveted characteristics. As a process, emergent leadership reveals individuals capable of leading because they are competent and influence the people they work with. As organizations seek ways to gain competitive advantages through structural and cultural changes, emergent leaders will become the most sought-after employees. Therefore, the study of emergent leadership is appropriate for organizations to become sustainable in this fast, ever-changing, evolving market.

## **I.2 Area of Concern**

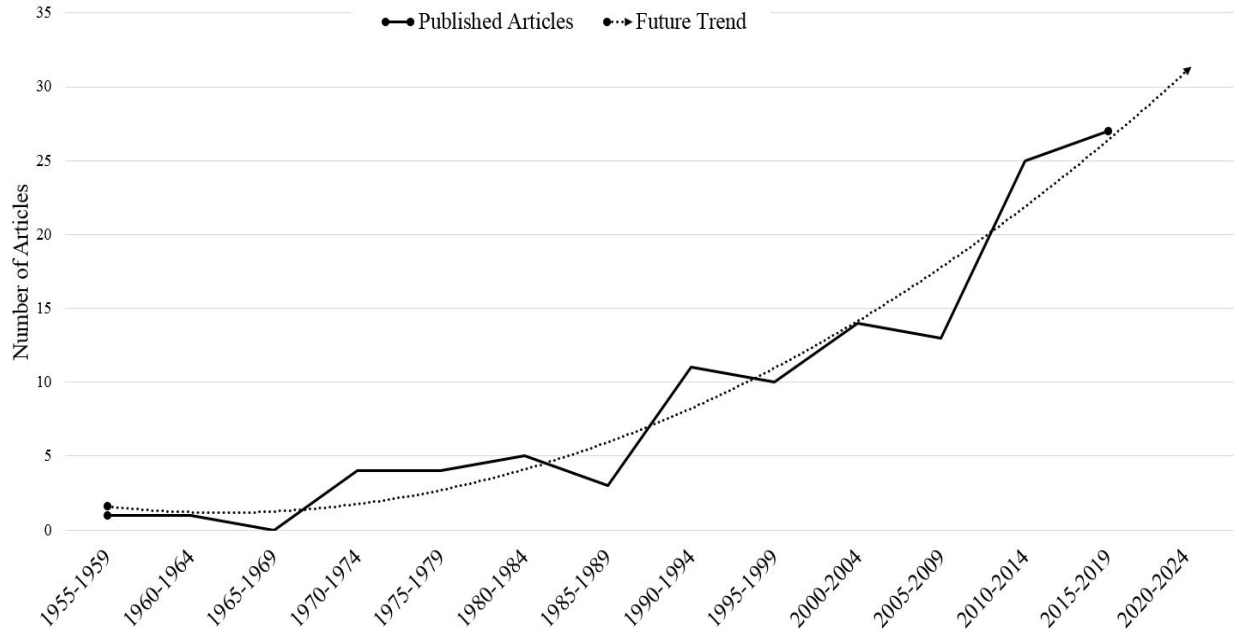
Emergent leadership is how others perceive an individual with no leadership authority as leaderlike within a group setting (Hannah, Smith, Kirkman & Griffin, 2021). Emergent leadership occurs when a group member is not appointed as a leader but naturally emerges within a group context. Emergent leadership allows group members to choose the leaders rather than be appointed a leader. Research has shown that teams with informal leadership models outperform teams with formal leaders (Spisak, O'Brien, Nicholson, & van Vugt, 2015).

Emergent leadership also encourages decision-making outside the traditional, centralized organizational structure. For example, in a conventional vertical organizational hierarchy, the middle manager must obtain approval from top management, often leading to an untimely process. Organizations that embrace emergent leadership encourage employees to make decisions and lead the team accordingly.

The shift in organizational structures has caused emergent leadership to become a flourishing topic in the field of Management. Published emergent leadership articles have tripled over the past several decades, as shown in Figure 1 (Hannah et al., 2021). The dynamic changes in organizational structures, the need for leadership to fit these models, and the most sought-after emergent leadership characteristics have sparked interest in this area and influenced the need to expand knowledge in emergent leadership research.

**Figure 1: Publication Trends in Emergent Leadership Research (1955-2020)**

(Hannah et al., 2021)



Researchers have studied emergent leadership for over 75 years. The conception that individuals occupy particular traits that lead to the emergence of their leadership dominated the latter half of the 20th century. Past research has suggested that nearly every possible trait or characteristic – including physical, cognitive abilities, personality traits, and intelligence has been explored in leadership research. An extensive collection of literature specific to the emergent leadership arena has focused on personality traits (Spark, Andrew, O'Connor & Peter, 2021; Conard, 2020), genetics, and gender (Chaturvedi, Zyphur, Arvey, Avolio & Larsson, 2012).

Emotional intelligence (EI), a source of attributes that contribute to success, is also a significant part of the emergent leadership discussion. Salovey & Mayer (1990) is credited for coining the term EI. Salovey & Mayer (1990) investigated the association between EI and

transformational leadership. Their work was foundational for scholars to examine the role of intelligence on leadership. Salovey & Mayer (1990) recognized that multiple forms of intelligence, such as EI, were factors that impacted leadership. Davies, Stankov, & Roberts (1998) described EI as a set of interrelated skills classified within four dimensions: (1) appraisal of emotion in oneself, (2) appraisal of emotion in others, (3) regulation of emotion in oneself, and (4) the use of one's emotion to facilitate performance.

Although much research in emergent leadership has examined individual differences (personality, emotional intelligence, self-monitoring, self-efficacy, gender), researchers call for more studies on antecedents of emergent leadership concurrently rather than narrowly focused traits studies (Conard, 2020; Hanna et al., 2021). Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey (2011) noted, "The lack of integration in leadership research is evident both within and across the trait and behavior paradigms." Research within each paradigm generally focuses on a single trait or behavioral perspective. Only a small amount of research in emergent leadership has assessed all Big Five personality traits plus additional traits (Conard, 2020). The lack of simultaneous consideration for a broader range of personality traits would suggest that researchers assume traits are independent of one another rather than addressing this concern from a holistic approach (e.g., Big Five personality traits and EI or even interactive (e.g., the interaction between Big Five and EI).



To address this void, I pose the following research question:

*Do personality traits and EI independently and interactively effect emergent leadership?*

### **I.3 Conceptual Background**

Drawing from past research suggesting that personality represents a proportion of leadership and Cote's (2010) proposition that EI explains more variance than traits in emergent leadership, this study offers an integration model that combines personality traits and EI to explore the interactive relationship on emergent leadership. I addressed the research question by investigating commonalities between individuals that influence their emergent leadership perceptions related to their personality traits and EI.

Theory, defined as "a statement of relations among concepts with a set of boundary assumptions and constraints" (Bacharach, 1989), is a critical element in research. The dual purpose of the theoretical statement is to organize and communicate. In emergent leadership research, scholars have used various theories to determine antecedents resulting in emergent leadership (e.g., trait, behavioral, situational, fit, implicit, cognitive, and social categorization factors). In investigating the direct effect of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership and the interaction effect of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership, I adopted Personality Trait Theory (PTT) and the Affect Infusion Model (AIM).

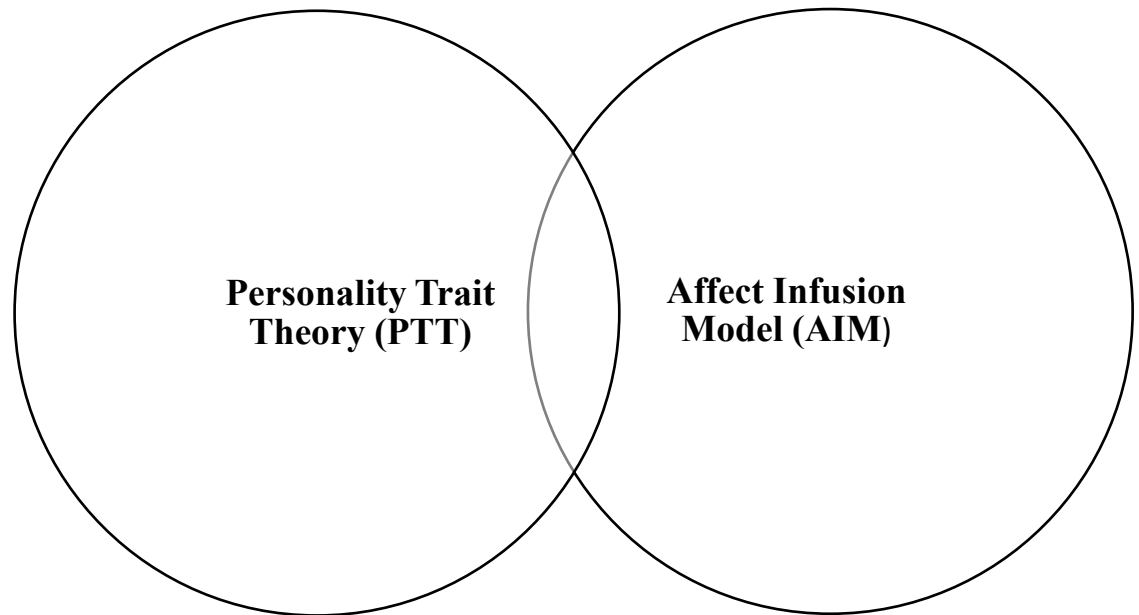
Variations of research to examine personality factors and the role of trait relationships have been done throughout the years, rooted in the simple idea that people want to understand themselves and also want to understand others. For this study, PTT facilitated an understanding of how personality traits will directly effect emergent leadership. The premise of PTT is that personality traits differentiate leaders from non-leaders. An array of studies have looked at

whether individuals who possess certain traits and characteristics emerge as leaders (Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Bass, 1990; Judge, Bono, Ilie, & Gerhardt, 2002; Derue et al., 2011; Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang (2012); Conard, 2020). Discussions around PTT in leadership began in the early 1920s. In response to his view of PTT, Cowley (1931) commented, "The approach to the study of leadership has usually been and perhaps must always be through the study of traits" (p.144). This statement is noteworthy because traits are considered stable over time. Although early research suggested that personality traits were a weak predictor of leadership (Stogdill, 1948), more recent studies, indicate that personality traits can account for some proportion of emergent leadership (Conard, 2020; Lord et al., 1986).

AIM assisted in explaining the linkages between EI and emergent leadership and the interaction of personality and EI on emergent leadership. AIM (Forgas, 1995) highlights that emotions are essential determinants of cognitive judgments about risks and gains associated with a situation. AIM proposes that affect can influence cognition and judgment when ambiguity and uncertainty exist. EI is not solely about individuals dealing with and controlling their own emotions but also about using their emotions in practical ways to optimize performance and make good decisions (Damasio, 1994), resulting in emergent leadership.

I used the theories mentioned above to determine the research question's outcome. PTT justified the direct effect of personality traits on emergent leadership. AIM explained the direct effect of EI on emergent leadership. AIM explained the combined interaction effect of personality traits and EI. See Figure 2 for an illustration of the theories used for this study.

**Figure 2: Integration of Theories**



Given the above conceptualization of emergent leadership, the empirical measure of emergent leadership demands careful consideration. The following study examined the direct effect of personality on emergent leadership, the direct effect of EI on emergent leadership, and the interaction between personality and EI on emergent leadership.

