Universidade do Minho
Escola de Economia e Gestão

Yasmine Yasser Nabih

The Impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use on Predicting Egyptian Millennial Leadership Potential: A Multilevel Perspective

June 2024

The Impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use on Predicting Egyptian Millennial Leadership Potential: A Multilevel Perspective
Yasmine Yasser Nabih
UMinho|2023

Universidade do Minho
Escola de Economia e Gestão

Yasmine Yasser Nabih

The Impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use on Predicting Egyptian Millennial Leadership Potential: A Multilevel Perspective

Ph.D. Thesis
Doctoral Programme in Business Administration

Work developed under the supervision of
Professor Emília Fernandes

June 2024

DIREITOS DE AUTOR E CONDIÇÕES DE UTILIZAÇÃO DO TRABALHO POR TERCEIROS

Este é um trabalho académico que pode ser utilizado por terceiros desde que respeitadas as regras e boas práticas internacionalmente aceites, no que concerne aos direitos de autor e direitos conexos.

Assim, o presente trabalho pode ser utilizado nos termos previstos na licença abaixo indicada.

Caso o utilizador necessite de permissão para poder fazer um uso do trabalho em condições não previstas no licenciamento indicado, deverá contactar o autor, através do RepositóriUM da Universidade do Minho.

Licença concedida aos utilizadores deste trabalho

Atribuição-Não Comercial
CC BY-NC
https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/

Acknowledgement

This PhD journey has been very challenging yet truly a life-changing experience. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to God, whose blessings have been the source of strength throughout this academic journey. Without His grace, none of this would have been possible.

Special appreciation goes to my thesis supervisor Professor Emilia Fernandes whose guidance, expertise, and patience have been invaluable. Your mentorship has not only enriched my academic experience but has also inspired me to strive for excellence. Thank you for always supporting me, believing in me and most importantly encouraging me with high spirit along the way.

To my beloved husband Mohamed Khaled, your unwavering support, encouragement, and understanding have been my pillars of strength. Your belief in me has fueled my determination to overcome challenges and achieve my goals. Thank you for being there every step of the way. I am profoundly grateful for your love and companionship.

I extend my heartfelt thanks to my whole family, especially my mom Dina Hasheesh , stepfather Fahd Ragab and my grandmother Sanaa ElGhazali whose boundless love and sacrifices have shaped me into the person I am today. Your unconditional love, encouragement and belief in my abilities have been a constant motivation.

I am grateful to my manager at work Dr. Cherine Soliman for understanding the demands of balancing work and academic pursuits. Your support, encouragement and flexibility have allowed me to pursue this academic endeavor without compromising my professional responsibilities.

To my colleagues and support group; especially Loaloa, Nada M., Rana, Ingy, Mahmoud and Mona your friendship, encouragement, and shared experiences have made this journey more enjoyable. Thank you for the intellectual exchange and the emotional support that helped me navigate the challenges. A big thank you to all my childhood best friends; Mai, Shahd, Menna, Nada F., Pansy, Noorhan, and Shadwa for putting up with me, motivating, and supporting me all the way. Your enduring friendship has been a source of joy and inspiration, and I am grateful for the countless memories we've shared.

Last but not least, I would like to thank Universidade Do Minho for providing a conducive academic environment and the necessary resources for my research. The university's commitment to excellence has played a pivotal role in shaping my academic and professional growth.

This thesis represents not only my individual effort but also the collective support and encouragement of these remarkable individuals. I am truly blessed to have such wonderful people in my life.

STATEMENT OF INTEGRITY

I hereby declare having conducted this academic work with integrity. I confirm that I have not used plagiarism or any form of undue use of information or falsification of results along the process leading to its elaboration.

I further declare that I have fully acknowledged the Code of Ethical Conduct of the University of Minho.

The Impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use on Predicting Egyptian Millennial Leadership Potential: A Multilevel Perspective

Abstract

Although numerous theories of leadership have been proposed over time, the understanding and conceptualisation of potential leadership remain a gap in current research. Moreover, the majority of leadership studies have been conducted in Western contexts, neglecting the diverse cultural differences of other regions, such as the Middle East. This research addresses these research gaps by investigating the Egyptian context and contributing to the understanding of what defines potential leaders in the present era, with a specific focus on the employees from the millennial generation.

Employing a multilevel analysis, this thesis explores the individual, organisational and social variables influencing Egyptian Millennial Leadership Potential (MLP). The research utilises a mixed-methods approach, incorporating semi-structured interviews to qualitatively investigate MLP and subsequently develop a concise measurement encompassing five sub-dimensions: Agility, Talent Catalyst, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal and Entrepreneurial. Thus, the objective of this thesis is threefold: firstly, to uncover the essence of Millennial Leadership Potential through qualitative exploration, secondly, to construct a practical measurement scale based on the qualitative findings, and finally, to quantitatively examine the impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use on predicting MLP in Egyptian professionals working in Multinational Companies (MNCs).

The results of the study underline the significant role of Emotional Intelligence in shaping MLP, the collective importance of implementing Talent Management practices and the relevance of Social Media Use in the workplace. Furthermore, the study reveals a complex interplay between these variables, demonstrating a serial mediation relationship. Specifically, organisational Talent Management practices contribute to the development of employees' Emotional Intelligence, positively influencing their use of social media at work, which, in turn, impacts their potential as leaders.

The empirical evidence presented in this study contributes to the literature body of knowledge by shedding light on various predictors influencing Millennial Leadership Potential at work. Additionally, the research provides a clear and practical measurement of MLP that can be applied both in practice and research frameworks.

Keyword: Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Potential, Millennials, Social Media, Talent Management.

O Impacto da Inteligência Emocional, Gestão de Talentos e do Uso das Redes Sociais no Potencial de Liderança entre a Geração de Profissionais Egípcios Millennials: Uma Perspectiva Multinível

Resumo

Embora inúmeras teorias de liderança tenham sido propostas, a conceptualização do potencial de liderança ainda é uma lacuna na investigação atual. Mais ainda, a maioria dos estudos de liderança foi conduzida em contextos ocidentais, negligenciando as diversas diferenças culturais de outras regiões, como o Médio Orient. Esta investigação procura dar resposta a estas lacunas, ao propor-se investigar no contexto egípcio o que define líderes potenciais na era atual, com um foco específico nos profissionais da geração *Millennials.*

Empregando uma análise multinível, esta tese explora as variáveis individuais, organizacionais e sociais que influenciam o Potencial de Liderança dos profissionais *Millennials* Egípcios (PLM). A pesquisa utiliza uma abordagem de métodos mistos, incorporando entrevistas semiestruturadas para investigar qualitativamente o (PLM) e subsequentemente desenvolver uma escala que abrange cinco subdimensões: Agilidade, Catalisador de Talentos, Interpessoal, Intrapessoal e Empreendedorismo.

Assim, o objetivo desta tese é triplo: primeiro, descobrir as componentes do Potencial de Liderança dos *Millennials a*través de um estudo qualitativo; segundo, construir uma escala de medição prática com base nos resultados qualitativos; e, finalmente, examinar quantitativamente o impacto da Inteligência Emocional, Gestão de Talentos e Uso das Redes Sociais na previsão do PLM nos profissionais egípcios.

Os resultados do estudo destacam o papel significativo da Inteligência Emocional na formação do PLM, a importância geral da implementação de práticas de Gestão de Talentos e a relevância do Uso de Redes Sociais no local de trabalho. Além disso, o estudo revela uma interação complexa entre estas variáveis, demonstrando uma relação de mediação serial. Especificamente, as práticas organizacionais de Gestão de Talentos contribuem para o desenvolvimento da Inteligência Emocional dos profissionais *Millennials*, influenciando positivamente o Uso das Redes Sociais no trabalho, o que, por sua vez, impacta no potencial de líderança.

A evidência empírica apresentada neste estudo contribui para o conhecimento sobre liderança, lançando luz sobre vários preditores que influenciam o Potencial de Liderança dos profissionais *Millennials*. Além disso, a pesquisa fornece uma medida clara e prática do PLM que pode ser aplicada para futura investigação ou no contexto prático da gestão.

Palavras-chave: Gestão de Talentos, Inteligência Emocional, *Millennials*, Potencial de Liderança, Uso das Redes Sociais.

Table of Contents

DIREITOS DE AUTOR E CONDIÇÕES DE UTILIZAÇÃO DO TRABALHO POR TERCEIROS ii
Acknowledgement iii
STATEMENT OF INTEGRITY iv
Abstract v
Resumo vi
List of accronyms xiii
List of Figures xv
List of Tables xv
Chapter One: Introduction 1
1.1 Introduction 1
1.2 Research Background 1
1.3 Research Motivation and Rationale of the Study 5
1.4 Research Questions and Objectives 7
1.4.1 Research Questions 7
1.4.2 Research Objectives 7
1.5 Research Methodology 8
1.6 Expected Research Contribution 9
1.6.1 Theoretical Contribution 10
1.6.2 Practical Contribution 11
1.7 Thesis Structure 12
Chapter Two: Literature Review 15
2.1 Introduction 15
Part One: Background of the Study 15
2.2 Historical Perspectives on Leadership Theories 15
2.2.1 Leadership 16
2.2.2 Leadership Potential 17
2.2.3 Leadership Potential Indicators 19
2.3 Generational Leadership 21
2.3.1 Millennials 23
2.3.2 Millennial leadership potential 24

2.4 Emotional intelligence 26
2.4.1 The Historical Development of Emotional Intelligence 26
2.4.2 Emotional Intelligence Theoretical Background and Dimensions 26
2.4.3 Contemporary Conceptions of Emotional Intelligence and its Transitions 28
2.4.4 Emotional Intelligence Measurement Models 28
2.4.4.1 Self-Emotions Appraisal (SEA) 30
2.4.4.2 Other's Emotion Appraisal (OEA) 30
2.4.4.3 Use Of Emotion (UOE) 30
2.4.4.4 Regulation Of Emotion (ROE) 31
2.5 What is Talent? 32
2.5.1 Talent Management 33
2.5.2 Talent Management Practices 35
2.5.2.1 Identifying Critical Positions (ICP) 35
2.5.2.2 Competence Training (CT) 36
2.5.2.3 Development (DEV) 36
2.5.2.4 Reward Management (RM) 37
2.6 Social Media 37
2.6.1 Social Media Use 39
2.6.1.1 Social Media for Social Use (SMS) 40
2.6.1.2 Social Media for Cognitive Use (SMC) 40
Part Two: Conceptual Relationships 40
2.7 Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development 40
2.8 Research Gap and Research Question 47
2.9 Chapter Summary 50
Chapter Three: Research Methodology 52
3.1 Introduction 52
3.2 Research Philosophy 52
3.3 Overall research design 54
3.4 Target Population and Sampling Technique 56
Part One 59
3.5 Qualitative Study One 59
3.5.1 Interview protocol 59

3.5.2 Qualitative Data Collection Procedures 60
3.5.3 Qualitative Data Analysis Techniques 61
Part Two 61
3.6 Quantitative Study Two 61
3.6.1 Quantitative Approach 62
3.6.2 Survey Design and Administration 62
3.6.2.1 Survey Procedure 62
3.6.2.2 Research Variable and Measurement 63
3.6.2.3 Time Horizon 64
3.6.2.4 Pretesting Questionnaire 65
3.6.3 Pilot study 65
3.6.4 Quantitative Data Analysis 66
3.6.4.1 Data Cleaning and Descriptive Statistics 66
3.6.4.2 Factor Analysis 67
3.6.4.3 PLS-SEM and Hypothesis Testing 68
3.6.4.4 Reliability, Validity and Model Fit 69
3.6.4.4.1 Scales Reliability 69
3.6.4.4.2 Scales Validity 70
3.6.4.4.3 Model Fit 71
3.7 Control variables 71
3.8 Ethical Considerations 71
3.9 Chapter Summary 72
Chapter Four: Qualitative-Data Analysis and Results 74
4.1 Introduction 74
4.2 Approach to Qualitative Data Analysis 74
4.3 Millennials Leadership potential 75
4.3.1 Theme One: Talent Catalyst 77
4.3.1.1 Enabling Others 78
4.3.1.2 Encouraging others 79
4.3.1.3 Serving others 80
4.3.1.4 Inclusivity of Employees 81
4.3.1.5 Patience 82

4.3.2 Theme Two: Interpersonal 82
4.3.2.1 Emotional Intelligence 83
4.3.2.2 Empathy 84
4.3.2.3 Works in Teams 85
4.3.2.4 Lead By Example 86
4.3.3 Theme Three: Intrapersonal 87
4.3.3.1 Bias to Action 88
4.3.3.2 Creativity 88
4.3.3.3 Innovation 89
4.3.3.4 Selflessness 90
4.3.4 Theme Four: Entrepreneurial 91
4.3.4.1 Charismatic 91
4.3.4.2 Visionary 92
4.3.4.3 Business Acumen 93
4.3.4.4 Initiator 94
4.3.5 Theme Five: Agility 95
4.3.5.1 Eager to Learn 96
4.3.5.2 Easy to Adapt 96
4.3.5.3 Flexible 97
4.3.5.4 Accepting Diversity 99
4.3.5.5 Problem Solver 100
4.3.5.6 Tech Savvy 101
4.4 Implications to Study One 102
4.5 Chapter Summary 106
Chapter Five: Scale Development and Validation 107
5.1 Introduction 107
5.2 Rationale for Developing MLP Scale 107
5.3 MLP Scale Development Process 108
5.3.1 Identifying the domain construct 109
5.3.2 Item Generation 109
5.3.3 Content Validity of the scale 109
5.3.4 Pretesting and Pilot Testing 112

5.3.5 Factor Analysis 113
5.3.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis 113
5.3.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis 116
5.3.6 Validity and Reliability of the MLP Scale 117
5.3.7 Operationalization of the Existing Scales of Study Constructs 118
5.4 Chapter Summary 119
Chapter Six: Quantitative -Data Analysis and Results 120
6.1 Introduction 120
6.2 Pilot Testing 120
6.3 Data Collection and Preliminary Data Analysis 121
6.4 Data Analysis using SPSS 29 and SMART-PLS 4 124
6.4.1 Measurement Model Analysis 124
6.4.1.1 Factor Loadings 125
6.4.1.2 Indicator Multicollinearity 125
6.4.1.3 Reliability Analysis 125
6.4.1.4 Validity Analysis 125
6.4.1.4.1 Convergent Validity 125
6.4.1.4.2 Discriminant Validity 127
6.4.1.4.2.1 Fornell and Larcker 128
6.4.1.4.2.2 Heterotrait–Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) 128
6.4.1.5 Validating Higher Order Constructs 129
6.4.1.5.1 Reflective-Formative Constructs 130
6.4.1.5.2 Reflective-Reflective constructs 130
6.4.1.6 Structural Model Analysis and Hypothesis Testing 131
6.4.1.7 Hypothesis Testing for Direct Relationships 132
6.4.1.8 Hypothesis Testing for Mediation Analysis 134
6.4.1.9 Control Variables 137
6.4.1.10 Model Fit 138
6.4.1.11 Explanatory power 139
6.5 Chapter Summary 140
Chapter Seven: Research Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations 141
7.1 Introduction 141

7.2 Research Discussion 141
7.2.1 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Millennial Leadership Potential 142
7.2.2 Relationship between Talent Management Practice and Millennial Leadership Potential 144
7.2.3 Relationship between Social Media Use and Millennial Leadership Potential 146
7.2.4 Mediation Analysis 147
7.2.5 Control Variables 148
7.3 Addressing the Research Question and Objectives 149
7.3.1 RQ1: How to conceptualize Millennial Leadership Potential 150
7.3.2 RQ2: What is the impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and its dimensions on MLP? 150
7.3.3 RQ3: How do organisational Talent Management (TM) practices impact MLP? 150
7.3.4 RQ4: Does Social Media Use (SMU) influence MLP? 151
7.4 Research Implications 151
7.4.1 Theoretical Implications 151
7.4.2 Managerial Implications 152
7.5 Conclusion 154
7.6 Research Limitations and Directions for Future Research 155
References 157
Appendix A 189
Appendix B 190
Appendix C 191
Appendix D 193
Appendix E 199
Appendix F 200

List of accronyms

AME	Arab Middle East
AMOS	Analysis of moment structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CEO	Chief Execeutive officer
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Compartive Fit Index
CR	Composite Reliability
CT	competence Training
DEV	Development
ECI	Emotional Competency Inventory
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	Emotional INtelligence
EIQ	Emotional Intelligence Quotient
EQ- MAP	Emotional Qoutient Map
EQ-I	Emotional Quotient Inventory
GOF	Goodness of Fit
HOC	High order Construct
HR	Human resources
HRM	Human resource Management
ICP	Identifying Critical Positions
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure
LMX	Leader Member Exchange Theory
LOC	Low Order Construct
LP	Leadership Potential
LPC	Least Preffered Co-worker Theory
MEIS	MultiFactor Emotional Intelligence Scale
MLP	Millennial Leadership Potential
MNCs	Multinational Corportations
MSCEIT	Mayer and salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
OEA	others Emotion Appraisal
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Square structural Equation Modeling
R&D	Research and Development
RM	Reward Management
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
ROE	Regulation of Emotion
SEA	self emotion Appraisal
SM	Social Media
SMU	Social Media Use

SPSS	STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCES
SREIT	SELF REPORT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST
SRMR	STANDARDIZED ROOT MEAN SQUARE RESIDUAL
SUEIT	SWINBURNE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST
TEIQUE-SF	TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE-SHORT FORM
TLI	TUCKER LEWIS INDEX
TM	TALENT MANAGEMENT
TMMS	TRAIT META MOOD SCALE
UGT	USES AND GRATIFICATION THEORY
UOE	USE OF EMOTION
VIF	VARIANCE INFLATION FACTOR
WEIP	WORKGROUP EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE PROFILE
WLEIS	WONG AND LAW EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

List of Figures

Figure 1: Thesis outline 14
Figure 2:Proposed Theoretical Framework 47
Figure 3: Calculating minimum sample size using the G*power analysis formula 59
Figure 4: Summary of the Qualitative Analysis- Themes and Sub-Themes 77
Figure 5: Steps employed in developing and validating the MLP scale 108
Figure 6: Direct Relationship using SMART-PLS4 132
Figure 7: Serial Mediation using SMART-PLS4 136
Figure 8: The Final Model with the Confirmed Hypotheses 142

List of Tables

Table 1: Summary of Research Design 8
Table 2: Reasons for choosing Post-Positivism 54
Table 3: Summary of the Qualitative Sample Population 57
Table 4: Conceptual and Operational Definitions of the variables 64
Table 5: Qualitative Sample Characteristics 75
Table 6: Summary of the dimensions conceptualization 106
Table 7: Content Validity Assessment of MLP Scale 110
Table 8: KMO and Bartlett's Test 113
Table 9: Exploratory Factor Analysis 115
Table 10: EFA Deleted items 116
Table 11: CFA-Model Fit Indices 117
Table 12: Final MLP scale items 117
Table 13: Convergent, Discriminant Validity and Reliability of MLP Developed Scale 118
Table 14: Cronbach's Reliability for pilot testing using SPSS V. 29 121
Table 15: Demographic Characteristics 123
Table 16: Measurement Model Analysis 126
Table 17: Discriminant Validity using Fornell–Larcker's Criterion 128
Table 18: Discriminant Validity using HTMT Ratio 129

Table 19: HOCs-Reflective Formative Validation 130
Table 20: HOCs-Reflective-Reflective Validation 131
Table 21: Testing Direct Relationships Result 134
Table 22: Mediation Analysis using Smart PLS 4 136
Table 23: Serial Mediation Analysis using SPSS 29 PROCESS MODEL 137
Table 24: Summary of Model Fit Indices using SMART PLS4 139
Table 25: Explanatory Power 140
Table 26: Summary of the results of the relationships in this research 149

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The present study examines the influence of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management Practices and Social Media Use on developing Millennial Leadership Potential. The introduction chapter provides a concise overview of the main central themes of the study, focusing on leadership, Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management Practices and Social Media Use. The Millennial generation is the primary generational cohort within the study's contextual framework. The chapter further explains the rationale for the study, emphasising the research problem and its motivation, followed by an overview of the research questions and objectives. Next, a summary of the research methodology is presented, and the research contribution of the thesis is briefly discussed. Finally, this chapter provides an overview of the thesis structure by presenting the preface of the chapters.

1.2 Research Background

Leadership, as a crucial area of research, requires a reconsideration of our current theories in light of changes in employee values (Gaus et al., 2022; Kjellström et al., 2020; Piwowar-Sulej & Iqbal, 2023). In the literature, a leader is defined as an individual who influences the behaviour of others, either positively or negatively (Santos et al., 2023). However, this study will diverge from the prevalent focus on negative leadership, as observed in an extensive literature that covers the negative forms of leadership as toxic leadership, destructive leadership, abusive supervision, workplace bullying and despotic leadership (Basaad et al., 2023; Gao & Liu, 2023; Mehraein et al., 2023; Mubarak et al., 2023; Santos et al., 2023). Acknowledging the historical emphasis on adverse leadership effects, particularly evident in political and some organisational contexts, the present research deliberately shifts its attention. Instead of delving into the consequences of dysfunctional leadership, this study explores the behaviours, traits and styles associated with potentially effective leadership. By taking a proactive stance, the research aims to contribute insights into the aspects characterising positive and impactful millennial leadership, providing a positive perspective within the broader leadership literature.

Concerns about the identification and development of Leadership Potential have persisted for years, leading to a small but emerging body of empirical work defining leadership potential (Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2011). There is a clear need for researchers to identify consistent, valid and theoretically meaningful ways to describe the qualities of leader potential and

development in organisations (Troth & Gyetvey, 2014). Thus, this research addresses this need by conceptualising and constructing a solid definition of "Leadership Potential."

The workforce is undergoing significant changes, necessitating a corresponding evolution in leadership theories. The empirical research on generational gaps highlighted in this study emphasises several gaps in significant leadership theories (Anderson et al., 2017). Fiedler's (1964) assertion, over half a century ago, that effective leadership occurs when the leader's skills and personality match the situation requires renewed significance. Given substantive changes in the values and attitudes of today's employees, the current leadership theories face a crisis of becoming less applicable to the leadership contingencies of 21st-century organisations (Bouland-van Dam et al., 2021). Instead of perceiving these generational gaps as challenges to the science of leadership, this study has embraced these changes and adopted a new perspective on potential leadership. The focus is identifying new competencies to enhance managers' understanding of leadership, explicitly profiling leaders within the currently employed generation cohort.

There has been a notable shift in workforce demographics in recent years, with a growing influx of millennial employees born between 1981 and 2000 (Abhicharttibutra et al., 2023; Hannah Murphy et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2023), succeeding Generation X and preceding baby boomers. The focus on millennial employees in organisational studies is evident, given their increasing presence in the workforce and the impending retirement of baby boomers (Naim & Lenka, 2018). Understanding millennials' personal traits, job satisfaction and organisational commitment levels becomes imperative for effective management, mainly as they dominate the workforce (Kotlyar, 2018).

While previous studies on generational profiling primarily focused on student populations, a significant gap exists in understanding the generation profile of millennial employees in the workforce (Naim & Lenka, 2018). From a practical perspective, organisations cannot thrive without addressing the needs of millennial employees, considering their status as the second-largest population following baby boomers and representing a significant source of talent and innovation (Marcinkus Murphy, 2012).

Organisations have recently recognised the significance of the millennial generation, understanding that early identification of leadership talent among millennials can be advantageous (Bhatnagar, 2007; Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2011; Marshall-Mies et al., 2000; Vloeberghs, Pepermans, & Thielemans, 2005). Developing millennial leaders is increasingly becoming a strategic goal for organisations, aiming to nurture leaders earlier, expedite leadership capabilities and allocate resources effectively to support leadership development (Troth & Gyetvey, 2014). Therefore, this study

specifically examined the millennial generation's characteristics and traits since they are becoming more prevalent in organisations.

Adopting a multilevel perspective, this study investigates the impact of individual, organisational and social variables on the leadership potential among millennials. At an individual level, several studies have empirically examined factors contributing to the identification of Leadership Potential, with Emotional Intelligence (EI) recognised as a critical factor (Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Rob Silzer et al., 2016). Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a widely discussed term in academic literature, including multiple fields like psychology, business, education and neuroscience. Coined by psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer in the early 1990s and popularised by Daniel Goleman, EI has been either categorised as ability or mixed models, where ability models strictly define emotional intelligence as a set of abilities related to emotions and emotional information processing, while mixed models incorporate abilities, personality traits, motivational factors and other concepts (Goleman, 1998; Mayer et al., 1999). The study has adopted the mixed model perspective because this realisation provides a consolation to individuals, since it suggests that emotional intelligence may be developed and enhanced throughout one's life, rather than being solely innate.

While the relevance of emotional intelligence for identifying leadership potential has been praised, there are opposing opinions on its consistency as a predictor (Walter et al., 2012). The interdisciplinary nature of Emotional Intelligence study is evident in its applicability to several fields and its ability to enhance our understanding of human behaviour and interaction. Thus, this study focuses on understanding Emotional Intelligence as a predictor of Leadership Potential.

At the organisational level, the emergence of millennials in the workforce presents challenges for management, particularly in the realm of Human Resource Management. Engaging and developing millennials is essential for success (Kotlyar, 2018). In response to these challenges, there is an immediate need to design Talent Management practices tailored to the needs and preferences of Millennial Generation, enhancing their leadership, commitment and retention.

Talent Management (TM) has been controversial, with debates over its conceptual boundaries and a lack of clear theoretical underpinning. Despite being a priority concern for many organisations, TM remains poorly defined (Chris Ashton & Morton, 2005; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Crane & Hartwell, 2019; Jones et al., 2012; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; McDonnell et al., 2017; Thunnissen et al., 2013). Researchers have extensively studied TM trends across various countries, such as the USA, UK, Australia, Japan, China, India and multiple countries of Asia (Chugh & Bhatnagar, 2006; Lewis &

Heckman, 2006; Preece et al., 2011; Ruppe, 2006; Yeung, 2006). There is a noticeable absence of studies in the Middle East, particularly in Egypt.

Understanding talent is fundamental to conceptualising TM, encompassing "the collective knowledge, skills, abilities, experiences, values, habits and behaviours of all labour contributing to an organisation's mission" (Schiemann, 2014,p.282). Moving towards a general definition, TM involves combining strategies to improve workplace output and establishing improved systems and processes to attract, develop, retain and utilise the skills and abilities of talented employees aligned with present and future business needs (Azuma et al., 2019). This study emphasises the shift from traditional approaches focused on strategic human resources management towards a perspective that highlights millennials' talent, especially suited for the dynamic and competitive business environment. Leadership, a crucial factor in TM, prompts the need to explore millennials' leadership potential through scientific inquiry (Cooke et al., 2014).

At the social level, the investigation of Social Media Use (SMU) in the workplace has emerged as a prominent subject in scholarly literature, mirroring the growing incorporation of digital platforms into professional settings. Accordingly, numerous managers endorse the incorporation of social media tools into routine organisational practices (Khan & Khan, 2019), building on the notion of the social networking theory and its importance to leadership potential and effectiveness (Cullen-Lester et al., 2017). In addition, leadership development theories acknowledge the importance of social connections as a means by which leadership is formed (Day & Dragoni, 2015; DeRue, 2011). Thus, the adoption of social media can function as an indicator of specific attributes demonstrated by business leaders, who are utilising social media platforms for internal organisational communications (Hwang, 2012; Men, 2015). Consequently, scholars across diverse disciplines, including organisational psychology and management, have recently recognised the significance of social media use (SMU) in the workplace and have called for additional investigation (Agnihotri et al., 2022; Arrivillaga et al., 2022; Matthews et al., 2022). Therefore, integrating Social Media Usage (SMU) in the workplace can provide insights into human behaviours and relationships, which can help identify early signs of potential leadership.

Moreover, the number of multinational corporations (MNCs) has experienced a significant surge in recent decades (Knoll & Sternad, 2021). According to the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), there was a rise in the number of MNCs (UNCTAD, 2022). Their interconnectedness and presence characterise MNCs in multiple locations; thus, they necessitate a specific kind of leader. These leaders must be competent to navigate different contexts and environments (Knoll & Sternad, 2021).

This research focused on employees working for Multinational Corporations (MNCs) based in Egypt as the target population, because MNCs may have more resources and a more formal structure (Siyal, 2023). Another selection criterion for the context was that multinational corporations (MNCs) are implementing organised high-potential or leadership development programmes. This assumption was made based on the belief that companies with such programmes are more intentionally concerned with identifying employees with leadership potential (Knoll & Sternad, 2021); hence, it serves the aim of the study. Furthermore, every multinational corporation needs effective management and leadership. This is due to the increasing recognition of and demand for influential leaders and managers by the MNCs (Siyal, 2023). Finally, MNCs strategically leverage emerging economies as viable destinations for pursuing new avenues of growth (Ju et al., 2019). Egypt is a developing country welcoming foreign investments; thus, focusing on MNCs in Egypt will give depth to this study.

In summary, this study seeks to fill gaps in the existing literature examining this study on multilevel and multidimensional factors that contribute to a comprehensive framework for studying the impact of individual, organisational, and social variables on Millennial Leadership Potential. The primary research problem addressed is investigating the impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use and their relationship in predicting Millennials' Leadership Potential in Multinational Companies operating in Egypt. The study will employ a mixed-method approach, utilising an extensive literature review, Thematic Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to develop a comprehensive model.

1.3 Research Motivation and Rationale of the Study

The researcher began his research journey to study predictors of leadership potential in general. However, after conducting an extensive literature review and examining industry reports, the researcher has focused on the millennial generation. This generation was chosen because they are within the pipeline of organisational leadership roles.

The literature review helped the researcher identify limitations and gaps in academic research that discuss the concept of leadership potential, its predictors and its relevance in contemporary organisations, especially multinational companies (MNCs). Despite the widespread use of the leadership concept in academia and the practical world, it lacks a clear definition or contextualisation up to this point (Badura et al., 2022; Bouland-van Dam et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2022; Church & Conger, 2018; Rotolo et al., 2018). Also, most of the studies on leadership were conducted in Western cultures, with very few in Middle Eastern cultures, which adds to the study's originality (Siangchokyoo et

al., 2020). Most studies in this area indicate a need for further research, rendering the topic of leadership somewhat controversial. In November 2023, a Google search for "leadership Potential" yielded about 1,770,000,000 entries.

Moreover, Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been recognised as a critical indicator of leadership (Drigas et al., 2023; Miao et al., 2018). However, academic research on this relationship is still evolving, with a specific focus on identifying potential millennial leaders (Galdames & Guihen, 2022). Furthermore, considering an organisational variable was a driving force behind the research, aiming to explore leadership on various levels— individual and organizational. Thus, what seemed interesting was the proliferation of Talent Management (TM) as a human resource management topic (Zyed et al., 2021).

The exploration of the literature on TM seemed dispersed within the classification of what is "talent", the adopted philosophy of TM practices in organisations and, eventually, the definition of TM itself (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; McDonnell et al., 2017; Tarique & Schuler, 2010). In sum, what motivated the researcher was the understanding that Talent Management is an organisational strategic approach aimed at developing and predicting high-potential or talented employees within the organisation (Akanda et al., 2021; Su et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2021) and hence can be objectified as an organisational variable in this study.

Another motivation for this research is the rapid rise of social media use. The continuous growth of social media platforms and their integration within different organisational practices, especially Human Resource Management Practices, has caught the attention (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Arrivillaga et al., 2022; Johnson et al., 2022; Khan & Khan, 2019). Therefore, social media use has become a highly relevant and dynamic topic requiring further academic exploration within the professional realm. In addition, the inclusion of Social Media in this study was deemed appropriate to enhance the multilevel analysis at the group level, given that social media has emerged as an emerging medium for fostering social interaction. Therefore, achieving the goal of examining leadership at multiple levels, including the individual, organisational, and group/social levels.

Despite the evident interest among practitioners in evaluating potential leadership, there remains a limitation in conceptualising and measuring it (Bouland-van Dam et al., 2021). Additionally, there is a need to comprehend how companies can strategically orchestrate their Talent Management (TM) practices to enhance employees' Emotional Intelligence (EI) for effectively leveraging Social Media (SM) in developing their leadership capabilities. Therefore, this will be one of the main objectives of this research.

1.4 Research Questions and Objectives

In response to the identified gaps in the existing literature, this study attempts to formulate research questions and outline the research objectives. Thus, the subsequent section presents the articulated main research questions and goals that guide this research.

1.4.1 Research Questions

As previously said, the current study seeks to investigate the impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management Practices and Social Media Use on predicting Millennial Leadership Potential. Consequently, the following research questions were devised:

Main Research Question: To what extent can Emotional Intelligence, Organizational Talent Management Practices and Social Media Use predict Millennials' Leadership Potential?

RQ1: How to conceptualise MLP?

RQ2: What is the impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and its dimensions (Self Emotion Appraisal (SEA), Others Emotion Appraisal (OEA), Use of Emotions (UOE) and Regulation of Emotions (ROE)) on MLP?

RQ3: How do organisational Talent Management (TM) practices impact MLP?

RQ4: Does Social Media Use (SMU) influence MLP?

1.4.2 Research Objectives

To achieve the overall aim of the study and to answer the study's questions, the following objectives are presented:

- Developing the Construct of Millennial Leadership Potential
- Examining the components of emotional intelligence and its dimensions: self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotions and regulation of emotions in developing Millennials' Leadership Potential.
- Identifying the impact of talent management practices, such as identifying critical positions, competency training, development programs and reward management in developing Millennials' Leadership Potential.
- Examining the influence of Social Media Use at work in predicting potential leaders.
- Investigating a serial mediation effect of Emotional Intelligence and Social Media Use on the relationship between Talent Management Practices and Millennials' Leadership Potential.

1.5 Research Methodology

This study embraces a post-positivistic worldview to conduct the current research; thus, a Sequential Mixed Methodology is employed. The first phase involves qualitative investigation, instrumental in developing the leadership potential scale utilised in the subsequent quantitative phase. The hypotheses are developed in relation to the conceptual framework guiding a quantitative research approach that collects data through an online questionnaire deployed on Google Forms.

The targeted sample comprises Egyptian millennials born between 1981 and 2000, actively engaged in multinational corporations operating within Egypt. A multilevel sampling strategy is employed, incorporating purposive sampling for qualitative interviews and convenience sampling followed by a snowballing philosophy for the quantitative online surveys. The qualitative interviews spanned a 12-month period, from 2021 to 2022, while the quantitative data collection occurred over three months in April, May and June 2023. See (Table 1) provides a summary of the methodology of this research.

Table 1: Summary of Research Design

Elements	Design	Reason
Philosophy	Post-Positivism	This research considers a contextual framework that recognises flexibility in research to accept a degree of social subjectivity and human interpretations. Also, it allows qualitative research methods to explore the depth of meanings attributed to experiences (Gasson, 2009, p. 55).
Research Approach	Sequential- Exploratory Mixed Methodology	This approach allows for a comprehensive exploration of a phenomenon and provides a more holistic understanding of the research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Qualitative phase was adopted for exploratory reasons, such as refining the theoretical framework and hypothesis development. Also, the findings were used to inform the development of a quantitative instrument MLP scale. Quantitative phase was adopted for hypothesis testing. It also aimed to generalise the findings and comprehensively understand the topic.

	Phase One Qualitative Study	Phase Two Quantitative study
Data Collection Method	Semi-Structured Interviews	Administrating Online Surveys
Sample Size	18 interviews were conducted till it reached saturation by participant 18.	G-power analysis was adopted, and the minimum sample size required was 118 participants. However, the researcher managed to gather: - Initial Study Sample: 238 respondents Primary Sample: 413 respondents
Sampling	Non-probability Purposive sampling- Judgement Technique, since respondents were chosen based on well-defined criteria and seemed relevant and with expertise in the field of the study.	Non-probability Convenience sampling, where the millennials participating in the study were chosen because they are readily available and willing to be studied.
Population	Egyptian Human Resource Managers working in Multinational Companies. As well as Academic Lecturers and Professors within the field of Human Resources and Leadership.	Egyptian millennials born between (1981-2000) working in Multinational Companies (MNCs) operating in Egypt.
Time Horizon	Single Cross-sectional- Over 12 months between (2021-2022).	Single Cross-sectional- Surveys were gathered between April, May and June of 2023.

