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Getting Ahead or Getting Along? The Two-Facet Conceptualization of Conscientiousness and Leadership Emergence

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We propose a theoretical process model of the social construction of leadership that sheds light on the relationship between conscientiousness and leadership emergence. The socioanalytic theory of personality is invoked to hypothesize different mediational paths linking the two facets of conscientiousness, achievement striving and duty, with leadership emergence. We tested the theoretical model with data from 249 employees matched with data from 40 of their coworkers and 40 supervisors employed in a Fortune 500 organization. Results indicate that the relationship between achievement striving and leadership emergence is partially mediated by competitiveness, providing support for a getting-ahead path to leadership. In contrast, the relationship between duty and leadership emergence is, in part, carried forward by trust, helping role perceptions, and helping behavior, supporting a getting-along path to leadership. Consistent with the self versus other distinction theoretically posited with regard to the facets of conscientiousness, although helping behavior is a predictor of leadership emergence, achievement strivers help only when they perceive helping as being an in-role requirement, whereas dutiful individuals enlarge their helping role perceptions.

Key words: leadership emergence; conscientiousness; duty; achievement striving; socioanalytic theory of personality; social construction of leadership; getting ahead; getting along; helping behavior; organizational citizenship behavior; self- and other-orientation

Introduction

Over the last decade, organizational scholars have reinvigorated investigations of leadership. As noted by leadership scholars (Bennis 2007, Howell and Shamir 2005, Manz and Sims 2001, Meindl 1990), however, despite important advances, the leadership literature has focused primarily on how appointed leaders lead effectively, rather than the process by which one becomes a leader. Beginning to redress the imbalance, recent examinations have focused on bottom-up and emergent leadership processes in organizations (Carson et al. 2007, Foti and Hauenstein 2007, Pearce and Sims 2002, Taggar et al. 1999). One notable characteristic of emergent leadership processes is that they are often fraught with uncertainty and that flawed leaders can emerge because selection processes are undermined by lack of information—that is, the criteria for emergence are usually socially constructed and based simply on perceptions of leader-like qualities. However, it is clear that organizations rely on emergence processes to staff their leadership positions (Conger and Fulmer 2003), whereas individuals depend on emergence processes to progress in their careers (De Pater et al. 2009). This makes theoretical investigations into leadership emergence critically important for advancing organizational knowledge about leadership.

Notably, because leadership emergence is specifically focused on how individuals become influential in the perceptions of others, it can be viewed as a socially constructed process relying on what others in one's proximal work environment hold as prototypical attributes of leaders (Chemers 2000, Epitropaki and Martin 2004, Hogg 2001, Lord et al. 1984). Thus, the socially constructed nature of leadership emergence calls theoretical attention to the importance of both traits and social processes.

Given the importance of individual traits for leadership emergence and their relevance from selection and training as well as development perspectives, attention has refocused on the long-debated link between individual traits and leadership emergence. Meta-analytic

studies relating personality to leadership criteria generally (Bono and Judge 2004, Judge and Bono 2000, Van Iddekinge et al. 2009) and leadership emergence specifically (Judge et al. 2002) have provided the basis for a new wave of trait-based leadership research and theory. Although we have reached a modicum of consensus regarding significant links between personality traits and the success of leaders, the present body of literature relating individual traits to leadership is not without its criticisms. The primary deficiency of trait-based research according to Judge et al. (2002) is that "we have a relatively poor idea of not only which traits are relevant, but why" (p. 774). The authors explain that although we have meta-analytic support for links between personality and leadership emergence, it is not clear why these various links hold. Thus, we know very little about the process by which individuals become or emerge as leaders based on their qualities. In particular, the revelation that the theoretical mechanism whereby a conscientious individual emerges as a leader is presently unclear is surprising in light of the substantial body of literature linking conscientiousness to a multitude of workplace outcomes, including in-role performance across job types (Barrick and Mount 1991), performance motivation (Judge and Ilies 2002), and, importantly, leadership criteria in general (DeRue et al. 2011, Van Iddekinge et al. 2009) and leadership emergence specifically (Judge et al. 2002).
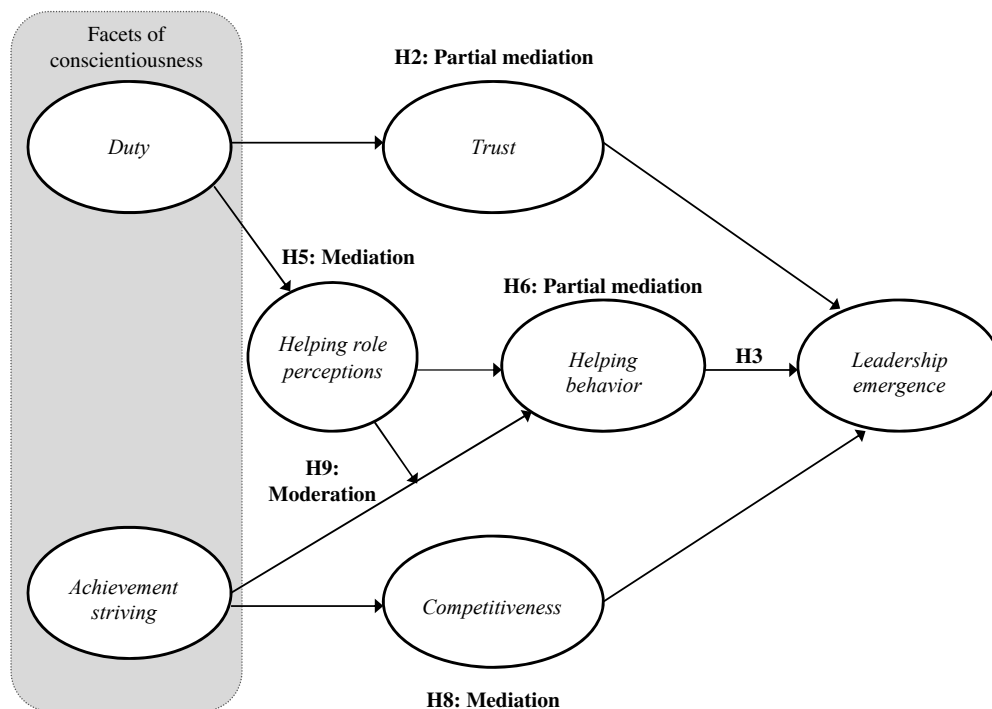
Hogan (1996), commenting on an important problem of personality research, explains that personality measurement and personality theory are often not well integrated. He offers a socioanalytic theory of personality, which posits that all human interaction takes place within social groups. The socioanalytic approach maintains that the overarching social processes of getting ahead and getting along underpin human behavior and can help explain relationships between personality and work outcomes (Hogan and Holland 2003). In light of the social construction of who emerges as a leader (Meindl 1995), getting ahead and getting along seem especially promising for leadership emergence. For example, they can shed light on a fundamental question: Do leaders emerge because of their self-interested ability to advance among others (getting ahead) or because of their ability to collaborate with others (getting along) (Avolio and Locke 2002, Judge et al. 2009)? Integrating these views, we offer both getting ahead and getting along as unique mechanisms linking personality to leadership emergence. Although other viable theoretical perspectives on leadership emergence exist (e.g., Van Vugt et al. 2008), we focus on the socioanalytic approach because it offers specific insights into how individuals emerge as leaders based on their traits. For instance, we note that whereas evolutionary theories have been used advantageously to summarize existing research of leadership because of their versatility, they are more multifaceted than our more specific model rooted in the socioanalytic approach to personality and leadership.[1]

An additional challenge for personality and leadership emergence research stems from the vigorous debate about the measurement of personality on the level of the Big Five traits versus their constituent facet traits (Block 1995). Although the five-factor model framework generated a lot of excitement with its promise of simplifying personality measurement (for a review, see John et al. 2008) and has provided the basis for modern leadership research (e.g., Judge et al. 2002), many have advocated a middle-ground view, focusing on facets of the broad traits of personality to improve theoretically informed predictions of outcomes (e.g., Ashton 1998, Borman et al. 1991, Dudley et al. 2006, Hough 1992, Hough and Furnham 2003, Oswald and Hough 2010, Paunonen and Nichol 2001). Theoretically informed research on the facet level could challenge purely situational accounts of leadership (Salancik and Pfeffer 1977, Vroom and Jago 2007) and provide further credibility to the relevance of traits for leadership criteria.