For data collection, I recruited a sample of 175 students enrolled across four sections of Business courses from two Southern universities. Each participant was in a group of three to five individuals. Each group was randomly formed without a designated leader. The groups completed a project involving multiple tasks throughout the semester as part of their grade for the course. This enabled the group members to work together with their peers for about four months. Data were collected using an electronic survey platform Qualtrics at three points throughout the semester. Measures included three focal constructs: personality (self-report), EI

(self-report), emergent leadership (peer-report), and control variables. IBM SPSS was utilized to perform a multilevel regression analysis.

#### **I.4 Expected Contribution**

This study yields unique insights by addressing gaps in emergent leadership literature and contributing to theory and practice. First, to emergent leadership literature by incorporating an empirical, longitudinal study of all Big Five personality traits (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) and EI to determine the direct and interactive impact on emergent leadership. Second, the study contributes to theory by testing the boundary conditions around PTT. Third, the study contributes to practice by determining a list of traits managers and organizations can use to assess potential employees to lead within their organizations. The traits of individuals are critical components of the organizational structure. When managers understand leaders through traits, they can quickly transform organizations by strategically hiring for specific characteristics that align with the vision and purposes of their companies.

## **I.5 Proposal Structure**

This dissertation consists of five chapters. The second chapter offers a comprehensive review of the literature related to emergent leadership. This review aims to identify the focus and gaps in research. The research model, description of key constructs, and justification of the rationales of the proposed hypothesis will also be presented in Chapter 2. The first group of hypotheses aims to test the direct effects of each Big Five personality trait on emergent leadership (H1a-e). The second set of hypotheses will inspect the direct effect of EI on emergent leadership (H2). Finally, the last hypothesis will test the interactive effect of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership (H3a-e). Chapter three describes the research methodology, research site, participants for the study, description of the adopted measurement scales used in this study, and data collection procedures. Analysis procedure, statistical packages, and methods of the supporting or rejecting hypotheses are all addressed in chapter four. Chapter five explains and argues for contribution and includes the study conclusions, expected theoretical and practical contributions, limitations, and the implications of findings for future research.

## **II. CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter provides a review of the literature related to emergent leadership. The chapter aligns with the purpose of the study by examining new questions around the interplay between personality traits and EI on emergent leadership. This chapter also explores previous theories used in emergent leadership context. The essence of this chapter aims to address gaps in research and recognize the focus of the study.

### **Leadership Criteria**

Leadership places among the most researched areas in organizational social sciences (Bennis, 2007). Researchers have studied leadership from many different perspectives—from vertical vs. horizontal influences, different levels of the unit of analysis (e.g., individual, team, and organizational level), and temporal durations (temporary vs. permanent) (Hannah et al., 2021). Bingham's (1927) study defined a leader as someone who had the most desirable traits in both personality and character. As a consequence of Bingham's work, early research in leadership included multiple approaches to leadership, highlighting the importance of particular characteristics and traits (personality traits, EI, age, and gender) (Conard, 2020; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986; Spark & O'conner, 2021), and a host of many other precursors that result in leadership. Over time, scholars have categorized leadership into different styles and classifications (e.g., transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, and laissez-faire). On a high level of abstract, Lord et al. (1986) theorized leadership into two wide-ranged classifications: leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness.

## **II.1 Leadership Effectiveness**

Stogdill (1950) described leadership effectiveness as the performance factors and the magnitude of motivating and guiding subordinates' actions in a positive direction to achieve goals. Later, Derue et al.'s (2011) integration model theorized leadership effectiveness into three facets: 1) content, 2) level of analysis, and 3) target of evaluation. The content component relates to the overall performance, the leader's tasks, and effectiveness (e.g., leadership-member exchange). The second aspect, level of analysis, implies leadership effectiveness can be conceptualized at an individual, group, or organizational level of analysis. The evaluation target relates to whether an individual is a target of evaluation (e.g., leader) or another outcome (e.g., follower, group, organization).

Despite the slight differences in definitions, the premise of leadership effectiveness is that the leader is established and present. Therefore, observers can evaluate how well the leader performs. When there is not a designated leader, then there is no target evaluation. Emergent leadership can evolve out of such a situation. Emergent leadership happens when a person who was not selected to lead displays leadership abilities respected and accepted by his or her peers. This kind of way of deriving leadership is often more critical than the traditional way of choosing a leader without the involvement of a peer group.

## **II.2 Emergent Leadership**

In contrast to a leader's performance, emergent leadership refers to an individual being perceived as a leader. Hanna et al.'s (2021) study defined emergent leadership as how team members perceive others as demonstrating leader-like influence. The foundation of emergent leadership lies in "perception of others" and "being perceived as leader-like." There are extensive

studies on both leadership effectiveness and emergent leadership. This study focuses on emergent leadership.

Hanna et al. (2021) explained emergent leadership by three key elements – lateral influence, unit of analysis, and temporal. The first is lateral influence; of the two types of leadership –vertical and horizontal. Emergent leadership embraces a horizontal leadership structure. Second, the unit of analysis –emergent leadership occurs in a group but is measured individually. More than one person from the group can emerge as a leader (Taggar, Hackett, & Saha, 1990). Third, emergent leadership is temporal; individuals can occur temporarily in a team.

Emergent leadership is different from traditional leadership styles (e.g., authoritarian, transformational, transactional, and charismatic). Emergent leadership is inherently perception-based; it is perceptual. In the case of emergent leadership, it cannot be articulated what labels someone as a leader. The subjectivity suggests there is no "set" of characteristics of an emergent leader. Implicit leadership theories (Lord & Maher, 1991) indicate that each person holds individual beliefs about what characteristics, behaviors, and abilities make up a prototypical leader.

Emergent leadership is an individual's implicit phenomenon. If characteristics are labeled in emergent leadership models, then this begins to define what a leader is and, as a result, would not leave it up to others' subjectivity. In that case, it would be like confounding operationalization by determining characteristics, which is not emergent leadership. Hence, this study aims to aid in whether or not there are commonalities between individuals' personality traits and their EI associated with what influences that leader-like perception.



### II.3 Emergent Leadership & Related Concepts

Lord et al. (1986:408) stated that emergent leadership presence has become "a major component of the social fabric of many organizations." The origin of emergent leadership dates back to 1953 when Bales attempted to explain how perceptions within team environments were shaped (e.g., team perceptions). Emergent leadership literature has predominately focused on individual differences (Conard, 2020; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Spark & O'Conner, 2018) and behaviors (Ilies, Gerhardt & Le, 2004).

There have been various terms and definitions of emergent leadership over the years. For example, Hogan et al.'s (1994) study used the term "leadership emergence" and defined it as "someone being perceived as leaderlike to others" (p. 496). Cote et al. (2010) also used "leadership emergence." They defined it as the social course by which individuals gain leadership roles over time and their social interactions due to their group's acceptance and recognition. The most recent meta-analysis on emergent leadership (Hanna et al., 2021) used "emergent leadership" and defined it as how others perceive an individual with no formal authority as demonstrating leaderlike.

Researchers have also used emergent leadership substitutable for other leadership concepts (e.g., collective leadership, self-leadership, shared leadership) (Hannah et al., 2021). It is critical not to confuse emergent leadership with other closely related constructs. Therefore, I explain the difference between these incredibly similar and related yet very different leadership constructs (see Table 1) in the following sections.

*Table 1: Comparison of Emergent Leadership with Other Leadership Concepts*

Leadership Type	Unit of Analysis	Definition
Emergent Leadership	Individual	The degree to which one or more team members perceive an individual with no formal status or authority as exhibiting leader-like influence (Hanna et al., 2021)
Shared Leadership	Group	The dispersion or magnitude of leadership on the team level (Gockel & Werth, 2010)
Collective Leadership	Group	The selective utilization of expertise within the network and includes the focal leader's role (Friedrich et al., 2009)
Self-Leadership	Individual	The process of influencing oneself (Neck & Manz 2010)

**Shared leadership.** Gockel & Werth (2010) defined shared leadership as the dispersion or magnitude of leadership at the team level. In shared leadership models, interest is shared collectively. Shared leadership is measured at a team level of analysis, unlike emergent leadership.

In contrast to emergent leadership, shared leadership involves the team. Emergent leadership is not a team phenomenon; it focuses on an individual's influences. Cox, Pearce & Perry (2003) described shared leadership as a collaborative group interaction in which members engage in peer leadership, working mutually. Shared leadership is theorized as a group's effort; emergent leadership is an individual's performance as someone with leader influence over a group.

**Collective Leadership.** Friedrich, Vessey, Schuelke, Ruark & Mumford (2009) defined collective leadership as carefully utilizing expertise within the system, including the assigned

leader's role. Analogous to emergent leadership, team members utilize an informal, horizontal influence rather than formal, vertical leadership. Collective leadership refers to the "forceful progression in which team members interchangeably utilize competencies within a network, as a collective, effectively distributing elements of the leadership role as the situation or problem at hand requires" (Friedrich et al., 2009:933). Like shared leadership, collective leadership is conceptualized at the group level of analysis, where leadership influence is evenly spread out throughout the team.

**Self-leadership.** Self-leadership refers to the process of influencing oneself (Neck et al., 2010). Self-leadership examines how individuals influence their behaviors, whereas emergent leadership consists of horizontal influence (e.g., how one influences others). Self-leadership occurs at the individual level, not in a team or group like emergent leadership.

As shown in Table 1 above, there are many common points between emergent leadership, shared leadership, collective leadership, and self-leadership revealed in academic and practical studies. Common themes between the four mentioned leadership concepts are so close that the concepts are often used interchangeably. Although there are many parallels among these leadership concepts, it is important not to confound the constructs.

## **II.4 Antecedents of Emergent Leadership**

Over the past several decades, extensive studies in the emergent leadership arena have ranged from individual to group variables. Many predictors have been theorized and shown to effect emergent leadership (e.g., behavioral, intelligence, gender, cognitive ability, personality traits, and emotional intelligence) (Conard, 2020; Hannah et al., 2021; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986 ). Behavioral predictors such as group participation, listening, and task facilitation have also been key elements leading to emergent leadership (e.g., Bass, 1949; Derue et al., 2010).

Findings have shown that the more effective listening skills individuals possess, the higher likelihood of their emergent leadership. Studies have shown that trait extraversion is the most correlated trait to effect emergent leadership (Colbert et al., 2012; Reichard, Riggo, Guerin, Oliver, Goffried & Goffired, 2011; Spark & O'Conner, 2018).

Scholars have also studied gender and how it relates to emergent leadership. Kent & Moss (1994) found that males are more likely to emerge in short-term assignments than longer ones. Not long ago, Badura et al.'s (2018) explanatory study uncovered that the gender gap has closed considerably, but there is still work to do in this area. Many studies use gender as a moderator, and in almost all cases, gender is used as a covariate.

Intelligence has been a trending antecedent in emergent leadership conversations and is positively related to emergent leadership. Judge et al. (2004) found that highly intelligent individuals are more likely to emerge as leaders than lesser intelligent individuals. Kuckel & Newuman (2000) investigated the theoretical underpinning of emergent leadership and found that cognitive ability was predictive of emergent leadership. Juxtapose to those findings, Reichard et al. (2011) utilized a Fullerton Longitudinal study across 12 years to research the relationship between intelligence, personality traits, and leadership emergence. Surprisingly, they found that intelligence quotient did not influence emergent leadership.