Source: Developed By the Researcher

1.6 Expected Research Contribution

This study has drawn an extensive amount of academic and practical attention. Theoretically, it complements prior research in Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management, Social Media Use and Leadership Potential. Meanwhile, it concentrates on profiling millennial employees as the primary cohort under study. Also, from a practical perspective, the insights gathered from this research may provide organisations with valuable guidance in optimising or reforming their Human Resource Systems. Furthermore, the findings can inform the development of new policies to enhance organisational practices.

1.6.1 Theoretical Contribution

The expected academic relevance of this research lies in investigating the impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management Practices and Social Media Use in predicting Millennial Leadership Potential. The distinctive contribution of this study lies in integrating these diverse variables into a holistic and multilevel framework, thereby introducing originality to the research and contributing valuable insights to the existing body of knowledge. Moreover, recent literature has emphasised researchers' need to ascertain consistent, valid and theoretically significant methods to define the characteristics associated with leader potential (Badura et al., 2022; Groves & Feyerherm, 2022). As such, this research will first contribute to understanding the conceptualisation of Leadership Potential by developing a reliable construct to measure it. Notwithstanding the extensive discussion around the presence of millennials in the workplace within academic studies, there is an extensive lack of empirical data on the work-related characteristics of millennials (Galdames & Guihen, 2022). This suffices as the contribution of this study, which centres on profiling the millennial generation as its primary focus, thereby adding to the existing literature on this demographic cohort.

Emotional Intelligence is intricately intertwined with leadership, signifying the leader's ability to foster and support the development of others (Miao et al., 2018). Some studies have shown that EI is crucial in effective leadership (Milhem et al., 2019; Nabih et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2018). However, there is a lack of literature that comprehensively reviews the relationship between EI as a predictor of Leadership Potential. Therefore, this study extends the EI and Leadership literature by analysing EI's impact on the LP in a different context. Furthermore, there is a lack of empirical research, specifically quantitative studies on talent management and leadership potential variables; thus, this emphasises the importance of this empirical mixed-method study (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Cooke et al., 2014; Day, 2011; Dries, 2013; Dries & Pepermans, 2008; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Gottfried et al., 2011; Konczak & Foster, 2009; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000; McDonnell et al., 2017; Meyers et al., 2019; Pantouvakis & Karakasnaki, 2019; Thunnissen et al., 2013; Vaiman et al., 2012). Also, studying different variables in an integrated, holistic model brings a new perspective to theory.

While existing research has delved into the antecedents of Social Media Use (SMU), it is noteworthy that developing countries, as emphasised by Olanrewaju et al. (2020), have remained largely understudied in this context. Furthermore, as highlighted by Filo et al. (2015), the available literature indicates a deficiency in consistency regarding the theoretical frameworks employed to investigate the antecedents of SMU. Therefore, the identified gaps in the aforementioned literature contribute to the

depth and originality of this study. Addressing these gaps not only enhances this research discourse but also adds a unique dimension to the overall originality of the analysis and contributes to theory.

The results of previous studies have shown that despite disparities between the host country's cultural environment and the cultural contexts of the multinational corporations (MNCs) from which they originate, there is a notable advantage in considering different cultural contexts when formulating leadership strategies (Palalic & Ait Sidi Mhamed, 2020). Consequently, the geographic focus on Egypt provides a novel case of an emerging and under-explored setting, and the explicit focus on millennial employees working in multinational organisations contributes to the originality of this study.

1.6.2 Practical Contribution

This study holds the potential to offer valuable insights for future enhancements, particularly for Human Resource (HR) managers seeking to develop their millennial employees and predict potential leaders within their organisations. The findings can inform the refinement of HR policies and guide managers in making informed decisions about internal practices, including recruitment, training and development programmes.

In the context of the rapidly evolving technological environment, the challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic and economic uncertainties, organisations need leaders equipped with new competencies (Clark, 2020; Collings et al., 2021). This study provides an opportunity to test new frameworks in this dynamic environment. The integration of Social Media (SM) into the professional realm further underscores the importance of understanding the positive and negative implications of such platforms, emphasising the practical value of the study for contemporary businesses and organisations.

The study's relevance extends to the critical role of Talent Management (TM) in organisations, especially in Research and Development (R&D) work, as highlighted by Saddozai et al. (2017), the identification of leadership potential is acknowledged as a top priority by human resource practitioners worldwide, yet they grapple with the immaturity of assessment procedures and the need for more objective and generalisable guidelines (Groves & Feyerherm, 2022; Knoll & Sternad, 2021). Consequently, the outcomes of this study are designed to assist organisations in providing clear assessment criteria for identifying early leadership potential.

Finally, as emphasised in recent research, the significance of ongoing studies in leadership identification and development remains vital for companies, employees and academics (Church et al., 2021; Karriker & Hartman, 2019). This study contributes to this ongoing discourse, providing meaningful insights that can shape future leadership research and practices.

1.7 Thesis Structure

This thesis is divided into seven chapters, and the content of each chapter is as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter has provided a concise overview of the context of the research. It has explored the nature of the problem, presented the researchable question and objectives and elucidated the planned research methodology. Additionally, it has outlined the contribution of the research in both theoretical and practical realms and provided a comprehensive outline of the research plan.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The primary purpose of this chapter was to establish a solid theoretical foundation and enhance the study's rigour. Consequently, this chapter is divided into two parts. Part one elucidates the study's contextual framework by comprehensively examining the relevant literature encompassing all variables under investigation. The literature review identified multiple concepts, theories, models and philosophies to better understand the conceptual relationships among Leadership potential, Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management practices and Social Media Use. The second part of this paper offers a critical evaluation of the theoretical framework, which serves as the basis for developing hypotheses and the model that will be subsequently tested in the research.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

This chapter is considered the blueprint for how this research is designed. It clarifies and rationalises the research philosophy, research approach, research strategy (sequential mixed methods) and data collection techniques (semi-structured interviews and online questionnaires) to be adopted in the empirical data collection for qualitative and quantitative studies. Details on sampling procedures are provided. Moreover, this chapter discusses the techniques used for qualitative and quantitative data analysis.

Chapter Four: Qualitative Research Data Analysis

This chapter is dedicated to presenting the outcomes and results derived from the qualitative interviews. The discussions held during these interviews played a pivotal role in drawing conclusions and identifying five main themes. These emergent themes served as the foundation for developing the Millennials Leadership Potential Scale and contributed to the refinement of the proposed model, which was subsequently used for further empirical testing. The insights gathered from these interviews inform

the scale construction and provide valuable context for the subsequent quantitative phase of this research.

Chapter Five: Scale Development and Validation

In this chapter, a comprehensive overview of the scale development process unfolds across nine distinct steps, with a clear explanation of the structure and administration of the process. Also, the initial study sample gathered was tested using the SPSS V. 29 and the AMOS V.28 statistical programs. In this chapter, the scale went through reliability validity analysis focusing on the Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis that showed the goodness of fit indices. Finally, this chapter concludes with a summary of the operational scales of the remaining variables, which were adapted from the existing literature.

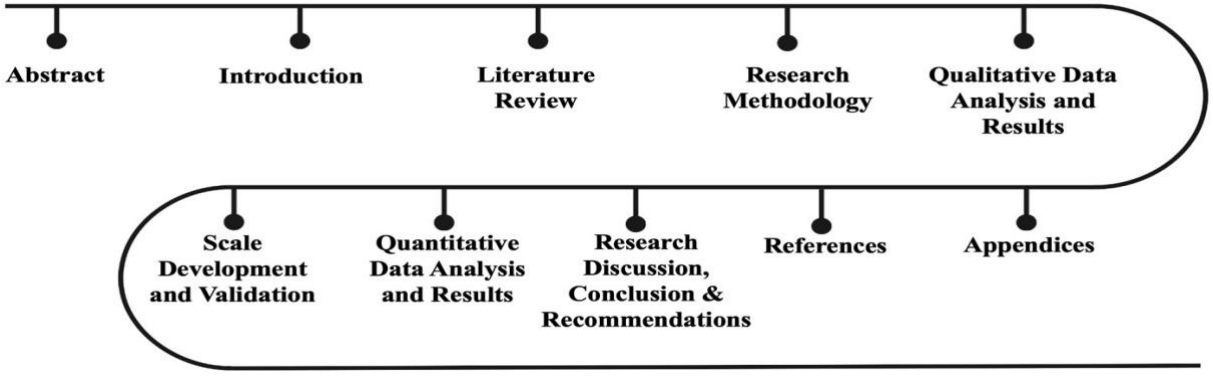
Chapter Six: Quantitative Research Data Analysis

This chapter presents the findings and results of the quantitative research, gathered using an online survey on Google Forms. The collected data were then analysed using the SPSS V.29 and the SMART-PLS4. In this chapter, the research presents the findings of the normality, frequency, reliability and validity analysis assessments, providing a comprehensive understanding of the sample characteristics. The hypotheses are tested using structural equation modelling employed on SMART-PLS 4. Finally, the analysis outcomes are illustrated, and the results of the structural equation modelling are presented.

Chapter Seven: Research Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings of this research are examined and discussed to further understand their relevance. Furthermore, a comparison of the empirical findings against the results of prior studies in the literature review is discussed. This chapter consists of a summary of both the qualitative and quantitative research analysis. Some significant theoretical contributions and managerial implications are presented based on the outcomes of this study. This chapter also highlights the research limitations and considers further potential research recommendations. From the preceding information, we present Figure 1 to provide a clear and concise outline of the structure of our thesis.

Figure 1: Thesis outline



Source: Developed by the Researcher

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This section will present a view of the literature regarding Millennial Leadership Potential, Talent Management, Emotional Intelligence and Social Media Use concepts. This chapter is divided into two parts: part one reviews the background of the study, and part two discusses the conceptual relationships. Accordingly, in part one, the first section focuses on the dependent variable, which describes the different Leadership Theories, defining leadership and Leadership Potential, Leadership Potential Indicators and millennials and Millennials Leadership Potential. The following section includes the predictors, starting with a brief conceptualisation of Emotional Intelligence, theories and measurement models provided. Subsequently, Talent Management by giving brief definitions of Talent, Talent philosophies and Talent Management Practices. Then, it describes Social Media and Social Media Use and its dimensions. Finally, it provides a brief on multinational corporations that are adopted as the context of this study. Part two discusses the conceptual relationships, hypothesis development and proposed theoretical framework. Finally, this chapter imposes the research gap that results in formulating the research question and conducting the qualitative study.

Part One: Background of the Study

2.2 Historical Perspectives on Leadership Theories

The concept of leadership has been a topic of extensive discussion and analysis in the twentieth century, exerting significant influence on a wide range of organisational settings (Dinh et al., 2014). Early leadership studies encompassed various approaches to explaining leadership, where two broad categories were delved into: contingency theories and individual theories. Contingency theories posit that the efficacy of a leadership style or strategy is contingent upon the contextual characteristics of a particular situation (Asrar-ul-Haq & Anwar, 2018). There is a wide range of contingency theories to leadership, such as Campbell and Fiedler's (1968) Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) theory, Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (Hersey, 1969), Path-Goal Theory (Robert J. House,1971), Normative Decision Theory (Vroom, 1974), Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX) (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975), Leadership Substitutes Theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978), The Multiple Linkage Model (Yuki, 1989), Cognitive Resources Theory (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987), Quinn's

Competing Values Framework (CVF) (Quinn, 1988 in Yuki, 1989), Complexity Leadership Theory (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

On the contrary, theories of leadership at the individual level centre on the personal characteristics, qualities or actions exhibited by leaders that enhance their efficacy (Badura et al., 2022). These ideas frequently emphasise particular attributes that differentiate influential leaders. Such theories vary from Power-Influence Dynamics (Yuki, 1989), Trait Theory accentuating personal features (Yuki, 1989), Behavioral Theory examining the actions of influential leaders (Lorne Hartman, 1999), Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theory (Bass & Bass Bernard, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006), Authentic Leadership Theory (Walumbwa et al., 2008) and Servant Leadership (Reed et al., 2011; Russell, 2001). Recent studies highlight the prominence of transformational leadership, particularly the transformational leadership theory proposed by Bass and Avolio (Chen et al., 2015). Transformational leaders inspire followers by aligning them with higher-level intrinsic needs, while transactional leaders focus on resource exchange through incentives (Judge & PPiccolo, 2004; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). At the same time, charismatic leadership emphasises the leader's unique qualities. Additionally, the concept of leadership authenticity has gained significant attention in the field of leadership theory and style, where authenticity has also gained recognition in managerial traits. Authentic leadership refers to the degree to which followers perceive their leader as exhibiting a genuine acceptance of both organisational and personal accountability for their actions, outcomes and mistakes while refraining from manipulating their subordinates (Gardner et al., 2011).

Accordingly, contingency and individual theories make valuable contributions to the extensive body of leadership studies, providing varied viewpoints on the characteristics of influential leaders and the circumstances in which specific leadership styles are most appropriate. Thus, this study aligns with the individual theory perspective, where it focuses on contextualising millennial leaders' characteristics in contemporary organisations.

2.2.1 Leadership

The concept of leadership has posed a significant obstacle in reaching a consensus on its definition and measurement. This obstacle is evident in the myriad definitions put forth by scholars investigating the topic, highlighting the inherent complexity(Asrar-ul-Haq & Anwar, 2018; Gaus et al., 2022; Jensen et al., 2016; Jucan et al., 2013). In turn, several researchers argue that leadership is a multifaceted phenomenon that requires further investigation (Kjellström et al., 2020; Piwowar-Sulej & Iqbal, 2023).

Therefore, many theorists and researchers have defined leadership and explained it in several conceptions (Kaiser et al., 2008; Moorley & Chinn, 2016).

Leadership is the process by which a leader utilises charisma, power, persuasion or other behavioural attributes to influence a group or individual, ultimately leading them to adopt the leader's perspective or point of view (Schafer, 2010). Schafer (2010) goes beyond conventional views, asserting that leaders utilise various methods, extending beyond authoritarian methodologies. Erkutlu (2008) also contributes to the discourse by defining leadership as a social influence process that encompasses identifying and establishing objectives for a group or organisation, promoting behaviours that contribute to attaining these objectives and facilitating group cohesion and cultural development. At the same time, Amagoh characterises leadership as inspiring individuals to take action through methods that do not use coercion. In addition, he posits that leadership is an influence-based process that leads to goal achievement (Amagoh, 2009). Typically, leaders undertake such endeavours to establish the organisation and facilitate collaboration for mutually agreed-upon objectives.

Furthermore, leadership has been elucidated as "a dynamic process of effecting significant change, wherein individuals occupying positions of influence and control play a central role" (Manning & Robertson, 2011, p.89). Similarly, a leader is an individual who establishes a conducive working environment. The effectiveness of an organisation is reliant on the leader's productivity, personal qualities, positive mindset and problem-solving abilities. In essence, these factors collectively contribute to an individual's leadership capabilities (Shatali, 2011). In a similar vein, previous studies have highlighted the significance of a leader's capacity to remove obstacles for their subordinates (Howard & Irving, 2014). Besides, the concept of leadership has been delineated in a comparable yet more expansive manner, exemplified by definition proposed by Posner (2015 p.888), which characterises it as "the dynamic interplay between individuals who aspire to assume leadership roles and those who willingly elect to be guided."

According to Hyde-Clarke (2023), contemporary studies often define leadership as effectively influencing or persuading followers towards attaining a collective goal or objective. This goal can be achieved through value creation, inspiration and stimulation within the joint (Carvalho et al., 2022). These diverse perspectives contribute to a rich understanding of the multifaceted nature of leadership.

2.2.2 Leadership Potential

Organisations have been concerned with the identification and development of leadership potential for years (Cai et al., 2022). The significance of leadership potential in contemporary economic

interactions cannot be overstated (Pitelis & Wagner, 2019). The objective of fostering leadership potential is to ascertain the underlying principles that contribute to an organisation's efficiency (Shafique & Kalyar, 2018). However, there is a small but emerging body of empirical work in the area of defining leadership potential (Bhatnagar, 2007; Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2011; Jooss et al., 2021; Kotlyar, 2018; Marshall-Mies et al., 2000; Pearce et al., 2019; Vloeberghs et al., 2005). Correspondingly, there is a clear need for researchers to identify consistent, valid and theoretically meaningful ways to describe the qualities of leader potential and development in organisations (Badura et al., 2022; Troth & Gyetvey, 2014). Thus, this research intends to conceptualise and construct a solid definition of “Leadership Potential”.

Besides, “potential” is a complex and abstract term. It is often understood as a state that focuses towards the future, highlighting an individual's ability to do more in their professional progression. This is achieved by additional learning, growth and development, focusing on predicting the likelihood that an individual will be effective in a future position (Finkelstein et al., 2018). Furthermore, identifying potential typically does not involve aligning an individual with specific, immediate, well-defined jobs and duties. Instead, it entails forecasting the likelihood of an individual's future performance in often nonspecific tasks, considering their capacity for growth and development (Silzer & Borman, 2017, p. 89). Also, it has been explained as a latent opportunity for future professional growth and personal progress (Robledo-Ardila & Román-Calderón, 2022).

Moreover, the absence of leadership talent is one of the most significant concerns for organisations, especially identifying leadership potential among young people with little or no work experience (Kotlyar, 2018). Therefore, most organisations implemented high-potential employee programmes, planned to identify the most promising leadership candidates among their employees and develop them into influential leaders (Church & Rotolo, 2013; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Rob Silzer et al., 2016; Rob Silzer & Church, 2009).

It is essential to have managers understand and share the same leadership aspirations as their employees. Likewise, it is insufficient for managers to identify leadership potential unless employees themselves aspire to leadership positions. Being familiar with the complex expectations involved in recognising leadership potential could support and guide managers' conversations with employees about their future career planning and development (Troth & Gyetvey, 2014).

In defining the nature of leadership potential, several studies indicated that certain traits, such as drive, achievement motivation, desire to lead, prosocial influence motivation, self-confidence and cognitive ability, are predictive of which individuals emerge as potential leaders (House & Aditya, 1997;

Judge & Bono, 2000). Moreover, it was stated that “people who possess certain traits, which may include personality, motives, values, social and cognitive ability, have a greater leadership potential.” Thus, organisations identify and early recruit new grads possessing such traits and develop them into influential leaders (Luria et al., 2019; Zaccaro, 2007). On the other hand, an opposing definition of leadership potential pertains to a person learning new skills or improving current ones to perform in first-time situations (Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). Also, Silzer and Church (2009) mentioned that the talent that already exists in the organisation and the employees who can be effective in other future roles must be identified by being given broader responsibilities and higher levels in the hierarchy.

A similar study associated leadership potential with discovering the positive energy in each person to stimulate the best in every individual and develop the potential of everybody because this “energy” is a small assurance of the future. Thus, those who bring out the positive in every person and every context have the potential to be future leaders (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015). Furthermore, Troth and Gyetvey in 2014 mentioned that most organisations view performance as the important prerequisite for leadership potential identification; on the other hand, they suggested that for an employee to be considered as having leadership potential, they need to demonstrate elements of analytical ability, drive and emergent leadership, in addition to performance ratings. In recent studies, leadership potential has been defined as the degree to which an individual is regarded to have the potential to be a future leader (Luria et al., 2019; Steffens et al., 2018).

Furthermore, recent studies have sought to identify leadership in which formal leaders are more likely to be effective (Oc, 2018; Zaccaro et al., 2018). However, this study departs from that line of research by focusing on contexts in which employees high in leadership predictors and traits will be more likely to be perceived as potential future leaders before achieving formal leadership positions. Thus, the identification process is essential as it involves looking for early signs of those predictors in those less experienced, meaning those with informal leadership (Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). Accordingly, various stakeholders might be able to identify leadership potential, such as top management, human resource officers, line managers and the talented employee himself/herself (Dries & Pepermans, 2012;Silzer & Church, 2009).

2.2.3 Leadership Potential Indicators

Organisations are more familiar with making talent calls based on supervisory performance judgements rather than using main indicators of leadership potential, such as personality characteristics and cognitive and learning ability (Lacey & Groves, 2014). On the contrary, studies have

stated that current job performance is not a reliable predictor of potential (Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). However, companies are still most comfortable relying on job performance as the main indicator of Leadership Potential while using performance appraisals and managerial ratings in deciding future leaders (Briscoe & Hall, 1999; Dries et al., 2012; Juhdi et al., 2015; Posthumus et al., 2016). Nevertheless, Leadership Potential is more than current and previous job performance (Church & Silzer, 2014; Knoll & Sternad, 2021; Miller & Desmarais, 2007). Some researchers criticise the overreliance on performance evaluations to identify Leadership Potential, arguing that individuals typically require different skill sets and broader responsibilities in future leadership roles (Greer & Virick, 2008 ;Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). Even though performance might be high, it does not necessarily mean the person is the right fit for a leadership role. Thus, leadership potential needs not be driven by performance expectations. Still, instead, it is by the potential to be a leader, that is, to occupy a leadership position and influence your colleagues so that they are motivated to contribute to shared goals (Steffens et al., 2018).

Most leadership frameworks and models developed for identifying Leadership Potential deem traits as a foundation for leadership, such as Church and Silzer, who proposed a three-level pyramid framework for identifying Leadership Potential, where the foundational building blocks are composed of traits, including personality characteristics and cognitive capabilities “Foundational Dimensions” and learning ability and motivation “Growth Dimensions”. The top level of the pyramid includes leadership and functional/technical skills, “Career Dimensions”, the most developable ones (Church & Silzer, 2014, p. 54,55).

Also, individual characteristics, power resources, and situational factors play complex roles in predicting potential leaders (Zacharatos et al., 2000). Another predictor is adjustment, which is becoming used to a new situation (Luria et al., 2019, p. 3). It is a common predictor in studies of Leadership Potential (Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). Likewise, cognitive ability, or intelligence, is a well-established relevant dimension in identifying Leadership Potential (Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Rob Silzer et al., 2016). Other studies associated Leadership Potential with other indicators; for example,employees with high motivation are perceived to have higher leadership potential (Dries & Pepermans, 2012). Also, indicators such as employee level of problem-solving, engagement and aspiration to make decisions are highly considered predictors of leadership potential (Rob Silzer & Church, 2009). Moreover, an employee’s ability to deal with increasing complexities and ambiguity is also a critical indicator of Leadership Potential (Troth & Gyetvey, 2014).

Furthermore, Dries and Pepermans (2012) constructed a two-dimensional model that considers the multifaceted nature of the Leadership Potential. The first dimension is labelled conation versus cognition, “heart versus head”. While conation focuses on drive, motivation and action, cognition highlights the analytical skills the employee holds. The second dimension is extrapersonal versus intrapersonal, “context versus self”. The extrapersonal side represents the interaction of the individual with the external environment, while the intrapersonal side focuses on the individual’s inner life. Essentially, this two-dimensional model consists of four quadrants: analytical skills, learning agility, drive and emergent leadership, all considered essential qualities for leadership potential (Dries & Pepermans, 2012, p. 364).

In light of these empirical studies, it is intriguing that polarising ideas surrounding whether leaders are born or made are still as prevalent as ever (Marcy, 2023). It might be suggested that this phenomenon is mainly attributed to the limited dissemination of more profound research findings, which have not yet reached a consensus. Nevertheless, it can be argued that while individuals possess no definitive innate qualities from birth that directly determine their leadership potential, having specific traits is crucial, although not entirely indispensable, for individuals to succeed in leadership (Marques, 2010). That said, it is essential to acknowledge that a significant portion of an individual's overall leadership potential is attributed to acquiring skills that can be learned and developed (Marcy, 2023). Therefore, this study considers both perspectives' innate predictors, such as an employee’s emotional intelligence, along with learning skills, such as Talent Management Practices, that ought to develop employee skills. Additionally, the study explores the impact of social media, a social aspect, on individuals' lives in the present day.

2.3 Generational Leadership

Understanding intergenerational differences in various contexts, especially the workplace, is becoming an increasingly popular topic of study (Galdames & Guihen, 2022). The origin of the concept of Generational Cohort Theory can be attributed to Karl Mannheim's concept of the "generation unit", as explained in his book on the sociological dilemma of Generations Mannheim in 1952 (Mannheim, 2013). There are two perspectives on generational cohort theory. According to the social forces perspective, individuals are within complex, interrelated communities that change over time (Gilleard, 2004). The cohort perspective defines generations as a collective of individuals connected by their experiences of similar life events within a specific historical period (Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Tang et al., 2017). The dominant viewpoint in the academic literature suggests that differences among social

generations are commonly observed in organisational settings. As a result, they form a crucial foundation for most research on generational dynamics and the development of collective generational identities (Lyons & Kuron, 2014).

Moreover, the theory of generational cohorts is based on the premise that significant historical events and societal developments during an individual's formative years impact their values, attitudes, beliefs and inclinations (Moss, 2016). According to Ryder, (1985), it can be observed that each cohort maintains internal consistency. In contrast, consecutive cohorts are distinguished by the evolving context of formal education, peer-group socialisation and unique historical experiences. Furthermore, individuals with collective personalities and similar life pathways tend to share the same values and traits (McKercher, 2023).

On the contrary, the Age Period Cohort model is an opposing perspective within the behavioural change field. Bell (2020) acknowledges the influence of generational factors on individuals' attitudes and behaviours, which change as individuals age. This model presents an alternative explanation for the significant impact of age differences, which may be distinct from disagreements based on generations (Fosse & Winship, 2019). While it acknowledges the importance of generations on core beliefs and attitudes, it also challenges that the historical period in which something occurs and the age of the individual at that time are essential (Rudolph et al., 2021).

However, considering the collective findings from the research on generational differences, it becomes evident that today's workforce exhibits distinct characteristics (Anderson et al., 2017). New generations introduce novel ideas, behaviours and perspectives towards longstanding issues that have concerned us (Anderson et al., 2017), which debunks the age period cohort theory (Rudolph et al., 2021). Therefore, recent studies have substantiated that generational experiences play a significant role in shaping the perspectives on leadership within distinct cohorts (Brachle & McElravy, 2023). Hence, this research adopts the generational cohort theory to comprehend contemporary leaders' characteristics and behaviours precisely compared to past generations'. This is due to the recognition that there are differences in traits and behaviours throughout different generational cohorts, while focusing on the millennial age in particular since recent studies have claimed that millennials differ slightly from the preceding Generation X in their work beliefs and characteristics (Rank & Contreras, 2021; Wolor et al., 2021).

2.3.1 Millennials

In exploring the nature of leadership potential, this study focuses on the millennial generation in the work environment as they are the heart of all contemporary organisations and comprise the most recent generation who are presently employed and actively participating in the labour market (Brachle & McElravy, 2023; Marques, 2013). While millennials in the workplace have gained attention in academic studies and popular media, there is a noticeable dearth of empirical evidence on millennials and their job-related characteristics (Galdames & Guihen, 2022). Also, no academic consensus exists regarding this generational cohort's exact birth date ranges and names (Bolton et al., 2013; Brachle & McElravy, 2023; Galdames & Guihen, 2022). Due to the vast array of names that have been proposed, such as Baby Boom Echo, Echo Boomers, Generation Y, Gen Y'ers, Generation Yers, Millennials, Net Generation, Nexters, nGen, Generation Me, Gen Me and the "Selfie" Generation are some of the names that are employed (Anderson et al., 2017; Salahuddin, 2010; Taylor & Stein, 2014; Twenge et al., 2010). Accordingly, this study follows the categorisation of millennial individuals who were born between 1981 and 2000s (Naderi & Van Steenburg, 2018; van Breda et al., 2023; Zyed et al., 2021).

As baby boomers retire and millennials enter and dominate the workforce in most organisations, it is becoming vital for leaders to learn more about this generation's personal traits, job satisfaction and organisational commitment levels (Kaifi et al., 2012; Lyons & Kuron 2014). Also, there is a dearth of empirical studies regarding the profiling of millennial employees; most studies were on millennial students (Naim & Lenka, 2018; Putriastuti & Stasi, 2019). Hence, there is a need to study the working millennial population. Illustrative of the scope, it was stated that “Millennials generation worldwide is more similar in characteristic features to one another than other generations within their nations”, highlighting the similarities of traits and behaviour in such a generation (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015,p.856). Thus, it is evident that organisations must start learning and understanding the millennials.

Millennials are over-ambitious and like to challenge the status quo. The fact that they are ambitious and voraciously curious to explore new things highlights their eagerness to learn new things every day, and it is shown as a driving force inside organisations (Twenge, 2010). One of the easiest ways to manage their eagerness is to update them frequently with all the organisational, team and work-related information. Organisations must constantly communicate with millennial employees (Chillakuri & Mogili, 2018; MacKenzie & Scherer, 2019). Also, their teamwork spirit allows them to build partnerships and working relationships quickly (Young et al., 2006). Additionally, millennials are considered risk-taking individuals who are remarkably different from previous generations (Naim & Lenka, 2018).

Moreover, one of the main characteristics of millennial employees is their need for learning and development, as they value continuous learning opportunities (Lub et al., 2012). Therefore, millennial employees want to continuously upgrade their knowledge and competencies to stay viable in the talent market (Naim, 2014). In addition, they are detail-oriented and gather as much information as possible; they engage in discussions with people who share the same thoughts and ideas and often exhibit intolerance to incompatible beliefs (Chillakuri & Mogili, 2018). Besides, millennials perceive staying in one job as a failure: they are seeking fast promotions and new challenges. Also, they aim for clarity in roles, promotions, goals and rules (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015).

Most importantly, millennials have more knowledge about media and digital technology. The use of technology is essential and appears to be the key to ensuring knowledge transfer (Becker, 2009). Besides, they want constant feedback (Chillakuri & Mogili, 2018), and they are so autonomous that they have less respect for hierarchical structures in workplaces, mainly if actions are not well structured or supported (Howe & Strauss, 2009; MacKenzie & Scherer, 2019). On the other hand, organisations need to understand this generation's less favourable traits, such as millennials' lack of tolerance for delays. They expect information, feedback, results, teamwork achievements, personal promotions and interpersonal relationships in the fastest way possible (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015). Similarly, millennials are uncertain of any long-term commitment as they are like “grasshoppers” “jumping from one side to another.” They barely stay long-term at any organisation; they love change and hate routine (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015, p. 857). Finally, Hartman and McCambridge 2011 stated that millennials are overconfident in themselves.

2.3.2 Millennial leadership potential

Prior academic debate has often concentrated on millennials as follower groups and has predominantly addressed techniques to foster, acquire and retain young professionals (Martin & Warshawsky, 2017). Despite the fact that the eldest millennium will pass 41 in 2023, relatively little is known about the millennial generation as leaders; therefore, leadership development and succession planning are crucial (Galdames & Guihen, 2022).

The existing body of research has primarily focused on investigating the responsibilities that individuals belonging to the millennial generation undertake in their capacities as employees and followers (Graybill, 2014). While there is emerging evidence suggesting increased involvement of the millennial generation in leadership roles, the need for further empirical study in this domain remains a subject of ongoing debate (Al-Asfour & Lettau, 2014). Understanding the leadership competencies of

millennials is crucial for tailoring professional development opportunities and developing strategies and policies to improve recruitment and retention practices (Galdames & Guihen, 2022).

Millennials are not only increasingly gaining positions in the workforce but are also achieving leadership positions (Murray, 2011). Thus, organisations are shifting towards identifying leadership talent earlier; some companies are introducing “new grad” programs aimed at detecting Leadership Potential (LP) in the early stages by making it a part of their university recruitment. Therefore, organisations are effectively hiring new graduates with little or no employment records and defining them as “high potentials” before onboarding them (Kotlyar, 2018).

Likewise, identifying leadership talent early can benefit organisations, as it may allow them to start nurturing leaders earlier, build leadership capabilities quicker and facilitate more effective allocation of resources to support leadership development (Kotlyar, 2018). Also, organisations have taken initiatives to leverage the knowledge and experience of leaders approaching retirement by pairing them with millennial employees with leadership potential to nurture and develop their competencies further (Troth & Gyetvey, 2014).

One of the critical attributes of millennial leaders is their vision (Graybill, 2014) and their capability of multitasking and organisational project spanning compared to those of previous generations (Murray, 2011). Also, millennials exhibit a preference for several aspects, such as autonomy, flexibility, constructive discourse, transparent communication with both superiors and peers, as well as the utilisation of technology, accepting diversity and teamwork, all this while valuing work-life balance (Farhan, 2021; Wolor et al., 2021). The aforementioned characteristics are mandatory for future leadership, which implies the generation's readiness to take on leadership roles.

Moreover, leadership for millennials indicates positive leadership development by putting forward what is good through appropriate experiences, which requires the involvement of the new leader. Such experiences are attractive because of their challenges, adequate context and cordial presence. The aim of such experiences is the growth of young leaders and winning the hearts of new leaders and people by bringing out the best they have within them and preparing them for the future through a solid formation (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015).

2.4 Emotional intelligence

2.4.1 The Historical Development of Emotional Intelligence

Early studies have been characterising emotion as chaotic, haphazard and something to outgrow; however, Leeper in 1948 suggested that emotions are primarily motivating forces; they are processes which arouse, sustain and direct activity (Leeper, 1948) However, modern theorists of emotion, such Mandler (1975) and Simon (1985,) have been viewing emotions as organised responses, crossing the boundaries of many psychological subsystems, including the physiological, cognitive, motivational and experiential systems (in Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Later on, management scholars, educators and development practitioners have evidenced marked interest in profoundly understanding emotions in the workplace for more than a decade (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Since this statement, Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been an important concept that needs to be studied and developed by many researchers.

The concept of EI is rooted in early works on emotions and social intelligence. EI research, rooted in social intelligence, has been evident for over 50 years (Schumacher, Wheeler and Carr, 2009). The foundation of EI can be drawn back to Thorndike (1920); Moss and Hunt (1927), Guilford (1956) Vernon(1933); and Gardner's (1983) when they all started their work on social intelligence (in Carmeli, Yitzhak-Halevy, & Weisberg, 2009). Social intelligence was defined by Thorndike in 1920 as "the ability to understand and relate to people" (Fatt, 2002, p. 57).

In 1980, Hilgard stated that the origin of emotional intelligence works in three ways: cognition, effect and motivation. The part of cognition consists of functions such as human memory, reasoning, judgment and thought. The effect consists of emotions, moods, evaluations and other feelings. Lastly, motivation is related to personality, which includes biological needs or learned goal-seeking behaviour. The first two parts, cognition and affect, comprise EI (Hilgard, 1980). Despite all the history and the interest in emotional intelligence, it was not until the early 1990s that the concept of emotional intelligence was given particular attention (Zeidner et al., 2004). Especially over the past decade, emotional intelligence has grown in academic and professional domains (Collado-Soler et al., 2023).

2.4.2 Emotional Intelligence Theoretical Background and Dimensions

Various conceptualisations of emotional intelligence (EI) have been proposed by researchers, with Salovey and Mayer's definition being influential and widely adopted (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). These models can be broadly categorised as either ability or mixed models. Ability models strictly define

emotional intelligence as a set of abilities related to emotions and emotional information processing, while mixed models incorporate abilities, personality traits, motivational factors and other concepts (Goleman, 1998; Mayer et al., 1999).

Bagshaw (2000) defined EI as the capacity to recognise and manage emotions, emphasising the efficient connection of emotions for business success. Palmer et al. (2001) described EI as a set of abilities related to dealing with feelings in oneself and others. Mayer and Salovey (1993) characterised EI as a social intelligence involving the ability to monitor and use emotions for guiding thinking and actions, covering four domains: identifying, using, understanding and regulating emotions.

Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) emphasised that EI comprises personal, emotional and social abilities, regulating an individual's functioning in their environment. Bardzil and Slaski (2003) noted individual differences in processing, regulating and managing emotional information. EI involves perceiving, understanding and controlling one's and others' emotions, integrating them with thoughts and actions (Bardzil & Slaski, 2003; Carmeli et al., 2009; Giorgi, 2013; Moon, 2010; Naderi Anari, 2012).

Morehouse (2007) argued that natural intelligence includes emotional and social elements. EI is the ability to perceive, appraise and express emotions, generate feelings that facilitate thought, understand emotions and reflectively regulate them for emotional and intellectual growth. Riggio and Reichard (2008) compared EI to verbal intelligence, highlighting its broader scope, including social and emotional skills.

