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Emergent Leadership: Toward an Empirically Verifiable Model

Prepared for the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute

Prepared by Chris Mahar and Tammy Mahar

Saint Mary's University

Halifax, Nova Scotia

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Abstract

When compared to other models of leadership, the emergent leadership construct has received little attention within the literature (De Souza & Klein, 1995; Kickul & Neuman, 2000). However, due to the flattening of organizational hierarchies, autonomous work groups increasingly will occupy a pivotal role. This organizational change warrants a comprehensive analysis of emergent leadership. The following investigation into emergent leadership is organized into three broad sections. In the first section, traditional models of leadership are reviewed to determine the degree to which they address the emergent leadership construct. In the second section, the emergent leadership literature is assessed to determine factors that influence the leadership emergence process. In the final section, the first two sections are compared to determine the degree to which the emergent leadership construct converges with and/or diverges from traditional leadership models. Additionally, the final section outlines the shortcomings of traditional emergent leadership research as well as recommendations for the future study of the construct. Finally, because emergent leadership rarely has been assessed beyond simple bivariate relationships (Kickul & Neuman, 2000), information provided in the first and second sections is used to create an empirically verifiable multivariate model of emergent leadership.

Emergent Leadership: Toward an Empirically Verifiable Model

The leadership construct has been studied for nearly a century (Hains, Hogg, & Duck, 1997), and has been conceptualized using a wide variety of factors, including individual traits, leader behaviour, follower perceptions, role relations, influence over followers, and influence on organizational culture (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). However, leadership is not always a formalized operation that is sanctioned by organizations, nor does it always occur in the context of a leader-follower relationship. The emergent leadership construct, specifically, has not received adequate attention or analysis within the literature when compared to other models of leadership, such as transformational leadership (De Souza & Klein, 1995; Kickul & Neuman, 2000). Additionally, traditional theories of leadership, such as charismatic, transformational, and visionary leadership models, often do not address the dynamics, contextual components, or outcomes of emergent leadership (Bryman, 1992). Due to the flattening of organizational hierarchies, and the transformation of management paradigms within various organizations, autonomous work groups increasingly will occupy a pivotal role. It is this current organizational demand that makes the study of the dynamics of emergent leadership necessary and substantive. Specifically, as the strategic security environment continues to change, a comprehensive understanding of emergent leadership will become critical to the Canadian Forces.

The emergent leadership construct, like traditional leadership models, has been postulated to be a function of personality, contextual variables, group dynamics, gender roles, physical appearance, group cohesion and commitment, or some combination and/or interaction between or among these factors (De Souza & Klein, 1995; Ellis & Cronshaw, 1992). Several definitions of emergent leadership exist. Emergent leadership has been defined as a dynamic social process during which a specific individual adopts the role of leader (Moss & Kent, 1996). Emergent leaders also are defined as group members who exert significant influence over other members of

the group, although no formal authority is vested to the emerging leader (Schneider & Goktepe, 1983). Alternately, the construct has been defined as a process of framing and defining reality to provide a viable basis for action (Cook, 1994). Furthermore, emergent leadership has been considered to be a leadership substitute, which occurs in situations where a formal leader is absent, yet where a leadership role must be fulfilled to accomplish performance requirements (Lawler, 1988). Although the definitions of emergent leadership vary, they do share the common theme that emergent leadership is a social process, whereby its occurrence is dependent upon the individual, the followers, the situation, or an interaction between or among these components. Additionally, it is clear that the emergence process sometimes occurs formally, whereby an individual is designated officially by group members, senior leaders, or the system, to be the leader; or informally, whereby an individual evolves as a group's leader without being designated officially (Yukl & VanFleet, 1992). The effectiveness of the leader, however, does not seem to depend on whether the designation of the role is formal or informal (Stogdill, 1974).

The following investigation into the emergent leadership construct is organized into three broad categories. Firstly, traditional models and theories of leadership are reviewed to determine the degree to which they address emergent leadership or are applicable to leader emergence. Secondly, in a manner that resembles a conceptual meta-analysis, past and current emergent leadership research is assessed to determine what factors influence the emergent leadership process. Finally, the first two sections are compared to determine the degree to which emergent leadership converges with and/or diverges from traditional leadership models. This section addresses whether emergent leadership is a different type of leadership domain, or whether it occurs as a result of an individual already possessing traditional leadership traits. This section also outlines shortcomings of past emergent leadership research as well as recommendations for the future study of the construct. Finally, because emergent leadership rarely has been assessed

beyond simple bivariate relationships (Kickul & Neuman, 2000), this section concludes with the

development of an empirically verifiable, multivariate model of emergent leadership.

<div align="center">Traditional Models of Leadership</div>

This section reviews several traditional models and theories of leadership with regard to

the degree to which they address the emergent leadership construct. Each model discussion

includes an outline of the given model followed by its relation emergent leadership. Traditional

leadership models that are discussed include transformational leadership theory, charismatic

leadership theory, leader-member exchange theory, Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of

leadership effectiveness, path-goal leadership theory, situational leadership theory, and the

attributional leadership model and cognitive categorization theory.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership theory is studied more frequently than all other leadership

theories combined. The most influential transformational leadership theorist is Bernard Bass

(Judge & Bono, 2000). Bass (1985) conceptualized leadership as a three-component taxonomy:

laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. Laissez-faire

leadership often is described as a non-leadership component, so it is not relevant to the emergent

leadership construct. Transactional leadership involves influencing subordinates through an

exchange process, whereby subordinates exchange efforts for rewards received from their

respective leaders. Transactional leaders are focused on the present rather than the future, in that

they are considered to be task-oriented (Bass, 1985). The difference between transactional and

transformational leadership sometimes is viewed as being similar to the difference between

managers and leaders. Transactional behaviours are considered to be management behaviours,

whereas transformational behaviours are viewed as leadership behaviours; transformational

leaders extend beyond the simple transactional leadership exchange process (Bass, 1985).

Contemporary transformational leadership theory dates back primarily to Burns (1978). According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership is a process whereby leaders and followers reciprocally empower each other to rise to higher levels of motivation and morality. Transformational leaders do not involve themselves in basic emotions, such as greed or fear, but instead go beyond them to promote justice and freedom. Transformational leaders are considered to be moral agents, and often stimulate their followers to become transformational leaders themselves (Burns, 1978). Much of Bass's (1985) work on transformational leadership was developed using Burns (1978) as a benchmark, although there are fundamental differences between their theories. Bass (1985) stressed that followers inherently possess needs and wants that expand depending on the degree of transformational leadership to which they are exposed. Unlike Burns (1978), Bass (1985) believed that there are both negative and positive versions of transformational leadership, and that both are equally powerful in their abilities to transform followers. Furthermore, whereas Burns (1978) believed that transformational and transactional leadership occupy opposite extremes of a continuum, Bass (1985) believed that transformational leadership is a higher-order leadership. In this case, transformational leaders first possess characteristics attributed to transactional leaders, such as simply defining a given task and what will be received in return for properly executing the task. Eventually, the attainment of desired goals progresses toward achievement and envisionment beyond basic transactions.

Transformational leadership is theorized to be multidimensional, whereby individuals who possess this form of leadership style are diverse in their behaviours and attributes, and are characterized by a wide range of leadership qualities (Bass, 1985). Avolio and Bass (1988) suggested that transformational leaders provide a clear sense of purpose that is energizing, are role models concerning ethical conduct, stimulate followers to question the status quo of solving problems, and encourage innovative problem solving. Transformational leaders understand the

needs of followers and work with them to develop their full potential. They clearly define what is expected of followers and what followers will receive based on their performance. Furthermore, transformational leaders monitor task execution for problems that may arise, correct problems to maintain performance levels, and react to problems if they become serious. The aforementioned leadership behaviours have been defined operationally as intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence (Avolio & Bass, 1988). An interesting question with reference to the emergent leadership construct is whether leaders who emerge possess transformational characteristics inherently, or whether leaders eventually emerge due to persistent exposure to transformational leaders, independent of their own level of transformational leadership.

Transformational leaders as emergent leaders. According to Bass (1990), due to their initiative, interaction, and contributions to completing group tasks, emergent leaders are characterized as individuals who establish conditions that promote the accomplishment of group goals and objectives, increase members' freedom and acceptance, and assist in the development of cohesive teams. Specifically, followers emerge as leaders within group settings because past exposure to a transformational leader prepares them to move beyond simple transactional behaviours (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, based on Bass's (1985) theory, transactional leaders become transformational due to consistent exposure to transformational leaders; however, the process requires the transactional leader to possess a minimal quantity of transformational characteristics to become transformational. Therefore, according to the theory, an individual who does not possess a minimal level of transformationalism will not progress into being a transformational leader, despite of his or her level of exposure to a transformational leader.

The theory of transformational leadership is a theory of how the developmental process of the leadership role emerges within organizations. However, most of the research that employs

the theory primarily focuses on using pre-designated or appointed leaders. Therefore, although the theory of transformational leadership is a theory of leadership role emergence and development, it is rarely assessed using the emergent framework. Rather, the theory primarily is studied using a dyad approach, whereby individuals are required to rate the level of transformationalism of pre-designated or appointed leaders. Most common are studies in which transformational leaders focus on the manager-subordinate dyad, where the manager is considered to be the transformational leader (Barbuto, Fritz, & Marx, 2000; Barbuto, Fritz, & Matkin, 2001; Deluga, 1988; Sosik, Potosky, & Jung, 2002; Van Engen, Van Der Leeden, & Willemsen, 2001; Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998). Nonetheless, other dyadic relationships beyond the manager-subordinate relationship are studied, including religious leader-follower dyads (Druskat, 1994), school teacher-principal dyads (Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995), student-leadership confederate dyads (Jung & Avolio, 2000), and military officer-soldier/subordinate dyads (Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993).