The idea that certain traits lead to an individual's leadership emergence dominated the second half of the 20th century. Bass and Bass's (2008) review suggested that every imaginable trait has been investigated, including physical characteristics (e.g., ethnicity, age, facial features) and personality traits (e.g., extraversion, openness to experience, dominance, self-efficacy). Conard (2020) found that dominance, extraversion, and openness positively predicted leadership

emergence. In 2002, Judge et al. examined the relationship between the Big Five personality traits on leadership effectiveness and leadership emergence. They found neuroticism was negatively related to both leader emergence and effectiveness. Judge et al.'s (2002) study also found that extraversion was positively related to leader emergence and leadership effectiveness but more significant in emergent leadership than effectiveness. Judge et al.'s (2002) results align with Spark & O'Conner's (2018) recent study, which tested business students and discovered that introverted individuals were more likely to have adverse effects on emergent leadership than extroverted individuals.

Salovey and Mayer coined EI in 1990. Influenced by Salovey and Mayer, Daniel Goleman developed an interest in EI, which led to his publication in 1995 of the bestselling *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than*. Consequently, scholars began to study the EI effect on emergent leadership, which sparked in the early 2000s. Using MBA students as a sample, Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat (2002) tested empathy, a dimension of EI, on cognition and found empathy contributed to individuals' emergent leadership. The authors found that empathy served as the underpinning for the cognitions and behaviors that support emergent leadership. In 2006, Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth (2002) examined the ability to identify others' emotions and express one's emotions and found both related to task leadership and relational leadership. In 2010, Cote et al. reported findings from dual studies that examined the relationship between EI and emergent leadership and found several EI dimensions related to emergent leadership.

Over the last century of leadership research, scholars have disputed the importance of several intelligences and personality traits on emergent leadership (Zaccaro, 2007). The work of this dissertation contributes academically by examining the influence of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership. This study examines the direct effect of personality traits on emergent

leadership, the direct effect of EI on emergent leadership, and finally, the interaction effect of the relationship between EI and personality traits on emergent leadership.

Drawing on past literature, I considered the links between personality traits and emergent leadership and formulated a hypothesis on emergent leadership constructs. Over the years, researchers have identified thousands of personality traits and dimensions that differentiate one person from another (Judge et al., 2002). However, researchers have finally agreed on five fundamental personality traits that are especially relevant to organizations and across cultures. These five traits are now commonly called the "Big Five" personality traits or "OCEAN," illustrated in Table 2. I organized this discussion according to the Big Five personality traits and their relationship to emergent leadership.

***Table 2: Five-Factor Personality Traits***

<b>Five-Factor Model Personality Traits</b>	<b>Characteristic Description</b>
Openness to Experience	Relates to individuals who tend to appreciate new ideas and suggestions
Conscientiousness	Denotes individuals who are task-oriented, organized, and self-disciplined
Extraversion	Refers to individuals who are talkative, outgoing, and sociable
Agreeableness	Represent comprising, compliant, and getting along with others—collaborative
Neuroticism	Describes individuals with negative emotions, high anxiety, nervousness, and unconfident

#### ***II.4.1 Openness to experience and emergent leadership***

According to the literature, individuals high in openness to experience are inventive, eccentric, and broadminded (Smith & Canger, 2004). These people are interested in new ideas and are willing to change their ideas in response to others' knowledge. In contrast, individuals low in openness tend to be less receptive to others' ideas and are more reluctant to change.

Past research found openness to experience related to emergent leadership (Bass, 1990; Judge et al., 2002). Judge et al.'s (2002) study found openness related to both leader emergence and leader effectiveness. DeRue et al.'s (2011) integrative study found that openness was positively related to leader performance. Then more recently, Conard (2020) found openness to experience related to emergent leadership. Individuals high in openness might be perceived as better performers due to their flexibility and adaptability. According to extant literature, there could be a high likelihood that individuals high in openness will be viewed as leaders due to adding new ideas and accepting others' ideas. Individuals who contribute new ideas are usually perceived as leaders. Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses:

***Hypothesis 1a: Openness to experience will be positively related to emergent leadership.***

#### ***II.4.2 Conscientiousness and Emergent Leadership***

According to Hofmann & Jones (2005), individuals characterized as conscientious are thorough, efficient, steady, and display recurring behavioral regularities. Conscientiousness refers to how an individual can be depended on to get things done. In addition to the characteristics above, conscientious people tend to be well-organized, detail-oriented, dependable, and plan carefully to meet deadlines. Individuals scoring lower in this area may be unorganized, show careless acts, prone to making more errors, and could potentially miss deadlines.

In general, there have been mixed results regarding conscientiousness and emergent leadership. Judge et al. (2002) showed that conscientiousness was positively related to emergent leadership. Contrary to that, Colbert et al. (2012) found that conscientiousness was not a predictor of emergent leadership or leader effectiveness when accounting for all Big Five traits.

The outcome is subject to the job context connected to conscientiousness and emergent leadership literature. Individuals high in conscientiousness may be more likely to emerge as leaders in meticulous positions, like accountants and specialists. Emergent leadership is the perception of others in connection to leadership capabilities. In some cases, peers have little or no information about the targeted individual. Given that there could be limited information on this behavior, there could be cases when conscientiousness is not captured by others and therefore not related to emergent leadership. On the other hand, in team settings involving an end goal or multiple tasks, conscientiousness may become of value to the team. Synthesizing the above, I propose the following hypothesis:

***Hypothesis 1b: Conscientiousness will be positively related to emergent leadership.***

#### ***II.4.3 Extraversion and Emergent Leadership***

McCrae and John (1992) refer to extraversion behavior as social, talkative, energetic, and assertive. The level of extraversion reflects a person's comfort level in dealing with others. Extroverts are open to establishing new relationships. On the other hand, introverted individuals are less sociable, less talkative, and less open to starting new relationships.

Extraversion has been identified as the most significant trait related to emergent leadership. Judge et al. (2002) found that extraversion is linked to leader emergence and leadership effectiveness, most substantial in emergent leadership. Additionally, Reichard et al.'s



(2011) longitudinal study uncovered that extroverted teenagers are more likely to display emergent leadership behaviors in adulthood.

Perception is a critical component of emergent leadership. Highly extroverted people are talkative, asserting themselves in group conversations and leading group discussions.

Extroverted individuals are more sociable than introverts, thus being more interactive with other group members. Initiating group discussions and interacting with others will allow other people to notice them, positively influencing leadership perceptions. Therefore, I propose the following hypothesis:

***Hypothesis 1c: Extraversion will be positively related to emergent leadership.***

#### ***II.4.4 Agreeableness and Emergent Leadership***

The trait agreeableness refers to how individuals interact with others regarding compliance, trust, and tender-mindedness (Patrick, 2011). Agreeableness deals with being compliant, sympathetic, and kind in their dealings with others. Lack of agreeableness could result in being ill-tempered, touchy, and opposed to dealing with others.

Results are blended with positive and negative effects on agreeableness on emergent leadership. Judge et al.'s (2002) research showed a mixture of agreeableness and overall leadership results, but not specifically for emergent leadership. Furthermore, in that same study, when emergent leadership was regressed on all five personality traits, the coefficient for agreeableness became negative. For that reason, ambiguity remains around agreeableness and its relationship to emergent leadership.

Although not fully understood, it seems likely that highly agreeable people could be better at developing good relationships with others than individuals low in openness to

experience. However, perhaps a leader should adhere to the rules and regulations of organizations and not be too agreeable with others. Less agreeable people may have difficulty getting along with others and may not agree with others' ideas. In practical situations, these same patterns might extend to relationships with group members and other critical organizational constituents. Less agreeable individuals who can stand up for their ideas, beliefs, and values are more likely to be perceived as leaders. Given the above, I propose the following hypothesis:

***Hypothesis 1d: Agreeableness will be negatively related to emergent leadership.***

#### ***II.4.5 Neuroticism and Emergent Leadership***

Neuroticism is the personality trait dealing with adjustment and emotional stability (Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Individuals higher in neuroticism experience repulsive emotions like depression and anxiety more than people who are less neurotic. Less neurotic individuals are somewhat calmer, self-confident, and poised. People who are highly neurotic are edgy, touchy, insecure, responsive, and often subject to negative moods and bad attitudes.

Past research found that individuals scoring high on neuroticism are less likely to be perceived as leaders (Colbert et al., 2012; Conard, 2020; Judge et al., 2002). Inversely, individuals scoring low in this area tend to be more likely to handle high stressed situations better (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Individuals deficient in neuroticism might be expected to handle job stress better than those high in neuroticism. Low neurotic people are also better at time management and reducing tension. Having stability could also lead them to be seen as being more dependable. Thus, I expect there will be a negative relationship between neuroticism and emergent leadership and make the following hypothesis:

***Hypothesis 1e: Neuroticism will be negatively related to emergent leadership.***

## II.5 Emotional Intelligence

The study of human emotions has been around long before the construct of EI. EI roots are grounded in social intelligence. Thorndike (1920) defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls to act wisely in human relations" (p.228). Standing on the shoulders of Thorndike's ideas, Gardner (1993) incorporated interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence when theorizing the multiple intelligence theory (MIT). Intrapersonal intelligence refers to a person dealing with their feelings. In comparison, interpersonal intelligence is related to dealing with others' feelings. In that same study, Gardner proposed EI as a mixture of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence.

The earliest researchers to coin the term EI were Salvery & Mayer (1990), who described EI as a person's ability to deal with their own emotions. Specifically, they defined EI as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, discriminate among those emotions, and use this information to guide their thinking and actions.

Salvery & Mayer (1990) and Davies et al. (1998) are the two most influential scholars in EI development. Davies et al.'s (1998) paper summarized earlier EI literature and developed a four-dimensional definition. Davies et al. (1998) described EI as "a set of interrelated skills classified within the following four dimensions: (1) appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself, (2) appraisal and recognition of emotion in others, (3) regulation of emotion in oneself, and (4) use of emotion to facilitate performance" (see Table 3).

The first dimension, appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself (Self-emotions appraisal; SEA), relates to an individual's ability to understand their emotions and express them

appropriately. The second dimension, assessment and recognition of emotion in others (Other-emotions appraisal; OEA), deals with an individual's ability to understand other people's emotions. Third, regulation of emotion in oneself (Regulation of emotion; ROE) is associated with a person's ability to regulate their own emotions. Finally, using emotions to facilitate performance (Use of Emotions; UOE) relates to a person's ability to use their emotions by directing and motivating toward constructive activities and personal performance.

***Table 3: Four Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence***

Davies, Stankov, & Roberts (1998)

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<b>Appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself</b>	Relates to an individual's ability to understand their deep emotions and to be able to express emotions naturally
<b>Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others</b>	Refers to an individual's ability to perceive and understand the emotions of the people around them
<b>Regulation of emotion in oneself</b>	Relates to the ability of a person to regulate their emotions, enabling more rapid recovery from psychological distress
<b>Use of emotion to facilitate performance</b>	Refers to the ability of a person to make use of his or her emotions by directing them toward constructive activities and personal performance

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Subsequent research in defining EI has evolved over the years. Salovey & Mayer's (1990) definition of EI compels that EI is a collection of four dimensions; that is, –all four dimensions make up the one construct, EI. In that same vein, rather than looking at each dimension of EI in this study, I look at EI as a higher-order construct. I am interested in how EI impacts emergent leadership as a whole rather than each facet. Investigating EI as a higher-order construct will

benefit the study for two important reasons. First, it will enable a less complicated nested model. Second, a higher-order construct will reduce the estimated parameters of the nested model. The four facets are likely to have the same directional effect. Hence, using a higher-order construct will be more insightful and, correspondingly, set a foundation for future extensions of this work.

## **II.6 Emotional Intelligence and Emergent Leadership**

Past research has shown that EI is related to leaders' success (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005) and that EI is more significant than cognitive intelligence and personality traits. Kellett et al. (2002) examined whether emotional abilities are related to emergent leadership and discovered that perceiving and expressing emotions (a facet of EI) were positively related to emergent leadership. Additionally, Cote et al. (2010) found that group members in EI exhibited more leader emergence than their peers, supporting the proposition that EI is related to leadership emergence in a positive direction.