EI is considered a subset of social intelligence, involving the ability to monitor and use emotions to guide thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It contributes to personal development, effectiveness and relationships (Schumacher et al., 2009). EI involves interrelated emotional and social competencies, determining how individuals understand and express themselves, relate to others and cope with daily demands (Stein et al., 2009).

Moon (2010) described EI as "a different way of being smart," combining skills and abilities to affect efficacy and performance positively. Meisler (2014) argued that EI blends intellectual intelligence and emotion to enhance understanding and guide thought and action.

EI is " the aggregate capacity of an individual to act purposefully, reason and deal effectively with their environment" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.186). Developing EI skills involves understanding and expressing emotions, recognising them in self and others, regulating effect and using emotions to motivate adaptive behaviours. This is the conceptualisation that this study will adopt. Finally, a lack of

emotional intelligence can lead to various problems, making it crucial for individuals to cultivate these skills.

2.4.3 Contemporary Conceptions of Emotional Intelligence and its Transitions

In recent studies, Emotional Intelligence (EI) has been recognised as a factor that enhances an individual's capacity to effectively regulate emotions and navigate their impact within the relationship and social contexts (Molero Jurado et al., 2019). Thus, it has been recognised as a resource within the context of career development (Pirsoul et al., 2023).

Moreover, contemporary integrative models emphasise evaluating emotionally intelligent behaviour, which arises from the interplay of three distinct elements: ability emotional intelligence, trait emotional intelligence and emotion information processing. These components interact with each other and possess the capacity to individually predict various outcomes (Fiori et al., 2022). In terms of developmental progression, it has been observed that emotional intelligence exhibits greater flexibility during the period spanning late childhood (around 10-11 years of age) to emerging adulthood (approximately 24-25 years of age) (Dave et al., 2021). Conversely, a notable level of stability in emotional intelligence has been evidenced during the transition from emerging adulthood (17-25 years of age) to middle age (with an average age of 34.5) (Pirsoul et al., 2023). Nevertheless, a collection of interventional studies suggests that enhancing emotional intelligence is achievable into adulthood (Hodzic et al., 2018). Hence, this research has chosen to concentrate on the millennial generation, encompassing individuals aged 23 to 42 in 2023. This age range falls within the middle adulthood or late-emerging adulthood stage, during which individuals often acquire emotional intelligence through their accumulated life experiences. Finally, this study defines emotional intelligence as the extent to which individuals identify, understand, express, regulate and use their emotions and the emotions of others (Parmentier et al., 2019).

2.4.4 Emotional Intelligence Measurement Models

There exists a lack of consensus regarding the dimensions and measurements of emotional intelligence (Ogurlu, 2021). Thus, emotional intelligence is difficult to measure (Bagshaw, 2000). As most existing emotional intelligence measures rely on a self-report test to measure individuals' emotional intelligence that triggers social desirability responses, this makes it even more complex and unreliable in some cases (Jang et al., 2023). However, over the years, many models were developed to measure EI, among which are some main models that are currently available, such as the Multifactor

Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) (Mayer et al., 1999); the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000 in Mueller & Curhan, 2006); the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) (Goleman, 1998); the Emotion-Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) (Bar-On, Brown, Kirkcaldy, & Thomé, 2000); the Emotional Intelligence Quotient (EIQ)(Dulewicz & Higgs, 1999); the Emotional Quotient Map (EQ-MAP) (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997 in Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2006); the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) (Schutte et al., 1998); the Swinburne Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT/Genos EI Assessment) (Palmer et al., 2001); the Trait Meta Mood Scale (TMMS) (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995); the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP) (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Hooper, 2002); Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form (TEIQue-SF) (Petrides, 2009) and finally the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Wong & Law, 2002; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). The WLEIS model will be utilised in this study because of its suitability for application in leadership and management research (Wong & Law, 2002).

The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) is one of the many scales used to measure EI (Wong & Law, 2002; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). This 16-item self-report scale is consistent with Mayer and Salovey's definition of EI (Meisler, 2014) and is based on the ability model presented by these scholars (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Dansereau et al., 1975; Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Whitman et al., 2009). The WLEIS was initially developed in the Far East (Hong Kong in China,) and its four-factor structure has been supported in China and other countries. Also, the WLEIS was explicitly designed for use in organisations (Wong & Law, 2002; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004), and it was found to be a better predictor of leadership compared to other scales, like the MSCEIT, the task-based test of EI (Oztimurlenk, 2020; Samul, 2020; White & Schafer, 2023). WLEIS is also similar to Mayer and Salovey's four branches of ability mode; the scale includes four dimensions: self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, regulation of emotion and use of emotion; items were answered on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Recent studies have tested and retested this scale in different cultures, ethnic and gender groups (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Shi & Wang, 2007; Carvalho et al., 2016; Fino et al., 2023; Iliceto & Fino, 2017; Libbrecht et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2011) and established it as a good measure with complete validity and reliability. Following previous research (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Meisler, 2014), the four EI dimensions were combined into a single EI measure by computing an average score for the 16 items.

2.4.4.1 Self-Emotions Appraisal (SEA)

Emotional intelligence allows for the accurate appraisal and expression of feelings. These emotional appraisals, in turn, determine various expressions of emotion. Thus, emotional intelligence processes are initiated when loaded information enters the individual's perceptual system (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Such emotionally intelligent individuals can also respond more appropriately to their feelings because they perceive them accurately. Those who are more accurate about their feelings can more quickly sense and respond to their emotions and better express them to others (Mayer & Salovey, 1993).

In other studies, the self-emotion dimension is "an individual's self-perceived ability to understand his or her emotions"(Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008, p.715). This pertains to an individual's capacity to comprehend their profound emotions and effectively genuinely articulate them. Individuals with exceptional aptitude in this dimension will effectively perceive and recognise their emotions well ahead of most individuals (Santos et al., 2018). Additionally, individuals with good self-emotion appraisals have a good sense of why they have certain feelings and can define them (Kim et al., 2012).

2.4.4.2 Other's Emotion Appraisal (OEA)

Research has significantly focused on self-emotion appraisal, ignoring the importance of Other's Emotion Appraisals (OEA), although individuals must be able to perceive emotions not only in themselves but also in those around them. Individuals who possess a high level of this particular emotion capacity will exhibit heightened sensitivity towards the feelings and thoughts of others (Wong & Law, 2002). In Mayer and Salovey's study in 1993, they explained other's emotion appraisal and expression as the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself. Such skills enable individuals to gauge accurately the affective responses in others and to choose socially adaptive behaviours in response (Mayer & Salovey, 1993).

Likewise, it pertains to the ability to understand and demonstrate sensitivity towards the feelings of others (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Santos et al., 2018). Simply, OEA is when an individual understands their encounter emotions from monitoring their behaviour.

2.4.4.3 Use Of Emotion (UOE)

Early studies by Salovey and Mayer in 1989 linked emotions to problem-solving by stating that moods and emotions systematically influence some of the components and strategies involved in

problem-solving, as individuals can harness their own emotions to solve problems (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Moreover, emotion mainly concerns the self-perceived tendency to motivate oneself to enhance performance (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008).

In Karim and Weisz's study, they explained the use of emotion dimension as "integrating emotional information into everyday tasks involving planning, interpersonal interactions, motivation, decision making and problem-solving, as well as recognising how emotional experiences influence one's thoughts" (Karim & Weisz, 2010 p.377). They also described that a person, when using emotions, impacts their cognitive processes, which requires them to have the ability to organise their appropriate emotions and feelings to assist them in certain mental activities, such as reasoning, problem-solving and decision-making, hence enhancing their performance.

Furthermore, the use of emotion dimension has been defined as an individual's ability to make use of their emotions by directing them toward constructive activities to facilitate performance (Kim et al., 2012). In more recent studies, the use of emotions has been referred to as the ability to use emotions to influence performance and action (Santos et al., 2018).

2.4.4.4 Regulation Of Emotion (ROE)

Previous studies have defined the regulation of emotions as the conscious, effortful regulation of one's own and others' emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In other words, emotion regulation is the process by which people influence which emotions they have and how they experience them (Gross & John, 1998). People with a solid ability to manage emotions have good emotional self-control. They tend to be calm, think clearly when experiencing strong feelings, make decisions based on their hearts and heads and reflect on their emotions often (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). It has been suggested that emotion regulation is the tool that assists people in easing stress (Karim & Weisz, 2010). This applies to the talents utilised to regulate one's emotions, such as regulating one's temper or facilitating speedy recovery from a state (Santos et al., 2018).

Moreover, emotion regulation helps in creating and maintaining positive affective states (Joseph & Newman, 2010). Most of the time, people strive to maintain positive emotions, though effective regulation of emotions requires experiencing all positive or negative emotions (Karim & Weisz, 2010). As Karim and Weisz explained, those negative emotions do not simply convey the news that something in one's life is not going well. Instead, it sometimes provides the motivation and perhaps even the tools that allow corrections.

Correspondingly, emotionally intelligent individuals embrace a full range of emotions; therefore, they can better understand and regulate their emotions and choose the relevant or appropriate emotions to be expressed in their situation. Besides, emotionally intelligent people reflectively monitor their feelings in relation to themselves and others (Mayer et al., 2004).

In sum, in this part, we have emphasized EI as an essential predictor of LP and the sub-dimensions that this study adopts. Next, we will discuss Talent Management as an organisational variable.

2.5 What is Talent?

In the past two decades, Talent Management (TM) has become a core part of managerial and organisational practices (McDonnell, 2011; McDonnell et al., 2017). This dates back to 1997 when a group at McKinsey and Company first introduced the term "war of talent" to respond to the challenges faced by employers in terms of the shortage of highly skilled employees in the marketplace (Michaels et al., 2001). Accordingly, the talent of the employees has become one of the most important intangible assets (Maqueira et al., 2019). However, in the talent literature, there has been a lack of consensus about defining the term talent, how to identify talent and how talent is managed by organisations (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Höglund, 2012; Mäkelä et al., 2010; McDonnell et al., 2017).

Previous studies have defined talent in several ways; some authors have explained it in terms of a mixture of abilities, attitudes, knowledge and skills (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Michaels et al., 2001; Silzer & Dowell, 2010, p. 14; Ulrich & Smallwood, 201). Others have related it to behaviour that is done more efficiently and creatively than others (Buckingham & Vosburgh, 2001), more precisely as an individual's level of development in an activity (Azma et al., 2019). Also, some have referred to it as human capital in the organisation (De Vos & Dries, 2013), individual difference, giftedness, identity and strength (Dries, 2013). Further vetted, talent is often related to employees' most valuable and performance-oriented competencies (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Tansley, 2011).

Over the years, there have been two significant debates in talent literature: whether talent is considered innate or acquired, in other words born or made, nature or nurture (Meyers et al., 2013). Also, whether talent refers to personal characteristics, such as knowledge or competencies known as an object approach, or to people themselves as a subject approach (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Thunnissen et al., 2013). Accordingly, two talent philosophies have evolved, known as inclusive and exclusive approaches (Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Mensah, 2015; Thunnissen et al., 2013). These talent philosophies are "the fundamental assumptions and beliefs about the nature, value and instrumentality of talent held by a firm's key decision-makers" (Meyers & van Woerkom, 2014, p. 192). The inclusive

approach refers to “the art of recognising where each employee's areas of natural talent lie, and figuring out how to help each employee develop the job-specific skills and knowledge to turn those talents into real performance” (Buckingham & Vosburgh, 2001, p. 22); this means that inclusive approach includes all employees inside the organisation and considers them all as talented individuals. On the other hand, an exclusive approach is built on the premise that some people are inherently more capable than others; simply, it views talented employees as a selected subset of the organisation’s employees (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Iles et al., 2010; Mensah, 2015; Thunnissen et al., 2013). The reason behind this academic interest is that these talent philosophies influence the talent management practices that the organisation will adopt; simply, the management of talented employees inside the organisation is influenced by how the organisation perceives talent and the adopted approach (Meyers et al., 2019).

In a related vein, the adopted philosophy tends to shift the organisation's talent management practices in a particular direction by spending more on certain practices than others. For example, an exclusive approach makes an organisation focus more on recruitment and selection and allocate 90% of their resources to 5% of their employees (Dries, 2013). On the contrary, an inclusive approach focuses more on training and development as well as promotion directed at the majority of employees inside the organisation, leading to a better working environment and overall employee well-being but less profit and return on investment compared to the exclusive approach (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Meyers et al., 2013). This research takes a subject and inclusive approach by viewing talent as skilled employees who need identification and development to transfer those competencies to success.

2.5.1 Talent Management

Since TM is concerned with managing talents, finding a universal definition for TM is difficult because its foundation is interdisciplinary with previous research themes such as Human Resource Management (HRM) and succession planning (Othman & Khalil, 2018). Also, the inconsistency in defining talent in the literature has been reflected in the discrepancy in defining the concept of talent management, resulting in a lack of consensus around determining TM and the presence of a wide variety of conflicting approaches to the field (Iles et al., 2010; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Preece et al., 2011; Tarique & Schuler, 2010)

Although the definitions of talent and TM approaches vary significantly across studies, there is widespread agreement among the researchers on the relevance of ‘talent’ as a critical source of

competitive advantage for the twenty-first-century organisation (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Vaiman et al., 2012). This reflects the view that TM is mainly meant to fulfil the quantitative and qualitative human capital needs and contribute to the overall firm performance in terms of profit, competitive advantage and sustainability (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Collings, 2014).

Numerous businesses have opted to rename their human resource management structure in response to the emergence of the phrase "talent management" and its perceived credibility. Nevertheless, there is a lack of differentiation between talent management and traditional human resource management, leading to accusations that liken it to a mere rebranding of existing practices. Human resource management encompasses a broad range of practices pertaining to employees, while talent management is a specific strategic approach that targets high-potential or talented employees (Akanda et al., 2021; Su et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2021)

Despite the fragmentation of the TM concept, most literature studies revolved around three perspectives; the first perspective replaces the traditional Human Resource Management (HRM) approach by comprising the conventional HR practices and functions that focus on all types of employees: recruitment, selection, performance management, development and career planning (Heinen & O'Neill, 2004; Iles et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2012; Lewis & Heckman, 2006). This perspective has caused debate about the added value of talent management over traditional HRM approaches by labelling talent management as just another management fad (Iles, Preece, & Chuai, 2010). On the other hand, others explain that in TM, managing talented employees effectively requires using alternative practices that are qualitatively different from baseline HR practices within the organisation (McDonnell et al., 2017). The importance here is viewing talent management as a continuous process, not an intervention in a limited time (Azma et al., 2019).

However, the second perspective focuses on talented employees, where TM is defined as "a set of processes designed to ensure an adequate flow of employees into jobs throughout the organisation" (Iles et al., 2010, p.181; Lewis & Heckman, 2006, p.140). Furthermore, the third perspective concentrates on talent generically by linking talent with performance, hence focusing solely on high performers inside the organisation regardless of the organisational boundaries or their positions (Iles et al., 2010; Jones et al., 2012; Lewis & Heckman, 2006).

Other previous researchers viewed TM slightly differently than the three perspectives; Jackson and Schuler (1990) defined TM as selecting the most suitable person for the job at the given time, whereas Rothwell, in 2005 (p.17), associated TM with leadership continuity. Later, Pascal, in 2004 related the importance of TM to properly managing the supply, demand and flow of talent. Also, Ashton

and Morton (2005) described TM as combining different activities into a coherent activity framework. Furthermore, it was recently proposed that "TM should be concerned with understanding where value is added in organisations by human capital, how talented individuals influence organisational performance and also how talent practice can maximise the contributions of those individuals" (McDonnell et al., 2017, p. 116)

Based on all the aforementioned, TM has escaped a standard definition applied to all studies (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Accordingly, this study adopts Collings and Mellahi's comprehensive conceptualisation of the TM concept as a three-step process: "the identification of key strategic positions within the organisation that definitively and significantly contribute to the organisation's competitive advantage, then the development of a pool of qualified candidates and finally the recognition of the importance of differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate the process of filling key positions" (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 305,306).

2.5.2 Talent Management Practices

Talent management practices comprise a wide range of human resource strategies, policies and practices focused on efficient talent management (Zyed et al., 2021). The existing body of scholarly literature has primarily focused on three critical practices: talent attraction, talent development and talent retention (Tarique & Schuler, 2010; Thunnissen et al., 2013). However, our investigation expands the scope to include four practices implemented in Multinational Corporations (MNCs). Based on Jayaraman et al.'s (2018) classification, four practices were identified: *Identifying critical positions, competence training, development and reward management.*

2.5.2.1 Identifying Critical Positions (ICP)

The initial phase in any talent management process is identifying and developing individuals with exceptional abilities (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Organisations acknowledge the necessity of establishing individual positions and duties within their organisational structures. The differentiation of jobs is based on the varying levels of impact that those positions have on organisational success. Accordingly, organisations prioritise strategic positions above nonstrategic roles (Jayaraman et al., 2018).

The number of talents is emphasised by the significance of identifying crucial jobs that have the potential to significantly influence organisational outcomes and enhance the competitive advantage of firms (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005). Therefore, scholars in talent management argue that it is crucial to

establish a talent pool by identifying and recruiting individuals with outstanding abilities for critical positions. This is necessary to foster the behaviours vital for achieving optimal organisational performance.

2.5.2.2 Competence Training (CT)

When an organisation recognises that the knowledge base of its employees is a significant factor in distinguishing itself from competitors and gaining a competitive advantage, it is justifiable for the organisation to invest substantial resources towards training and developing the specific skills that are essential for achieving this competitive edge (Anlesinya et al., 2019). Therefore, the dedication to training efforts is viewed as a strategic investment to build organisational competence by developing competency-based Human Resources (HR). This strategy entails differentiating organisations based on their unique competencies and cultivating a network of interrelated behaviours. Training performs a double function by improving job-specific abilities, equipping talented employees for career advancement and adapting to changing job requirements in response to dynamic changes in the business landscape (Jayaraman et al., 2018).

On the other hand, it is essential to note that the presence of skilled and capable personnel within organisations may not be adequate for dealing with this dynamic environment or the challenges posed. Thus, to maintain competitiveness in the market, organisations must continuously enhance the competencies and capabilities of their talented employees (Mujtaba et al., 2022).

2.5.2.3 Development (DEV)

Development is a perpetual process linked to enhancing knowledge, attitude, behaviour and values among prospective employees. Moreover, the concept of development encompasses a broader scope than training, as competence training focuses on enhancing the skills of the current job. However, the development emphasises the skills needed to meet future requirements (Jayaraman et al., 2018). Thus, training constitutes an integral component of the developmental process (Tlaiss, 2021).

Moreover, talent development is defined as “focusing on the planning, selection and implementation of development strategies for the entire talent pool to ensure that the organisation has both the current and future supply of talent to meet the strategic objectives and that development activities are aligned with organisational talent management processes”(Garavan et al., 2012, p. 6). Also, development encompasses receiving feedback and establishing distinct career pathways that align

with the specified talent requirements, considering individuals' capabilities and performance (Collins & Clark, 2003).

When the development plan is well-matched with talent, it substantially attains an organisation's strategic objectives (Chaudhuri et al., 2018).

2.5.2.4 Reward Management (RM)

Reward Management (RM) system encompasses a set of rules, practices, processes and procedures (Jayaraman et al., 2018). Thus, reward management encompasses intrinsic and extrinsic rewards because employees may have varying preferences regarding seeking value (Mahaney & Lederer, 2006). In employment, intrinsic rewards encompass several factors, such as opportunities for personal development and professional advancement, confidence, engaging and stimulating tasks and a supportive organisational environment (Honig-Haftel & Martin, 1993). On the other hand, extrinsic rewards encompass various forms of compensation, such as competitive salaries, pay raises, incentive bonuses, variable pay and the social environment inside an organisation (Cox, 2005).

Consequently, the interplay between internal and extrinsic motivational elements is mutually reinforcing, leading to improved individual performance. Therefore, reward management (RM) plays a significant role in talent management (Jayaraman et al., 2018).

2.6 Social Media

A distinctive phenomenon that has characterised the twenty-first century is the rise, expansion and enduring influence of Social Media (SM). Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) defined social media SM as a collection of Internet-based apps built around Web, the principles and technology of Web 2.0. These applications enable users to develop and share information amongst themselves. Also, SM can be described as “any online service through which users can create and share a variety of content” (Bolton et al., 2013, p. 248). Social Media tools include user-generated services, such as blogs, social networking platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, YouTube and LinkedIn, online review and rating sites, virtual game worlds, video-sharing sites and online communities (Krishnamurthy & Dou, 2008). The widespread adoption of social media platforms has resulted in a significant number of individuals, amounting to billions, becoming social media users (Matthews et al., 2022)

Hence, in today's age of digitalisation, individuals engage in face-to-face interactions and employ various social media platforms, with the majority using Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, LinkedIn, YouTube and WhatsApp as means of communication (Yigiter et al., 2023). Therefore, SM has altered

the way people interact with each other (Olanrewaju et al., 2020). In addition to the general population, leaders have increasingly turned to social media platforms to communicate with others. According to the study conducted by Matthews et al. (2022), social media platforms play a crucial role in facilitating the leadership process by creating psychological groups and establishing associated norms. Consequently, these platforms empower millions of individuals to participate in collective action, both in the digital realm and real-world settings (Uysal et al., 2022). In this light, social media is considered a crucial factor that influences employee developmental aspects and is used by organisations to help engage and retain employees (Bolton et al., 2013; Reitz, 2012).

Researchers have emphasised that technology in modern times can be conceptualised as a contextual factor, a tool for creative expression, or even as an interactive collaborator (Larson & DeChurch, 2020). Drawing upon socio-technical views, prior research has demonstrated that SM enhances the theoretical comprehension of leadership (Dobni et al., 2022). Social Media is a non-intrusive and publicly accessible means of collecting data on leaders. Additionally, it serves as a distinctive platform for documenting the acts of leaders as they are expressed. Using social media (SM) by diverse leaders allows for meaningful comparisons across different contexts (Matthews et al., 2022). As a result, social media has given leaders additional channels for communication (Heavey et al., 2020).

Additionally, using social media platforms plays a pivotal role in developing knowledge-driven interactions between those in positions of leadership and their respective followers. Many managers advocate integrating social media tools into everyday organisational practices (Khan & Khan, 2019). The utilisation of social media can also serve as an indicator of certain traits exhibited by business leaders (Hwang, 2012). As demonstrated by Men (2015), there is a growing trend among Chief Executive Officers (CEO) to utilise social media (SM) platforms for internal organisational communications. Furthermore, Men's study found that employees view a CEO as responsive when they maintain an active presence on social media.

Despite the substantial increase in studies focusing on leaders' social media usage in recent years, it is essential to note that the existing body of literature on this topic remains fragmented and underdeveloped (Matthews et al., 2022). The absence of a clear link can perhaps be attributed to the low availability of empirical research on the utilisation of social media (Agnihotri et al., 2016). To comprehensively understand the impact of social media on the generation and acquisition of social capital, it is necessary to analyse the nature of social media usage (Agnihotri, 2020). Hence, this study focuses on measuring the influence of Social Media Use on predicting early signs of leadership

potential. The link between social media use and leadership can be grounded on two theoretical underpinnings: social capital and social networking theories. Thus, social media can enhance employees 'social capital, whilst social media acts as a new medium for social networking.

2.6.1 Social Media Use

The predicted number of individuals engaging with SM platforms is expected to surpass 4.4 billion by 2025, with an average daily time expenditure of 2 hours and 22 minutes (Kelm & Ibrahim, 2023). Numerous social media platforms possess the capacity to be utilised at work and at home, hence making it difficult to differentiate between these two domains. This study will focus on the utilisation of social media by individuals at work and the subsequent impact of this diverse usage on their leadership potential (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015). Furthermore, Social Media Use (SMU) refers to the engagement of individuals in online platforms, wherein they participate in activities such as viewing or sharing content, as well as receiving or making comments (Smith & Gallicano, 2015).

Undoubtedly, Social Media have proven to be highly advantageous for a wide range of personal, professional and educational objectives (Arrivillaga et al., 2022). Moreover, SM has a significant influence on various organisational processes, such as sales and marketing (Odoom et al., 2017), human resource management (Arjomandy, 2016), recruitment (Kluemper & Rosen, 2009), customer relationship management (Trainor et al., 2014), leadership (Sievert & Scholz, 2017) and knowledge management (Bharati et al., 2015). Thus, social media platforms span various organisational functions in contemporary business contexts.

In relation to social media, there is anecdotal evidence suggesting that the utilisation of specific platforms can have a positive influence on leadership (Coman et al., 2021; Dimitrov, 2018; Johnson et al., 2022; Sancino, 2021; Stoller, 2013). In this regard, using LinkedIn can give individuals the advantage of socialisation and the opportunity to share and disseminate knowledge. Also, SM stands out as a vital tool for talent recruitment; in addition to serving as a platform for entertainment, YouTube and LinkedIn may also be utilised for purposes such as training and recruitment (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015). Therefore, this study adopts an employee user-centric perspective to comprehend the influence of social media use on leadership by focusing on only two aspects of Social Media Use: Social and Cognitive.

2.6.1.1 Social Media for Social Use (SMS)

The concept of social use pertains to the use of social media platforms for the aim of establishing and maintaining relationships, whether for personal or professional reasons, while identifying individuals who share common interests (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Cao & Yu, 2019; Ince et al., 2022; Luqman et al., 2021). Besides, Companies encourage using social media to establish, expand and fortify networks, leading to enhanced differentiation within companies (Ahmad et al., 2019; Quinton & Wilson, 2016; Smith et al., 2017).

Accordingly, businesses tend to utilise a variety of social media platforms (Olanrewaju et al., 2020). This use enables firms to establish a strong network connectedness and engagement between employees, primarily if they are residing in distinct geographic regions, such as those who work in multinational companies (Quinton & Wilson, 2016; Wang et al., 2017). Scholars have argued that SM can positively impact social and interpersonal communication goals and entertainment. Conversely, SM is utilised for work-related purposes and to sustain professional connections (Masood et al., 2023).

2.6.1.2 Social Media for Cognitive Use (SMC)

The cognitive utilisation of social media pertains to the activities of generating and disseminating content, as well as consuming content generated by others. These activities include sharing opinions, narratives, evaluations, discussions, personal photographs and videos (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015). Thus, SM, in that case, is utilised by employees to acquire and exchange knowledge to enhance task performance (Cao & Yu, 2019).

Moreover, non-traditional social media platforms, such as discussion boards and collaboration applications like Microsoft Teams, Skype and Zoom, frequently incorporate numerous aspects to enhance knowledge sharing and critical work-related aspects (Deng et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2021).

Part Two: Conceptual Relationships

2.7 Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

Some studies have been made to empirically examine the factors that contribute to identifying leadership potential, highlighting emotional intelligence as one of the critical factors. As a result, there is a greater emphasis on emotional intelligence in leadership (Drigas et al., 2023). Troth and Gyetvey

stated that “leadership involves complex social problem-solving derived from emotional intelligence and cognitive capabilities”(Troth & Gyetvey, 2014, p.337).

Emotional intelligence is intricately linked to leadership, as it signifies the leader's capacity to facilitate and support the growth of others (Miao et al., 2018). Emotional Intelligence (EI) plays a crucial role in effective leadership, encompassing several aspects, such as leadership styles, leader performance and leader emergence (Milhem et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). The relationship between leadership and emotions is intricately interconnected (Drigas et al., 2023). According to Humphrey (2002), leadership can be characterised as an intrinsically emotional phenomenon wherein leaders endeavour to comprehend the emotional states that influence their followers and subsequently strive for effective emotional regulation. Influential leaders must possess a deep understanding of their own emotions and those of others and can regulate their emotions when communicating with people (Wong & Law, 2002).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence has also been conceptually and empirically linked to models of effective or transformational leadership (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006) and leadership performance (Wong & Law, 2002). Therefore, employees high in EI are also expected to be rated more highly for leadership potential (Troth & Gyetvey, 2014). Furthermore, Walter, Humphrey, and Cole (2012) mentioned that an individual’s emotional intelligence score was the most crucial factor in predicting leadership potential, even when considering Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and personality traits. They also stated that some authors argued that emotional intelligence accounts for up to 90 percent of the difference between star performers and average performers in senior leadership positions. Similarly, Higgs and Aitken (2003) concluded in their study that it is evidenced that EI is a predictor of leadership potential.

While some have praised emotional intelligence's relevance for identifying leadership potential, others continue to question its significance (Walter et al., 2012). Also, other studies have shown that EI did not contribute to leadership potential ratings when all the predictors were considered simultaneously, and this highlights the inconsistency of results, given the links of EI to leadership effectiveness in previous literature (Briscoe & Hall, 1999; Dries & Pepermans, 2007; Nabih et al., 2023). Moreover, many studies focused on cognitive intelligence, a relevant dimension in identifying leadership potential, ignoring other forms of intelligence, such as the emotional one (Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Rob Silzer et al., 2016). Accordingly, this study attempts to test emotional intelligence as a predictor of leadership potential; hence, it is hypothesised that

H1: There is a significantly positive impact between EI and MLP.

H1a: SEA positively impacts MLP.
H1b: OEA positively impacts MLP.

H1c: UOE positively impacts MLP.
H1d: ROE positively impacts MLP.

The study of TM is still a relatively new and continually evolving area of research, and more empirical investigations are needed to understand TM (Vardi & Collings, 2023). The initial perspective regards TM as the rebranding of HRM operations, encompassing a range of conventional HR practices such as recruiting, selection, development, leadership and succession planning (Tlaiss, 2021). Despite the various approaches of TM, it usually focuses on a pool of employees who rank at the top in terms of performance and competencies and are therefore considered leaders or key professionals, either at present or at some point in the future (Collings et al., 2019; Mensah, 2018).

Management scholars and practitioners have highlighted identifying and developing high-potential employees as one of the significant challenges faced by the twenty-first-century human resource function (Dries & Pepermans, 2008). This is due to a lack of clarity regarding the definition of talent inside an organisation; thus, this results in misalignment and an ineffective process for identifying talent. Consequently, this can impede the establishment of a talent pool ready for leadership roles (Jooss et al., 2019).

Furthermore, little theoretical development has been done on TM and LP (Dries & Pepermans, 2008). It has been observed that talent management has been prioritised in several multinational companies in developed countries, such as the USA, Germany and the UK (Namugumya et al., 2023). Therefore, it has been suggested by TM researchers that further research should be conducted to investigate talent management philosophies in non-Western cultures, particularly in the Arab Middle East (AME) contexts (Tlaiss, 2021). Thus, this study investigates the impact of organisational Talent Management practices in developing millennials' early Leadership Potential. Therefore, it is hypothesised that

H2: There is a positive relationship between TM practices and MLP

H2a: ICP positively predicts MLP

H2b: CT positively predicts MLP

H2c: DEV practices positively predicts MLP

H2d: RM positively predicts MLP

Leadership studies have consistently recognised the importance of the social network to leadership emergence and effectiveness, elucidating that the effectiveness of leaders depends in part on their ability to understand, influence and improve their position in intra-organisational and inter-organisational social networks (ANAND & CONGER, 2007; Bartol & Zhang, 2007; Cullen-Lester et al., 2017).

Furthermore, leadership development theories recognise the significance of social connections as a medium through which leadership is created, explaining the main reason, which is the networked social connections surrounding the leaders and connecting members, developing the leaders' abilities to engage in leadership roles and processes to produce leadership (Day et al., 2004; Day & Dragoni, 2015; Day, 2001; DeRue, 2011). Also, leadership itself is viewed as a type of social network characterised by connecting members of dyads and larger collectives, which is consistent with theories describing leadership as social influence (Carter et al., 2015). Thus, contemporary leadership studies have discussed the importance of leadership emergence and effectiveness and closely related it to social networking. Accordingly, this relational view of leadership calls for enhancing social networks in concept as a factor of leadership development (Cullen-Lester et al., 2017; Day & Dragoni, 2015). Therefore, it has been clear that social networks play a fundamental role in studying leadership and that further studies would benefit both works of literature (Balkundi & Harrison, 2006; Barry & Gironda, 2019; Contractor et al., 2006; Eva et al., 2019; Magno & Cassia, 2019; Serban et al., 2015). On the other hand, a burgeoning area of research recognises that social networks are pertinent to leadership and leadership development (Fredricks, 2003; Kaplan, 1984; Zacharakis & Flora, 2005). However, it has not yet embraced the full potential of social networks for developing organisational leadership (Cullen-Lester et al., 2017). Also, whether a causal relationship exists between social networking and leadership is questionable (Valk, 2008). Thus, future studies are called to measure the impact of social networking on leadership and find out whether the effect of such leadership development interventions enables leaders to understand and control their network connections (Cullen-Lester et al., 2017).

Moreover, leadership studies are continuously evolving, and this rapid evolution in the study of leadership reflects real change in organisations, particularly concerning technological advancements (Dionne et al., 2014). Thus, as we transition into the 21st century, our digital era has changed leadership and the means through which we study it (Cullen-Lester et al., 2017). Correspondingly, social networking has leapt to technological change, transitioning to what we know now as Social Media (SM).

The utilisation of social media in the workplace has been prominent as a means for individuals to communicate their thoughts and experiences; owing to its convenience, SM platforms have been employed to facilitate knowledge exchange within organisations (Behringer & Sassenberg, 2015; Jafar et al., 2019). Particularly regarding human resource strategies, social media use (SMU) in the workplace can present advantages and prospects for businesses (Parveen et al., 2015; Tajudeen et al.,

2018). Prior studies have demonstrated a range of findings that indicate that SMU promotes employee socialisation and communication (Cao & Yu, 2019), strengthens internal knowledge management and mutual trust (Zhang et al., 2019) and enhances comprehension of workplace conflict (Treem & Leonardi, 2013). These outcomes ultimately contribute to the performance of the organisation (Tajudeen et al., 2018).

In short, studies and reviews have been concerned with social media as an essential technological domain influencing businesses worldwide. However, very few studies have linked it directly to leadership; instead, these studies were all-inclusive (Kapoor et al., 2017; Ngai et al., 2015; Olanrewaju et al., 2020). Also, social media plays a critical role in building interactions between leaders and followers, whereas organisational managers have been promoting the use of social media in their daily corporate activities (Criado et al., 2013; Khan & Khan, 2019; Mergel & Bretschneider, 2013). While there are studies on the antecedents of social media use, developing countries have been primarily understudied (Olanrewaju et al., 2020). Although prior research has studied some of the antecedents of SMU (Olanrewaju et al., 2020), there was a lack of consistency in the theoretical frameworks (Filo et al., 2015). Accordingly, a contextualised and generalised framework that relates SMU and LP is essential.

Building on that notion of the Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT), this theory posits that individuals participate in social media platforms with various motives to fulfil their social, hedonic and cognitive requirements. These motivations may include the desire to establish new social connections, seek leisure and entertainment and create and share content. Following this reasoning, Ali-Hassan et al. (2015) divided Social Media Usage (SMU) into three distinct dimensions: social, cognitive and hedonic. Later, Cao and Yu (2019) similarly employed these three categories to differentiate and identify the various objectives behind the utilisation of social media within a professional context. In this study framework, social media use was included as a predictor, including only two dimensions of social media usage that were seen to be relevant to the scope of the study; these two dimensions were closely related to cognition and social need. Therefore, the researcher has conceptualised social media usage as a behavioural process wherein employees engage with social media platforms to satisfy their information-seeking and relationship-building needs. These needs primarily revolve around the cognition and dissemination of information and social interaction within the workplace. Thus, this study investigates the influence of social media use on leadership potential; hence, it is hypothesised that

H3: Social Media Use positively influences MLP

H3a: Social Media for Social Use positively influences MLP

H3b: Social Media for Cognitive Use positively influences MLP

Presently, there is a dearth of empirical research investigating the influence of talent management practices on emotional intelligence (Namugumya et al., 2023). However, it is imperative for a company not only to attract and identify highly skilled and qualified individuals for critical positions but also to consider their emotional intelligence, the systems under which they function and the rewards they are given (Issah, 2018). In light of these considerations, it becomes evident that an organisation should not only implement talent management practices but also assess the emotional intelligence of individuals before advancing them to crucial leadership positions.