Other methods for studying the transformational leadership construct involve follower ratings of a pre-designated leader through the use of vignettes (Deluga & Souza, 1991; Levy, Cober, & Miller, 2002), appointed confederate leaders (Sosik, 1997), follower imagining techniques (Singer & Singer, 1986), and follower ratings of various past leaders (Butler, Cantrell, & Flick, 1999; Judge & Bono, 2000). Furthermore, a relatively new area of transformational leadership research involves training managers or supervisors who are relatively devoid of transformational qualities for the purpose of improving job satisfaction, performance, or organizational commitment (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). However, relating this technique to emergent leadership does not make intuitive sense because of the nature of emergent leadership; research would suggest that training is relatively unnecessary for the phenomenon of emergence to occur. It seems that, in theory, the

transformational leadership phenomenon converges with the concept of emergent leadership because followers emerge as transformational leaders due to exposure to transformational leaders. However, in reality, the transformational leadership construct actually diverges from the emergent leadership concept because of the manner in which transformational leadership models are tested and employed in practice. A leadership style that also receives considerable attention within the literature is charismatic leadership style, which is discussed in the section that follows.

Charismatic Leadership Theory

Charismatic leaders possess strategic vision and have an incredible ability to motivate followers to achieve ambitious goals. Charismatic leaders also tend to be involved in radical transformation of large bureaucratic organizations as well as in the creation of successful entrepreneurial adventures (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Charismatic leadership theory can be separated into three stages or behavioural components. The first stage involves a heightened sensitivity to social and physical environments in which a leader operates (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The charismatic leader also must be sensitive to the abilities and the emotional needs of followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Sensitivity to the environmental context and to follower abilities and emotional needs is necessary in order for the leader to assess constraints and availability of resources, because the sensitivity facilitates leader strategies and behaviours that achieve organizational objectives (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). What distinguishes a charismatic leader from a non-charismatic leader during the first stage is that a charismatic leader actively searches for shortcomings in the status quo. Hence, any context that stimulates a need for major change will lead to the emergence of a charismatic leader (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

The second stage of charismatic leadership theory involves the formulation and the articulation of a vision (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Vision refers to an idealized goal that the leader wants the organization to achieve. The charismatic leader's vision tends to be extremely

discrepant with regard to the status quo. Articulation of the vision involves two processes:

articulating the context of the vision and articulating the leader's motivation to lead (Conger &

Kanungo, 1988). Firstly, the leader must articulate the shortcomings of the status quo, his or her

vision of the future, and how the vision will ameliorate the deficiencies of the status quo (Conger

& Kanungo, 1988). Secondly, the leader verbally and non-verbally articulates a motivation to

lead followers based on self-confidence, convictions, and assertiveness. Immediately after the

followers accept the leader's vision, the leader more so is considered to be likeable and worthy

of imitation (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

The final stage of charismatic leadership theory involves achieving the vision. An

effective leader clearly demonstrates the methods and behaviours required to achieve a vision,

and builds followers' sense of confidence in their abilities. Furthermore, the leader's vision is

achieved through developing follower trust in the leader. This stage of follower trust in the leader

is achieved through observing the leader's selflessness, engagement in personal risk tactics,

communication skills, expert knowledge, and unconventional behaviours, all of which contribute

to motivating the leader to achieve his or her vision (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Based on the

previous discussion of the three phases of charismatic leadership theory, charismatic leadership

comprises nine components: relation to status quo, future goals, likeableness, trustworthiness,

expertise, unconventional behaviour, environmental sensitivity, articulation, power base, and

leader-follower relations (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The issue of interest is whether any or all

of these components of charismatic leadership relate to the concept of emergent leadership.

Charismatic leaders as emergent leaders. Charismatic leadership is an attribution based

on follower perception of the leader's behaviour. Specifically, the group member who exerts

maximum influence over other group members through referent and expert power will be

perceived as the leader, and will emerge as such. Furthermore, charismatic qualities are outward

expressions of the leader's disposition, or personal style of interacting with followers (Conger &
Kanungo, 1988). Therefore, an individual who possesses charismatic qualities is most likely to
be viewed by group members as influential, and is the most likely candidate to emerge as the
leader within a group. Charismatic leadership theory, fundamentally, is an emergent leadership
model; the theory is written to explain how a particular individual emerges as a leader within
leaderless group situations. However, like transformational leadership theory, relatively little
research has been conducted on charismatic leadership theory using circumstances in which the
leadership role was not appointed.

Although the theory of charismatic leadership is a theory of leadership role emergence,
the theory rarely is assessed using the emergence framework. Like transformational leadership
theory, charismatic leadership theory primarily is studied using a dyad approach, where
individuals are required to rate the level of charisma of appointed leaders. Specifically, many
studies of charismatic leaders focus on the manager-subordinate dyad, whereby the manager is
considered to be the charismatic leader (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000; Sosik, 2001; Sosik,
Avolio, & Jung, 2002; Sosik & Dworakivsky, 1998). However, other dyadic relationships are
studied beyond the manager-subordinate relationship, including religious leader-follower dyads
(Carlton-Ford, 1992; Salisbury, 1956), mentally ill patient-therapist dyads (Nathan & Slovak,
1976), student-graduate student or student-professor dyads (Hunt, Boal, & Dodge, 1999; Shamir,
1995), and military officer-soldier dyads (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998).
Furthermore, the charisma of presidential advisors and candidates, and past presidents has been
examined (Cherulnik, Donley, Wiewel, & Miller, 2001; Deluga, 2001). Finally, charisma has
been examined using past successful business leaders or currently successful CEOs (Jacobsen &
House, 2001; Waldman & Yammarino, 1999). Nonetheless, although extremely limited, a few
studies have focused on the emergence of charismatic leaders in leaderless groups.

Based on 596 managers and subordinates within 101 work units, Pillai and Meindi (1998) found that the organic structure and collectivistic nature of organizations positively predicts the emergence of a charismatic leader. However, perceptions of an impending crisis decrease the likelihood of the emergence of a charismatic leader (Pillai & Meindi, 1998). Pillai (1996) divided 96 students into 16 groups and allowed sufficient interaction time for students to make solid nominations of the leader of the group. Furthermore, some of the groups were required to interact within a crisis context. Unlike the study conducted by Pillai and Meindi (1998), the crisis conditions in this study led to a significantly greater emergence of charismatic leaders, and the leaders who emerged were rated to be more effective leaders. Finally, Haslam, Platow, Turner, Reynolds, McGarty, Oakes, Johnson, Ryan, and Veenstra (2001) found that male charismatic leaders are more likely to emerge as leaders when their behaviour promotes and affirms shared in-group identity. Overall, the emergence of charismatic leaders within leaderless groups preliminarily has been confirmed. Due to the confirmation of the applicability of charismatic leadership theory to emergent leadership, and to the fact that the theory is a model of emergent leadership, future research regarding the theory should focus on using emergent leadership frameworks, such as those that refrain from using appointed leaders to test the theory. Leader-member exchange theory, a less common theory to appear in the leadership literature, is discussed next to determine its relevance to emergent leadership.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Leader-member exchange theory describes the long-term process of role development between a leader and his or her followers (Yukl, 1998). Specifically, the followers and their leader mutually develop and define the roles of the followers. Furthermore, the leader develops separate exchange relationships with each follower. Either a special exchange relationship is forged with a small number of trusted followers, and these followers are classified as the in-

group, or little mutual influence is realized, and the remaining group members are classified as the out-group (Yukl, 1998). Legitimate authority combined with coercive and reward power is the main source of leader influence on out-group followers. The relationship between out-group members and the leader is largely transactional, whereby effort is traded for expected outcomes or rewards. In-group members tend to exert extra effort and emit greater commitment compared to out-group members. In return, the leader gives in-group members interesting and desirable tasks, greater authority and responsibility, extrinsic satisfaction enhancers such as increased pay and benefits, and dramatically improved career opportunities (Yukl, 1998). Knowing this information about the theory, the question of relevance is whether the theory bears any relation to the concept of emergent leadership.

Leader-member exchange theory and emergent leadership. The leader-member exchange theory does not describe how a leader initially comes to power, or how a leader develops over time, nor does it describe how in-group followers obtain future leadership roles, if they even do at all (Yukl, 1998). Development of the leader-follower relationship begins with a testing phase that involves having the leader and the follower evaluate each other's potential resources and role expectations (Yukl, 1998). Therefore, the theory simply describes the formation of the relationship between each follower and a clearly defined, or previously designated leader (Yukl, 1998), Additionally, like transformational and charismatic leadership theories, the primary method for studying leader-member exchange theory is through the use of dyads, particularly manager or supervisor-subordinate dyads (Bauer & Green, 1996; Cunningham & MacGregor, 2000; Engle & Lord, 1997; Ferris, 1985; Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Sherony & Green, 2002; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002), although other dyadic relationships have been studied, such as coach-player relationships (Case, 1998). Not a single research article could be found pertaining to the emergent leadership phenomenon and the

leader-member exchange theory; therefore, it appears that the model is not applicable to the study of emergent leadership. In the section to follow, Fiedler's (1967) contingency model is discussed to determine its relevance, if any, to emergent leadership.

Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership suggests that group performance and effectiveness is a function of how the leader rates his or her least preferred co-worker, which is measured by the least preferred co-worker scale (LPC scale). Specifically, group performance is considered to be a function of the interaction between the position power of the leader, the task structure of the leadership situation, and the quality of the personal relationship between the leader and the group (Fiedler, 1967). Position power refers to the degree to which the job position itself enables the leader to influence group members to comply with and accept the leader. Position power highly relates to French and Raven's (1968) legitimate power and reward power. Task structure is defined as decision verifiability, or the degree to which the decision can be demonstrated by appeal to authority, logical procedures, or feedback; goal clarity, or the degree to which the task requirements are stated clearly; goal-path multiplicity, or the degree to which the task can be completed using a variety of procedures; and solution specificity, or the degree to which there is more than a single solution (Fiedler, 1967). The personal relationship between group members and the leader refers to the degree of compliance obtained from group members, as compared to the quantity of effort necessary for the leader to exert in order to obtain trust and compliance. The interactions among task structure, position power, and leader-group relations form an eight-quadrant matrix (Fiedler, 1967).