George (2000) noted that "except for work on charisma, organizational scholars have neglected the effects of leaders' emotions on effectiveness in favor of a solid cognitive orientation" (p. 1028). With emergent grounded in perceptions, it is reasonable to examine whether or not EI benefits emergent leadership. The ability to understand what others feel, appropriately motivate subordinates accordingly, know how to resolve conflict and shape cooperation in organizations are critical skills of effective managers. Individuals who show these behaviors will likely be perceived as a leader. This study expects that individuals who score high in EI are perceived to be higher on leadership emergence (Kellett et al., 2006). Thus, EI will positively effect emergent leadership. I am led to make the following hypothesis:

***Hypothesis 2: EI will be positively related to emergent leadership.***

## **II.7 The Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence**

Moderator research is necessary to examine dispositional factors that could potentially adjust the impacts of personality traits. To highlight a few potential moderators in emergent leadership, Walter, Cole, van der Vegt, Rubin, & Bommer's (2012) study examined individuals' emotion recognition capability and their emergence into leadership. They assessed trait extraversion and emotion recognition (one aspect of EI) interactively. Furthermore, they found that extraversion and emotional recognition are related to task coordination behavior, influencing the likelihood of emerging as a leader. Recently, Grover and Furnham (2020) applied a moderator analysis to test whether EI and resilience moderated the association between the Dark Triad traits and burnout. They found that EI counters the adverse effects of dark features and burnout and amplifies the positive effects.

Many studies have examined EI and emergent leadership and have allowed moderator testing. However, to my knowledge, no studies have been done on the interactive relationship between EI and personality traits. Indeed, EI is a key predictor of emergent leadership, as found in previous studies (Cote, 2010). In this study, I include EI in the model for several reasons. First, Ashkanasy, Humphrey & Huy (2017) argued that EI is substantially important across a wide range of outcomes and should be included in models to increase the overall predictability. Second, EI is valued across societies and unleashes the potential of leadership (Walter, Humphrey & Cole, 2012). Lastly, the relationship between EI and personality should be viewed holistically rather than in a silo. Individuals do not operate in a silo. Instead, we encompass multiple traits and intelligences simultaneously. Hence, different traits and intelligences should be investigated in the same manner.

This study is an interaction model of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership. I argue that personality and EI could be complementary (e.g., augments the impact of personality traits) and substitutive (e.g., offsets the impact of personality traits) on emergent leadership. Below I propose the possible interactions between personality traits and EI. Given the limited research on the interaction effects between Big Five personality traits and EI on emergent leadership, the next set of hypotheses is somewhat exploratory.

### ***II.7.1 Openness to Experience x EI***

Openness embraces an individual's willingness to accept change. Individuals high in openness appreciate new ideas, tend to be more creative, are better at accepting constructive criticism, and are more susceptible to dramatic shifts within organizations. High openness individuals may likely gain leadership perceptions in group settings. For instance, during the initial phases of group projects, members may not have much information about the project, or members may not know the most efficient process to complete the task. Individuals high in openness are willing to listen to others' ideas, enabling them to select the best alternative.

In contrast, individuals low in openness tend to be less vulnerable to new ideas, reject constructive criticism, and are less reluctant to change. Individuals deficient in openness may not be the most compatible with leading others and may not positively impact emergent leadership. For example, suppose an individual consistently disregards the ideas of others. In that case, others may lose respect for that person as a leader by noticing their thoughts are never considered. Over the years, many studies have found high openness to experience related to emergent leadership (Bass, 1990; Judge et al., 2002; Conard, 2020).

In addition to hypothesizing the direct effect of openness on emergent leadership, this study investigates the interaction effect of openness and EI on emergent leadership. Next, I consider how low and high EI may moderate the relationship between openness and emergent leadership. EI, rooted in social intelligence, is a set of interrelated skills that consist of expressing oneself, recognizing others' emotions, regulating oneself, and using emotions to facilitate performance (Davies et al., 1998). I argue that EI may adjust the effect of openness on emergent leadership for the following reasons.

As indicated earlier, people with high openness often welcome new ideas introduced by others and are more likely to be perceived as emerging leaders (H1a). In the case of high openness, individuals with a high EI have emotional competency to communicate from others' perspectives and thus effectively express their appreciation towards the new ideas proposed by their colleagues, making them more likely to be perceived as emerging leaders.

However, in the case of high-openness individuals with a low level of EI, they lack the emotional competency to understand others' perspectives empathetically. They would hence be less effective in expressing their views, though positive, towards the novel ideas by their colleges, lessening the likelihood of them being considered emerging leaders.

Zaccaro (2001) noted that social skills are vital for leaders. The more influence a leader has on his or her team members, the more social intelligence skills are needed. Individuals operating with high levels of EI –can understand and control their own emotions and others' emotions. By having these capabilities and a high level of openness, they could be perceived as creative, eccentric, and broadminded. These high-openness and high-EI individuals could facilitate and optimize performance in team settings and are thus more likely to be perceived as



leaders. In contrast, individuals high in openness but low in EI may not have the needed skills to display leadership characteristics and are less likely to be perceived as leaders. My discussions above, as a whole, suggest:

***Hypothesis 3a:*** *EI will positively moderate the relationship between openness and emergent leadership*

### ***II.7.2 Conscientiousness x EI***

Conscientiousness refers to the dependability of an individual's diligence in completing tasks Hofmann & Jones (2005). Individuals characterized by high levels of conscientiousness are known for being highly organized and dependable. Research suggests that higher conscientiousness is often a good predictor of performance for many jobs. In addition to the characteristics above, highly conscientious people tend to be detail-oriented and careful planners. Whereas individuals scoring lower in this area are the opposite. Low conscientious individuals tend to be unorganized, show careless acts, prone to making more errors, and potentially miss deadlines.

In addition to hypothesizing that the direct effect of conscientiousness is related to emergent leadership (H1b), this study investigates the interaction effect of conscientiousness and EI on emergent leadership. Next, I consider how low and high EI may moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and emergent leadership. I argue that EI may adjust the effect of conscientiousness on emergent leadership for the following reasons.

Individuals with a high EI can identify their strengths, understand how to lean into them, and use them to their full advantage. High EI also understands their weaknesses. High EI people may be able to delegate tasks where they feel they need assistance, which would create a more positive outcome and increase their likelihood of emergent leadership. Conversely, in the case of

high conscientiousness, individuals with low levels of EI lack the emotional capability to understand their strengths and weaknesses, lessening the likelihood for them to be considered as emerging leaders.

My discussions above, as a whole, suggest:

***Hypothesis 3b:** EI will positively moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and emergent leadership*

### ***II.7.3 Extraversion x EI***

A well-known indicator of extraversion is being sociable and talkative. Individuals high in extraversion are typically described as outgoing. Highly extroverted individuals tend to be more assertive and dominant in group settings than individuals scoring low in extraversion. Individuals who score high in extraversion tend to gain energy from social interactions, whereas introverts need alone time to regain their energy after extensive social interactions. Spark & O'Conner (2018) found that individuals low in extraversion are less likely to emerge as leaders. Along that same vein, a significant amount of research has shown extraversion to be positively related to emergent leadership (Bass & Bass, 2008; Conard, 2020; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 1986; Reichard et al., 2011).

In addition to hypothesizing that the direct effect of extraversion is related to emergent leadership (H1c), this study investigates the interaction effect of extraversion and EI on emergent leadership. Next, I consider how low and high EI may moderate the relationship between extraversion and emergent leadership. I argue that EI may adjust the effect of extraversion on emergent leadership for the following reasons.

Individuals high in extraversion are talkative, outgoing, sociable, and action-oriented. People high in extraversion are more likely to exert themselves in group settings. Hence, they are

more likely to be perceived as an emergent leader (H1c). In the case of high extraversion, individuals with high levels of EI can perceive, control, and evaluate their own emotions and others, making them more likely to be perceived as emerging leaders.

On the other hand, highly extroverted individuals with low EI levels may lack the ability to understand nonverbal signals and facial expressions, which could lessen the likelihood of being perceived as a leader.

My discussions above, as a whole, suggest:

***Hypothesis 3c:** EI will positively moderate the relationship between extraversion and emergent leadership*

#### **II.7.4 Agreeableness x EI**

Agreeableness refers to being compliant, comprising, and getting along with others—collaborative (Patrick, 2011). Individuals high in agreeableness tend to be more respectful and compassionate in dealing with others. High agreeable people are cooperative with others in group settings and are more likely to submit to other's opinion rather than their own. Individuals high in agreeableness need affirmation from others and are often described as "friendly." Individuals high in agreeableness are known to be social and empathize with others.

On the other hand, individuals low in agreeableness could be opposed to accepting others' ideas, are not as cooperative with others, and tend to put their concerns before others. Low scoring, agreeable individuals are often described as competitive, aggressive, and incompatible. Judge et al. (2002) found agreeableness negative on emergent leadership when accounting for all five personality traits.

In addition to hypothesizing the direct effect that agreeableness is not related to emergent leadership (H1d), this study also investigates the interaction effect between agreeableness and EI

on emergent leadership. Next, I consider how low and high EI may moderate the relationship between agreeableness and emergent leadership. I argue that EI may adjust the effect of agreeableness on emergent leadership for the following reasons.

First, as indicated earlier, people with high agreeableness naturally experience empathy and tend to lean toward others' ideas rather than relying on their own. Hence, they are more likely not to be perceived as an emerging leader (H1d). In the case of high agreeableness, individuals with high levels of EI, which is often associated with kindness, consideration, empathy, and compassion, individuals may have too much empathy and allow others to take advantage of their kindness, making them less likely to be perceived as the emerging leaders.

On the other hand, high-agreeable individuals with low EI levels may lack the emotional expertise to use their own emotions to promote thinking and cognitive activity. Hence, they may be less effective in reasoning with emotions, which could lessen the likelihood of being perceived as a leader.

My discussions above, as a whole, suggest:

***Hypothesis 3d: EI will negatively moderate the relationship between agreeableness and emergent leadership***

### ***II.7.5 Neuroticism x EI***

Neuroticism is a trait that deals with individuals' adjustment of feelings and emotional stability (Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Individuals who are highly neurotic tend to be fretful, jealous of others, offensive, insecure, and more subject to mood swings. On the other hand, less neurotic individuals are relaxed, self-confident, and unenvious.