Notably, examining the facets of conscientiousness as the five-factor model trait found to be most predictive of leadership emergence in previous meta-analytical work (Judge et al. 2002) offers a promising avenue for middle-ground research that advances theory on personality and leadership emergence. As a logical step toward moving the leadership literature forward with regard to the processes that link conscientiousness with leadership emergence, we offer a framework representing conscientiousness at the facet level as *achievement striving* and *duty* (Borman et al. 1991, Hough 1992, Mount and Barrick 1995, Vinchur et al. 1998), each theoretically aligned with an emerging organizational behavior interest in self- and other-orientations, respectively (De Dreu and Nauta 2009, Meglino and Korsgaard 2004). Following a socioanalytic theoretical perspective (Hogan 1996), we theorize differences in the pathways between achievement striving and duty with leadership emergence. We propose that the relationship between duty and leadership emergence follows an other-centered, prosocial mechanism of getting along. We expect that dutiful individuals will build trust with their coworkers, develop larger helping role perceptions, and engage in helping behavior as a getting along path to leadership emergence. In contrast, we propose that the relationship between achievement striving and leadership emergence is aligned with a self-centered, agentic orientation for getting ahead. We offer competitiveness as a mediating mechanism for the relationship between achievement striving and leadership emergence. Providing further evidence for the theoretically self-focused, getting-ahead motivation stemming from achievement striving, we hypothesize that achievement striving would exhibit a positive relationship with helping behavior only when helping behavior is perceived as an in-role requirement. The proposed model is displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1   Model of Proposed Relationships

Notes. Hypotheses involving direct relationships for which subsequent mediation is proposed are not depicted in the model. Specifically, we do not display the hypothesized direct relationships between duty and leadership emergence (H1), between duty and helping behaviors (H4), and between achievement striving and leadership emergence (H7). We expect that trust (H2) and helping role perceptions and helping behavior (H6) together would fully mediate the relationship posited in H1. H5 proposes that helping role perceptions fully mediate the relationship posited in H4. In H8, we offer competitiveness as the mediator of the relationship posited in H7. The path between achievement striving and helping behavior in the model represents controlling for the effect of achievement striving before including the interaction term. It also highlights the subsequent interaction of achievement striving with helping role perceptions.

Theory Development

Leadership Emergence
Given the attributed importance of leadership to both society as a whole (Bennis 2007) and organizations in particular (Hogan et al. 1994, Pfeffer 1977), understanding leadership and the process by which individuals emerge as leaders has been central to the history and evolution of mankind (Hogan and Kaiser 2005, Kaiser et al. 2008, Van Vugt et al. 2008). Leadership in organizations is generally defined as the social process of influencing others in the pursuit of meeting organizational goals (Greenberg 2005, Yukl 2002). As noted earlier, leadership emergence is socially constructed and specifically addresses how individuals become influential by emerging as leaders in the perceptions of others. Thus, although the precise type of leadership may vary, it involves social influence as a central component.

Hogan and Kaiser (2005) contended that leadership and social influence require demonstrating the ability to build relationships and acquire status. Hogan and Holland (2003) differentiated these behaviors along the dimensions of getting along or getting ahead, and they claim that these distinct interpersonal styles may be incompatible. Specifically, "to get along, people must

cooperate and seem compliant, friendly, and positive" (Hogan and Holland 2003, p. 101), whereas to get ahead, they "must take initiative, seek responsibility, compete, and try to be recognized" (p. 101). In sum, despite the inherent tension between getting along and getting ahead (Wolfe et al. 1986), both can contribute to leadership. Thus, we contend that getting along and getting ahead will serve as unique mechanisms explaining relationships between duty and achievement striving with leadership emergence.

Facets of Conscientiousness and Leadership Emergence
One of the most consistent findings of the personality literature is that conscientiousness is a stable predictor of individual performance across jobs, organizations, and occupations (Barrick and Mount 1991). The meta-analytic review of Judge and Ilies (2002) also indicates that conscientiousness is the most consistent positive trait correlate of performance motivation, providing support for its critical role in the workplace. Conscientiousness is expected to have far-reaching positive consequences, extending beyond the degree of competence needed for individual performance. Indeed, new model-building research (Taggar et al. 1999) and

meta-analytical research provide strong evidence as well for the relevance of conscientiousness to leadership emergence (Judge et al. 2002).

Judge and colleagues (Judge and Bono 2000, Judge et al. 2002) alluded to the possibility that the lower-order facets of conscientiousness may serve as better predictors of leadership than their overall trait counterparts. They found initial evidence for stronger predictive validity attained by achievement striving and duty (dependability) in the prediction of a composite score combining leadership emergence and effectiveness.[2] To move the literature forward, Judge et al. (2002) urged researchers to look into the processes that underlie the relationship between conscientiousness and leadership criteria by considering the possibility for distinct mediating mechanisms.

Indeed, there has been a growing consensus that conscientiousness is a broader-level construct that captures the distinct components of duty (dependability) and achievement striving (Mount and Barrick 1995), which predict organizational criteria differentially (Ashton 1998, Dudley et al. 2006, Hough 1992, Moon 2001, Vinchur et al. 1998). On one hand, duty deals specifically with one's dependability in following through with commitments. Achievement striving, on the other hand, is focused on setting goals for oneself and working hard to achieve them.

Although we acknowledge that other conceptualizations of conscientiousness and its facets exist (e.g., DeYoung et al. 2007, Paunonen and Ashton 2001), we choose to focus on the well-established facets of duty and achievement striving (Dudley et al. 2006, Hough and Ones 2001, Moon 2001, Mount and Barrick 1995, Oswald and Hough 2010) because of their theoretical relevance to leadership criteria (Judge et al. 2002), as well as to the proposed processes of getting along and getting ahead central to the social construction of leadership emergence (Hogan and Kaiser 2005, Wiggins and Trapnell 1996).

It is important to note that achievement striving and duty are also consistent with a growing personality theory focus on self- and other-orientation (De Dreu and Nauta 2009, Grant and Wrzesniewski 2010). For example, Moon (2001) examined duty and achievement striving as unique predictors of escalation of commitment. He suggested that duty captured other-oriented aspects of conscientiousness, whereas achievement striving captured self-orientation. Duty entails a concern with fulfilling one's normative commitments and is anchored in obligations to others. By comparison, achievement striving stems from a concern for demonstrating one's own competence.

On the basis of this distinction, Moon (2001) theorized and found support for a negative relation between duty and escalation of commitment, whereas he found support for a positive relationship between achievement

striving and escalation of commitment in a decision-making context. That is, dutiful individuals tended to reduce commitment to a failing course of action that they were responsible for, potentially leading to a loss of face while husbanding organizational resources. Achievement strivers, in contrast, behaved consistently with a self-justification explanation of escalation behavior by throwing more organizational resources into the failing course of action.

Dudley et al. (2006) found that achievement striving was a consistent predictor of individual task performance in a variety of job types, whereas duty (dependability) showed the highest validity in predicting aspects of other-oriented citizenship behavior—namely, job dedication and interpersonal facilitation—as well as in predicting (negatively) counterproductive behavior. These findings provide further support for the notion that the motives of oneself and others underlie the distinction between achievement striving and duty, respectively. More recently, Grant and Wrzesniewski (2010) demonstrated that duty is other-oriented; that is, duty was associated with anticipated guilt toward others or anticipated gratitude from others contingent upon the extent to which performance obligations toward others are fulfilled.

In a comprehensive review of the key work on personality and interpersonal behavior in the past century, Wiggins and Trapnell (1996) maintained that duty is consistent with a communion motive to affiliate with others, whereas achievement striving reflects an agency motive to dominate one's environment. These distinct motives are highlighted by Hogan's (1996) socioanalytic theory of personality, which places emphasis on two motives underlying the relationship between personality and human behavior: getting along and getting ahead. In light of the theoretical differences between duty and achievement striving, we propose that although duty and achievement striving are intertwined with general job performance (Barrick et al. 2002), the mechanisms through which these two facets of conscientiousness influence the emergence of leaders are distinct. We suggest that dutiful individuals would engender trust and engage in other-centered cooperative actions, consistent with a communal motive of getting along, whereas high achievers would engage in competitive actions and would cooperate only with the purpose of getting ahead, consistent with a self-centered, agentic motive. We now turn to our specific hypotheses.

