

**SELF-OTHER CONGRUENCE IN INFORMAL LEADERSHIP
EMERGENCE RATINGS: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF
AFFECTIVE OUTCOMES**

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The Academic Faculty

by

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AFFECTIVE OUTCOMES**

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In Memory of Dad—the strongest person I have ever known

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

SOA	Self-Other Agreement
PR	Polynomial Regression
RSM	Response Surface Modeling
LOC	Line of Congruence
LOIC	Line of Incongruence
FPA	First Principal Axis

SUMMARY

This study investigated the effects of congruence and incongruence between self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on affective outcomes within a team setting, using Higgins' (1987) Self-Discrepancy Theory as a framework. Participants' affect was measured before and after a leaderless team task, along with their perceptions of their own and each team member's leadership emergence. Participants also rated their desire to emerge as a leader. Using multilevel polynomial regression and response surface modeling (MPR-RSM), this study examined how alignment or misalignment between individuals' self-perceptions and their peers' perceptions of their leadership emergence influenced post-task positive and negative affect. The findings indicated that self-ratings of leadership emergence significantly predicted an increase in post-task positive affect, but did not predict a decrease in post-task negative affect. Although self-other congruence did not predict affective outcomes, high-self/low-other incongruence was associated with increased positive affect, contrary to expectations. Gender-specific response surfaces also suggested nuanced affective responses, particularly for women low in self-perceived leadership. Desire to emerge as a leader did not significantly moderate these relationships. These findings provide nuanced insights into the complex dynamics of leadership self-perceptions, other-perceptions, and affect within informal leadership contexts, contributing to the overall understanding of leadership emergence and its emotional consequences in team settings.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is an essential component of effective organizational functioning. The perception of oneself as a leader and the perception of others regarding one's leadership capabilities can significantly impact various organizational outcomes (Hanna et al., 2021; Badura et al., 2022). While leadership has traditionally been seen as a formal role occupied by an individual, modern perspectives have begun to view leadership more fluidly—often emerging from interactions within a group (Badura et al., 2022). This type of leadership is called leadership emergence. A lesser explored domain within leadership emergence is the congruence between self- and peer-perceptions of leadership emergence and how this might impact individual outcomes. There is a rich body of literature investigating congruence in self-other ratings of certain types of leadership, or self-other agreement (SOA). In a review on the topic, Fleenor et al. (2010) discuss the importance of considering SOA, as it is often indicative of both a leader's self-awareness and leadership outcomes, such as leader effectiveness. In leaderless, informal groups, when someone emerges into a leadership position, they must be perceived as doing so by the group. Unfortunately, perceptions of one's own leadership emergence and others' perceptions of one's leadership emergence are not always in alignment (Meister, Jehn, & Thatcher, 2012). Despite this, many existing studies investigating leadership emergence have used either self-ratings or ratings from others, but few have used both in conjunction (Badura et al., 2022). Additionally, there is sparse research investigating the *congruence* between self- and others' perceptions of one's leadership emergence and the outcomes of this (in)congruence. By not considering both self- and other-ratings together, research may miss out on a more holistic understanding of how individuals perceive their own

leadership emergence compared to how they are perceived by others. This dual perspective is crucial for fully understanding the social and psychological dynamics of leadership within groups. Further, the congruence or lack thereof between how individuals perceive their own leadership emergence and how they are perceived by others may have implications for both group outcomes, such as team cohesion, and individual outcomes, such as emotions.

In order to understand the impact of leadership emergence perceptions on individual outcomes, particularly affective outcomes, one must look to Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory. This theory describes how discrepancies between a person's self-concepts might impact their emotions. According to this theory, a self-concept is an individual's belief about themselves, encompassing the ways in which they perceive their attributes, behaviors, and overall character. A person can have multiple self-concepts, or self-representations. These self-representations can include how a person currently sees themselves, who a person aspires to be, and how a person feels they ought to be. Further, a person can also form an idea of how they are being perceived by others, and then compare this external perception to their internal self-representation. The idea of (mis)alignment between an individual's self-representation and others' perceptions can be extended to the workplace, where a person may have a self-representation of themselves as a leader or a follower. Self-discrepancy theory provides a valuable framework for analyzing how alignment or misalignment in leadership perceptions influences individual affective experiences in the workplace.

The influence of affect in the workplace is profound and multifaceted, impacting both individual behaviors and organizational outcomes. Affect encompasses the spectrum

of emotional experiences that individuals undergo, from positive to negative (Watson et al., 1988), and is instrumental in molding organizational behaviors, attitudes, and climate. Brief and Weiss (2002) underscore affect's impact on job performance, decision making, and interpersonal work dynamics. Not merely transient states, emotions yield significant and measurable work-related repercussions (Kaplan et al., 2009). The ripple effects of affect extend beyond the individual, influencing team dynamics and organizational health. Positive affect is known to bolster team cohesion, amplifying communication and collaboration (Barsade, 2002). It is also associated with heightened work motivation and diminished stress, driving higher job performance (Wright & Staw, 1999).

The role of emotions in leadership contexts is a critical aspect of workplace dynamics, often serving as a barometer for the effectiveness and well-being of leaders and their teams. Within the framework of self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), the congruence between an individual's self-perception of their leadership abilities and their peers' perceptions emerges as a significant factor influencing these emotional outcomes. Discrepancies between one's self-representation and the perceptions of others are posited to evoke emotional responses, with potential implications for job performance and decision making (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). These emotional responses may be consequential to congruence between self- and other-perceptions of an individual's leadership emergence, reflecting the psychological impact of aligning or misaligning with one's leadership identity. Therefore, it is essential to explore how congruence or incongruence in leadership perceptions affects emergent leaders' emotional states. Such affective outcomes are important in their own right, impacting leaders' ability to function effectively, influencing team morale, and shaping the overall health of the

organization. By examining these relationships, we can gain valuable insights into how the alignment between self-perception and peer perception within informal leadership roles impacts emotional outcomes and workplace functioning.

Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) also suggests that the outcomes of self- and other-perceptions incongruity may differ based on individual factors. Two key individual factors that may impact self-representation surrounding one's leadership emergence in a team setting are gender and motivation to emerge as a leader. The established gender gap in leadership emergence (Badura et al., 2018) and individual differences in leadership motivation (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) may further differentiate how congruence or incongruence in leadership perceptions impacts individuals. Perhaps men, who have traditionally received higher ratings of leadership emergence (Badura et al., 2022), have stronger affective change when self-peer ratings are incongruent. Motivational differences may also exert influence on the relationship between leadership emergence ratings congruence and affective outcomes. Specifically, some individuals possess a higher motivation to lead than others (Chan & Drasgow, 2001); it might be the case that these individuals are more significantly impacted when there is incongruence between their own ratings of their leadership emergence and others' ratings of their leadership emergence.

This investigation aimed to delve into the unexplored territory of affective outcomes related to congruence in self-other leadership emergence perceptions. While self-discrepancy theory has been applied in various psychological and organizational contexts (e.g., Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Bono & Colbert, 2005, Atwater & Yammarino, 1993; Higgins, 1987; Fleenor et al., 2010; Cross & Markus, 1994), its

application to leadership emergence represents a novel contribution. Additionally, gender and desire to emerge are presented to consider potential boundary conditions on the relationship between self-other congruence and affective outcomes. In order to pursue this purpose, I examined individuals' self-ratings and their team members' ratings of their emergent leadership in a team task and measured positive and negative affect. In doing so, this study seeks to contribute novel insights to the field of leadership studies, particularly in informal settings. This exploration is not just about reinforcing the understanding of leadership dynamics but also about unearthing the nuanced relationships between perception alignment and affect.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review builds upon self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) to explore the affective outcomes arising from the congruence, or lack thereof, between self and others' perceptions in the context of emergent leadership. The alignment or discrepancy in leadership perceptions not only influences immediate emotional responses but also has broader implications for confidence, self-worth, and emotional stability (Higgins, 1987; Fleenor et al., 2010). By examining the nuances of self-other perception congruence and its impact on affect, this review aims to extend the understanding of leadership emergence in informal settings. It explores how self-other agreement in leadership perception relates to short-term affective responses, utilizing the lens of self-discrepancy theory.

1.1 Self-Discrepancy Theory

Higgins (1987) introduced a theoretical framework in order to explicate the feeling of discomfort or negative affect accompanying an inconsistency in a person's beliefs about themselves. Importantly, these inconsistencies can occur between domains or between standpoints. Specifically, Higgins identifies "self-states" or domains, which are types of self-representation comprised of the actual self, the ideal self, and the ought self (See Table 1). The actual self is a person's self-representation as it stands—how they currently view themselves and who they are. The ideal self, on the other hand, is who a person the focal individual would *like* to be—this includes a person's aspirations, hopes, and dreams of the person they want to become. Finally, the ought self is the person that someone believes they *should* be; this can be driven by feelings of obligation, duty, morals, or others' expectations.

Table 1 – This table presents possible combinations of standpoint and domain according to Higgins’ (1987) Self-Discrepancy Theory. The result are different self-representations that can then be in conflict with one another, causing a self-discrepancy (e.g., actual-own/ought-other self-discrepancy).

		<u>Domain</u>		
		Actual	Ideal	Ought
<u>Standpoint</u>	Oneself	Actual-Own	Ideal-Own	Ought-Own
	Other	Actual-Other	Ideal-Other	Ought-Other

In addition to self-discrepancies between domains, a person might also experience self-discrepancies between standpoints within each domain (e.g., one’s actual-own self versus a significant other’s actual perception for that person)(See Table 1). Self-discrepancy theory outlines implications for how discrepancies between self-perceptions and others’ perceptions can impact an individual. Higgins suggests that our understanding of who we are is influenced not only by our internal viewpoint but also by how others see us. Higgins emphasizes the importance of the “own” standpoint and the “other” standpoint. The other is any significant other pertinent to a situation. Further, Higgins (1987) points out the importance of standpoint in the emotions literature. When there is a significant difference between how we see ourselves (actual self) and how we believe others see us (which could be considered a form of “actual self” from an other-standpoint), this can lead to feelings of discomfort and emotional distress. Standpoint incongruencies may be highlighted through feedback from others or subliminal social interaction cues (Leary et al., 1995). For example, if an individual perceives themselves

as a competent leader (self-viewpoint of the actual self) but believes that others do not see them as such (other-viewpoint of the actual self), this discrepancy can result in negative emotions such as sadness, anxiety, or shame (Moretti & Higgins, 1999). This is because the individual's self-representation is being challenged by what they perceive to be the external view of their identity. In a broader sense, such discrepancies can lead to motivation to reduce the gap, either by changing one's behavior to better align with others' perceptions or by attempting to change others' perceptions to align with one's self-view.

Self-discrepancy theory posits that incongruence between self-representations leads to negative outcomes like psychological distress. For example, Phillips and Silvia (2005) found that discrepancies between actual and ideal selves significantly predicted depressive symptoms, providing evidence for the theory's claim about the psychological impact of self-discrepancy. Further, Dickson, Moberly, and Huntley (2019) had 138 participants list adjectives describing their ought self and the perceived differences they saw between their actual self and this ought self. Ultimately researchers found significant, positive relationships between self-discrepancies and measures of negative rumination, depression, and anxiety taken at the end of the procedure. The potential affective impact of discrepancies in self-representations can vary, influenced by personal experiences, societal expectations, cultural contexts, age, and other factors (Higgins et al., 1986; Colvin et al., 1995; Strahan et al., 2006; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Sheldon & Kasser, 1995; Heckhausen & Schulz, 1995). For example, Cross and Markus (1994) demonstrated how the influence of self-discrepancy varies across cultures, with Western cultures showing a stronger correlation between self-discrepancy and well-being. Further, the magnitude itself of self-discrepancies is linked to the intensity of subsequent affective experiences (Higgins, 1987).

1.1.1 Implicit Perceptions of Incongruence

When discussing self-other incongruence, particularly in organizational settings, much of the literature revolves around explicit feedback interventions where individuals are made aware of the discrepancies (e.g., Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Bono & Colbert, 2005, Atwater & Yammarino, 1993). However, a person might also have an implicit awareness of disparities despite a lack of formal feedback. Implicit awareness often relies on implicit cues, perceived social evaluations, and more broadly, meta-perception (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993; Leary et al., 1995; Argyle et al., 1971). Perceived cues or behaviors of others further serve as a mirror to which a person can hold up their actual self—with the discrepancies from their ought and ideal selves being reflected by way of others' responses and cues. In other words, per self-discrepancy theory, a person may become aware of an own/other discrepancy through their interactions with others or automatically pick up on cues that indicate a self-representation discrepancy (Higgins, 1987). In an experimental study exploring trait dominance and perceptions of competence, research indicated that teams are attuned to signals from members and perceptions of fellow team members are influenced by these signals (Anderson & Kilduff, 2006). Cues from team members might be compared to a person's own perceptions of their behaviors during a team meeting and subsequently influence their affect. This idea is echoed by Leary et al.'s (1995) sociometer hypothesis, which essentially argues that individuals can form beliefs about how they are viewed or perceived by others in interpersonal interactions using social cues, despite not having any explicit feedback from those they interact with.

In a team-based task environment, individuals hold perceptions about their actual self with regard to their leadership abilities. These perceptions are twofold: the individual's actual self-representation of their leadership within informal teams (i.e.,

actual-own self), and their perceived self-representation ascribed to them by their team members (i.e., actual-other self). A team-based environment enables real-time assessment of the congruence between these self-representations. The alignment is discernible through both explicit means, such as direct feedback, *and* implicit indicators like non-verbal cues or overall team dynamics (Manian et al., 2006). A person's perception of how others are viewing them acts as the root of understanding a person forms regarding how they are being assessed (Meister et al., 2012). Thus, without constant interruptions during a task to assess others' perceptions of them, a person must form inferences using context clues about how they are being perceived by teammates. Though admittedly not the same construct, others' perceptions can act as a good proxy for our perception of how others are actively assessing us. When team members evaluate an individual's leadership, their perceptions act as a reflection of the individual's actual-other self, which can either corroborate or challenge the individual's actual-own self.

Interpersonal interactions within a team offer a mirror for individuals to view their actual-other self, as suggested by Manian et al. (2006). For instance, in team meetings, the gap between a person's self-perception of their leadership abilities and the team's perception becomes evident. This gap manifests through both verbal and nonverbal interactions, providing insights into how an individual's leadership is currently viewed, even in the early stages of team interaction. Supporting this concept, a meta-analysis by Ambady and Rosenthal (1992) revealed that brief instances of expressive behavior (as short as 2 to 30 seconds) can effectively convey interpersonal dynamics. These interactions are indicative of broader interpersonal outcomes, suggesting that even brief encounters suffice for team members to form impressions based on limited information,

including nonverbal cues. Consequently, these interactions within a team can indicate an individual's actual-other self, assisting in the evaluation of the congruence between their actual-own and actual-other self-representations.

1.1.2 Self-Discrepancy Theory and Positive and Negative Affect

Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) argues that differences in one's self-representations can result in psychological distress or negative affect, including sadness, guilt, and anxiety. In a review extending self-discrepancy theory, Moretti and Higgins (1999) argue that everyone possesses an "inner audience," comprised of significant individuals in a person's life (e.g., partner, supervisor, peer) and the perceived goals, values, and opinions that these people hold for them or have of them. The authors further argue that—much like the comparison done in self-discrepancy theory—people are constantly comparing this inner audience with their own perception of themselves. When there are incongruences, individuals experience an increase in negative affect. Further, in a meta-analysis of 70 studies, Mason et al., (2019) found higher incongruence in actual-own versus actual-other self-representations was positively related to negative affect and negatively related to positive affect. Studies of categorization have demonstrated that when a person is categorized incorrectly by another, negative emotions such as fear and anger ensue (Barreto & Ellemers, 2003). These studies in incongruence are important in understanding the implications of two potential "quadrants" or outcomes of self-other ratings—high self/low other ratings, or low self/high other ratings. Both of these prospective scenarios represent inconsistencies in how a person views themselves and how others perceive them. There are, however, other potential outcomes in self-other

ratings that may result in affective change. These instances are ones of congruence, where a person and the other rater are in agreement.

Consistent with self-discrepancy theory, there are also instances in which someone's actual-own and other-perspectives are closely aligned. This can also be referred to as "low self-discrepancy." In the inception of self-discrepancy theory, Higgins (1987) alludes to low self-discrepancy as a desired state—one that represents an individual's comfort with themselves and how their self-representations align. Thus, it follows that awareness of this alignment and comfort would naturally produce positive affective outcomes. Both positive and negative affect are influenced by one's own perception, the perceptions of others, and how these align; leadership emergence is no exception to this phenomenon.

1.1.3 Actual-Own/Actual-Other Incongruence

Humans naturally tend to focus on how others perceive them, and the workplace is no exception to this (Meister et al., 2012). It is important to individuals in the workplace that other workgroup members have an accurate understanding of a person's identities (Swann, Johnson, & Bosson, 2009). Despite the importance of this accurate understanding, research has pointed to the common experience of asymmetry between who a person believes they are and others' perceptions of them in the workplace (Polzer, Milton, & Swann, 2002). Through the lens of self-discrepancy theory, this is considered an actual-own/actual-other discrepancy, as it represents an incongruence between how a person sees themselves and how others see them. Distress and negative affective outcomes follow any type of self-discrepancies (Higgins, 1987). Consequently, negative affective outcomes tend to follow an actual-own/actual-other incongruence (Swann et al., 2004).

Per self-discrepancy theory, when a person finds their current self to be incongruent with other self-states or others' perceptions, they often experience negative emotions such as disappointment, fear, anxiety, and sadness (Higgins, 1987; Phillips & Silvia, 2005). These emotions are thought to be driven by the absence of the positive outcomes that would result if were one to close this gap. Because this gap exists, however, a person may feel dejected and disappointed that they do not experience the positive outcomes they might have had, were they able to close the gap. Frustration, conflict, and ultimately anger could also arise from the belief that others perceive one to be a certain way that is incompatible with the way one perceives themselves (Higgins, 1987). For example, Moretti et al.,'s (1998) study screened 400 participants' self-other self-representations and then delivered negative feedback specifically targeting a self-discrepancy to one group and unrelated negative feedback to control participants. Affect was measured before and after feedback. Researchers found that participants with high actual-own/actual-other discrepancies of any kind that received relevant negative feedback to these discrepancies reported significant increases in negative affect during follow-up affective measures, as compared to the control group.

The negative affective state resulting from a self-discrepancy may drive some individuals to change their behavior in order to narrow the gap between their actual-own and actual-other selves, and thus reduce their negative emotions. Alternately, a person may use self-regulation to alter their perception of who they are in order to make the two standpoints more congruent (Higgins, 1987; Moretti & Higgins 1999). The negative emotions experienced as a result of a self-discrepancy can be motivating themselves,

particularly when a person perceives that changing behavior will reduce negative affect and result in positive outcomes (Higgins, 1996; 1997).

1.1.4 Actual-Own/Actual-Other Congruence

Initially, much research in self-discrepancy theory concentrated on the negative outcomes associated with incongruence in self-states (e.g., Higgins et al., 1986; Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995, Scott & O'Hara, 1993). However, as this body of research grows, some consideration has also been given to positive affective outcomes of congruence in self-states (e.g., Barnett, Moore, & Harp. 2017; Barnett & Womack, 2015). In a study of 450 undergraduate students, Barnett and colleagues (2017) examined relationships between domain self-discrepancies (i.e., actual-own, ideal-own self-discrepancy) and affective states. The authors found a trend of low self-discrepancy (i.e., high congruence between one's desired self-representation and one's current self-representation) relating to low levels of negative affect and higher levels of positive affect.

Additionally, some research has investigated the positive affective and behavioral outcomes of actual-own and actual-other congruence (Swann, De La Ronde, & Hixon, 1994; Swann & Pelham, 2002). For example, in a study of 179 employees, Thatcher & Greer (2008) found that employees with higher levels of actual-own/actual-other congruence were more likely to have higher levels of creativity and satisfaction. Further, congruent actual-own/actual-other perceptions can lead to feelings of coherence, predictability, and control (Swann, Stein-Seroussi, & Geisler, 1992). This likely derives from the self-verification of one's self-view, which people tend to seek (Meister et al., 2012).

Although self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) offers a robust understanding of the disparities between one's own self-perception and others' perceptions and the subsequent emotional effects, its implications extend beyond personal self-representation and outcomes. Furthermore, in the realm of organizational studies, discussions about self-other misalignment frequently focus on explicit feedback mechanisms that make individuals aware of their discrepancies (e.g., Atwater & Yammarino, 1993). However, awareness of these disparities can also occur *implicitly*, without formal feedback. This implicit recognition often stems from subtle cues, perceived evaluations by others, and meta-perception (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993; Leary et al., 1995; Argyle et al., 1971). These perceived cues or behaviors from others act as actual-other self-representations against which an individual can compare their actual self-perception. A person's actual-other self-representation becomes apparent through the reactions, interactions, and cues from team members. As posited by self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), an individual might discern self-discrepancies not only through direct feedback, but also by intuitively sensing cues that suggest a gap in their self-representations. Discrepancies in the way individuals perceive themselves in an informal work team and the way others perceive them may then impact that person's affect.

Though investigations into congruence of self-perceptions and others' perceptions of leadership are not new (e.g., Anderson & Wanberg, 1991; Wohlers & London, 1989), this research has rarely been extended to leadership emergence—specifically informal leadership emergence. An exception is Anderson and Wanberg (1991) who examined the correlation between self- and other-rated leadership emergence in 180 college students during a team task and found that overall, prediction models for self- and other-rated

emergent leadership demonstrated some convergent validity. However, the authors failed to specifically examine congruence between self- and other-ratings of emergent leadership, and further did not investigate outcomes of this congruence. Leadership emergence is not merely about the attributes or skills an individual possesses but also hinges on self- and other-perceptions of leadership behaviors—which might not always align.

1.2 Leadership Emergence

1.2.1 Defining Leadership Emergence

Leadership emergence plays an important part in the workplace. Previous research has highlighted the critical role of leadership emergence in team effectiveness, team performance, and team trustworthiness (Hanna et al., 2021; Badura et al., 2022). Leadership emergence is commonly defined as being perceived as leaderlike (McClellan et al., 2018; Badura et al., 2022; Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015; Kaiser et al., 2008), with some addendums surrounding the length of time or frequency with which group members interact with one another (Grijalva et al., 2015; Kalish & Luria, 2016), or how well acquainted members are before the start of the task (Ensari et al., 2011; Kaiser et al., 2008). In essence, there are many nuanced variations of the definition of leadership emergence, but overall, most tend to define leadership emergence as the perception by others that an individual is influencing others in a team via a leadership role (Badura et al., 2022; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Judge et al., 2002; Kaiser et al., 2008; Barling & Weatherhead, 2016). The leadership role one ascends to can be a formal role or an informal role (Badura, 2022; Hanna et al., 2021, Acton et al., 2019; Zhang & Arvey, 2009). It is important to note that leadership emergence in a group of people is not

mutually exclusive—meaning that it is not limited to one sole leader, but instead multiple leaders may emerge at varying times (or at the same time) in order to guide team members toward goal accomplishment (DeRue & Ashford, 2010).

Informal leadership emergence fundamentally revolves around perceptions—both self and from others. It has historically been operationalized in a variety of ways ranging from reports from other team members—including peer nomination or ratings (MacLaren et al., 2020; Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015) to perceptions by members that a sole member “could serve the group more usefully in attaining group goals than the other members” (Bass, 1981, p. 13). Recent perspectives emphasize separating leadership effectiveness from emergence (Cox et al., 2022), focusing on the perception of an individual as a leader rather than that person’s leadership performance or abilities. In order to allow for multiple emergent leaders within a leaderless team and to avoid conflation with leadership effectiveness, use of peer ratings of each member’s emergent leadership is recommended. This operationalization allows for multiple peers to score highly as emergent leaders (Badura et al., 2022). Individuals might also be asked to rate themselves on their leadership emergence (e.g., Anderson & Wanberg, 1991). Though they are both assessing an individual’s leadership emergence, self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence do not always perfectly mirror one another (e.g., Day & Harrison, 2007; Atwater et al., 1998). In other words, when a person assesses their own leadership emergence and their team members assess that focal person’s leadership emergence, they might not be congruent, or aligned. Incongruence between these two would represent a mismatch between a person’s own perception of their leadership emergence and their team’s ratings of their leadership emergence.