In addition to hypothesizing the direct effect that neuroticism will negatively effect emergent leadership (H1d), this study also examines the interaction effect of neuroticism and EI

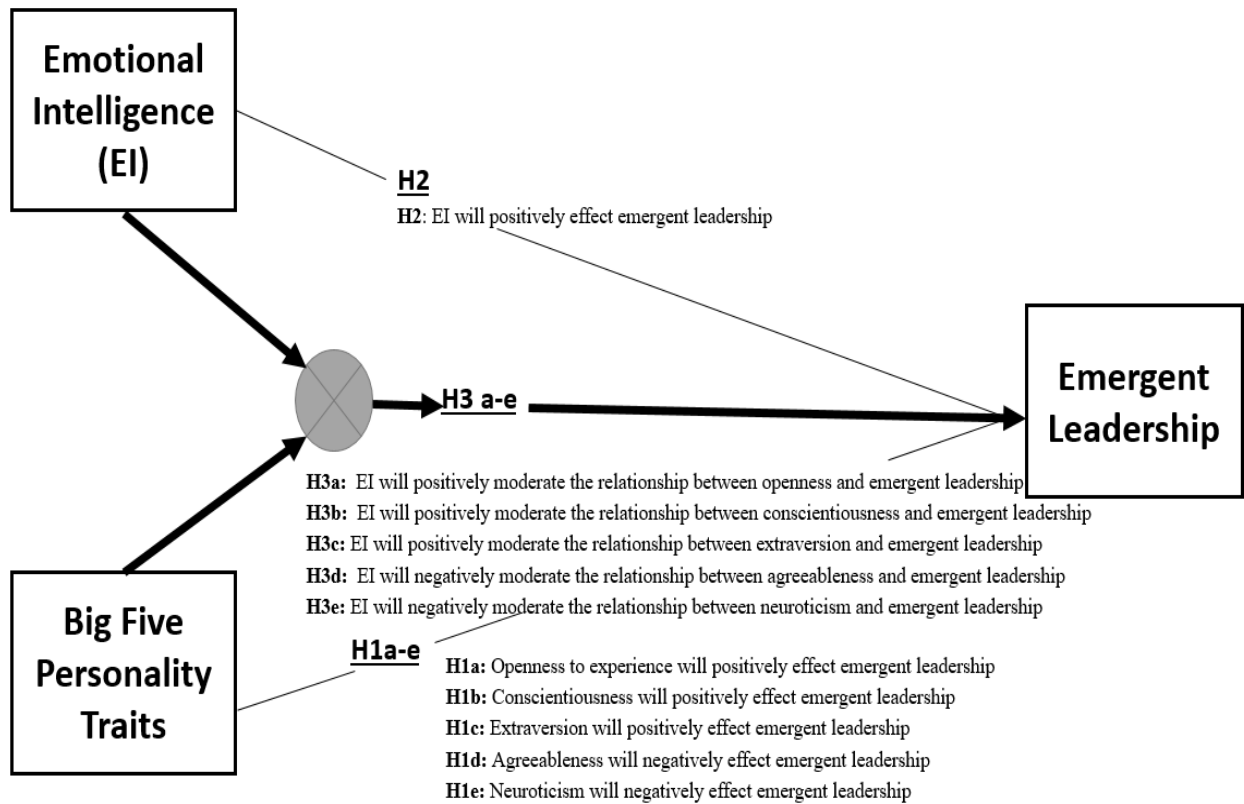
on emergent leadership. Subsequently, I consider how low and high EI may moderate the relationship between neuroticism and emergent leadership. I argue that high and low levels of EI may attenuate or amplify neuroticism on emergent leadership for the following reasons.

As noted earlier, individuals high in neuroticism tend to experience sadness and are emotionally unstable. Extant literature has found that EI can amplify positive effects and buffer adverse effects (Petrides, Vernon, Schermer, & Veselka, 2011). In the case of high neurotic individuals with high levels of EI, I expect that EI will strengthen neuroticism. Inversely, high neurotic individuals with low levels of EI may amplify the adverse effects. Consequently, I expect there will be a negative relationship between neuroticism and emergent leadership and make the following hypothesis:

***Hypothesis 3e:*** *EI will negatively moderate the relationship between neuroticism and emergent leadership*

This study presents a hypothesized model of the direct influence of personality traits on emergent leadership, a direct impact of EI on emergent leadership, and, ultimately, an interaction influence of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership. Figure 2 displays the final model depicting the outlined relationships, accompanied by the specific hypotheses and relationship directions among the focal constructs of this study. Then Table 4 provides a summary of the proposed hypothesis.

**Figure 2: Research Model**



### III. CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, I proposed hypotheses aimed at explaining the direct effects of personality traits (H1a-e) and EI on emergent leadership perceptions (H2). Additionally, I argued that both personality traits and EI interact with emergent leadership (H3a-e). I implement an empirical test of the hypotheses mentioned above in the present chapter. I discuss the measurements, control variables, target subjects, data collection and timeline, and methodological approaches I used to determine initial support for the proposed model.

#### III.1 Measurements

A longitudinal quantitative research study was created to address the research question, "Do personality traits and EI independently and interactively effect emergent leadership?" Next, I will explain the instruments used to evaluate the research question. A completed list of measurements can be found in Table 5.

#### Dependent Variable

**Emergent Leadership.** The concept of emergent leadership lacks a universal measure. However, standard measures used in the literature are self-rated and peer-rated measures. Emergent leadership measures are typically categorized into *laboratory* and *field* studies (Conard, 2020).

Laboratory studies define emergent leadership by observers' perceptions and ratings of a target individual in a leadership group (Cote, 2010; Foti, Foti & Hauenstein, 2007; Judge et al., 2002). The assumption here is that leaders emerge in a leaderless group without an assigned leader when others perceive them as leaderlike (e.g., perception). Hence, peers (e.g., perceptions of others) should determine whether to promote an individual as a leader. Laboratory models are

based on others' perceptions of the qualities and characteristics of a leader. Laboratory studies generally evaluate emergent leadership through peer-rated measurements.

On the other hand, field studies define emergent leadership as to whether a person holds a leadership position or has held a leadership position in the past (Conard, 2020; Kent & Moss, 1994). Field studies are reported using self-rated measurements; individuals rate themselves based on whether they currently serve in a leadership position or held a leadership role in the past. Notably, some researchers have assigned emergent leadership using both approaches (laboratory and field studies).

Hanna et al.'s (2021) meta-analysis revealed that some emergent leadership measurements have uncertain construct validity. Hanna et al. (2021) also discussed the uncertainty of emergent leadership scales not accurately measuring emergent leadership and some possible measurement errors (e.g., common method bias). Jordan & Troth's (2020) article on confirmation bias suggests researchers should gather leadership measures from one source (e.g., peers, supervisors) and individual differences from another source as one mechanism to avoid Common Method Bias (CMB). In preventing CMB, this study fosters the laboratory-style of emergent leadership. One reason I chose laboratory-style was to prevent errors like confirmation bias. Individuals worked in groups for four months, and then their peers measured their level of emergent leadership. Then, individuals self-evaluated their personality and EI levels. Another reason I chose the laboratory style is my conceptualization of emergent leadership. Emergent leadership occurs when others perceive an individual as a leader; hence, peers should measure emergent leadership and the person themselves. When emergent leadership is self-rated, this excludes the perception of other individuals.



The emergent leadership measurement was organized using a 5-item survey influenced by Spark & O'Connor (2021) and used in Hanna's (2021) emergent leadership study. Items included the rater's level of agreement with the items about each team member on a 5-point Likert scale (1= "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Example items include "[Team Member X] assumed leadership in the team, and "[Team Member X] influenced team decisions."

**Independent Variables**  
**Personality Traits.** Researchers have debated the best person to ask when seeking information about someone's personality—the person (e.g., self-report) or someone else who knows that person well (e.g., observer-report and peer-report). Connelly & Ones (2010) showed that personality observer ratings predicted behavioral criteria better than self-ratings. Back & Vazire's (2012) study compared self-rating and observer ratings in predicting behavior. They showed that self-ratings accurately measure traits like extraversion and neuroticism than an observer and peer ratings.

An agreement around the Big Five personality traits has grown to whereby scholars have developed several instruments to measure these five facets. While there is no universal set of scales in this domain, some widely-used, well-validated measures exist. The NEO personality Inventory (NEO PI-R) and the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) were two commonly used personality measures (Costa & McCrae, 1992) in earlier emergent leadership studies.

In 1992, Goldberg developed a set of 100 unipolar adjective markers on the five factors of personality, each factor indexed by a 20-item scale. Later, Saucier (1994) developed a 40-item scale of marker adjectives, known as the "Mini-Markers." In 2003, Gosling, Rentfrow & Swan developed a 10-item Personality Inventory (TIPI), a concise measurement of the Big Five personality traits that can be accomplished in an average of one minute. Although short, the TIPI

has been efficient in some cases, in other cases, it has shown some detriments in its reliability and validity.

For this study, I adopted Saucier's (1994) "Mini-Markers," a subset from Goldberg's (1992) more extensive set of one hundred Big Five markers. The shorter version has maintained measurement properties over time; a 40-item scale lists eight adjectives related to each facet of personality. I chose Saucier's (1994) "Mini-Markers" for several reasons. Mini-Markers was developed from one of the best-known personality tests (Goldberg, 1992). Nonetheless, Goldberg's model entailed 100 items, which is relatively brief compared to NEO PI-R, but research suggests it is still too long. Second, the Mini-Markers is a well-constructed shorter instrument that delineated several complex terms that confused the rater. Finally, because the instrument is self-rated, the main advantage of a self-report in this study will be to quickly and promptly gather personality traits.

Individuals evaluated themselves using a self-report, a 40-item survey based on the five facets of traits (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism), adapted from Saucier (1994). Items include a set of adjectives that describe each of the five personality traits and have 20 reverse coded items. The rater will include their rating of each adjective on a 5-point Likert scale (1= disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Example items include "bashful," "bold," "careless," and "fretful."

**Emotional Intelligence.** A variety of instruments have been used to measure EI. The three most common viewpoints are often called ability, self, and mixed models. Ability models measure EI as a set of abilities regarding how individuals process their emotions and emotional information (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005). The measurement method for abilities models is a series of emotion-based problem-solving items examining an individual's

ability on each facet of EI (e.g., use of emotions, other emotions). Mix models comprise emotional and social competencies. Mixed models combine personality traits, motivational factors, and other concepts. Self-models are when the individuals record their levels of EI by answering a series of questions. Next, I will describe and provide examples (ability or mixed) of the most common measures used.

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso (MSCEIT v2.0), 141- item scale, is an ability-based instrument that uses four scales relating to each facet of the ability model: 1) the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; 2) the ability to access and generate feelings when they facilitate thought; 3) the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and 4) the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10). The Multifactor EI Scale (MEIS), another ability-based scale used to measure EI, similar to the MSCEIT v.2, uses four scales parallel to a branch of the Mayer ability model. The MEIS is comprised of 402 items. The MSCEIT and MEIS have shown good internal reliability and incremental validity above the personality traits and intelligence quotient (Conte and Dean, 2006). Bar-On created the emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) as an observer-rater instrument (360-degree feedback). The EQ-1 a 133-items has shown some discriminant validity (Conte & Dean, 2006).

The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) is classified as a mixed-model instrument. ECI, a 72- item scale, comes in both a self-report and peer-rated measurement. Evidence has shown moderate discriminant validity in studies (Conte & Dean, 2006). Wong Law EI Scale (WLEIS) is a well-known self-report measurement, a 16-item scale. The WLEIS has shown good internal consistency and reliability over time. WLEIS has shown incremental validity above personality traits (Conte & Dean, 2006; Law et al., 2004). The Trait EI Questionnaire (TEIQue)

is noteworthy. TEIQue comes in long and short forms; 153 items (extended version) and 30 items (short version).

Law, Wong, & Song's (2004) paper stated that EI is similar to, but distinctive from, personality traits. Standing on the shoulders of Law et al.'s (2004) remarkable statement and the reasons above, I adopt the WLEIS, a 16-item self-report measure for this study. The most important reason I chose WLEIS is the alignment of the definition of EI. WLEIS scale was created using Davies et al.'s (1998) four-dimensional definition.