Getting Along View of Leadership Emergence

Duty and Leadership Emergence. Exercise of duty is characterized as an other-oriented tendency to be reliable and to follow through on commitments (Moon 2001). Leadership categorization theory calls attention to socially constructed prototypical attributes of good

leaders including strong character, a characteristic that should be associated with duty (Lord et al. 1984). Duty may contribute to leadership emergence because dutiful individuals can be relied on to engage in self-directed activities and fulfill their tasks without the need for close supervision because of their sense of normative obligation to others and to the organization (Stewart et al. 1996). A good leader can be trusted to follow through on commitments as well as to fulfill tasks autonomously (Manz and Sims 1980).

HYPOTHESIS 1 (H1). *Duty is positively related to leadership emergence in the workplace.*

Trust as a Mediating Mechanism. Deutsch (1973) noted that when trust is not fulfilled, the trusting individual might be harmed. As such, trust in the workplace may develop from the confidence that one "will find what is desired rather than what is feared" (Deutsch 1973, p. 148) from another. Along similar lines, trust has been defined as confidence in another person's intentions and motives and the reliability of that person's word (Lewicki et al. 1998). In a dynamically changing work environment, trust has become an essential component of effective organizational functioning (Dirks and Skarlicki 2004). The socioanalytic approach to personality asserts that getting along is an important mechanism of social influence (Hogan and Holland 2003), and because leadership at its core involves social influence, the ability to build and maintain trust should be an essential component of the getting-along path to being recognized as a leader (Dirks and Ferrin 2002, Hogan et al. 1994, Lord et al. 1984, Kramer 2011).

One of the most important components in building relational trust is one's level of trustworthiness, which, in turn, is based on one's integrity, benevolence, and ability (Mayer et al. 1995). According to Rempel et al. (1985), there are four essential components associated with the development of relational trust in a partner: positive past experiences, the partner's trustworthiness as reflected by his or her reliability and dependability, the willingness to put oneself at risk with a partner, and confidence in the partner's goodwill. We anticipate that dutiful individuals would exhibit all characteristics associated with the formation of a good trust record with their coworkers. They are likely to follow up on commitments, thus demonstrating integrity and reliability. In addition, dutiful individuals would project their normative concern with fulfilling obligations to others, thus creating a positive reputation. Consequently, others would have more confidence in the goodwill of a dutiful partner and be more likely to take a risk with her or him without fear of exploitation. In sum, duty should facilitate the formation of trust, one critical getting-along mechanism for leadership emergence.

HYPOTHESIS 2 (H2). *Trust partially mediates the relationship between duty and leadership emergence.*

Helping Role Perceptions and Behavior as Mediating Mechanisms. Organizational citizenship behaviors, sometimes referred to as discretionary behaviors, may or may not be formally rewarded in organizations but contribute to the long-term effectiveness and survival of an organization (Katz 1964, Organ et al. 2006). Scholars have identified various forms of organizational citizenship but have most commonly focused on that form known as helping behavior (LePine et al. 2002, Moon et al. 2005). Organizations that foster helping behavior among their employees can expect smoother work processes and thus better employee, group, and organizational performance as positive outcomes (Podsakoff et al. 2000). Helping others signals one's ability to get along and is consequently another mechanism by which duty can influence leadership emergence.

Emergent leaders of an organization are expected to identify with the mission of the organization and to be willing to advance the interests and the collective goals of the organization. For instance, the socioanalytic perspective intersects with evolutionary psychology in conveying the importance of cooperative actions for solving coordination problems and, consequently, for emergent leadership (Buss 1996, Van Vugt 2006), as well as with anthropological perspectives on leadership, which emphasize that leaders often emerge when they are recognized as generous exchange partners (Lewis 1974). Supporting the importance of helping behavior, early work by Barnard (1938), for example, suggested that engendering discretionary cooperative behaviors among employees was a vital function of leaders. Helpful employees are likely to provide positive role modeling, securing collective goals by looking out for the overall organizational interest rather than self-interest only. Helping others at work signals one's competence (Blau 1964) and ability to advance collective goals by fostering cooperation, and it thereby provides an indication of leadership qualities.

HYPOTHESIS 3 (H3). *Helping behavior is positively related to leadership emergence.*

Dutiful individuals can be relied on to do what is best for the organization. For instance, Moon et al. (2008) found that duty was related to offering constructive suggestions for organizational improvement. Dutiful employees have a strong normative sense of responsibility to others as well. Thus, consistent with their prosocial and other-oriented motivation, dutiful individuals would extend a helping hand to their coworkers. Initially, helping behaviors were believed to be extra-role (Organ 1988), but a growing literature suggests that helping behaviors may be viewed as in-role (Griffin et al. 2007, Marinova et al. 2010, McAllister et al. 2007) as a result of contextual or individual factors (e.g., Kamdar et al. 2006). From an individual difference perspective, for instance, work roles may serve as a means of

self-expression (Ashforth 2001), and individual differences (e.g., empathy) may determine how an employee perceives his or her role at work (Kamdar et al. 2006). An individual who empathizes with others may view helping behavior as part of her or his work role regardless of whether or not it is actually expected or rewarded.

Consistent with the role perceptions literature and with the other-oriented tendencies of dutiful employees (Grant and Wrzesniewksi 2010), we expect that their sense of responsibility to others leads dutiful individuals to internalize helping behavior as part of their role perceptions at work, which in turn positively influences their helping behavior. Furthermore, as hypothesized earlier, helping behavior is an important indicator of one's ability to get along and provides another mechanism by which duty can influence leadership emergence. This leads us to hypothesize the following.

HYPOTHESIS 4 (H4). *Duty is positively related to helping behavior.*

HYPOTHESIS 5 (H5). *The relationship between duty and helping behavior is fully mediated by helping role perceptions.*

HYPOTHESIS 6 (H6). *The effect of duty on leadership emergence is partially mediated by helping behavior and helping role perceptions. Specifically, duty affects leadership emergence partly through helping role perceptions, their effect on helping behavior, and the subsequent effect of helping behavior on leadership emergence.*

Getting Ahead View of Leadership Emergence

Achievement Striving and Leadership Emergence. Turning next to achievement striving, as noted earlier, leadership categorization theory draws attention to the socially constructed nature of leadership emergence by asserting that we hold implicit prototypes of the key attributes of good leaders (Rush and Russell 1988). Lord et al. (1984) examined the prototypical leader attributes and found that emphasizing goals was most highly rated on leader prototypicality. The ability to set goals is instrumental for effective leadership. For instance, there is consistent evidence that initiating structure, which focuses on setting clear expectations, is an important attribute of leadership effectiveness (Judge et al. 2004, Seltzer and Bass 1990). Individuals high in achievement striving set high goals for themselves and tend to persist in those goals. They can also be expected to demonstrate self-management as well as goal-setting capability with respect to others, further promoting their leadership emergence. We can indeed expect that someone who can serve as a leader and a role model to others in an organization personifies high achievement-striving qualities.

HYPOTHESIS 7 (H7). *Achievement striving is positively related to leadership emergence.*

Competitiveness as a Mediating Mechanism. As noted by the socioanalytic approach to personality and emphasized by the social construction of leadership prototypes, getting ahead by achieving status is a motive that we contend helps to explain the relationship between achievement striving and leadership emergence. Leaders can acquire status by standing out among others. We thus offer competitiveness as a mediating mechanism reflecting the getting ahead orientation of achievement strivers, which enables them to emerge as leaders.

Insights into achievement motivation can be traced back to early organizational behavior literature. Atkinson (1957) and McClelland (1974, 1984) were among the first scholars to elaborate on the central role of achievement motivation in social life. According to McClelland (1984), the need for achievement is essential for starting new businesses and entrepreneurship. In his treatise on human motivation, Jung (1978) highlighted the importance that society places on how well an individual does relative to others. In sum, competition is a prime factor in spheres such as entrepreneurship and workplace achievement (Jung 1978).