This potential incongruence in ratings aligns with Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, highlighting the potential for discrepancies in self and others' perceptions of leadership emergence. A person's self-ratings of their leadership emergence are representations of their actual-own self-representation. Ratings of a person's leadership emergence, on the other hand, presents the other-standpoint. Per self-discrepancy theory, when a person's self-states are not congruent, this can create tension or discomfort and ultimately lead to negative affective outcomes.

The aim of this study is to explore how mismatches or congruences in self/other-perceptions of leadership emergence impact affective outcomes. By examining both self-perceptions and peer perceptions of leadership emergence, this study seeks to understand the affective implications of these congruences or discrepancies, drawing on the principles of self-discrepancy theory. This approach moves beyond the social exchange of leadership to delve into the deeper psychological processes at play in leadership emergence within informal groups.

1.3 Affect and Leadership Emergence

1.3.1 Affect's Impact in the Workplace

Affect plays a pivotal role in the workplace and influences a myriad of individual and organizational outcomes. Broadly, affect can be understood as the range of emotional experiences, from positive to negative, that individuals encounter (Watson et al., 1988). Affect plays a fundamental role in shaping behaviors, attitudes, and even the overarching climate within an organization. Brief and Weiss' (2002) annual review points to the role of affect in predicting job performance, decision making at work, and workplace interactions. Emotions and affective states are not just ephemeral experiences but have

tangible consequences in work contexts. Research has indicated that positive affect can enhance problem-solving abilities, facilitate cooperative behaviors, and boost overall job performance (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Isen et al., 1987). Contrarily, negative affect has been linked to counterproductive work behaviors, reduced job satisfaction, and increased turnover intentions (George, 1991). In a meta-analysis of 57 primary studies, Kaplan et al., (2009) found small, significant relationships between both positive and negative affect and task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Positive affect has also been linked to team cohesion as a result of increased collaboration and communication among team members (Barsade, 2002). Further, employees higher in positive affect tend to have increased motivation at work and reduced work-related stress—ultimately contributing to higher job performance (Wright & Staw, 1999). Taken together, this research highlights the important role that affect plays in the workplace.

Leaders are not immune to the influence of affect. In fact, their emotional states can have a magnified impact due to their position of influence within organizations. Leaders who display positive affect can create an uplifting environment that can enhance employee morale, commitment, and job satisfaction (Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005). Such leaders can effectively model emotional intelligence, thus fostering a climate where emotions are recognized, understood, and managed appropriately. Specifically, when it comes to leadership emergence, leaders may influence the team's affect as a whole with their own affect via emotional contagion (Bono & Illies, 2006). Having established the importance of affect at work and the criticality of understanding the relationships between leadership and affect, it becomes even more clear that there is a need for research investigating how one's own perceptions of leadership emergence, the

perceptions of others, and the congruence between these might then influence affective outcomes.

1.3.2 Affect and Self-Ratings of Leadership Emergence

It has been posited that individual perceptions about oneself, specifically concerning one's capabilities and roles, significantly influence affective states (Ilies & Judge, 2003). Through the lens of Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, this perception of oneself is a person's actual self-representation. Within the leadership domain, how one perceives oneself as a leader — or one's emergence into leadership— can act as a potent force in shaping a person's emotional landscape.

Self-ratings in leadership contexts can be viewed as introspective assessments that individuals make about their own capabilities and potential. When individuals believe they exhibit traits or behaviors that align with leadership, they internally validate their own leadership potential (Day & Sin, 2011). This internal validation can serve as a precursor to various affective outcomes. A positive self-view in leadership capacities can act as a buoyant force, elevating positive affect and also serving to dampen negative emotions. For instance, Burić & Macuka (2017) found some evidence indicating a relationship between self-efficacy and subsequently increased positive affect and reduced negative affect. Further, positive self-evaluations of one's abilities in a specific performance area has demonstrated longitudinal relationships with both decreased anxiety and increased mental wellbeing (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001). This finding can be extended to one's perceptions of their own leadership. Conversely, a negative self-representation of one's leadership behaviors or traits might precipitate feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. Low regard for one's own abilities and self is causally

predictive of an increase in negative emotions such as anxiety and depression and a decrease in positive affect (Nguyen et al., 2019; Bandura, 1997). With regard to the workplace, Heidemeier and Moser (2019), found that those who ranked themselves poorly in their work performance saw an increase in negative emotions as compared to baseline.

Building upon this theoretical foundation and the intricate relationship between self-perceptions in leadership emergence and affective states, I posit a direct effect of self-ratings of emergent leadership on affective outcomes. Specifically, I argue that a heightened self-rating of leadership emergence will both heighten positive affect and ameliorate negative affect over the course of a team's interaction. Drawing from the existing body of research, the following hypothesis emerges:

Hypothesis 1: Self-ratings of leadership emergence predict a) an increase in positive affect and b) a decrease in negative affect.

1.4 Self-Other Congruence in Perceptions of Leadership Emergence

1.4.1 Perceiving (In)Congruence

Individuals deduce perceptions about how they are viewed as leaders using basic social cues, as noted by Leary et al. (1995). This understanding enables individuals to grasp how their emergent leadership is perceived by others in real-time. Discrepancies in emergent leadership self-representations may also become apparent through verbal exchanges, as indicated by Manian et al. (2006). For instance, real-time feedback from team members suggesting a person's emergent leadership capabilities reflects a low discrepancy between an individual's actual-own and actual-other self-representations regarding their role as an emergent leader within the team.

1.4.2 High Congruence – High/High or Low/Low

Having established that congruence of one's self-representations can be perceived in real time during a team interaction, I now turn to the possible combinations of self-other ratings of leadership emergence, or the four "quadrants" of congruence. When an individual is presented with the opportunity to rate their own leadership emergence, there is a range of possible values, which might act as an X-axis. At the same time, their peers are presented with the same range of values to rate this person on their leadership emergence, which might act as the Y-axis. When these two axes cross, four quadrants are created, representing four possible combinations of scores, all of which may have different implications.

Two possible combinations of outcomes represent congruence between self-ratings and peer ratings of one's leadership emergence. These are high-self/high-other ratings and low-self/low-other ratings. Through the lens of self-discrepancy theory, high-self/high-other leadership ratings present a low actual-own/actual-other discrepancy. This quadrant is comprised of individuals who feel they performed highly in the area of leadership being measured, and others (e.g., subordinates, peers, supervisors) echo this sentiment. It then follows that this validation will positively influence positive affect and reduce negative affect (Barnett et al., 2017). Research also suggests a relationship between high self-other agreement and high leader self-awareness (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; 1997; Wohlers & London, 1989).

According to Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, the extent to which one's actual-own self aligns with other-representations can determine the nature and valence of their affective states. In the context of leadership emergence, when individuals perceive

themselves as aligning with their other-perceptions of their emergent leadership, the congruence may act as a catalyst for positive affective states. In their review of self-other agreement in leadership, Atwater and Yammarino (1997) found that high-self/high-other leadership ratings agreement is associated with the *most* positive outcomes of the four quadrants of possible outcomes. This form of positive congruence also has demonstrated relationships with effective goal-setting (Atwater & Yammarino, 1997). Furthermore, when an individual's internal assessment of their leadership emergence aligns well with their team's perspective, it can engender a sense of belonging, self-worth, and confidence, all of which promote positive affect (Tse & Ashkanasy, 2015). Individuals with high congruence would not only feel contented and competent but might also experience a reduction in emotions like anxiety, doubt, or dissatisfaction—affective states typically associated with perceived incongruences between self-representations (Barnett, Moore, & Harp, 2017).

On the other hand, those who rate themselves poorly and whom others also rate poorly tend to lack motivation or confidence in themselves (Barnett & Womack, 2015). Like those with high-self/high-other ratings congruence, however, those with low-self/low-other ratings congruence are likely self-aware and thus knowledgeable of their strengths and weaknesses (Blankenship, 2016). Low/low congruence can still yield a small increase in positive affect and a decrease in negative affect; this effect can be contributed to the comfort that comes from consistency and affirmation of self-view (Barnett & Womack, 2015). Individuals who rate themselves poorly in leadership emergence and are rated poorly by team members may find a sense of relief in the

validation of their self-perception, regardless of whether or not this perception is positive (Swann, Pelham, & Krull, 1989). Thus, the current study puts forth the hypothesis that:

Hypothesis 2: Congruence in the self-other leadership emergence ratings predicts a) an increase in positive affect and b) a decrease in negative affect.

An intriguing aspect of leadership emergence in informal groups is the affective response to congruence between self- and other-ratings, even when these ratings are uniformly low. In cases where both self-ratings and others' ratings of an individual's leadership emergence are low, there exists a form of congruence that is not indicative of high emergent leadership, but can still influence affective outcomes positively. When an individual's self-assessment aligns with others' perceptions, even if these assessments are low regarding emergent leadership qualities, this alignment can offer a sense of validation and self-acceptance (Barnett & Womack, 2015). Further, this congruence creates some positive affect because it reaffirms a person's self-esteem in the area being rated, regardless of whether these ratings are high or low (Armitage & Rowe, 2011; Swann et al., 1989). The absence of a discrepancy reduces the cognitive and emotional tension that typically arises from perceiving a gap between one's own view and others' views.

While high/high congruence in self- and other- leadership emergence ratings is more likely to foster strong positive affect and a decrease in negative affect owing to the affirmation of leadership capabilities and positive recognition by peers, low/low congruence can still yield a moderate increase in positive affect and a decrease in negative affect. This effect is likely due to the comfort that comes from consistency and affirmation of self-view (Armitage & Rowe, 2011). In sum, this leads me to propose:

Hypothesis 3: In the case of self-other leadership emergence ratings congruence, a high/high leadership emergence matching pattern between self and other leads to a stronger a) increase in positive affect and b) decrease in negative affect than a low/low leadership emergence matching pattern.

1.4.3 Incongruence - High Self-Ratings, Low Ratings from Others

In the instance where a leader rates themselves highly but is rated low by others, research points to relationships with risk-taking, lack of self-awareness, and negative attitude (Atwater et al., 1998; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010). For example, those with high-self/low-other ratings in leadership may feel overly equipped to take risks by taking on tasks that they are in fact not best fit for. In line with self-discrepancy theory, those with low congruence due to high-self rating, low-other ratings may also experience negative attitude or affective outcomes because they do not feel they are receiving the recognition or credit they deserve (Atwater et al., 1998; Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010). Further, though some of the aforementioned research discusses primarily general measures of formal leadership, it is important to consider how these relationships might manifest in informal contexts with leadership emergence.

1.4.4 Incongruence - Low Self-Ratings, High Ratings from Others

It is not altogether uncommon to encounter situations where an individual rates themselves lower on leadership emergence than their fellow group members do (Meister et al., 2012). When an individual considers themselves a poor emergent leader, but their team members rate them well, this presents an incongruence between one's actual-own and actual-other self-perceptions. This phenomenon presents a paradox in understanding

leadership perception and raises questions about the factors that may contribute to such incongruences. Research has delved into this, examining the implications and possible explanations for low self-ratings but high ratings from others on leadership emergence. For example, a seminal study by Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986) explored this paradox. Participants in Lord and colleagues' (1986) study consistently rated themselves lower on leadership abilities, including leadership emergence, compared to the ratings provided by their peers. The researchers discovered that individuals tend to underestimate their leadership capabilities. These relationships, too, may extend to leadership emergence ratings and should be explored in informal leadership contexts. Per self-discrepancy theory, the paradox of low-self/high-other ratings incongruence for leadership emergence should then produce negative affective outcomes (Higgins, 1987).

Through the theoretical lens of self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), high-self/low-other rating incongruence suggests that one views themselves as more of an emergent leader (i.e., actual-own) than their peers perceive them to be (i.e., actual-other). These types of discrepancies can lead to agitation- and dejection-related emotions (Higgins, 1987) or trigger self-doubt and feelings of exclusion or inadequacy, thereby escalating negative affective states (Moretti et al., 1998). The incongruence might also prompt introspection, wherein individuals question their own self-assessment, potentially leading to emotional unrest. On the other hand, low-self/high-other incongruence indicates that others see leadership emergence in the focal individual, but that person does not see it in themselves; this would still represent a discrepancy between self-representations. Despite this, I predict that the emotional outcomes of this might be

countervailed by the positive social currency of being perceived as a leader by others.

Taken together, I suggest:

Hypothesis 4: In the case of self-other leadership emergence ratings incongruence, a high-self/low-other rated emergent leadership pairing leads to a stronger a) decrease in positive affect and b) increase in negative affect than a low-self/high-other rated emergent leadership pairing.

1.5 Gender

Gender is one of the most culturally significant and salient surface-level demographics used to categorize people, especially with regard to leadership (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Social Role Theory (Eagly, 1987) puts forth that people form behavioral expectations and attributions that are gender specific and drawn from societal norms. The theory suggests that while men are largely perceived as having more agentic qualities (i.e., aggressive, assertive), women are attributed more communal qualities (i.e., nurturing, collaborative) (Wood & Eagly, 2012). In practice, these attributions result in differing behavioral expectations and, often times, behaviors themselves. For example, it is typically the case that men are expected to be tough, assertive, and confident, whereas women are typically expected to be docile, submissive, and agreeable. This is particularly the case when gender is salient (Ridgeway, 2001). Furthermore, gender specific attributions tend to manifest themselves in the workplace. For example, men tend to be given authority roles with decision making power (i.e., leadership positions, management roles), and women tend to be given more caretaking or supportive roles (i.e., follower-type positions, administrative assistance) in employment (e.g., Eagly, 1987; Eagly &

Karau, 1991; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Wood, 2012; Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Glick, 1991; Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Wood & Eagly, 2012).

Gendered, lifelong attributions manifest themselves in the prediction of men and women's communal and agentic traits—with men being higher in agentic traits compared to women and women being higher in communal traits compared to men (Eagly, 1987; Wood & Eagly, 2012; Badura et al., 2018). Past research has demonstrated that individuals higher in agentic traits, such as dominance and/or masculinity, were more likely to emerge as leaders (Lord et al., 1986). When entering an informal team scenario, it is likely a man's self-representations of his leadership are more pronounced than a woman's, particularly given the societal expectations that may contribute to their ought self-representation. Given that gendered attributions are often lifelong and reinforced over time, it would logically follow that behaving in a way that is contrary to prescribed gender roles might be more striking, and thus more upsetting, for men as opposed to women (Eagly & Wood, 2012). This perception could mean that men experience a more pronounced change in affect when their self-ratings of leadership emergence are low compared to women, as it contradicts the expected agentic role.

Furthermore, when an individual conforms to their expected gender role or stereotype, they typically gain social approval and continued engagement from others, serving as reinforcement to continue these behaviors (Eagly & Wood, 2012). On the other hand, deviating from these prescribed gender norms often leads to adverse outcomes and social discord, effectively functioning as a form of punishment (Eagly & Wood, 2012). The implicit assumptions that men are more agentic, and women are more communal mold perceptions that when a man acts assertively, his behaviors are

acceptable. This would not be the case when women act in the same way. In fact, low self-ratings of leadership emergence in a leaderless team scenario are more congruent with the prescribed gender roles of women. Taken together, this leads me to propose:

Hypothesis 5: Gender moderates the relationship between self-ratings of leadership emergence and change in affect; specifically, men will experience a stronger a) decrease in positive affect and b) increase in negative affect when self-ratings are low as compared to women.

When an individual acts in accordance with their prescribed gender role or stereotype, they often receive social approval and then continued interaction from others, which acts as a reward for continuing the same behaviors (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Contrarily, when an individual acts against their prescribed gender role, there tend to follow negative consequences and social disruption—which is also perceived as punishment. Taken together, people are incentivized to discontinue behaviors that go against prescribed gender roles (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Over the course of their lives, men may build self-representations that include dominant behaviors and leadership because of societal expectations. Stereotypical gender roles not only ascribe agentic traits to men and communal traits to women, they also influence how similar behaviors are interpreted differently based on gender (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Such biases may affect the emotional impact of ratings congruence of leadership. Men's assertive behaviors are typically perceived as adding more value to a group, aligning with traditional agentic stereotypes (McClellan et al., 2008). In a group context, this would indicate that men are more likely to receive and expect higher ratings of leadership emergence, and women are more likely to receive and expect the opposite. Thus, when men's actual-other self-representations are

reflected back to them from interactions with the group and are misaligned with their actual-own, it is likely to have a larger, negative impact on affect.

As previously stated, gender is the most salient surface-level characteristic, and given that informal, leaderless teams do not tend to have an established hierarchy or history, surface-level characteristics are more attended to (Eagly & Karau, 1991; Ensari et al., 2011; Kaiser et al., 2008). Further, women may have grown desensitized to, or perhaps begrudgingly acclimated to, the gender gap in leadership emergence, and thus have built up a more resolute affective response to incongruence in self-other perceptions of leadership emergence. Taken together, this leads to the following proposition:

Hypothesis 6: Gender moderates the relationship between self-other leadership emergence ratings incongruence and change in affect; specifically, men will experience a stronger a) decrease in positive affect and b) increase in negative affect when congruence is low as compared to women.

1.6 Desire to Emerge as a Leader

Individuals have intrinsic differences in motivation that result in differences in their emergent leadership. Chan and Drasgow (2001) point to a specific type of intrinsic, motivational difference pertinent to the study of leadership: motivation to lead. This construct is composed of three-dimensions and has demonstrated prediction of emergent leadership (Badura et al., 2020; Luria & Berson, 2013). This finding is not surprising, given that when someone sees themselves as leaderlike, they are more likely to seek out leadership responsibilities, such as emerging as a leader in a leaderless team (Day et al., 2009). Given that leadership is socially valued and fulfilment of desire to lead can be affectively rewarding, it follows that those with a high desire to emerge as a leader may

be more strongly impacted when their self-ratings are not congruent with their intrinsic desires (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Badura et al., 2020). Through the lens of self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), this incompatibility represents a discrepancy, whereby a person does not feel they are aligning with who they desire to be. This self-discrepancy then leads to discomfort and negative affective outcomes. Consequently, individuals with a high desire to lead might respond differently to their self-ratings of leadership emergence, particularly in terms of affective outcomes. This leads me to propose:

Hypothesis 7: Individual desire to emerge as a leader moderates the relationship between self-ratings of leadership emergence and change in affect; specifically, high individual desire to emerge strengthens the a) decrease in positive affect and b) increase in negative affect when self-ratings of leadership emergence are low, and low desire to emerge weakens this effect.

The interaction between self- and peer-perceptions may be particularly poignant in situations where individuals vie for informal leadership. A high desire to be perceived as a leader may lead to greater sensitivity to the congruence between self- and other-ratings. For such individuals, the concordance between how they view themselves and how they are perceived by their peers is not merely a matter of self-verification but a critical component of their identity and self-esteem (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). It follows that a person with a higher desire to be perceived as an emergent leader would then experience stronger affective outcomes in response to a larger discrepancy between their actual-own and -other self-representations. For example, a person that is high in desire to emerge as a leader might be particularly frustrated or anxious if they feel they are high in emergent

leadership but their peers do not reflect this back to them. This is because their identity and intrinsic enjoyment are more closely tied to their desire to emerge as a leader than a person lower in desire to emerge (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Amabile et al., 1994). This identity as an emergent leader then may evoke a stronger need for outside verification that one is indeed being perceived as leaderlike by others (Swann, 1987; Badura et al. 2020). Taken together, my final hypothesis puts forth that individual affective outcomes are not solely a function of the alignment between how one sees oneself and is seen by others, but also of a person's motivation to emerge as a leader. Specifically, the final hypothesis states:

Hypothesis 8: Individual desire to emerge as a leader moderates the relationship between self-other leadership emergence ratings incongruence and change in affect; specifically, high individual desire to emerge strengthens the a) decrease in positive affect and b) increase in negative affect when self-other leadership ratings are incongruent in the direction of high-self/low-other,, and low desire to emerge weakens this effect.

1.7 The Current Study

As the use of multi-source feedback for leadership becomes increasingly common in organizations, it is important to consider how discrepancies in some of these sources might impact the focal leader. Further, as the prevalence of informal work teams increases, so does the necessity to understand how discrepancies in self and others' perceptions of emergent leadership might impact affect and, consequently, group dynamics and job performance. The complete theoretical model for the investigation can be seen in Figure 1. The lab study examined participants' affect before and after a

leaderless team task, in addition to their perceptions of their own and each team member's leadership emergence. Participants also rated their own desire to emerge as a leader. The purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of self-other congruence in ratings of emergent leadership on positive and negative affect, with additional exploration of potential boundary conditions (i.e., gender and desire to emerge as a leader).

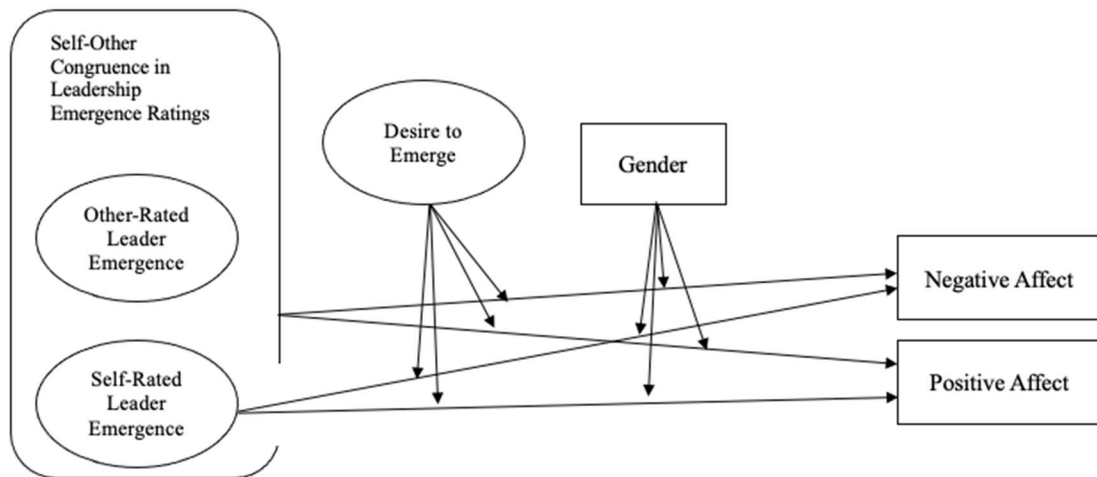


Figure 1 – Hypothesized model

METHOD

Data for this study comes from a larger project investigating antecedents of emergent leadership behaviors in teams (Fletcher, in progress).

2.1 Participants

Participants were comprised of full-time students at a large southeastern university. Students were required to be 18 years or older and participated for research credit as a part of their psychology course (2.5 hours) or for pay (\$50). Participants ranged in age from 18 to 25 years, with a mean age of 19.60 (SD = 1.62). The gender distribution was predominantly male (52.08%) and female (44.17%), with a small proportion identifying as nonbinary or gender queer (1.25%) and 2.5% of participants preferring not to respond to this question. The sample's sex assigned at birth was closely split, with 52.50% assigned male at birth and 45.83% assigned female, and a small percentage preferring not to specify (1.67%). The ethnic composition presented a significant representation of Asian (43.75%) and White (35.83%) participants. Smaller groups included Black or African American (7.50%), Middle Eastern (0.83%), and Other (0.83%). Mixed-race individuals accounted for approximately 7.92% of the sample, including those identifying as White and Asian (4.58%), among other combinations. Hispanic or Latino participants made up 10% of the sample, with the vast majority (87.5%) not identifying as Hispanic or Latino.