The entire development process of the WLEIS scale is well documented in Wong & Law (2002) and has been shown to have good consistency and reliability power. Second, Mayer et al.'s (2004) study discussed the importance of identifying theories about human intelligence by determining whether an intelligence construct is distinct from existing theories, models, and measurements (e.g., personality). Unlike other EI measurements, the WLEIS has been proven not to overlap with personality traits. Third, are time constraints related to the study. WLEIS, a self-report of EI, allows time efficiency by enabling individuals to self-report their level of EI rather than a peer or observation report, which could be more time-consuming than a self-report.

Participants will self-rate their level of emotional intelligence using a 16-item survey originated by Law et al. (2004). The survey will assess four aspects of emotional intelligence: self-emotions appraisal, others-emotions appraisal, use of emotions, and regulation of emotion. A high score implies that an individual is skilled in EI. In contrast, a low score suggests individuals are not highly qualified in the area of EI. Example items include, "I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally," and "I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions." The rater will evaluate their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale (1= "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree").

**Table 4: Measurement Items**

Constructs	Report Type	Time Recorded	Citations
Emergent Leadership	Peer	T2, T3	Spark & O'Connor (2021)
Personality Traits	Self	T1	Saucier (1994)
Emotional Intelligence	Self	T1	Law et al., (2004)
Cognitive Competence	Peer	T2	Harter (1982)

**Control Variables.** I included several control variables to alleviate the concern of alternative explanations in the analysis at both the individual and team levels. Next, I will discuss each control variable and explain its relation to the current model.

**Gender and Ethnicity.** Past research showed that education and gender could influence behavior (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005). Gender (male = 0 and female = 1) and ethnicity (minority = 0 and majority = 1) were included in *t*-tests.

**Cognitive competence.** I controlled for cognitive competence for a few reasons. First, past research found that cognitive competence significantly impacts how others associate this characteristic as "leaderlike" (Ilies et al., 2004). Leaders are typically perceived as handling complex tasks and situations (Judge et al., 2004). Cognitive competence could significantly impact whether others perceive someone as worthy of a leadership position. Participants rated the extent to which they agree with the 7-item cognitive competence scale adapted from Harter (1982). Items will be peer-rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree"). Team members answered each question regarding their team members in a round-robin approach. Example items include "[Team member X] can figure out questions that arise" and "[Team member X] understands things they are told or read."

I will also control the team level (e.g., team size). Past research found that size is essential when working in teams (Shaw, 1991). Group size can have a significant effect on emergent leadership. A group with many members has more networks available and may finish

many tasks quicker. However, the greater the number of members on a team, the more complexity of the interactions and communications will be, making it extra challenging for a large group to achieve agreement while working on a task. Participants will explicitly list and name each team member in their group.

### **III.2 Target Subjects in Teams**

I recruited a sample of business students enrolled in four different management-focused courses from two southern universities in the United States. Each team was chosen using a random selection method. Each participant was a member of a three to five-person team that was not assigned a designated leader. The team remained in its integrity as one group throughout the semester. Each course included in this study was online, so the teams met virtually and completed all tasks online. I discussed the research and the proposed benefits of participating via email along with the course instructor. After the initial contact, students were given the option to participate and receive extra credit throughout the semester. Students who agreed to participate signed an informed consent document included in the study. All communication after that was conducted either through an online course learning management platform or by direct email.

### **III.3 Data collection tool and Data collection timeline**

Data was collected using the electronic survey platform Qualtrics at three points during the semester, as shown in Table 7. In the first survey (T1), respondents were asked to respond to demographic questions (e.g., gender and ethnicity). Additionally, participants were asked to input their group size and list the names of all group members. Respondents self-rated their personality and EI during the first wave of the survey. A month later (T2), participants peer-reported their peers' emergent leadership and cognitive competence levels. Participants repeated the peer emergent leadership ratings in the third month (T3). I measured peer emergent

leadership at two-time points for consistency, but I used emergent leadership in the third month as the dependent variable. I used T3 emergent leadership scores rather than T2 because T3 allowed group members a more extended period with their peers, which provided more accurate ratings. An organized table of the variables collected at each time point is provided in Table 6.

**Table 5: Data Collection Timeline**

Time 1	Time 2 One Month Later	Time 3 One Month Later
<div> <div>Personality Traits</div> <div>Emotional Intelligence</div> <div> <div>Gender Ethnicity Course Previous Team Exp</div> </div> </div>	<div> <div>Emergent Leadership</div> <div>Cognitive Competence</div> </div>	<div> <div>Emergent Leadership</div> </div>

Self-report	<input type="text"/>
Peer-report	<input type="text"/>
Control Variables	<input type="checkbox"/>

### **III.3.1 Sample Size**

Seventeen variables were considered for the current study: thirteen focal and four control variables. A standard ratio of 1:5 suggests 85 participants. The final study sample was comprised of 175 business students. The focal variables include personality traits (openness to experience,

conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism), EI, emergent leadership, and the interaction effect of personality traits and EI (openness to experience x EI, conscientiousness x EI, agreeableness x EI, agreeableness and x EI, extraversion x EI, and neuroticism x EI). In addition to the focal variables, I accounted for control variables at both the individual level (e.g., gender, ethnicity, course, and cognitive competence)) and team level. Control variables mark out variables that have been known to affect the independent variable but have no particular theoretical interest in their effects on the current study.



## **IV. CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

The data analysis methods I used for this study include factor analysis and multilevel regression using IBM SPSS. From the invited sample of 175, 174 individuals agreed to participate. After removing individuals with incomplete responses, a final sample of 167 students remained across 38 teams (team size  $x = 4.51$ ; range = 3-5. Among respondents, 73 identified as female, 93 as male, and one as not applicable. Ethnicity was categorized as majority and minority. The majority of respondents made up 56 percent, and the minority represented 44 percent of the sample.

### **IV.1 Main Analysis**

First, a principal factor analysis (PCA) was performed with oblique rotation and minimum eigenvalue = 1 for factor retention to assess the measurement model. Among the multi-item constructs (i.e., the five personality constructs, the four emotional intelligence constructs, cognitive competence, and leadership emergence), one item for Openness to experience, one item for Extraversion, one item for Neuroticism, and two items for Agreeableness were dropped because of low loadings or high cross-loadings.

Since all measurement items were adapted from prior literature, I further conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 25.0 to perform a more conservative evaluation of the measurement model. Per theorizing, EI was modeled as a second-order latent construct with four first-order dimensions; other multi-item constructs were all modeled as first-order latent constructs. The measurement model was revised iteratively by dropping, one at a time, items that had low loadings or shared a high level of residual variance with other items (Gefen et al., 2003). Like PCA, the CFA model shows acceptable fit after dropping one item for Openness,

one item for Extraversion, one item for Neuroticism, and two for Agreeableness. The CFA fit indicators consistently used in prior studies demonstrate acceptable fit.

The ratio of Chi-square over degree of freedom ( $\chi^2/DF = 1.265$ ) is much lower than the threshold of 5 (Gefen et al. 2003); the comparative fit index (CFI = 0.975) and Tucker Lewis index (TLI = 0.970) are both higher than the required 0.95 (Hu et al., 1999); the standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR = 0.050) is lower than the threshold of 0.08 (Hu et al., 1999), and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA = 0.043) is lower than the required 0.06 (Hu et al., 1999). Notably, given the available sample size and model complexity, I further performed a bootstrapping simulation and found a Bollen-Stine p-value of 0.17, which is higher than the suggested 0.05 (Bollen & Stine 1992; Hsieh et al., 2011), providing further support for the measurement model given our sample size.

Table 7 lists the descriptive statistics and correlations, composite reliabilities (CRs), and average variance extracted (AVE) based on the CFA results. Cronbach's alphas and CRs are all higher than the required 0.707 (Nunnally, 1978), confirming the reliability and convergent validity. All the AVE values are above the threshold of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), and the square roots of all the AVE values are all higher than the correlations among the latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010), indicating adequate convergent validity and discriminant validity (Barclay et al., 1995).

**Table 6: Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations**

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<b>O</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>EI</b>	<b>CC</b>
<b>O</b>	167	3.95	0.55	(.73)						
<b>C</b>	167	4.19	0.58	0.33**	(.81)					
<b>E</b>	167	3.49	0.78	0.15	0.28**	(.83)				
<b>A</b>	167	4.11	0.63	0.27**	0.50**	0.20**	(.77)			
<b>N</b>	167	2.21	0.7	-0.34**	-0.37**	-0.14	-0.46**	(.76)		
<b>EI</b>	167	4.21	0.52	0.44**	0.43**	0.33**	0.51**	-0.51**	(.89)	
<b>CC</b>	167	4.09	0.56	-0.14	-0.02	0.14	0.23	0.00	-0.50	(.96)
<b>EL</b>	167	3.75	0.82	-0.09	-0.04	0.19*	-0.04	-0.01	-0.01	0.69**(.97)

*Note:* Sample Size (N), Mean (M), Standard Deviation (SD)

The diagonal figures in parentheses are alpha reliability scores for the respective scales.

(O) Openness to experience, (C) Conscientiousness, (E) Extraversion, (A) Agreeableness, (N) Neuroticism, (EI) Emotional Intelligence, (CC) Cognitive competence, and (EL) Emergent Leadership.

\*\*p < 0.01

\*p < 0.05

## IV.2 Hypothesis Testing

I applied the linear mixed-effects models (MIXED) procedure in IBM-SPSS to perform cross-level analyses with the hierarchically nested data to test the hypotheses. MIXED is a standard cross-level software program that has been widely used for this purpose in published studies (Judd et al., 2012; Peugh and Enders, 2005; Verbeke and Molenberghs, 2000). Focal variables are locally centered at the team level for analysis (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). Satterthwaite's method was used for the t-tests. Table 8 presents the results. The VIF values of all entered predictors were lower than 5, minimizing the threat of multi-collinearity (Hair et al., 2018).

<b>Table 7: Multi-Level Analysis Results</b>			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
<b>Step 1: Individual-Level Control Variables</b>			
Intercept	-1.278 **	-1.733 **	-2.121 **
Prior Experience with other Members	0.031	0.020	-0.025
Ethnic Majority	-0.133	-0.114	-0.123
Gender	0.147	0.144	0.147
Cognitive Competence	<b>1.187 **</b>	<b>1.187 **</b>	<b>1.197 **</b>
<b>Step 2: Individual-Level Variables</b>			
Openness (OPEN)		-0.020	-0.011
Conscientiousness (CONS)		-0.029	-0.037
Extraversion (EXTRAV)		<b>0.116 *</b>	<b>0.124 *</b>
Agreeableness (AGREE)		-0.125	-0.117
Neuroticism (NEURA)		0.003	0.009
Emotional Intelligence (EI)		0.169	0.166
EI x OPEN		0.032	0.034
EI x CONS		0.024	0.019
EI x EXTRAV		-0.037	-0.032
EI x AGREE		0.048	0.063
EI x NEURA		-0.014	-0.003
<b>Step 3: Team-Level Control Variables</b>			
Team Size	The proportion		0.060
Proportion of Team with Prior Experience with other Members			0.105
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	62.9%	65.7%	66.6%
<b>Delta R<sup>2</sup></b>		2.9%	0.9%

Note: All coefficients reported here are unstandardized beta coefficients. \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01

#### ***IV.2.1 Hypothesis 1a - Rejected***

Hypothesis 1a stated that openness to experience would positively affect emergent leadership. Analysis revealed that the relationship between openness to experience and emergent leadership was not significant, and therefore, openness to experience does not impact emergent leadership.

#### ***IV.2.2 Hypothesis 1b – Rejected***

Hypothesis 1b stated that conscientiousness would positively affect emergent leadership. Analysis revealed that the relationship between conscientiousness and emergent leadership was not significant, and therefore, conscientiousness does not impact emergent leadership.