The LPC score of a given leader is used to determine in which quadrant the leader falls. Although both high and low LPC leaders desire task completion and success, there is a fundamental difference between these two groups with regard to outcomes deemed valuable

(Fiedler, 1967). Low LPC leaders mostly desire task success, in that they are task-oriented, whereas high LPC leaders desire successful interpersonal relationships, in they are relationship-oriented. The model attempts to determine situations in which leaders of various LPC scores perform most effectively (Fiedler, 1967). Task-oriented leaders are most successful and effective in situations that are most and least favorable to them, whereas relationship-oriented leaders are most successful and effective in moderate situations between the two extremes. The model is based not on training and adapting leaders to specific situations; rather, it suggests that leaders should be placed in situations that are best suited to their leadership style (Fiedler, 1967). Therefore, the model appears to be applicable only when a pre-designated leader is present, which is an aspect of leadership theory that repeatedly has shown limited promise in terms of its relevance to the emergent leadership construct.

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model and emergent leadership. Generally, Fiedler's (1967) contingency model mostly has been tested using appointed or pre-designated leaders; therefore, evidence to support the applicability of the model to emergent leadership research is limited (Bons & Fiedler, 1976; Hardy & Bohren, 1975; Jones & Johnson, 1972; Justis, Kedia, & Stephens, 1978; Rice, Bender, & Vitters, 1982; Schneier, 1978; Shaw & Blum, 1966). Specifically, a major criticism of the model is its lack of focus on leadership developmental issues. However, it appears that the model is useful particularly for predicting emergent leadership in field-study contexts rather than in laboratory-study contexts (Fiedler, 1971; Rice & Chemers, 1973; Schneier, 1978). Research conducted by Fiedler (1971), Rice and Chemers (1973), and Schneier (1978) are the only assessments pertaining to emergent leadership and contingency theory that could be found within the extant literature. Schneier (1978) suggests that contingency theory is relevant to emergent leadership because situational characteristics are useful for predicting the style of the leader who emerges within a leaderless group situation.

According to Schneier (1978), in situations that produce a significantly negative correlation between LPC scores and group performance, individuals with the lowest LPC score in the group, which is indicative of a task-oriented leader, significantly tend to emerge as the group leader. However, an earlier study failed to provide evidence for Schneier's (1978) assertion and findings (Rice & Chemers, 1973). A further criticism of the relationship between emergent leadership and the contingency theory is that most research in the area is quite dated. More solid conclusions could be breached with more current research. Nonetheless, the model mainly focuses on appointed leaders, so its relation to emergent leadership is quite weak. The next leadership theory to be addressed in terms of its relevance to emergent leadership is the path-goal theory.

Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

Path-goal theory describes the relations among leadership style, follower characteristics, and situational characteristics, as well as how follower satisfaction and performance are influenced by a leader's behaviour (Northouse, 1997). According to the theory, a successful leader will present followers with rewards for their efforts, as well as the paths necessary to follow to be rewarded, and will aid followers in removing reward obstacles (House, 1971). The theory suggests that leader behaviour reinforces follower beliefs that a direct relationship exists between exerted effort and task completion. This direct relationship leads to obtaining desired rewards, which in turn creates job satisfaction (Hughes, Ginnette, & Curphy, 1998). Therefore, the leader's behaviour is satisfying to the follower when both the attractiveness of a goal as well as follower confidence in achieving the goal increase simultaneously (Northouse, 1997).

There are four types of leadership behaviours that are included in the path-goal model of leadership: participative, supportive, directive, and achievement-oriented (Hughes et al., 1998). The situation and situational characteristics determine which leadership style will be adopted to accomplish desired goals. Participative leaders consult with followers to obtain their

contributions regarding goal decision-making. Supportive leadership involves respectful behaviour toward followers, being sensitive of follower needs, and establishing good relations with each group member. Directive leaders set clear performance standards and behaviour regulations to complete tasks and obtain desired goals. Finally, achievement-oriented leaders challenge followers to achieve their full potential during task completion through setting high standards and goals, while they demonstrate confidence in followers' abilities to achieve these goals (Hughes et al.). Furthermore, included in the model are three situational variables that impact the adoption of specific leadership styles: environmental variables, such as internal and external characteristics of the organizational environment; task variables, such as role clarity, the presence of routine methods for work, and externally imposed controls regarding the task; and individual differences, such as intelligence, role expectations, and personality (Hughes et al.). The model postulates that leaders use different styles with different subordinates, as well as different styles in different situations with the same subordinate. What now needs to be addressed is whether this model is relevant to leader emergence.

   Path-goal theory of leadership and leader emergence. The path-goal theory states that leaders need to be aware of the situational surroundings and individual characteristics of their followers in order to determine the appropriate style of leadership behaviour they should employ so that desired goals are achieved. Not a single study of this theory explains leader emergence. Furthermore, the available research on this theory primarily employs appointed or pre-designated leaders (Fry, Kerr, & Lee, 1986; Keller, 1989; Knoop, 1982; McIntosh, 1990; Sagie, Elizur, & Koslowsky, 1995; Schriesheim & De Nisi, 1981; Schriesheim & Von Glinow, 1977; Szilagyi & Sims, 1974; Thomas & Tartell, 1991). Therefore, the path-goal theory of leadership does not appear to add to the understanding of the emergent leadership construct. Perhaps the situational leadership theory will be relevant to leader emergence.

Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) meticulously reviewed twentieth century leadership research and theory, and concluded that no single theory was complete. Leadership theories have been defined narrowly; theories focus on partial components of the leadership process, such as personality components alone, instead of ubiquitously defining the leadership role and process (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The situational leadership theory was devised to address previous leadership research and theory, and suggests that the effectiveness of any leadership style is dependent on the situation and the response of the followers. Specifically, the model suggests that leader behaviour completely depends on the maturity of each follower. Maturity includes two components: psychological maturity, which determines the willingness of followers to perform job tasks, and involves self-efficacy and self-respect; and job maturity, which refers to the follower's knowledge, ability, and skill in regard to task completion (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The leader's behaviour directly influences the maturity of each follower, where the leader must be able to adapt his or her behaviour to the situation and to individual follower needs.

Based on the model, leadership behaviour is classified as being directive or supportive. Directive leaders focus on efficient and effective task completion, and ensure that follower confidence is optimized for task completion. Supportive leaders focus on each follower, and desire effective interpersonal relationships them. These leaders engage in behaviours such as support and individual encouragement (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Effective leaders are postulated to have the ability to adapt their behaviour to situational demands and follower needs. The interaction between follower maturity and leader behaviour is postulated to lead to one of four possible leadership styles: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. Telling involves a directive pattern of behaviour, whereby the leadership role only involves giving orders for task completion to followers and monitoring follower behaviour. The telling style leads to optimal

performance when the follower's psychological and job maturity are low (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The selling leadership style involves directive and supportive patterns of behaviour. The selling style involves convincing followers of their ability to complete an assigned task, as well as explaining the necessity and importance of task completion. This leadership style is effective when follower psychological maturity is high and job maturity is low (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Participating involves a supportive pattern of behaviour, whereby mutual interaction between the leader and follower is necessary for determining the most effective and efficient course of action for task completion, given the specific situation. This style of leadership is effective when follower psychological maturity is low, yet job maturity is high (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The final style of leadership, delegation, does not involve supportive or directive leadership behaviours; followers are assigned authority along with new responsibilities to carry out with relatively complete autonomy. This style of leadership is effective only when followers possess both high job and psychological maturity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Although the Hersey and Blanchard (1982) model has intuitive appeal, the U.S. military abandoned its use in the early 1990s because it failed to address important leadership issues (Wadell III, 1994). One overlooked issue is peacetime versus wartime leadership, whereby consequences and follower mental state are more critical for combat leadership situations. The model also fails to address levels of leadership execution, in that the leadership role regarding appropriate behaviours broadens and is more difficult as the level of leadership increases. Finally, the model fails to describe the difference between operational and staff leadership. Operational leadership involves having a greater focus on the task, and is more directive, whereas staff leadership involves significant quantities of interaction with followers, and is more supportive and participative (Wadell III, 1994). Although abandoned by the U.S. military, the issue of how the model relates to the concept of emergent leadership still remains.

Situational leadership theory and emergent leadership. Based on the aforementioned criticisms of the Hersey and Blanchard (1982) model of leadership, it appears that the model may not be accurate in predicting leader emergence in leaderless situations, especially within a military context. Furthermore, a review of the extant literature failed to uncover a study of the model as it relates to emergent leadership. Additionally, the model primarily discusses appointed leaders (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; Goodstein, 1987; Kivlighan, 1997; Norris & Vecchio, 1992; Pascarella & Lunenburg, 1988; Silverthorne & Wang, 2001; Vecchio, 1987), and therefore, is not particularly useful for understanding emergent leadership. Two final methods for assessing leadership are discussed in the section to follow. They include the attributional leadership model and cognitive categorization theory. Attributional and cognitive leadership models are discussed concurrently due to their relative similarity. Unlike the past several models discussed, but like the first two models discussed, they seem to in fact show signs of relevance to the leader emergence concept.

Attributional Leadership Model and Cognitive Categorization Theory

Attributional leadership theory is based on follower perceptions of the leadership role (Calder, 1977). Specifically, each follower holds an implicit theory of the leadership role, including appropriate leader behaviour, the cause of leader behaviours, and external constraints to effective leader behaviour. A follower's implicit theories are formed from exposure to leaders in various situations. Within a group situation, when an individual's behaviour matches another's implicit theory of leadership, the individual will be viewed as a leader, and will be treated as such (Calder, 1977). Alternately, cognitive theories of leadership, such as Cronshaw and Lord's (1987) cognitive categorization theory, propose that human beings are unable to process, encode, and retrieve all information within their physical and social environments. Instead, humans use cognitive heuristics to aid information processing (Shaw, 1990). The use of prototypes is the

binding concept between attributional and cognitive theories. Shaw (1990) suggests that individuals match observed stimuli with a prototype, whereby the prototype, which is similar to what is meant by implicit theories, is the most representative component of a cognitive category. When applied to leadership research, if salient and overt behaviours of an individual are perceived by others to be highly similar to a leadership prototype, the individual will be encoded into memory as a leader (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987).