In reviewing the literature on achievement motivation, Nicholls (1984) ascertained that engaging in social comparisons is a prominent motive in achievement situations. Indeed, at the heart of achievement striving is the desire to excel at a task, which in a social context is often associated with a desire to engage in social comparison and to be better than others as a measure of one's success. High achievers are likely to focus on being competitive to achieve the highest performance relative to others (Nicholls 1984). We thus expect that achievement strivers will seek to get ahead through their competitive orientation. We propose that, in turn, competitiveness serves as the mediating mechanism between an individual's achievement striving and perceptions of leadership emergence. Interpersonally, the achiever's tendency to gain status by striving to be better than others should be reflected in his or her competitive achievement reputation and, consequently, should contribute to his or her emergence as a potential leader.

HYPOTHESIS 8 (H8). *Competitiveness fully mediates the relationship between achievement striving and leadership emergence.*

Achievement Striving and Helping Behavior. There is no theoretical reason to believe that achievement striving would be directly related to helping others in the absence of situational constraints. As highlighted by its self-orientation, achievement striving tends to be associated with a focus on one's own performance. Helping behavior is primarily focused on improving the welfare of others and smoothing organizational processes. Given the self-focused tendencies of high achievers, we do not expect a positive relationship between achievement striving and helping one's coworkers. From

a trait activation perspective (Tett and Burnett 2003), helping role perceptions may act as a boundary condition (Tepper et al. 2001) that activates the relationship between achievement striving and helping behavior.

As noted earlier, individuals vary in the extent to which they perceive helping one's colleagues to be an expected part of their role at work (Kamdar et al. 2006, Morrison 1994). For instance, from social information-processing (Salancik and Pfeffer 1978) and role-making (Graen 1976) perspectives, contextual factors such as a supervisor's expectations or group norms (Ehrhart and Naumann 2004) can modify what is viewed as in-role or extra-role. Consistent with the self-centered focus of achievement-striving motivation and its relevance for getting ahead, we anticipate that the desire of individuals high in achievement striving to excel in their performance would lead them to engage in helping behavior only to the extent to which they perceive this behavior as contributing to their own performance ratings. Thus, we propose that helping role perceptions will moderate the relationship between achievement striving and helping behavior.

HYPOTHESIS 9 (H9). *Helping role perceptions moderate the relationship between achievement striving and helping behavior, such that achievement striving is positively related to helping behavior only when helping behavior is perceived as in-role, as captured by the higher ratings awarded to helping role perceptions.*

Method

Sample and Procedures
To test the relationships proposed in this study, we collected data from 253 engineers, 40 of their immediate coworkers, and 40 supervisors, for a total of 333 respondents (overall response rate of 63%). Because of some missing data, the final sample consisted of 249 matched triadic responses (a total of 329 respondents). The respondents were employed in a division of a Fortune 500 refinery company located in India. English, in which all participants were fluent, was the working language of the division. The majority of participants were male (90.08%), and most participants had at least an undergraduate degree or higher (78.5%). The mean age of the respondents was 30.5 years (SD = 5.54), and they had 8.14 years of full-time work experience (SD = 5.34).

We used three survey instruments: one for employees, one for coworkers (peers), and one for supervisors. The employee survey included measures of duty, achievement striving, and helping role perceptions. The coworker (peer) survey included perceptions of the focal employee's helping behavior and the coworker's level of trust in the focal employee. The supervisor survey included measures of the focal employee's leadership emergence and competitiveness. Two primary concerns informed our rating sources' choices: (1) receiving

meaningful ratings of the construct from the particular source's perspective, and (2) diversifying respondent sources to avoid common method bias.

Personality is frequently measured by the use of self-reports, and NEO-PIR (Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness Personality Inventory Revised) is a well-established inventory for the facets of conscientiousness. With regard to helping role perceptions, our approach is consistent with the literature in that it is most meaningful to tap the individual's perceptions of his or her cognitive role set (Kamdar et al. 2006, Morrison 1994, Van Dyne et al. 2008); that is, individuals themselves ultimately perceive what is in-role and what is extra-role. Because coworkers interact with each other on a daily basis and on task completion, we viewed them as a knowledgeable source regarding their levels of trust in the focal individual as well that individual's helping behavior. Peers may, however, confound pushiness/disagreeableness with competitiveness because they may perceive pushy and disagreeable employees as competitive (Ames and Flynn 2007). To avoid possible confounds that may occur with peer ratings of competitiveness, we used supervisor ratings, as supervisors are less likely to provide an affect-laden rating of competitiveness. Finally, supervisors assessed leadership emergence because they are most likely to be knowledgeable about leadership emergence processes in the well-established organizational context that we studied.

Employees completed the questionnaires in groups during their work hours in a room on company premises. They were assured that their responses would remain completely confidential and they would not be seen by anyone in the company. We randomly selected one coworker (with at least six months of group tenure) from each group to rate the other group members. On average, the randomly selected coworker provided assessments of 6.23 employees from the workgroup. These coworkers were not included in the focal sample of 249 engineers. The workgroup supervisor provided an average of 6.23 assessments of his or her workgroup members. Because the randomly chosen coworker and the supervisor rated multiple focal individuals from their workgroup, we distributed a separate copy of the survey questionnaire for each employee being rated—this helped ensure that respondents were rating each person independently. The peer and supervisor survey questionnaires were short, to avoid any potential problems with data quality as a result of respondents getting tired. We also had a limited amount of time as a result of the organizational setting.

Measures
Participants responded to multi-item scale questions on seven-point scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Estimated reliability/Cronbach α estimates are provided for all of the measures used in the study.

Duty. The focal participants rated their level of duty according to an established eight-item scale from Costa and McCrae (1992). Sample items read, "When I make a commitment, I can always be counted on to follow through" and "Sometimes I am not as dependable and reliable as I should be" (reverse scored) ($\alpha = 0.92$).

Achievement striving. The focal participants rated their level of achievement striving by responding to an established eight-item scale (Costa and McCrae 1992). Two sample items are "I have a clear set of goals and work toward them in an orderly fashion" and "I strive for excellence in everything I do" ($\alpha = 0.90$).

Helping behavior. Coworkers interact daily and are therefore in a good position to rate the level of helping behavior of the focal individual. Coworkers rated the extent to which the focal employee engaged in helping behavior by using an established five-item scale (Podsakoff et al. 1990). A sample item reads, "This person is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her" ($\alpha = 0.91$).

Helping role perceptions. We measured helping role perceptions as representative of the broader citizenship domain aligned with our outcome of helping behavior (Organ 1988). We followed the recommendations in the literature (Tepper et al. 2001, Van Dyne et al. 2008) and had focal employees answer the same five items from an established scale (Podsakoff et al. 1990) that their coworkers did for helping behavior. Specifically, we asked focal employees to rate the extent to which they regarded each behavior included in the items as part of their job role responsibility by assigning higher ratings to those behaviors that they viewed as part of their job role. Two sample items are "Helping others who have been absent" and "Helping others who have work-related problems." The items are based on Podsakoff et al. (1990) ($\alpha = 0.91$).

Trust. The coworkers rated the extent to which they trusted the focal participant by responding to three items developed for this study consistent with the definition of interpersonal trust as reported by coworkers (Butler 1991, Ferrin et al. 2006). Because of their frequent interactions with the focal individual, coworkers should have an opportunity to develop accurate perceptions of their level of trust in the focal individual. The three questions were as follows: "I trust this individual," "This individual is trustworthy," and "This individual is dependable and reliable." Estimated reliability was high ($\alpha = 0.88$).

Competitiveness. We created a three-item measure to capture competitiveness at work consistent with our definition of competitiveness. In particular, competitiveness captures the individual's interpersonal behavioral tendency to attempt to advance his or her own interests compared with others. The measure included the following items: "It is important for this person to advance further than those around him/her," "This person tends to be competitive at work," and "This person tends to be

cooperative at work" (reverse scored). Estimated reliability was high ($\alpha = 0.91$).

Leadership emergence. Supervisors rated the leadership emergence of the focal individuals using a three-item measure consistent with past research on leadership emergence. The instruction asked them to rate the potential of the employee to advance and become an effective leader ("Potential for advancement in your organization," "Becoming an effective leader," and "Becoming a role model for his/her current coworkers"; $\alpha = 0.91$). Emergence has been measured in past studies in a variety of ways, including but not limited to rankings or nominations in leaderless groups, ratings, and involvement in leadership activities (see the meta-analysis by Judge et al. 2002). There is evidence in the literature establishing the psychometric properties of ratings as a suitable measurement approach (Taggar et al. 1999). The wording of previous measures was designed for leaderless student workgroups. Our measure was thus specifically designed and adapted for our study context (organizational workgroups with an existing supervisor).