#### ***IV.2.3 Hypothesis 1c –Supported***

Hypothesis 1c stated that extraversion would positively affect emergent leadership. Analysis revealed that the relationship between extraversion and emergent leadership was statistically significant in a positive direction. Therefore, extraversion does positively influence emergent leadership.

#### ***IV.2.4 Hypothesis 1d – Rejected***

Hypothesis 1d stated that agreeableness would have a positive effect on emergent leadership. Analysis revealed that the relationship between agreeableness and emergent leadership was not statistically significant, and therefore, agreeableness does not impact emergent leadership.

#### ***IV.2.5 Hypothesis 1e- Rejected***

Hypothesis 1e stated that neuroticism would have a negative effect on emergent leadership. Analysis revealed that the relationship between neuroticism and emergent leadership was not statistically significant. Neuroticism does not influence emergent leadership.

#### ***IV.2.6 Hypothesis 2 – Rejected***

Hypothesis 2 stated that EI would positively effect emergent leadership. Analysis showed that the relationship between EI intelligence and emergent leadership was not significant. EI does not generate emergent leadership.

#### ***IV.2.7 Hypothesis 3a - EI and Openness to Experience – Rejected***

Hypothesis 3a stated that EI would moderate openness to experience. Analysis showed that EI does not statistically moderate the relationship between openness and emergent leadership after controlling for group and gender, race, and cognitive competence. Therefore, the interaction between EI and openness does not affect emergent leadership. However, cognitive competence showed significance in this model.

#### ***IV.2.8 Hypothesis 3b – EI and Conscientiousness – Rejected***

Hypothesis 3b stated that EI would moderate conscientiousness on emergent leadership. Analysis showed that EI does not statistically moderate the relationship between conscientiousness and emergent leadership after controlling for group and gender, race, and cognitive competence covariates. Therefore, the interaction between EI and conscientiousness does not affect emergent leadership. Cognitive competence also showed significance in this model.

#### ***IV.2.9 Hypothesis 3c – EI and Extraversion – Rejected***

Hypothesis 3c stated that EI would moderate extraversion on emergent leadership.

Analysis showed that EI does not statistically moderate the relationship between extraversion and emergent leadership after controlling for group and gender, race, and cognitive competence covariates. Therefore the interaction between EI and extraversion does not impact emergent leadership. Cognitive competence also showed significance in this model.

#### ***IV.2.10 Hypothesis 3d – EI and Agreeableness – Rejected***

Hypothesis 3d stated that EI would moderate agreeableness on emergent leadership.

Analysis showed that EI does not statistically moderate the relationship between agreeableness and emergent leadership after controlling for group and gender, race, and cognitive competence covariates. Therefore the interaction between EI and agreeableness does not influence emergent leadership. Cognitive competence showed significance in this model.

#### ***IV.2.11 Hypothesis 3e – EI and Neuroticism – Rejected***

Hypothesis 3e stated that EI would moderate neuroticism on emergent leadership.

Analysis showed that EI does not statistically moderate the relationship between neuroticism and emergent leadership after controlling for group and gender, race, and cognitive competence covariates. Therefore the interaction between EI and neuroticism does not affect emergent leadership. Cognitive competence also showed significance in this model. A summary of each hypothesis and the study's final results can be found in Table 10.

**Table 8: Hypothesis and Results Summary**

<b>Hypothesis</b>			<b>Results</b>
H1a	+	Openness to experience (O) → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H1b	+	Conscientiousness (C) → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H1c	+	Extraversion (E) → Emergent Leadership	Supported*
H1d	-	Agreeableness (A) → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H1e	-	Neuroticism (N) → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H2	+	Emotional Intelligence (EI) → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H3a	+	O x EI → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H3b	+	C x EI → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H3c	+	E x EI → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H3d	-	A x EI → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported
H3e	-	N x EI → Emergent Leadership	Not Supported

Note: \*\*p < 0.01 level, \* p < 0.05

After controlling for gender, ethnicity, course, and cognitive competence

### IV.3 Post-Hoc Analysis

The following post-hoc analyses were conducted for further insights. Specifically, in post-hoc analyses, EI was treated as four distinctive dimensions and then examined their direct impacts and interaction effect (with five personality traits) on emergent leadership. Consistent with the main analysis results, the post-hoc results (Model 3, Table 10) suggest that extraversion and cognitive competence positively influenced leadership emergence. Moreover, I found that individual appraisal of others' emotions (OEA) independently impacted leadership emergence (unstandardized  $\beta = 0.116$ ,  $p < 0.05$ , Model 3, Table 10). Nevertheless, there was no significant interaction between any of the four emotional intelligence dimensions and any of the five personality traits, consistent with the main analyses that EI and personality do not interactively impact leadership intelligence.



**Table 9: Multi-Level Analysis Results**

	<b>Model 1</b>	<b>Model 2</b>	<b>Model 3</b>
<b>Step 1: Individual-Level Control Variables</b>			
Intercept	-1.147 **	-1.147 **	-1.535 **
Prior Experience with other Members	0.044	0.044	-0.010
Ethnic Majority	-0.085	-0.085	-0.090
Gender	0.178	0.178	0.181
Cognitive Competence	<b>1.184 **</b>	<b>1.184 **</b>	<b>1.190 **</b>
<b>Step 2: Individual-Level Variables</b>			
Openness (OPEN)		0.024	0.038
Conscientiousness (CONS)		-0.014	-0.022
Extraversion (EXTRAV)		<b>0.121*</b>	<b>0.126 *</b>
Neuroticism (NEURA)		-0.030	-0.025
Agreeableness (AGREE)		-0.156	-0.150
Use of Emotion (UOE)		0.030	0.033
Regulation of Emotion (ROE)		-0.073	-0.071
Other's Emotion Appraisal (OEA)		<b>0.116 *</b>	<b>0.116 *</b>
Self-emotion Appraisal (SEA)		0.032	0.028
UOE x OPEN		<b>0.108 *</b>	0.102
UOE x CONS		0.024	0.021
UOE x EXTRAV		-0.048	-0.040
UOE x NEURA		0.055	0.057
UOE x AGREE		-0.005	0.005
ROE x OPEN		0.001	0.016
ROE x CONS		-0.026	-0.031
ROE x EXTRAV		-0.032	-0.023
ROE x NEURA		0.013	0.025
ROE x AGREE		0.067	0.069
OEA x OPEN		-0.082	-0.089
OEA x CONS		-0.020	-0.014
OEA x EXTRAV		0.008	0.002
OEA x NEURA		-0.007	0.000
OEA x AGREE		0.028	0.036
SEA x OPEN		-0.042	-0.038
SEA x CONS		0.055	0.054
SEA x EXTRAV		-0.009	-0.006
SEA x NEURA		-0.044	-0.042
SEA x AGREE		0.056	0.056
<b>Step 3: Team-Level Control Variables</b>			
Team Size			0.059
Proportion of Team with Prior Experience			0.123
<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>	62.9%	69.3%	69.6%
<b>Delta R<sup>2</sup></b>		6.4%	0.3%

## V. CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This dissertation developed an interaction model of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership to address the research question: "*Do personality traits and EI independently and interactively effect emergent leadership?*". The model examined the direct relationship between personality traits on emergent leadership, the direct relationship between EI on emergent leadership, and finally, the interaction effect of personality traits and EI on emergent leadership. Arguments presented in this study align with the views outlined in PTT and AIM. Specifically, personality traits are stable over time and will be different between leaders and non-leaders, and that affect is likely to influence cognition and judgment when ambiguity and uncertainty exist (Forgas, 1995).

The empirical analyses provided mixed support. The study's contributions are twofold to academics and practitioners. From a practitioner's perspective, findings can assist with distinguishing potential leaders and assist in predicting the behaviors of others, which subsequently correlate with the effectiveness of their performance (DeRue et al., 2011). Academically, the findings contribute to recent calls in emergent leadership literature by exploring the direct and interaction effects of personality and EI (DeRue et al., 2011; Conard, 2020). Moreover, the study contributed to theory by testing the boundary conditions of the PTT.

### V.1 Practical Contributions

First, the study contributes to practice by providing managers and organizations with a parsimonious group of traits for emergent leadership talent that could be easily assessed and promote employees who are likely to assume leadership positions. The study results revealed that extraversion is related to emergent leadership. This aligns with extant literature in that extraversion is the strongest predictor related to leadership emergence and leadership

effectiveness but is more potent in leadership emergence (Lord, 1986). Many emergent leadership studies associated with personality traits have shown mixed results for personality traits like openness to experience and conscientiousness. However, the quality that has demonstrated reliability in emergent leadership situations is extraversion (Conard, 2020; Reichard et al., 2011; Spark et al., 2018; Spark & O'Connor, 2021). Although this study did not support four of the five traits (openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and neuroticism), context should be considered when accessing emergent leadership. Purvanova, Charlier, Reeves & Greco (2021) accessed emergent leadership across the virtuality spectrum and found that context influences the saliency of antecedent in emergent leadership.

In this study, students worked together in a completely online environment (e.g., high virtuality). Since there were no requirements on the frequencies of group meetings or the communication channel, that information is unknown. So it is likely, that the opportunity was not present for individuals to see their peer's level of openness to experience, neuroticism, or other traits like EI.

Also, related to the context of this study, cognitive competence was used as a covariate. Cognitive competence refers to attaining knowledge and information through thinking, such as reasoning and problem-solving skills. Cognitive competence is often associated with intelligence and has shown to be related to emergent leadership (Ilies et al., 2004; Judge et al., 2004; Kickul & Neuman, 2000; Locke, 1991).

Participants peer-rated each group member using Harter's (1982) 7-item scale ( $\alpha = .96$ ). Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Example items included "[Team Member X] is as competent as others" and "[Team Member X] can figure out questions that arise." Notably, cognitive competence was statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) in all 11 regression models.

Kirkpatrick & Locke (1991) declared that a “keen mind” (e.g., solid analytical ability) is necessary for effective leadership. These results are interesting because of this study’s context. When group members are formed for a limited amount of time, with a specific objective for a grade, it is possible that group members are not interested in learning about the other individual’s personality traits or their level of EI. In this context, individuals seemed to be more concerned about who was the most competent in getting the task done.

Second, this study contributes to practice for individuals seeking leadership positions. Impression management insinuates that individuals could use certain information to promote a specific image (Leary, 1996) in particular situations. Therefore, it is possible that individuals can learn which traits they can emulate to help them land leadership roles within the organization they currently serve or organizations they desire to work. Individuals highlighting extraversion and cognitive competence characteristics could promote them into leadership positions rather than leaving these critical characteristics unnoticed. For example, knowing extraversion enables leadership tendencies; individuals may speak up in meaningful situations regarding their ideas when they typically remain quiet.

## **V.2 Theoretical Contribution**

In addition to the practical contributions described above, the study also provides meaningful theoretical contributions, specifically for the PTT. PTT has focused on traditional leadership models (leadership effectiveness, transformational leadership, transactional leadership) and single traits (Conard, 2020; Derue, 2011). This study extended PTT boundaries and explored the impact of EI interaction on emergent leadership and the context. PTT asserts that personality traits are stable over time, and there are differences between leaders and non-

leaders. However, PTT does not explain why specific characteristics are indicative when other traits, like EI, are included.

Furthermore, PTT does not include contextual factors associated with traits. This research integrated AIM (Forgas, 1985) to investigate if emotions are critical determinants of cognitive judgments about risks and gains linked with emergent leadership and if the PTT remains stable when taking EI into account. Although results reflected no support for the interaction model (personality traits x EI), the PTT does not consider the context, which could likely be associated with the results in this study.