Moreover, the emotional intelligence theory posits that leaders possess a level of self-awareness regarding their emotions and feelings, and having emotionally capable leaders in important roles becomes a prerequisite. Emotional intelligence facilitates leaders in cultivating empathy, fostering teamwork and effectively sharing novel ideas with their peers (Drigas et al., 2023). Also, a previous study explored a potential relationship between emotional intelligence and talent management in organisational settings (Maqbool et al., 2017). Parrish (2015) posited the importance of emotional intelligence in the context of academic leadership whilst highlighting its association with successful leadership. Furthermore, Besharat (2005) proposed that managers with high emotional intelligence demonstrate favourable behaviour and self-assurance, characteristics that make them well-suited for leadership roles. Recent empirical research has elucidated a positive and substantive correlation between emotional intelligence and adopting talent management practices within organisational frameworks (Namugumya et al., 2023). With this premise, the current investigation delves into the mediating role of Emotional Intelligence in the relationship between Talent Management and Millennial Leadership Potential. As such, the hypothesis posits that

H4: EI mediates the relationship between TM and MLP

Nevertheless, a debate persists regarding the advantages and disadvantages of Social Media Use in the workplace (Tajudeen et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). Some scholars argue that SMU in the workplace may be a distraction, diminishing employees' focus on their tasks, reducing work efficiency, impacting work quality (Brooks, 2015) and elevating employee turnover rates (Yingjie et al., 2019). Conversely, other scholars suggest that SMU in the workplace can enhance communication efficiency among employees and organisations, foster interpersonal relationships in the workplace, facilitate access to work-related information and resources for employees and improve problem-solving capabilities (Benson et al., 2015; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; Song et al., 2019). As posited by Wu et al. (2021), the impacts of SMU within organisations exhibit a nuanced and multifaceted nature. Therefore,

studies have presented arguments suggesting that social media usage in the workplace can have both beneficial and unproductive effects or that its impact may be influenced by mediators (Landers & Callan, 2014).

Social media use is widely recognised as a significant means of interpersonal communication within organisational contexts (Cai et al., 2018; Leidner et al., 2018). According to the study of Alahmad et al. (2018), the provision of social support can result from using social media for social use and building collaboration between an employee and their co-workers. It has been found to enhance employees' sense of stability and belonging within a team, hence playing a substantial role in their overall satisfaction. Furthermore, it is essential to highlight that previous studies have indicated that researchers have challenges when it comes to obtaining data related to the utilisation of social media in the workplace context. These activities encompass publishing, engaging in commentary and engaging in diverse modes of communication. This difficulty arises because certain employee behaviours, such as browsing and searching for data, typically remain hidden from external observers (Yingjie et al., 2019).

Recent studies have studied social media use as an effect of emotional or mental disorders, linking an individual's low emotional stability to problematic social media use (PSMU) and psychological disorders. These studies focused on investigating emotional intelligence (EI) as a personal characteristic whose deficits might be associated with PSMU (Arrivillaga et al., 2022; Kircaburun et al., 2019; Marino et al., 2020; Süral et al., 2019). The study by Arrivillaga et al. (2022) indicated a negative association between emotional intelligence (EI) and problematic social media usage (PSMU). However, by adopting a positive perspective, individuals with high EI may positively influence their SMU, influencing their leadership potential. Furthermore, additional studies have established a connection between emotion regulation and the impact on social media use (Marino et al., 2020), with emotion regulation being recognised as one of the sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Moreover, the concept of "e-motions," proposed by Zych et al. (2017), is a multidimensional construct encompassing several aspects. Firstly, it includes the expression and perception of emotions in online contexts. Secondly, it involves beliefs about how expressing emotions on social media can help individuals overcome personal challenges. Also, it consists of understanding and interpreting emotions in online interactions. Therefore, this supports the notion that emotions exhibit connections with specific dimensions of emotional intelligence while also being linked to SMU (Zych et al., 2017). Lastly, expanding on the notion of the prevalence of social media usage is not solely a question of its ubiquitous presence but also necessitates a thoughtful understanding of its dark side and adverse effects. Given the circumstances, Social Media Use assumes a role as a mediating factor within the

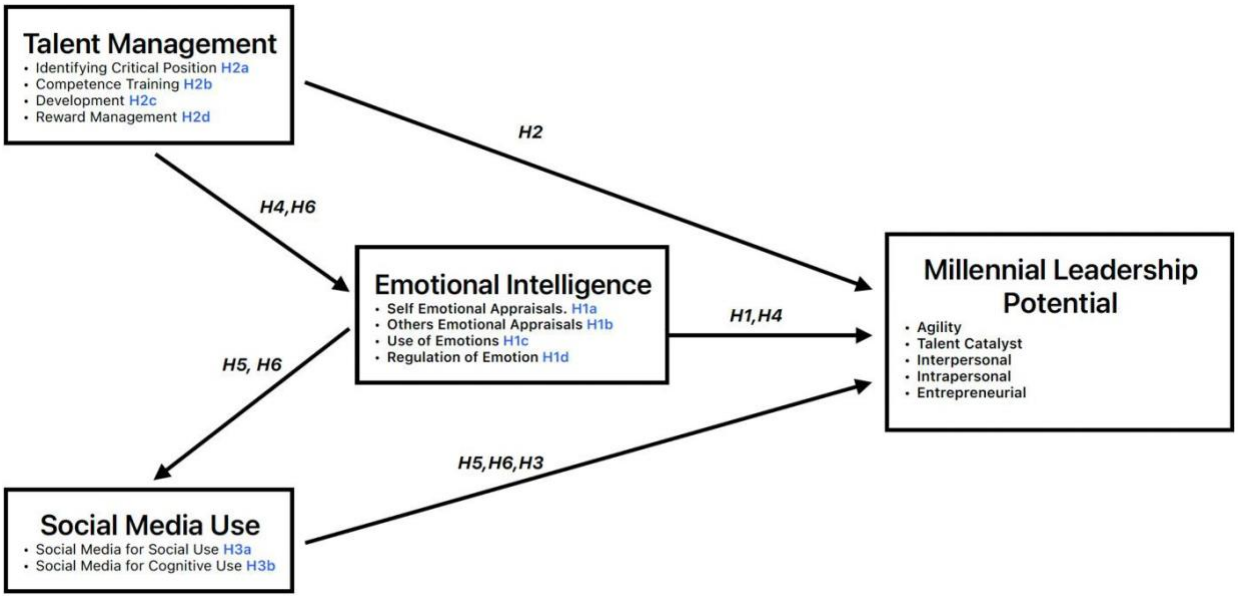
realm of Leadership Potential. It is based on the premise that using social media can be problematic; people also need to know how to use these platforms wisely for their advantage, which can affect their capacity to lead, as well as answering calls in the literature exploring pathways linking EI and SMU (Kircaburun et al., 2019; Marino et al., 2020; Süral et al., 2019). Based on the above reasoning, it can be inferred that EI can influence an employee's use of SMU and impact their leadership potential.

H5: SMU mediates the relationship between EI and MLP

Moreover, it builds on the theoretical underpinnings of developing hypothesis four and five. This study has decided to further develop hypothesis six since previous studies may have hinted at a similar sequential relationship. Also, testing this potential serial mediation might be of practical significance and important to creating a more precise organisational framework or new HRM policy. Therefore, this study aims to test a serial mediation model that includes both EI and SMU in mediating TM and MLP;

H6: TM practices will influence MLP through the mediating influence of employee's EI and, in turn, SMU.

Figure 2: Proposed Theoretical Framework



Source: Developed by the Researcher

2.8 Research Gap and Research Question

The current state of work and organisations are undergoing significant changes, which are prompting experts in the fields of leadership and organisation development to reassess existing leadership models and determine how organisations might adapt to these profound shifts (Cai et al.,

2022; Groves & Feyerherm, 2022). Therefore, the literature review reveals a research gap related to leadership potential, as the analysis of previous research shows limited efforts aimed at conceptualising a solid definition of leadership potential and precise assessment measurement, besides contextualising LP to a concurrent generational cohort. This gap was addressed and grounded on the following studies.

In LP literature, the evaluation of leadership potential inside organisations typically involves relying on the intuitive judgements of the executive team or categorising individuals into simple categories such as high, moderate or low potential (Groves & Feyerherm, 2022; Knoll & Sternad, 2021). However, this talent assessment process is plagued by inherent biases, inaccuracies and a dearth of assessment measurements that are necessary for identifying the most critical areas for leadership development (De Vos & Dries, 2013; Hitt & Duane, 2002; Sorcher & Brant, 2002). On the other hand, numerous scholarly works have been published on the subject of high-potential leadership, as evidenced by the works of Finkelstein et al. (2018), Church and Silzer (2014), Dries and Pepermans (2012), Lombardo and Eichinger (2000) and Spreitzer et al., (1997).

Dries and Pepermans (2012) and Church and Silzer (2014) have developed two prominent frameworks for assessing leadership potential. Both models emphasise the significance of human differences, behavioural competencies and knowledge bases in evaluating leadership potential. However, given the significant transformative forces at play in the realm of work, it is imperative to develop a contemporary and applicable model of leadership potential (Groves & Feyerherm, 2022).

Moreover, in recent leadership potential models, such as the Finkelstein et al. (2018) model, scholars contend that the concept of potential should be operationalised through multiple indicators rather than being directly assessed. It was criticised as having a significant drawback in light of the prevailing environmental forces and megatrends (Groves & Feyerherm, 2022). These include the transformative impact of digitalisation, artificial intelligence, remote work, a multi-generational workforce and increased emphasis on equity, inclusion and racial justice (Schroth, 2019; Shrestha et al., 2019). According to a recent report by McKinsey (2021), the consequences of the growing digitisation of skills were emphasised. The report revealed that over 33% of the participants indicated that their respective multinational organisations were unequipped to tackle the skill gaps intensified by automation and digitalisation (Hatami & Segel, 2021). Hence, a crucial inquiry is into the influence of automation and technology on critical jobs, necessitating a significant emphasis on talent pools and the criteria employed in selecting individuals for such roles, mainly through potential assessments.

Additionally, the COVID-19 pandemic with the rapid rate of transformation in the progression of the pandemic, particularly during the initial months when crucial data and assumptions on the virus were

frequently changing, necessitated leaders to exhibit adaptability in their decision-making process and demonstrate a willingness to reassess their choices regularly (Collings et al., 2021). Also, the potential occurrence of future extreme events further contributes to fundamental shifts in work and organisation (Clark, 2020; Singhal, 2021). Due to these megatrends' recent emergence and significant impact, the current models for assessing leadership potential are inadequate in addressing several crucial theoretical and practical requirements for researchers studying leadership and organisational growth (Groves & Feyerherm, 2022). Therefore, navigating through dynamic and unpredictable contexts necessitates the development of novel skills and competencies for leadership.

According to Church et al. (2021), models of leadership potential have received relatively little research attention, and existing models have a propensity to conflate predictor constructs, job-related leader behaviours and criterion domains. These factors pose a significant barrier to developing robust leadership assessment practices (Bouland-van Dam et al., 2021). Nevertheless, it is essential to point out that an excessive focus on performance as a main indicator may not accurately predict an individual's potential, especially when there is a discrepancy between the performance expectations of non-leadership roles and leadership ones (Schleu & Hüffmeier, 2021). Therefore, there is a need for further research in the field of leadership potential theory and practice to differentiate between general, universally applicable criteria for identifying leadership potential and factors that should be customised to fit specific organisational, cultural, generational and temporal contexts (Groves & Feyerherm, 2022).

Furthermore, a prominent multinational company defined potential as the evaluation of an individual's prospective path in the future, considering their capacity to advance to positions that involve greater breadth and intricacy. This assessment considers the individual's aptitude for acquiring new knowledge and adjusting to unique circumstances, their ability to construct and guide teams, their expertise in a particular subject matter and their dedication to personal and professional development. Thus, the phrase "potential" is a construct that encompasses multiple dimensions rather than a unidimensional construct (Cascio & Collings, 2022, p. 72). However, there are instances where it is evaluated based on a comprehensive evaluation or classification despite the different levels of interdependence among the many potential facets. Therefore, organisations should consider implementing novel methodologies and assessments to discern individuals with the potential to assume leadership roles (Cai et al., 2022; Kabalina & Osipova, 2022).

Moreover, apparent discrepancies and contradicting observations within the current research literature on generational cohorts are undoubtedly a cause for concern. Thus, further inquiry and a comprehensive topic analysis are needed (Brachle & McElravy, 2023; Rudolph et al., 2018).

Conversely, existing data suggests that millennial employees have distinct preferences regarding leadership styles compared to earlier generations (MacKenzie & Scherer, 2019). Also, few studies have discussed the leadership qualities needed by millennial generations (Graybill, 2014; Murray, 2011; Steffens et al., 2018; Valenti, 2019). Despite the prevalence of discussions around millennials in the workplace within academic research and popular media, there exists a notable dearth of empirical evidence on millennials and their work-related characteristics (Galdames & Guihen, 2022).

The aforementioned empirical evidence corroborates the notion that generational experiences influence the perspectives of distinct cohorts about leadership, highlighting the idea that millennials may possess different conceptualisations of their ideal leader type (Brachle & McElravy, 2023). Therefore, this study focused on generational differences, a building point to contextualising leadership potentiality, focusing on the millennial generation as the primary context. Hence, this study responds to recent calls in the literature by conducting qualitative research to conceptualise the understanding of Millennials Leadership Potential (MLP) and to develop a construct for measurement (Knoll & Sternad, 2021; Reiche et al., 2019). Accordingly, a proposed research question will be answered in study one by conducting semi-structured interviews with Human Resource (HR) managers and academics.

RQ_1: What constitutes Millennial Leadership Potential (MLP)?

2.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the four literature streams essential to the current study: Leadership, Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use. Accordingly, this chapter was divided into two parts. The first part presented the background of the study on each variable, outlining the theories, measurement models and variables by positioning our understanding of every variable clearly and the conceptualisation that this study adopts.

Moreover, the second part introduces the conceptual model constructed using the literature review. Additionally, the suggested associations among the variables have been clearly articulated as hypotheses. Thus, the second part examined the associations between three independent variables and Millennial Leadership Potential. The present study additionally examines and formulates hypotheses regarding the mediation analysis between the variables. In sum, six main hypothesis have been put forth in the literature.

To date, only a small number of studies have focused on conceptualising MLP. As a result, very little is known about the nature and predictors of MLP, necessitating the first research questions posed at the end of the chapter. Due to the lack of research on LP, specifically on generational cohorts such

as millennials, and the evolving nature of the topic in this dynamic environment, the current analysis employed two types of data collection, qualitative and quantitative, and was divided into two studies to answer the stated research question. The subsequent chapter outlines the research methodology in detail.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the philosophy guiding the overall study and the approach adopted. Also, the research design that drives the gathering and evaluation of empirical data is discussed. The chapter is divided into two parts. Part one discusses the qualitative research design and the data analysis techniques used in study one. Part two overviews the quantitative research design and the data analysis techniques applied.

3.2 Research Philosophy

As with other academic research, this study's methodology is framed by practices, assumptions and beliefs. A thorough understanding of the philosophical perspectives' differences and an awareness of one's perceptions and ideas about what knowledge and reality "are" and how new information is generated, developed and/or confirmed are necessary for choosing an appropriate philosophical approach (Burrell; & Morgan, 1979; Kankam, 2019).

There is an ongoing debate regarding what paradigms or world views researchers bring to their studies (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The four most broadly used research paradigms are Pragmatism, Interpretivism, Positivism and Post-Positivism (Kankam, 2019). Thus, research paradigms can be heretical views used to study and interpret knowledge from four perspectives: ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology (Biddle & Schafft, 2015). Ontology concerns the nature of reality and what we know about it (Ritchie et al., 2013). Moreover, epistemology reflects how the researcher knows what they know (Kankam, 2019), whereas axiology shows the nature of ethics and how the researcher values its worth (Biddle & Schafft, 2015). Finally, the methodology enlists the methods and tools used in the research to define the research approach, data collection, analysis and interpretation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Accordingly, the study follows a particular research paradigm based on several presumptions regarding the nature of reality (ontology) and the place of scientific inquiry within this reality (epistemology). These presumptions impact the questions being explored, the methodology used and the knowledge generated in this study.

The current study adopts a post-positivist paradigm, considering the ontological and epistemological perspectives. Post-positivism shares many of the same assumptions about the nature of reality as positivism, and it acknowledges the inherent relationship between researcher and subject that emerges

in social sciences (Gannon et al., 2022). Positivism is characterised by its reductionist approach, which entails understanding phenomena by analysing their core components, and its deterministic perspective, which involves tracing the exact causes of events. Control and prediction play significant roles within this paradigm. While post-positivism has some characteristics of reductionism and determinism, it can be considered a modified version of Positivism (Stead, 2004). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), post-positivism posits that there is a singular reality, but our understanding of it is inherently flawed. It suggests that objectivity is an ideal yet to be fully achieved and that hypothesis testing involves falsification rather than verification. Nevertheless, post-positivism retains the fundamental philosophical underpinnings of Positivism, although modified or tempered.

Moreover, post-positivism came to answer the criticism that was on Positivism. In other words, post-positivism accepts the need to report reality while acknowledging that different interpretations may exist objectively (Henderson, 2011). It is based on rigorous observation and measurement of the world's objective reality while developing numerical data measures and studying individual behaviour (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Besides, post-positivism "design to research begins with large amounts of qualitative data that are categorised to produce quantitative data to be analysed using statistical methods" (Gasson, 2009, p. 55).

This study takes a post-positivist stance for several reasons. First, the research builds on a body of knowledge that aims to uncover "objective" reality questions and seeks generalisable knowledge. Furthermore, the study aims to establish relationships with the proposed research model. At the same time, the study is also concerned with conceptualising the nature of Millennials' Leadership Potential (MLP) in the context of multinationals operating in Egypt and the operational measurement of the MLP construct. As a result, a more exploratory approach is required to uncover the meaning of the core research concept, followed by confirmatory reasoning.

In contrast, post-positivism validates using mixed methods (Henderson, 2011) as it relies on multiple approaches to capture reality; thus, verification is deemed necessary (Stead, 2004). Therefore, the post-positivist paradigm fits the current setting well, including qualitative and quantitative inquiry. A summary of the chosen paradigm is summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Reasons for choosing Post-Positivism

Paradigm	Post-Positivism	Why it has been chosen
Ontology: *the researcher's view of the nature of reality or being.*	Reality can be known approximately; probabilistic hypotheses can be rejected or provisionally confirmed but not definitively proved to be true. (Mertens, 2010)	This study focuses on creating a construct of the MLP, where the researcher understands that reality can be obtained through people and later tested for confirmation or rejection. Thus, even though reality or theory exists, it can be imperfect because of human limitations.
Epistemology: *The researcher's view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge.*	Emphasis is on external objectivity. Reality is known through seeking a deeper objective understanding (Mertens, 2010)	Therefore, reality needs to be questioned to discover and explore contemporary meanings and new possible relations through knowledgeable subjects (participants/respondents).
Axiology: *The researcher's view of the role of ethics in research.*	Science is value-free. Independence between researcher and subject (Clark et al., 2021)	The researcher has followed all the ethical considerations in collecting and analysing the data, understanding their role while being impartial to the participants and the data, such as evaluating common method bias and taking extra checks to eliminate bias.
Data collection methods most often used	Triangulation and mixed methodology (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).	Mixed methods have been used, exploratory sequential mixed methodology, which allows the researcher to start with a qualitative study to discover new themes and follow with a quantitative study for hypothesis testing by confirming or rejecting the hypothesis.

Source: Developed by the Researcher

Furthermore, in post-positivist research, the researcher begins with a theory, obtains data that either supports or disproves the hypothesis and then adjusts and tests the theory (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). As stated, this study adopts an abductive reasoning approach, which became widely used, recognising the limits of both deductive and inductive approaches. Abductive reasoning criticises deductive and inductive approaches, allowing both to run simultaneously, starting with observation and going back and forth to the social world and the literature (Clark et al., 2021). Moreover, the abductive approach is in line with the qualitative study one employed, as the abductive logic comprises 'abducting' the categories from the participant's" experiences, ideas and beliefs (first-order codes) to then form the researcher's categories (second-order codes) (Ritchie et al., 2013).

3.3 Overall research design

This study employs qualitative and quantitative methods in line with the post-positivism paradigm. Accordingly, an exploratory sequential mixed method design is used to study the research problem. Combining qualitative and quantitative methods aims to array each approach's strengths against the

other's biases and limitations (Caruth, 2013; Creswell, 2012; McDowell & MacLean, 1998). Also, mixed methods have been described as a "key element in the improvement of social science" (Gorard & Taylor, 2004, p. 7); thus, research is strengthened by combining various methods. Furthermore, some studies viewed qualitative and quantitative methods as complementary (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), while others viewed them as a tool for enhancing and yielding higher-quality results (McDowell & MacLean, 1998; Stange et al., 1994). Overall, the research methods used are determined by the research problem being investigated, the researcher's background and the audience being addressed (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Mixing both methods was done in the sense that a qualitative method is needed to develop the construct, followed by a quantitative method for hypothesis testing.

Correspondingly, this research will be divided into two studies; study one will include the qualitative and exploratory part conducted to refine the conceptual model, as well as developing a new construct for the Millennial Leadership Potential (MLP) being studied, which will be used later in the quantitative study. Study two involves testing the hypothesised conceptual relationships and answering RQ2, RQ3 and RQ4.

Main Research Question: To what extent can Organisational Talent Management Practices, Emotional Intelligence and Social Media Use predict Millennials' Leadership Potential?

RQ1: How to conceptualise MLP?

RQ2: What is the impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and its dimensions- Self-Emotion Appraisal (SEA), Other's Emotion Appraisal (OEA), Use of Emotions (UOE) and Regulation of Emotions (ROE)- on MLP?

RQ3: How do organisational Talent Management (TM) practices impact MLP?

RQ4: Does Social Media Use (SMU) influence MLP?

To summarize, the qualitative phase was chosen for two reasons:

- To refine and confirm the conceptual framework that will be tested in the quantitative phase (Study 2);
- To develop measures of MLP nowadays within the Multinational Corporations (MNCs) in EGYPT and uncover new understandings of Leadership Potential whilst contextualising it on the millennial generation.

Following the four research questions, the quantitative phase was adopted for the following purposes:

- To confirm the sub-variables and measurement of MLP (RQ1);

- To determine which of the main variables had the highest impact on predicting MLP ;
- Correspondingly, to identify which hypothesised outcomes were supported (RQ2, RQ3, RQ4).

3.4 Target Population and Sampling Technique

The target population focuses on Egyptian millennial employees working in Cairo, Giza and Alexandria MNCs. The selection of millennials as a focal demographic group for investigation in Egypt is underpinned by their substantial demographic representation within the nation. Notably, millennials constitute approximately 28.6% of the overall Egyptian population. Moreover, their importance extends to the labour force, comprising an estimated 54.7% of the Egyptian workforce, which is a majority therein (Statista, 2022), similarly focusing on millennial employees in particular because they are considered the future leaders and the heart of most organisations nowadays (Kotlyar, 2018). Thus, focusing on studying and profiling this sample became a prominent issue for this study.

Moreover, the study is on Multinational Corporations (MNCs) because they adopt the most widely used talent management practices; they are known to hire and promote millennial employees compared to local and public companies in Egypt. Also, there is a dearth of published HRM literature on MNCs in the Middle East generally (Budhwar et al., 2021) and Egypt in particular (Abdel-Monem, 2012; Darrag et al., 2010).

This study follows a multilevel sampling, where different people from different populations are chosen for the different study approaches (Mertens, 2010). Accordingly, study one involves gathering qualitative data using semi-structured interviews with academics and practitioners, such as Human Resource Managers in MNCs in Egypt. Hence, questions will be structured based on the initial step of the content analysis on the leadership potential literature. Accordingly, the purposeful sampling method will be adopted in the qualitative study.

Purposeful sampling is used when individuals and sites are selected to better understand the central concept (Creswell, 2012). Additionally, the purposeful sampling method entailed selecting participants who were knowledgeable about the research topic and capable of providing meaningful insights that assisted in answering the first research question conferred in this research (Clark et al., 2021; Ritchie et al., 2013), specifically employing a purposeful sampling strategy to better conceptualise leadership potential variables and develop an instrument that will be used later on quantitatively (Creswell, 2012).

In contrast, in purposive sampling, the researcher chooses the sample based on their research aim and units of analysis based on their relevance to the research questions. This means that the researcher must be specific about the criteria for inclusion or exclusion (Clark et al., 2021).

Accordingly, the purposive sampling in this study intended that interviewees had to satisfy the three following criteria: (see Table 3)

- Be a millennial (aged between 23 and 42 years old);
- Be an employee in a Multinational Corporation operating in Egypt (Cairo, Giza and Alexandria) or an HR academic lecturer;
- If working in an HR department in an MNC, participants must hold an HR supervisory or managerial role.

Table 3: Summary of the Qualitative Sample Population

Fieldwork	Level	Number of participants
HR Practitioners	Senior Level	8
HR Practitioners	Middle Level	6
HR Academics	Lecturers and Associate Professors	4

Source: Researcher

Besides, the qualitative sample size was determined till research saturation. Data saturation is the ongoing inclusion of additional participants in a study until the data set reaches a point of completeness, as evidenced by data replication or redundancy. In essence, the state of saturation is attained when the researcher has collected data to the extent where the marginal benefit diminishes, resulting in the absence of any novel information being acquired (Bowen, 2008; Marshall et al., 2013). Therein, 18 interviews were conducted, and the researcher realised that the interviews were redundant and started to be repeated regarding new information; hence, data saturation was reached for Participant 15.

Study two involves collecting quantitative data using closed-ended online, self-administered surveys that will be gathered for further analysis. Outlining the target population sample presents several issues in study two. Identifying the number of employees working in all MNCs in Egypt was challenging. Nevertheless, having access to classified information regarding the employee age group, considering a millennial and understanding the population seemed impossible. For the aforementioned reasons, the researcher decided to recruit subjects using the non-probability convenience sampling technique. Convenience samples are more popular than probability sampling in business and management

research, where they are more prevalent. Besides, non-probability convenience sampling is often depicted by its ease of use, low cost and ease of data collection (Clark et al., 2021).

Accordingly, the surveys were conveniently distributed to millennial employees in Multinational Corporations in Cairo, Giza and Alexandria. Thus, a convenience sampling method was employed, where the millennials participating in the study were chosen because they are readily available and willing to be studied (Creswell, 2012; Henry, 1990; Patton, 2002). Also, a snowball approach was used, where the researcher contacted her network of millennial employees working in multinationals and asked to forward the questionnaire to other potential colleagues and respondents who matched the study requirements.

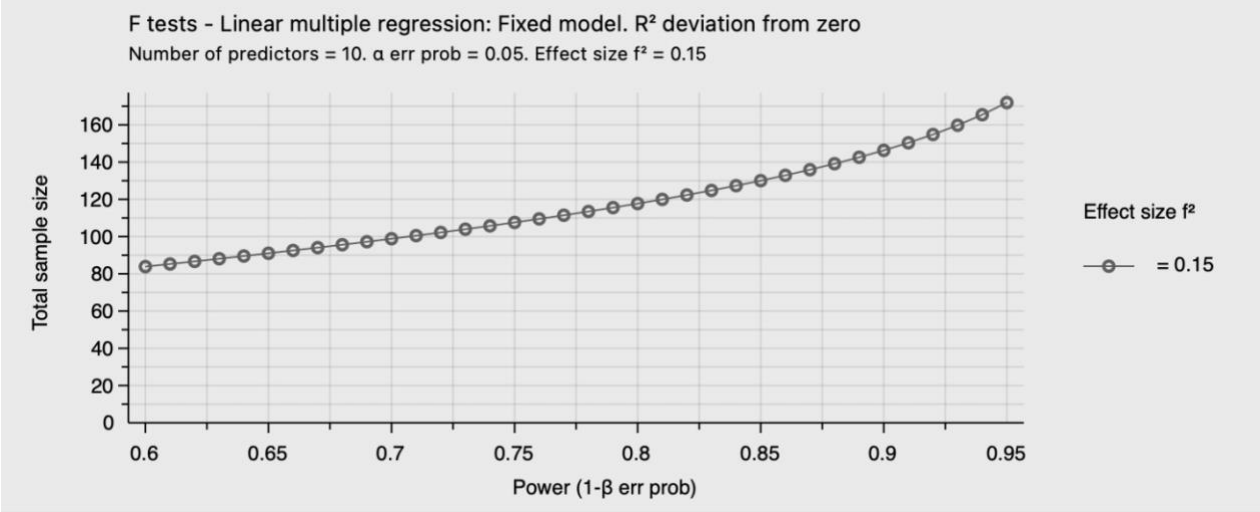
Furthermore, the sample size in this study is influenced by the data analysis technique used-Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). In previous studies, the sample size was determined by giving minimum and acceptable numbers or calculating the sample size using ratios (Cohen, 1988; Stevens, 1996). Besides, it is demonstrated that "for social science research, about 15 participants per predictor are needed for a reliable analysis" (Pallant, 2016, p. 301). Following this approach, the sample size in this study will be determined using a power analysis formula that focuses on providing a minimal sample of participants needed in a study. Accordingly, G*Power is a unique power analysis software used for various statistical tests related to the social and behavioural sciences field (Faul et al., 2009).

The G* power analysis considers the level of statistical significance (alpha), the amount of power desired in a study and the effect size. You may then calculate the appropriate sample size (Mayr et al., 2007). Firstly, defining the statistical significance level to evaluate the hypothesis is commonly set at p =0.05 or p =0.01(Creswell, 2012). Secondly, determining the power required to reject the hypothesis when it is wrong, usually set at 0.80 (Cohen, 1988). Finally, the effect size helps the researcher determine whether the hypothesised correlational relationships are meaningful. For much educational research, the effect size is normally fixed at 0.15 (medium), based on previous research projections (Hair et al., 2010).

Correspondingly, the G* power analysis Version 3.1.9.6 was run, where the predefined numbers were plugged as follows: Effect Size: 0.15; Alpha: 0.05; Power: 0.08; Number of Predictors: 10 *(TM Sub-Variables, SMU Sub-Variables, EI Sub-Variables)*(INPUTS).

Therefore, as mentioned earlier, the minimum sample size required to test the model is 118 participants, based on the input. Aiming to increase generalisability and yield better results, 413 responses were then gathered.

Figure 3: Calculating minimum sample size using the G*power analysis formula



Source: G power 3.1.9.6 output by researcher*

Part One

3.5 Qualitative Study One

The following section explains the qualitative phase conducted, study one, regarding the data collection method, the procedural design and the techniques employed.

3.5.1 Interview protocol

Semi-structured interviews were used in this study to collect information from the interviewees. It is a conversational interview with one participant at a time; the researcher then used closed and open-ended questions, sometimes supported by follow-up "why" or "how" questions. Instead of adhering to exact questions, as in an in-depth structured interview, the conversation can meander about the main themes and may go deeper into unexpected issues (Newcomer et al., 2015).

The adoption of semi-structured interviews was consistent with the tradition of the post-positivist paradigm since they agree with flexibility in data collection, allowing the researcher to alternate between questions based on the flow of the discussion, add follow-up questions and request additional elaboration (Henderson, 2011). Therefore, the researcher began with her contacts and their referrals to approach individuals who fit the predetermined criteria.

Even though the interview procedure followed a list of questions, the interview method was fluid, with some questions left out and others added based on the flow of the conversation. The researcher

was concerned with the details of the participants' experiences and eliciting rich examples from their own experiences rather than enforcing predefined concepts and theories.

The semi-structured interview was developed using the proposed model variables and the proposed research questions. The interview guiding questions were divided into four themes, which were divided into six sections. The interviewees were first asked a few introductory questions on their overall knowledge of the general topic, and then the interviewees talked about 1) how they view talent and perhaps elaborate on TM practices, 2) EI and whether there is a profound link to the leaders' potentiality, 3) how do they use and view social media nowadays, 4) their understanding of what constitutes a millennial leader in this generation. Finally, the last section focused on providing futuristic recommendations of how they view future leadership and what future studies should focus on in terms of leadership (Refer to Interview Guide Questions, Appendix A).

3.5.2 Qualitative Data Collection Procedures

The data collection involved virtual interviews using Zoom to adhere to the safety concerns during COVID-19 and accommodate participants' work demands as well as the proximity of the researcher. Initially, the participants were contacted via phone, where the researcher explained the purpose of the study, the main themes and that this study is part of a doctoral thesis program, followed by an email sent to the participants, introducing the research, officially requesting the participant's participation in the study, providing an ethical consideration consent form to be signed and returned to the researcher (see Appendix B). Once the participants signed and agreed to be part of the research, the researcher then contacts the participant to set a date and time for the interview.

Moreover, at the beginning of the interview, the participants are informed about confidentiality, that their anonymity will be preserved and that each participant will be coded to ensure confidentiality. Participants are then requested to consent to the recording of the interview and to assure them that it would be used solely by the researcher for interview transcription.

In total, 18 interviews were conducted, and all were audio recorded, with an average duration of 30 minutes. The participants during the interview were free to express their viewpoints and thoughts and share their experiences. The researcher could utilise the interview questions and answer the research question imposed in the study. Finally, interviews were transcribed by the researcher, and the participants were allowed to review the data analysis; this will be discussed further.

3.5.3 Qualitative Data Analysis Techniques

The qualitative data analysis was an evolving process in which the researcher first formed an initial conceptual framework based on the literature on leadership. Remarkably, the list of predictors mentioned in the literature was combined among the three main variables: organizational, individual and social variables, and broader categories of leadership potential were integrated into the theoretical framework based on the outcome of the interviews.

Moreover, the qualitative data were analysed using a thematic analysis method. The thematic analysis is widely recognised and used within the post-positivist paradigm (Braun & Clarke, 2014; McGregor1 & Murnane, 2010). Thematic analysis is a versatile and effective qualitative analysis technique that can produce a comprehensive, detailed, yet complex data description. Furthermore, the main advantage of using thematic analysis is its accessibility and theoretical flexibility in analysing qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The thematic analysis process includes familiarisation with the data, initial code creation, theme identification, team review of the themes, theme confirmation and report writing (Braun & Clarke, 2014). However, one critical need for defining and classifying themes is that they provide helpful insight into the research questions.

Accordingly, the proposed conceptual framework was not treated as final; the interviews confirmed the establishment of the proposed relationships, whilst the researcher let the themes and subthemes emerge during the interview discussions. Following the aforementioned steps, the analysis began with the specific data obtained from each participant, providing the first code order, then extended to the study's main themes in second order and ended with theme confirmation.

The data analysis procedure thus constituted constant refining and returning to the literature, with new categories and millennial leadership attributes being categorised appropriately to closely reflect the underlying category. The interviews were used to generate first- and second-order themes using NVIVO 12, which were then revised with existing LP literature. Finally, the individual codes and quotes were reviewed to confirm the reliability of thematic coding for participants' conformity with the constructs' chosen definitions. The details of thematic analysis will be discussed in the following chapter four.

Part Two

3.6 Quantitative Study Two

The following section explains the quantitative phase conducted; study two in terms of the approach, the procedural design and the techniques employed.

3.6.1 Quantitative Approach

In this mixed research study, after finalising the qualitative phase, the quantitative phase was then used to serve many purposes to establish, confirm, validate and develop generalisation to add a contribution to theory (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Thus, the present study's quantitative phase was divided into initial and main studies for hypothesis testing. Both steps were carried out utilising online surveys on Google Forms. The initial study evaluated the reliability and validity of the newly developed measurement scale MLP, followed by a pilot test to ensure the reliability of the other existing constructs scales. The details of the initial and pilot research are explained in Chapter five. The primary quantitative study sought to test the suggested conceptual framework's research hypotheses discussed in detail in chapter Six.

3.6.2 Survey Design and Administration

3.6.2.1 Survey Procedure

An online self-report survey was adopted in the current study. Survey data are frequently reliable since respondents must choose between restricted alternatives, reducing variability in the results (Sekaran & Bougie,2016). Also, it provides ease with which the data may be coded, analysed and interpreted (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). The measurement items for the independent variables, Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management and Social Media Use, were adapted from previously established operational scales to ensure the validity and reliability of the data (see Appendix C). In contrast, the dependent variable, Millennials Leadership Potential, was developed and validated in this study (will be discussed in Chapter five).