Participants used an online sign up program to register for the study, and they could not see who else was signed up for their in-lab session. Participants were recruited via class announcements, flyers, and word of mouth. Due to the study design necessitating a full, four-person team in order to run, teams were overrecruited (five participants). When

all five students showed up, one student was randomly chosen to be excused from participation. This resulted in a total of 22 students being randomly selected to not participate in the study. The final sample consisted of 231 undergraduate students, with newly formed teams of four participants each, making up 58 teams in total. Of the 231 students, 69 received class credit for their participation, and 162 received a payment of \$50 cash.

A power analysis was run in order to determine the appropriate sample size for the study based on the theoretical model shown in Figure 1. For the power analysis, estimated effects for the relationships were set to .30. This is to represent a moderate effect size. The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) is a measure of the amount of variance that can be attributed to clustering (i.e., group-level, and not individual-level difference). An ICC closer to 0 is indicative of little to no effect of clustering on variance, whereas an ICC closer to 1 is indicative of a large effect of clustering on variance. According to Bliese (2000), intraclass correlation coefficients in organizational literature typically lie between .05-.20, suggesting a small to moderate clustering effect. Thus, though most variability can be attributed to individual differences, clustering of individuals in different teams can still have some impact on variability. Using procedures outlined by Raudenbush et al. (2011), an estimated small-medium effect of $d = .30$, an ICC of .10, and a team size of four, a sample size of 112 individuals clustered within 28 teams should result in adequate power (.80). Taken together, the sample size of 231 students in 58 teams collected in this lab study is more than sufficient to adequately power this study.

2.2 Procedure

2.2.1 Baseline Survey

Upon arrival to the lab, participants filled out an informed consent document.

Participants were then assigned a team member color and desk by their alphabetized last names. This color designated them as a shop owner of one of four stores for the team task. Both team member color and store name were used as identifiers for team members during their surveys. Further, store-color pairings were kept the same throughout the entirety of the study (e.g., pink was always Jardin Florist). Once seated, participants filled out baseline surveys, which measured their demographic information and their positive and negative affect using the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988). Every participant received a participant ID number (e.g., 1001) in order to enable data to be de-identified.

2.2.2 Towers Market Task

Upon completion of the baseline survey, participants were provided individual instructions for the task they were to complete as a team. For this study, teams completed a version of the Towers Market Task (Weingart, et al., 1993; van Ginkel & van Knippenberg, 2008). Each team was tasked with representing the interests of one of four different stores within a market. Teams represented an advisory committee that is asked to negotiate and decide on a number of choices pertinent to all of the stores, such as building temperature, employee training, and maintenance. Each participant served as a representative for one of the stores, receiving information specific to that store's preferences and possible point values for the options to be discussed during group discussion. Although most information was given to all team members, each participant had unique pieces of information that aided in the accurate completion of the task. The task requires that team members make sacrifices and negotiate on behalf of their store to

come to the one best solution that benefits the market as a whole and maximizes the possible number of points the group could achieve.

To enhance motivation to perform, groups were informed that members of teams who got the ideal solution were each rewarded an additional \$5 upon completion of the study. Participants were given 15 minutes to understand their role and objectives as a stakeholder and team member and to prepare how they intended to approach the upcoming task.

After their allotted, individual planning time, participants were administered a pre-task survey (contents of which are not a part of the current project). Upon completion of the pre-task survey, teams were instructed to begin the task. As in van Ginkel and van Knippenberg (2012), teams were given 30 minutes to discuss their ideas and come to a final answer (i.e., complete the task). If 30 minutes passed and teams had not come to a solution, they were instructed to come to a final solution within an additional two minutes. As a final step, teams provided one answer sheet for their team as a whole to the researcher. Teams were not informed about whether or not they got the ideal solution until after completion of their post-task survey.

2.2.3 Post-Task Survey

After task completion, teams were asked to complete a post-task survey that measured a person's desire to emerge as a leader during the previous task (study developed). The post-task survey also measured the leadership emergence behaviors themselves and each of their team members (Mathieu et al., 2019). Participants' positive and negative affect was also measured again during the post-task survey (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988). All of these measures were randomized within the survey. Finally,

participants received payment for completion if they were paid participants, and all were dismissed from the lab.

2.3 Measures

2.3.1 Demographics

Sex, gender identity, race, ethnicity, and age (Appendix A) were collected in the initial baseline survey, in addition to each individual's assigned team number, ID number, and participant color.

2.3.2 Attention Checks

Throughout the baseline and post-task surveys attention checks (e.g., "Please choose strongly agree") were utilized in order to ensure thoughtful responses. Attention checks have been demonstrated as key in identifying careless respondents in incentivized studies (Shamon & Berning, 2020).

2.3.3 PANAS

The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Appendix B) is a psychometric scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) to measure the two broad dimensions of mood: positive affect (PA)($\alpha = .92$) and negative affect (NA)($\alpha = .74$). Each dimension is composed of 10 descriptors (e.g., interested, excited, distressed, upset), and respondents rate the extent to which they have experienced each particular emotion over on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Very Slightly or Not At All*) to 5 (*Extremely*). Participants rated their momentary PA and NA during both the baseline survey at the start of the lab session and the post-task survey, completed immediately after the team finishes its task. Positive ($\alpha = .92$) and negative ($\alpha = .83$) affect were

controlled for at baseline in the model in order to capture affective changes from the beginning of the study to the end of the study.

2.3.4 *Desire to Emerge*

Desire to Emerge was measured using a two-item, study developed measure in the post-task survey ($\alpha = .77$) (Appendix C). This measure was created in order to assess participants' motivation to emerge as a leader during the team task, as well as their self-assessed effort in doing so. Participants rated their agreement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). The first item in the measured asked participants to rate their agreement with the following: "I wanted to be seen as a leader to my team." The second asked them to rate their agreement with: "I tried to be a leader to my team." This measure aims to capture a person's situation-specific, retrospective desire to lead and their self-assessed attempt to emerge as a leader.

2.3.5 *Leadership Emergence Perceptions*

Perceived leader emergence ($\alpha = .96$) was reported by participants in a ten-item measure along three dimensions: transition, action, and interpersonal. These were used to look at overall perception of leadership emergence (Mathieu et al., 2019) (Appendix D). Mathieu and colleagues' (2019) short-form measure of team processes was adapted to measure leadership emergence behaviors by using an individual as the subject of the question, rather than the team as a whole¹. Every team member rated each other team member and themselves using the same scale. Items referenced transition process (e.g.,

¹ In a construct validation study using a sampling of 293 Prolific participants, this method of measuring leadership emergence was validated. The internal structure is as expected, with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results suggesting better fit onto a single factor ($\chi^2(35) = 174.81, p < .001, CFI = .93, SRMR = .05, RSMSEA = .12$) when compared to a less parsimonious, three-factor CFA model ($\chi^2(32) = 148.14, p < .001, CFI = .94, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .11; \Delta\chi^2(3) = 26.67, p < .001$) (Fletcher, in progress).

“identify key challenges we expect to face”), action process (e.g., “coordinated the activities among team members”), and interpersonal process (e.g., “kept a good emotional balance in the team”) leadership behaviors. Participants were asked to rate each of their other teammates on these items using a five-point frequency scale from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Very Frequently*). For the calculation of the average perception of a participants’ leader emergence, all ratings were used, including those from participants who are not included in the final analyses. This ensured that all ratings reflect the average evaluation of an individual’s three other teammates.

2.4 Data Analytic Strategy

2.4.1 Data Cleaning

In the beginning of administration of surveys, some teams did not receive all survey blocks, due to a Qualtrics error. Therefore, several did not receive 2 of the attention checks and have some missing data for the variables of interest. Rather than exclude that data, I removed participants that failed 3 or more of the 11 total attention checks ($n = 5$). Then, teams that no longer contain three or more individuals after this step were removed ($n = 3$ teams), in line with Dyer (1984)’s conceptualization of a “team.” Finally, 9 individuals that did not identify as a male or female were excluded from analysis because of the inclusion of gender as a moderating variable in analyses. This then led to the loss of two additional teams, as these teams no longer contained three or more individuals. This led to a final sample of 217 individuals across 53 teams (92.5% of teams had usable data from 4 participants, and 7.5% had usable data from 3 participants).

2.4.2 Multilevel Polynomial Regression-Response Surface Modelling

In following procedures detailed in Berg, Bakaç, and Kauffeld (2023) and Bai and colleagues (2020), multilevel polynomial regression can be used in combination with response surface modeling (PR-RSM) to test the hypothesized model. This methodology uses a nonlinear variable congruence modeling approach to determine where congruence or incongruence between two variables is predictive of an outcome. In addition to the use of PR to determine whether there is a significant association between the degree of congruence and outcome variables, using RSM provides information regarding the *direction* and *magnitude* of the association with the degree of congruence and the outcome variable. RSM allows for the results of PR to be further explored—not only does the relationship between two variables impact an outcome, but what kind of relationship (i.e., congruence or incongruence) between variables impacts the outcome? And how exactly does this (in)congruence influence a predictor? In other words, multilevel PR-RSM is used to test the existence and subsequent effects of congruence—for this study, I tested the congruence of self- and peer-ratings of leadership emergence and subsequent affective outcomes. In comparison to previous methods involving difference scores, PR-RSM offers numerous advantages. For example, when using difference scores, the two independent variables are combined into one predictor, thus canceling out some variance from each predictor as an individual predictor (Berg et al., 2023). This limits the understanding of the relationship to a two- rather than three-dimensional representation. Polynomial regression allows for higher order predictor terms, thus demonstrating the actual effect of the combined predictors on the outcome of interest (Nestler et al., 2019). RSM further allows an examination of both magnitude and

direction of variables and a visual representation of the joint effect of predictors on an outcome of interest (Berg et al., 2023).

2.4.2.1 Prerequisites to PR-RSM.

An important prerequisite for using PR-RSM is that the predictors are scaled on the same value (Edwards, 2002). In this study, this requirement is met because the congruence predictor variables use the same measure and scale—thus aligning on the same zero point. In order to minimize multicollinearity, prior to analysis, data for level-1 predictors was group-mean-centered because the construct is identical for both the focal individual and team members, but the source for the ratings (i.e., the team members or the individual themselves) are different (Tsai et al., 2022).

A second prerequisite to conducting multilevel PR-RSM is an analysis that provides evidence for potential incongruent ratings in the sample, thereby justifying PR-RSM (Shanock et al., 2010). This analysis involves standardizing predictors, finding their difference, and then calculating the percentage of participants with scores larger or smaller on one predictor as opposed to another. The data must contain incongruent predictor pairings in both directions (e.g., high-self/low-other, low-self/high-other ratings). This provides evidence of incongruence, as well as direction and prevalence (Humberg et al., 2019).

Finally, in order to justify polynomial regression, a model comparison of a model with predictors (i.e., self- and peer-ratings of leadership emergence only) versus a model with predictors, their interactions, and their squared terms was conducted. If the model containing the predictors, predictor interactions, and squared terms is significantly better

fitting than the model with only the predictors, this justifies polynomial regression (Berg et al., 2023).

2.4.2.2 Multilevel PR-RSM

Per Berg et al. (2023), regression coefficients from PR should be associated with response surface parameters. Response surface methodology is then used to interpret the response surface created from the data to investigate hypotheses.

Response surface methodology (RSM) uses estimates from multilevel polynomial regression to then investigate the nature of congruence between predictors as a predictor of outcomes of interest (Nestler et al., 2019). RS models aid in interpretation of results from PR analyses for congruence hypotheses. After obtaining estimated regression coefficients, these were used to estimate parameters for the response surface.

Response surface parameters produced are then fit into a coordinate cube within a three-dimensional plot. See Figure 2 for common examples of these RS plots, and see Figure 3 for a labeled example. This RS model will provide a line of congruence (LOC) and line of incongruence (LOIC), which represent model-predicted outcomes when the two predictors are perfectly aligned and when the two predictors have the same magnitude but opposite directions, respectively. There are two parameters for the LOC ($\hat{\alpha}_1$ and $\hat{\alpha}_2$) and two parameters for the LOIC ($\hat{\alpha}_3$ and $\hat{\alpha}_4$).

The LOC acts as a reference point to look for congruence in study data. In the present study, if an individual's data point lies to the left of the LOC, this indicates that they underestimated their leadership emergence as compared to their team members. If their data point lies to the right of the LOC, this indicates that they overestimated their leadership emergence as compared to the rating they received from their team members.

When the first parameter ($\hat{\alpha}_1$) for the LOC is significant, this implies that increased congruence is positively or negatively (depending on the direction) associated with the outcome of interest. For example, in the present study, if $\hat{\alpha}_1$ is significant and positive, this would indicate that predicted affect is higher when self- and other-ratings of emergent leadership agree at a high level than when they agree at a lower level. The second surface parameter for the LOC ($\hat{\alpha}_2$) shows if this line is straight or if there is curvature. When $\hat{\alpha}_2$ is significant, the LOC is curvilinear. When both LOC parameters ($\hat{\alpha}_1$ and $\hat{\alpha}_2$) are 0, this means that the same affect level is predicted for congruent ratings of self- and other-rated emergent leadership, regardless of whether these are congruent in being high ratings or congruent in being low ratings of emergent leadership.

The LOIC runs orthogonally to the LOC and also has two surface parameters. The first LOIC surface parameter ($\hat{\alpha}_3$) is the slope of the LOIC at the point (0,0). When $\hat{\alpha}_3$ is equal to 0, this means that the highest point of the LOIC is at (0,0). The second parameter for the LOIC ($\hat{\alpha}_4$) indicates if the LOIC is a straight line or if there is curvature. When $\hat{\alpha}_4$ is equal to 0, the LOIC is linear, and when it is significant, the LOIC is curvilinear. Figure 2 provides a visualization of these parameters and how their significance and direction reflect varying outcomes.

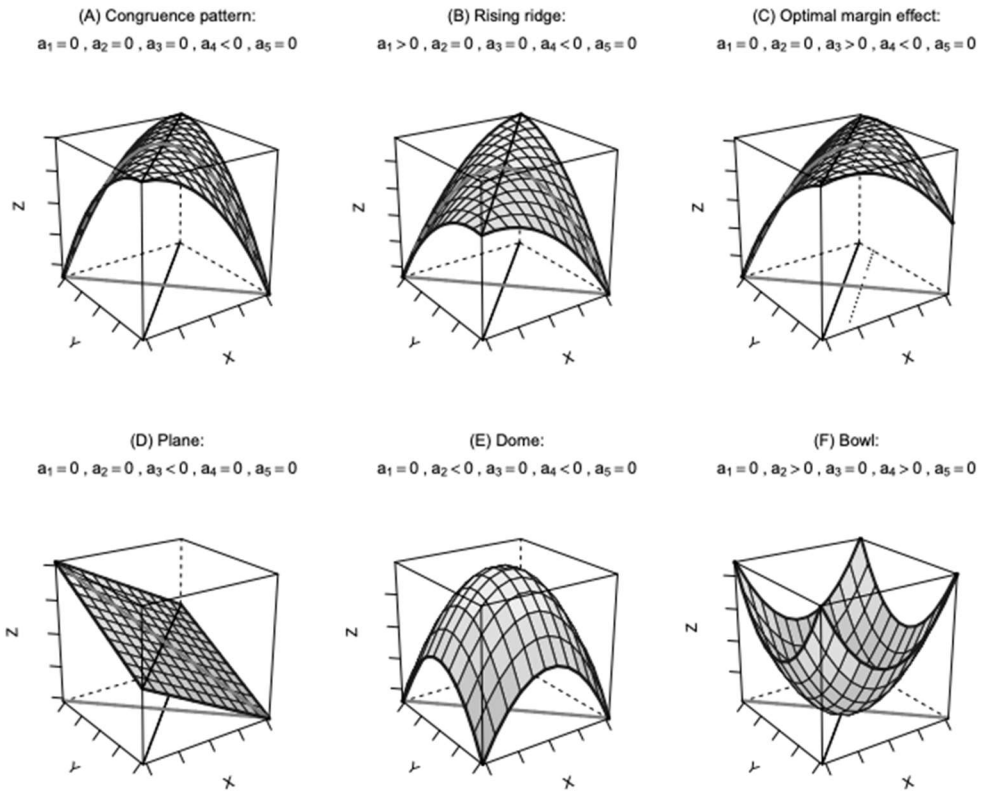


Figure 2 - Examples of RSM surfaces from Nestler et al. (2019, p. 294)

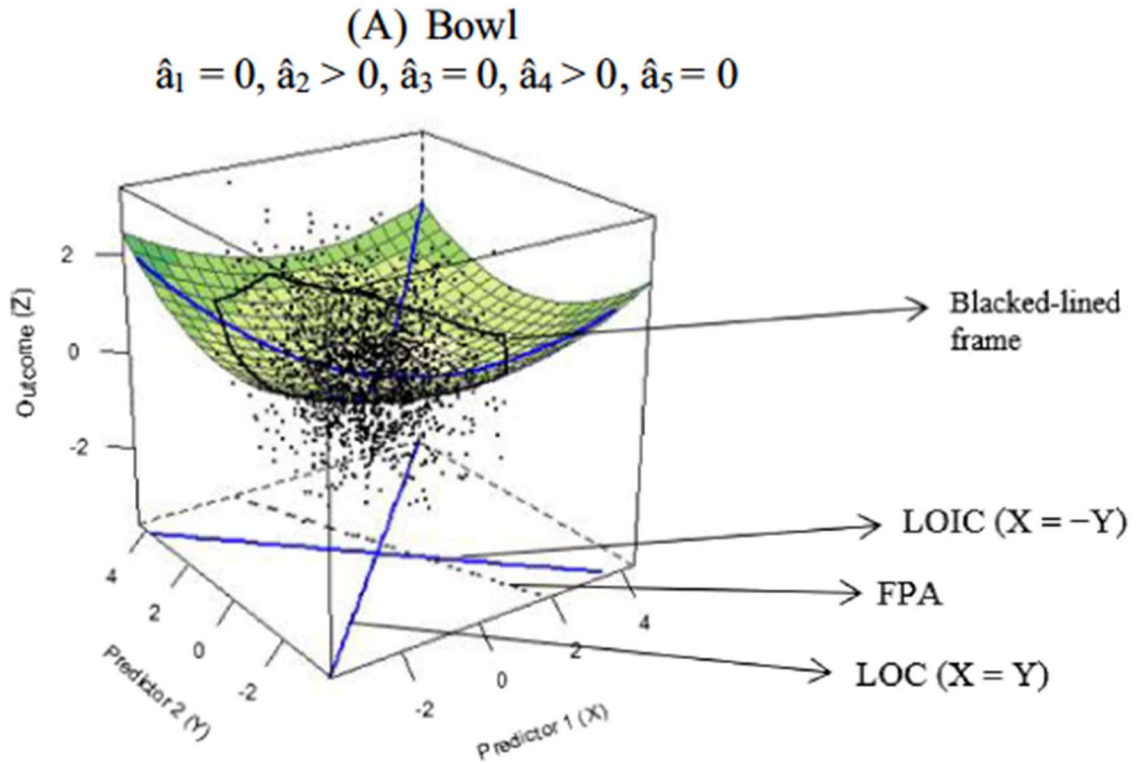


Figure 3 - Example RS plot from Berg et al., (2023, p.162) representing a bowl variation.

Lastly, the model provides a first principal axis (FPA). The FPA is the line that represents the maximum upward curvature in the case of convex (i.e., bowl-like) or saddle (i.e., contains upward and downward curvature) surfaces, or minimal downward curvature in the case of concave (i.e., dome-like) surfaces in the response surface and is informed by surface parameters. This line is the ridge of the surface and should be examined when the model is shaped like a dome, bowl, or saddle in order to determine which predictor values lead to the maximal upward or downward outcome (Humberg et al., 2019). In order to provide evidence for a congruence effect on the outcome variables, the FPA must be equal to (i.e., not significantly different from) the LOC (Nestler et al., 2019). The $\hat{\alpha}_5$ parameter acts as a test for comparing the FPA to the LOC. When the $\hat{\alpha}_5$ parameter is equal to 0, the FPA and the LOC are equal. In order to support a strict

congruence hypothesis, the LOC parameters (both $\hat{\alpha}_1$ and $\hat{\alpha}_2$) must be nonsignificant, the first LOIC parameter ($\hat{\alpha}_3$) must be nonsignificant and the second LOIC parameter ($\hat{\alpha}_4$) must be negative, and the FPA must be equal to the LOC ($\hat{\alpha}_5 = 0$) (Humberg, Nestler, & Back, 2019). However, when all of these conditions do not hold, there are two other types of possible congruence effects: congruence with linear common main effect ($\hat{\alpha}_1$ is significant) and congruence effect with curvilinear common main effect (significant $\hat{\alpha}_2$). In order to conclude that the congruence of predictors has a significant, linear main effect on the outcome of interest as hypothesized for this study, the first LOC parameter ($\hat{\alpha}_1$) must be significant and positive, the second LOC parameter must remain nonsignificant ($\hat{\alpha}_2$), the first LOIC parameter must be nonsignificant, the second LOIC parameter must be negative and significant, and the FPA must be equal to the LOC ($\hat{\alpha}_5 = 0$). When these conditions are met, this would indicate that individuals experience the most favorable affective outcomes (e.g., high positive affect and low negative affect) when there is an alignment between how they rate themselves and how they are rated by others in their leadership emergence. A table describing RSM parameters and their interpretations can be found in Table 2, and a table describing how each hypothesis is evaluated can be found in Table 3.

Table 2 – Response Surface Modeling parameters and interpretations.

Parameter	Description	Significance Interpretation	Positive Parameter	Negative Parameter	Interpretation
$\hat{\alpha}_1$	First parameter for the line of congruence (LOC)	A significant $\hat{\alpha}_1$ parameter indicates that as ratings of self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence increase congruently, a change in affect also occurs. Nonsignificant would indicate no change in affect despite increases in emergent leadership ratings.	A positive $\hat{\alpha}_1$ parameter indicates as self- and other-ratings of emergent leadership increase together, affect (either positive or negative) also increases (as compared to when they are congruent at a low level)	A negative $\hat{\alpha}_1$ parameter indicates that as self- and other-ratings of emergent leadership congruently increase together, affect scores decrease.	Slope along the Line of Congruence. Indicates perfect congruence between the two predictors and subsequent influence on affect.
$\hat{\alpha}_2$	Second parameter for the line of congruence (LOC)	A significant $\hat{\alpha}_2$ parameter indicates an optimal point of congruence for influence on one's affect. This means that the LOC is curvilinear and creates a parabola.	A positive $\hat{\alpha}_2$ parameter indicates there is a highest possible affect level created by an optimal congruence combination between self- and other-ratings of emergent leadership. This creates a bowl shape.	A negative $\hat{\alpha}_2$ parameter indicates there is a lowest possible affect level for an optimal congruence combination between self- and other-ratings of emergent leadership. This creates a dome shape.	Determines the shape of the LOC, indicating whether it is straight or curved. Curvature implies a non-linear relationship along the line of congruence. Beyond the optimal congruence point, all other combinations of self- and other-rated leadership emergence will produce higher or lower levels of

Parameter	Description	Significance Interpretation	Positive Parameter	Negative Parameter	Interpretation
					affect (depending on whether the parameter is positive or negative).
β_3	First parameter for the line of incongruence (LOIC)	A significant β_3 parameter indicates that varying levels of incongruence between predictors create different changes in affect. If β_3 is not significant, those with self- and other-ratings of 0 would have the highest affect level, and predicted affect is congruently lower for those with higher self- than other-ratings and lower-self than other ratings.	A positive β_3 parameter indicates that affect levels are highest for those whose self-ratings are higher than their other-ratings of emergent leadership.	A negative β_3 parameter indicates that affect levels are lowest for those whose self-ratings are higher than their other-ratings of emergent leadership.	β_3 indicates whether the predictors have an equal but opposite effect on affect, running orthogonally to the LOC. This parameter indicates the influence on affect as predictors move in opposite directions (one positively, the other negatively).
β_4	Second parameter for the line of incongruence (LOIC)	A significant β_4 parameter indicates an optimal point of incongruence for exerting the most influence or change to one's affect. The LOIC is curvilinear.	A positive β_4 parameter indicates there is a highest possible affect level created by an optimal incongruence combination between self- and other-	A negative β_4 parameter indicates there is a lowest possible affect level created by an optimal incongruence combination between self- and other-	Shows whether the LOIC is straight or exhibits curvature, indicating the nature of the relationship when predictors are in opposition.