Many studies have shown incremental validity and relative importance of personality traits and EI across various outcomes (e.g., leadership, job performance, stress). However, there was still an opportunity to contribute to the limited domain of interaction effects in this area of research (Conard, 2020). This study assessed all personality traits and EI interactively. Results showed that when a regression model is used to analyze different traits interactively, this increases predictability, giving greater insight into the emergent leadership phenomenon.

Moreover, there is a plethora of literature regarding the incremental validity of EI. This study's findings provided evidence of both the criterion and incremental validity of EI measured with a self-test, particularly the Law et al. (2004). The results of this study decrease confidence that EI is a valuable construct that can enrich the understanding and prediction of emergent leadership.

### **V.3 Limitations**

Despite the strengths, the study has limitations that call for future research. First, the study was based on students for the participant sample. In general, this could mean that most

participants could lack organizational experience or may not fully understand some of the questions addressed in the study. This novice experience could have impacted the results of the research. Student samples are also prone to be biased because they may feel obligated to participate due to their status as a student.

Another limitation worthy of mentioning is the study's context. Students were randomly selected to work in groups on a group project over the semester in online courses. A lack of social interaction with their group members could have impacted the results. In this case, individuals may not have adequate opportunities to see their peer's EI capabilities or specific personality traits. Trait extraversion is when individuals are considered outgoing and talkative and would be more evident than the other personality traits measured in the study. Together, the results in this study may not generalize to emergent leadership in real-world organizational situations. However, all participants were at least 18 years of age, and a well-known piece of research demonstrated the stability of traits through the lifespan of emergent leadership (Reichard et al., 2011). Also, due to the recent pandemic, organizations are working more in remote settings. Thus, the study findings are likely to correlate with emergent leadership into adulthood and similar organizational situations.

Another limitation is the sample size. Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough (2009) discussed the importance of sample size and noted researchers should have an acceptable sample size, and controlling for hierarchical nesting is pertinent (e.g., levels of analysis). Also, Snijders & Bosker (2012) referenced that relationships tend to perform better when sample sizes are increased. Since the data were nested in the current study, a sample with more participants would be desirable in the future. A larger sample would allow for a more robust model.

CMB was also a limitation in this study. Jordan & Thoth (2020) highlight the importance of CMB as an essential requirement for publishing in competitive journals. CMB occurs in quantitative research when the estimates of relationships amongst two or more constructs (independent, dependent, mediators, and moderators) are biased because they are measured identically (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). For example, in this study, a 5-point Likert scale (1= "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree") was used to test all the focal variables, which could potentially result in the artificial inflation of relationships (Jordan & Thoth, 2020). Self-reporting can also be problematic (Paulhus, Lysy, & Yik, 1998) and is vulnerable to CMB because individuals could be unaware of their strengths and capabilities. In general, individuals also tend to inflate or deflate their scores.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff (2012) advised two approaches to mitigate CMB – 1) procedurally and 2) statistically. Procedural-wise, the current study's dependent, and independent variables are from different sources. For example, the emergent leadership (dependent variable) measures were gathered from the peers of each individual within their particular groups (e.g., peer evaluation). Then each participant self-rated their personality and EI differences (e.g., independent variables).

Lastly, EI was tested as a higher-order construct rather than investigating each of the four facets that comprise EI (appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself, appraisal and recognition of emotion in others, regulation of emotion in oneself, and the use of emotion to facilitate performance). Elfenbein & MacCann (2017) explained that each emotional ability is interconnected, granting permission to investigate EI as a higher-order construct. Although using EI as a higher-order construct was beneficial to the study due to time constraints, studying each facet of EI would generate more helpful information. For example, by analyzing each aspect,

researchers may find that appraisal and recognition of emotion in others promote a leader's behavior more than appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself.

#### **V.4 Future Research Directions**

This research provided a look into two different types of traits influencing emergent leadership –personality and EI. However, other vital antecedents should be explored to understand emergent leadership better. In addition to the recommendations made in the prior section, I propose several directions for future research to explore further the relationships discussed in the hypothesized model.

##### ***V.4.1 Expanding Antecedents***

Future research can take several directions by expanding the antecedents and situational effects on emergent leadership (Derue et al., 2010; Hanna et al., 2021). Although many researchers have studied trait-based approaches to predict the characteristics of individuals who emerge as leaders, it is crucial to revisit using a full range of personality traits and other traits interactively because these types of studies are still limited. Research focusing on traits in a silo rather than collectively omits other factors that may influence emergent leadership.

##### ***V.4.2 Longitudinal Studies***

Extant literature shows very little process models research on emergent leadership. Researchers narrowing emergent leadership studies to variance models (e.g., causal effects) bounds the mechanisms that involve process models, like explaining *how* individuals result in emergent leadership and *why* individuals emerge as leaders. It is essential for researchers not to overlook process model studies of emergent leadership for future studies.



### ***V.4.3 Cross-Cultural Factors***

DeRue & Ashford (2010) argued that leader identities are granted based on normative cultural values, suggesting that identities are unlikely to be granted widely by those from multiple cultures with different values. By applying similar research methodologies across diverse cultures, researchers can better understand to what extent antecedents influence leaders' perceptions and differences across various cultural factors. A direct replication study could replicate the process in other cultures (e.g., Eastern vs. Western), as personality traits and emotional displays may be culture-dependent to emergent leadership.

## **V.5 Conclusion**

Overall, the findings suggest that extraversion is a significant predictor of emergent leadership, but EI does not influence emergent leadership directly or interactively. Cognitive competence was used as a covariate and was significantly influential in each model. Understanding how different traits relate to emergent leadership in other contexts has several contributions to practitioners and academic research. In this context, team members' peer perceptions of a leader seemed to be geared more toward competent individuals capable of getting the job done rather than those who were highly emotional intelligent or some of the personality traits (agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness). In summation, organizations seeking emergent leaders should focus on individuals who are high in extraversion and cognitively competent to gain leadership buy-in from their peers.

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## APPENDIX

### Appendix A: Measurement items

#### EMERGENT LEADERSHIP

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Spark & O'Connor (2021), *The Leadership Quarterly*

1. [Team Member X] assumed leadership in the team.
2. The team relied on [Team Member X] for leadership.
3. [Team Member X] influenced others in the team.
4. [Team Member X] influenced team decisions.
5. [Team Member X] led the conversation in the team.

#### EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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Law, K. S., Chi-Sum Wong, & Song, L. J. (2004), *Journal of Applied Psychology*

##### ***Self-emotion appraisal (SEA)***

1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.
3. I really understand what I feel.
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.

##### ***Others' emotion appraisal (OEA)***

5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.
6. I am good observer of others' emotions.
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.
8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.

##### ***Use of emotion (UOE)***

9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.
11. I am a self-motivated person.
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.

##### ***Regulation of emotion (ROE)***

13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.
16. I have good control of my own emotions.

## PERSONALITY TRAITS

Saucier, G. (1994), *Journal of Personality Assessment*

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<input type="checkbox"/> Bashful	<input type="checkbox"/> Moody
<input type="checkbox"/> Bold	<input type="checkbox"/> Organized
<input type="checkbox"/> Careless	<input type="checkbox"/> Philosophical
<input type="checkbox"/> Cold	<input type="checkbox"/> Practical
<input type="checkbox"/> Complex	<input type="checkbox"/> Quiet
<input type="checkbox"/> Cooperative	<input type="checkbox"/> Relaxed
<input type="checkbox"/> Creative	<input type="checkbox"/> Rude
<input type="checkbox"/> Deep	<input type="checkbox"/> Shy
<input type="checkbox"/> Disorganized	<input type="checkbox"/> Sloppy
<input type="checkbox"/> Efficient	<input type="checkbox"/> Sympathetic
<input type="checkbox"/> Energetic	<input type="checkbox"/> Systematic
<input type="checkbox"/> Envious	<input type="checkbox"/> Talkative
<input type="checkbox"/> Extraverted	<input type="checkbox"/> Temperamental
<input type="checkbox"/> Fretful	<input type="checkbox"/> Touchy
<input type="checkbox"/> Harsh	<input type="checkbox"/> Uncreative
<input type="checkbox"/> Imaginative	<input type="checkbox"/> Unenvious
<input type="checkbox"/> Inefficient	<input type="checkbox"/> Unintellectual
<input type="checkbox"/> Intellectual	<input type="checkbox"/> Unsympathetic
<input type="checkbox"/> Jealous	<input type="checkbox"/> Warm
<input type="checkbox"/> Kind	<input type="checkbox"/> Withdrawn

## COGNITIVE COMPETENCE

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Harter (1982), *Child Development*

1. [Team Member X] is good at his/her work.
2. [Team Member X] likes his/her work and does it well.
3. [Team Member X] is as competent as others.
4. [Team Member X] can figure out questions that arise.
5. [Team Member X] finishes his/her work quickly.
6. [Team Member X] remembers things easily.
7. [Team Member X] understands things he/she is told or read.

## **VITAE**

**SHINIKA L.BYRD**

Lecturer of Management



### **EDUCATION**

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Doctor of Business Administration  
Georgia State University  
Atlanta, Georgia, May 2022.

Master of Business Administration  
University of North Alabama  
Florence, Alabama, December 2015.  
Concentration: Executive Business

Bachelor of Interdisciplinary Studies  
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Emphasis: Business, December 2012.

### **PROFESSIONAL PROFILE OVERVIEW**

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Shinika Byrd is a business professional with over 20 years of experience working for numerous organizations and business startups. Dr. Byrd is co-owner of CQI Insulation & Sprayfoam, an insulation company in Northwest Alabama founded by her husband. CQI has served residential and commercial properties for over 20 years providing quality and eco-friendly insulation in Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee.

Through Byrd's passion for business and teaching others practical business decision-making skills, she also serves as a Lecturer in the College of Business at the University of North Alabama.

### **TEACHING EXPERIENCE**

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#### **Instructor, University of North Alabama, 2019-Current**

- Introduction to Business (MG100)
- Principles of Management (MG330)
- Organizational Behavior (MG331)
- Hospitality Management (MG345)
- Financials in Hospitality (MG350)
- Independent Study (MG499)

#### **Teaching Assistant, University of North Alabama, 2015-2019**

- Principles of Management (MG330)
- Organizational Behavior (MG331)
- Leadership (MG602)

## **CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS**

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*"The Impact of Personality Traits and Emotional Intelligence on Emergent Leadership"*  
Engaged Management Conference. Miami, FL, 2022.

## **PROFESSIONAL UNIVERSITY SERVICE**

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*Chair, College of Business Technology, Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion Task Force, Current*  
*Mentor, Athletic Diversity Program, 2015-2018*  
*Hiring Committee Member, 2019-Current*  
*University Investigator, 2021*

## **COMMUNITY SERVICE**

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Co-chair, Department of Human Resources Board, Colbert County, Alabama, 2019 - Current  
Board member, Friends of the Library, Florence, Alabama, 2021 - Current  
Affiliate, Black-owned Business Expo of the Shoals, Sheffield, Alabama, 2021 - Current

## **PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT CERTIFICATES**

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Global Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion, AACSB, 2021  
Executive Doctorate Teaching Certificate, Georgia State University, 2021  
Hospitality and Tourism Management, Florida Atlantic University, 2020  
Preparing Faculty to Teach Online, University of North Alabama, 2020  
Strategic Doing in Higher Education, University of North Alabama, 2018  
Lean Management in Higher Education, University of North Alabama, 2018