Analysis

Preliminary Analysis

As noted earlier, to minimize possible rater effects, we used separate rating questionnaires for each ratee. We also emphasized the completely confidential and voluntary nature of the research questionnaire, clearly demarcating it from company-mandated surveys of performance. However, we conducted several tests to further evaluate the possibility that nesting effects could occur. Before proceeding to the analysis of our hypotheses, we conducted a within and between analysis (WABA) to determine whether nonindependence was an issue in light of the multiple ratings provided by the same coworker and supervisor. The WABA tests for helping behavior, trust, competitiveness, and leadership emergence were not significant for wholes/groups ($E = 0.44, 0.39, 0.47,$ and $0.56,$ respectively).

It has also been suggested that it is necessary to use multiple indices to make a decision on the appropriate levels of analysis (Klein et al. 2000). To further determine whether nonindependence needs to be modeled, we also conducted intraclass correlation coefficients ICC(1) analysis (Bliese 2000) to estimate what percentage of variance could be attributed to rater nesting. In this case, we were testing how much variance in the ratings could be attributed to the rater vis-à-vis the individual ratings. The intraclass correlation coefficient provides an estimate of the relative importance of groups vis-à-vis individuals—thus, higher values indicate that considering the group/nesting principle is important, whereas lower values indicate that data should be treated at the individual level and that grouping/nesting is not likely to affect the results.

We found that ICC(1) estimates for coworker- and supervisor-reported variables were in the -0.01 to 0.08 range, with all estimates being small. This provides strong support for the idea that the available variance resides on the individual level. Multilevel modeling in structural equation modeling is not recommended for ICC(1) estimates below 0.10 (Byrne 2006). The literature suggests that for estimates of intraclass correlation below 0.10 coupled with a group size smaller than 15 individuals, individual-level modeling is appropriate and does not bias the parameter testing and/or standard errors substantially (Muthén 1997).

Finally, we used hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) analysis to assess the presence of group-level nesting rater effects (Raudenbush and Bryk 2002). Consistent with the ICC(1) estimates, between-group variance as a proportion of total variance estimates from the HLM null-model analysis for trust, competitiveness, helping behavior, and leadership emergence were all below 0.10, suggesting that nesting effects were not a source of concern. In addition, HLM provides group reliability estimates. When these estimates are high (above 0.70), group-level nesting effects are reliably present (Klein and Kozlowski 2000). Because we tried to minimize the presence of nesting effects, we anticipated that these estimates would be low. The HLM analysis confirmed that these estimates were low (ranging from 0.01 to 0.38), suggesting that group-level properties were not reliably present. We proceeded to structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis.

Table 1 displays the correlations and descriptive statistics of the variables used in the study.

Model Testing

We used SEM to test the viability of the proposed model. First, we tested a measurement model including all of the items used in the study. The measurement model fit the data well (comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.96, standardized root-mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.05, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.05). All items loaded significantly on their respective factors. To address potential concerns over trait bandwidth, we compared our seven-factor model of all variables

with a six-factor model in which achievement striving and duty were constrained to load on a single factor (i.e., conscientiousness, or broad C). The new model exhibited a poorer fit (CFI = 0.89), and the chi-square difference between the models was highly significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 442.37$, 6 df, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that retaining our model was appropriate. In addition, we tested the effects of facets over the broad conscientiousness factor in regression analysis, which indicated that facets had superior predictive validity for all outcomes. Additional analyses are available from the authors upon request.

In addition, as evidence of discriminant validity, all interfactor correlations were below 0.75 (Kline 1998). As an example of the discriminant validity of the interfactor correlations, we found that duty and trust were correlated at 0.26 and achievement striving and competitiveness at 0.38. We proceeded with the structural model. Because we anticipated some degree of association between duty and achievement striving, we modeled their covariance in the structural model (Bentler 2006, Kline 1998), which also allowed us to examine their unique effects on the dependent measures. The fit of the proposed structural model (Model 1) was good ($\chi^2 = 885.92$, 566 df, CFI = 0.96, SRMR = 0.07, RMSEA = 0.05). The results for the structural model are provided in Figure 2.
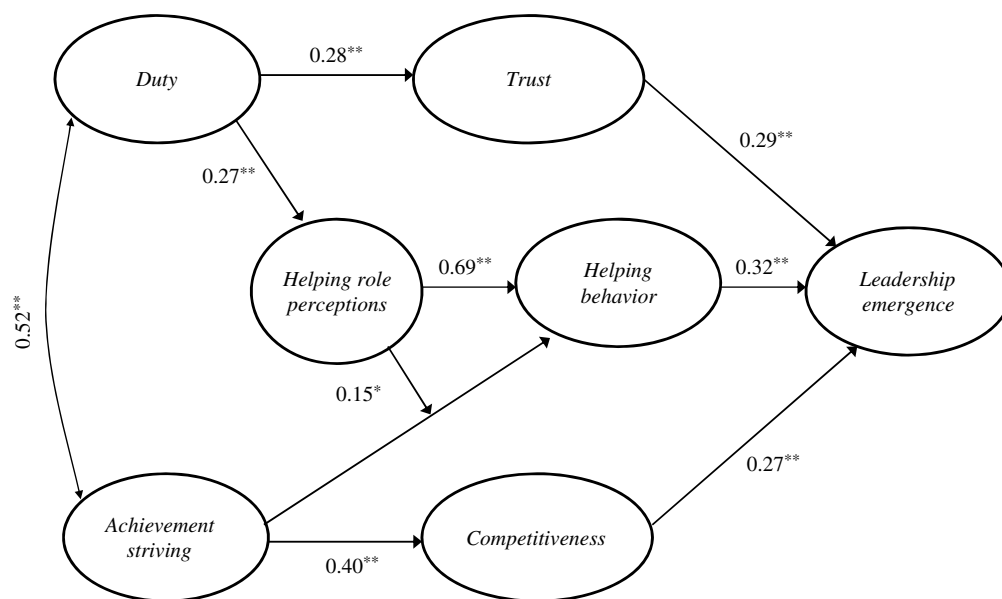
For the testing of the proposed hypotheses, we provide information on the paths exhibited in SEM as well as regression analysis when applicable. In support of Hypothesis 1, regression analysis confirms that the relationship between duty and perceptions of leadership emergence is positive and significant ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$, with achievement striving included in the regression equation). Results from the structural model support Hypothesis 3, showing a positive significant relationship between helping behavior and leadership emergence ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship between duty and helping behavior posited in Hypothesis 4 is also positive and significant ($\beta = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$, with achievement striving included in the regression). Supporting Hypothesis 7, we found a positive and significant relationship between achievement striving and perceptions of leadership emergence in regression

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. *Duty*	4.57	1.21	(0.92)						
2. *Achievement striving*	4.59	1.15	0.49**	(0.90)					
3. *Helping role perceptions*	4.68	1.32	0.25**	0.08	(0.91)				
4. *Helping behavior*	4.57	1.48	0.19**	0.05	0.63**	(0.91)			
5. *Trust*	4.48	1.70	0.24**	0.01	0.21**	0.13*	(0.88)		
6. *Competitiveness*	4.17	1.56	0.26**	0.35**	−0.06	−0.05	0.10	(0.91)	
7. *Leadership emergence*	4.57	1.52	0.42**	0.33**	0.26**	0.31**	0.31**	0.24**	(0.91)

Notes. $N = 249$. Cronbach α reliabilities appear on the diagonal (in parentheses).

$^*p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$.

Figure 2   Results of Structural Equation Modeling of the Proposed Mediated Effects of Personality on Leadership Emergence

Notes. Structural path estimates are the standardized parameter estimates. We display the results from the model, which includes the interaction between achievement striving and role perceptions. The path between achievement striving and helping behavior in the model represents controlling for the effect of achievement striving before including the interaction term. It also highlights the subsequent interaction of achievement striving with helping role perceptions. Given the debate regarding the appropriateness of interpreting independent variable main effects on the dependent variable (in this case, on helping behavior) in the presence of their interaction, we compared the strength and significance of the main effects on helping behavior with and without the interaction in the model. The path coefficient for the main effect between helping role perceptions and helping behavior is identical with and without the interaction term.
   $^*p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$.

analysis ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$, with duty included in the regression).