Parameter	Description	Significance Interpretation	Positive Parameter	Negative Parameter	Interpretation
			ratings of emergent leadership. This creates a bowl shape.	ratings of emergent leadership. This creates a dome shape.	
α_5	Acts as a test for comparing the FPA to the LOC. When the α_5 parameter is equal to 0, the FPA and the LOC are equal.	A significant α_5 parameter indicates that affect is not maximal or minimal when ratings are congruent. Instead, there are incongruent self- and other-ratings combinations that produce higher levels of affect. When it is nonsignificant, this indicates that congruent combinations of self- and other-rated emergent leadership lead to affect scores on the FPA, which is the line with the maximal upward or minimal downward curvature.	-	-	Significance suggests that the FPA is not aligned with the LOC, indicating that the maximum or minimum of the outcome is not at the point of perfect (in)congruence between the two predictors. When it is equal to 0, this indicates the highest or lowest levels of affect occur at a point of congruence.

Table 3 - Hypothesis Testing and Outcomes.

Hypothesis	Parameters Examined	Significant Parameter Implication	Supported	Not Supported
1a	Coefficient for X in predicting Y1 (positive affect)	Higher self-ratings of leadership emergence predict an increase in positive affect	✓	X
1b	Coefficient for X in predicting Y2 (negative affect)	Higher self-ratings of leadership emergence predict a decrease in negative affect	✓	X
2a & 2b	Coefficients for X1, X2, X1*X2, X1^2, X2^2 in predicting Y1 & Y2; $\hat{\alpha}1$ and $\hat{\alpha}2$ must be equal to 0 (i.e., the LOC is linear with a slope of 0), $\hat{\alpha}4$ must be less than 0, (i.e., LOIC has an inverted U-shape), $\hat{\alpha}3$ equal to 0 (i.e., LOIC has a maximum above the origin (0,0)), $\hat{\alpha}5$ must be equal to 0 (i.e., FPA must be equal to the LOC).	Significant interaction and squared terms suggest complex relationships.	Increase in positive affect (2a) or decrease in negative affect (2b) with congruence effect requirements met	Opposite effect or no significant relationship
3a & 3b	Coefficient $\hat{\alpha}1$ in RSM for high/high vs. low/low leadership emergence	Significant $\hat{\alpha}1$ indicates impact of leadership emergence ratings congruence on affect	Increase in positive affect with a significant, positive $\hat{\alpha}1$ (3a) or decrease in negative affect with a significant, negative $\hat{\alpha}1$ (3b)	Opposite effect or no significant relationship

Hypothesis	Parameters Examined	Significant Parameter Implication	Supported	Not Supported
4a & 4b	Coefficient β_3 parameter in RSM for high-self/low-other ratings	Significant β_3 indicates effect of ratings incongruence on affect	Significant, negative β_3 shows decrease in positive affect (4a) or significant, positive β_3 shows increase in negative affect (4b)	Opposite effect or no significant relationship
5a & 5b	Coefficients for X and interaction of X and Z (gender) in predicting Y1 & Y2	Significant interaction term indicates gender moderates change in affect due to leadership emergence self-ratings	Stronger decrease in positive affect (5a) and increase in negative affect (5b) for men	No significant difference or stronger change for women or opposite effect
6a & 6b	Coefficients for X1, X2, X1*X2, X1 ² , X2 ² , and interaction with gender in predicting Y1 & Y2; single source fixed-effect ΔR^2 ; β_3 and β_4 parameter for gender moderation	Medium to large effect size of single source fixed effect ΔR^2 and significant gender-interaction terms imply gender moderation on the effect of self-other rating incongruence on affect	Stronger decrease in positive affect (6a) or increase in negative affect (6b) in affect for men as compared to women when congruence is low. Indicated by a significant β_3 and a negative β_4 for positive affect and a significant β_3 and positive β_4 for negative affect. The coefficient for β_3 must be stronger for men than it is for women, in the expected direction (as clarified by β_4)	No significant difference or stronger change for women or opposite effect
7a & 7b	Coefficients for X and interaction of X and Z (desire to emerge) in predicting Y1 & Y2	Significant interaction term indicates moderation by desire to emerge on the effect of leadership emergence on affect	Stronger decrease in positive affect (7a) and increase in negative affect (7b) for individuals high in desire to emerge	No significant difference or stronger change for those low in desire to emerge or opposite effect

Hypothesis	Parameters Examined	Significant Parameter Implication	Supported	Not Supported
8a & 8b	Coefficients for X1, X2, X1*X2, X1^2, X2^2, and interaction with desire to emerge in predicting Y1 & Y2; single source fixed effect ΔR^2 ; β parameter for desire to emerge moderation	Medium to large effect size of single source fixed effect ΔR^2 and significant desire to emerge-interaction terms imply moderation by desire to emerge on the effect of congruence on affect	Stronger decrease in positive affect (6a) or increase in negative affect (6b) as a result of low congruence with a combination of high-self/low-other ratings for those high in desire to emerge as compared to those low in desire to emerge. First, the coefficient for β must be stronger for those high in desire to lead with a combination of high-self/low-other ratings than it is for those low in desire to lead, as indicated by a significant, negative β for positive affect and a significant, positive β for negative affect.	No significant difference or stronger impact for those low in desire to emerge or opposite effect

RESULTS

3.1 Assumption Checking

Outliers were assessed using box and whisker plots, and no outliers were detected within pre- or post-task positive affect. Within Desire to Emerge ($n = 1$) and Leadership Emergence ratings ($n = 5$), a few outliers were detected, but upon investigation of these outliers, there was no indication that they were entry errors, and further did not lead to different conclusions when analyses were run with these outliers excluded (Appendix E). Linearity was assessed visually using scatterplots (Appendix F). Homogeneity of variance was examined using box and whisker plots for participants on each outcome measured (Appendix E). Issues with this assumption would present themselves if the plots were not similar in size and overlapped for each outcome. Because analysis in this study assumes homoscedasticity, this was further evaluated by visually assessing scatterplots of predicted values against residuals (Appendix G). Linearity and homogeneity of variance assumptions were satisfactorily met for all variables of interest.

A table containing means, standard deviations, ICCS, skewness, kurtosis values, and correlations can be found in Table 4.

Table 4 - Correlation matrix and descriptive statistics of study variables.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>	<i>ICC</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Post-Task Positive Affect	2.96	0.93	.01	-.64	.05	<i>(.92)</i>						
2. Post-Task Negative Affect	1.31	0.37	1.92	4.52	.13	.19*	<i>(.74)</i>					
3. Desire to Emerge	3.35	0.94	-.54	0.00	.61	.31*	.02	<i>(.77)</i>				
4. Self-Rated LE	3.60	0.76	-.4	.62	.10	.42*	-.04	.38*	-			
5. Other-Rated LE	3.55	0.61	-.32	.87	.31	.30*	.01	-.02	.57*	-		
6. Pre-Task Negative Affect	1.53	0.51	1.77	3.93		.06	.24*	.06*	.05	.01	<i>(.83)</i>	
7. Pre-Task Positive Affect	3.07	0.88	-.07	-.58		.55*	.14	.23*	.21*	.12	.18*	<i>(.92)</i>

Note: Cronbach's alphas are presented in italics along the diagonal. Statistically significant correlations are presented in boldface. Sex is coded 1 = man, 2 = woman. ICC = intra-class correlation, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001. N = 174-192.

3.2 Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1a posits that self-ratings of leadership emergence predict an increase in post-task positive affect. The results from a multilevel linear mixed-effects model supported this hypothesis (Table 5). The model controlled for pre-task positive affect and included random intercepts for teams. Self-rated leadership emergence was positively associated with post-task positive affect ($\gamma = 0.38$, $SE = 0.12$, $p < .01$), indicating that higher self-ratings of leadership emergence were associated with greater increases in post-task positive affect. These results held both with and without the presence of pre-task positive affect as a control. Taken together, Hypothesis 1a was supported.

Hypothesis 1b suggests that self-ratings of leadership emergence predict a decrease in post-task negative affect. The multilevel linear mixed-effects model for this analysis did not support the hypothesis. While controlling for pre-task negative affect and random effects by teams, the effect of self-rated leadership emergence on post-task negative affect was not statistically significant ($\gamma = 0.01$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .82$). These results held both with and without the presence of pre-task negative affect as a control (see Appendix H). Taken together, Hypothesis 1b was not supported. See Table 5 for the full results for Hypothesis 1.

Table 5 - Hypothesis 1 Results.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H1A)			
Intercept	1.69	0.24	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.38	0.12	.000
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.42	0.08	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H1B)			
Intercept	1.15	0.10	< .001

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.01	0.05	.819
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.09	0.06	.161

3.3 Testing Prerequisites for Multilevel PR-RSM

All predictors were aligned using the same measurement scale and were centered at the group-mean level to minimize multicollinearity. This approach was consistent with recommendations for handling data where constructs are identical across sources but vary based on the rater (self vs. peer ratings) (Tsai et al., 2022).

A second prerequisite for employing PR-RSM is demonstrating significant incongruence (i.e., greater than ± 0.5) in predictor ratings (Shanock et al., 2010; Humberg et al., 2019). In this study, the differences between standardized predictors for each participant were calculated, revealing discrepancies indicative of incongruence: 29.1% of participants had differences greater than 0.5, and 32.4% had differences less than -0.5. Ultimately, the total proportion of substantial discrepancies was 61.54%. Taken together, these results confirm substantial incongruence in both high-self/low-other and low-self/high-other directions, satisfying the requirement for applying PR-RSM.

The justification for polynomial regression was assessed through a comparison of two models: one with only the centered predictors and another incorporating interactions and squared terms. Firstly, for positive affect as an outcome, the model containing only centered predictors had an AIC (Akaike Information Criterion) = 391.78, BIC (Bayesian Information Criterion) = 403.96, and a logLik (loglikelihood) = -191.89. The model incorporating the squared and interaction terms had an AIC = 392.42, BIC = 413.72, and a logLik = -189.21. Thus, the $\Delta AIC = 0.64$, $\Delta BIC = 9.76$, $\Delta \log Lik = 2.68$. This did not demonstrate a significant improvement in fit from the original model, $F(3, 149) = 1.75$, p

= .16. Secondly, for negative affect as an outcome, the model containing only centered predictors had an AIC = 141.47, BIC = 153.64, and a logLik = -66.74. The model incorporating the squared and interaction terms had an AIC = 144.37, BIC = 165.68, and a logLik = -65.19. Thus, the $\Delta\text{AIC} = 2.90$, $\Delta\text{BIC} = 12.04$, $\Delta\text{logLik} = 1.55$. This demonstrated a non-significant improvement in fit from the original model, $F(3, 149) = 1.00$, $p = .39$. The model comparison did not indicate a significant improvement in fit with the addition of interaction and squared terms, suggesting polynomial regression was not justified for this data (Berg et al., 2023). See Table 6 for a summary of this model comparison.

Lastly, ICCs were calculated for the two outcome variables in order to demonstrate the need for multilevel modeling. The ICC for post-task positive affect suggested that 5.35% of variance can be accounted for due to team clustering, and the ICC for post-task negative affect suggested an even greater 13.16% of the variance can be accounted for due to team clustering. Both of these justify the use of multilevel modeling. While the prerequisites of scale alignment, centering, and evidence of incongruence were met, the justification for polynomial regression through model comparison was not supported by the data. Consequently, the use of PR-RSM was reconsidered, and in addition to running analyses using PR-RSM, more parsimonious analyses using multilevel hierarchical linear models (HLM) were also employed for subsequent analyses involving congruence hypotheses. Thus, the original planned analyses were conducted and then analyses that better suit the data were also conducted.

Table 6 - Model comparison of centered predictors versus model also containing interaction and squared terms.

Model	AIC	BIC	logLik	Δ AIC	Δ BIC	Δ logLik	F	<i>p</i>
Post-task Positive Affect								
Centered Predictors	391.78	403.96	-191.89					
Interactions and Squared Terms	392.42	413.72	-189.21	0.64	9.76	2.68	1.75	0.16
Post-task Negative Affect								
Centered Predictors	141.47	153.64	-66.74					
Interactions and Squared Terms	144.37	165.68	-65.19	2.90	12.04	1.55	1.00	0.39

3.4 Hypothesis 2

The results from the exploratory PR-RSM analyses examining the interactions and main effects of self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on post-task positive and negative affect are presented below, followed by hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) approach.

Hypothesis 2a posited that congruence in self-other leadership emergence ratings would predict an increase in positive affect. The results of the PR-RSM analyses fail to provide support for this hypothesis (Tables 7 and 8). The significant LOIC parameters ($\hat{\alpha}_3 = 0.84$, SE = 0.38, $p = .03$; $\hat{\alpha}_4 = 1.42$, SE = 0.47, $p < .001$) indicate that incongruence between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence significantly impacts post-task positive affect. Specifically, the significant $\hat{\alpha}_4$ parameter suggests a curvilinear relationship along the line of incongruence. However, the LOC parameters ($\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0.29$, SE = 0.19, $p = .13$; $\hat{\alpha}_2 = -0.08$, SE = 0.16, $p = .61$) were not significant. These findings indicate that, contrary to the hypothesis, incongruence rather than congruence drives changes in positive affect.

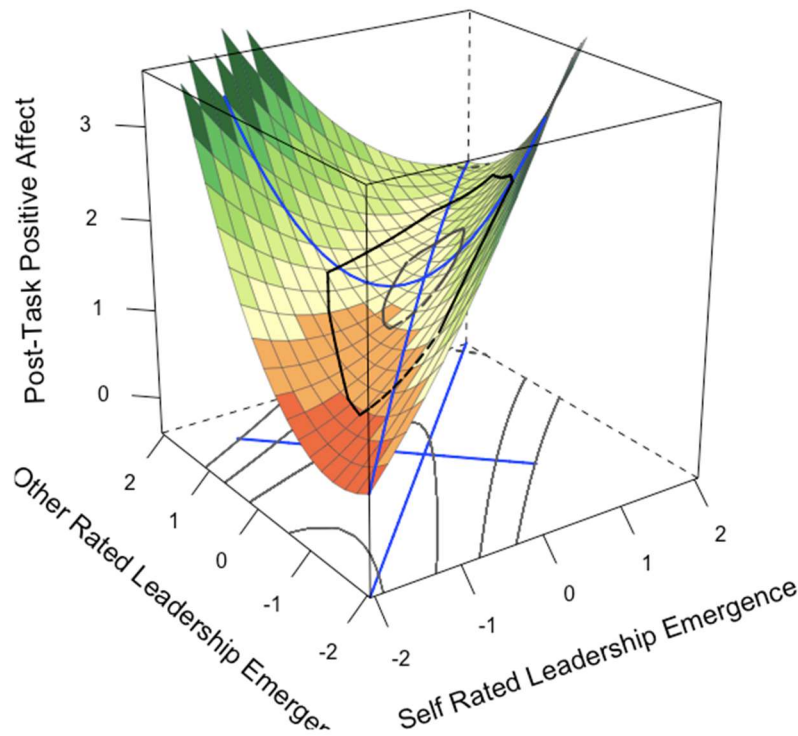


Figure 4. Response surface plot illustrating the effects of self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on post-task positive affect (H2a, H3a, H4a). PR-RSM analyses showed that incongruence, rather than congruence, influenced positive affect, with a significant curvilinear effect along the line of incongruence ($\hat{\alpha}_3 = 0.84$, $p = .03$; $\hat{\alpha}_4 = 1.42$, $p = .00$). High-self/low-other incongruence (bottom right) was associated with increased positive affect, while low-self/high-other incongruence (top left) had a weaker effect.

The HLM analysis for positive affect (Hypothesis 2a) revealed a significant main effect for self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.22$, $SE = 0.09$, $p = .01$). The main effect for other-rated leadership emergence on positive affect, however, was not significant ($\gamma = 0.06$, $SE = 0.08$, $p = .48$). Further, the interaction between self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence was not significant ($\gamma = -0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .47$). This suggests that while individual perceptions of leadership emergence significantly predict subsequent positive affect, other-rated leadership and the combined effect of self and other ratings do not enhance the prediction of post-task positive affect. The full analysis results are presented in Table 9. Taken together, Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

Hypothesis 2b suggested that congruence in self-other leadership emergence ratings would predict a decrease in negative affect. The parameters from the RSM analysis are provided below (See Table 8). None of these parameters were significant for negative affect. This is visually demonstrated in the plot for negative affect, which shows a smoother surface (See Figure 5). It is important to reiterate that these plots and their parameters are to be interpreted with caution, as the PR-RSM prerequisites were not met.

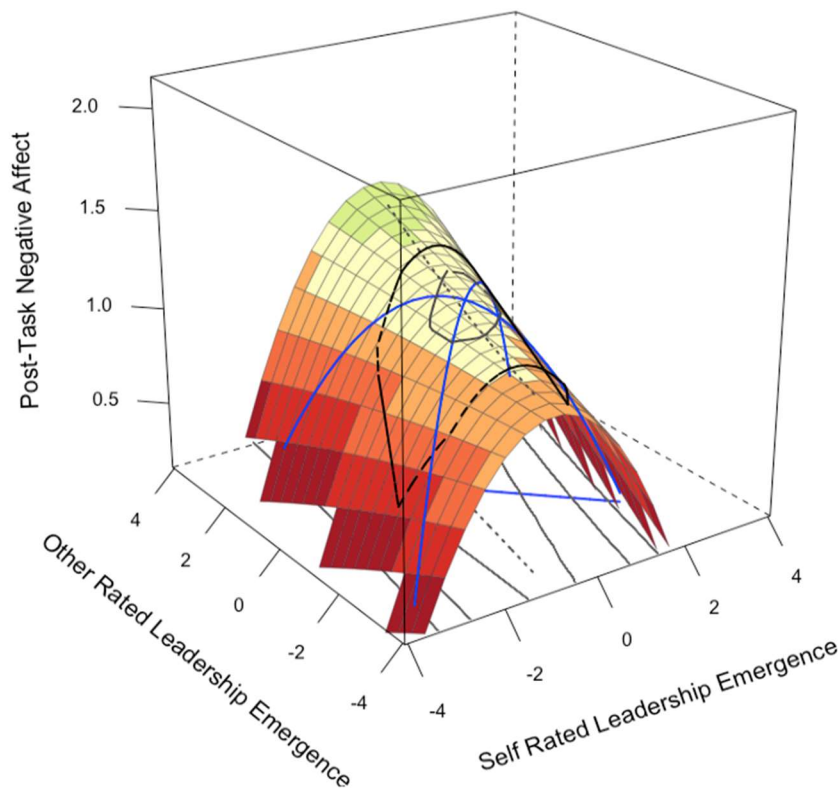


Figure 5. Response surface plot illustrating the effects of self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on post-task positive affect (H2b, H3b, H4b). PR-RSM analyses found no significant effects of self-other congruence or incongruence on negative affect.

Similarly, the HLM analysis for negative affect (Hypothesis 2b) indicated no significant interaction effect ($\gamma = -0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $p = .37$). The main effects of self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = -0.05$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .16$) and other-rated leadership

emergence ($\gamma = 0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .48$) were also not significant. Pre-task negative affect did not show a significant effect on post-task negative affect ($\gamma = 0.10$, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .11$). These results are presented in Table 9. Taken together, Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Table 7 - Hypothesis 2, 3, 4 PR Parameters.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H2-4A)			
Intercept	1.58	0.20	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.56	0.20	.01
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.28	0.22	.23
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	0.24	0.22	.31
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	0.43	0.15	.01
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.75	0.25	.01
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.45	0.06	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H2-4B)			
Intercept	1.15	0.09	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.04	0.06	.56
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.05	0.09	.55
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	-0.12	0.09	.24
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	-0.00	0.10	.98
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	0.05	0.16	.76
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.11	0.06	.08

Table 8 - Hypothesis 2, 3, 4 RSM Parameters.

Parameter	Value	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H2-4A)			
$\hat{\alpha}1$	0.29	0.19	.13
$\hat{\alpha}2$	-0.08	0.16	.61
$\hat{\alpha}3$	0.84	0.38	.03*
$\hat{\alpha}4$	1.42	0.47	.00*
$\hat{\alpha}5$	-0.19	0.43	.02*
Post-Task Negative Affect (H2-4B)			
$\hat{\alpha}1$	0.02	0.07	.79

$\hat{\alpha}_2$	-0.07	0.21	.74
$\hat{\alpha}_3$	-0.09	0.14	.50
$\hat{\alpha}_4$	-0.17	0.36	.63
$\hat{\alpha}_5$	-0.12	0.24	.47

Table 9 - Hypothesis 2, 3, 4 HLM Results.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H2-4A)			
Intercept	1.65	0.23	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.22	0.09	.01
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.06	0.08	.48
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.03	0.04	.47
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.44	0.07	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H2-4B)			
Intercept	1.14	0.10	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.05	0.04	.16
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.03	0.04	.48
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.02	0.02	.37
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.10	0.06	.11

3.5 Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3a proposes that in cases of congruence between self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence, a high/high matching pattern would lead to a stronger increase in positive affect compared to a low/low matching pattern. While the prerequisites for PR-RSM were not fully met and the interaction terms were not significant for positive or negative affective outcomes, the RSM parameters (see Table 7) and plot (see Figure 4) were interpreted. The results of the PR-RSM analyses did not support Hypothesis 3a (Table 8). While the $\hat{\alpha}_3$ (0.84, SE = 0.38, $p = .03$) and $\hat{\alpha}_4$ (1.42, SE = 0.47, $p < .001$) parameters were significant, these indicate effects along the line of incongruence rather than congruence. The non-significant $\hat{\alpha}_1$ (0.29, SE = 0.19, $p = .13$) and $\hat{\alpha}_2$ (-0.08, SE = 0.16, $p = .61$) parameters suggest no significant effects of congruence between self- and other-ratings on positive affect. Together, these results indicate that

congruence does not significantly predict post-task positive affect, and Hypothesis 3a was not supported.

For HLM analyses for Hypothesis 3a, the non-significant interaction term ($\gamma = -0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .47$) indicates that the interaction between self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence does not significantly enhance effects on positive affect within the linear model framework. This suggests that the specific linear interaction does not significantly predict positive affect beyond the main effects of each predictor. Although a significant main effect for self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.22$, $SE = 0.09$, $p = .01$) was observed, this finding reflects the independent contribution of self-ratings rather than the interaction between self- and other-ratings. Thus, Hypothesis 3a was not supported. See Table 8 for the full results from this analysis.

Hypothesis 3b suggests that the high/high congruence would result in a greater decrease in negative affect than a low/low ratings congruence. Importantly for this hypothesis, the parameter $\hat{\alpha}_1$ (0.02 , $SE = 0.07$, $p = .79$) was not significant, indicating no significant relationship along the LOC. This suggests that congruence, whether high/high or low/low, does not significantly affect post-task negative affect. In fact, none of the RSA parameters for this hypothesis were significant. The RSA plot reflects this and can also be found in Figure 5. These results thus indicate that Hypothesis 3b was not supported, as there was not a detectable congruence effect.

For the HLM analysis of Hypothesis 3b, there was no significant interaction effect between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence ($\gamma = -0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $p = .37$).

See Table 9 for the full results from this analysis. These results thus indicate that Hypothesis 3b was not supported, as there was not a detectable congruence effect.