The primary problem with the cognitive and attributional models of leadership is that they assume that specific characteristics of the individual determine how others perceive the leadership role. Therefore, an individual who does not possess these characteristics will not be viewed as a leader. This argument is similar to personality trait theorists of leadership who suggest that the fundamental difference between followers and leaders is their individual characteristics, which largely has been supplanted within current leadership research (Ellis & Cronshaw, 1992). However, Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt, (2002) provide considerable evidence for re-evaluating the personality approach within the area of leadership. Furthermore, the cognitive categorization and attributional models have been supported inadvertently by research regarding the generalization of the leadership construct, whereby individuals with substantial leadership experience consistently tend to be viewed as leaders in future situations, and are more likely to emerge as leaders within leaderless contexts (Hains et al., 1997). Unlike many of the other models addressed previously, these models intuitively appear to be useful for understanding emergent leadership, whereby it is possible that individuals who emerge in leaderless situations do so due to follower prototypes or implicit personality theories.

Attributional leadership, cognitive categorization, and leader emergence. Although there is an existence of an intuitive appeal, extant literature with regard to the cognitive categorization theory of leadership and the attributional theory of leadership does not assess the relationship

between these theories and the emergent leadership construct. Furthermore, attributional theory, with regard to the leadership construct, primarily deals with leader attributions of subordinate performance and behaviour (Offerman, Schroyer, & Green, 1998). The primary methods for assessing the attributional theory of leadership is to use appointed confederate leaders (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987), to present vignettes describing leadership behaviour (Powell & Butterfield, 1984), to assess the qualities of political leaders (McElroy, 1991), and to assess manager-subordinate dyads (Dirks, 2000; Srivastava, Calcutta, & Sett, 1998). Two methods have been used extensively to assess the cognitive categorization theory of leadership: presenting small teams a video depicting leadership behaviour (Binning, Zaba, & Whattam, 1986; Phillips, 1984; Phillips & Lord, 1981), and obtaining objective ratings within supervisor-subordinate dyads (Mount & Thompson, 1987; Rush & Russell, 1988; Shaw, 1990). Therefore, direct evidence for the applicability of these models to emergent leadership is absent. However, as already stated, due to intuitive appeal of these models as they relate to emergent leadership, and due to their relation to personality explanations of leadership and prior leadership experience, a direct test of their relationship to emergent leadership would be interesting and informative. Future research on these theories, therefore, should include the test of an emergent leadership component.

The preceding discussion of attributional and cognitive models of leadership concludes the examination of traditional leadership theories and their applicability to emergent leadership. The major section to follow describes the literature that addresses emergent leadership directly. Emergent leadership research is reviewed to determine which factors relate to, predict, affect, and are consequences of emergent leadership. The section discusses the relationships among emergent leadership and the leader categorization theory; gender, gender roles, and gender-specific tasks; leader characteristics; leader personality factors; and the situation and environment. The section concludes with the consequences of emergent leadership.

Emergent Leadership Theories and Research

Much of the extant leadership research focuses on established and appointed leadership roles. Although the appointed leader of a given group is considered to be the 'official' leader of the group, the appointed leader is not always the 'operational' leader of the group. In general, the operational leader of a given group completely and directly guides task completion, and is classified within the literature as the 'emergent' leader. Furthermore, the operational group leader tends to emerge in situations in which the official leader has failed, which suggests that the emergent leadership role is a role dedicated to 'filling in a gap' caused by a deficient appointed leader. This section reviews past and current models and research studies concerning emergent leadership to determine the factors that are related to, predict, affect, and are consequences of emergent leadership. Emergent leadership rarely has been assessed beyond simple bivariate relationships, and comprehensive, multivariate models of the construct are absent within the scientific literature (Kickul & Neuman, 2000). Therefore, this section is organized in a manner that resembles a conceptual meta-analysis of the topic. The section to follow begins with an investigation into the leader categorization theory of emergent leadership.

Leader Categorization Theory of Emergent Leadership

It has been found that group members' perceptions of leadership are more likely to be formed based on the presence of a leadership schema rather than on actual emitted leadership behaviours (Rush & Russell, 1988). Based on this rationale, leader categorization theory suggests that a sense of group belongingness creates a structural feature of in-groups (Hains et al., 1997). Specifically, in order for an individual to emerge as a leader, the individual must be perceived by others to possess an in-group schema as well as a leadership schema. This theory purports that group identification plays an important role in leadership dynamics (Hains et al.). The most likely member of a given group to emerge as a leader is the individual who is the most

prototypical group member. Under conditions that heighten the salience of the in-group member schema, group members who possess high in-group prototypicality are perceived by others to be more effective leaders, and these individuals are more likely to be accepted as leaders within the context of a leaderless group (Hains et al.). The leader categorization theory of leadership emergence is extremely similar to attributional and the cognitive theories of leadership discussed previously. Followers develop leadership prototypes or implicit theories of leadership, which guide their perceptions of leadership qualities. Individuals whose characteristics and mannerisms match their leadership prototype will be perceived as the leader of the group. Although the leader categorization theory has intuitive appeal, research to substantiate the model is scarce within the literature. Additionally, as stated previously, these types of models recently have been replaced by personality-type models for describing emergent leadership and leadership in general. However, much literature does exist on the relationships among gender, gender roles, gender-specific tasks, and leader emergence, which are discussed in the section to follow.

Emergent Leadership and Gender, Gender Roles, and Gender-specific Tasks

The influence of the gender composition of groups has been a topic of considerable controversy for many years. The finding that men are more likely to emerge as leaders within group contexts is long-standing, and dates back to Megargree's (1969) classic laboratory study, in which men high in dominance, regardless of group composition, emerge as leaders within leaderless group contexts. The issue of gender, gender roles, and gender-specific tasks in reference to leader emergence is addressed more specifically in the sections to follow.

Gender and leader emergence. A predominant quantity of this research purports that, relative to men, women do not do well in mixed-gender situations (Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999). Furthermore, women are not thought to be influential and are more easily influenced; men tend to engage in higher rates of verbal interaction and group participation; and men more frequently

tend to emerge as leaders within group contexts (Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons, 1990; Eagley & Karau, 1991; Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999; Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). Additionally, substantial evidence suggests that, as compared to men, women are perceived by group members to be less competent, and tend to exert less authority (Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas, 1993). However, the solidity of the empirical evidence for these claims is uncertain.

Theoretical analysis of sex differences has uncovered two barriers to females emerging as leaders: an internal barrier, whereby women are reluctant to initiate leadership behaviours, and an external barrier, whereby group members, regardless of gender composition, are reluctant to accept female leaders (Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). It appears that females are perceived to be less competent than males, and therefore, female leaders are less likely to be accepted as a leader within group settings (Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). This finding is peculiar because it is well known that the gender of the leader does not impact group performance significantly (Anderson & Blanchard, 1982). In some cases, women are more likely than men to emerge as leaders (Kent & Moss, 1994). However, in other cases, neither the frequency of leadership emergence differs between women and men (Schneier, 1978; Schneier & Bartol, 1980), nor does the performance of male- and female-led groups (Schneier & Bartol, 1980).

Lord, Phillips, and Rush (1980) found that the gender of the rater contributes a substantial and significant proportion of variance toward his or her ratings of which group member emerges as a leader within mixed-gender leaderless groups. In this study, women tended to rate men higher than they rated women on leadership measures. Gender of the emergent leader also tends to depend on which gender holds the numerical majority within the leaderless group, in that groups with a female majority tend to have a female emerge as the group leader (Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999). However, as the time period for verbal interaction between group members increases, the relationship between gender and leader emergence decreases (Eagly & Karau,

1991). Field studies generally do not replicate gender effects, which suggests that these effects are laboratory-specific (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989). Based on the evidence discussed, it appears that the influence of gender is mixed, so it is not a sufficient predictor of emergent leadership. The next section addresses gender roles, which may be better at predicting leader emergence than is gender alone (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989).

Gender roles and leader emergence. Different expectations exist for men's and women's social behaviour and personal attributes, which are well documented within the extant literature. The discrepant expectations can be classified into two broad dimensions: men are expected to be agentic, or independent, assertive, and competent, whereas women are expected to be communal, or friendly, emotional, and unselfish (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Bem (1974) defined masculinity and femininity as two separate and independent dimensions of personality. Two other gender role categories also exist within the literature: undifferentiated, or low in both masculinity and femininity, and androgynous, or high in both masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1974). Interestingly, current research conducted on the relationship between gender roles and leader emergence is somewhat sparse (Moss & Kent, 1996).

Although masculinity appears to be a desired leadership trait, and femininity seems to be detrimental to the leadership process, it is most likely due to gender-role stereotypes (Cann & Siegfried, 1987; Fagenson, 1990). Masculine-type participants seem to be more likely to emerge as leaders compared to feminine, undifferentiated, and androgynous participants (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989). Similarly, masculine gender roles predict leader emergence better than do feminine gender roles (Kolb, 1999). Furthermore, in field studies, men and women in upper levels of the organizational hierarchy score higher on measures of masculinity (Fagenson, 1990). Masculinity positively relates to career-achievement men, whereas femininity negatively relates to career-achievement women (Wong, Kettlewell, & Sproule, 1985).