The survey was developed in English; the choice of the sample population also drove this since the millennial age group is more "English" proficient than are previous generations. Also, working in a multinational company demands spoken English as an essential selection criterion since most formal communication is conducted in English, such as internal policies, presentations, job descriptions, job offers, contracts, business proposals, emails, etc. Moreover, the final survey included six broad sections, starting with two screening questions and finishing with demographic questions. The statements included positive and negative wordings mixed to avoid common method variance. The cover page of the questionnaire introduced the potential participants to the research, stating its purpose, ensuring confidentiality, anonymity and duration of the survey. The survey structure followed a funnel approach (Sekaran & Bougie,2016). It started with two screening questions

limiting survey participation to the relevant population. First, to qualify for the survey, participants had to work in a Multinational Company operating in Egypt. Secondly, the participants had to be born between 1981 and 2000s, the millennial generation group adopted in this study (Abhicharttibutra et al., 2023; Hannah Murphy et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2023). If the respondents passed these two screening questions, they were directed to start the survey questions in section two. Those who answered negatively to the screening questions were immediately disqualified to proceed with the survey, and a "Thank you" note would be displayed and accordingly would be disregarded from the study. The second section included questions about participants' Emotional Intelligence, followed by section three covering Talent Management Practices employed in their organisations. The fourth section had questions on their Social Media Use, and the fifth section was self-report questions on their leadership potentiality. Finally, the last part of the survey was related to their company industry, origin and job rank and demographic questions. The complete survey is presented (see Appendix D).

Finally, the study used a Likert scale with a maximum of five points (1-Strongly Disagree and 5-Strongly Agree) to assess the responses for EI and SMU variables. In contrast, a five-point measure of the frequency (1-Never and 5-Always) measuring TM and the developed MLP. The choice of five-point anchor responses was used to increase precision and reliability (Kristensen et al., 2005) and provide a reasonable range and clear understanding of the differences of magnitude between the points, which is closer to the Egyptian culture and understanding. It was clearly explained in the work of Harzing (2006) were she stated that in the Middle East, a preference exists for using five-point interval scales because participants in this culture do not differentiate sharply between categories such as strongly agree, slightly agree, and vice-versa

3.6.2.2 Research Variable and Measurement

The proposed conceptual framework contains three predictor variables (Emotional Intelligence ,Talent Management, and Social Media Use), each Predictor comprising sub-variables and one dependent variable (Millennial Leadership Potential). The conceptual definitions of the variables in this study are presented. Below in Table 3, which it explains the abstract definitions of the intended variable under investigation. Also, It illustrates the concept meanings, explaining how they are related to other constructs. Consequently, the predicting variables in this study were measured using validated scales from prior studies. The scales were adapted by slightly altering the statements to the topic of the study after conducting the pretesting. On the other hand the Dependent measurement scale was developed

and Validated in this study (discussed later in chapter five). Table 4 illustrate the Conceptual and Operational definitions of the variables found in this study.

Table 4: Conceptual and Operational Definitions of the variables

Variable	Conceptual Definition	Operational Scales
Emotional Intelligence	EI involves perceiving, understanding, and controlling one's and others' emotions, integrating them with thoughts and actions (Bardzil & Slaski, 2003; Carmeli et al., 2009; Giorgi, 2013; Moon, 2010; Naderi Anari, 2012).	Measured using WLEIS scale using Four Sub-Variables (Self-Emotion Appraisal, Others Emotional Appraisal, Use of Emotion and Regulation of Emotions) using (16 items) By (Law et al., 2004)
Talent Management	"the identification of key strategic positions within the organisation that definitively and significantly contribute to the organisation's competitive advantage, then the development of a pool of qualified candidates, finally the recognition of the importance of differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate the process of filling key positions" (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 305,306).	Measured using TM Practices Four Sub- Variables (Identifying Critical Positions, Competence Training, Development and Reward Management) using (26 items By (Chen, 2012; Hung, 2013)
Social Media Use	social use pertains to the use of social media platforms for the aim of establishing and maintaining relationships, whether for personal or professional reasons, while identifying individuals who share common interests (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Cao & Yu, 2019; Ince et al., 2022; Luqman et al., 2021).	Measured using Two Sub-Variables(Social Media for Cognitive and Social Use) using (10 items) By (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015)
Millennial Leadership Potential	"people who possess certain traits which may include personality, motives, values, the social and cognitive ability have a greater leadership potential" (Luria et al., 2019, p. 2).	Developed By the Researcher Based on the Qualitative Outcomes

Source: Developed by Researcher

3.6.2.3 Time Horizon

This study adopted a cross-sectional time horizon. In a single cross-sectional design, the researcher collects data from a singular population sample on a one-time basis, as Creswell (2012) explained. This

design is notably prevalent in business research (Creswell, 2012). Consequently, in this study, the researcher gathered responses from the selected participants only once, from April 2023 to June 2023.

3.6.2.4 Pretesting Questionnaire

The survey underwent an initial pretesting phase with a limited sample of participants, precisely ten respondents, to assess its overall clarity, gauge respondent comprehension of the questions and identify any potential issues related to question-wording or clarity. In line with Boateng's recommendations (Boateng et al., 2018), the pretesting process involved selecting respondents from the same target population as those intended for the main study. This approach facilitated the collection of feedback from individuals who closely matched the study's target sample population.

As a result of this pretesting phase, feedback was obtained from the ten respondents, revealing minor concerns regarding the phrasing of specific questions. Consequently, these items and questions were subject to rephrasing, with the aim of using synonyms more aligned with the cultural nuances of the Egyptian context. Also, two questions were dropped as there was consensus across the ten respondents that this question seemed inappropriate. Additionally, some respondents expressed that the survey appeared somewhat lengthy, and they suggested shortening it to mitigate respondent fatigue and boredom. This valuable input was duly considered and addressed after the pilot testing stage, wherein certain statements were removed based on statistical findings of the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) (Discussed later in chapter five).

3.6.3 Pilot study

The pilot testing of the survey aimed to assess the psychometric properties of the MLP-developed Scale and ensure the reliability of the existing operational scales. This pilot study spanned three weeks and involved a recruitment process that leveraged social media platforms like LinkedIn. Only individuals who expressed availability and interest willingly participated in the survey. However, it is important to note that obtaining official access to Multinational Corporations (MNCs) posed a significant challenge. The researcher relied on personal connections and referrals as a workaround, adopting a snowball approach using social media and email networks.

Moreover, as per Creswell's recommendation (2012), pilot studies typically involve a minimum sample size of 30 respondents. However, considering the specific objective of validating the MLP-developed measurement scale, a ratio-based approach was adopted, suggesting a minimum sample size of five respondents per item/question. Given that the MLP scale initially consisted of 35 items, this

approach called for a sample size of 175 (=35*5) (Gorsuch, 1990). Other scholars argue that this rule of thumb may be misleading (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Leaving us to consider a larger sample with a minimum of 100-200 samples as the threshold for scale validation (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, the researcher conducted the pilot study in two waves to meet the minimum sample size for pilot testing.

The first wave generated 80 responses, enabling initial reliability tests on all scales. However, a larger sample size was deemed necessary for a more robust assessment of the newly developed scale's validity. Consequently, the second wave collected 238 responses, fulfilling the minimum sample size requirement for scale validation and facilitating a comprehensive evaluation of the psychometric properties of the developed scale.

3.6.4 Quantitative Data Analysis

Various statistical analysis techniques were used to analyse the quantitative data in Study 2. It included techniques such as data cleaning, descriptive, assessing reliability and validity analysis. Next was running factor analysis on the MLP developed Scale and measuring the overall Model Fit—finally, the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling techniques (PLS-SEM) for hypothesis testing. The data were analysed using SPSS V.29, SPSS PROCESS and SMART PLS 4.

3.6.4.1 Data Cleaning and Descriptive Statistics

Data cleaning was done on the primary study sample of (N=413), where the data were run on the SPSS V.29 checking missing values, normality, common method bias and potential outliers.

First, checking the missing data involved going through the responses to ensure that they were sufficiently completed, and this was due to the initial screening questions that screened out the people who were not from the target sample. Also, the utilisation of Google Forms made all questions mandatory to answer, so it ensured fully completed surveys. The next step was testing for potential outliers, reviewing box plots and checking whether there were responses with extreme values signalling response error (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Moreover, normality assessment involves testing whether the data were normally distributed, represented with a bell-shaped curve (Pallant, 2016). Normality can be assessed using graphical and statistical figures, graphically using Histograms, QQ-Plots and Box-Plots and statistically, by assessing Skewness and Kurtosis. Skewness has to do with the distribution's symmetry; a skewed variable is one whose mean is not located in the middle of the distribution.

Moreover, Kurtosis refers to the degree to which a distribution is peaked; a distribution is either overly peaked (with short, thick tails) or under-peaked (with long, thin tails) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Testing against Common Method Bias (CMB) requires two considerations: in terms of the procedural design, the survey cover page ensured the anonymity of the survey, and there were no right or wrong answers, while also considering the statistical testing for CMB using Harman's single component analysis that accepts a threshold of less than 50 per cent (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

The researcher used descriptive statistical approaches to explain the sample's demographic features, such as age, gender, city of residence, years of experience and marital status. These descriptive statistical methods also helped outline several job aspects, such as employee years of experience, job rank, etc. frequency and percentage data comprised descriptive statistics (Pallant, 2016). Descriptive statistics were helpful in analysing demographic questions that employ nominal and ordinal scales. The program SPSS V.29 for descriptive statistics helped display the data.

3.6.4.2 Factor Analysis

In the early phases of research, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is frequently used to combine data and develop hypotheses. Therefore, in this work, EFA methods were used to investigate the dimensionality of the developed MLP scale using SPSS V.29. By examining the relationships between them, factor analysis is frequently used for analysing a large number of variables (Pallant, 2016). To confirm that the data could be used for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined to ensure the applicability of the data for factor analysis techniques (Pallant, 2016).

Kaiser's measure assesses the adequacy of the sample for factor analysis by evaluating the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic, which ranges between 0 and 1. A minimum threshold of 0.6 is conventionally established to determine if the dataset is suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Additionally, Bartlett's test, which examines the null hypothesis asserting that correlations among dependent variables (DVs) are null, must yield statistical significance ($p \leq 0.05$) to justify the application of factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Assessing EFA, the researcher employed the principal component extraction method with Varimax Rotation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019) . Varimax Rotation is an orthogonal rotation method widely used in such analyses. The primary objective of Varimax Rotation is to optimise the variance of factor loadings by accentuating high loadings and diminishing low ones within each factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Furthermore, the assessment of EFA proved valuable in identifying and

eliminating items that failed to load appropriately on specific factors (Pallant, 2016). Detailed results of the factor analysis are presented in Chapter 5, specifically referring to the second section for scale development.

In conjunction with the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the researcher employed the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) technique to validate the unidimensionality of the newly developed MLP measurement scale, as indicated by (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). CFA is a statistical technique used to validate a measurement theory by examining how observed variables accurately and systematically reflect the underlying structures proposed in a theoretical model. A CFA was conducted to assess the extent to which the sub-dimensions variable structure accurately reflects the underlying data (Pallant, 2016). CFA is a statistical technique used to assess the extent to which measured variables accurately represent a smaller group of constructs. The CFA contributes to appraising and modifying the measurement model by defining the relationship between variables and constructs. The existing research and established measurement scales informed the selection of constructs and variables. Therefore, the primary aim of the CFA was to assess the degree to which the observed data align with the proposed measurement model (Hair et al., 2010).

The CFA analysis was conducted using AMOS V.28.0 software. The study analysed the Chi-Square $\chi 2$, Normed Fit Chi-Square ($\chi 2$ /df), CFI, TLI and RMSEA fit indices to determine the unidimensionality of the proposed constructs. To attain a satisfactory level of compatibility, reaching the accepted threshold values of the aforementioned indices is necessary. As recommended by Byrne (2016), the accepted threshold values are below:

- Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI): value >0.95 good fit; 0 .90 to 0.95 adequate fit;
- Comparative Fit Index (CFI) value: close to 1 very good fit; value >0.95 good fit; 0.90 to 0.95 adequate fit;
- Chi-Square $\chi 2$: Non-significant $\chi 2$ value at least p value > 0.05;
- Normed Fit Chi-Square ($\chi 2$ /df) (df=degrees of freedom): values with good fit should be less than 2;
- Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) value: ideally, less than 0.08 is an adequate fit.

3.6.4.3 PLS-SEM and Hypothesis Testing

Data Analysis SPSS 29 PROCESS and SMART-PLS 4.0 were used as statistical tools in this study to test the hypothesis through Partial Least Squares Modelling (PLS−SEM). PLS-SEM is very common and well-supported in management research (Gudergan et al., 2008). This study employs a complex model consisting of Hierarchical Latent Variables and High Order Constructs (HOCs) with reflective and formative measures. Therefore, using PLS-SEM is recommended to deal with such a model.

Also, PLS-SEM has other advantages, such as managing small-medium sample numbers and complicated models without requiring stringent assumptions about the underlying data normally distributed (Hair et al., 2021). Also, using a model with multiple meditators is recommended, which is the case in this study (Hair et al., 2011). PLS structure equation modelling is performed in a multi-stage: first, to assess the measurement model, and second, to analyse the structural model (Hair et al., 2021). The measurement model was assessed using the PLS–algorithm technique, which consists of an internal consistency test (composite reliability) and a validity test (convergent validity, discriminant validity and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)). The structural model was assessed using a bootstrapping technique consisting of R^2, Q2—predictive relevance, the significance of the path coefficient and f^2-effect size (Hair et al., 2021). In this study, the researcher computed the path coefficients (β) values, significance values (p) and (*t* value) using 10000 bootstrap samples to test the research hypotheses.

3.6.4.4 Reliability, Validity and Model Fit

3.6.4.4.1 Scales Reliability

Evaluating the internal consistency of scales, particularly for newly developed scales, holds paramount importance in the research process. This assessment primarily involves testing for reliability. Reliability, in this context, pertains to the extent to which the items within a scale exhibit consistency when measuring the intended variable. It addresses whether all items effectively measure the same underlying variable (Pallant, 2016).

One of the common reliability measures is the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, where the Cronbach's Alpha score should be accepted at a threshold of a minimum of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2021). However, the total number of items on the Scale significantly impacts Cronbach's Alpha values. Thus, it is advised to check the report for the mean inter-item correlation for the items, where an acceptable range for the inter-item correlation is 0.2 to 0.4 (Pallant, 2016).

Moreover, Cronbach's alpha (α) should not be solely relied upon as an exclusive measure of reliability within the context of Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). Consequently, the researcher considered the Composite Reliability (CR) to confirm the overall reliability of all measurement constructs since it was preferred within the PLS-SEM models in the study (Hair et al., 2011). In assessing Composite Reliability (CR), all items must exhibit loadings surpassing the recommended minimum threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2021).

3.6.4.4.2 Scales Validity

In addition to examining the accuracy and consistency of the items used to measure the variable, the validity test must be run. When measuring the variable, it is crucial to consider the items' validity. Thus, validity is the degree to which a scale measures what it is intended to measure (Pallant, 2016). The validation of the scale requires a consideration of the two main types of validity: Content Validity and Construct Validity.

Content Validity, also known as Face Validity, is a systematic evaluation of the degree to which the content of a scale accurately reflects the measuring variable (Clark et al., 2021). Face validity is the "degree to which respondents or end users judge that the items of an assessment instrument are appropriate to the targeted construct and assessment objectives" (Haynes et al., 1995). To confirm the content validity of the scale, several expert practitioners were requested to evaluate and confirm all the measurement items and provide their feedback. Adhering to a more rigorous and objective approach, it becomes imperative to prioritise construct validity. The process of assessing the construct validity of a scale involves comparing the theoretical hypotheses against the characteristics of the underlying variable.

Consequently, this entails a thorough exploration of the relationship between a given variable and others within the framework of the study. In cases where a meaningful relationship is established, it signifies convergent validity, affirming the scale's ability to measure the intended construct effectively. Conversely, when no significant relationship is discerned, this underscores discriminant validity, substantiating the scale's capacity to distinguish the intended variable from other variables (Pallant, 2016).

Moreover, Convergent Validity refers to how well a measure relates to other measures of the same construct. As a result, items that are indicators of a particular reflective construct should converge or share a substantial proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2021). This is measured through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) criterion, where its value should be greater than or equal to 0.50 (Hair et al., 2021). Consequently, measuring discriminant validity implies that the scale is empirically distinct and encompasses phenomena of relevance that other measures in a model do not (Henseler et al., 2015). Thus, to statistically measure discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE of each construct must be higher than the correlations between the variable and any other construct in the research model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

3.6.4.4.3 Model Fit

Model Fit shows the researcher how well the data fit the model, which is also useful for comparing models (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The most common goodness of fit model, defined in Covariance-based Structural Equation Modelling (CB -SEM), cannot be applied to PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2021). Unfortunately, there is no defined global goodness-of-fit measurement for PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2021). Therefore, the main factors for evaluating the structural model in PLS-SEM are the importance and relevance of the path coefficients, the model's explanatory power, the dependent variables' R^2 values and the model's predictive power (Hair et al., 2021). In this study, the focus was measuring R^2 for all the dependent variables; the higher the R^2 of the dependent variable, the better the model fit (Hair et al., 2010).

3.7 Control variables

To ensure that research results are reliable and applicable to a broader population, it is crucial to control the demographic variables as they might affect the study findings (Bernerth et al., 2018). This study evaluated employees' leadership potentiality while also considering controlling significant demographic factors, namely gender, marital status, years of experience and the number of children. These demographic attributes are expressly considered due to their inherent capacity to stimulate substantive variances in the observed leadership potentiality of individuals (Bernerth et al., 2018). Thus, this research aims at unravelling the nuanced interplay between these demographic variables and leadership potentiality, thereby facilitating a more accurate assessment of the leadership predictors while enriching the applicability and generalisability of the study.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

In conducting research studies, the researchers must fulfil some ethical considerations to ensure the research findings' reliability and validity. Ethical considerations should be fundamental to all research approaches, encompassing qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research methodologies (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). These ethical principles are pivotal in shaping various stages of the research process, including selecting research topics, designing, collecting, processing and storing data and presenting research findings (Saunders et al., 2016). The researcher will meet ethical considerations in this study by taking the appropriate steps.

Ethical considerations were rigorously upheld throughout the study, encompassing secondary and primary data collection. In the case of secondary data collection, proper referencing practices were meticulously followed, with due respect to all academic integrity and intellectual property rights.

In the primary data collection phase, which primarily involved qualitative interviews, a comprehensive ethical consent form was presented to participants for endorsement before the commencement of interviews (see Appendix B). This document provided detailed information about the research's nature and objectives, outlined participants' rights to voluntary participation and highlighted their right to withdraw from the study at any point during the discussions. Furthermore, at the outset of each interview, a clear statement was made to seek participants' consent for audio recording, accompanied by a commitment to maintain strict confidentiality and utilise the information solely for research purposes.

During the subsequent analysis phase, stringent measures were implemented to safeguard the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. All identifying details were diligently removed from the interview transcripts. Subsequently, in the reporting phase of the analysis, participant identities were anonymous by assigning unique codes to each participant.

In the quantitative phase of the study, which revolved around the administration of online surveys, respondents were not required to divulge any personally identifiable information, such as their names, telephone numbers or addresses. This approach was deliberately chosen to allow respondents a high degree of privacy and anonymity throughout the survey.

The introductory section of the survey was thoughtfully designed to provide respondents with comprehensive information about the research's objectives and goals. It explicitly stated that proceeding with the survey constituted their consent to participate in the study. Additionally, it emphasised participants' right to withdraw from the survey at any point before its completion.

Finally, it is essential to underline that all data collected during this phase were exclusively used for this research, as explicitly communicated to the interview participants and survey respondents. This ensured that their information was handled in accordance with the outlined research parameters and ethical standards.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This research adopted a mixed-methods approach, incorporating qualitative and quantitative data collection methodologies. The chapter delineates the fundamental elements of the research design

pertaining to Study 1 and Study 2 within the thesis framework, all guided by a post-positivist philosophical perspective.

Moreover, the chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the structured interview protocols and procedures employed alongside the survey development, structure, pretesting, pilot testing and final administration of the survey through the Google Form platform.

Furthermore, the chapter delves into a discussion of the data analysis techniques employed for Study 1 and Study 2. In Study 1, the data analysis encompassed a range of procedures, including Thematic Analysis using NVIVO 12. For Study 2, the data analysis entailed a series of steps, such as data cleaning, assessment of normality, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using SPSS V.29 and AMOS V.28 and partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS- SEM) using SMARTPLS-4.

Chapter Four: Qualitative-Data Analysis and Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and results from the qualitative study; 18 interviews were collected, and the descriptive characteristics are outlined. Next, Millennial Leadership Potential (MLP) categories are presented. Then, the sub-themes impacting millennial leadership potential are outlined and discussed. Finally, the implications of the qualitative study, which address the critical highlights of the outcomes of the interviews, are discussed.

4.2 Approach to Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis was conducted utilising a theme analysis method, guided by a post-positivist research methodology. The data collection process began with conducting 18 interviews. The sample for these interviews comprised of Human Resources Academics and Practitioners who held managerial positions in multinational companies. A summary of the characteristics of the sample is provided in Table 5. Qualitative data analysis involves five steps, as stated by (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Consequently, this study conducted a qualitative analysis in the following manner. initially, the researchers acquainted themselves with the data by reading and assessing the initial stage of data analysis. Therefore, the data were carefully handled and arranged .Furthermore, NVIVO 12 was employed as a tool for data categorisation in order to examine the transcribed data. The initial codes were generated by grouping quotes from the data. Furthermore, a set of prospective themes/categories was created to systematically gather relevant coded data (see Appendix E). Furthermore, the themes were assessed and discussed in the presence of two scholarly experts specialising in the field of Organisational Behaviour and Human Resource Management. This was done to guarantee that the themes adequately reflected the coded quotations and the entirety of the data set. Subsequently, to be clear and succinct, five themes were organised and defined based on the consensus and acceptance made by the three researchers. Ultimately, the qualitative findings were revisited with selected participants who were available for further discussion in order to solidify their comprehension and validate the interpretations associated with the identified themes.

Table 5: Qualitative Sample Characteristics

Interviewee	Interview duration	Age Group	Years of Experience	Field/Position	Industry
A	24 minutes	31-36	13 years	HR manager	Pharmaceutical
B	25 minutes	31-36	13 years	Head of people and culture	E-commerce
C	32 minutes	26-30	8 years	HR lecturer	Academic staff
D	27 minutes	37-42	20 years	Compensation and benefit and Personnel manager	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
E	46 minutes	31-36	12 years	HR lecturer	Academic staff
F	34 minutes	31-36	11 years	Senior Learning & Development Consultant (HR vice president)	Investment
G	44 minutes	31-36	13 years	HR business partner	Automotive
H	43 minutes	31-36	12 years	Arabia Reward Manager	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
I	33 minutes	26-30	5 years	Global Learning Lead	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
J	35 minutes	37-42	16 years	Employee Experience Manager	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
K	37 minutes	26-30	8 years	HR business partner	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
L	54 minutes	26-30	5 years	Talent Acquisition Coordinator	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
M	33 minutes	31-36	14 years	HR manager	Electronics Manufacturer
N	26 minutes	31-36	15 years	Leadership and HR lecturer	Academic staff
O	56 minutes	26-30	6 years	HR business Partner	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
P	52 minutes	26-30	9 years	Organizational Development Service Manager	Construction
Q	60 minutes	26-30	9 years	Talent Acquisition Partner	Telecommunication
R	35 minutes	31-36	10 years	Entrepreneurship and HR lecturer	Academic staff

Source: Developed By the Researcher.

4.3 Millennials Leadership potential

The lack of an agreed-upon and consistently used definition of Leadership Potential (LP) impedes the development of a clear and concise definition of a construct (Church & Silzer, 2014). One of the impediments in this study was finding a concise and agreed-upon definition for LP, let alone MLP; thus, this qualitative study supports the former. Nevertheless, LP in this study is defined as "people who possess certain traits which may include personality, motives, values, the social and cognitive ability have a greater leadership potential" (Luria et al., 2019, p. 2).

Furthermore, contextualising the study on millennials was supported by qualitative data, which answers this study's proposed research questions and contributes to the "Generational Leadership" literature (Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Tang et al., 2017). Consequently, through their discussion, the interviewees confirmed their belief in the presence of generational differences at work. Participants (I), (M), (N), (Q) and (F):

"*I believe that each generation is unique on its own, but there are some grey areas between generation and other." (I, Global Learning Lead).*

"I do believe in generation differences. Furthermore, I believe that generations across time bring different things and that generation differences shall be considered significantly within any organisation." (M, HR Manager).

"Each generation has its different way; they have certain patterns of thinking and behaving that vary from generation to generation" (N, Leadership and HR Academic Lecturer).

"Because what we are exposed to as a generation right now is completely different. And that had an impact on how we view things and how we deal with things at work." (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner)

"I can see clearly that there is a huge gap between generations in how each generation thinks and works." (F, Senior Learning & Development Consultant).

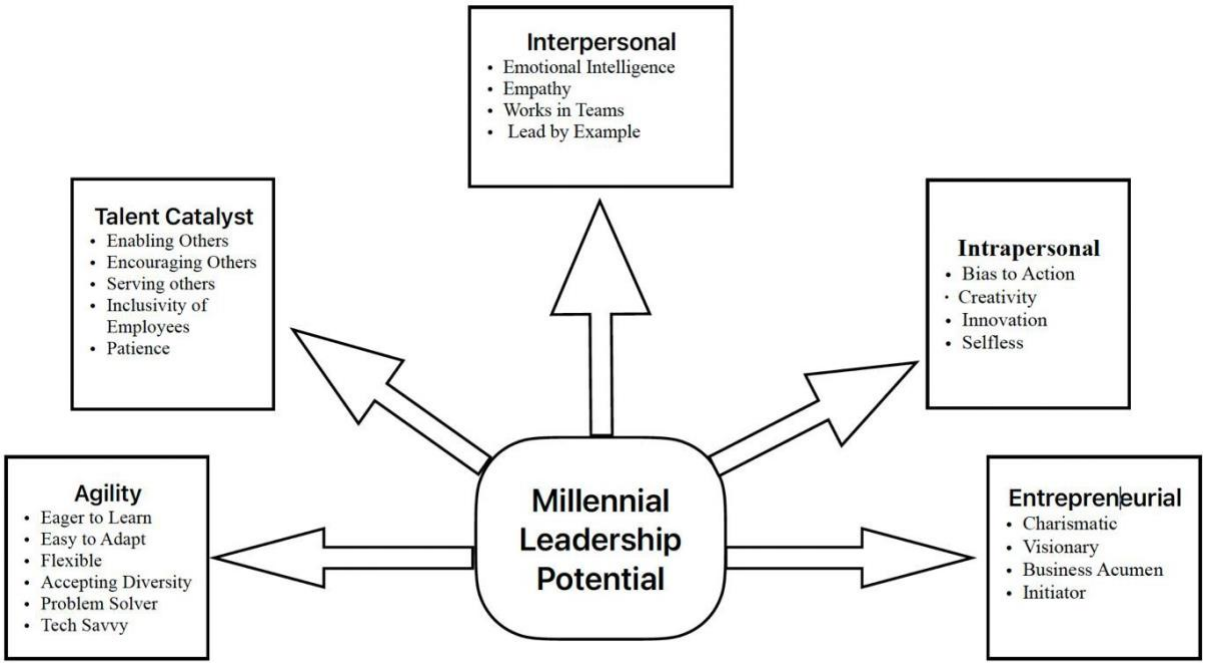
Besides the participants sharing their viewpoint on the differences between generations, they also reflected on generational leadership in particular and how conspicuous the differences were across leaders from different generations, as participants (H) and (L) shared from their experience:

"I do believe that there is a big difference between leaders from different generations in the way of thinking and the implementation of things and taking decisions" (H, Arabia Reward Manager).

"I think now we have research that states that leadership is the way forward; we have different studies that analyse different workplace practices. And from that, I would say new generations apply that to their operations. Moreover, you see it in businesses nowadays; huge multinationals have different activities within their companies. For example, Google has a slide going down from different floors; it is just a difference in how they operate and how that affects their employees. So definitely I feel like there is a shift in intergenerational aspects." (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).

The interviews justify the study's focus on millennials as the immediate context and support defining new characteristics of millennials' leadership potential. Correspondingly, the data analysis reveals 23 traits (first codes) grouped under five main themes for MLP derived from 18 interviews .The themes/categories were first derived from the literature on leadership and then supported by qualitative data; a summary of themes and sub-themes is presented in figure 4. The following section discusses the identified traits and their corresponding categories: Talent Catalyst, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, Entrepreneurial and Agility.

Figure 4: Summary of the Qualitative Analysis- Themes and Sub-Themes



Source Developed by the researcher

4.3.1 Theme One: Talent Catalyst

Millennial Leadership Potential dimensions involve acting as a "Talent Catalyst", where this theme includes the leader's investing in others and magnifying the power of people. It involves the leader's commitment to investing in the growth and potential of others. Moreover, being a talent catalyst supports the inclusivity of others, empowering and serving others. Talent Catalyst is a new dimension to academic literature, where it has not been clearly defined or articulated in any of the academic studies to the moment, which adds to the novelty of this study. Throughout the analysis, five traits emerged within the first-order theme, namely (1) Enabling others, (2) Encouraging others, (3) Serving others, (4) Inclusivity of employees and (5) Patience. The findings related to each of the traits stated are discussed below.

4.3.1.1 Enabling Others

One of the prominent traits mentioned in the interviews was leaders' enabling others. This is rooted in many of the conceptualisations of what leadership is. One of them was in project GLOBE, where leadership was defined as “the act of exerting influence, motivation and enabling others to contribute to the effectiveness and success of the organisations they belong to.” (House et al., 2004, p. 56). Moreover, enabling others is one of transformational leaders practices that was created by Kouzes and Posner, where they defined enabling others as not only promoting active collaboration of team members but also empowering them with freedom of self-determination (Kouzes & Posner, 2006).

This was evident in the interviewees’ responses when asked about their view of leadership. For the interviewees, it is imperative to empower others, to give them the space to project their thoughts and express their views. One of the participants, when asked about the expectations of leaders (J), quoted:

"It is also willing to hear and challenge the ideas of others, not only challenging but further building on other's ideas." (J, Employee Experience Manager)

Another interviewee (N) spoke highly of the importance of empowering employees:

"As a leader for that generation, empowerment, not only but Empower Empowerment" (N, Leadership and HR Academic Lecturer).

About the participant's quote, the term that was used – "empower empowerment" – highlights the importance of leaders' handing over and delegating tasks to others as an essential aspect of evaluating a leader's success and meeting followers' expectations of work involvement.

For example, other interviewees mentioned, *"Who can delegate and have everybody, have a contributing role; is not a one-man show like leaders are not supposed to do everything on their own." (O, HR Business Partner).*

"Those who take a different approach to make sure everyone understands what is going on. They ask questions, they make sure everyone is involved" (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator)

"Leadership is about enabling people around you to bring their best selves to the workplace" (I, Global Learning Lead).

It is worth mentioning that the interviewees would sometimes refer back to their past experiences, reflecting on how their previous managers gave them challenging tasks and assignments. Hence, this grew their work path and stretched their capabilities, stating that this is what they vow to do with their subordinates as they progress to their senior and leadership positions.

Moreover, leaders cascade information from top to bottom, allowing lower organisational levels to be aligned with the overall picture. Complementing it with the delegation of tasks and roles all seemed

to be essential aspects of leadership. For example, participant (O) stated: "*The ability to cascade and delegate. So, if they have a vision, they need to be able to break it down for their teams, and they need to be able to cascade it properly so that at the bottom of the chain, I mean, first line-staff levels at the bottom should be very well aware" (O, HR Business Partner)*

In this regard, the qualitative data show that enabling others is a crucial trait that provides breadth to the employees' abilities, which results in their career growth, a critical characteristic that should be present in millennial leaders.

4.3.1.2 Encouraging others

In conjunction with the aspect of empowering individuals, an additional crucial facet involves the practice of encouragement, which aligns with recognised transformational leadership practices, such as those outlined by Kouzes and Posner (2006), where it is described as the encouragement and motivation of constituencies. The interviews demonstrate the participants' need for motivation. Referring to motivation was contextualised as leaders "encouraging others". Participants have positively shared the incredible impact of encouragement on their career building and progression, associating it with "good leadership" *(E, HR Academic Lecturer).* For example, participant (G) shared: "*The most important thing that I see in the world today is to have the ability to motivate people to move forward" (G, HR Business Partner).*

Furthermore, one of the participants (L) criticised the past management theories that speculated around efficiency and effectiveness, linking them to success. While Motivation Theory is well known in the organisational behaviour field as one of the drivers of success in organisations, its impact on a leader's success is often understated: *"I feel leadership goes much further than the bureaucratic management systems to achieve more efficiency and more success; we need more motivation in the workplace." (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).*

More emphasis on encouragement as an essential leadership trait can be highlighted by using one of the informant's quotes (E): *"A good leader should be the most encouraging person in the organisation" (E, HR Academic Lecturer).*

In reference to another sub-theme, "enabling others," a clear parallelism is evident, emphasising a correlation, as one mode of encouraging others manifests through enabling them, giving them the space they need to project their thoughts and ideas, to be listened to and to be appreciated. This is purely a form of team encouragement. As a result, we can conclude that leading is contingent on encouraging and motivating people.

4.3.1.3 Serving others

Another sub-theme that emerged relates to the notion of serving others, emphasising the need of leaders taking on the role of social servants for both their followers and the community. Notably, contemporary leadership discourse has seen the rise of servant leadership as a prominent style, which underscores leaders acting as caretakers of the organisation. Thus, the literature defines servant leadership as comprehensive strategy to nurturing and advancing the development of followers, emphasising their personal and professional progress and involving them in various aspects, such as emotional, ethical and relational dimensions (Blake et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2018).

In line with servant leadership literature, organisational leaders must be available to others, offering advice and help. One interviewee (K) drew a parallel between the notion of "servant leadership" and her vision of contemporary leadership principles, elucidating the idea that leadership is no longer characterised by authoritative or aggressive methods. Instead, it is perceived as a collaborative effort between employees and leaders, emphasising the empowerment of employees. *"When I hear leadership is common these days, which is servant leadership or service leadership yet, where leadership is no longer authoritative, or aggressive" (K, HR Business Partner).*

"Helping others and being at the service of others is also part of leadership" (J, Employee Experience Manager).

Specifically, one of the interviewees brought attention to a longstanding literature controversy prevalent in the 1990s regarding the distinction between a manager and a leader, as articulated by Kotter (1990), highlighting what the leader really does. For instance, referring to participant (L), *"Leadership is a sort of guidance, rather than what some people might confuse it with as management. I feel it is sort of contribution simply stating what to do, rather than ordering what to do." (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).*

The gathered data implies that effective leadership entails leading by example through a commitment to serving others, prioritising the collective "we" over individual "I". It is evident that leaders should demonstrate leadership through serving others, prioritising collective interests over personal ones and providing direction to those who require it, in addition to addressing any uncertainties or ambiguities that employees may encounter in their employment.

Ultimately, the need of directing and serving others emerged as an indispensable trait, linking it to prior scholarly works on leadership and grouping it to other traits that can be summed up in a newly created theme: Talent Catalyst.

4.3.1.4 Inclusivity of Employees

In line with leaders, growing others, being catalysts and including others, nowadays, the concept of employee inclusivity has gained significant attention in organisations. Inclusion has been widely accepted by both practitioners and researchers as crucial for organisations to maintain a sustained competitive advantage (Korkmaz et al., 2022). The study of inclusive leadership encompasses multiple perspectives and definitions (Carmeli et al., 2010; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006), but there is currently no consensus on a common definition (Randel et al., 2016).

Inclusivity has been defined by researchers as the act of accommodating the demands of employees (Nishii & Mayer, 2009), while others have described it as an invitation and acknowledgment of the contributions made by employees (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). In addition, Carmeli described it “as leaders who demonstrate visibility, accessibility and availability when interacting with their followers” (Carmeli et al., 2010, p. 250). A more contemporary definition, identified by Randel et al. (2018), characterizes it as the emphasis on promoting fairness and equality among employees as members of a group, while also offering possibilities for shared decision-making and fostering varied contributions. This definition reflects the evolving understanding of inclusive leadership that this study adopts. Therefore, in this study, we define inclusivity of employees as aligning employees with the big picture, embracing the philosophy of "all" employees instead of "some". Participants have shared their understating of inclusivity, such as: *"Maybe inclusivity, in new generation leaders feel it more than older generations." (A, HR Manager).*

"I would like to see more employee involvement" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).