3.6 Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4a proposed that in cases of incongruence between self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence, a high-self/low-other rated pairing would lead to a stronger decrease in positive affect compared to a low-self/high-other rated pairing. The results of the PR-RSM analyses did not support this hypothesis (Table 8). Importantly for this hypothesis, the parameter $\hat{\alpha}_3$ (0.84, SE = 0.38, $p = .03$), was significant, indicating some effect along the LOIC, but this parameter was not in the direction predicted by Hypothesis 4a. This suggests that incongruence between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence is associated with an *increase* in positive affect, rather than a decrease. Numerically, the significant positive $\hat{\alpha}_3$ coefficient reflects a curvature along the line of incongruence (LOIC), meaning that greater self-other disagreement in leadership emergence is associated with a U-shaped shift in positive affect. Per a significant $\hat{\alpha}_4$ parameter as well ($\hat{\alpha}_4=1.42$, SE = 0.47, $p = .00$), the directionality of this effect is not symmetrical. Rather than a decrease in positive affect, greater high-self/low-other incongruence was associated with a stronger increase in positive affect. Turning to the RSA plot for Hypothesis 4a (see Figure 4) to aid in understanding the type of incongruence associated with the increase in positive affect, it can be seen that the high-self/low-other region (bottom right quadrant) shows a steep increase in positive affect as incongruence between self and other in this direction also increases. In contrast, the low-self/high-other region (top left quadrant) is relatively flat, indicating that this type of

incongruence does not drive positive affect changes as strongly. This pattern suggests that individuals who perceive themselves as stronger leaders than others do may experience self-affirmation or confidence, leading to an increase in positive affect. Conversely, those who underestimate their leadership emergence relative to others may not experience the same degree of affective boost. Taken together, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

The multilevel HLM model included the predictors of self-rated leadership emergence, other-rated leadership emergence, their interaction term, and pre-task positive affect as a control. There was no significant interaction effect between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence ($\gamma = -0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .47$). See Table 9 for full results from this analysis. These results held when this analysis was run without the presence of the pre-task positive affect control (See Appendix H).

Hypothesis 4b suggests that the high-self/low-other incongruence would result in a greater increase in negative affect than the low-self/high-other incongruence. The results of the PR-RSM analyses did not support this hypothesis (Table 8). Importantly, the parameter $\hat{\alpha}_3$ (-0.09 , $SE = 0.14$, $p = .50$) was not significant, indicating no significant effect along the LOIC. This suggests that the degree of incongruence between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence does not significantly affect post-task negative affect. The RSA plot reflects this and can also be found in Figure 5. These results indicate that Hypothesis 4b was not supported, as there was not a detectable incongruence effect.

Similar to Hypothesis 4a, there was no significant interaction effect between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence in HLM analyses ($\gamma = -0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $p =$

.37). See Table 9 for the full results from this analysis. These results held when this analysis was run without the presence of the pre-task negative affect control (see Appendix H).

3.7 Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5a proposed that gender moderates the relationship between self-ratings of leadership emergence and post-task positive affect, with men experiencing a stronger decrease in positive affect when self-ratings are low compared to women. The significant main effect of self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.38$, $SE = 0.19$, $p = .04$) indicates that higher self-ratings are associated with increased positive affect. Gender also had a marginal, albeit not statistically significant, main effect ($\gamma = -0.27$, $SE = 0.14$, $p = .05$), suggesting that women tend to report slightly lower post-task positive affect than men. The interaction term was not significant ($\gamma = -0.04$, $SE = 0.18$, $p = .87$), indicating that gender does not significantly moderate the relationship between self-rated leadership emergence and positive affect. These results held without controlling for pre-task positive affect as well (See Appendix H). The results from the analyses can be found in Table 10. These results fail to provide support for Hypothesis 5a.

Hypothesis 5b suggests that gender moderates the relationship between self-ratings of leadership emergence and post-task negative affect, with men experiencing a stronger increase in negative affect when self-ratings are low compared to women. The non-significant main effect of self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = -0.01$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .88$) suggests no relationship with negative affect. Gender also had no significant effect ($\gamma = 0.02$, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .73$). The interaction term ($\gamma = 0.05$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = .59$) was not

significant, indicating that gender does not significantly moderate the relationship between self-rated leadership emergence and negative affect. The results from the analyses can be found in Table 10. These results held without controlling for pre-task negative affect as well (See Appendix H). These results suggest that Hypothesis 5b was not supported.

Table 10 - Hypothesis 5 Results.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H5A)			
Intercept	1.97	0.25	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.38	0.19	.04
Gender	-0.27	0.14	.05
Self-Rated LE*Gender	-0.04	0.24	.87
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.37	0.07	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H5B)			
Intercept	1.14	0.10	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.01	0.07	.88
Gender	0.02	0.06	.73
Self-Rated LE*Gender	0.05	0.10	.59
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.09	0.06	.15

3.8 Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6a posited that gender moderates the relationship between self-other leadership emergence ratings incongruence and the change in positive affect. Specifically, it predicted that men would experience a stronger decrease in positive affect when congruence is low compared to women. The results of the PR-RSM analyses did not support this hypothesis (Tables 11-13). For men, the $\hat{\alpha}_3$ parameter (1.69, SE = 0.49, p = .001) was significant, indicating that incongruence along the LOIC is associated with a strong increase in positive affect. Additionally, the $\hat{\alpha}_2$ parameter (0.85, SE = 0.40, p = .04) was significant, suggesting curvature along the LOC. However, the predicted decrease in positive affect when congruence is low was not observed. The RSA plot for

men (see Figure 6) confirms these findings, showing a steep upward slope in the LOIC region, indicating that positive affect increases as incongruence increases in the direction of high-self/low-other ratings for men.

For women, the $\hat{\alpha}_1$ parameter (0.99, SE = 0.28, $p = .001$) was significant, indicating that congruence between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence (i.e., congruence along the LOC) is positively associated with increased positive affect. The $\hat{\alpha}_2$ (1.10, SE = 0.45, $p = .02$) and $\hat{\alpha}_4$ parameters (1.50, SE = 0.49, $p < .001$) were also significant, suggesting significant curvature along both the LOC and LOIC. The RSA plot for women (see Figure 6) highlights these effects. This pattern reveals a more complex response surface for positive affect, where it tends to increase as self- and peer-ratings move away from the center of the surface—particularly when self-ratings are high. The lowest levels of positive affect emerged when participants rated themselves low in leadership emergence and were viewed by peers as moderately emergent. The HLM analysis, however, does not corroborate these findings. None of the interaction terms involving gender were significant, indicating that gender does not significantly moderate the relationship between self-other leadership emergence incongruence and positive affect. These results held with and without the presence of the control variable for pre-task positive affect (see Appendix H). Hypothesis 6a was not supported.

Taken together, Hypothesis 6a is not supported. The predicted decrease in positive affect for men when congruence is low is not observed. For men, incongruence in the direction of higher-self, lower-other ratings is associated with a significant *increase* in positive affect, contrary to the predicted decrease. For women, the (in)congruence between self- and other-ratings shows a complex curvilinear relationship. In the

exploratory RSA plots (see Figure 6), these differences between men and women can be better understood. See Tables 11 through 13 for the outcomes of this PR-RSM analysis.

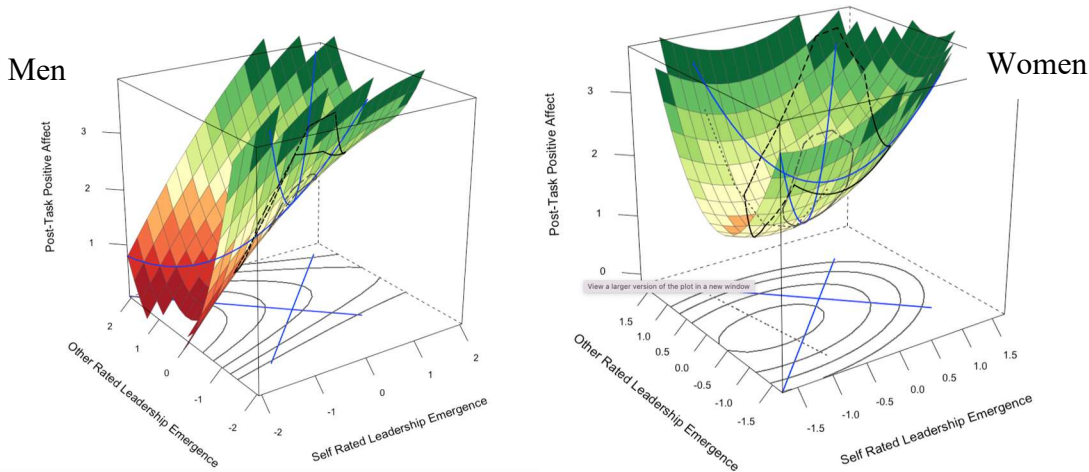


Figure 6. Response surface plots illustrating the effects of self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on post-task positive affect for men and women (H6a). For men, PR-RSM analyses showed that incongruence significantly influenced positive affect, with a curvilinear effect along the LOIC ($\hat{\alpha}_3 = 1.69, p = .001$) and a significant effect along the LOC ($\hat{\alpha}_2 = 0.85, p = .04$). High-self/low-other incongruence was associated with increased positive affect. For women, congruence was associated with positive affect, with a significant relationship along the LOC ($\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0.99, p = .001$) and curvilinear effects along both the LOC ($\hat{\alpha}_2 = 1.10, p = .02$) and LOIC ($\hat{\alpha}_4 = 1.50, p < .001$).

Hypothesis 6b posited that men would experience a stronger increase in negative affect when congruence is low compared to women. The results did not support this hypothesis (Tables 11-13). For men, none of the RSA parameters were significant, indicating that neither congruence nor incongruence between self- and other-ratings of leadership emergence significantly impacted post-task negative affect. The RSA plot for men (see Figure 7) displays the results of this analysis. Taken together, these results suggest that for men, congruence and incongruence have no meaningful relationship with post-task negative affect.

For women, the $\hat{\alpha}_3$ parameter (-0.36, SE = 0.08, $p < .001$) was significant, indicating that incongruence in the direction of high-self/low-other ratings along the LOIC is associated with a significant decrease in negative affect. Additionally, the $\hat{\alpha}_5$ parameter (-0.37, SE = 0.16, $p = .02$) was significant, suggesting that the FPA deviates significantly from the LOC. Other RSA parameters were not significant. The RSA plot for women (see Figure 7) supports these findings, showing a clear decrease in negative affect with increasing incongruence, particularly in the high-self/low-other region of the plot. This result is directly contrary to the hypothesis, which predicted that incongruence would lead to increased negative affect for women. However, the multilevel HLM analysis failed to corroborate these findings. None of the main effects or interaction terms involving gender were significant. These results held when controlling for pre-task negative affect ($\gamma = 0.10$, SE = 0.06, $p = .13$).

Taken together, Hypothesis 6b was not supported. For men, neither congruence nor incongruence significantly impacted post-task negative affect. For women, however, incongruence was associated with a significant *decrease* in negative affect, directionally opposite of this hypothesis.

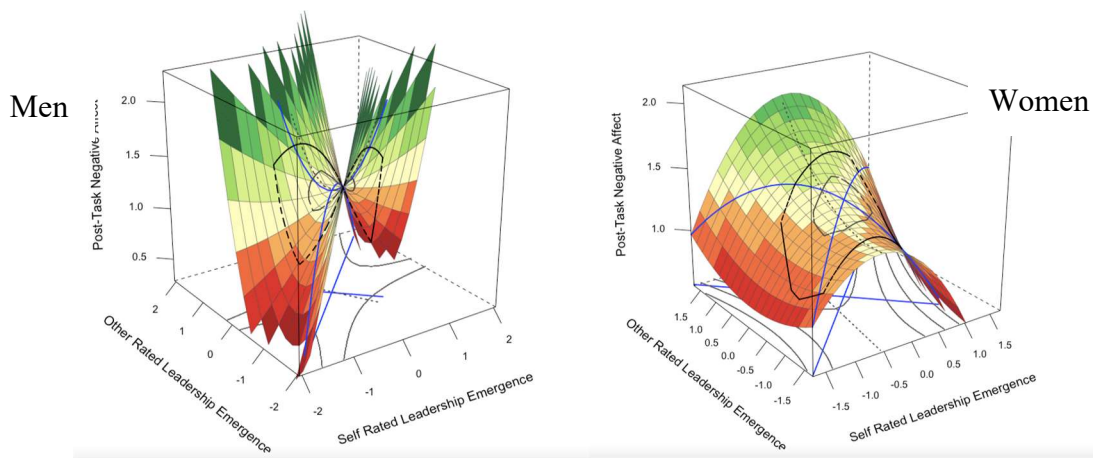


Figure 7. Response surface plots illustrating the effects of self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on post-task negative affect for men and women (H6b). For men, PR-RSM analyses found no significant effects of congruence or incongruence on negative affect. For women, incongruence in the direction of high-self/low-other ratings significantly predicted a decrease in negative affect, with effects along the LOIC ($\hat{\beta} = -0.36$, $p < .001$) and a significant deviation from the LOC ($\hat{\beta} = -0.37$, $p = .02$).

Table 11 - Hypothesis 6 PR Parameters.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H6A)			
Intercept	1.84	0.21	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.57	0.26	.03
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.61	0.29	.04
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	-0.01	0.31	.96
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	0.14	0.58	.81
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.34	0.80	.68
Gender	-0.49	0.13	< .001
Self-Rated LE*Gender	-0.05	0.30	.85
Other-Rated LE*Gender	0.73	0.40	.07
Self-Rated LE ² *Gender	0.60	0.36	.10
Other-Rated LE ² *Gender	0.36	0.63	.57
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE*Gender	0.39	0.86	.65
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.43	0.05	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H6B)			
Intercept	1.14	0.10	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.03	0.09	.77
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.15	0.12	.20
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	-0.07	0.16	.64
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	-0.28	0.26	.27
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	0.33	0.38	.39
Gender	0.04	0.07	.59
Self-Rated LE*Gender	-0.20	0.13	.13
Other-Rated LE*Gender	0.47	0.17	.00
Self-Rated LE ² *Gender	-0.23	0.21	.28
Other-Rated LE ² *Gender	0.42	0.28	.14

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE*Gender	-0.19	0.42	.66
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.11	0.06	.07

Table 12 - Hypothesis 6 RSM Parameters for Men.

Parameter	Value	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H6A)			
$\hat{\alpha}1$	-0.24	0.26	.36
$\hat{\alpha}2$	0.85	0.40	.04*
$\hat{\alpha}3$	1.69	0.49	.001*
$\hat{\alpha}4$	0.54	1.06	.61
$\hat{\alpha}5$	-0.91	0.37	.22
Post-Task Negative Affect (H6B)			
$\hat{\alpha}1$	0.01	0.10	.94
$\hat{\alpha}2$	-0.30	0.17	.08
$\hat{\alpha}3$	0.05	0.19	.79
$\hat{\alpha}4$	1.93	1.33	.15
$\hat{\alpha}5$	-0.71	0.88	.42

Table 13 - Hypothesis 6 RSM Parameters for Women.

Parameter	Value	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H6A)			
$\hat{\alpha}1$	0.99	0.28	.001*
$\hat{\alpha}2$	1.10	0.45	.02*
$\hat{\alpha}3$	0.13	0.47	.78
$\hat{\alpha}4$	1.50	0.49	.00*
$\hat{\alpha}5$	-0.64	0.47	.17
Post-Task Negative Affect (H6B)			
$\hat{\alpha}1$	0.07	0.14	.59
$\hat{\alpha}2$	-0.33	0.21	.12
$\hat{\alpha}3$	-0.36	0.08	<.001*
$\hat{\alpha}4$	-0.33	0.21	.12
$\hat{\alpha}5$	-0.37	0.16	.02*

Table 14 - Hypothesis 6 HLM Results.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
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Post-Task Positive Affect (H6A)			
Intercept	1.83	0.26	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.21	0.14	.13
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.05	0.14	.75
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.02	0.09	.77
Gender	-0.20	0.15	.17
Self-Rated LE*Gender	0.01	0.17	.95
Other-Rated LE*Gender	-0.03	0.18	.91
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE*Gender	0.00	0.11	.98
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.41	0.08	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H6B)			
Intercept	1.15	0.10	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.02	0.06	.68
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.00	0.06	.96
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.03	0.04	.50
Gender	-0.01	0.06	.87
Self-Rated LE*Gender	-0.04	0.08	.63
Other-Rated LE*Gender	0.05	0.08	.52
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE*Gender	0.02	0.05	.66
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.10	0.06	.13

3.9 Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7a proposed that individual desire to emerge as a leader would moderate the relationship between self-ratings of leadership emergence and change in positive affect, such that high individual desire to emerge would strengthen the decrease in positive affect when self-ratings of leadership emergence are low, and low desire to emerge would weaken this effect. The results of the multilevel linear mixed model did not support this hypothesis (see Table 15). The interaction between self-ratings of leadership emergence and desire to emerge as a leader was not significant ($\gamma = -0.04$, $SE = 0.14$, $p = .80$). However, the main effects of self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.36$, $SE = 0.16$, $p = .03$) and desire to emerge as a leader ($\gamma = 0.16$, $SE = 0.08$, $p = .04$) were both significant, suggesting that higher self-ratings of leadership emergence and a higher desire to emerge as a leader are each associated with increased post-task positive affect. The non-

significant interaction indicates that desire to emerge does not significantly moderate the relationship between self-rated leadership emergence and positive affect. These results held with the exclusion of the pre-task positive affect control variable (see Appendix H). Therefore, Hypothesis 7a was not supported.

Hypothesis 7b proposed that individual desire to emerge as a leader would moderate the relationship between self-ratings of leadership emergence and change in negative affect, such that high individual desire to emerge would strengthen the increase in negative affect when self-ratings of leadership emergence are low, and low desire to emerge would weaken this effect. The results of the multilevel linear mixed model showed no support for this hypothesis (see Table 15). The interaction between self-ratings of leadership emergence and desire to emerge as a leader was not significant ($\gamma = 0.01$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .87$). Furthermore, the main effects of self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.05$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .37$) and desire to emerge as a leader ($\gamma = -0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .49$) were not significant, indicating no direct relationships between these variables and post-task negative affect. These results held with the exclusion of the pre-task negative affect control variable (see Appendix H). Therefore, Hypothesis 7b was not supported.

Table 15 - Hypothesis 7 Results.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H7A)			
Intercept	1.99	0.24	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.36	0.16	.03
Desire to Emerge	0.16	0.08	.04
Self-Rated LE*Desire to Emerge	-0.04	0.14	.80
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.32	0.07	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H7B)			
Intercept	1.21	0.10	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.05	0.05	.37

Desire to Emerge	-0.03	0.04	.49
Self-Rated LE*Desire to Emerge	0.01	0.05	.87
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.05	0.07	.45

3.10 Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8a posits that individual desire to emerge as a leader moderates the relationship between self-other leadership emergence ratings incongruence and changes in positive affect. Specifically, it predicts that a high desire to emerge would strengthen the decrease in positive affect when self-other leadership ratings are incongruent in the direction of high-self/low-other, and a low desire to emerge would weaken this effect. For individuals with low desire to emerge (-1 SD), the first LOC parameter ($\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0.33$, $SE = 0.17$, $p = .055$) was almost significant. However, the other RSA parameters were not significant, indicating no evidence of curvilinear effects or deviations from the line of congruence for this group (Table 17). The RSA plot for this group (Figure 8, left) demonstrates that positive affect increases moderately as congruence shifts to high-self-high-other congruence, with no clear deviations along the LOIC. For individuals with average desire to emerge, besides $\hat{\alpha}_5$, none of the RSA parameters were significant (Table 18). This indicates that neither congruence nor incongruence significantly affects positive affect for individuals with average levels of desire to emerge. The RSA plot for this group (Figure 8, middle) reflects a largely flat surface along the LOC and LOIC, showing no notable trends in positive affect. For individuals with high desire to emerge (+1 SD), the fifth parameter ($\hat{\alpha}_5 = -0.43$, $SE = 0.08$, $p < .001$) was significant, indicating that the point of maximum or minimum affect deviates significantly from the line of congruence (Table 19). This suggests a specific interaction between incongruence and desire to emerge in shaping positive affect. However, $\hat{\alpha}_1$ ($\hat{\alpha}_1 = 0.42$, $SE = 0.28$, $p = .14$) was not

significant, suggesting no consistent linear trend along the LOC. The RSA plot for this group (Figure 8, right) shows greater variability in positive affect, particularly in the high-self/low-other incongruence region.

The multilevel HLM results for Hypothesis 8a revealed no significant effects (see Table 20). The main effects of self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.06$, $SE = 0.11$, $p = .54$) and other-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.19$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = .06$) were not significant. Furthermore, the interaction between self- and other-rated leadership emergence and desire to emerge as a leader was also not significant ($\gamma = -0.04$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .35$). These results held with and without the inclusion of pre-task positive affect as a control variable.

Taken together, these results do not provide support for Hypothesis 8a. Although there is some initial weak evidence of an effect of congruence on positive affect for individuals with low desire to emerge, the predicted moderation effects were not observed. Exploratory RSA plots (Figure 8) illustrate these trends.

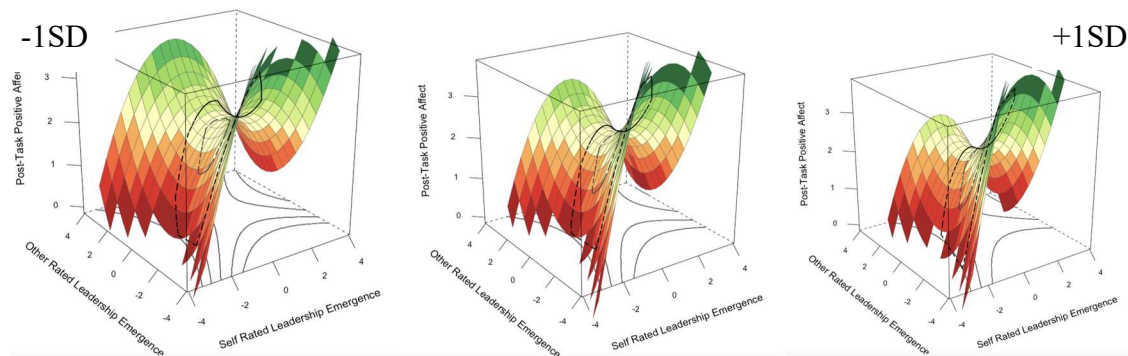


Figure 8. Response surface plots illustrating the effects of self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on post-task positive affect at low (-1 SD), average (0 SD), and high (+1 SD) levels of desire to emerge (H8a). PR-RSM analyses found no significant effects (for $\hat{\alpha}1$ - $\hat{\alpha}4$ parameters) for individuals with low, average, or high desire to

emerge, indicating that desire to emerge did not moderate the relationship between self-other leadership emergence incongruence and positive affect.

Hypothesis 8b posited that individual desire to emerge as a leader moderates the relationship between self-other leadership emergence ratings incongruence and post-task negative affect. Specifically, it was predicted that a high desire to emerge would strengthen the increase in negative affect when self-other leadership ratings are incongruent in the direction of high-self/low-other, and a low desire to emerge would weaken this effect. While the prerequisites for polynomial regression response surface modeling (PR-RSM) were not fully met, exploratory RSA plots were generated to visualize the data (see Figure 9). For individuals with low desire to emerge (-1 SD), none of the RSA parameters were significant (Table 17). The slope along the line of congruence was not significant, nor was any curvature or interaction parameter. This indicates that congruence in self-other ratings, or lack thereof, does not significantly affect post-task negative affect for this group. Similarly, for individuals with average desire to emerge, none of the RSA parameters were significant besides $\hat{\alpha}_5$ (Table 18). The slope along the LOC and other parameters failed to show significant effects, suggesting that the degree of congruence or incongruence in leadership ratings does not predict changes in negative affect for those with average desire to emerge. Lastly, for individuals with high desire to emerge (+1 SD), none of the RSA parameters were significant (Table 19). The slope along the LOC and other parameters remained non-significant, indicating no detectable effect of congruence or incongruence on post-task negative affect in this group.