Despite research findings, the masculinity barrier preventing women from acquiring leadership roles and positions appears to be weakening. How individuals perceive gender roles is shifting in society (Kent & Moss, 1994), which increasingly is lending support to the finding that masculinity and femininity are not precise correlates of biological sex (Bem, 1974). Lord, de Vader, and Alliger (1986) conducted the most seminal meta-analysis on emergent leadership, and suggested that androgyny consistently and substantively relates to leader emergence in mixed-gender groups. Furthermore, female managers view successful middle managers as being androgynous (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989). Sometimes masculine and androgynous individuals both are more likely to emerge as leaders than are feminine and undifferentiated individuals (Kent & Moss, 1994). Interestingly, within same-sex groups consisting of females, however, femininity is judged to be the most important factor for leadership effectiveness, which suggests the importance of masculinity completely ceases in the absence of men (Gurman & Long, 1992). In addition to the influence of gender roles, whether a male or female emerges in a leaderless situation also depends on the nature of the tasks to be completed.

Gender-specific tasks and leader emergence. Gender-laden tasks tend to contribute to the emergence of certain gendered leaders. Specifically, research repeatedly confirms that men and women specialize in different activities, especially regarding the leadership role (Anderson & Blanchard, 1982; Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999; Eagly & Karau, 1991). Men tend to engage in and produce the highest proportion of performance effectiveness in task activities, whereas, women most effectively engage in social activities. Therefore, men will emerge as leaders when the activity is task-oriented, whereas, women will emerge as leaders when the activity is socially oriented (Anderson & Blanchard, 1982; Carli, 1982). However, gender stereotypes are considered to be the catalyst behind the findings regarding task composition and emergent leadership (Eagly & Karau, 1991), and thus, can be considered confounds or covariates.

Research on emergent leadership tends to be biased due to the use of masculine tasks, whereby the expertise of women is lessened, and perceptions of internal and external barriers are heightened (Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). Task requirements used in research studies tend to emphasize sex-differentiated skills, whereby gender differences are accentuated (Eagly & Wood, 1991). Specifically, females are more likely to emerge as leaders when tasks are feminine in nature, regardless of perceived expertise, whereas men are more likely to emerge as leaders when group tasks are masculine in nature, regardless of expertise. Therefore, task type moderates the relationship between gender and leader emergence (Carli & Eagly, 1999; Eagly & Karau, 1991; Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). The gender of the leader to emerge is dependent upon the masculinity or femininity of the task presented to groups, regardless of the perceived and actual expertise of group members (Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). Men emerge as leaders in situations in which the group activity is task-oriented and masculine-oriented, whereas, women emerge as leaders in situations in which the group activity is socially and feminine-oriented (Eagly & Karau, 1991). When a group member's gender is incongruent with the perceived gender orientation of the task, the member exhibits less leader emergence qualities (Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999). However, due to the use of primarily masculine tasks, males are more likely to emerge as leaders within research studies (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989). Nonetheless, considerations other than gender, gender roles, and gender-specific tasks, namely leader characteristics, also may contribute to leader emergence. This potential is addressed next.

Emergent Leadership and Leader Characteristics

It seems obvious that individual characteristics contribute to one's potentiality to emerge as a leader. The following sections explore some of these individual characteristics to determine the degree to which they contribute to leader emergence. Specific topics that are addressed include self-esteem and attractiveness, and intelligence and task competence.

Self-esteem, attractiveness, and leader emergence. Most reports of the relationships among self-esteem and leadership emergence, performance, and effectiveness are significant and positive (Atwater, Dionne, Avolio, Camobreco, & Lau, 1999). These factors also seem to be better predictors of leader emergence than are gender and gender roles (Kolb, 1999). Individuals high in self-esteem are more likely to emerge as leaders of groups, and are more likely to possess effective leadership characteristics (Andrews, 1984). Along with self-esteem, individuals high in self-confidence and self-efficacy also are more likely to emerge as leaders (Bass, 1990). Apparently, leaders high in these traits seem to trust others, accept followers for who they are, and work more consistently without requiring approval or recognition (Bass, 1990). For example, military cadets who hold more confidence in their abilities and who hold more positive opinions of the self tend to emerge as leaders more frequently (Atwater et al., 1999).

Attractiveness, which likely influences self-esteem, has a powerful influence on social attitudes, behaviours, and attributions (Berscheid & Walster, 1978). Consistently, organizational and management literature suggests that individuals who are attractive tend to be perceived as leaders (Stogdill, 1974). Furthermore, within laboratory settings, perceived interpersonal attractiveness is associated with leader emergence within task groups (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989). The relationship between leadership emergence and interpersonal attractiveness, however, is moderated by other factors, such as intelligence, expertise, and perceived competence. Individuals who are perceived to possess relevant task completion characteristics, such as intelligence and expertise, inadvertently are seen as being more attractive compared to other group members (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989). Therefore, the relationship between emergent leadership and interpersonal attractiveness likely is moderated by an array of unknown factors.

Intelligence, task competence, and leader emergence. Some studies suggest that leader emergence solely depends on the perceived intelligence and expertise of the emerging individual,

rather than on the gender of the emerging individual, or on the quantity or quality of group

participation in which the emergent leader engages (Gintner & Linskold, 1975). Furthermore,

when male group members perceive a female group member to be an expert, the female is more

likely to be accepted within the leadership role (Fleischer & Chertkoff, 1986). There is a strong,

consistent, and positive relationship between intelligence and leadership in general (Lord et al.,

1986; Mann, 1959), and intelligence is the primary factor leading to leadership emergence

specifically (Lord et al.; Taggar, Hackett, & Saha, 1999). Individuals who possess greater levels

of cognitive ability tend to be more task-competent, and therefore, are more likely to emerge as

leaders, regardless of situational characteristics (Bass, 1990). Cognitive ability not only predicts

the leader emergence, it also predicts overall group performance and effectiveness (Bass, 1990).

Related to intelligence and expertise is task competence, which refers to the set of

characteristics necessary to attain goals, and includes social competencies. Task competence also

refers to the perceived ability of an individual to complete a task. Task competence appears to be

a necessary component that leads to leader emergence (Hollander, 1964). The emergence of a

leader within leaderless group situations significantly and positively relates to the perceived task

ability of the leader (DeSouza & Klein, 1995). Within group contexts, individuals perceived to

have the ability to complete relevant tasks tend to emerge as leaders (Hollander, 1964). It is clear

that there are certain leader characteristics that contribute to leader emergence. A topic that is

similar to leader characteristics is leader personality. Extensive research on emergent leadership

and personality has been conducted, and is addressed in the following section.

Emergent Leadership and Leader Personality Factors

The view that personality factors determine the emergence of a leader within a group has

had a long and controversial history. Although the approach has intuitive appeal, it virtually was

abandoned in the 1950s, and was supplanted by the situational approach to emergent leadership

(Ellis & Cronshaw, 1992; Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991). However, Lord et al. (1986) found consistent and considerable evidence to suggest the substantiveness of focusing on personality variables to predict the emergence of leaders within group situations. With regard to defining important traits, a primary problem with personality research and emergent leadership is a complete lack of conceptual and operational definitional consistency. Therefore, past research inconsistencies are an artifact stemming from the handling of construct definitions (Judge et al., 2002). Zaccaro et al. (1991) found that leadership emergence is stable across group situations and can be attributed to individual characteristics. Furthermore, Kenny and Zaccaro (1983) found that when the composition of the group and the nature of the task are varied, individuals who emerge as leaders within the group are highly consistent. Therefore, this section of the paper will discuss the major areas of personality research and the emergent leadership construct.

The five-factor model of personality and leadership emergence. Evidence exists for the relationship between emergent leadership and the five-factor model of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Based on a meta-analysis framework, Judge et al. (2002) found that neuroticism at $r = -.24$, extraversion at $r = .33$, openness at $r = .24$, and conscientiousness at $r = .33$, were consistent predictors of leadership emergence. The multiple correlation between the big-five factors and the emergent leadership criterion was significant and considered large at $R = .53$, and all post-hoc tests were significant except that between emergent leadership and neuroticism (Judge et al.). Other research supports the finding that leader emergence is related positively to extraversion and conscientiousness, and negatively related to neuroticism (Taggar et al., 1999). These findings are consistent with the finding that people perceive a core set of characteristics related to leadership, namely intelligence, decisiveness, and determination (Foti, Fraser, & Lord, 1982; Lord et al., 1986). These findings also are consistent with other leadership research endeavors where extraverts tend to initiate structure, and therefore, become leaders within

leaderless groups (Barry & Stewart, 1997). In some cases, openness to experience and

agreeableness appear to not be predictive of leadership emergence (Taggar et al.). It is possible

that initiating structure is more important for the performance of leaderless groups than is

consideration of others, which explains the failure of openness and agreeableness to predict

leadership emergence (Taggar et al.). Openness to experience seems to differentiate leaders from

followers, and is a main component for predicting leadership emergence (Kickul & Neuman,

2000). Personality factors such as dominance have been studied in relation to leader emergence.

Dominance and leadership emergence. Megargree's (1969) classic laboratory study

showed that regardless of group composition, men high in dominance are most likely to emerge

as leaders. Dominance appears to be a consistent and significant factor that determines the

probability of leadership emergence, whereby emergent leaders tend to score high on dominance

measures (Gibb, 1969; Lord et al., 1986; Stogdill, 1948). Dominance is the primary characteristic

used to formulate group hierarchies within child and adolescent groups, whereby the most

dominant child will tend to assume the leadership role (French & Stright, 1991). Individuals high

in machiavellianism, a construct that is highly related to dominance, tend to emerge more

frequently as leaders within leaderless group situations (Geis 1970). Specifically, individuals

high in machiavellianism are more likely to manipulate and persuade other group members, to

try to gain control over various situations, and to win discussions (Geis, 1970). However, the

impact of machiavellianism on leadership emergence tends to be ameliorated by the quantity of

time spent within leaderless group situations (Okanes & Stinson, 1974). Another personality

factor addressed in emergent leadership research is need for achievement and need for affiliation.