"Those who take a different approach to make sure everyone understands what is going on. They ask questions, they make sure everyone is involved."(L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).

Moreover, inclusivity of employees involves including employees in decision-making, appreciating their value to the company's success and accrediting them to their success. For example, one of the informants has expressed her understanding of what a leader should be nowadays, reflecting on her experience with her manager as she believes he was the true definition of a leader. Informant (K) added: *"There are people who will tell you your success is my success, who would just roll up their sleeves and work with you at some points when it is long nights" (K, HR Business Partner).*

Besides, inclusivity of employees involves respecting employees' opinions and not feeling threatened that your employees might jump you over. Since some managers act similarly in situations out of weakness, believing that including their employees might steal their thunder and success, they keep them quiet and away from the work battlefield. Participant (O) added: *"Someone who views people*

as a company's key asset and recognises that its people would need more than just a regular steady pay, they would need a voice, they would need to feel included" (O, HR Business Partner).

Generally, employees' inclusivity is essential to their development and a key to the organisation's success. It is also an eye opener to spotting talents at early stages, where employee inclusivity philosophy must be integrated within succession planning programs inside organisations.

4.3.1.5 Patience

Shifting focus to a less explored sub-theme, it is important to highlight the significance of leaders demonstrating patience while interacting with employees. Patience, often undervalued academically, however, emerges as a crucial and potentially transformative quality integral to future successes and positive work relationships. Patience in this study refers to leaders accepting employees' different learning curves and sometimes bearing their mistakes. It creates a supportive and productive work environment, emphasising its potential influence on promoting personal and collective development inside the organisation. Interviewee (L) shared: *"I would include patience. That is number one. And I think that is a vital key to a leader's success is patience" (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator)*

Moreover, some of the participants shared personal stories on some of the "mess ups", as they would call them, they once did and how they were forgiven by their leaders, who gave them time to re-do those mistakes. Moreover, they indicated they owe their success to these mistakes and their leader's patience. For example, participants (C) and (H) noted:

"They have to be patient and resilient. They do not have to give up" (C, HR Academic Lecturer).

"A leader needs to understand and listen more to their employees" (H, Arabia Reward Manager).

Overall, the data highlight that patience is an essential organisational leadership trait that leaders should understand the impact it has on participants' work accomplishments and the appreciation they hold for their leaders who were once understanding and patient with them.

4.3.2 Theme Two: Interpersonal

One of the superior skills considered a cutting point in a leader's influence and charisma is interaction and communication with others. This skill should be mastered to create a successful leadership-follower relationship. Interpersonal competences is defined as the ability to comprehend, navigate and manage social relationships with others (Klein et al., 2006). Hence, interpersonal skills have become essential in leadership, and organisations invest heavily in training and developing their employees on different interpersonal skills (Donaldson-Feilder et al., 2022). This study defines

interpersonal as the modesty of understanding, serving and working with others. It reflects the leader's ability to deal effectively with others. As referred by one of the participants, "Mastering the Outer Game" (participant, J). During the analysis, four traits emerged within the first-order theme, namely: (1) Emotional Intelligence, (2) Empathy, (3) Working in Teams, and (4) Leading by Example. The findings related to each of the traits stated are discussed below.

4.3.2.1 Emotional Intelligence

In practice, Emotional Intelligence (EI) is one of the popular topics discussed in organisational training programs, usually as a part of leadership development programs (Li & Patterson, 2023). Nevertheless, EI is a vital concept in successful employment because EI attributes include the ability to self-access (self-awareness), the drive to attain a specific goal (motivation), practical and exceptional contact and communication ability (social skills) and self-management or self-regulation (Ashaye et al., 2023). Emotional Intelligence has a well founded relationship with leadership in previous studies (refer to Chapter two-part two); however, Emotional Intelligence was clearly mentioned throughout the entirety of the interviews as main leadership characteristic, which emphasises the association and adds significance to our proposed framework.

Furthermore, emotional intelligence is not typically categorised as an interpersonal skill per se; however, it greatly contributes to one's capacity to navigate and proficiently handle interpersonal interactions. It is vital to leadership to deal effectively with others as it involves understanding, regulating and controlling the leader's emotions and the other encounters. Interviewee (J) shared: *"Emotional Intelligence has to do with personal mastery. And this is a crucial measure when you come to speak about leadership" (J, Employee Experience Manager).*

In previous studies, it was debatable whether EI and Social Intelligence (SI) can be used interchangeably (Kobe et al., 2001); however, in this study it is assumed that EI and SI are critical to effective communication and mastering interpersonal skills. Emphasising the significance of communication skills for dealing with employees and team members, participants listed essential traits they would see inevitable in today's leadership:

"A leader should have interpersonal skills, which are on people skills. The key people skills are the way to communicate. You have to communicate effectively and influentially to be a leader." (N, Leadership and HR Academic Lecturer).

"There is also a people aspect of it. So, they know how to deal with people. They are good too, they have good communication skills" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).

Moreover, referring to emotion regulation as one of the main facets of EI (Law et al., 2004), an interviewee linked the "regulation of emotion" as a key to successful teamwork. This shows that being a good leader does not mean you cannot be a good team player; expressing that in practice, there will be times when holding your emotions, such as anger, is needed to make better decisions or get past work challenges. As quoted by (J): *"UhUh leader, I would say regulation of emotions and being a good team player" (J, Employee Experience Manager).*

"You have to have a certain level of Emotional Intelligence to persuade others to deliver the message correctly without any other. For example, if someone does not agree with your message, you must regulate your emotions. So you do not seem to be trying to convince people aggressively with your ideas." (F, Senior Learning & Development Consultant).

Nowadays, EI seems to be a golden skill to guarantee success. Building on the fact that all human interactions require a level of understanding and positive communication to ensure successful relations; with the same analogy, it can be understood from the qualitative data that experience, effectively communicating, regulating self-emotions and others' emotins are crucial to leaders' success.

4.3.2.2 Empathy

In addition to understanding others' emotions is empathising with others, being sensitive to others' feelings whilst having compassion towards others' feelings and simply putting oneself in the place of others. While there is a general consensus on leadership traits, such as intelligence, vision and passion, there are certain "softer" traits, such as compassion and empathy, that have not been traditionally recognised as suitable for leadership and, in some cases, were frowned upon within the authoritarian perspective of leadership (Holt & Marques, 2012). However, the interviews recognised empathy as vital leadership trait that is now called for; in literature, Empathy is defined as "providing emotional support to people when needed, and to understand the links between others' emotions and behaviours" (Polychroniou, 2009, p. 345). To fully understand what others feel and need, Interviewees (G),(B),(I) and (H) mentioned: *"Now, leaders are trying to be humbler and communicating with the people under their supervision" (G, HR Business Partner)*.

"He should be a human first. He should be someone with emotional capabilities to understand the team he/she is working with, someone who is understanding for all the situations." (B, Head of People and Culture).

"A leader needs to understand and listen to the employees more" (H, Arabia Reward Manager).

"A leader should be someone who is working with empathy with other employees, and who is just trying to be a good teammate, for the sake of just trying to get all others comfortably working in their-own style." (I, Global Learning Lead).

Furthermore, one interviewee accentuated work-life balance as a vital work aspect she cherishes nowadays. Accordingly, the interviewee leaned towards leaders' understanding of their employees' family demands, prioritising work-life balance for all. Hence, interviewee (E) was reflecting on COVID-19 and its implications on her work-life balance and how it was negatively affected. Consequently, stressing that within such turbulent circumstances, empathic leaders are called for: *"To understand the other individual's needs is very important because, currently, the world is very stressful. And we have more or are confronted with multiple demands, either family demands, work demands or overall life demands. So, I believe if I am a leader, I should understand that those demands are very stressful." (E, HR Academic Lecturer).*

Also, participant (D) stressed the fact that one way to sympathise with others is by making their life easy at work by understanding their situation and needs: *"Someone capable of dealing with others and to facilitate issues and things to be easy" (D, Compensation & Benefit and Personnel Manager).*

While empathy was emphasised in most interviews, one of the informants made an interesting inclination which implies having a balance between being understanding, sensitive and empathetic whilst not involving too many emotions that might cloud the judgement and, in some cases, affect decision-making: *"Understanding is key when dealing with people. And also, you know, you need to sympathise. I think that is another trait, and I would add, being able to sympathise and make decisions without involving your emotion so much." (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).*

Finally, it becomes evident throughout the conversations with participants that they focus on the human side of the leader as an essential factor of success, highlighting that being empathetic, sensitive and understanding are vital to a successful work relationship.

4.3.2.3 Works in Teams

Today's organisations are moving towards broader, shorter, horizontal structures that foster collaboration and teamwork (P. Verma et al., 2022), allowing for better integration and communication internally and externally. Leaders must adopt such structures and fully encourage working in teams. Accordingly, a leader must have a teamwork spirit to understand that collaboration drives success. Participant (O) stated that: "*Leaders are people who also can work with a wider network to foster*

collaboration amongst the members" (O, HR Business Partner). Thus, working with others to build stronger ties and networks internally and externally is integral.

Also, a participant (Q) shared an interesting fact regarding her company: their business cards do not show their position in the company, and this is one of the values they are proud of. Simply showing that, regardless of the title, we are all the same; we work as a "team". She proudly quoted: *"In my company, all job titles are the same, so even in the business cards, you would have the name and the organisation, you would not know the title of this person or where she/he lies within the organisation structure you would only find on the card ; the organisation, department. So they are removing those barriers; they want everyone to work together, collaborate and work in teams." (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).* This shows that modern leadership does not share the same old beliefs and aspirations of status and work levels that once took place (J. Ahn & W. Ettner, 2014). Besides, it became visible inside organisations within office arrangements and ease of accessibility from lower employee levels.

Furthermore, interviewee (L) was very keen to building a strong inference on informal leadership, being the righteous definitions of what leadership is and should be, illustrating that early signs of leadership begin within groups and teams while taking the informal lead and exerting informal power that stems within natural interpersonal skills: *"To see a leader shine is within a group setting within a team" (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).*

Finally, teamwork has become essential to today's organisation's leadership. Everyone needs to be able to work with others and believe in team synergy, mainly focusing on leaders who sometimes get caught up with the title and the authority they have gained, derailing from the importance of bonding and collaborating with their employees.

4.3.2.4 Lead By Example

Indeed, the leadership principle of "Lead by Example" is widely recognised and considered to be a fundamental aspect of effective leadership. This approach entails exhibiting the desired actions and behaviours for others to emulate, by demonstrating the desired behaviour and actively engaging in the tasks of your team members. Participant (Q) stated: "*Definitely, he is someone that you respect and look up to, and it has to be someone good who does good. So, they are people-oriented, and they know how to deal with people. They know how to lead and work in a team." (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).*

Another interviewee reaffirmed the importance of leaders leading by example at work, recalling her previous experience with one of her last managers. He would give them work and assign goals that he does not do and would always preach about the company's goals and values while doing the opposite in

the slightest situations. The interviewee described her manager as being a "hypocrite" at work. However, we chose to associate her experience with her manager as a poor attempt to lead by example. *Interviewee (D) said, "A leader has to keep a positive communication with all and to lead by example, regarding the ethics, the company values and purpose." (D, Compensation & Benefit and Personnel Manager).*

Finally, leading by example ensures successful leadership and fosters trust between followers and their leader. It also affirms the timeless adage that "actions speak louder than words," so it is a good idea to model what you are saying to give some credibility to what you do and say.

4.3.3 Theme Three: Intrapersonal

Early investigations have underscored that the outward manifestation of an individual's behaviour primarily unfolds in interpersonal interactions within an organisational context. Nevertheless, the trigger for such behaviour originates from intrapersonal actions (Aristigueta, 1997). Literature defines intrapersonal skills as the abilities of a person to possess a strong moral and psychological foundation, allowing them to consistently and ethically navigate various situations. These skills are rooted on a strong sense of self and the capacity to learn from experience (Aristigueta, 1997).

Consequently, this study defines the intrapersonal skills in a more comprehensive way; it refers to a leader's understanding of one's self-emotions and mind and who has mastered the inner compass of bringing out the best in self, in retrospect, someone who has strong personal connection and self-awareness. Intrapersonal skills help a person better cope with challenges, relieve stress and be open to change. It is a vital skill in today's turbulent world, which is full of strange events.

Furthermore, the contemporary emphasis on intrapersonal skills is heightened by the prevalence of mindfulness as a crucial competency in leadership, emphasised in influential literature and organisational discussions (Warrier et al., 2022). Being mindful has a pivotal role in leadership, necessitating leaders to cultivate internal self-confidence, discipline and a sense of inner peace.

In sum, interpersonal skills were referred to as "mastering the outer game", and intrapersonal skills are considered to be the other side of the coin. Intrapersonal is concerned with "mastering the inner game". Throughout the analysis, four traits emerged: (1) Bias to action, (2) Creativity, (3) Innovation and (4) Selflessness.

4.3.3.1 Bias to Action

The adage "Actions speak louder than words", as the old saying goes, accurately characterises leadership. Leaders should possess a proactive and action-oriented approach. Furthermore, being inclined towards action entails the tendency to act wisely and promptly. In this study, future leaders were identified as individuals who possess patience, which contrasts with a propensity towards taking immediate action. However, the specific aspect of patience referred to this context was the ability to tolerate mistakes and patiently guide employees until they become proficient. However, bias towards action in this context pertains to the leader's ability to make deliberate decisions and take prompt actions in certain situations. Similarly, two interviewees discussed:

"A leader should be fast Action fast-paced" (B, Head of People and Culture).

"A leader is objective and biased to action and wants to get things done" (A, HR Manager).

Additionally, leaders can experience planning stagnation, which occurs when leaders become so consumed with planning that they forget about execution and implementation as part of the process, which emphasises the importance of taking action. This was reflected in the conversation with the interviewee (F): *"I think a leader should be someone less than a planner as much as he is a doer" (F, Senior Learning & Development Consultant).*

We are all familiar with the expression "I will be expecting from your (…)". Deliverables are essential for assessing an employee's performance. Likewise, leaders should be evaluated based on their tangible outcomes. Leaders must be responsible for implementing strategies and fulfilling commitments. Interviewee (K) mentioned, *"A leader must have a bit of responsibility and accountability. If a leader said I am going to deliver, he delivers, no matter what, because you were committed to delivering." (K, HR Business Partner).*

Overall, the interviews corroborate our belief that action is superior to inaction; it has been demonstrated that a good leader should always be in favour of taking action rather than being passive, especially in difficult times.

4.3.3.2 Creativity

In addition to being action-oriented, it is necessary to have a fresh mind and the ability to think creatively out of the box. Many great businesses were propelled forward by the creativity of their leaders and founders (Gelaidan et al., 2022). Creativity is being able to initiate original and actionable ideas.

This was mentioned by several participants when they were asked about what essential characteristics they need to see in leaders:

"He shows a state of mind different from others" (R, Entrepreneurship and HR Academic Lecturer).

'To think out of the box and to have long, long-term vision" (D, Compensation & Benefit and Personnel Manager).

"Creativity is essential in a leader" (C, HR Academic Lecturer).

"Freshness of mind, you know, creativity, coming up with new very fresh and, and super relevant futuristic ideas" (K, HR Business Partner).

This emphasises the necessity of having a leader who thinks untraditionally, can creatively transform challenges and threats into opportunities, approaches problems differently with a broad mind and considers all angles of the situation. Interviewee (I) said:, *"I would consider divergent thinking and design thinking, putting everything into perspective" (I, Global Learning Lead).* Here, informant (I) was reflecting on her manager's "divergent thinking" she called during the Covid-19 pandemic; the company was in a tight financial position, where some of the junior salespeople were to be laid off to improve the economic situation. Instead, her manager devised a creative solution of a work-sharing policy where, instead of laying off some of them, responsibilities and income will be shared across all junior salespeople. After this was reviewed and studied financially, it was a successful solution. Then, six months later, their original salaries and compensation packages were reverted to normal in early 2021. Sharing this experience gave her confidence that a divergent creative leader makes the most significant decisions in difficult times.

Unsurprisingly, creativity is and will always remain one of the leaders' most essential skills. In recent years, the success or failure of businesses has been attributed to a lack of creativity (Mehmood et al., 2022). Millennial leaders still consider it as one of the significant characteristics.

4.3.3.3 Innovation

A well-known saying in business is "Innovate or perish". Many previously highly successful businesses have failed to relate to this particular issue. Innovation necessitates a mindset that is receptive to change, adept at swiftly adapting and sceptical of stagnation. Recalling some of the participants' words during our conversations: *"He should believe in innovation, belief in change" (N, Leadership and HR Academic Lecturer).*

"Innovation, so they need to go beyond what is already there" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner). Here, participants reflected on the importance of a leader being novel, to believe in change and not stand still but welcome challenges.

An interesting remark was brought by one of the participants during the interview, condemning multinational corporations in Egypt for acting as policy executors for overseas headquarters. They do not have as much flexibility to innovate and change. Compared to leaders in start-ups and local private businesses, they are regarded as policymakers since they have complete freedom to innovate and change: *"So, they do not take everything as is, you know, this is 1,2,3 that we are going to follow that but think, what can we do to improve the current process? So definitely, innovation is part of it" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).*

Most interviewees referring to millennial leaders would mainly signify how different they are compared to Gen X as they constantly challenge the status quo; they will always strive to enhance and add to the process rather than blindly follow policies and regulations. Participant (J) mentioned, "*Today, millennial leaders are more open. They are not taking things as they are challenging what we are currently doing, spotting the opportunity to bring things out of the box, having more courage to having an appetite for trial and experimentation" (J, Employee Experience Manager).*

Throughout the interviews, it was evident that change is fundamental and a driver of success. In this study, the interviews highlighted a paradoxical distinction between innovation and creativity. The interview discussions resonated with existing literature, particularly the insights articulated by Beesley and Cooper, who delineated the dichotomy between creativity and innovation. According to their definition, "Creativity is the initial generation of ideas," whereas "innovation is the subsequent implementation of creative ideas"(Beesley & Cooper, 2008, p. 53). This illustration posits innovation as a more instrumental force, denoting a purposeful application of creative concepts. In contrast, creativity is characterised by its unconstrained nature, assuming a more radical stance. This dynamic interplay between creativity and innovation contributes to a comprehensive understanding of their important roles in the domain of change and success.

4.3.3.4 Selflessness

Selfless leaders refrain from exploiting their employees and actively promote their success. Instead of being opportunistic in holding top positions and wanting it "all", they would devote their talent, effort and time to their businesses and employees. Participant C mentioned: *"They should be selfless. I think that's very important in a leader nowadays." (C, HR Academic Lecturer).*

Sometimes, employees worldwide make the mistake of believing they are being used, mistreated by their employers and treated unfairly. The reason for this is that their managers do not fairly compensate them or acknowledge their efforts, long hours and hard work. As a result, a selfless leader must work on rewarding their staff for their achievements, recognising their successes, acknowledging their hard work and providing them with all the help and assistance they require. As interviewee (J) described: *"Leadership is being selfless in how you lead and manage your teams. It is looking holistically at the welfare of the entire company and increasingly keeping that balance between what the company needs and your responsibility towards the team you are leading." (J, Employee Experience Manager).*

The interviews have shown the value of having a selfless leader, which, despite being the norm, can be lost in today's world. Some leaders require constant reminders about the business and the people who work there, focusing on the general interest over the personal interest.

4.3.4 Theme Four: Entrepreneurial

This theme refers to one's entrepreneurial behaviour and the drive and passion leaders have towards their ideas and work. Furthermore, entrepreneurial behaviour is a crucial component of leadership since it stems from one's perspective in moving the organisation to a better place, turning problems into opportunities, taking risks and, most importantly, stretching people's abilities to achieve what is valuable (Bagheri & Harrison, 2020). Thus, this study defines entrepreneurship as creating new opportunities, encouraging experimentation and risk-taking and believing in a profitable tomorrow. This theme discusses four traits, namely (1) charismatic, (2)Visionary, (3) business acumen and (4) initiator.

4.3.4.1 Charismatic

Charisma is a characteristic that is strongly associated with leadership. It has also been a popular and classic leadership style (Antonakis et al., 2022; J. Hu & Dutta, 2022; Nieken, 2023). Charisma has always been difficult to define since various people perceive it differently. It has also been debated whether it is natural or nurtured, whether it is simply born with or developed. But one thing is sure: charisma is a quality that people can easily recognise. Charismatic leadership is defined as "value-based, symbolic and emotion-laden leader signalling" (Antonakis et al., 2016, p. 304). Throughout the interviews, some participants pointed out "Charisma" as an essential characteristic they would opt to find in a leader, while others described their understanding of "charisma". For instance, participant (E) mentioned, *"Charisma is one of the things that could help you to early spot or expect a person could be a good leader." (E, HR Academic Lecturer)*.

As mentioned, charisma is a versatile term that could be perceived in many ways, primarily positive. One of the participants (J) associated charisma with having a solid presence, a clear purpose and a deep sense of passion in the workplace. Interviewee (J) quoted: *"A leader is someone strong on his persona, who has a purpose that he or she looks after, who has a purpose that he or she brings into the workplace that keeps this person motivated to keep this person passionate about what they do." (J, Employee Experience Manager).*

Moreover, charisma is built on people's strong sense of communication skills, attractiveness and capability to inspire their followers. Then, building this sort of devotion and connection requires a degree of trust. Thus, participant (L) stated that: *"Leading is not easy; Leading is being able to have followers who truly believe in what you have to say in what you have to do to do" (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).*

Another interviewee (R) defined leadership from her perspective as very descriptive. She clearly described a charismatic leader through her lens and voice by sharing that: *"They show a state of mind different from others, and they have this kind of direction. They are very loud, not loud in voice, I mean, loud by thoughts. They are very enthusiastic and charismatic; they have this way of convincing you of what they want or what they like, not in a manipulative way but in a positive way. So, it is like they are capable of expressing their ideas and thoughts easily. And they are excellent in communication" (R, Entrepreneurship and HR Academic Lecturer).* Consequently, this can be a simple illustration of how people would feel when there is a charismatic person in the room: how would they look up to and perceive their every word.

In a nutshell, charisma will always be positively correlated with leadership in people's minds; charisma is the positive presence and enigma that leaders project to their followers.

4.3.4.2 Visionary

One of the most significant adjectives in today's corporations is visionary and strategic thinking. Moreover, one of the most crucial parts of an individuals' career progression is the ability to see the broad picture and to think strategically with a clear vision. Literature has defined visionary leadership as communicating and acting in accordance with a collective future image (Kim et al., 2023). Thus, "Visionary" in this study refers to a person's ability to think strategically, stating clear goals, planning and identifying opportunities. Several participants (M), (F) and (O) have quoted the following:

"What makes a leader is his vision." (M, HR Manager).

"So, someone who thinks strategically sees the big picture, the bigger picture of the organisation, and someone who can align his team's goals to the organisational goal" (F, Senior Learning & Development Consultant).

"We want people who mainly have their eyes on the bigger ball, who can see the big picture, who usually try to collaborate efforts and who are interested in other domains or functions or an extended scope" (O, HR Business Partner).

Employees with this helicopter-view thinking tend to move fast up the corporate ladder. According to the interviewee (O) insights about their recruitment process, he professed the importance they place on being a visionary, primarily when recruiting for senior positions, that they make sure their selection process attests to the candidates' ability to think strategically, to be able to set short- and long-term realistic plans and to highlight how they plan on growing the business. *"They need to have a vision, a clear vision, a strategic vision of where they intend on growing what, what objectives they intend on accomplishing, they need to have the ability to assemble and foster a team that would take this vision and bring it into reality" (O, HR Business Partner).*

Furthermore, leadership demands being a visionary for various reasons, including the ability to pave a route for their followers to see into the future of work, set dependent plans for setbacks and face challenges and difficulties. Interviewees (M) and (Q) have spoken profoundly on these aspects:

"*Leadership is correlated with strategy. Leaders are the ones who set the strategy and decide on how to move things forward. Leadership is how behaviours and cultures are cascaded into any organisation. Leadership is the main driver of deciding whether your organisation will succeed or face numerous obstacles" (M, HR Manager).*

"So, leaders tend to think long term, what are the next steps, not just the next steps next month, but that we have like a short term plan a long term plan? Simply they are visionaries" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).

Eventually, attributing visionary to testing leadership potentiality has always been a classic throughout all generations and leadership styles. Nowadays, visionary leadership has become one of the profound characteristics required in modern organisational leadership (Ismail et al., 2023; A. N. Khan et al., 2023).

4.3.4.3 Business Acumen

Reflecting on the interviews, it was clearly stated that the importance of leaders understanding the business to be aware of the environment to have this advanced level of proficiency in understanding the

industry in which the business operates to understand how each role in the organisation drives profits. Business Acumen has been one of the shared global standards of leadership (SOL) competencies required in most multinational companies (Bag & Wood, 2022). As witnessed, most of the top multinational companies published SOL. Moreover, studies have shown that it is theoretically conceivable to say that leaders must have excellent "Business Acumen" (Grilli, 2022). Thus, Business Acumen is becoming aware of essential business operations, stakeholders and markets, applying this knowledge to analyse business issues and make informed strategic decisions and recommendations (Ragas & Culp, 2021).

"The leader needs to fully understand the business" (D, Compensation & Benefit and Personnel Manager).

"They know what is in the market. So, they have that business acumen as well as market awareness. They know the latest trend." (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).

"Someone who also has the business acumen, strong business acumen to have the big picture and understand how things intertwine and how things can even cross across functions or interdepartmental and eventually lead to the final chain of business operations" (O, HR Business Partner).

The interviews have clarified a wide misperception between being "business literate" and "business acumen". Many have used both interchangeably; however, there is a substantial difference between both regarding the level of advanced knowledge required. Business literacy requires a basic understanding and knowledge of how to operate the business. However, business acumen requires leaders to understand the business language to make strategic decisions that will drive business success.

4.3.4.4 Initiator

The field of literature has acknowledged the initiator as a characteristic of personality, but it has not been explicitly linked to leadership. Therefore, this study has defined the term "initiator" to refer to an individual who assumes the role of proposing, developing or executing innovative ideas. They possess a strong motivation, drive and demonstrate a proactive approach while making decisions. However, in the context of business, "initiator" has been denoted in versatile situations. For instance, participant (K) has discussed the initiator as a leader who can predict fallouts early and take proactive and quick actions. Also, to have the perseverance of trying many times till things get right: *"being able to see changes coming through even faster than then when they come and being proactive to take actions, if something doesn't work, you go back and you change it." (K, HR Business Partner).*

Furthermore, the initiator has also been associated with those who can make and take the right decisions. Participant (H): *"A leader is a person whose responsibility to make decisions in our organisation either in a separate or different country, but at the end, they are part of the decisions" (H, Arabia Reward Manager).*

Informant (R) discussed the significance of making quick decisions in difficult situations. She distinguished between leaders who make decisions and leaders who make decisions under pressure while facing challenges; this requires careful analysis of the situation and initiative in making timely decisions. "*Being capable of deciding and analysing what is happening around you. Someone who has this thing about thinking and analysing the situation, while everyone is under pressure, and he/ she is capable of thinking and taking the right action" (R, Entrepreneurship and HR Academic Lecturer).*

Finally, depending on the context and people's perceptions of the event, "initiator" can have different meanings. However, the significance of this characteristic to any leader profile cannot be overlooked, as it can signify having early signs of leadership potential.

4.3.5 Theme Five: Agility

Although “Agility” in nature might be viewed as an intrapersonal dimension, it was emphasised multiple times by the participants, which could not be ignored in our study. Answering this, “Agility” is considered the study's last theme. Previous studies have vaguely defined leadership agility "as the agility in influencing others and making the desired changes" (Sanatigar et al., 2017, p. 279). In this study, it is defined as the ability to accept and understand what is new and to be able to flex your plans and leadership style accordingly. In other words, it shows the leader's capacity to accept and grasp what is new and to be able to stretch the strategy to fit the situation at hand. Most recent articles discussed "organisational agility" as teams working together, being motivated, organised and showing a remarkable improvisation ability (AlNuaimi et al., 2022). Moreover, organisational agility is adapting rapidly and proactively to unexpected changes in dynamic situations through efficient resource recalibration and swift decision-making (Gong & Ribiere, 2023). As a result, this research focused on leadership agility, meaning focusing on the roots of where agility stems, eventually leading to workforce and organisational agility (S. Verma & Mehta, 2022), whilst also focusing on flexibility, adaptation and learning. Therefore, six characteristics emerged from the analysis, namely (1) Eager to Learn, (2) Easy to Adapt, (3) Flexible, (4) Accepting Diversity, (5) Problem Solver, (6) Tech Savvy.

4.3.5.1 Eager to Learn

Throughout their leadership journey, some leaders lose sight that they are still here to learn and begin to believe they must know everything. They lose the desire to always strive for improvement and be eager to learn and explore new horizons. In this study, interviewees emphasised looking for leaders who are constantly motivated to learn more and broaden their expertise. Participant (O) shared her opinion about how she views leadership. "Leadership for me is ambition, someone who is curious to learn, the ability to learn and the capacity to learn."(O, HR Business Partner).

Furthermore, participant (Q) was excited about fostering continuous learning as a critical element in leaders' success. She kept returning to her/his willingness to learn in many posed questions, highlighting the necessity of acquiring keen and inquisitive people given her job as talent acquisition partner: *"So dedicated with time and knowing that you do not know best, there is always something like a better solution, a better option. So, you are always in continuous learning" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).*

"It is also imperative that they know what is in the market. So, they have that business acumen as well as market awareness. They know the latest trend" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).

Finally, regardless of the position you attain, learning is an ongoing process. Individuals, particularly those in positions of authority, should bear in mind that their accomplishments attained through their organisational position or leadership role represent only the beginning of an endless journey of acquiring information and continuous learning.

4.3.5.2 Easy to Adapt

In today's dynamic world, the saying "change is the only constant" stands true. Adhering to plans and predicting future outcomes might be difficult due to the presence of unforeseeable events like the COVID-19 pandemic, currency fluctuations, inflation leading to currency depreciation, war and so on. Consequently, organisations are seeking adaptable leaders with an agile mindset. Based on the outcomes of interviews, "easy to adapt" refers to a person who is ductile and able to alter and modify their plans to meet the current and, most importantly, unexpected conditions. Participants (H), (O) and (C) simply emphasised the need to adapt and cope as a leader nowadays:

"I think a leader just needs to cope with what happens these days" (H, Arabia Reward Manager).

"Leadership for me means to adapt to the uncertain, external markets and the current trends" (O, HR Business Partner).

"Whatis important is their ability to accept change. Because obviously, it is a dynamic business environment, there is always changing. So, they should have the ability to adapt to change" (C, HR Academic Lecturer).

In her interview, participant (R) discussed various distressing situations she had encountered since commencing her employment. Among them, she recalled "November 2016 initial currency flotation" that had a severe impact on Egypt's various industries, including the university where she was employed. As a result, tuition fees increased by 120%, due to being valued in U.S dollars. One can only imagine the immense despair and financial strain experienced by the students and their families. Upon the university president's guidance, the institution implemented exceptional steps, including the implementation of mitigation measures and installment plans. Additionally, the internal university dollar exchange rate was set flat at a lower rate that the official value, disregarding the prevailing economic conditions in Egypt. By sharing this example, it assured her that the institution will promptly and expeditiously respond to undesirable circumstances.

"Leaders should be more accepting and open for everything like we have been through a lot. So, I think in our age group, we need those leaders who are open to accepting anything and everything. They must deal with many circumstances" (R, Entrepreneurship and HR Academic Lecturer).

Furthermore, participant (L) expressed her belief that our view of leadership changes due to new technology, circumstances and experience. Leaders' leadership styles have already changed. As a result, the only way for leaders to survive is to learn to adapt to these changes, technologies and pleasant and unpleasant events. *"I think over time, the definition of leadership has changed with all the new understandings or technologies, or the new experiences, the new and upcoming business fields. I think leaders should be able to keep up with all what is changing." (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).*

Lastly, it is clear from the interviews' discussions that having a leader who can quickly adapt and embrace change is vital for today's and future leaders.

4.3.5.3 Flexible

Today, we live a rapid, fast-paced life with diversified activities, antagonistic organisational roles and complex demands. All this results in employee tension and, in some cases, necessary compromises that require a careful balancing act between "Work" and "Life" (Baron et al., 2018). As a result, juggling Work-Life Balance has been the topic of the era.

Moreover, previous researchers have argued that to keep workplace tensions in balance, leaders must flex their leadership style to the demands of their employees (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010). In the

literature, several terms have been used to define this type of leadership style as reflective, adaptive, agile, versatile and flexible (Baron et al., 2018). On the other hand, this study seeks to create slight differences between the aforementioned leadership styles, grouping some of them under the umbrella of "Leadership Agility" while focusing on "Leadership Flexibility" as a sub-determinant of constructing our understanding of Leadership Agility. Thus, previous research defined Leadership Flexibility as an emphasis on responding to events, balancing competing needs and shifting perspectives (Baron et al., 2018). In psychology research, "psychological flexibility" refers to the ability to become aware of one's thoughts and feelings in the present moment, without judgement, and to alter or continue in conduct when doing so achieves a valued purpose (Hayes et al., 2006).

However, this study chooses to differentiate between leadership adaptability and flexibility in leaders' behaviour towards their employees or the situation. Leadership flexibility refers to being flexible and capable of balancing employees' competing values, different personalities and needs, to cater for the best leadership style that suits employees' skills, personality, values and needs. Therefore, flexibility in some cases might involve understanding your employees' demands and, accordingly, employing the correct pattern of behaviour and degree of flexibility needed to ensure effective leadership. Interviewees (K) and (J) mainly focused on the importance of flexibility from the personal behavioural perspective, as they quoted:

"I think leadership is openness and flexibility" (K, HR Business Partner).

"Leadership requires regulation of emotions, being a good team player, having this agile mindset and flexible leadership style where you flex your leadership style according to the situation and according to people" (J, Employee Experience Manager).

Throughout the interviews, greater emphasis was placed on the leaders' "personal" flexibility behaviour, making it clear that our interviewees were more prone to being understanding and flexible on a personal level. In their interviews, interviewees (F) and (C) made it clear that leaders of different generations think and behave differently, that millennial leaders are more flexible and understanding of their matters, that they prioritise work-life balance and that they offer flexibility and agility programmes in how they lead:

"Millennial leaders are more flexible; when it comes to leadership, to leading others, they are more lenient. They are more accepting of the small mistakes" (F, Senior Learning & Development Consultant).

"But I think the millennial generation, in general, has a more decentralisation approach. They are more flexible, they are easy going, or more understanding in my opinion than the older generation." (C, HR Academic Lecturer).

In conclusion, leaders must understand the needs of others in order to respond to those needs constructively; behavioural flexibility affects each other, resulting in a profound member-leader relationship.

4.3.5.4 Accepting Diversity

Globalisation has given rise to what we now refer to as "multinational companies" (MNCs); the disappearance of borders between countries manifested in the creation of organisations with multicultural structures (Polat & Olcum, 2016). These structures created a need to carefully manage employees' cultural, demographical and organisational diversities. Thus, accepting diversity, including gender, attitude, ethnicity and culture and recognising and embracing individual differences are essential (Kamales & Knorr, 2018). The difficulty is in establishing a safe environment where thoughts and feelings can be expressed, ideas can be discussed and an overall sense of understanding can be accomplished.

Besides, organisations have been fostering diversity, equity and inclusion as fundamental Standards of Leadership (SOLs) and values. Creating an open and inviting organisational environment, respecting differences and allowing individuals to bring their authentic selves to work requires a leader who accepts diversity. In literature, diversity leadership is more than accepting; it implies respecting and valuing differences rather than just accepting the differences and offering opportunities rather than difficulties (Polat & Olcum, 2016). Participants (N) and (L) quoted:

"What *makes a leader a leader is holding certain values, let's begin with values as a leader I believe he must believe in diversity" (N, Leadership and HR Academic Lecturer).*

"And I would include an open-minded. I think this is key for sure, especially when you are dealing with many different people from different backgrounds, it is important to be aware that there is a difference and embrace that difference" (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).