To test our mediation hypotheses, we ran a series of nested models. In Hypothesis 5, we proposed that helping role perceptions would serve as a mediator of the relationship between duty and helping behavior. We tested an alternative Model 2, in which we added a path from duty to helping behavior to test whether duty had an independent effect when controlling for helping role perceptions. The path between duty and helping behavior was not significant ($\beta = 0.01$, NS), and neither was the chi-square difference significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 0.05$, 1 df, NS). Thus, the effect of duty on helping behavior was fully mediated by helping role perceptions, supporting Hypothesis 5.

In Hypothesis 2, we proposed that trust would be a partial mediator of the relationship between duty and leadership emergence, and in Hypothesis 6, we hypothesized that helping role perceptions and helping behavior would partially mediate the relationship between duty and leadership emergence. In Hypothesis 8, we proposed that competitiveness would fully mediate the relationship between achievement striving and leadership emergence. All direct relationships between the independent variables and mediators and the outcome were significant (see Figure 2), indicating the presence of significant indirect effects (Kline 2011). To establish whether the effects

of duty on leadership emergence are fully mediated by multiple mediating mechanisms (offered in Hypotheses 2 and 6) and whether the effect of achievement striving on leadership emergence is fully mediated by competitiveness (Hypothesis 8), we tested an alternative Model 3. Here, we added additional direct paths between duty and leadership emergence as well as between achievement striving and leadership emergence to test whether they still have an independent effect on the outcome while taking into account the multiple mediators. The resulting model exhibited good fit (CFI = 0.96, SRMR = 0.06, RMSEA = 0.05). The chi-square difference between this model and the more parsimonious model was also significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 27.68$, 2 df, $p < 0.01$). This result suggests that adding direct effects from duty and achievement striving to leadership emergence improves model fit. Results from all alternative model comparisons are presented in Table 2.

A significant portion of the total variance in leadership emergence predicted by achievement striving was explained by the mediation by competitiveness. Similarly, a significant part of the total relationship between duty and leadership emergence was explained by the mediating variables, supporting partial mediation. Table 3 shows the decomposition of total effects into direct and indirect effects, and Figure 3 displays the revised model, reflecting the presence of partial rather than complete mediation for the mechanisms

Table 2 Comparison of Theoretical Models

Structure	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	IFI	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA
Model 1: Theoretical model	885.92	566	—	—	0.96	0.96	0.07	0.05
Model 2: Direct path between duty → Helping behavior added	885.87	565	0.05	1	0.95	0.95	0.07	0.05
Model 3: Direct paths between duty and achievement striving → Leadership emergence added	858.24	564	27.68**	2	0.96	0.96	0.06	0.05

Notes. All model χ^2 values are significant at $p < 0.01$. IFI, incremental fit index. Change in χ^2 is significant only between Models 1 and 3 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 27.68$, 2 df, $p < 0.01$). To test Model 2, a path between duty and helping behavior was added in both the presence and the absence of the interaction of helping role perceptions and achievement striving on helping behavior. As expected, the estimated relationship was not significant ($\beta = 0.01$, NS; and $\beta = 0.02$, NS, respectively).
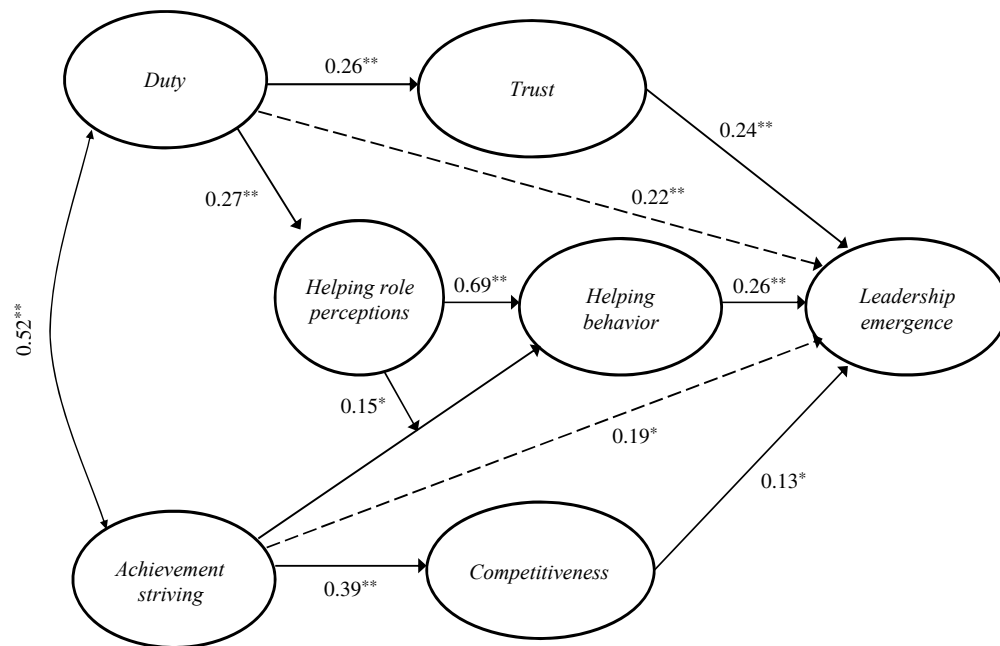
Table 3 Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Modeled Variables on Leadership Emergence

Relationships	Duty	Achievement striving	Competitiveness	Achievement striving × Helping role perceptions	Helping role perceptions	Trust	Helping behavior
Direct	0.22**	0.19**	0.13*	0.00	0.00	0.24**	0.26**
Indirect	0.11**	0.05[a]	0.00	0.04*	0.18**	0.00	0.00
Total	0.33**	0.24**	0.13*	0.04*	0.18**	0.24**	0.26**

[a]One-tailed.
*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$.

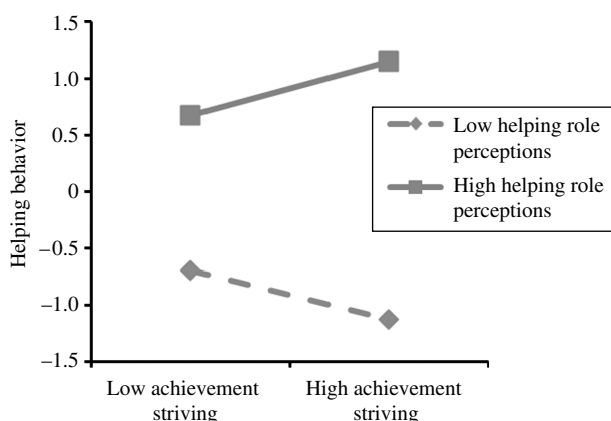**Figure 3 Structural Equation Modeling Revised Model**

Notes. Structural path estimates are the standardized parameter estimates. The path between achievement-striving and helping behavior in the model represents controlling for the effect of achievement-striving before including the interaction term. It also highlights the subsequent interaction of achievement striving with helping role perceptions. Compared to Figure 2, the following paths represented with a dotted line have been added in this model: duty to leadership emergence and achievement striving to leadership emergence.
*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$.

linking duty and achievement striving with leadership emergence (compared with Figure 2). The total variance explained by our model in leadership emergence was 38%.

We estimated the interaction in structural equation modeling following a procedure developed by Ping (1996, 1998) and recommended by Cortina et al. (2001). The procedure requires mean centering the variables involved in the interaction and computing the interaction term by multiplying the mean-centered independent variables. With respect to the SEM, to remove the need for imposing nonlinear constraints, we computed the loading of the interaction factor as well as its error and factor variances based on the measurement model and fixed them in the structural analysis of the model. A path between achievement striving and helping behavior was added to control for its main effect before including the interaction term in the equation (Aiken and West 1991). As expected, the main effect of achievement striving was not significant in predicting helping behavior in the presence and in the absence of the interaction for the theoretical (0.02, NS; and 0.01, NS, respectively) and for the revised (0.01, NS; and 0.00, NS, respectively) Model 3. The interaction is statistically significant and in the predicted direction ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$), supporting Hypothesis 9. The interaction explained an additional 2.7% of variance in helping behavior, and the indirect effect of the interaction on leadership emergence was also significant. We plotted the interaction at values one standard deviation above and below the means of the independent variables (Aiken and West 1991) using the standardized path coefficients from the SEM (Cortina et al. 2001). The shape of the interaction displayed in Figure 4 shows that high achievement striving leads to significantly more helping behavior only when helping behavior is viewed as in-role, as captured by higher role perceptions.