Need for achievement, need for affiliation, and leadership emergence. One would expect

that individuals high in need for achievement are likely to emerge as leaders during problem-

solving situations (Bass, 1960). Although very few studies report a direct relationship between

achievement motivation and leadership emergence (Sorrentino & Field, 1986), Sorrentino (1973) found that the need for achievement trait alone determined leadership emergence within groups, regardless of the situation. Achievement motivation in concert with need for affiliation may lead to leader emergence in leaderless group situations over a substantial period of time. Sorrentino and Field (1986) placed subjects in a position that simulated long-term involvement for a five-week period. Individuals rated as being high in need for affiliation and high in need for achievement received the highest ratings of leadership determinants. However, the strongest single predictor of emergent leadership was need for affiliation. Additionally, these personality variables significantly predict emergent leadership beyond that of verbal interaction, which traditionally has been thought of as the single strongest predictor of leader emergence (Sorrentino & Field, 1986). Evidence also exists for the relationship between self-monitoring and leader emergence, which is addressed in the next section.

Self-monitoring and leader emergence. High self-monitoring individuals possess two characteristics relevant to emergent leadership: they are socially perceptive, and they are proficient at modifying behaviour to adapt to the situation (Dabbs, Evans, Hopper, & Purvis, 1980). Social cues used for self-monitoring are sought through feedback obtained during social interactions. These behaviours are typical of the leadership role, so it follows that emergent leaders are more likely to be high in self-monitoring (Zaccaro et al., 1991). Leaders possess the ability to perceive variations in group-member needs, and are able to alter their behaviour effectively to respond to changing needs (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983). These abilities resemble self-monitoring, in that individuals high in self-monitoring present themselves as socially desirable; they adapt to changes effectively; and they initiate and sustain verbal communication effectively (Zaccaro et al.). Individuals high in self-monitoring emerge as leaders when the task requires significant interaction and task competence for successful completion (Garland & Beard, 1979).

Cronshaw and Ellis (1991) found a strong relationship between the leadership emergence and the presence of the self-monitoring construct. However, gender composition of the group appears to moderate the relationship between leadership emergence and self-monitoring. Within natural, mixed-sex groups, a strong relationship between emergence and self-monitoring exists for males alone (Ellis, 1988). This may occur because females who possess leadership characteristics, such as high self-monitoring, suppress leader behaviours in the presence of males (Ellis, 1988). After controlling for participation rates, within matched, same-sex groups, high self-monitoring females emerge more frequently as leaders than males (Garland & Beard, 1979). High self-monitoring males within same-sex groups are less likely to emerge as leaders, although among males, middle-level self-monitoring males are more likely to emerge (Garland & Beard, 1979). Ellis, Adamson, Deszca, and Cawsey (1988) conducted a longitudinal study with naturally existing groups. Correlations among self-monitoring and emergent leadership facets were moderately to strongly significant. Using a mixed-sex group design, Ellis and Cronshaw (1992) found that within leaderless groups, high self-monitoring males emerge as leaders, yet high self-monitoring females fail to emerge as leaders. Overall, considerable evidence suggests that a link exists between self-monitoring and leader emergence.

Although the personality approach to emergent leadership makes intuitive sense, it virtually was supplanted in the 1950s for the situational and environmental approach, which is discussed in the next section (Ellis & Cronshaw, 1992; Zaccaro et al., 1991). However, based on the previous discussion of personality traits and the emergent leadership construct, it appears that there is substantial evidence for investigating traits associated with leadership emergence, specifically for the five-factor model of personality, dominance, need for achievement and affiliation, and self-monitoring (Judge et al., 2002). Future research should not overlook these factors if researchers hope to obtain a more clear representation of their findings.

Emergent Leadership and the Situation and Environment

Zaccaro et al. (1991) found that leadership emergence is more likely to occur in situations where the initiation of structure is imperative for team performance, and an individual group member possesses this ability. However, 59% of the variance of leadership emergence was trait-based rather than situation-based (Zaccaro et al.). This finding suggests that group member characteristics and the situation interact, and this interaction determines the emergence of a particular group member as the leader. There are situations in which consideration of others is necessary for team effectiveness, and therefore, leadership emergence requires that a given individual possesses this characteristic (Taggar et al., 1999). Personality traits, such as self-confidence and energy, differentiate leaders from followers. However, personality traits do not predict fully who will emerge as a leader, so traits must interact with certain situational components to determine leader emergence (Stogdill, 1948). The interactional theory of emergent leadership states that leadership is an interactional phenomenon, and depends on where the group is formed (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983). The role that an individual group member assumes is relative to the role needs of the entire group, the situation where the group was formed, and the knowledge, skills, abilities, and personality of each individual group member. Specifically, the leadership role occurs as a function of the interaction between group needs, depending on the given situation, and the member resources available to satisfy these needs. In a given situation, the group member who possesses the greatest quantity of necessary resources to satisfy group needs will emerge as the group leader (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983).

A contextual factor that rarely has been addressed with regard to emergent leadership is the nature of the goal-setting process. Interdependent group tasks include group goals as well as, or instead of, individual goals (Locke & Latham, 1990). However, when individual goals are present, regardless of the interdependence of the group task, group members become competitive

on an individual basis to the detriment of overall group performance (Mitchell & Silver, 1990).

Therefore, the emergence of a leader is expected to be less likely when individual goals are

present during the group goal-setting process, regardless of the presence of group goals

(DeSouza & Klein, 1995). However, this expectation is not found in practice; leader emergence

does not seem to depend on the nature of the goal-setting hypothesis. Leaders emerge in

conditions involving both individual and group goals (DeSouza & Klein, 1995). Perhaps

leadership qualities are stable and can be generalized across a variety of situations.

The generalization of the leadership role. Individuals who are perceived as leaders in one

situation, or have significant leadership role experience in the past, significantly are more likely

to be labeled as leaders in various situations, which has been titled the generalization of the

leadership role (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989). Based on the life history approach, past behaviour

and experiences capture characteristic patterns of interpersonal interaction, and provide a

framework for understanding the development of personality, skills, abilities, and interests. This

past information can be used to predict future behaviour, so past experience with leadership roles

predicts the probability of assuming a future leadership role (Mumford & Stokes, 1992). Past

experience with the leadership role seems to be a better predictor of leadership emergence than

gender or gender roles (Kolb, 1999). Prior experience with influencing others predicts leader

emergence within military samples (Atwater et al., 1999). Experience with past leadership roles

also tends to increase the salience of the leadership schema to group members; therefore,

seasoned leaders are more likely to emerge in leaderless group situations (Hains et al., 1997).

As was discussed previously, attribution and cognitive leadership theories are intuitively

viable starting points for understanding and investigating the generalization of the leadership

role, whereby leadership prototypes and implicit theories of leadership possessed by followers

tend to match the qualities of experienced leaders. Furthermore, Bass's (1985) theory of

transformational leadership logically and intuitively appears to apply to the generalization of the leadership role. Specifically, the development of transformational qualities is considered to be a detailed process whereby transactional leaders who possess at least minimal transformational characteristics become transformational leaders over a significant period of time due to exposure to transformational leaders. It is clear that the leadership role generalizes across situations. Perhaps other situational aspects, such as the quantity and quality of verbal interactions, have the ability to predict leader emergence as well.

Quantity and quality of verbal interaction. Within leaderless group situations, the individual who engages in the greatest quantity of verbal interaction is most likely to emerge as a leader, regardless of the quality of the interaction (Carli & Eagly, 1999; Regula & Julian, 1973; Sorrentino & Boutillier, 1975). It is possible that group members use the quantity of verbal interaction as a surrogate measure of the competence of a leader during the early stages of developing group relations. Quality of verbal interactions may not become important until group relations have been established fully (Regula & Julian, 1973). Furthermore, the quantity of verbal interaction may be perceived as a surrogate measure of motivation, whereby the individual's motivation relays an intention to achieve group performance goals (Sorrentino & Boutillier, 1975). In some cases, the emergent leadership-verbal interaction relationship is due to the necessity of high frequency verbal interaction for appropriate task maintenance, as opposed to social emotional behaviours (Stein & Heller, 1979). In other cases, the emergent leadership-verbal interaction relationship is due to a high frequency of social behaviours rather than task-maintenance behaviours (Sorrentino & Field, 1986). Some evidence exists for the ability of verbal and non-verbal communication to predict leader emergence, independent of participation rates (Garland & Beard, 1979; Stein, 1975). Non-verbal forms of communication, however, rarely have been addressed within the emergent leadership research.

A related avenue of research to verbal interaction is group participation. The quantity of group participation directly relates to the likelihood of leadership emergence (Mullen, Salas, & Driskell, 1989). However, the method for determining participation rates within leaderless groups may be the culprit for the emergent leadership-participation rate relationship. Generally, member participation rates are analyzed and recorded by an external observer rather than group members involved in the research task. External observers tend to overuse participation rates for making leadership judgments, so the relationship may be due to a measurement artifact (Stein & Heller, 1979). High participation rates also tend to lead to leadership emergence due to the relationship between participation and perceived expertise and high task maintenance functions (Stein & Heller, 1979). However, in some cases, neither the measurement artifact nor the expertise-participation arguments appear to have an effect on the leader emergence-participation relationship (Mullen et al., 1989). Very little evidence suggests that the participation-leadership relationship is spurious, although Morris and Hackman (1969) found little difference between leaders and non-leaders when participation is controlled. Overt expression of commitment to the group's goals is similar to participation and verbal interaction. Individuals who emerge as group leaders tend to emit outward expressions of identification with, or commitment to the group (Hollander, 1964), and tend to express greater commitment to and concern for group goals (Medow & Zander, 1965). Therefore, to be accepted as the leader, an individual must overtly express loyalty to the group's goals and aspirations (Hollander, 1964). The emergence of a leader within leaderless group situations seems to relate significantly and positively to the perceived commitment to the assigned goals of the leader (DeSouza & Klein, 1995).

Up to this point, much of this section has focused on the factors that affect, predict, or relate to the emergence of leaders in leaderless groups. A small body of research also exists on the consequences of leader emergence, and is described briefly in the next section.