Turning to the HLM results, no significant effects were observed (see Table 20). The main effects of self-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = -0.03$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .58$) and

other-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = 0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .74$) were not significant. Additionally, the interaction term between self- and other-rated leadership emergence ($\gamma = -0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $p = .28$) and the three-way interaction with desire to emerge ($\gamma = 0.01$, $SE = 0.02$, $p = .46$) were also not significant. These results held with and without the inclusion of pre-task negative affect as a control variable (see Appendix H).

Taken together, Hypothesis 8b is not supported, as none of the RSA parameters or HLM results indicated significant effects across the low, average, or high desire to emerge groups. These findings suggest that individual desire to emerge does not moderate the relationship between self-other leadership emergence ratings incongruence and post-task negative affect.

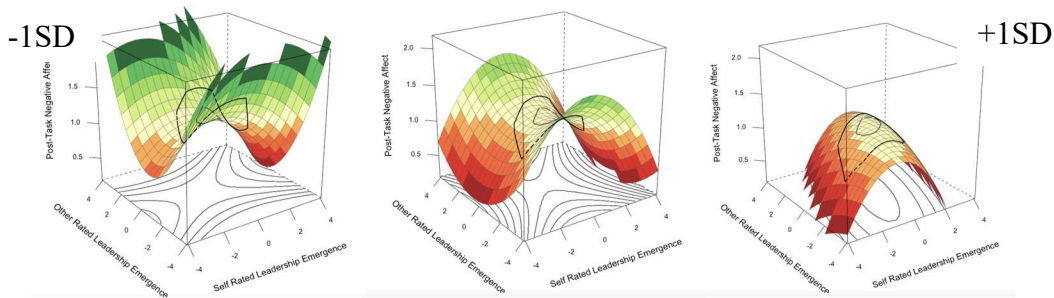


Figure 9. Response surface plots illustrating the effects of self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on post-task negative affect at low (-1 SD), average (0 SD), and high (+1 SD) levels of desire to emerge (H8b). PR-RSM analyses found no significant effects for individuals at any level of desire to emerge, indicating that desire to emerge did not moderate the relationship between self-other leadership emergence incongruence and post-task negative affect.

Table 16 - Hypothesis 8 PR Parameters.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H8A)			
Intercept	1.85	0.20	< .001

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p- value
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.08	0.13	.54
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.14	0.11	<.001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	-0.13	0.10	.21
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	0.14	0.07	.06
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	0.01	0.11	.96
Desire to Emerge	0.38	0.08	<.001
Self-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	0.21	0.12	.10
Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	-0.16	0.10	.11
Self-Rated LE ² * Desire to Emerge	-0.03	0.07	.68
Other-Rated LE ² * Desire to Emerge	.01	0.08	.93
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	-0.04	0.09	.70
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.33	0.06	<.001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H8B)			
Intercept	1.18	0.09	<.001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.03	0.05	.61
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.00	0.05	.17
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	-0.06	0.05	.19
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence Squared	0.04	0.04	.42
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	0.01	0.08	.93
Desire to Emerge	0.06	0.04	.17
Self-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	0.05	0.05	.37
Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	-0.02	0.05	.74
Self-Rated LE ² * Desire to Emerge	-0.02	0.03	.40
Other-Rated LE ² * Desire to Emerge	-0.05	0.03	.12
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	0.04	0.05	.35
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.07	0.06	.20

Table 17 - Hypothesis 8 RSM Parameters for -1 SD Desire to Emerge.

Parameter	Value	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H8A)			
â1	0.33	0.17	.05
â2	-0.13	0.11	.22
â3	0.84	0.54	.13
â4	0.03	0.08	.71
â5	-0.36	0.09	.21
Post-Task Negative Affect (H8B)			
â1	-0.06	0.05	.14
â2	0.01	0.04	.75
â3	-0.08	0.13	.52
â4	0.07	0.12	.55
â5	-0.13	0.14	.35

Table 18 - Hypothesis 8 RSM Parameters for Average Desire to Emerge.

Parameter	Value	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H8A)			
â1	0.37	0.22	.10
â2	-0.19	0.14	.16
â3	1.19	0.74	.11
â4	0.05	0.74	.95
â5	-0.40	0.18	.03
Post-Task Negative Affect (H8B)			
â1	-0.03	0.04	.39
â2	-0.02	0.03	.56
â3	-0.02	0.10	.83
â4	-0.03	0.05	.51
â5	-0.10	0.02	<.001

Table 19 - Hypothesis 8 RSM Parameters for +1 SD Desire to Emerge.

Parameter	Value	Std. Error (SE)	p-value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H8A)			
â1	0.42	0.28	.14
â2	-0.25	0.16	.14
â3	1.53	0.93	.10
â4	0.06	0.08	.44
â5	-0.43	0.08	<.001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H8B)			

â1	-0.00	0.05	.98
â2	-0.05	0.04	.18
â3	0.04	0.15	.77
â4	-0.16	0.19	.40
â5	-0.07	0.18	.70

Table 20 - Hypothesis 8 HLM Results.

Predictor	Estimate (γ)	Std. Error (SE)	p- value
Post-Task Positive Affect (H8A)			
Intercept	1.80	0.25	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.06	0.11	.54
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.19	0.10	.06
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.03	0.04	.54
Desire to Emerge	0.23	0.09	.01
Self-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	-0.04	0.07	.63
Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	-0.05	0.08	.53
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	-0.04	0.04	.35
Pre-Task Positive Affect	0.38	0.08	< .001
Post-Task Negative Affect (H8B)			
Intercept	1.20	0.11	< .001
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence	-0.03	0.05	.58
Other-Rated Leadership Emergence	0.01	0.04	.74
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE	-0.02	0.02	.28
Desire to Emerge	-0.03	0.04	.46
Self-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	0.01	0.03	.76
Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	0.00	0.04	.94
Self-Rated LE*Other-Rated LE* Desire to Emerge	0.01	0.02	.46
Pre-Task Negative Affect	0.06	0.07	.35

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of congruence and/or incongruence between self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence on subsequent affective outcomes within a team setting. Using Higgins' (1987) Self-Discrepancy Theory as a framework, this study sought to elucidate how (in)congruence between an individual's self-perceptions and their peers' perceptions of their leadership emergence influences post-task positive and negative affect. Additionally, the moderating effects of individual differences—specifically a person's gender and their desire to emerge as a leader—were explored to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the conditions under which leadership emergence impacts affective outcomes.

The study employed both polynomial regression-response surface modeling (PR-RSM) and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to test the hypotheses. PR-RSM was utilized to explore nuanced curvilinear relationships, but because its prerequisites were not fully satisfied, the results from response surface analysis (RSA) should be interpreted with caution. HLM was employed to supplement these analyses, providing a robust examination of the proposed hypotheses. Together, these methodological approaches allowed for an in-depth investigation into the interplay between leadership emergence perceptions and emotional responses within team contexts.

First, a significant association was found between self-rated leadership emergence and increased post-task positive affect. Individuals who perceived themselves as emergent leaders reported higher levels of positive affect following the team task. This finding underscores the motivational and emotional benefits of perceiving oneself as engaging in leadership, consistent with research linking positive self-perceptions with

increased emotional well-being (Burić & Macuka, 2018). The finding supports the notion that self-perception is a critical driver of positive emotional outcomes in team settings. However, self-ratings did not significantly predict a decrease in post-task negative affect, suggesting that self-perception might be more influential in enhancing positive emotions than in mitigating negative ones.

Second, the results from Hypothesis 3a did not demonstrate that congruence between self-rated and other-rated leadership emergence significantly influenced positive affect. While high/high congruence was initially hypothesized to result in a stronger increase in positive affect compared to low/low congruence, the findings showed no significant effect of congruence on post-task positive affect. This suggests that alignment between self-perceptions and external feedback, while theoretically linked to self-verification processes (Swann et al., 2004), did not play a detectable role in enhancing positive emotions in this context. The absence of significant results highlights the complexity of congruence dynamics and indicates that other factors, such as self-perception alone, may exert a stronger influence on positive affective outcomes. Similarly, congruence did not significantly impact post-task negative affect, reinforcing the idea that alignment between self- and other-perceptions may have limited influence on either amplifying positive emotions or mitigating negative ones in this study.

Third, a notable finding emerged for Hypothesis 4a, which proposed that high-self/low-other incongruence would lead to a stronger decrease in positive affect compared to low-self/high-other incongruence. Contrary to this prediction, the results showed that high-self/low-other incongruence was associated with an *increase* in positive affect. Specifically, greater self-other disagreement in leadership emergence was linked

to a rise in positive affect rather than a decline. This pattern suggests that individuals who rate themselves highly as leaders, despite receiving lower ratings from their peers, may experience a boost in positive affect—perhaps driven by self-confidence or resilience. On the other hand, those with low self-ratings may not experience the same emotional boost even when others perceive them favorably. Taken together, these findings highlight the potential affective benefits of strong self-perceptions of emergent leadership, even in the absence of external validation.

Fourth, though the hypothesis was not supported, a nuanced pattern emerged for Hypotheses 6a and 6b. Among men, greater incongruence—particularly when individuals rated themselves more highly than peers did—was associated with a significant increase in positive affect. For women, the pattern differed: positive affect was most strongly associated with congruence between self- and other-ratings, and both congruence and incongruence effects exhibited significant curvature, suggesting more complex emotional responses to alignment or misalignment. In terms of negative affect, men showed no significant effects, while for women, high-self/low-other incongruence was unexpectedly linked to a decrease in negative affect. Although these results did not support the hypothesized moderation effects of gender, they raise intriguing possibilities regarding differential affective experiences in the context of emergent leadership.

Finally, the moderating role of desire to emerge as a leader was examined. Specifically, it was hypothesized that high levels of desire to emerge as a leader would intensify the affective impact of incongruence between self- and other-rated leadership emergence. However, the results did not support this hypothesis, with no significant moderating effects of desire to emerge observed at low, average or high levels. The

absence of significant effects underscores the need for further investigation into the interplay between individual motivation, leadership perceptions, and emotional outcomes, particularly in real-world settings where leadership carries greater stakes and consequences.

These results provide nuanced insights into the complex dynamics of leadership emergence perceptions and their affective outcomes. While congruence between self- and other-perceptions can enhance positive affect, incongruence—particularly high-self/low-other discrepancies—may be less detrimental than anticipated and in fact possibly beneficial. The findings suggest that individuals with high self-ratings of leadership emergence may experience increased positive affect from their self-perceptions alone, irrespective of peer feedback. Conversely, low-self/high-other incongruence elicited a flatter affective response, reinforcing the central role of self-perception in shaping affective outcomes. These findings have implications for leadership development, team dynamics, and organizational practices, as well as for future research aimed at understanding the interplay between self-perception, peer feedback, and affect.

4.1 Theoretical Implications

This study aimed to investigate the affective outcomes resulting from the congruence or incongruence between self- and other-perceptions of leadership emergence within teams. By applying Higgins' (1987) Self-Discrepancy Theory to informal leadership emergence, this study offers several important contributions to theory. While leadership is often examined through the lens of formal roles, this research uniquely focuses on the emergent, informal side of leadership, emphasizing how self-perceptions and peer perceptions interact to influence affective outcomes. Furthermore, it integrates

concepts from self-discrepancy theory into workplace psychology research and team settings, extending its application beyond individual self-concept to the dynamics of informal leadership in group contexts.

One of the study's central contributions is its exploration of the role of self-perceptions in leadership emergence. The significant relationship between self-rated leadership emergence and positive affect underscores the critical role of self-perception in shaping affective outcomes. This finding aligns with existing literature on self-efficacy, which demonstrates that individuals with strong beliefs in their abilities experience higher levels of positive affect and greater resilience in challenging environments (Burić & Macuka, 2018; Chemers et al., 2001). This study expands these findings and contributes to theory in its application of self-discrepancy theory to informal leadership emergence in a team context. By applying this theory to leadership emergence, this study extends its application beyond personal self-concept to the domain of organizational behavior and the social dynamics of leadership emergence in teams. It highlights how self-perceptions function as a key driver of positive affect in environments where formal leadership roles are absent. This approach offers a novel lens to explore possible differences in perceptions of emergent leadership behaviors and responses to alignment in these perceptions. This novel lens and the results from this study reinforce the importance of internal leadership schemas (Day et al., 2009) in predicting affective responses, suggesting that fostering accurate and positive self-perceptions can be important for enhancing team members' affective states.

Another significant theoretical consideration relates to the null findings for congruence between self- and other-rated leadership emergence. Contrary to predictions

and self-verification theory (Swann et al., 2004), congruence did not significantly impact post-task positive or negative affect. This lack of significant findings suggests that alignment between self-perceptions and external feedback may not consistently act as a mechanism for fostering emotional stability or enhancing positive affective outcomes in informal leadership contexts. Instead, other factors, such as the strength of individual self-perceptions, may play a more dominant role in shaping emotional responses. The absence of significant findings for low/low congruence also indicates that congruence effects may not operate uniformly across different affective outcomes, highlighting the need for further exploration into the contextual or individual factors that moderate the influence of congruence.

Further complicating the application of self-verification theory are the findings related to incongruence. Contrary to expectations based on both self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and self-verification theory, high-self/low-other incongruence was associated with increased positive affect rather than the predicted negative affect. This finding indicates that individuals who perceive themselves as strong emergent leaders may derive affective benefits from their self-perceptions alone, especially when it stands in contrast to external evaluations. This is particularly relevant in informal leadership contexts, where individuals are less constrained by formal hierarchical structures and therefore may prioritize their internal evaluations of leadership over peer feedback. The absence of significant affective outcomes for low-self/high-other incongruence further underscores the primacy of self-perception in shaping affective responses in these settings. This study's findings point to a more complex dynamic in which self-perception may act as a dominant force, particularly in contexts where leadership roles are informal,

emergent, and/or fluid. High-self/low-other incongruence, for example, may reflect a form of resilience or independence in how individuals process peer feedback, leading to increased positive affect despite misalignment. Conversely, low-self/high-other incongruence may result in neutral affective outcomes, as individuals with low self-perceptions may not experience the same affective benefits from external validation.

Additionally, the results from Hypothesis 6 provide additional insight into how individuals may emotionally respond to leadership emergence incongruence, with patterns differing subtly by gender. For men, greater self–other incongruence—particularly when self-ratings exceeded peer ratings—was associated with increased positive affect, suggesting that men may derive affective reinforcement from self-perceived leadership status even when it is not validated by others. In contrast, for women, positive affect was more strongly tied to congruence between self- and other-perceptions, with both the line of congruence and incongruence displaying significant curvature. These exploratory findings may point to different affective mechanisms by which leadership identity is experienced across genders. They offer a potentially valuable extension of self-discrepancy theory by suggesting that self-concept incongruence may not uniformly result in negative affect and that the meaning and consequences of self–other misalignment may differ based on broader social identity factors. These patterns may also reflect expectations described in role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), which posits that women face greater psychological tension when occupying roles that deviate from stereotypical gender norms. From this perspective, affective responses to leadership incongruence may differ not only due to self-perception, but also because of the degree to which individuals feel aligned with socially sanctioned leadership identities.

Although these findings must be interpreted cautiously, they highlight the importance of considering gendered expectations in future models of informal leadership emergence.

Moreover, this study contributes to the understanding of the role of affect in the workplace. Specifically, this study contributes to the growing body of literature on affective outcomes in teams, differentiating the processes driving positive versus negative affect. While positive affect was significantly influenced by self-perceptions and congruence, no significant relationships were observed for negative affect beyond one significant finding for women in Hypothesis 6b. This distinction suggests that positive and negative affective states may arise from distinct processes, with positive affect being more closely tied to internal evaluations and relational dynamics, whereas negative affect may depend more on external stressors or situational challenges (Kaplan et al., 2009). These findings underscore the importance of examining positive and negative affect in future leadership research, with particular attention to the contextual factors that shape each.

The absence of significant moderating effects of the desire to emerge as a leader highlights the complexity of the relationships between motivation, leadership perceptions, and affective outcomes. These findings suggest that while desire to emerge as a leader may influence how individuals interpret alignment in leadership perceptions, it may not be a decisive factor in shaping affective outcomes. This prompts a reconsideration of the assumed critical role of individual motivation to lead in these dynamics, emphasizing the need for further research to explore how contextual and situational factors interact with motivation to influence affective responses.

Taken together, this study enriches the theoretical landscape by integrating self-discrepancy theory, self-verification theory, and leadership emergence research to offer a more comprehensive understanding of affective outcomes in informal team contexts. The findings highlight the centrality of self-perceptions in shaping positive affect, the somewhat reinforcing effects of congruence, and the contextual nuances of incongruence. Furthermore, the results challenge traditional assumptions about gender and motivation or desire to emerge as a leader, inviting future research to explore alternative moderators and contextual factors that may influence these dynamics. By situating leadership emergence within the broader framework of affective outcomes, this study lays the groundwork for future theoretical advancements in informal leadership emergence and team dynamics.

4.2 Practical Implications

The findings of this study offer valuable insights for organizational leaders, team members, and practitioners interested in informal leadership and team dynamics. Despite the majority of hypotheses not being supported, the study still presents several practical implications that can be utilized to enhance workplace environments and team effectiveness. These insights, even in the absence of significant findings, underscore the importance of intentional practices to support both individual development and team dynamics.

One significant finding from this study was that self-ratings of leadership emergence predicted an increase in positive affect. This accentuates the importance of fostering positive self-perceptions among employees, as individuals' views of their leadership potential can influence their affective experiences. Organizations can

implement training programs and workshops aimed at enhancing self-awareness, confidence, and leadership skills. For example, self-reflection exercises and leadership development programs could help employees better understand their strengths, articulate their leadership aspirations, and recognize their potential contributions to the team. Positive affect has been shown to enhance problem-solving abilities, interpersonal relationships, and overall job performance (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Kaplan et al., 2009). Thus, by encouraging employees to recognize and embrace their leadership potential, organizations can indirectly boost team and organizational outcomes. Importantly, this should be approached in ways that are accessible and inclusive, ensuring employees at all levels feel supported in their personal and professional growth.

Although congruence between self- and peer-ratings of leadership emergence was not significantly associated with affective outcomes in this study, the absence of significant findings does not diminish the broader potential for alignment to foster team cohesion and collaboration. While this study did not observe significant congruence effects on post-task positive or negative affect, congruence may still hold importance for other team-related dynamics. Organizations can continue to promote alignment in perceptions through feedback practices and self-reflection exercises, but should recognize that these efforts may not directly enhance emotional outcomes.

While empowering employees to pursue leadership opportunities regardless of feedback, organizations can still leverage feedback-driven practices to strengthen team dynamics and enhance both individual and collective leadership capabilities. Creating a culture of open communication and continuous feedback can help teams achieve greater congruence in leadership perceptions, even in the absence of direct links to affective

outcomes. By encouraging regular feedback between peers and supervisors, teams can work toward a shared understanding of leadership contributions, reducing misunderstandings and fostering mutual respect. In addition to enhancing individual and team alignment, these practices can help organizations identify emerging leaders who may not yet recognize their own potential. Structured feedback sessions, coupled with leadership coaching, could provide employees with actionable insights into their strengths and areas for growth, promoting more effective collaboration and leadership within teams.

The lack of significant moderating effects of both gender and the desire to emerge as a leader suggest that these factors may not strongly influence affective outcomes in informal team settings. This finding encourages organizations to adopt a more inclusive and universal approach to leadership development, instead of tailoring leadership programs based on gender or perceived motivation levels. Instead, initiatives should focus on fostering leadership skills, potential, and self-awareness across all employees, providing equal access to leadership training, mentorship, and opportunities to emerge into leadership in informal settings. For example, organizations can implement unbiased assessment tools to identify potential leaders and avoid reinforcing gendered or stereotypical assumptions about who is suited for leadership roles. Such inclusivity ensures that leadership potential is recognized across diverse employee groups, fostering a dynamic leadership pipeline that reflects the organization's broader diversity goals. This approach is particularly valuable in increasingly common informal team settings, where leadership is emergent and fluid rather than fixed.

Further, the absence of significant findings for gender and desire to emerge as moderators highlights an important consideration: some variables assumed to influence leadership and affect may not play a central role in informal team settings. This propounds the idea that organizations may need to focus less on demographic or individual motivational factors and more on the broader contextual and relational dynamics that shape team performance. For example, fostering environments where leadership is viewed as a shared, team-oriented process may mitigate the pressure on any one individual to embody leadership solely based on their motivation or identity.

Lastly, the lack of significant relationships with negative affect in this study suggests that congruent leadership perceptions in informal settings may have a stronger influence on enhancing positive states rather than reducing negative ones. Organizations can draw on this insight by focusing on practices that promote positivity and engagement rather than simply trying to mitigate negative emotions. For example, celebrating successes, offering recognition for contributions, and emphasizing shared goals can help create a positive and affirming team culture. Thus, organizations can promote positive emotional states, which are known to enhance overall job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012).

4.3 Limitations and Future Directions

While this study provides valuable insights into the relationships between leadership emergence and affective outcomes, several limitations must be acknowledged. Understanding these limitations is essential not only for interpreting the current findings but also for identifying directions for future research that could uncover the relationships

hypothesized in this study. The limitations of the study are detailed in this section, along with proposed future research directions to address some of these gaps.

One key limitation of this study is the relatively short duration of the team interactions and the potentially limited mundane realism of the task used to simulate leadership emergence. Participants were required to complete a single task during a brief laboratory session, which may not have provided sufficient time or contextual complexity for leadership dynamics to naturally emerge. Further, participants had little time to introduce themselves and informally interact outside of the immediate task at hand, as they were following outlined procedures for the study. In real-world settings, leadership perceptions often evolve over time as team members interact across multiple tasks and contexts (Day, 2001; Lord et al., 2020). Though these team interactions may still be informal and allow for informal leadership emergence, they tend to be more sustained and have less structured (e.g., no talking, quietly filling out surveys) time outside of the immediate task with the team. The limited temporal scope of this study may have masked relationships that require longer observation periods to surface; leadership emergence in real-world settings is frequently shaped by iterative interactions across diverse tasks and contexts, which were not captured in this study (Dinh et al., 2014).

To address this limitation, future research should adopt longitudinal designs to examine leadership emergence and its affective outcomes over extended periods. For instance, studies could track teams with no assigned leader over weeks or months, observing how leadership emergence perceptions and affective states develop as team members work together on a series of tasks. Longitudinal data would allow researchers to capture the dynamic and iterative nature of informal leadership emergence, potentially

revealing patterns that were not observable within the short timeframe of this study. Such designs could also incorporate more realistic, high-stakes tasks to increase ecological validity and better replicate the complexities of workplace environments (DeRue & Ashford, 2010).

This study was conducted in a controlled laboratory environment with undergraduate students, which, while advantageous for precision and control, somewhat limits the generalizability of the findings. Undergraduate students in an academic setting may not fully represent the diversity of individuals or situational factors found in professional environments. Research suggests that factors such as age, professional experience, and organizational culture influence leadership emergence and team dynamics (Zacher, Rosing, & Frese, 2011). Furthermore, participants may have altered their behavior due to the artificiality of the setting and the awareness that they were being studied. Participants might have exaggerated behaviors aligned with socially desirable traits, such as appearing more collaborative or leader-like, leading to inflated self- or peer-ratings of leadership emergence (Mayo, 1933). Additionally, participants may have focused more on task completion than on engaging in natural leadership dynamics due to the transactional nature of the task. Leadership emergence in real-world contexts often involves relational exchanges and iterative feedback, which may not develop fully in a single-session experiment. The lack of genuine stakes in the task may also have reduced participants' emotional and cognitive investment, potentially dampening affective responses, particularly for negative affect (Kaplan et al., 2009). These factors might have diminished the mundane realism of the task and inhibited the natural emergence of leadership and team dynamics.