Figure 4   Interaction Between Achievement Striving and Helping Role Perceptions

Note. All variables involved in the interaction chart, including the dependent variable, are mean centered (Aiken and West 1991, Ping 1998).

Supplementary Analysis

We also tested an alternative to our theoretical model, a model in which we included task performance as a predictor of leadership emergence.[3] We measured task performance from the supervisor perspective with three established items (Van Dyne and LePine 1998). A sample item is "This person meets performance expectations." We included duty and achievement striving as predictors of task performance. Results from this analysis ($\chi^2 = 1,028.57$, CFI $= 0.96$, SRMR $= 0.07$) show that achievement striving and duty are predictive of task performance ($\beta = 0.41$ and $\beta = 0.26$ for duty and achievement striving, respectively; $p < 0.01$). However, although the correlation between performance and leadership emergence is positive and significant ($r = 0.22$), when included as a predictor in our SEM model, task performance shows a nonsignificant relationship to leadership emergence ($\beta = 0.09$, NS). Our interpretation of this nonsignificant relationship is twofold. Theoretically, although being a competent performer is important, it is not a sufficient condition for being viewed as a potential leader. Given the nature of our sample (engineering), this may be the case because task performance requires mostly technical competence. In addition, task performance shares variance with several other variables, such as trust and helping behavior. Thus, it is possible that when the variance resulting from stronger predictors (e.g., trust, helping behavior) was accounted for in leadership emergence, performance was no longer significant.

Discussion

Theoretical Implications

In this study, we advance theory about leadership emergence in the workplace, a process critical to both individuals and organizations. Drawing on the socially constructed nature of leadership (Chemers 2000, Hogg 2001, Lord et al. 1984) and on the two-facet approach to capturing self- and other-orientation in conscientiousness (Grant and Wrzesniewski 2010, Hough 1992, Moon 2001), we suggest that duty and achievement striving provide a viable approach for examining how leaders emerge in the workplace. Extending prior work connecting broad conscientiousness to leadership emergence (Judge et al. 2002), our theory and findings support the notion that duty and achievement striving take unique paths in predicting leadership emergence. In particular, we posit getting along and getting ahead as mechanisms of leadership emergence (Hogan 1996). Notably, we obtained multiple sources for our measures; supervisors, focal employees, and coworkers provided different ratings, thus strengthening our inferences that the predictors, social processes, and outcomes that we captured were not an artifact of one rating source.

We extend current work on the socially constructed nature of leadership by offering new theoretical insights

into both the prototypical trait attributes and the social mechanisms that promote perceptions of leadership. Investigating personality and its effect on social processes is a critical step toward gaining an appreciation of the relevance of personality for the social construction of leadership. We found that duty and achievement striving were uniquely related to leadership emergence. We also confirmed that their relationship to leadership emergence followed different paths. For instance, we found that duty leads to leadership via building trust and being a cooperative partner as a getting-along path to emergence. We also found support for the notion that status striving in the form of competitiveness provides one mechanism linking achievement striving to leadership emergence. Therefore, seeking to outperform others formed a basis for being evaluated as having leadership potential as well.

Past literature has sometimes highlighted the tension between other-interest and self-interest motives in understanding leadership, stirring a debate about the virtues of each approach (Avolio and Locke 2002). Even though a possible tension arises such that getting along may be incompatible with getting ahead (Wolfe et al. 1986), our study shows that both the getting-along and getting-ahead processes contribute to the socially constructed process of leadership emergence. Taken together, our theory and findings demonstrate that even though the social construction process of leadership is undermined by a lack of information, coworkers and supervisors in organizational workgroups are sensitive to an individual's skills in getting along as well as to his or her propensity to seek to get ahead in making leadership attributions.

In addition, we offer theory and evidence on the importance of the conscientiousness facets of duty and achievement striving for leadership, responding to calls to extend our understanding of facets of personality in the workplace (Ashton 1998, Dudley et al. 2006, Hough 1992, Moon et al. 2008). Our findings further corroborate the notion advanced by others (De Dreu and Nauta 2009) such that "[w]hen a self-orientation or other orientation is relevant to the criterion of interest, a more narrow use of conscientiousness may be beneficial" (Moon 2001, p. 537). Specifically, models assuming rational self-interest as a primary individual motivation may bias our understanding of workplace behavior. To address this gap, calls have been made to acknowledge and investigate differences between self- and other-orientation in the workplace (Grant and Wrzesniewski 2010, Meglino and Korsgaard 2004). Duty and achievement striving represented other- and self-orientation in conscientiousness, and they demonstrated unique predictive validity for leadership emergence.

Further corroborating our theory, helping role perceptions served as a boundary condition between achievement striving and helping one's coworkers. Consistent with the self-orientation posited with regard to achievement striving, we found a moderated relationship between achievement striving and helping behavior. Specifically, high achievers helped only when they viewed helping behavior as instrumental for rewards or punishment. In contrast, duty showed a positive relationship to helping behavior, mediated by helping role perceptions. Previous studies have not always been successful in establishing significant relationships between personality and helping behavior (Organ and McFall 2004, Podsakoff et al. 2000). Our theory and results suggest that differences in self- and other-orientation may help explain the theoretical mechanisms by which dispositions affect helping behavior in the workplace (Korsgaard et al. 2010, Meglino and Korsgaard 2004).

Our study also provides novel insights by demonstrating the benefits of helping behavior for leadership emergence in an organizational context. Supplementary analysis indicates a positive relationship between helping behavior and leadership emergence, even in the presence of task performance. From a career-building perspective, employees who engage in helping behaviors may expect benefits such as increased perceptions of leadership emergence.

Practical Implications

One of the practical implications of this study is that it provides managers with a better understanding of the role of their employee's personality and of the interpersonal process involved in predicting leadership emergence. The processes that underlie the relationships between duty and achievement striving with leadership emergence are unique. Organizations can select employees based on the criteria of duty and achievement striving, but they can also use information about their employee's personality to distribute tasks that would suit their interpersonal styles.

According to our findings, a high achiever would fit a situation in which competitiveness is necessary for successful task completion, and he or she may emerge as a leader through competitiveness. On the other hand, a dutiful individual is one who would tend to create positive interactions with others in the workplace as well as engage in helping behaviors. These individuals may be more suitable for a teamwork situation, which requires leadership focusing on the collective goal as determined by the positive, trusting interactions of employees. Organizations can also use such insights to better select and train individuals in order to facilitate leadership succession planning, and individuals could be better prepared to manage their career paths by increasing perceptions of their leadership potential in ways consistent with their personalities.

The additional finding regarding helping role perceptions also provides practical insights. In some

situations, organizations may need to communicate the in-role nature of helping behavior if they want high achievers to engage in helpful actions with colleagues. Citizenship behaviors such as helping have initially been defined as extra-role, but recent literature suggests that this is often not the case (Marinova et al. 2010, Tepper et al. 2001). Organizations therefore may need to reconsider the extent to which helping behavior should be placed outside or within an individual's role, and managers should consider how to most effectively communicate role perceptions (Grant and Hofmann 2011).

Limitations

The cross-sectional nature of this study is a limitation because it limits the extent to which we can draw causal conclusions. At the same time, however, the temporal order of the variables of the study is relatively well established. Personality characteristics are often considered predecessors of interpersonal processes and behaviors. Although some of the measures used are new to this study, they exhibited acceptable psychometric properties in the SEM. In addition, we evaluated only leadership emergence and not the leadership behaviors or effectiveness of current leaders because we were interested in the bottom-up processes of becoming a leader.

Our findings also have to be interpreted within the setting in which they were derived; specifically, we studied a well-established large organization and its engineering employees. For instance, our research is limited because we were unable to assess the actual emergence to management positions. The groups in our research already had a supervisor. Past research on leadership emergence typically involved leaderless student groups and an experimental environment (e.g., Kellett et al. 2006, Smith and Foti 1998, Taggar et al. 1999, Tripathi and Agrawal 1978). However, given the complexity of large organizations, the actual ascendance to leadership positions may be a function of a variety of different factors, including current openings and business needs, thus limiting our ability to observe the process over short periods of time. It is plausible that in a well-established organizational context, leadership emergence would converge with being promoted to a management position over time.