The Consequences of Emergent Leadership

Emergent leadership literature largely focuses on the antecedents of emergence rather than the consequences of emergence. Furthermore, leadership research tends to focus on the consequences of appointed leaders with regard to leader-follower relations. However, it is well known that the informal adoption of the leadership role influences the group's motivation and performance, so an emergent leader significantly and positively affects group performance (Hollander, 1985). Based on a social exchange process, emergent leaders are expected to produce more favorable outcomes as a result of being acknowledged as the leader. When members of a leaderless group discussion are required to elect a single leader, the emergence of a leader facilitates efficient and effective group performance (Firestone, Lichtman, & Colamosca, 1975). Emergent leader groups tend to be more productive and effective compared to appointed leader groups (DeSouza & Klein, 1995).

An important leadership role is to direct and organize the group's efforts toward the attainment of a goal (Hollander, 1985). Specifically, the leader must guide group members so that each member contributes equally to the end state. However, some group members contribute less to the end state than do other group members, which is known as social loafing or free riding (DeSouza & Klein, 1995). Individuals who engage in social loafing behaviours tend to receive rewards without exerting effort (Kerr, 1983). Although it would seem that, as compared to an appointed leader situation, an emergent leader situation would result in increased evaluation and coordination of individual efforts, increased identifiability of member behaviour, and ultimately decreased social loafing, no such evidence exists (DeSouza & Klein, 1995).

Similar to traditional concepts of leadership, emergent leaders are expected to exert considerable influence over the behavior of group members (DeSouza & Klein, 1995). Zander (1971) suggested that the motivation of lower performing group members increases over time

due to external pressures. A major source of external pressure on low performers is the leader of the group (Zander, 1971). Therefore, the leader's goal for the group should overtake each individual's personal performance goal (DeSouza & Klein, 1995). The personal goals of an emergent leader positively and significantly impacts group goals, and a leader's goals have a greater influence than individual personal goals (DeSouza & Klein, 1995). Therefore, it would be expected that the emergent leader's personal goal for the group will have a greater influence on the group's goal than will individual members' personal goals.

This concludes the overview of the variables discussed within the emergent leadership literature. The main section to follow serves three important purposes. The first purpose is to address the degree to which emergent leadership converges with and/or diverges from traditional conceptions and operationalizations of leadership. The second purpose is to address various methodological and conceptual shortcomings inherent in the leadership literature, and to provide recommendations for the future study of leadership with reference to the study of emergent leadership specifically. The final purpose is to use information presented in the first two main sections to create an empirically verifiable multivariate model of emergent leadership.

<div align="center">Toward an Empirically Verifiable Emergent Leadership Model</div>

This main section addresses three important issues. The first issue concerns determining the degree to which emergent leadership converges with and/or diverges from traditional leadership theories discussed in the first main section. Specifically, this section addresses whether emergent leaders possess attributes of a unique leadership domain, or whether emergent leaders are individuals who already possess traditional leadership traits, and emerge in leaderless situations simply as a result of this. The second issue concerns addressing the shortcomings of past research as well as recommendations for the future study of leadership is it relates to emergent leadership specifically. The third issue involves using the overview of methodological

concerns of emergent leadership research and recommendations for future research as guides to construct an empirically verifiable multivariate model of emergent leadership.

Emergent Leadership Versus Traditional Models of Leadership

The primary purpose of this section is to answer the question as to whether emergent leadership is a conceptually distinct model of leadership as compared to traditional models of the construct. Based on information provided in the paper's first section, five traditional models of leadership require further investigation into their relation to leader emergence: transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, attributional and cognitive leadership models, and the leader-member exchange and the path-goal theory of leadership. Firstly, the abovementioned traditional models are discussed in terms of their relevance to emergent leadership, and secondly, an answer to the question of convergence and divergence is given. Please note that none of the sections to follow contain references, as the information already has been referenced in previous sections.

Applicability of the transformational leadership model. Transformational leadership theory should be investigated using a wide variety of leaderless contexts to determine its applicability to the emergent leadership phenomena. Studying transformational leadership theory using a leader emergence framework may provide evidence for fundamental components of the theory, such as whether leaders who emerge possess a minimum level of transformational components, and whether leaders who emerge possess transformational components due to consistent and prolonged exposure to transformational leaders. There is reason to suggest that the theory applies widely to a leader emergence framework. The inspirational motivation component, for instance, includes a visionary component that is similar to the openness to experience component of the five-factor model of personality. Additionally, the inspirational motivation component includes charismatic behaviour, which arguably, resembles expressions of extraversion. Both of these components of personality have been linked to leader emergence.

Transformational leadership theory suggests that leaders move from transactional to transformational behaviour when they experience consistent exposure to a transformational leader. Therefore, transformational leaders have prior experience with enacting the leadership role. This is synonymous with the generalization of the leadership role concept discussed in the second main section of the paper. Furthermore, the ability to intellectually stimulate followers to higher levels of motivation and morality requires the leader to possess substantial cognitive ability, intelligence, expertise, and arguably, a relatively high degree of conscientiousness, which also assumes a relatively high degree of need for achievement. Transformational leaders also challenge the status quo to initiate proactive organizational change, which is an important facet of the openness to experience factor of personality. Finally, transformational leaders possess the ability to adapt to follower and situational needs, which is similar to self-monitoring. Clearly, transformational leadership theory incorporates characteristics that are related to the variables that influence leader emergence. Perhaps the charismatic leadership theory does so as well.

Applicability of the charismatic leadership model. Although charismatic leadership theory preliminarily has been confirmed to be a significant model of emergent leadership, often it is investigated using pre-designated or appointed leaders only. Because the theory is written to be a theory of how leaders emerge within leaderless situations, a more complete test of the theory would be to test the model within an emergent leadership framework. The charismatic leadership theory suggests that it is necessary to possess expert power and inherent intelligence if a potential leader is to emerge. This necessity most likely is due to the potential leader's intelligence and need for achievement, prior experience with the leadership position, and possible high levels of conscientiousness. Additionally, the formulation, dissemination, and follower acceptance of a leader's vision is a primary component of charismatic leadership theory, which highly relates to the openness to experience component of the five-factor model of

personality. Furthermore, charismatic leaders possess heightened sensitivity to environmental surroundings and follower needs so that they can adjust their behaviour accordingly, which resembles the self-monitoring construct. Charismatic leaders also are highly active participators with their followers, which resembles the participation component of emergent leadership. Finally, a charismatic leader actively challenges the status quo, which resembles openness to experience. Ultimately, charismatic leadership theory highly applies to emergent leadership. The next section related to leader emergence includes attribution and cognitive models.

Applicability of the attributional and cognitive leadership models. The recent re-examination of personality theories of leadership has uncovered substantive explanations of leadership phenomena. Attributional and cognitive categorization theories of leadership are moderately similar to personality explanations of the leadership construct. Although attributional and cognitive theories have not been studied using an emergent leadership framework, because of their relation to personality theories of leadership, attributional and cognitive theories should be re-examined with leader emergence in mind. Furthermore, attributional and cognitive models are similar to the generalization of the leadership role aspect of emergent leadership, whereby implicit personality theories and cognitive prototypes are developed through consistent and frequent follower experience with past leaders. This ultimately could explain why or how the leadership role generalizes. Finally, with regard to perceptions of the leadership role, attributional and cognitive approaches mainly focus on followers rather than on leaders, situations, or interactions between the two. Therefore, relating these approaches to leader emergence is quite unique and should be investigated. To a lesser extent, the leader-member exchange and path-goal theories of leadership relate to leader emergence, and merit discussion.

Applicability of the leader-member exchange and path-goal theories. The leader-member exchange theory of leadership suggests that leaders engage in high degrees of interaction with

their in-group followers, particularly for participative, supportive, and directive styles. This

engagement with followers is extremely similar to the participation component of emergent

leadership. The theory's contingency component involves frequent interaction with followers,

which also resembles the participation component of leader emergence. Furthermore, the model

assumes that leaders are intelligent and possess legitimate authority, which is synonymous with

the cognitive ability component of leader emergence, and arguably, includes conscientiousness

and need for achievement. The model also suggests that the leader's power is legitimate, thereby

based on expertise, which is the same as the intelligence component of emergent leadership, and

debatably includes conscientiousness and need for achievement. However, because the model is

based on placing the appropriate leader within the appropriate situation, it does not allow for

leader behaviour adjustment and adaptation, which is a key component of the self-monitoring.

The path-goal theory of leadership includes a component similar to the participation

component of emergent leadership, whereby maximum clarification of goals requires frequent

verbal interaction among followers and the leader. Furthermore, the supportive leader possesses

a heightened sensitivity to follower needs that leads to behaviour adaptation, which is moderately

similar to the self-monitoring component of emergent leadership. Situational leadership theory

directly relates to the self-monitoring component of emergent leadership, whereby leaders are

required to adapt their behaviour frequently to the situation and to follower needs. Additionally,

the selling and the participating style of leadership involve frequent verbal interaction and group

participation, which is synonymous to the participation component of emergent leadership.

Overall, the comparison of the theories addressed in this section to emergent leadership form a

solid basis for determining where emergent leadership fits relative to other leadership theories.

The distinctiveness of emergent leadership. Based on the previous discussion of the

relationships among components of traditional leadership theories and components of emergent

leadership, it appears that there is great convergence among the theories. Therefore, it does not appear that emergent leadership is a fundamentally different conception of the leadership role compared to past treatments of the construct. A person who emerges in a leaderless situation likely does so because he or she enjoys interpersonal communication, and is experienced, intelligent, driven, and open-minded, which are characteristics that apply to many of the traditional models of leadership discussed previously. However, further investigation as to the applicability of traditional leadership theories to the emergent leadership framework is warranted for in order to establish a firm conclusion. The next section is a brief and parsimonious discussion of the methodological recommendations for the future study of emergent leadership.