Future research should aim to replicate this study in naturalistic settings, such as organizational teams, where leadership emergence occurs organically over time and under real-world conditions. Additionally, tasks with higher stakes or greater relevance to participants' long-term goals could provide a more authentic context for leadership emergence and its affective outcomes. Field experiments or simulations with embedded consequences could balance ecological validity with methodological rigor, ensuring more natural and meaningful behaviors are observed (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

The measure used to assess the desire to emerge as a leader in this study was a two-item, study-developed measure with acceptable reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$). While this measure provides a useful situation-specific assessment of participants' retrospective desire to emerge as a leader during the task, it is limited in its ability to capture broader motivational constructs. Motivation to lead is a multidimensional concept encompassing affective-identity, social-normative, and non-calculative components (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), which this measure does not fully address. Instead, the measure focuses narrowly on participants' self-reported task-specific desire to emerge as a leader and their self-assessed effort, neglecting some of the intrinsic or extrinsic factors that drive leadership motivation in broader contexts. The retrospective nature of the measure introduces additional challenges. Participants may have adjusted their responses to align with their behavior during the task, thereby reducing perceived discrepancies between their reported desire to lead and their actual performance. For instance, participants who did not actively engage in leadership behaviors may have downplayed their desire to lead to appear more consistent, while highly engaged participants may have inflated their responses to match their behavior. This response bias could obscure

relationships between desire to emerge as a leader and other variables, such as self- and peer-perceptions of leadership emergence or affective outcomes. While the retrospective nature of the measure was chosen to avoid interrupting participants during the team task—a decision that preserved the natural flow of group dynamics—alternative approaches could have mitigated this limitation. For example, participants could have been asked to complete the measure immediately before commencing the task, after being introduced to the activity and its context. This prospective approach would have captured participants' pre-task motivations, offering a clearer picture of their initial desire to emerge as leaders and minimizing potential biases introduced by task performance.

Future studies should employ validated, multidimensional measures of motivation to lead, such as Chan and Drasgow's (2001) *Motivation to Lead* scale, which encompasses affective, social-normative, and non-calculative dimensions. These broader, more robust tools can provide a more comprehensive understanding of how leadership motivation interacts with perceptions of leadership emergence and influences affective outcomes. Furthermore, incorporating real-time or prospective measures of motivation to lead, rather than relying on retrospective self-reports, may reduce response biases and better capture participants' authentic motivations during the task. Qualitative methods, such as interviews or open-ended survey responses, could complement these measures, offering deeper insights into participants' subjective experiences and the factors shaping their motivation to lead.

Another important limitation in this study was that the prerequisites for conducting multilevel polynomial regression-response surface modeling (MPR-RSM) were not fully met in this study; a model comparison of a model with predictors, their interactions, and

their squared terms did not demonstrate significant improved fit versus a model with predictors alone, thus limiting the method's applicability (Berg et al., 2023). Consequently, multilevel hierarchical linear modeling (MGLM) was used as a supplementary analytical approach. While MGLM allowed for the testing of hypotheses under alternative assumptions, it limits the ability to fully explore curvilinear relationships and nuances in self-other congruence dynamics. MPR-RSM is uniquely capable of capturing and visualizing the complex, multilevel curvilinear and interaction effects hypothesized in this study, such congruence effects (e.g., high/high alignment versus low/low alignment) and incongruence effects (e.g., high-self/low-other versus low-self/high-other). Thus, the results for both MPR-RSM and MGLM were provided for congruence hypotheses, but the MPR-RSM results should be interpreted with caution.

Future research should aim to design studies that better ensure the prerequisites for PR-RSM are met, enabling the exploration of curvilinear relationships and the nuanced dynamics of (in)congruence. While the issue in this study was not a lack of variability in the data, the non-significant improvement in model fit when adding polynomial terms highlights the need for careful planning and consideration of study design. For example, future studies could use larger sample sizes to improve statistical power and support the inclusion of polynomial terms in the model. Larger samples could increase the likelihood of detecting subtle curvilinear effects and may help justify the additional complexity of PR-RSM (Cohen, 1992). Additionally, future studies could use tasks that involve more complexity, higher stakes, or require sustained interaction; these may elicit clearer patterns of self- and peer-perceptions of leadership emergence. For example, leadership simulations or decision-making tasks that include ambiguity or

conflict could produce more distinct congruence and incongruence dynamics, which might support the application of polynomial regression (DeRue & Ashford, 2010).

Another limitation involves the study's reliance on external peer evaluations of leadership emergence without capturing participants' internal perceptions of how they believed others saw them. Although this design was intentionally chosen to incorporate truly other-rated evaluations, it diverges from Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, which conceptualizes affective outcomes as arising from discrepancies between one's actual self and self-perceived external standards (i.e., how one believes others perceive them). In this study, participants did not report their own beliefs about peer perceptions, which limits the ability to assess perceived self–other discrepancies directly. Future research should incorporate measures that assess individuals' self-rated perceptions of others' views (e.g., “How do you think your teammates rated your leadership?”) in addition to actual peer ratings. Doing so would allow researchers to test the intrapsychic misalignments at the heart of self-discrepancy theory more precisely and examine how perceived and actual incongruence jointly influence affective outcomes.

Across all analyses, there was a notable lack of significant findings for post-task negative affect, whether in relation to congruence, incongruence, or moderating variables. This pattern suggests that the processes driving positive and negative affect may differ in meaningful ways. Positive affect may be more sensitive to alignment between self- and other-perceptions, while negative affect may be influenced more by external stressors or task-specific challenges rather than internal congruence dynamics (Kaplan et al., 2009). The limited stakes of the task used in this study may have further diminished the likelihood of observing negative affective outcomes (Beal et al., 2005).

In order to address this limitation, another potential direction for future research is to incorporate measures of team dynamics, which are particularly relevant to understanding the antecedents of negative affect in leadership contexts. These variables directly influence how leadership perceptions and affective outcomes manifest within teams, particularly in situations where congruence and incongruence are hypothesized to play a role (Tse & Ashkanasy, 2015). Team dynamics, such as cohesion, conflict, and communication patterns, are critical for capturing the interpersonal processes that shape leadership perceptions and affective outcomes. Research has shown that team conflict, especially task-related or interpersonal conflict, can exacerbate negative affect by creating stress, frustration, and dissatisfaction among team members (Jehn, 1995; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). In the context of this study, team members that are experiencing conflict might experience amplified emotional impacts from incongruence between self- and peer-perceptions of leadership emergence. Alternately, a team collectively experiencing team cohesion, which has been shown to mitigate negative affect and buffer against stressors that often accompany leadership roles, might instead see dulled emotional impacts from self-other leadership emergence perception incongruence (Beal et al., 2003).

Lastly, it would be valuable to investigate the role of intervention strategies aimed at improving leadership emergence and alignment of self-other perceptions. For example, training programs focused on enhancing self-awareness, communication, and feedback skills could help individuals better align their self-perceptions with how they are viewed by others. Evaluating the effectiveness of such interventions could provide practical insights for organizations seeking to develop effective leaders and improve team

dynamics. While this study provides important insights into the relationship between leadership emergence and affective outcomes, addressing its limitations and exploring these future directions will further enhance our understanding of these complex dynamics and their implications in real-world settings.

4.4 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the potential effects of leadership emergence on subsequent affective outcomes within a team setting. Specifically, using Higgins' (1987) Self-Discrepancy Theory as a framework, this study aimed to elucidate how (in)congruence between an individual's self-perceptions and their peers' perceptions of their leadership emergence influences their post-task positive and negative affect. Additionally, this research explored the moderating effects of individual differences, specifically a person's gender and their desire to emerge as a leader.

The study utilized both polynomial regression-response surface modeling (PR-RSM) and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to test the hypotheses. Since the prerequisites for PR-RSM were not fully satisfied, the results from the response surface analysis (RSA) should be considered exploratory. Despite most hypotheses not being supported, the study yielded several notable findings. First, self-ratings of leadership emergence significantly predicted increases in post-task positive affect. This result underscores the motivational and emotional benefits of perceiving oneself as an emergent leader, highlighting the role of self-perception in fostering positive emotions within team contexts. However, self-ratings did not significantly predict decreases in post-task negative affect, suggesting that positive and negative affect may be driven by distinct processes.

Second, the exploration of incongruence revealed an unexpected finding: individuals with high-self/low-other incongruence experienced an increase in positive affect, contrary to the prediction that this would lead to a stronger decrease compared to low-self/high-other incongruence. This suggests that individuals who rated themselves highly as emergent leaders derived satisfaction from their self-perceptions, particularly in the face of lower peer ratings, aligning with research indicating that high self-efficacy can buffer against incongruent feedback (Chemers et al., 2001). Conversely, individuals with low self-ratings did not experience the same boost in affect, even when peers rated them favorably. These results highlight the potentially greater influence of self-perceptions in driving positive affective outcomes, particularly in low-stakes contexts where self-efficacy may provide resilience, and external validation is less critical.

Finally, the moderating roles of gender and desire to emerge as a leader were examined. While low levels of desire to emerge as a leader revealed some significant linear effects, neither gender nor higher levels of desire to emerge significantly influenced the relationships under investigation. These results suggest that individual differences, while theoretically important, may play a less deterministic role in leadership emergence and affective outcomes than other factors, such as contextual factors (e.g., task complexity, team dynamics).

This study provides nuanced insights into how perceptions of leadership emergence within teams influence individual affective outcomes. The finding that self-perceptions of leadership emergence are positively associated with post-task positive affect reinforces the importance of self-perception in team settings. It highlights that fostering positive self-perceptions among team members may enhance emotional well-

being, which in turn can contribute to improved individual and team performance (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). The lack of significant findings for self-other (in)congruence and the moderating roles of gender and desire to emerge as a leader suggests that self-other congruence and individual differences might play more complex roles than initially hypothesized. While these variables did not yield significant effects in this study, their potential roles cannot be discounted and warrant further exploration under different contexts or methodological designs.

Although the majority of hypotheses were not supported, this study offers a foundation for future research to build upon. It underscores the importance of considering both individual and contextual factors when studying leadership emergence and affective outcomes. Future studies might explore additional moderators, such as team cohesion, or interpersonal conflict, which could provide deeper insights into the dynamics of leadership emergence. Methodological advancements, such as longitudinal designs, could also enhance our understanding of these complex relationships. By understanding these dynamics, organizations and team leaders can better support their members in developing accurate self-perceptions and fostering environments that enhance both individual and team outcomes.

In conclusion, this study advances our understanding of informal leadership emergence and its affective consequences by highlighting the critical role of self- and other-perceptions and their congruence in shaping individual outcomes. While most hypotheses were not supported, the findings and exploratory analyses provide valuable directions for future research. These results remind us that leadership is a dynamic and multifaceted process, shaped by a constellation of factors that may vary across contexts

and individuals. By continuing to explore these dynamics, researchers and practitioners alike can better support the development of leaders and foster team environments that promote both individual well-being and collective success.

APPENDIX A. DEMOGRAPHICS

Team Team ID

ID Participant ID

Role Participant Color

- Blue member (Parducci's Grocery)
- Purple member (Jardin Florist)
- Yellow member (Jacqui's Bakery)
- Green member (Donovan's Liquor)

Q1 Please provide the following demographic information.

Gender How do you describe yourself?

- Man
- Woman
- Trans Man
- Trans Woman
- Nonbinary/Gender Queer/Gender Nonconforming
- Different Identity

SAAB Because we are collecting physiological data that can show differences based on biological certain characteristics we also need to know which sex you were assigned at birth.

- Assigned female at birth
- Assigned male at birth
- Other/prefer not to say

SexOr

Do you consider yourself to be:

- Heterosexual or straight
- Gay
- Lesbian
- Bisexual
- Asexual
- Not listed above (please specify):

Prefer not to answer

Race Race

- White
- Black/African American
- American Indian or Alaska Native
- Asian
- Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- Other
- Middle Eastern

Ethnicity Ethnicity

- Hispanic or Latino/Latina/Latinx/Latine or Spanish Origin
- Not Hispanic or Latino/Latina/Latinx/Latine or Spanish Origin

Age Age

APPENDIX B. PANAS

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then list the number from the scale below next to each word. Indicate the extent to which you currently feel this way, on scale ranging from "Very Slightly or Not at All" to "Extremely."

	Very Slightly or Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Quite a Bit	Extremely
Interested	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Distressed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Upset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Strong	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Guilty	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Scared	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hostile	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Enthusiastic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Proud	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Irritable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Alert	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ashamed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Inspired	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nervous	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Determined	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attentive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jittery	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Active	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Afraid	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX C. DESIRE TO EMERGE

When answering the following question, think of your experience working with your team.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I wanted to be seen as a leader to my team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I tried to be a leader to my team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX D. EMERGENT LEADERSHIP

(Note: Repeated for each team member color, including the responding individual's own team member color.)

To what extent did your BLUE team member exhibit the following behaviors (Parducci's Grocery):

	Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Very Frequently
Identify the key challenges that we expect to face?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ensure that everyone on our team clearly understands our goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Develop an overall strategy to guide our team activities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Regularly monitored how well we were meeting our team goals?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Monitored important aspects of our work environment (e.g., inventories, equipment and processes operations, information flows)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Assisted others when help was needed?

Coordinated the activities among team members

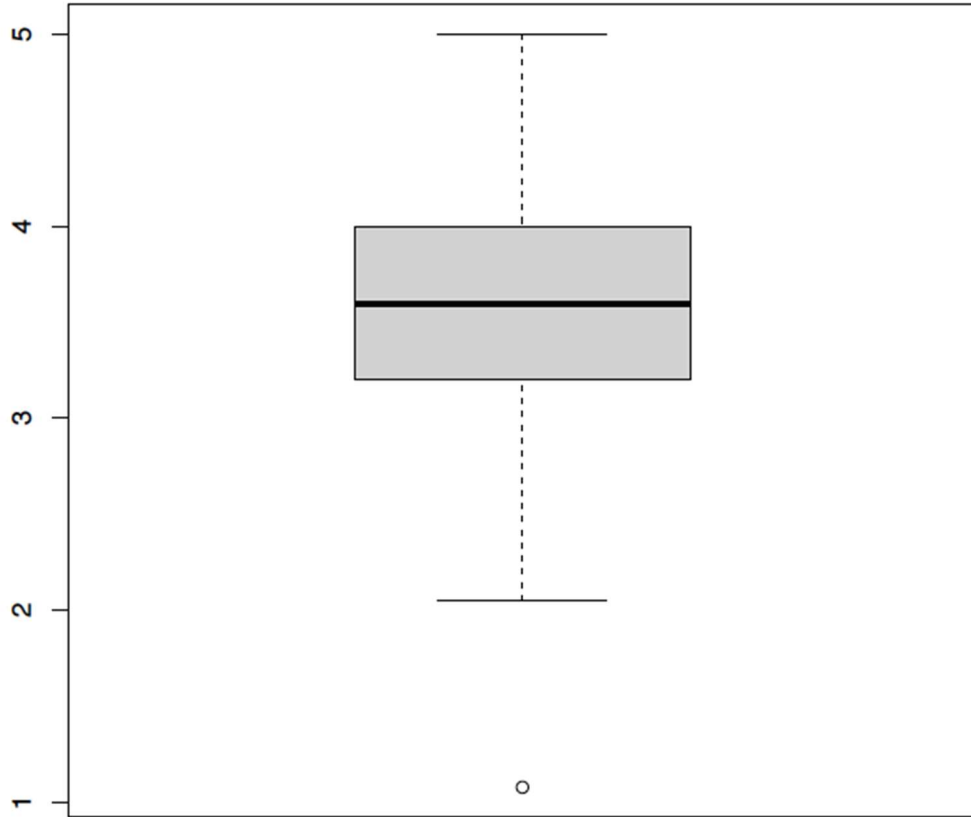
Dealt with personal conflicts in fair and equitable ways

Encouraged team members to perform our very best

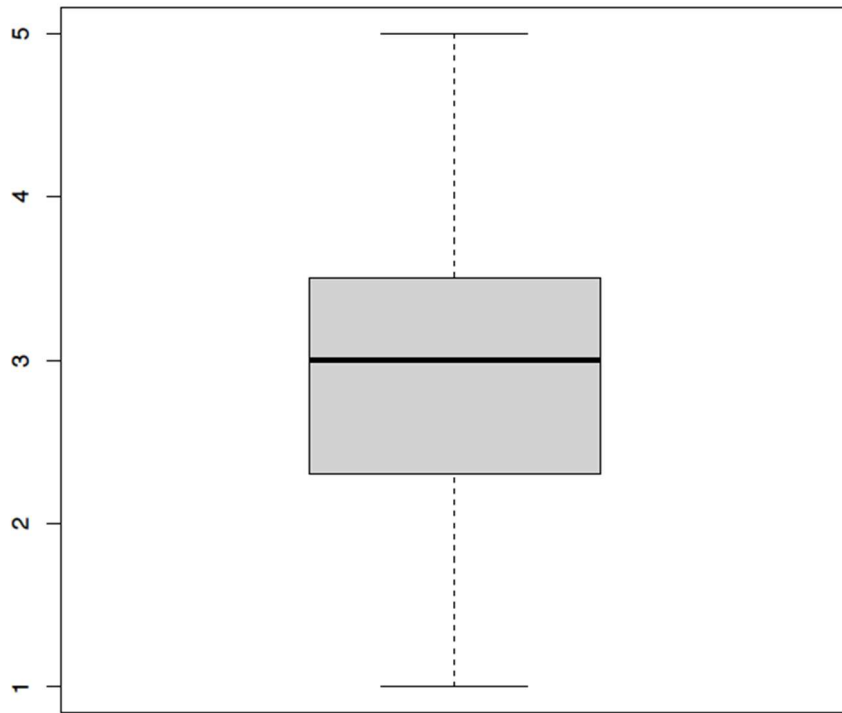
Kept a good emotional balance in the team