We also note that, theoretically, we would anticipate some degree of similarity between our personality and process constructs. For instance, achievement striving may lead to the buildup of social reputation, which reflects a competitive orientation in social interactions. However, we think that this similarity is of theoretical importance to advancing our understanding of personality in the work environment. In particular, personality is likely to manifest itself in social processes and interactions. For instance, some personality experts define the external manifestation of personality as reputation (Hogan 1991). Other personality research stemming from identity and self-presentation perspectives

(Paulhus and Trapnell 2008, Swann and Bosson 2008) also highlights the importance of one's own perceptions of personality as well as the social perceptions that others acquire based on the more visible behavioral strategies used for self-presentation.

We focused on one prominent conceptualization of trust associated with attributions of trustworthiness and reliability (Dirks and Ferrin 2002, Lewicki et al. 1998). Trust has also been conceptualized as an intention to be vulnerable (Mayer et al. 1995). The trustor's willingness to be vulnerable may, for instance, be strongly correlated with the trustor's propensity to trust. Trust has also been posited as a multidimensional construct—as cognitive and affective trust (e.g., McAllister 1995, Schaubroeck et al. 2011). Cognitive trust is based on rational knowledge that the other party would be reliable, whereas affective trust is based on the formation of an emotional bond. We could speculate that duty is especially relevant for building cognitive trust. Our trust items were phrased more generally and did not allow the testing of multiple conceptualizations of trust.

Finally, although we obtained multiple sources for our measures—supervisors, focal employees, and coworkers—we did not obtain multiple raters for each individual employee. Past research, however, confirms group agreement across multiple respondents regarding trust and trustworthy behavior of the same person/entity (Dirks 2000, Joshi et al. 2009, Korsgaard et al. 2002), organizational citizenship behaviors such as helping of the same person (across different rating sources as well; see Allen et al. 2000), and the leadership emergence of an individual (Taggar et al. 1999). Given that interactions between workgroup members and their supervisors occurred daily in our sample, it is likely that there is a high level of agreement on workgroup members' trust in each other, competitiveness, helping behavior, and leadership.

Future Research

We recommend that future studies examine processes underlying the relationships between personality and leadership effectiveness for current organizational leaders. This would help shed light on the leadership process as it pertains to currently designated leaders in the organization and would provide a theoretical comparison of emergence traits/processes to traits and processes involved in leadership effectiveness. Such comparative models can reveal important similarities as well as differences. For instance, it would be informative to determine whether a focus on getting along contributes more positively, equally, or less positively to various outcomes associated with leadership effectiveness vis-à-vis a focus on getting ahead. Specifically, given that leadership effectiveness is a versatile criterion conceptualized in multiple ways (DeRue et al. 2011), future research can look into how the distinct processes of getting along

and getting ahead contribute to various leadership effectiveness criteria. For instance, it is possible that a leader who is especially good at getting along would contribute to higher group performance or group collaboration as indicators of leadership effectiveness (Hogan and Kaiser 2005), whereas a leader who places emphasis on individual achievement striving and competitiveness would improve follower individual performance.

We also note that social identity processes may be at play such that duty and achievement striving may be prototypical traits for engineers, thus elevating their importance for leadership emergence (Haslam et al. 2010, Hogg 2001, Hogg et al. 2006, van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg 2005). Future research using multigroup and multisample designs should examine the possible influence of group identity features on the activation of prototypical traits and the subsequent influence of trait activation processes on leadership emergence. It would also be useful to incorporate additional insights from identity theory into future studies. For instance, it is possible that being a generous exchange partner and helping others can be construed as one part of a leader's socially constructed identity (Lewis 1974). For example, it has been posited that a leader identity emerges from a dynamic process of an individual's claiming and others' granting of a leader identity (DeRue et al. 2009). It is possible that the processes of getting ahead and getting along represent important processes of claiming and granting of leadership identity. Future research should explore the construct of leadership identity and how individual traits lead to processes of claiming and granting of leader identity.

Our main focus was on the facets of one of the most important personality traits, conscientiousness, which has received limited theoretical attention from a leadership emergence perspective. Other narrow-trait predictors can be examined as well. For instance, there are other plausible taxonomies of personality in general and conscientiousness in particular (DeYoung et al. 2007, Paunonen and Ashton 2001). We also suggest that future research studies continue to focus on narrower facets of the Big Five personality traits that may be relevant from a self- and other-orientation perspective and that they explore their influence on leadership emergence in theoretically meaningful ways. For example, it has been posited that extraversion amalgamates facets related to self- and other-orientation (Moon et al. 2008). Sociability has been offered as an other-oriented facet of extraversion, involving a propensity to seek warm and friendly interactions, whereas surgency (or potency) has been viewed as a self-oriented facet of extraversion, describing a propensity toward high levels of activity and assertiveness. Examining self- and other-orientation may provide additional clues on how and why an extraverted individual ascends to leadership.

Studies utilizing international samples to test theories developed in the context of the United States are common (Chen et al. 2007, Liao and Rupp 2005, Salanova et al. 2005). It is possible that features of the context such as culture modify the importance of each. For instance, other cultures are sometimes viewed as more collectivistic compared with the U.S. culture (Hofstede 1991), and they may place greater importance on processes of getting along. It is thus possible that the importance of getting along versus getting ahead depends on the cultural context. However, although early research conceptualized culture at the country level, a review of recent organizational research demonstrates that culture has been conceptualized and measured at the individual level (Kirkman et al. 2009), at the team level (Yang et al. 2007), and at the organizational level (Chatman and Barsade 1995, Erdogan et al. 2006). This trend toward deemphasizing the conceptualization of cultural values at the national level was confirmed in a comprehensive quarter-century review of organizational studies (Kirkman et al. 2006), mirroring increasing globalization and purported cross-cultural homogeneity.

Although sweeping conclusions about cultural homogeneity are likely premature, self- and other-orientation as well as getting ahead and getting along are believed to be universally important for group living (Van Vugt et al. 2008) and leadership (Hogan and Kaiser 2005, House and Aditya 1997). For example, a study of 62 societies from 10 world regions suggested that team building and excellence orientation could be viewed as desirable in leaders across different cultures (Dorfman et al. 2004, Javidan et al. 2006). Future research that examines multiple cultures can provide insights on the possibility for moderators of the proposed relationships.

Finally, although our theory and findings confirm the importance of employee helping role perceptions, we still have limited empirical research on the factors that cause employees to define citizenship behaviors such as helping behavior as part of their role at work. Thus, there would be value in focusing specifically on the psychological processes that influence the development of role perceptions. More research is needed to understand both the sources of in-role perceptions and the long-term implications of seeking to incorporate these behaviors within organizational roles.

Conclusion

Although leadership emergence processes are of great importance to both individuals and organizations, there is a relative paucity of research examining theoretical mechanisms of leadership emergence in organizations. Following a socioanalytic perspective (Hogan and Holland 2003), and extending our knowledge on the social construction of leadership emergence (Chemers 2000), we demonstrated support for getting along and getting ahead as two contrasting pathways to leadership emergence. In addition, although the theoretical and predictive utility of personality facets for workplace outcomes has been vigorously advocated (e.g., Block 1995,

Oswald and Hough 2010), no studies to our knowledge have proposed the unique theoretical relevance of self (achievement striving)- and other (duty)-orientation facets in conscientiousness for the social construction of leadership. We found support for the notion that duty led to building trust, helping role perceptions, and displaying helping behaviors as one path to leadership emergence. We also established that achievement striving was associated with focusing on one's own performance and being competitive, and it also contributed to leadership emergence.

Acknowledgments

Endnotes

[1]We thank an anonymous reviewer for pointing out the need for clarification on other theoretical approaches.

[2]Duty was viewed as correspondent with dependability and thus was coded as dependability in the meta-analysis by Judge et al. (2002). Other theoretical and meta-analytical reviews (Dudley et al. 2006, Hough and Ones 2001) also categorized duty and dependability as equivalent.

[3]We thank an anonymous reviewer for this suggestion.

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