Additionally, in this study, participants' viewpoints on millennial leadership traits pointed to the importance of leaders not just accepting racial and nationality workforce diversity but also different ideas, personalities, beliefs, opinions, thoughts, etc. Interviewee (H) stated: *"A Leader needs to be not just open-minded, but he accepts different, let's say, what they call like out of the box ideas. He should accept any kind of different ideas coming from the team and just have, let's say, the willingness to take*

the risk to implement new things." (H, Arabia Reward Manager). This demonstrates the need for leaders to not just accept diversity but also leverage this difference to achieve a higher level of success and unveil all of the potential of their employees.

Moreover, interviewee (A) shared a personal experience during the lockdown of COVID-19; he shared that during this phase, he had two team members join; one was newly hired, and the other was a newly co-assigned team leader from another country. The challenge was overcoming all the differences in a short period but also virtual. The integration of the team together was a challenge, but mostly, having a co-leadership with someone from a different country and background was the main struggle. Reflecting on this situation, he explained that the first step to getting through this successfully was to accept the idea of having someone new to the team with a different school of thought. Next is embracing this difference, finally capitalising on it" He quoted, *"So, leaders must know how to accept the idea that I can accept someone from another culture to be with me or to help me or to be on my team." (A, HR Manager).* In sum, the key to having a successful leader that accepts diversity requires an agile mindset.

4.3.5.5 Problem Solver

Organisations face multiple problems that require a leader to accept, adapt and act regarding the problem. That being said, having a "Problem Solver" is one of the most significant leadership competencies (Aas et al., 2008; Seibel et al., 2023). In this study a problem solver refers to a person who can critically and analytically think but also ensures the success of the decisions taken. It requires a leader with a great analytical mind and technical expertise to strip the problem to its root cause and take the right action.

Referring back to the interviews, it was evident that all participants were preaching about the importance of having a leader who can think under pressure and analyse all the situational factors of the problem to make the right decision. Participants (C) and (A) quoted, *"Leaders have to be able to think or to manage complex situations." (C, HR Academic Lecturer).*

"In my opinion, leadership is the ability to motivate and initiate new solutions and take risks in enhancing or developing whatever the responsibility is; this is what you are supposed to do." (A, HR Manager).

Multiple leadership traits were brought out throughout the interviews, such as "having cognitive skills, working under pressure, capable of thinking, broad-minded, structured, ability to perceive and be critical. All of the preceding traits were ground down to a main competency, which this study perceives

as crucial to our current world, which is a "problem solver". Moreover, the interviewees shared more opinions about their current leaders and their aspirations for future leaders. Among those opinions, interviewees (R),(M) and (N) stated,

"Being capable of taking a decision and analysing what is happening around you. Someone who has this thing about thinking and analysing the situation, while everyone is under pressure, and he/ she is capable of thinking and taking the right action" (R, Entrepreneurship and HR Academic Lecturer).

"The way he reacts and responds, in difficult situations, the way he thinks. Is he narrow-minded? Is he very structural and specific? Or does he look at the bigger picture? Usually, we are attracted to the ones who look at the bigger picture. So, this gives you a sense of how he perceives any situation or circumstance and how he processes the whole situation into his mind." (M, HR Manager).

"A leader has to have cognitive skills, to be able to solve problems in the organisation and to deliver critical briefings." (N, Leadership and HR Academic Lecturer).

In conclusion, being a problem solver is a prerequisite to leadership and propels an agile mindset in the right direction.

4.3.5.6 Tech Savvy

Generational difference is a focal point in this study. Thus, we cannot overlook the reality that the fundamental distinctions among generations frequently boil down to the ease and acceptance of technology witnessed by generations (Clark & Nyaupane, 2023). As a result, in order to thrive, organisations must keep up with rapidly changing social, economic and technological changes. Hence, "going digital" and "tech savvy" have recently been overused in the business world aside what business spend in new technologies and Artificial Intelligence (Chen & Srinivasan, 2023; Davison et al., 2023). This implies the need for leaders who could lead this digital environment.

Throughout the interviews, most participants were asked to create a profile for future leaders; they were intended to reflect on their work experience and understanding of future business needs. Most of the interviewees have mentioned "tech savvy" and "digital literate" as joint competencies needed for business leadership's future. Participants (F), (R), (Q) and (I) quoted,

"Technology for sure. And now that we talked about it, they need to have that awareness of the latest technology, the latest trends, how can we know make use of it and add it to our advantage" (Q, Talent Acquisition Partner).

"I don't want to say tech literate, or tech literacy, but I think it must be there; everyone, everywhere knows everything about everyone"(R, Entrepreneurship and HR Academic Lecturer).

"A leader needs to be up to speed with what is happening in the digital world" (I, Global Learning Lead).

"A leader believes in digital transformation" (F, Senior Learning & Development Consultant).

"Millennials leaders are and should be tech savvy" (I, Global Learning Lead).

Furthermore, awareness and literacy are usually the first steps, but the interviewees go beyond that, as it calls for leaders who are savvy, who are not just literate, but are the digital transformers; they make use of and application of the digital technologies and put it to good business use. Utilising social media as one of the digital arms in business was spoken about by one of the participants, (J), who shared examples of her leaders' utilisation of social media platforms to the business advantage: *"keeping up to date with the latest industry concepts and technologies. And maybe we can link this to the exposures you might take from social media, and how social media can keep you updated with the latest industry concepts and technology" (J, Employee Experience Manager).*

Finally, being tech savvy has become necessary to survive in this world, where everything is powered by technology that advances at the speed of light. Thus, seeking leaders with this agile mindset of constantly learning, adapting and utilising technology is called for.

4.4 Implications to Study One

The nature of this study is argumentative because leadership is a versatile topic; anyone and anything can be represented as a leader. However, this study focused on the positive view of leadership. It is interesting to apply this research to other contexts, but we chose to contextualise it on millennial generations, which added to the originality of the study. Thus, this qualitative study has important implications. To begin, the data revealed many desired leadership traits for millennial leaders in business. Specifically, five main broad dimensions have been identified: Talent Catalyst, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal, Entrepreneurial and Agility (see Table 6 for a summary of dimensions conceptualisation in this study). While 23 sub-categories have been associated with millennial leaders, this is, to the researcher's knowledge, the first study that groups these leadership characteristics together and contextualises it on a specific generational cohort: millennials.

Moreover, the literature has suggested possible linear relations between the independent variables Talent Management (TM), Emotional Intelligence (EI), Social Media Use (SMU) and the dependent variable Leadership Potential (refer to chapter 2). Besides the literature that supported the predictors inherited relationships (see chapter two, part two), the interviews included other questions that

empirically refined the model. Thus, the evidence from the interviews showed potential associations between TM and MLP, EI and MLP, SMU and MLP.

The following part delves into the revised conceptual model and the relationships between the variables, where it shows evidence from the qualitative data supporting the proposed relation between TM and MLP. For example, one participant shared her company's current objectives, emphasising the role of TM the company takes: *"One of the company's objectives is to be a talent hub for the region. The practice itself is more about leadership. We have standards of leadership; we evaluate employees and appraise them. According to those standards, when we find employees that have some of these standards, we give them extra focus, we give them extra roles to make sure that they develop as they polish these talents for the sake of future leadership roles, as well as of course, the learning and development" (M, HR Manager).*

Also, participant (E) shared her opinion regarding the importance of TM in identifying early potential leaders: "*A good leader should have specific traits to be considered as a good leader. Not anyone can be a leader in the organisation; we can have millions of managers, but a good leader and good leadership should have specific characteristics. So, we should link talent management with leadership in order to build leaders with specific set of skills to be able to provide good leadership for employees." (E, HR Academic Lecturer).*

Additionally, participant (J) shared her past experiences in two reputable multinational companies in Egypt, highlighting a successful TM program she worked on that highlights the impact of TM programmes on developing early leadership:*" Most of the companies now maybe Unilever was a pioneer in that and Vodafone as well. We have this accelerated program for potential calibers. We put those people in a three-year program, develop and expose them to different business functions and departments with an ideal objective of graduating those people from this program at higher work level roles" (J, Employee Experience Manager).*

Furthermore, one of the participants discussed the importance of TM in exploring people's capabilities to organisations. (M) quoted, *"TM is significant when it comes to unlocking the potential of different individuals. We have people working in organisations. They are fixed into certain roles with limited responsibilities. So, when talent management is well-established and well-structured in certain organisations, this is a privilege because it allows different employees to explore different roles and responsibilities that didn't know that they could fulfil." (M, HR Manager).*

Likewise, the participants stated that TM is a driver and can, in some situations, be a predictor of leadership through many internal practices that her company carry out; she quoted, *"There are talent*

management practices that help foster future leaders.; such as talent pipelining is one of the key outcomes of talent management is that you have a strong pipeline, whether it is for leadership and critical roles" (O, HR Business Partner).

Moving to a well-founded relation in literature, the results of the interviews support the proposed relationship between EI and MLP (see chapter 2, part two) and shed light on a possible mediation relation that can be further explored quantitatively. Thus, the qualitative data have shown participants (A), (G),(I) and (J) supporting EI as an essential predictor of MLP:

"Emotional Intelligence can affect leadership because if you understand yourself if you understand the people around you, what triggers them? What makes them motivated? Or demotivated? You will know the strings and how to make people move in the right direction and make them at ease, so Emotional Intelligence will act as a lubricant to effective leadership" (A, HR Manager.

"Many businesses now have Emotional Intelligence in the most required courses or training. Usually, it has one or two courses on Emotional Intelligence, whereas in my company, if someone is getting promoted to a leadership position, we do recommend that he enrolls in an Emotional Intelligence course; you know, it does make a difference for the people under his supervision turns into one of the essential things in this area that we focus on. (G, HR Business Partner).

"I think that Emotional Intelligence is key in the workplace and leadership. Because understanding how people feel and managing your feelings in the workplace, especially with high power, is crucial for you to maintain relationships, have empathy with your employees and stay in touch with the business objectives." (I, Global Learning Lead).

"Emotional Intelligence has to do with personal mastery, and this is a significant measure when you speak about leadership, the resilience a talent should have. And it reflects his potential to become a leader and lead others. So, if you do not have this personal mastery, if you do not have the capability and the ability to regulate your own emotions, then you are not going to make it in managing other"(J, Employee Experience Manager).

Moreover, the qualitative data inform the SMU and MLP conceptual relations; it was evident throughout the interviews the utilisation and dependence of the interviewees on social media, regardless of whether the cause of their use was for leisure, cognitive, social to interacting with others.

Obviously, there is a heavy emphasis on social media as a valuable tool utilised at work for a wide range of purposes. Participants' quotes supporting the social media as a job aid: (B), (L):

"If you are using Social Media properly and you are capitalising on it how to maximise your business if you are using the correct digital strategy to draw the attention of the other businesses and to maximise your profit from the social media you will be the right Leader." (B, Head of People and Culture).

"When it comes to using social media at work, for example LinkedIn, you have access to an abundance of information, new approaches taken by different people in the same business field. So, you learn, and then if you find it suitable, you can implement that in your business approach" (L, Talent Acquisition Coordinator).

Other participants use Social Media to interact with others to build a social network at work and stronger affiliations with others:

"I think a leader should be able to use all the tools in front of them. And Social Media is a tool. So to be an effective leader, you should be able to manage your relations by having a social media presence online because this is your gateway since everyone uses Social Media." (C, HR Academic Lecturer).

"Social Media is becoming increasingly crucial for leaders to be on those platforms and to engage with people and to show their actual thoughts and to be engaging and aware of the trends or aspects that that people are talking about" (I, Global Learning Lead).

"For a leader using Social Media within a team is vital because it is a whole other way of communicating and staying in touch and maintaining a close relationship with your teams of their various age groups. You need to able to stay connected with their teams, to enable them to create a closer environment or culture and closer connection with their teams" (O, HR Business Partner).

Accordingly, the findings from the qualitative study have refined the conceptual relations and supported the model coherence. Consequently, an additional proposed relation will be further investigated based on the results of the study, where EI and SMU will also be tested for a potential mediation relation between TM and MLP.

In conclusion, the findings from the qualitative study have refined the conceptual relations and supported the model coherence of grouping multidimensional variables, which adds to the study's originality. Also, the findings helped in conceptualising MLP dimensions, consequently developing the scale. The following chapter discusses the rationale and steps in developing the MLP scale.

Table 6: Summary of the dimensions conceptualization

Main Category/Dimension	Conceptual Definition
Talent Catalyst	The leader's commitment to investing in the growth and potential of others.
Interpersonal	The modesty of understanding, serving and working with others, as well as the ability to deal effectively with others.
Intrapersonal	Someone who has strong personal connection and self-awareness, who has mastered his inner compass of bringing out the best.
Entrepreneurial	Creating new opportunities, encouraging experimentation and risk-taking, and believing in a profitable tomorrow.
Agility	The leader's capacity to accept and grasp what is new and to be able to stretch the strategy to fit the situation at hand.

Source: Developed by the Researcher based on the interview outcomes

4.5 Chapter Summary

The interviews phase marked the initial step in the process of contextualising Millennial Leadership Potential (MLP). The outcomes derived from the qualitative stage proved instrumental in the in-depth exploration of the MLP concept, the identification of its underlying dimensions and the refinement of the proposed model relationships. Accordingly, a total of 5 sub-themes emerged: Talent Catalyst, Agility, Interpersonal, Intrapersonal and Entrepreneurial. Additionally, within the view of the qualitative phase, an objective was to generate items requisite for developing a measurement scale designed to operationalise the "MLP" construct. Thus, a comprehensive exposition of the scale development process will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter Five: Scale Development and Validation

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the scale development process, as well as its structure and administration. It included conceptualising and operationalising the study's qualitative themes and outcomes to develop the scale. The scale was developed using the processes described by Zhou in 2019 and Boateng et al. in 2018 (Boateng et al., 2018; Zhou, 2019) that unfolded through 8 steps presented in this chapter. The scale followed a funnel approach, divided into five sub-determinants that addressed various themes. It was pretested to ensure that participants understood the questions and to undertake an initial assessment of the psychometric properties of the constructs. Also, a statistical analysis of the scale of the assessing Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and an evaluation of the scale's validity and reliability using SPSS V.29 and AMOS V.28 were conducted. Lastly, this chapter concludes with a summary of the other variables' scales, which were adapted from the existing literature.

5.2 Rationale for Developing MLP Scale

McCoach et al. outline many steps to the scale development process; among the initial steps is identifying the domain, simply justifying the need for a new measurement scale. It is especially critical to explain why an existing concept exists (McCoach et al., 2013). According to the authors, creating a new scale is preceded by a comprehensive literature review in search of appropriate measurements. Without adequate measuring scales, the necessity and suitability of the newly proposed measurements must be explained and supported. Regarding effective leadership and leadership potential, the Globe Project portrays leadership whilst linking it to Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Leadership Globe Project, 2023). Egypt was part of the Globe project study in 2014; however, little information was available on Egypt due to the small sample chosen (Robert J. House et al., 2014). Also, this study highlighted that Egypt was not involved in the 2020 GLOBE project. It can be said that information available in Egypt is scarce and outdated, which highlights the research gap and dearth of LP measurements.

The literature offers several scales with proper psychometric traits to gauge leadership and leadership styles (refer to Chapter two). However, little to no literature exists on leadership potential in particular. Besides, no appropriate measure was found after reviewing the leadership potential literature on clear operationalisation of the leadership potential construct. Thus, the need for new measures

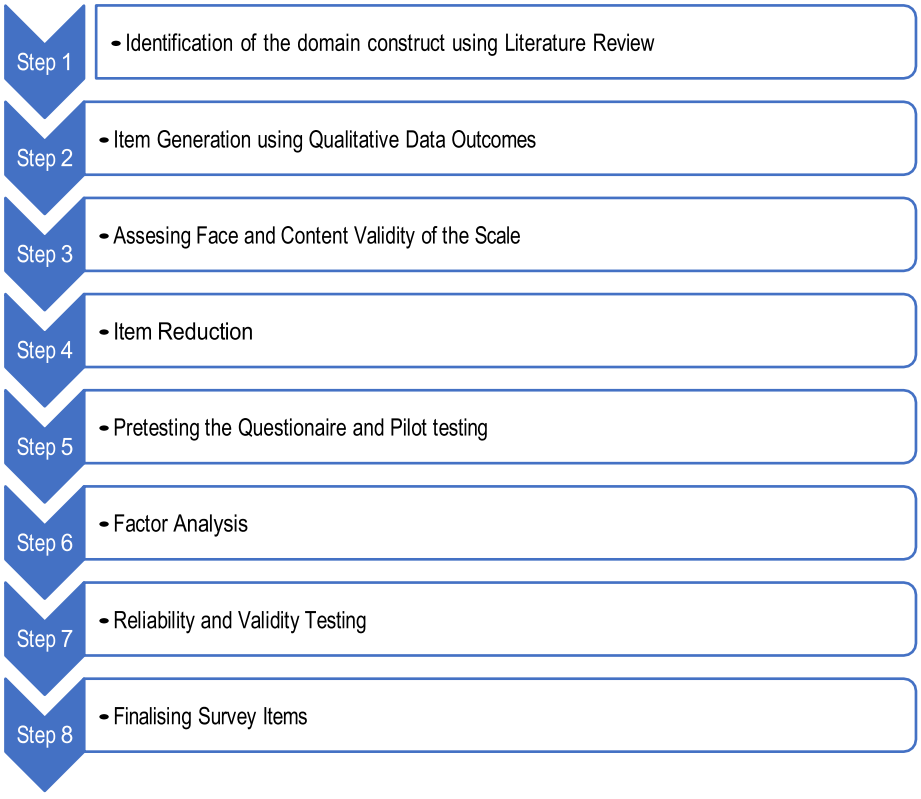
inevitably arises because our growing knowledge about leadership alters the way we define leadership nowadays, and so does Leadership Potential.

In conclusion, developing the MLP scale is called for because of the novelty of the contextualisation of the study on the millennial generation cohort and the scarcity of leadership research on generational work and adult leadership in particular. This necessitates a proper scale of accurately measuring the generational context. As a result, to meet the characteristics of the selected millennial generation, and based on data acquired from study one that indicated new determinants of MLP traits that did not exist in previous research, a new measurement scale for MLP was built.

5.3 MLP Scale Development Process

The methodology and steps undertaken during the process of the development and validation of the MLP measuring scale are summarised in Figure (5)

Figure 5: Steps employed in developing and validating the MLP scale



Source: Researcher based on Boateng et al., 2018

5.3.1 Identifying the domain construct

The scale development process must begin with identifying the construct's domain, merely specifying what the concept is and is not. In other words, what definition does this study adopt? According to the findings of the qualitative data in Study One, MLP in business is defined as "people who possess certain traits which may include personality, motives, values, social and cognitive ability have a greater leadership potential" (Luria et al., 2019, p. 2), while contextualising "people" here to the "millennial generation" born between 1981 and 2000s (Abhicharttibutra et al., 2023; Hannah Murphy et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2023).

5.3.2 Item Generation

In the scale development process, the second step is called "item generation" or "question development", where the author identifies the appropriate questions (Boateng et al., 2018). Consequently, two methods were used to develop the questions in this study: deductive and inductive. The deductive method was used to review existing literature, LP indicators and leadership emergence scales. More specifically, the researcher extensively used the inductive approach, which involved generating the questions from the interviewees' responses in the qualitative study.

Previous studies recommended that the initial pool of items should be twice as large as the final version of the scale, as the experts' validation step involves eliminating and editing all the unnecessary items (Schinka et al., 2012). Accordingly, 42 items were generated across five sub-categories (See Table 6); the generation of items across the different categories was not equally developed. Since some themes were more diverse, it required developing more items to express the meaning and not necessarily the weight they have in quantitative terms. Also, the researcher carefully considered the items' structure, the wording of the items and the form of responses since the scales were designed as a self-report assessment. This study follows a five-point Likert-type response scale regarding the number of points on the response scale. They were measuring the "frequency" on five points as follows using (Vagias, 2006) Likert response anchors (1 – Never 2 – Rarely 3 – Sometimes 4 – Often 5 – Always).

5.3.3 Content Validity of the scale

This step involves assessing if the items adequately measure the MLP or not. Thus, the developed MLP scale was subjected to content validity before data collection. Content Validity is a type of validity assessed by expert judges or target population judges who are the potential end user scale (Morgado et al., 2017). Accordingly, in this study, eight expert judges have been chosen independently from those

who developed the scale. The expert judges were three senior academics from Portugal and six from Egypt. They evaluated each item to determine whether it measures the LP. Correspondingly, experts received the MLP scale assessment form , and items were either accepted, deleted or edited based on the majority's opinion (See Table 7). In addition, the author assessed face validity by determining the target population judges. Face Validity is the "degree to which respondents or end users judge that the items of an assessment instrument are appropriate to the targeted construct and assessment objectives" (Haynes et al., 1995, p. 22). Thus, a sample of five target population judges (end users) was chosen to assess whether the scale is a good measure through cognitive interviews. Cognitive interviewing comprises distributing sample survey questions to specific MLP populations in MNCs operating in Egypt and asking participants to share the mental process needed to provide such responses (Beatty & Willis, 2007). As a result, 35 items were accepted, seven deleted and the final items for the scale are presented in Table (7).

Table 7: Content Validity Assessment of MLP Scale

Categories	Sub-categories	#	Items	Expert Validation		
				Delete	Edit	Accept
Agility (11 items)	Accepting Diversity	1.	I value and leverage the diverse viewpoints and backgrounds of others.		✓	
		2.	I am committed to attracting and developing diverse talent.			✓
	Tech Savvy	3.	I seek opportunities to increase my digital acumen.		✓	
		4.	I encourage the use of digital tools to improve performance.			✓
	Problem Solver	5.	I take ownership (lead) to solve problems under tough circumstances.	✓		
		6.	I continuously provide solutions.		✓	
	Flexibility	7.	I eliminate bureaucracy by providing flexibility when possible.		✓	
		8.	I understand and accommodate other's needs.		✓	
	Eagerness to Learn	9.	I make continuous learning a priority.			✓
		10.	I am willing to learn new things.	✓		
	Easy to Adapt	11.	I act speedily and easily to uncertain change.		✓	

Categories	Sub-categories	#	Items	Expert Validation		
				Delete	Edit	Accept
Talent Catalyst (9 Items)	Encouraging Others	1.	I motivate others to exceed their expectations.			✓
	Inclusivity of Employees	2.	I involve others to build on joint expertise and experience.		✓	
		3.	I am open to learn from other perspectives.			✓
	Enabling Others	4.	I leverage expertise and talents by empowering others.		✓	
	Serving Others	5.	I seek to provide clarity and guidance to others.	✓		
		6.	I offer support when needed.		✓	
	Patience	7.	I treat others with patience.			✓
		8.	I take time to understand others' strengths, development needs, and career aspirations.			✓
		9.	I create a safe environment when others make mistakes.	✓		
Interpersonal (7 items)	Empathy	1.	I am empathetic and humble with others at work.		✓	
		2.	I understand others stressful demands.	✓		
	Work in Teams	3.	I actively work with team members.	✓		
		4.	I actively foster collaboration among other team members.			✓
	Emotional Intelligence	5.	I adapt to others style and languages to create better understanding.		✓	
		6.	I consider myself capable of assessing my emotions.		✓	
	Lead by Example	7.	I consider the broader impact of my actions on others.		✓	
Intrapersonal (9 items)	Creativity	1.	I accept and encourage new ways of doing things.		✓	
		2.	I seek to provide out-of-the-box ideas.			✓
	Bias to Action	3.	I constructively confront difficult situations without avoidance.		✓	✓
		4.	I am consistent with words and actions.		✓	✓
	Innovative	5.	I seek innovative solutions before concluding.			✓
		6.	I constantly seek improvement.			✓
		7.	I step out of my comfort zone.			✓
	Selfless	8.	I balance between personal growth goals and organisation well fair.			✓

Categories	Sub-categories	#	Items	Expert Validation		
				Delete	Edit	Accept
		9.	I act socially responsible towards others.			✓
Entrepreneurial (6 items)	Charisma	1.	I seek to inspire others.			✓
	Visionary	2.	I drive results in favour of organisation-wide success.	✓		
		3.	I seek opportunities that benefit the organisation as a whole.		✓	
	Initiator	4.	I take the initiative to achieve goals even under tough conditions.			✓
		5.	I consider myself proactive when making decisions.			✓
	Business acumen	6.	I know how to understand various business situations.			✓

Source: Developed by Researcher based on the content validity feedback of the experts

5.3.4 Pretesting and Pilot Testing

After the expert review stage, a pilot study needed to be done; however, a more significant sample was required to ensure the reliability and validity of the developed scale. Thus, an initial investigation was conducted to collect data for testing the MLP-developed scale. It was shown to measure the reliability, validity, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The initial measurement testing was administrated and collected online from 238 respondents (N=238). Below are the findings after assessing EFA, Reliability and Validity on SPSS V. 29 and confirming the second-order factor structure (CFA) of the model, using AMOS 28.0

5.3.5 Factor Analysis

5.3.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

When conducting EFA, it is vital to consider two issues: the sample size adequacy and the appropriateness of the data to be eligible to run EFA. Accordingly, a minimum sample size was followed to ensure the suitability to run validity of a developed scale following Gorsuch recommendation of (1:5) per question (5*35), concluding with a minimum of (N=175) (Gorsuch, 1990); accordingly, the researcher aimed at gathering more than 200 responses, additionally testing statistically the sample size adequacy using "Bartlett's test of sphericity". Pallant recommends that the coefficient be statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ (Pallant, 2016). Also, it is vital to check for the appropriateness of data using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) should be > 0.6 (Pallant, 2016). Accordingly, the KMO and Bartlett's test was run on a sample of 238 on a developed MLP scale consisting of 35 items. The results of these tests in Table (8) seemed acceptable within the aforementioned thresholds, and the scale is now ready to undergo further EFA analysis.

Table 8: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO)	0.910
Bartlett's test of sphericity	P <0.001

Source: Researcher

After assessing the data's suitability for analysis, an Exploratory Factor Analysis is employed for multifaceted purposes, extending beyond the mere revelation of the underlying structure of the variables. It is performed to identify the number of factors that conform, make up a variable and extract the ones that do not. Consequently, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is employed as the preferred extraction method, a widely acknowledged technique for evaluating the unidimensionality of a proposed scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Furthermore, in this investigation, a predetermined number of five factors are chosen for extraction based on the initial number of MLP sub-dimensions. Following determining the appropriate number of factors for extraction, the researcher undertakes factor rotation, opting for the Varimax technique. Varimax, characterised as an orthogonal rotation method, is recommended and frequently utilised for factor extraction within this context (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

The results supported the proposed theoretical structure of MLP, where the rotated component matrix indicates that the items load strongly on the five dimensions. Thus, the results of the EFA indicated the existence of 5 dimensions of MLP, where the factors loaded strongly on the component *(1) Agility, (2) Talent Catalyst, (3) Interpersonal, (4) Intrapersonal, (5)Entrepreneurial.*

As shown in Table (9), the factor loadings for the items measuring Agility ranged from 0.552 to 0.844. Additionally, the factor loadings for the items measuring Talent Catalyst were 0.600 to 0.807, while Interpersonal ranged from 0.691 to 0.766. Moreover, the factor loadings for the items measuring Intrapersonal ranged from 0.542 to 0.765, and Entrepreneurial ranged from 0.669 to 0.779. This exceeds the recommended threshold of 0.4 (Hair et al., 2010). However, the rest of the 16 items were removed due to loadings less than 0.4; others were cross-loaded and loaded on two components. As a result, the following items were extracted: *AG1, AG5, AG6, AG7, AG8, AG9, TC6, TC7, INTER4, INTER5, INTRA1, INTRA6, INTRA7, INTRA8, INTRA9, EP5* (see Table 10). Therefore, the EFA outcome resulted in a final MLP scale with 19 items measured across five dimensions (see Table 12).

Table 9: Exploratory Factor Analysis

	Components				
Factors	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
AG2	.522				
AG3	.813				
AG4	.844				
TC1		.627			
TC2		.600			
TC3		.807			
TC4		.731			
TC5		.770			
INTER1			.766		
INTER2			.690		
INTER3			.691		
INTRA2				.573	
INTRA3				.765	
INTRA4				.542	
INTRA5				.607	
EP1					.669
EP2					.791
EP3					.749
EP4					.736
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.					

Source: SPSS V29 output conducted by Researcher

Note(s): "**AG**" (Agility), "**TC**" (Talent Catalyst), "**INTER**" (Interpersonal), "**INTRA**" (Intrapersonal) and "**EP**" (Entrepreneurial)

Table 10: EFA Deleted items

Item		Reason for Deletion
AG1	I value the diverse viewpoints and backgrounds of others.	Loading on two components
AG5	I continuously provide solutions to problems.	Loading below 0.4
AG6	I minimise bureaucracy as much as I can.	Loading below 0.4
AG7	I accommodate other's needs.	Cross-loading on other components
AG8	I make continuous learning a priority.	Loading on two components
AG9	I easily adapt to uncertain change.	Cross-loading on other components
TC6	I treat others with patience.	Loading on two components
TC7	I take time to understand others' development and learning curves.	Loading below 0.4
INTER4	I consider myself capable of controlling my emotions.	Cross-loading on other components
INTER5	I consider myself a role model for others.	Loading on two components
INTRA1	I challenge the status quo.	Cross-loading on other components
INTRA6	I constantly seek improvement.	Loading on two components
INTRA7	I step out of my comfort zone.	Cross-loading on other components
INTRA8	I balance between personal growth goals and organisation well fair.	Cross-loading on other components
INTRA9	I act socially responsible towards others.	Cross-loading on other components
EP5	I know how to understand various business situations.	Cross-loading on other components

Source: SPSS V29 output conducted by Researcher

Note(s): "**AG**" (Agility), "**TC**" (Talent Catalyst), "**INTER**" (Interpersonal), "**INTRA**" (Intrapersonal) and "**EP**" (Entrepreneurial)

5.3.5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Using EFA at the beginning is crucial to explore and identify potential factors during the early stages of scale development. However, the next step is to confirm the factor structure of the developed scale to test the data to see if they fit the hypothesised factor structure (Brown, 2015). The CFA was run on the developed high-order MLP scale measurement model on the initial study sample (N=238). The model showed an acceptable level of fit in accordance with Hair et al. (2010) and Hu. & Bentler (1999) ; thus $x^2/df = 1.941$, where accepted threshold for a good fit is < 2, CFI=0.928, IFI= 0.929 and TLI=0.914 with a minimum accepted threshold of >0.90, while RMSEA= 0.063, RMR= 0.030 with accepted thresholds of <0.080 and RMR with good fit <0.05.

In conclusion, the measurement model could have been improved; however, deleting additional items could have compromised the scale's internal consistency and the requisite item-to-variable ratio, adhering to established psychometric principles (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Also, some researchers advise being cautious when considering modifications of the measurement model, with extensive changes or re-specifications not advisable (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Thus,

reaching acceptable fit indices for the second-order scale was sufficient to proceed with PLS-SEM, obviating the need to delete additional items for model fit improvement. To conclude, the CFA, the final MLP model that consisted of 19 items (see Table 12), showed an adequate accepted fit, as demonstrated in Table 11 (see Appendix F).

Table 11: CFA-Model Fit Indices

X2	DF	X2/DF	CFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA	RMR
275.640	142	1.941	0.928	0.929	0.914	0.063	0.030

X2–Chi-square; **DF** degree of freedom, **CFI**–Comparative Fit Index, **IFI**- Incremental Fit Index, **TLI**–Tucker Lewis Index; **RMSEA**–Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; **RMR**–Root Mean Square Residual;

Table 12: Final MLP scale items

Dimensions	Items		Source
Agility	AG2	I am committed to attracting and developing diverse talent.	Developed by the Researcher from the interview outcomes
	AG3	I actively seek opportunities to improve my digital skills.	
	AG4	I encourage the use digital tools to improve performance.	
Talent Catalyst	TC1	I motivate others to exceed their expectations.	
	TC2	I allow others to build on joint expertise and experience.	
	TC3	I am open to learn from other perspectives.	
	TC4	I leverage expertise by empowering others.	
	TC5	I offer support and guidance when needed.	
Interpersonal	INTER 1	I am empathetic with others at work.	
	INTER2	I actively foster collaboration among other team members.	
	INTER3	I adapt to others emotions to create better understanding.	
Intrapersonal	INTRA2	I seek to provide out-of-the-box ideas.	
	INTRA3	I constructively confront difficult situations without avoidance.	
	INTRA4	I insist that my actions reflect what I say.	
	INTRA5	I seek innovative solutions before concluding.	
Entrepreneurial	EP1	I seek to inspire others.	
	EP2	I seek future opportunities that benefit the organisation as a whole.	
	EP3	I take the initiative to achieve goals even under tough conditions.	
	EP4	I consider myself proactive when making decisions.	

5.3.6 Validity and Reliability of the MLP Scale

A crucial step in scale development is to ensure scale internal consistency; this can be done through validating the scale and measuring scale reliability. Thus, SPSS V.29 was used to measure scale reliability using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient measuring the items' dependent ability in measuring the scale; accordingly, all scales were found reliable with an alpha above 0.7, meeting the minimum required threshold (Hair et al., 2010) (See Table 13).

Moreover, the next step was statistically validating the scale, including convergent and discriminant validity. Firstly, the convergent validity was assessed by assessing the AVE values above 0.50; thus, all scale items converged on others, where all values were above the accepted threshold of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (See Table 13). Secondly, measuring discriminant validity; if the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each latent variable is more significant than any of the bivariate correlations involving the latent variables in question, then the measurement model in question is typically thought to have sufficient discriminant validity as defined by Fornel and Larcker in 1981. Consequently, all five MLP sub-dimensions were deemed to exhibit discriminant validity, as each demonstrated a higher squared AVE compared to its internal correlation with each of the other sub-dimensions (see Table 13). In conclusion, MLP scales are seen to be validated and reliable to be used to test the primary study research model (will be discussed in Chapter 6).

Table 13: Convergent, Discriminant Validity and Reliability of MLP Developed Scale

Variables	AG	TC	INTER	INTRA	EP
AG	1				
TC	.511	1			
INTER	.398	.562	1		
INTRA	.419	.471	.477	1	
EP	.389	.492	.494	.624	1
AVE	***0.672***	***0.637***	***0.640***	***0.545***	***0.670***
SQ.AVE	***0.820***	***0.798***	***0.800***	***0.738***	***0.818***
α	***0.751***	***0.857***	***0.718***	***0.719***	***0.833***

Note(s): "**AG**" (Agility), "**TC**" (Talent Catalyst), "**INTER**" (Interpersonal), "**INTRA**" (Intrapersonal), "**EP**" (Entrepreneurial), "**AVE**" (Average Variance Extracted)**,** "**SQ.AVE**" (Squared Average Variance Extracted) and "α" (Cronbach Alpha)

5.3.7 Operationalization of the Existing Scales of Study Constructs

In determining the remaining measurements, a preliminary literature review was done. As a result, the literature review provided appropriate measures for the three remaining variables. Thus, the existing scales have been adapted to fit this study by measuring the three variables: Emotional Intelligence (EI), Talent Management (TM) and Social Media Use (SMU). On the long side, the MLP developed scale; the end users pretested all the scales to ensure that all items were clearly understood, and, accordingly, some adjustments were made based on the respondents' feedback. The rest of the existing scales used were borrowed from the literature; the Emotional Intelligence scale by Wong and Law (2004) measured using 16 items across four sub-dimensions, namely Self Emotion Appraisal (SEA), Others Emotion Appraisal (OEA), Use of Emotion (UOE) and Regulation of Emotions (ROE). The Talent Management

Practices scale consisted of 26 items across four sub-dimensions: Identifying Critical Positions (ICP); Competence Training (CT); Development (DEV), adapted from Chen (2012) and Jayaraman et al. (2018) and Reward Management, adapted from Hung (2013) and Jayaraman et al. (2018). Finally, the Social Media Use scale was measured using two sub-dimensions: Social Media for Social Use (SMS) and Social Media for Cognitive Use (SMC), adapted from Ali-Hassan et al. (2015) ;for the scale items used (see Appendix C).