APPENDIX E. BOX PLOTS

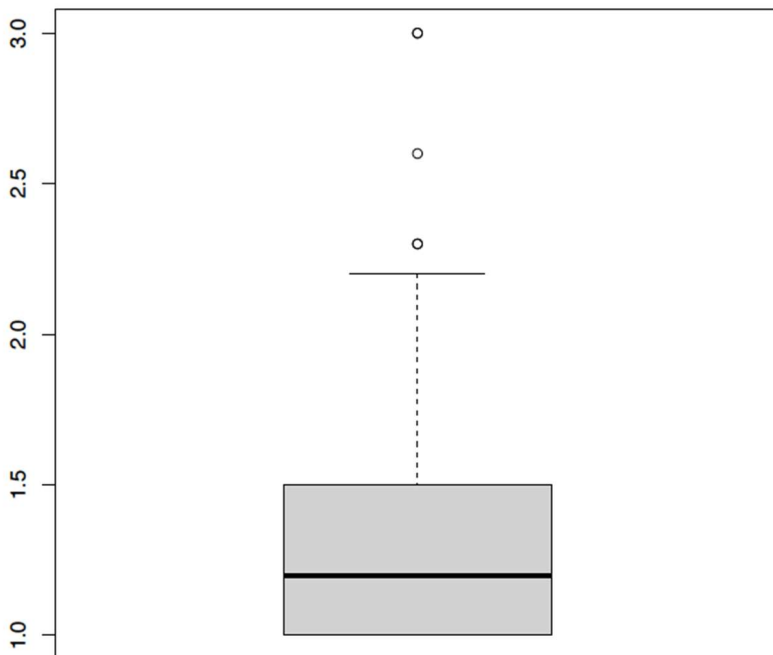
Total Leadership Emergence



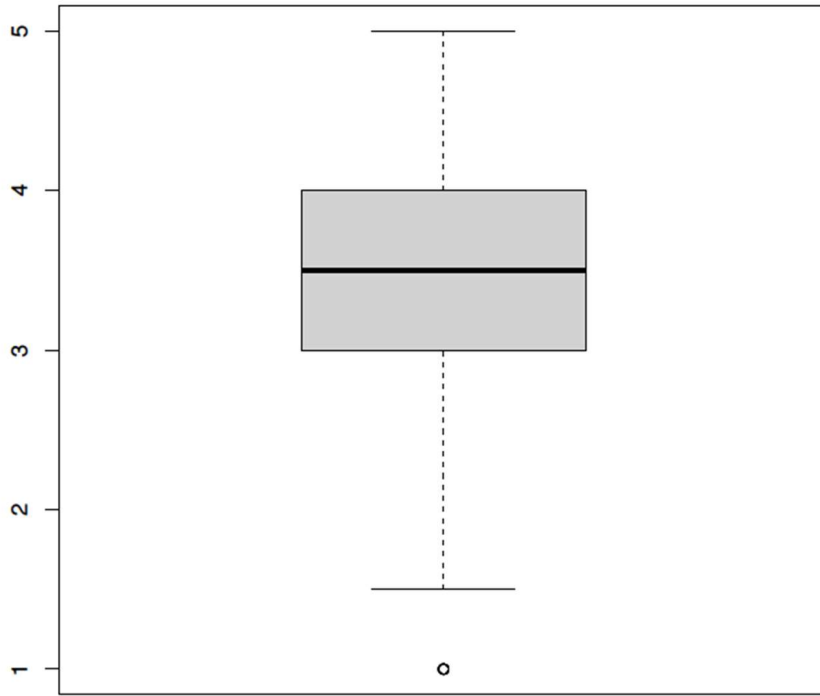
Post-Task Positive Affect



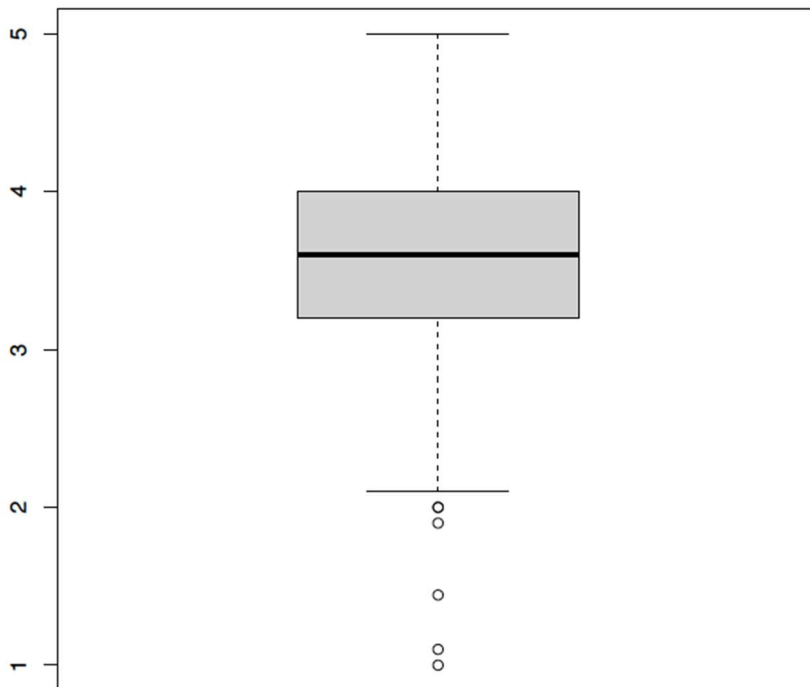
Post-Task Negative Affect



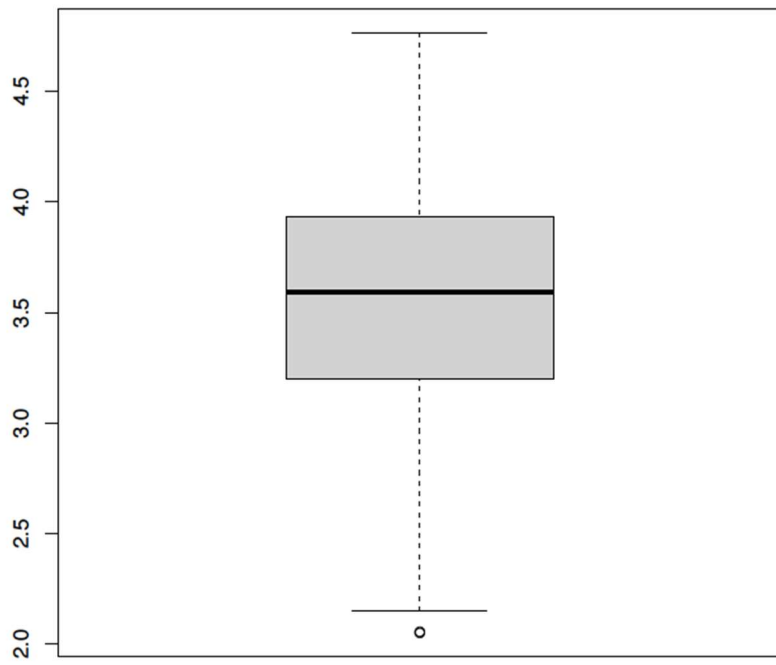
Desire to Emerge as a Leader



Self-Rated Leadership Emergence

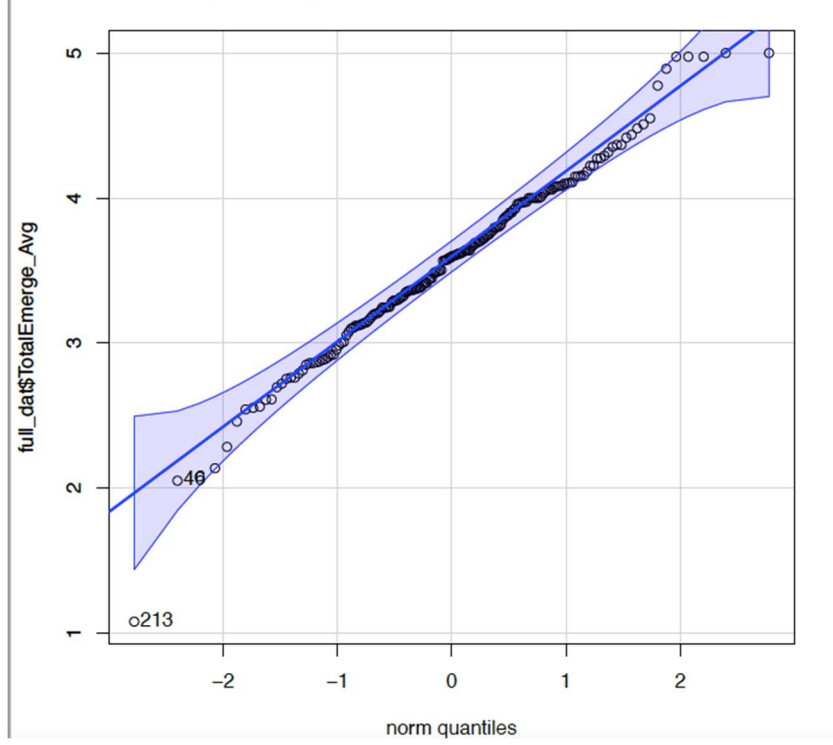


Other-Rated Leadership Emergence

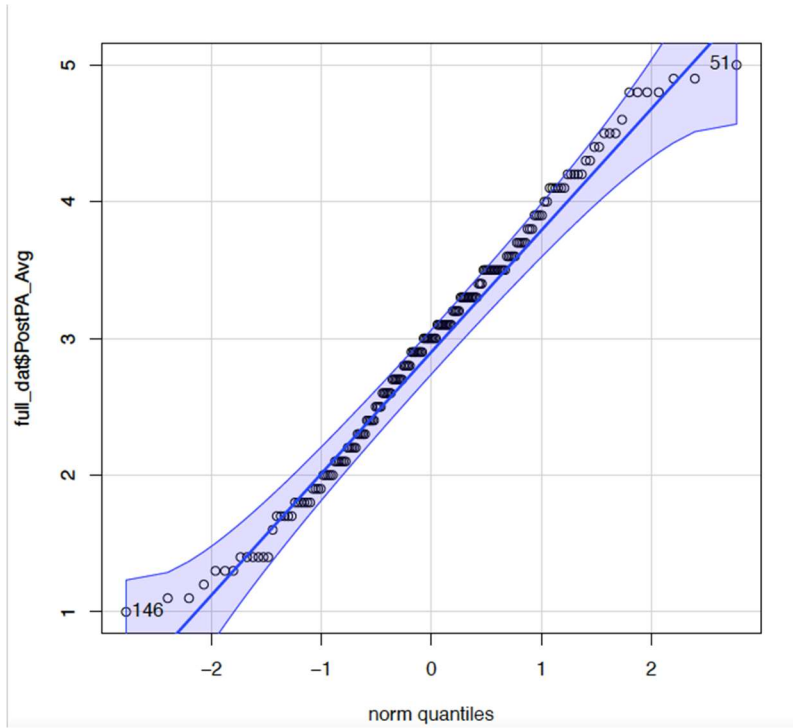


APPENDIX F. Q-Q PLOTS

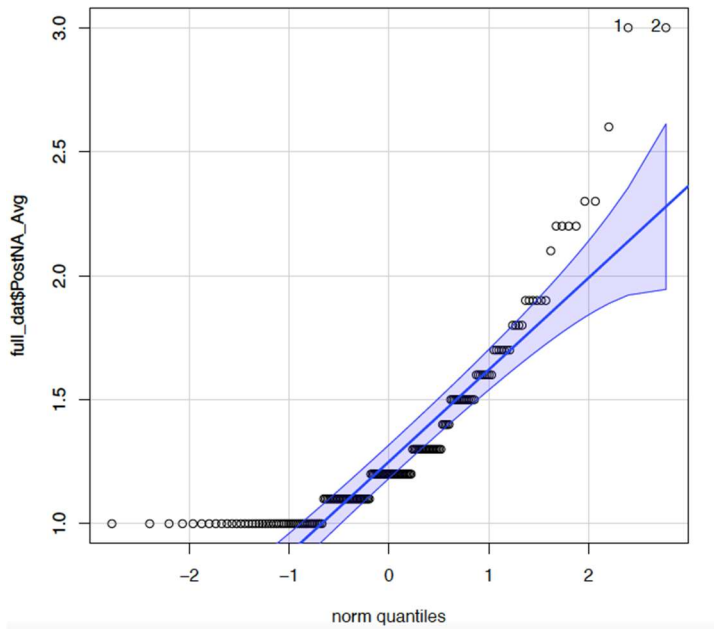
Total Leadership Emergence



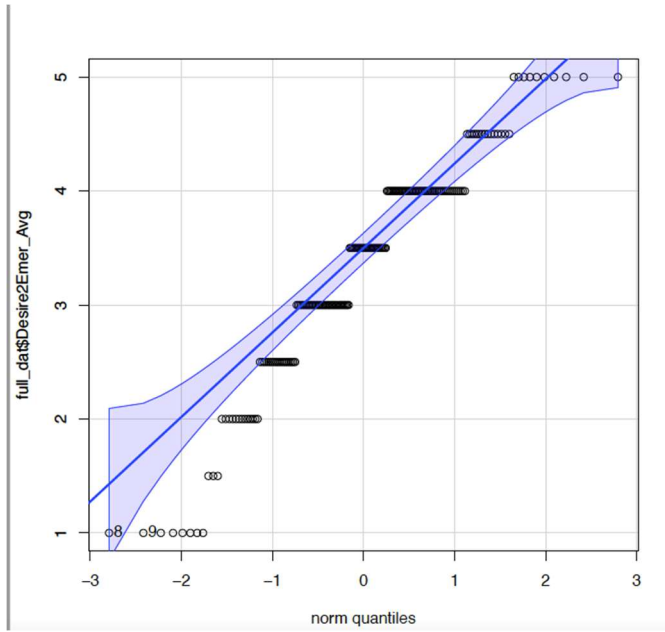
Post-Task Positive Affect



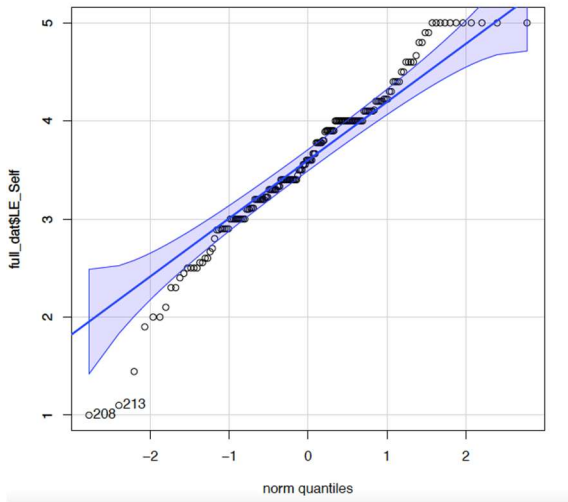
Post-Task Negative Affect



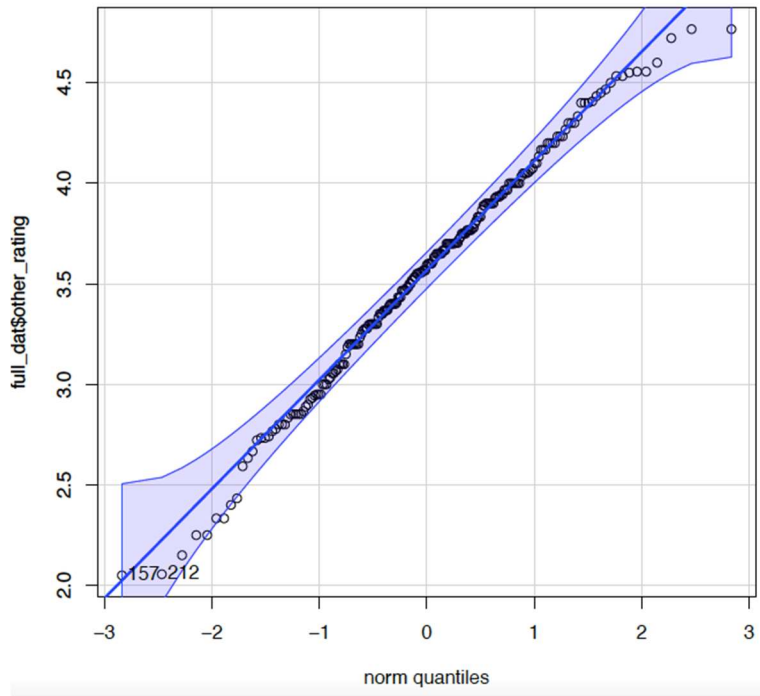
Desire to Emerge as a Leader



Self-rated Leadership Emergence

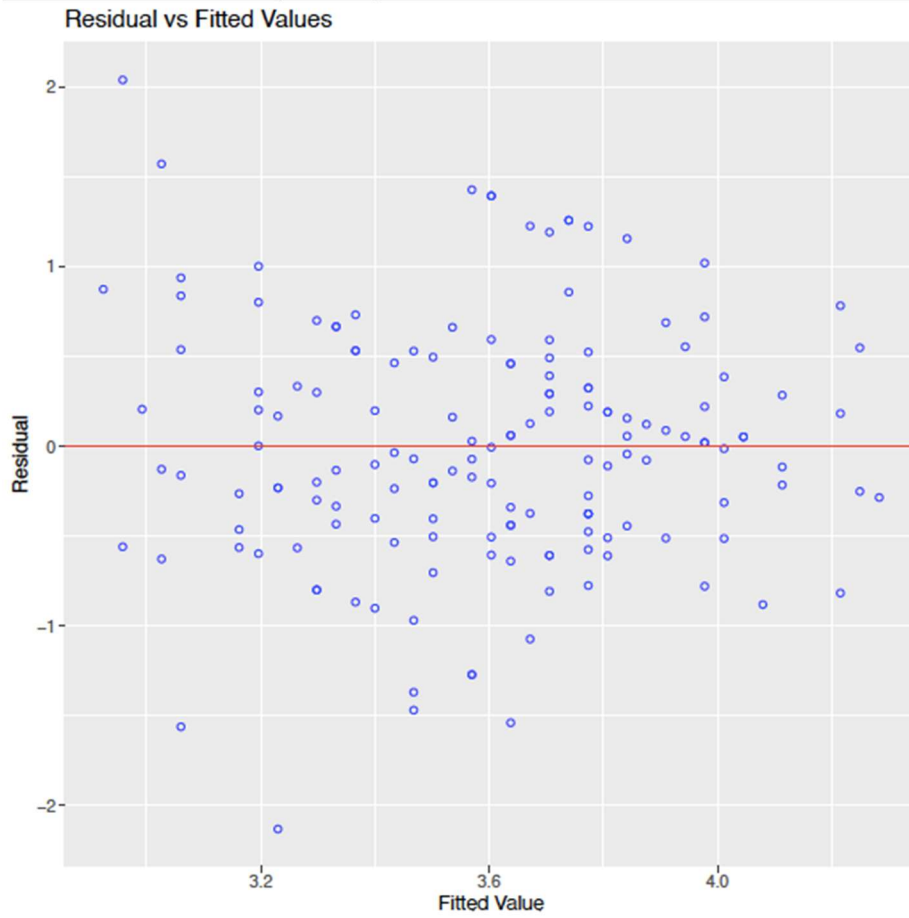


Other-Rated Leadership Emergence

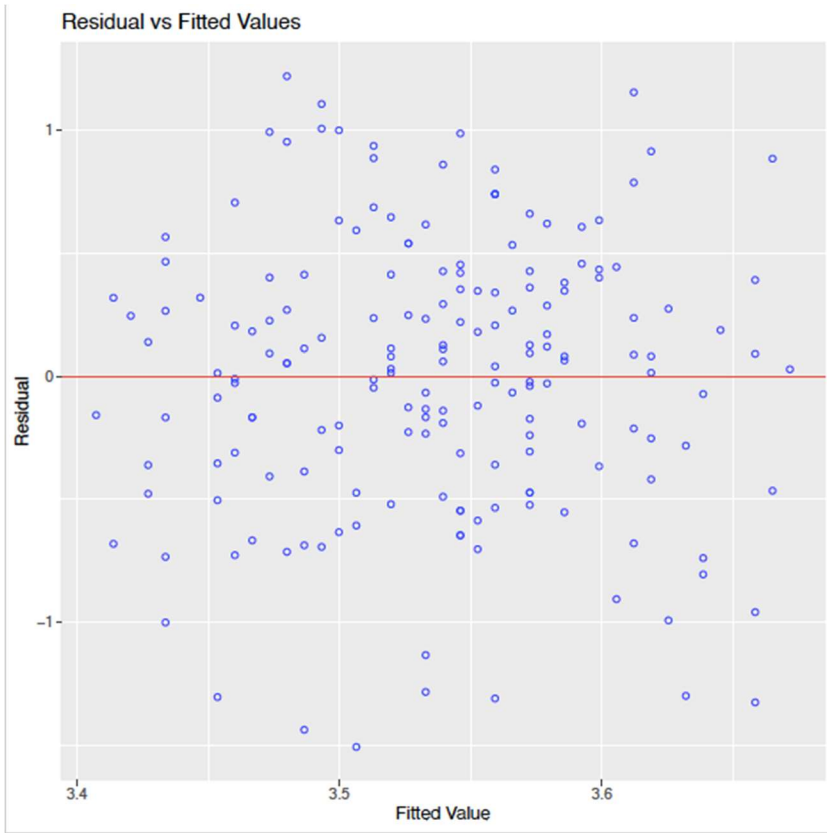


APPENDIX G. PREDICTED VS. RESIDUAL PLOTS

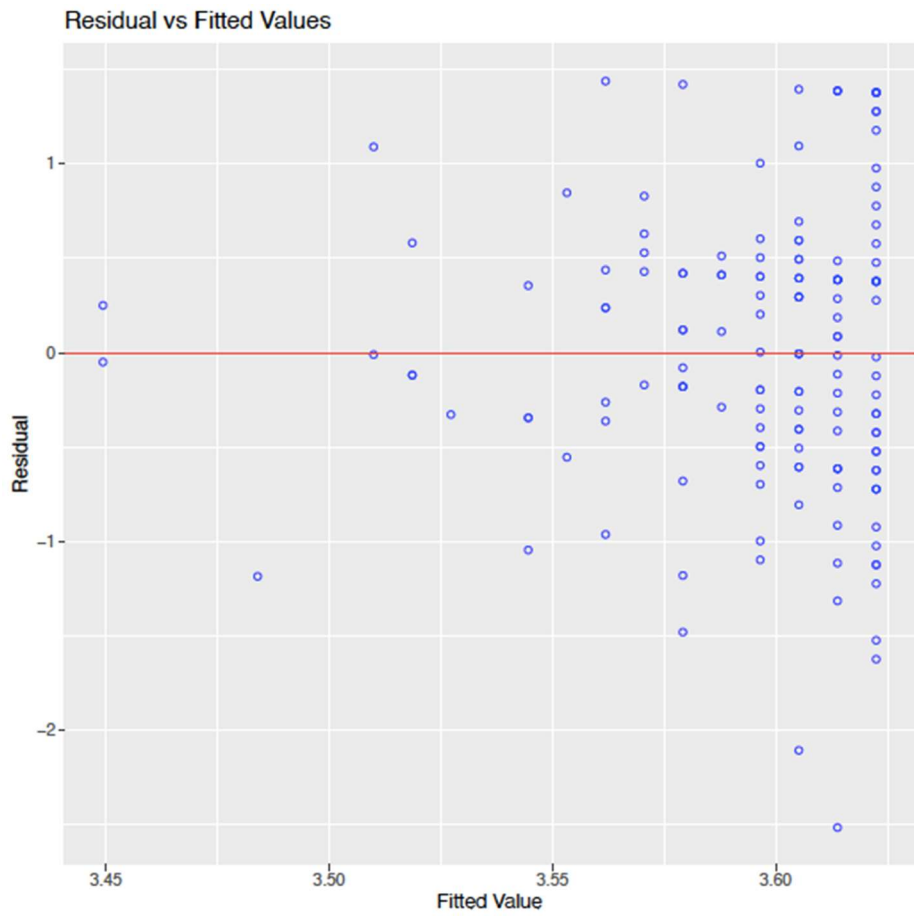
Self-Rated Leadership Emergence and Post-Task Positive Affect

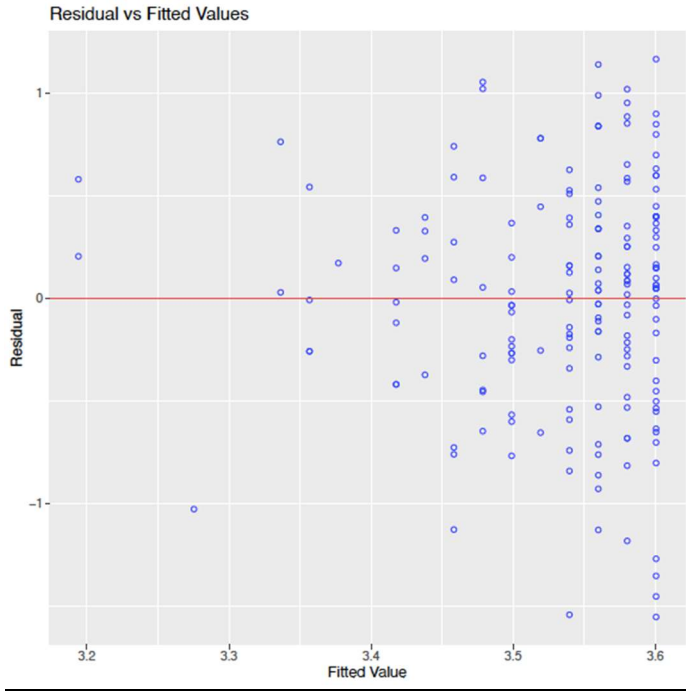


Other-Rated Leadership Emergence and Post-Task Positive Affect



Self-Rated Leadership Emergence and Post-Task Negative Affect





APPENDIX H. MODEL RESULTS WITHOUT CONTROLS

Hypothesis 1a

Parameter	Estimate	SE
Intercept	2.9736	0.1016
LE_Self_c	0.5795	0.1171

Hypothesis 1b

Parameter	Estimate	SE
Intercept	1.2956	0.0347
LE_Self_c	0.0258	0.0474

Hypothesis 2-4a Positive Affect RSA Parameters

Parameter	Value	SE	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
$\hat{\alpha}_1$	0.9435	0.2709	3.483	0.000
$\hat{\alpha}_2$	-0.3572	0.6269	-0.570	0.569
$\hat{\alpha}_3$	0.4270	0.2409	1.772	0.076
$\hat{\alpha}_4$	-0.2770	0.5425	-0.511	0.610
$\hat{\alpha}_5$	0.1027	0.3345	0.307	0.759

Hypothesis 2-4b Negative Affect RSA Parameters

Parameter	Value	SE	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
$\hat{\alpha}_1$	0.0593	0.1091	0.544	0.587
$\hat{\alpha}_2$	0.1486	0.2548	0.583	0.560
$\hat{\alpha}_3$	-0.0762	0.1304	-0.584	0.559
$\hat{\alpha}_4$	0.2426	0.2381	1.019	0.308
$\hat{\alpha}_5$	-0.2301	0.1413	-1.629	0.103

Hypothesis 5a Parameters

Parameter	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	3.1391	0.1044	30.056	< .001
LE_Self_c	0.6094	0.1559	3.909	0.0002
Gender.xWoman	-0.3806	0.1401	-2.716	0.0074
LE_Self_c.xWoman	-0.2433	0.2240	-1.086	0.2793

Hypothesis 5b Parameters

Parameter	Estimate	SE	t	p
Intercept	1.3069	0.0468	27.948	< .001
LE_Self_c	0.0018	0.0682	0.026	0.979
Gender.xWoman	-0.0177	0.0621	-0.286	0.776
LE_Self_c .xWoman	0.0423	0.1002	0.422	0.674

Hypothesis 6a

Parameter	Men (Estimate)	Men (SE)	Women (Estimate)	Women (SE)
â1	1.3671	0.3092	0.4224	0.3239
â2	0.5194	0.9338	0.3057	0.5468
â3	-0.1212	0.3129	0.8016	0.2691
â4	-1.5527	0.6427	0.0434	0.6581
â5	0.4401	0.3885	0.3696	0.3260

Hypothesis 6b

Parameter	Men (Estimate)	Men (SE)	Women (Estimate)	Women (SE)
â1	0.2529	0.1182	-0.0750	0.1273
â2	-1.0835	0.2763	0.1052	0.2642
â3	-0.5735	0.2396	0.0556	0.1097
â4	1.5386	0.3921	-0.2946	0.1501
â5	-0.2029	0.3070	-0.1892	0.1171

Hypothesis 7a

Parameter	Estimate	SE	t	p
Intercept	2.9666	0.0907	32.708	< .001
LE_Self_c	0.4595	0.1164	3.949	0.0002
Desire2Emer_Avg_c	0.1472	0.0789	1.866	0.0650
LE_Self_c	-0.0849	0.1248	-0.680	0.4975

Hypothesis 7b

Parameter	Estimate	SE	t	p
Intercept	1.2778	0.0301	42.432	<.001
LE_Self_c	0.0626	0.0467	1.340	0.184
Desire2Emer_Avg_c	-0.0127	0.0316	-0.401	0.689
LE_Self_c	0.0343	0.0480	0.715	0.476

Hypothesis 8a Positive Affect

Parameter	Low (-1 SD)	SE	Mean (0 SD)	SE	High (+1 SD)	SE
â1	0.7497	0.6395	0.7237	0.8795	0.6977	1.1269
â2	-3.3202	1.3208	-4.2662	1.6759	-5.2121	2.0407
â3	0.5331	0.7115	0.4819	0.9500	0.4307	1.1940
â4	-1.3931	1.4723	-1.7893	1.9519	-2.1855	2.4408
â5	-0.5783	0.8775	-0.8470	1.1543	-1.1157	1.4366

Hypothesis 8b Negative Affect

Parameter	Low (-1 SD)	SE	Mean (0 SD)	SE	High (+1 SD)	SE
â1	0.0608	0.1502	0.0904	0.1137	0.1201	0.1265
â2	0.3646	0.2709	0.2734	0.2757	0.1822	0.3410
â3	-0.1182	0.1306	-0.0798	0.1107	-0.0414	0.1333
â4	-0.1005	0.2516	0.0820	0.2251	0.2645	0.2991
â5	-0.3319	0.1404	-0.1902	0.1226	-0.0484	0.1594

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