Shortcomings of Emergent Leadership Research

Several methodological flaws are apparent in emergent leadership studies. Emergent leadership research is biased due to the use of masculine-specific tasks that confound gender and gender role studies (Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). The dyadic laboratory research paradigm also is flawed. In these designs, the dyad typically is required to interact for only a few minutes (Moss & Kent, 1996). In the field, the decision to promote individuals into leadership positions can be a painstaking and time-consuming process, and definitely requires longer than a few minutes. Furthermore, different research methodologies often lead to different results; method variance is a logical alternate explanation of leader emergence findings (Moss & Kent, 1996).

Another large problem with emergent leadership research is the composition of the leaderless groups. Specifically, laboratory stringency regarding the size and composition of the groups may be a primary reason for research conclusions (Moss & Kent, 1996). Therefore, researchers should investigate natural groups and composition variables should be controlled statistically rather than experimentally (Moss & Kent, 1996). Additionally, the primary method for measuring the emergence of a leader is participant nominations. Although other methods,

such as likert-based scales (Dobbins et al., 1990), have been used sparsely as an emergent

leadership metric, multiple methods would measure the construct more accurately (Moss & Kent,

1996). Another common flaw in the conclusions made from emergent leadership research is that

personality traits that predict emergence also predict group performance (Kickul & Neuman,

2000). Emergent leadership research primarily uses cross-sectional methods of data collection; a

more causally definitive conclusion can be breached through the use of longitudinal designs

(Atwater et al., 1999; Judge et al., 2002). The lack of use of longitudinal designs to study the

leadership phenomena is perplexing given that leadership development is assumed to be an

ongoing process (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, research designs used to study emergent leadership

tend to vary group or task composition separately; rotational designs, which vary situational

characteristics simultaneously, are better suited for determining variance attributed to personality

traits, the situation, or an interaction between them (Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983).

Another problem with emergent leadership research, especially research related to gender

and gender role differences, is the failure of academic journals to publish non-significant results,

which is known as the 'file drawer' phenomenon (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Knowing that variables

are not related may be as important as knowing that they are related. Finally, leader emergence

studies tend to force the selection of a single leader, regardless of the respective group size. It is

possible that significant and substantive differences exist between groups that select a single

leader compared to groups that select multiple leaders. Holmes, Sholley, and Walker's (1980)

findings lend support for the importance of testing the emergence of more than single leader.

Traditionally, group dynamics regarding role fulfillment was classified into a dichotomy: leader

and follower. However, a third role dynamic, namely the isolate, has been shown to exist. Using

the three-fold approach of leader, follower, and isolate, the isolate role resembles the traditional

conception of the follower role, whereas the follower role refers to individuals who possess

leadership qualities to a lesser degree compared to the group leader. Therefore, it is possible for a follower to emerge as a leader in concert with the formal leader (Holmes et al., 1980). Although research that allows for the emergence of multiple leaders will further scientific understanding of dynamic group processes, current methodology does not enable this (Moss & Kent, 1996). The next and final section of the paper outlines an empirically verifiable multivariate model of emergent leadership based primarily on the research findings discussed up to this point.

An Empirically Verifiable Multivariate Model of Emergent Leadership

The final section of the paper presents a model of emergent leadership that can be tested empirically. The methodological recommendations discussed in the previous section must be taken into consideration before testing this model. The model employs a rough antecedents, consequences, and correlates taxonomy, and the connections between emergent leadership and its antecedents and consequences have been discussed previously throughout the paper. Hence, these connections will not be reiterated. Firstly, the model is presented graphically, and secondly, the model is followed by a discussion of why certain variables were not included.
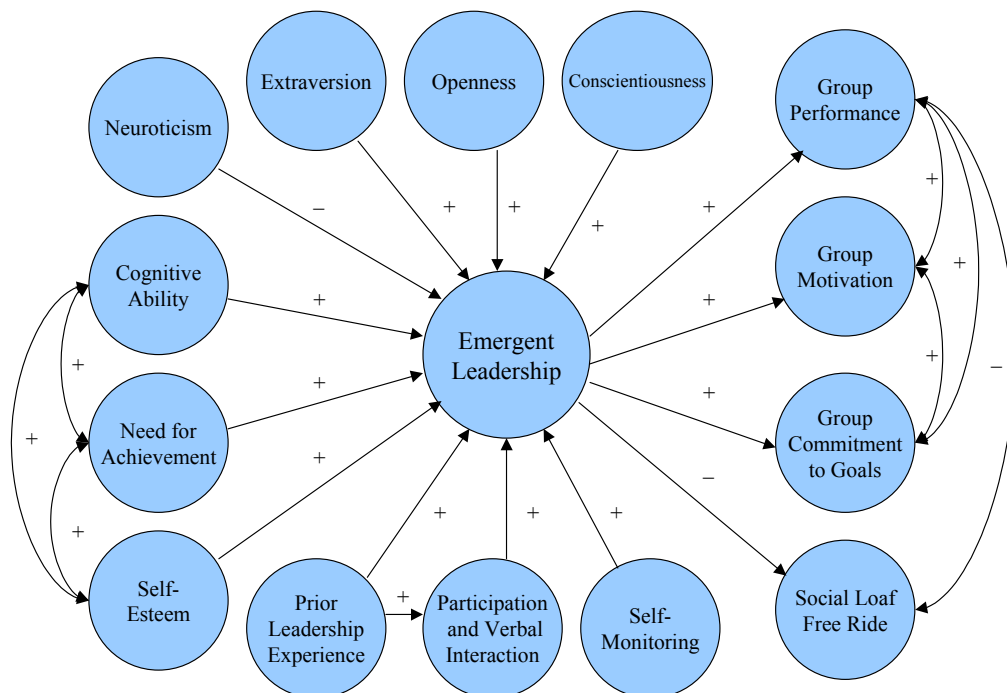
Gender was not included in the model because of the mixed results reported within the literature, and the effect of gender can be explained largely by the gender-role variable. The gender role variable also was not included in the model because of the mixed results regarding its impact on emergent leadership. Furthermore, the longevity of the relationship between gender roles and leadership is questionable; relatively rapid elimination of gender-specific stereotypes within society will render the variable obsolete in the near future. Therefore, the gender roles variable should be controlled methodologically using the recommendations discussed previously, or controlled statistically, but only as a last resort. Furthermore, task characteristics were not included in the model due to concerns similar to those inherent in the gender roles variable. Instead, like gender roles, task characteristics can be controlled methodologically or statistically.

Dominance was not included in the model due to the extremely small quantity of research results related to the emergent leadership construct. Furthermore, from an intuitive perspective, dominance may be moderated by such variables as intelligence, participation, extraversion, need for achievement, conscientiousness, and prior experience with the leadership role. Additionally, attractiveness was not included within the model due to the extremely small quantity of research results related to the emergent leadership construct. Attractiveness also appears to be moderated by a multitude of factors, many of which are included within the emergent leadership model presented. Therefore, methodological or statistical control also may be the best method for handling the attractiveness construct. This concludes the rationale for the development of the emergent leadership model presented. The next and final section of this investigation, the discussion and conclusion section, serves as a recapitulation of the overall paper contents.

Discussion and Conclusion

This investigation into emergent leadership served several purposes, and was divided into three large sections in order to serve each of these purposes. The first section contained a review

of various traditional leadership theories and models. The purpose of this review was to outline the details of each model, and to determine the degree to which they address the leader emergence construct. Therefore, for each model, an overview of the model details was provided, followed by a discussion of the extent to which the given model addressed emergent leadership. The various traditional leadership models discussed included transformational leadership theory, charismatic leadership theory, leader-member exchange theory, Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness, path-goal leadership theory, situational leadership theory, and the attributional leadership model and cognitive categorization theory. Although several of these theories showed relevance to the leader emergence construct, their inclusion of an explicit leader emergence component is rare. Bass (1990) described emergent leadership, and charismatic leadership theory seems to be a theory of leader emergence (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), although neither of these theories actually tested for leader emergence. Furthermore, the concept of leader emergence had to be extrapolated from the remaining theories, if it was even present at all.

The second section was a review of past and current emergent leadership models and research studies for the purpose of establishing the factors that are related to, predict, affect, and consequences of emergent leadership. Topics discussed in this section included the leader categorization theory; gender, gender roles, and gender-specific tasks; leader characteristics, such as intelligence, self-esteem, and attractiveness; leader personality factors, such as the five-factor model of personality, dominance, and self-monitoring; and situational and environmental factors; and concluded with the consequences of emergent leadership. This section served to dispel many ideas held about emergent leadership, such as commonly held ideas in reference to gender-related factors, attractiveness, and dominance. Essentially, what was concluded from this section is that the existing literature shows mixed results, and that researchers must move beyond studying bivariate relationships if they are to explain emergent leadership comprehensively.

The third main section of this investigation addressed three important issues. The first issue involved determining whether emergent leadership converges with and/or diverges from traditional leadership theories outlined in the first main section. Specifically, the section explored whether emergent leaders possess attributes of a unique leadership domain, or whether emergent leaders already possess traditional leadership traits, and emerge in leaderless situations simply as a consequence of this. Ultimately, after dispelling any unfounded claims regarding emergent leadership, there still remains an abundance of evidence for the idea that emergent leaders possess leadership potential already, and that they emerge as a result. The second issue outlined in the third section was in reference to the shortcomings of past research, and recommendations for the future study of leadership in general and emergent leadership specifically. The main conclusions drawn in this section was in reference to variables that must be controlled, either methodologically or statistically, before meaningful conclusions in this area of research can be drawn. The third issue addressed in the third section was to devise a multivariate model of emergent leadership based on past research findings. The model can be tested empirically, but only after careful consideration of the methodological recommendations presented beforehand.

Because organizational hierarchies are flattening, and management paradigms within organizations are transforming continuously, autonomous work groups increasingly will become necessary. This growing organizational demand makes the study of the dynamics of emergent leadership necessary and substantive. Although there is an increasing need to understand leader emergence more comprehensively, much of the research in the area is dated and incomplete. Therefore, it is recommended strongly that the model presented in section three be tested.

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