5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter elucidates the systematic procedures employed to craft a new measurement scale for assessing the five proposed dimensions constituting the MLP construct. This section offered a thorough explication of the rationale underpinning the creation of this innovative scale. Furthermore, it delineated the steps taken to generate novel scale items, which were informed by the insights and outcomes of the qualitative interviews. In addition, an overview of a pilot study conducted through an online survey was provided in this section. The pilot study aimed to enhance the quality of the items on the newly developed scale and assess the reliability and validity of other measurement instruments employed in the study. Finally, the MLP-developed scale started with 42 items, and throughout the process, it was reduced to 19.

Chapter Six: Quantitative -Data Analysis and Results

6.1 Introduction

After developing and validating the scale, this chapter pertains to running a pilot test and then analysing and presenting the empirical results of study two. The quantitative data were collected using online surveys on Google Forms, where 413 complete surveys were gathered. The quantitative analysis uses SPSS V29 and Structure Equation Modelling (SEM) via SMART PLS4. It discusses the quantitative data analysis that presents the data analysis, including the descriptive analysis (outliers, normality, frequencies, etc.). Next, the sample profile is presented. Subsequently, the measurement model is assessed using reliability analysis and validity analysis, following the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), the hypothesis and the relationships between the variables. Also, the chapter concludes by measuring the model fit and explanatory power of the model.

6.2 Pilot Testing

After validating the MLP-developed scale (Refer to Chapter 5), the whole questionnaire had to be pilot-tested. Thus, before the final study distribution, the remaining variables were tested for reliability, which included all the existing scales borrowed from the literature to ensure the consistency of the items in measuring the variables. Thus, a sample of 80 responses was gathered and tested for reliability using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient on SPSS V.29. All the sub-dimensions of the independent variables were found reliable, where Cronbach's alpha is above the threshold of 0.70. Except Others Emotion Appraisal (OEA) Cronbach's alpha reliability was 0.687; however, checking "scale if item deleted"; item OEA3 "I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others" seemed to be affecting the variables consistency, so if it is deleted, then the scale will yield reliability of 0.713, which will meet the minimum accepted threshold (Creswell, 2012), holding to the fact that during the early stage of the survey distribution this particular statement was confusing to some of the target population; besides, it was commented negatively upon during the pretesting phase. However, at the time, the pretest time of the author decided to take a more conservative action not to delete them so as not to interfere with a pre-validated existing scale. However, when the reliability results showed OEA3 lowering the internal consistency of the variable, OEA3 was deleted before the final survey distribution. A summary of Reliability Analysis is presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Cronbach's Reliability for pilot testing using SPSS V. 29

Variable	SEA	OEA	UOE	ROE	ICP	CT	DEV	RM	SMS	SMC
Cronbach Alpha α	0.808	0.687	0.817	0.806	0.823	0.809	0.760	0.845	0.901	0.879

Note(s): "SEA**" (Self-Emotion Appraisal), "**OEA**" (Others Emotion Appraisal), "**UOE**" (Use of Emotions), "**ROE**" (Regulation of Emotions), "**ICP**" (Identifying Critical Positions), "**CT**" (Competence Training), "**DEV**" (Development), "**RM**" (Reward Management), "**SMC**" (Social Media Cognitive Use), "**SMS**" (Social Media Social Use).**

6.3 Data Collection and Preliminary Data Analysis

Data were collected through a cross-sectional survey of Egyptian employees working in multinational companies. The study consisted of 413 millennial employees born between 1981 and 2000 (Abhicharttibutra et al., 2023; Hannah Murphy et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2023); therefore, their age was between 23 and 42 years when collecting the data. The surveys collected were distributed using non-probability convenience sampling, followed by snowball and criterion sampling methodology. The screening criteria of the sample were to be born between 1981-2000 and to be working in a multinational company; for example, "Do you work in a multinational company?" The data were collected through an online survey using Google Forms and distributed through (LinkedIn, WhatsApp, Facebook, emails and referrals). Thus, 413 valid responses were gathered, and before starting the analysis, the dataset was subjected to a comprehensive preliminary cleaning process using SPSS V.29.

Following the cleaning phase, specific tests were run, such as missing data, maximum minimum values, suspicious response patterns (i.e. straight lining), normality, common method bias and potential outliers. The results of the cleaning tests revealed that there were no missing data. The data were normally distributed per the accepted thresholds of Skewness and Kurtosis as presented in (Table 16) and Histogram, QQ-plots and Box-Plots. Skewness and Kurtosis confirm that data were normally distributed as Skewness and Kurtosis values fell within the recommended limits of Skewness between -/+2 (Hair et al., 2021), and Kurtosis is accepted from a range of -/+7 (Curran et al., 1996). Harman's single-component analysis is one of the most prominent approaches for establishing if common method variance exists (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Harman's single-factor test was used in this context as a consequence of the study, showing that it explained 22.338 percent of the total variance. These findings revealed less than the declared 50% criterion (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). According to the preliminary cleaning analysis results, CMB does not pose an issue in the current circumstances. However, three respondents were dropped based on the outlier analysis that was presented through the scatter plots computed for each variable, which shows that there were observations that were

distinctively different from the other observations (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014), which resulted in having a final data set of a clean 410 responses to begin the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis using SMART-PLS4.

Consequently, this study finally utilised 410 responses with the following demographic characteristics. As mentioned, the analysis was gathered from many employees working across different multinational companies from various industries operating in Egypt. Most of the respondents were males, accounting for 60.7%, between the ages of 30 and 36. The marital status of the sample was nearly equal between single and married, equating to 48.5% and 49.3%, respectively. The level of education anchors were only considered higher education level with a Bachelor's Degree, which suffices as the minimum level of education requirement to be eligible to work in multinational organisations in Egypt. Hence, the majority of the sample had a Bachelor's Degree, equivalent to 69.5%, and a Master's Degree, which was 28.5%.

Moreover, most of the sample had 1-5 years of experience, which shows the importance of our study focusing on early-career millennials' leadership potential. Based on the former, the respondents' job level were mainly between junior to first-line manager level, 28.5% to 34%, which again highlights the managerial relevance of this study to focusing on the right talents who are on their path of career progression. Finally, the sample was dispersed across different departments, which adds to the generalisability of the study. For a comprehensive overview of the sample characteristics, refer to (Table 15).

Table 15: Demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	(N)	(%)
Gender		
Male	249	60.7
Female	161	39.3
Total	**410**	**100**
Age		
23-29	149	36.3
30–36	172	42
37-42	89	21.7
Total	**410**	**100**
Marital Status		
Single	199	48.5
Married	202	49.3
Divorced	7	1.7
Widowed	2	0.5
Total	**410**	**100**
Number of Children		
none	244	59.5
one	76	18.5
two	67	16.3
more than two	23	5.6
Total	**410**	**100**
Education		
Bachelor Degree (BSc)	285	69.5
Master Degree (MBA/MSc)	117	28.5
Doctorate Degree (DBA/PhD)	8	2
Total	**410**	**100**
Years Of Experience		
1 to 5 years	134	32.7
6 to 10 years	115	28
11 to 15 years	89	21.7
More than 15 years	72	17.6
Total	**410**	**100**
Job Level		
Entry-Level	26	6.3
Junior or Associate Level	117	28.5
First-Line Manager	140	34.1
Senior Manager	81	19.8
Director	20	4.9
Other	26	6.3
Total	**410**	**100**
Department		
Marketing	65	15.9
Finance	32	7.8
Production/Operation	35	8.5
Sales	75	18.3
IT	29	7.1
Risk	3	.7
Logistics/Supply chain	27	6.6
Warehousing	1	.2
Research & Development	19	4.6
Legal	3	.7
Business Analytics	18	4.4
Human Resources	31	7.6

Characteristics	(N)	(%)
Other	72	17.6
Total	**410**	**100**
Origin Of The Company		
British	73	17.8
American	56	13.7
Chinese	5	1.2
Indian	2	.5
European	109	26.5
Middle Eastern	149	36.3
Other	16	3.9
Total	**410**	**100**
City of Residence		
Cairo	232	56.6
Giza	138	33.7
Alexandria	40	9.8
Total	**410**	**100**

6.4 Data Analysis using SPSS 29 and SMART-PLS 4

Data Analysis SPSS 29 PROCESS and SMART-PLS 4.0 were used as statistical tools in this study to assess the data through Partial Least Square Modeling (PLS−SEM). PLS−SEM is recommended to analyse the data due to the high construct formative measures in the research model. Moreover, PLS-SEM has a significant advantage in managing small sample numbers and complicated models, without requiring stringent assumptions about the underlying data distributions (Hair et al., 2021). Also, employing PLS-SEM in this study is well-supported in the management research (Gudergan et al., 2008). Thus, utilising the PLS-SEM model using SMART-PLS4 includes a twofold process (Hair et al., 2010): first, to ensure that the measurement models are tested to confirm reliability and Validity, next, running the structural model for hypothesis trying through bootstrapping after the measurement models have been validated. The rationale is that we must first validate the measurement model before testing the structural theory because the structural theory cannot be validated if the measurements are unreliable or invalid (Hair et al., 2021).

6.4.1 Measurement Model Analysis

The evaluation of the measurement model is used to assess the quality of the constructs in the study. One of the prerequisites for the structural model analysis is to have a good factor loading, convergent and discriminant validity and composite reliability of the measurement model. Thus, the measurement model analysis below is run to ensure the quality criteria of the variables.

6.4.1.1 Factor Loadings

Factor loading reflects how effectively a particular factor represents a variable (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Following that, we check for high absolute values as they indicate a higher correlation between the factor and the variable. In this study, none of the items exceeded the recommended threshold of < 0.50 (Hair et al., 2011). Specifically, the factor loadings ranged from 0.577 to 0.890, further supporting the robustness of the measurement model; however, internal reliability and validity analysis need to be considered. An overview of Factor Loadings is presented in (Table 16).

6.4.1.2 Indicator Multicollinearity

Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values assess collinearity between the indicators and the variables. According to Hair, VIF values in predictor constructs should be less than 5, preferably less than 3, to guarantee that collinearity does not significantly influence the structural model (Hair et al., 2021). Table 15 presents the VIF values for the indicators in the study and reveals that the VIF for each indicator is below < 5, the recommended threshold.

6.4.1.3 Reliability Analysis

Consistency is the core of reliability. Thus, Cronbach's Alpha (α) and Composite Reliability (CR) are the two most often used tests for determining reliability. Table 16 displays the results for both Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability. Cronbach's Alpha values varied from 0.728 to 0.896, while Composite Reliability values ranged from 0.833 to 0.923, which shows that all constructs have an acceptable reliability value greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2021). As a result, measurement reliability is established.

6.4.1.4 Validity Analysis

6.4.1.4.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent Validity refers to how well a measure relates to other measurements of the same construct. As a result, items that are indicators of a particular reflective construct should converge or share a substantial proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2021). This is measured through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) criterion, where its value should be greater than or equal to 0.50 (Hair et al., 2021). In this study, the AVE for RM was 0.495, below the accepted threshold <0.50; consequently

item RM9 was deleted, *"My company provides medical aid, retirement, and pension benefits"*, resulting in an improved AVE of 0.522. As depicted in (Table 16), all variables are now above the thresholds referred to, namely AVEs in the range [0.522-0.750].

Table 16: Measurement Model Analysis

Items	Loadings	VIF	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Self-Emotion Appraisal					**0.730**	**0.833**	**0.558**
SEA1	0.803	1.504	0.850	-0.544			
SEA2	0.806	1.837	1.770	-0.892			
SEA3	0.763	1.773	1.261	-0.784			
SEA4	0.594	1.135	0.022	-0.592			
Others Emotion Appraisal					**0.728**	**0.845**	**0.646**
OEA1	0.816	1.364	0.933	-0.711			
OEA2	0.834	1.609	0.671	-0.759			
OEA3	0.758	1.435	0.820	-0.622			
Use of Emotions					**0.808**	**0.873**	**0.633**
UOE1	0.757	1.558	0.052	-0.678			
UOE2	0.811	1.562	0.184	-0.752			
UOE3	0.814	1.805	0.113	-0.700			
UOE4	0.798	1.750	0.126	-0.682			
Regulation of Emotions					**0.808**	**0.874**	**0.636**
ROE1	0.791	1.557	0.083	-0.643			
ROE2	0.824	1.994	-0.270	-0.434			
ROE3	0.701	1.434	-0.683	-0.295			
ROE4	0.866	2.223	-0.054	-0.490			
Identifying Critical Position					**0.865**	**0.908**	**0.711**
ICP1	0.835	1.976	-0.012	-0.489			
ICP2	0.855	2.209	-0.595	-0.412			
ICP3	0.829	2.162	-0.217	-0.348			
ICP4	0.855	2.239	-0.114	-0.433			
Competence Training					**0.857**	**0.893**	**0.586**
CT1	0.778	2.054	-0.414	-0.322			
CT2	0.798	2.171	-0.686	-0.199			
CT3	0.738	1.789	-0.566	-0.139			
CT4	0.577	1.294	-0.660	-0.209			
CT5	0.835	2.167	-0.445	-0.208			
CT6	0.836	2.086	-0.189	-0.479			
Development					**0.859**	**0.898**	**0.639**
DEV1	0.720	1.566	-0.776	-0.345			
DEV2	0.829	1.941	-0.608	-0.143			
DEV3	0.841	2.433	-0.595	-0.148			
DEV4	0.801	2.185	-0.568	0.107			
DEV5	0.802	1.797	-0.613	-0.212			
Reward Management					**0.884**	**0.907**	**0.522**
RM1	0.726	1.865	-0.842	-0.385			
RM2	0.767	2.113	-0.526	-0.558			
RM3	0.825	2.504	-0.390	-0.484			
RM4	0.827	2.496	-0.464	-0.308			
RM5	0.689	1.700	-0.038	-0.645			
RM6	0.578	1.537	-0.795	-0.266			
RM7	0.726	1.875	-0.776	-0.258			
RM8	0.696	1.745	-0.478	-0.401			

Items	Loadings	VIF	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
RM10	0.633	1.475	-0.687	-0.310			
Social Media for Cognitive Use					**0.896**	**0.921**	**0.699**
SMC1	0.834	1.878	-0.710	-0.225			
SMC2	0.868	2.519	-0.737	0.054			
SMC3	0.837	3.063	-0.809	0.228			
SMC4	0.819	2.991	-0.847	0.152			
SMC5	0.820	2.330	-0.789	-0.077			
Social Media for Social Use					**0.890**	**0.923**	**0.750**
SMS1	0.869	2.526	-0.835	-0.073			
SMS2	0.876	2.781	-0.794	-0.006			
SMS3	0.887	2.686	-0.704	-0.096			
SMS4	0.833	2.403	-0.728	-0.105			
Agility					**0.769**	**0.867**	**0.685**
AG2	0.780	1.332	0.444	-0.745			
AG3	0.836	1.877	-0.283	-0.736			
AG4	0.865	1.988	0.053	-0.867			
Talent Catalyst					**0.853**	**0.894**	**0.628**
TC1	0.812	1.846	0.360	-0.812			
TC2	0.822	1.958	-0.633	-0.576			
TC3	0.785	1.817	0.640	-1.152			
TC4	0.776	1.785	-0.480	-0.642			
TC5	0.767	1.765	0.705	-1.290			
Interpersonal					**0.768**	**0.866**	**0.683**
INTER1	0.814	1.521	-0.256	-0.600			
INTER2	0.858	1.648	-0.841	-0.516			
INTER3	0.806	1.548	-0.270	-0.515			
Intrapersonal					**0.737**	**0.836**	**0.560**
INTRA2	0.775	1.588	-0.702	-0.374			
INTRA3	0.713	1.362	-0.151	-0.418			
INTRA4	0.730	1.366	-0.505	-0.597			
INTRA5	0.774	1.568	-0.529	-0.372			
Entrepreneurial					**0.834**	**0.889**	**0.668**
EP1	0.788	1.644	-0.169	-0.616			
EP2	0.842	1.917	-0.149	-0.619			
EP3	0.840	1.936	-0.724	-0.519			
EP4	0.796	1.821	-0.075	-0.553			

Note(s): "**SEA**" (Self-Emotion Appraisal), "**OEA**" (Others Emotion Appraisal), "**UOE**" (Use of Emotions), "**ROE**" (Regulation of Emotions), "**ICP**" (Identifying Critical Positions), "**CT**" (Competence Training), "**DEV**" (Development), "**RM**" (Reward Management), "**SMC**" (Social Media Cognitive Use), "**SMS**" (Social Media Social Use), "**AG**" (Agility), "**TC**" (Talent Catalyst), "**INTER**" (Interpersonal), "**INTRA**" (Intrapersonal), "**EP**" (Entrepreneurial), "**AVE" (Average Variance Extracted,** "**VIF**" (Variance Inflation Factor) and **"CR"** (Composite Reliability)

6.4.1.4.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant Validity is assessed using the Fornell–Larcker Criterion and Heterotrait–Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) methods.

6.4.1.4.2.1 Fornell and Larcker

According to Fornell-Larcker criteria, Discriminant Validity is proven when the square root of AVE for the variable is larger than its intercorrelation with all other variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In this study, all variables have proven to be discriminant from each other. Refer to Table 17, where the square root of AVE is reflected (in bold and italics) for all the variables; they are more potent than their correlations with other variables, giving substantial support for creating Discriminant Validity.

Table 17: Discriminant Validity using Fornell–Larcker's Criterion

	AG	CT	DEV	EP	ICP	INTER	INTRA	OEA	RM	ROE	SEA	SMC	SMS	TC	UOE
AG	***0.828***														
CT	0.330	***0.766***													
DEV	0.336	0.701	***0.800***												
EP	0.498	0.221	0.281	***0.817***											
ICP	0.338	0.676	0.712	0.231	***0.843***										
INTER	0.463	0.222	0.249	0.559	0.330	***0.826***									
INTRA	0.543	0.266	0.280	0.676	0.299	0.563	***0.748***								
OEA	0.258	0.129	0.130	0.218	0.157	0.201	0.250	***0.804***							
RM	0.356	0.592	0.676	0.239	0.730	0.301	0.313	0.111	***0.723***						
ROE	0.281	0.312	0.313	0.219	0.290	0.224	0.254	0.130	0.321	***0.798***					
SEA	0.296	0.174	0.170	0.282	0.207	0.216	0.335	0.187	0.256	0.340	***0.747***				
SMC	0.193	0.264	0.251	0.233	0.180	0.115	0.143	0.079	0.241	0.160	0.095	***0.836***			
SMS	0.200	0.225	0.264	0.222	0.223	0.205	0.169	0.071	0.261	0.210	0.141	0.681	***0.866***		
TC	0.565	0.271	0.286	0.640	0.296	0.647	0.629	0.220	0.293	0.236	0.254	0.116	0.130	***0.793***	
UOE	0.316	0.186	0.214	0.421	0.193	0.220	0.430	0.152	0.218	0.268	0.338	0.113	0.209	0.252	***0.795***

Note(s): "SEA" (Self-Emotion Appraisal), "OEA" (Others Emotion Appraisal), "UOE" (Use of Emotions), "ROE" (Regulation of Emotions), "ICP" (Identifying Critical Positions), "CT" (Competence Training), "DEV" (Development), "RM" (Reward Management), "SMC" (Social Media Cognitive Use), "SMS" (Social Media Social Use), "AG" (Agility), "TC" (Talent Catalyst), "INTER" (Interpersonal), "INTRA" (Intrapersonal), "EP" (Entrepreneurial) and Bold and Italics represent the square roots of the AVEs for each construct.

6.4.1.4.2.2 Heterotrait–Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

HTMT is the average of all correlations of indicators across variables measuring distinct variables compared to the average correlations of indicators measuring the same variables (Henseler et al., 2015). Based on previous research, Henseler, Ringle and Sarstedt (2015) propose a threshold value of 0.90, if the path model comprises conceptually similar variables. In this study, all variables were below the aforementioned threshold; thus, HTMT values were less than 0.90, confirming Discriminant Validity (see Table 18).

Table 18: Discriminant Validity using HTMT Ratio

	AG	CT	DEV	EP	ICP	INTER	INTRA	OEA	RM	ROE	SEA	SMC	SMS	TC	UOE
AG															
CT	0.395														
DEV	0.408	0.819													
EP	0.618	0.247	0.323												
ICP	0.410	0.781	0.827	0.269											
INTER	0.599	0.269	0.297	0.701	0.402										
INTRA	0.717	0.326	0.347	0.859	0.373	0.746									
OEA	0.334	0.155	0.161	0.277	0.197	0.270	0.335								
RM	0.416	0.682	0.773	0.265	0.831	0.359	0.382	0.155							
ROE	0.351	0.375	0.377	0.267	0.344	0.280	0.325	0.176	0.391						
SEA	0.382	0.227	0.210	0.360	0.258	0.277	0.453	0.255	0.316	0.430					
SMC	0.219	0.302	0.291	0.252	0.206	0.120	0.170	0.092	0.265	0.188	0.117				
SMS	0.239	0.264	0.307	0.252	0.256	0.245	0.205	0.096	0.296	0.249	0.169	0.756			
TC	0.688	0.298	0.319	0.751	0.340	0.801	0.791	0.273	0.325	0.282	0.310	0.117	0.142		
UOE	0.399	0.223	0.250	0.502	0.232	0.273	0.546	0.185	0.257	0.330	0.432	0.138	0.254	0.293	

Note(s): "**SEA**" (Self-Emotion Appraisal), "**OEA**" (Others Emotion Appraisal), "**UOE**" (Use of Emotions), "**ROE**" (Regulation of Emotions), "**ICP**" (Identifying Critical Positions), "**CT**" (Competence Training), "**DEV**" (Development), "**RM**" (Reward Management), "**SMC**" (Social Media Cognitive Use), "**SMS**" (Social Media Social Use), "**AG**" (Agility), "**TC**" (Talent Catalyst), "**INTER**" (Interpersonal), "**INTRA**" (Intrapersonal) and "**EP**" (Entrepreneurial).

6.4.1.5 Validating Higher Order Constructs

EI, TM, SMU and MLP are higher-order constructs (HOCs) based on 15 lower-order constructs (LOCs). To validate the higher-order constructs, we must understand the dimensionality of the variables; accordingly, two additional measurement models need to be considered for which the evaluation criteria apply: (1) The measurement models of the lower-order components and (2) the measurement model of the higher-order construct as a whole, represented by the relationships between the higher-order component and its lower-order components (Sarstedt et al., 2019). However, determining the suitable measurement model remains a topic of extensive discussion across diverse fields and lacks a definitive resolution. As stated by Hair, "There is no definite answer to this question since constructs are not inherently reflective or formative. Instead, the specification depends on the construct conceptualisation and the study's objective" (Hair et al., 2021). Thus, we presume that the items (indicators) comprising the LOCs are interchangeable and consistently measure the underlying variables, allowing for considering these LOCs as reflective measures in our study. However, it is essential to note that the relationship between LOCs and HOCs varies. For instance, in the case of MLP and EI, they are conceptualised such that all their LOCs collectively form the variables, complementing each other to

shape our understanding of these constructs. Conversely, for TM and SMU, the LOCs are viewed as reflective of the HOCs, indicating that the LOCs are outcomes or consequences of the HOCs. As a result, in this study, we classify EI and MLP as Reflective-Formative constructs, while TM and SMU are treated as Reflective-Reflective constructs.

6.4.1.5.1 Reflective-Formative Constructs

First, multicollinearity was assessed using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). VIF values less than or equal to 5 indicate no multicollinearity issues. In this study, collinearity did not pose any threat, as the VIF values were less than 5 (Sarstedt et al., 2019) (see Table 19). Next, the statistical significance and relevance of outer weights were assessed. Except for TC and INTER, the outer weights were found to be insignificant. Despite the insignificance of TC and INTER regarding their outer weights, both outer loadings were significant and above the accepted threshold of 0.5; thus, both were kept for further analysis (Hair et al., 2021). Finally, outer loadings were significant for each LOC forming MLP and EI (Sarstedt et al., 2019). Hence, the higher-order construct was validated.

Table 19: HOCs-Reflective Formative Validation

HOC	LOCs	VIF	Outer Weights	P values	Outer loadings	P Values
EI	SEA	1.241	0.240	0.005	0.623	0.000
	OEA	1.049	0.290	0.000	0.471	0.000
	UOE	1.172	0.498	0.000	0.749	0.000
	ROE	1.169	0.472	0.000	0.742	0.000
MLP	AG	1.573	0.555	0.000	0.862	0.000
	TC	2.384	-0.082	0.226	0.691	0.000
	INTER	1.904	0.143	0.072	0.678	0.000
	INTRA	1.914	0.326	0.000	0.786	0.000
	EP	2.202	0.281	0.005	0.796	0.000

Note(s): **"HOC"** (High Order Construct),**" LOC"** Lower Order Construct", **"EI"** (Emotional Intelligence) "**SEA**" (Self-Emotion Appraisal), "**OEA**" (Others Emotion Appraisal), "**UOE**" (Use of Emotions), "**ROE**" (Regulation of Emotions), **"MLP"** (Millennial Leadership Potential), "**AG**" (Agility), "**TC**" (Talent Catalyst), "**INTER**" (Interpersonal), "**INTRA**" (Intrapersonal) and "**EP**" (Entrepreneurial),**" VIF"** (Variance Inflation Factor) and **"AVE"** (Average Variance Extracted).

6.4.1.5.2 Reflective-Reflective constructs

The evaluation of the reflective measurement model of the higher-order component TM and SMU was assessed for loading. We find that the loadings of all the LOCs are very high, above 0.8, exceeding the accepted threshold of 0.5, which enables us to establish indicator reliabilities higher than 0.8 and

an AVE above 0.7 (Hair et al., 2021) (see Table 20). These results are above the minimum accepted thresholds. Based on the HTMT criterion and Fornell and Larcker, Discriminant Validity with TM and SMU has been established.

Table 20: HOCs-Reflective-Reflective Validation

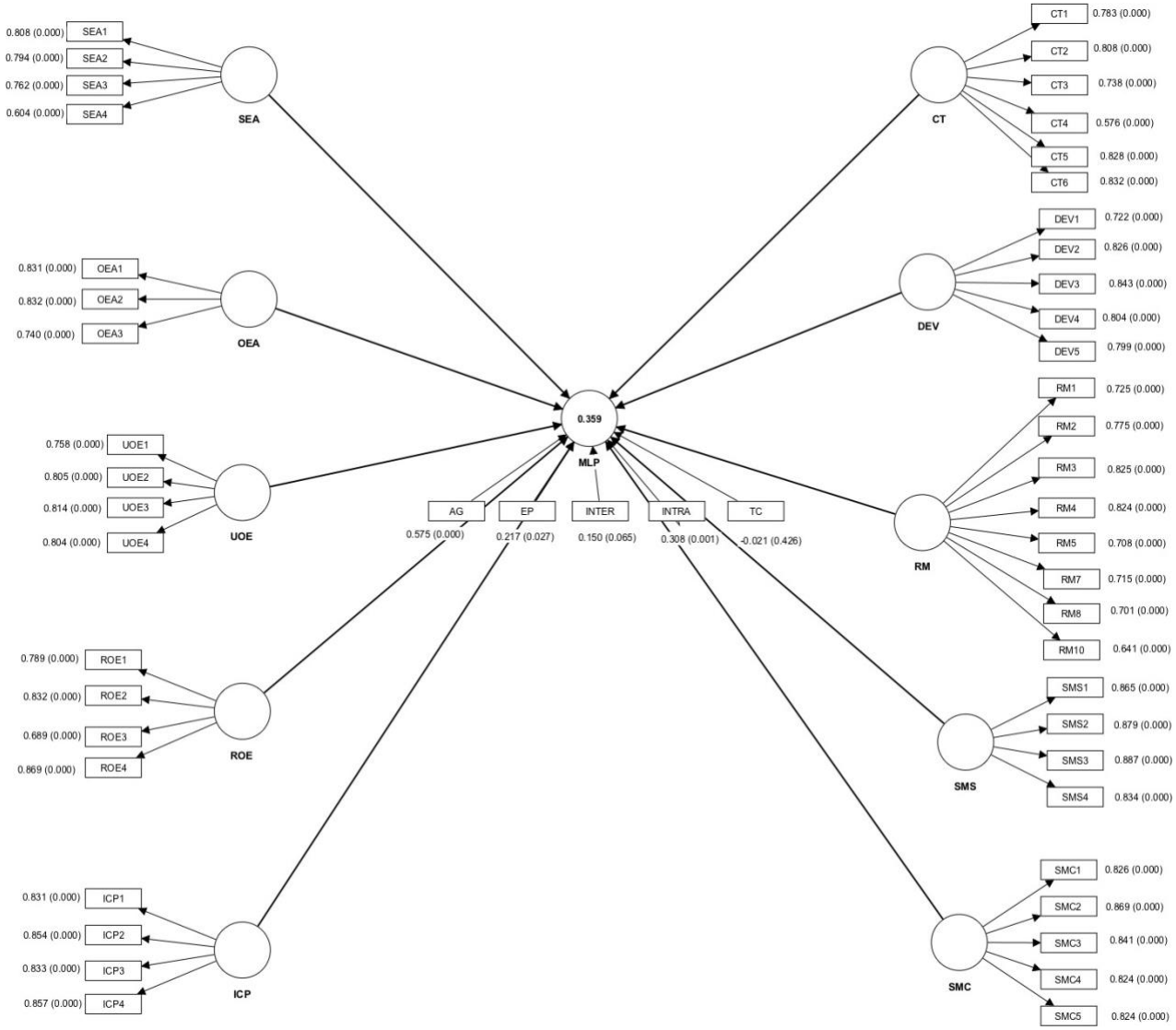
HOCs	LOCs	Outer weights	Outer loadings	Cronbach Alpha	Composite Reliability	AVE
TM	ICP	0.288	0.894	0.895	0.927	0.761
	CT	0.271	0.845			
	DEV	0.286	0.884			
	RM	0.302	0.866			
SMU	SMC	0.481	0.895	0.810	0.912	0.839
	SMS	0.609	0.936			

Note(s): **"HOC"** (High Order Construct)**," LOC"** Lower Order Construct" **"TM"** (Talent Management), **"ICP"** (Identifying Critical Positions), **"CT"** (Competence Training), **"DEV"** (Development), **"RM"** (Reward Management),**" SMU"** (Social Media Use) **"SMC"** (Social Media Cognitive Use), **"SMS"** (Social Media Social Use) and **"AVE"** (Average Variance Extracted).

6.4.1.6 Structural Model Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

The next step in the analysis was to assess the hypothesised relationships, proceeding with the bootstrapping procedure. Results from this analysis are presented in detail (see Tables 21 and 22). The structural model is shown in Figures (6) and (7).

Figure 6: Direct Relationship using SMART-PLS4



6.4.1.7 Hypothesis Testing for Direct Relationships

Hypotheses 1

The study aims to investigate the impact of EI determinants on MLP variables; EI determinants are SEA, OEA, UOE, and ROE. Thus, each sub-hypothesis (H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d) examines the relationship between EI determinants and MLP.

H1a: SEA positively impacts MLP

- The analysis results indicate a statistically significant relationship between **SEA** and **MLP** (β =0.125, t = 2.704, p =0.003). Therefore, H1a is supported.

H1b: OEA positively impacts MLP.

- The analysis results indicate a statistically significant relationship between **OEA** and **MLP** (β =0.174, t=4.235, p =0.000). Therefore, H1b is supported.

H1c: UOE positively impacts MLP.

- The data analysis reveals a statistically significant impact of **UOE** on **MLP** (β = . 246 t = 5.723, p =0.000). Therefore, H1c is supported.

H1d: ROE positively impacts MLP.

- The findings demonstrate a statistically significant impact of **ROE** on **MLP** (β = 0.086, t = 1.902, p =0.029). Therefore, H1d is supported.

Hypotheses 2

The study aims to investigate the relationship of TM on MLP using four TM practices: ICP, CT, DEV and RM. Each hypothesis (H2a, H2b, H2c and H2d) examines the relationship between MLP and these TM practices.

H2a: ICP positively predicts MLP

- The analysis results indicate a non-significant relationship between **ICP** and **MLP** (β = 0.089, t = 1.093p=0.137). Therefore, H2a is rejected.

H2b: CT positively predicts MLP

- The analysis results indicate a non-significant relationship between **CT** and **MLP** (β = 0.039, t = 0.649, p=0.285). Therefore, H2b is rejected.

H2c: DEV practices positively predicts MLP

- The findings reveal a non-significant relationship between **DEV** and **MLP** (β = 0.042, t = 0.585, p=0.279). Therefore, H2c is rejected.

H2d: RM positively predicts MLP

- The analysis results indicate a significant relationship between **RM** and **MLP** (β = 0.104, t = 1.648, p=0.050). Therefore, H2d is supported.

Hypotheses 3

The study aims to investigate the influence of SMU on MLP using two variables: SMS and SMC. Each sub-hypothesis (H3a and H3b) examines the influence of SMU on MLP.

H3a: SMS positively influences MLP

- The analysis results indicate a non-significant relationship between **SMS** and **MLP** ($\beta = 0.041$, t = 0.813, p=0.208). Therefore, H3a is rejected.

H3b: SMC positively influences MLP

- The findings demonstrate a non-significant impact of **SMC** on **MLP** ($\beta = 0.060$, t = 1.287, p =0.099). Therefore, H3b is rejected.

Table 21: Testing Direct Relationships Result

#	Path	Beta coefficient	Standard deviation	T-statistics	P values	Result
H1a	SEA → MLP	0.125	0.046	2.704	0.003	**Supported**
H1b	OEA → MLP	0.174	0.041	4.235	0.000	**Supported**
H1c	UOE → MLP	0.264	0.046	5.723	0.000	**Supported**
H1d	ROE → MLP	0.086	0.045	1.902	0.029	**Supported**
H2a	ICP→ MLP	0.089	0.081	1.093	0.137	**Rejected**
H2b	CT → MLP	0.039	0.061	0.649	0.258	**Rejected**
H2c	DEV → MLP	0.042	0.072	0.585	0.279	**Rejected**
H2d	RM→ MLP	0.104	0.061	1.648	0.050	**Supported**
H3a	SMS→ MLP	0.041	0.050	0.813	0.208	**Rejected**
H3b	SMC → MLP	0.060	0.046	1.287	0.099	**Rejected**

Note(s): **"SEA"** (Self-Emotion Appraisal), **"OEA"** (Others Emotion Appraisal), **"UOE"** (Use of Emotions), **"ROE"** (Regulation of Emotions), **"ICP"** (Identifying Critical Positions), **"CT"** (Competence Training), **"DEV"** (Development), **"RM"** (Reward Management), **"SMC"** (Social Media Cognitive Use), **"SMS"** (Social Media Social Use) and **"MLP" (** Millennial Leadership Potential).

6.4.1.8 Hypothesis Testing for Mediation Analysis

Hypothesis 4

The study aims to investigate the mediation role of EI between TM and MLP.

H4: EI mediates the relationship between TM and MLP

Mediation analysis was performed to assess the mediating role of EI in mediating the relationship between TM and MLP. The results (see Table 22) revealed a significant indirect effect of TM on MLP (B = .169, t = 5.787, p=0.000). The total effect of TM on MLP was significant (B = .370, t = 7.292, p=0.00); with the inclusion of the mediator, the effect of TM on MLP was still significant (B = 0.160, t = 5.716, p=0.000). This shows EI's complementary partial mediating role in the relationship between TM and MLP. Hence, H4 was supported

Hypothesis 5

The study aims to investigate the mediation role of SMU between EI and MLP.

H5: SMU mediates the relationship between EI and MLP

Mediation analysis was performed to assess the mediating role of SMU in mediating the relationship between EI and MLP. The results (see Table 22) revealed a significant indirect effect of EI on MLP (B = .025, t = 2.056, p=0.020). The total effect of EI on MLP was significant (B = .443, t = 8.940, p=0.000); with the inclusion of the mediator, the effect of EI on MLP was still significant (B = 0.025, t = 2.056, p=0.020). This shows a complementary partial mediating role of SMU in the relationship between EI and MLP. Hence, H5 was supported.

Hypothesis 6

The study aims to investigate a serial between TM and MLP through EI and SMU.

H6: EI and SMU serially mediate the relationship between TM and MLP

Mediation analysis assessed the serial mediation role of EI and SMU in mediating the relationship between TM and MLP. The results (see Table 22) revealed a significant indirect effect of TM on MLP (B = .169, t = 5.787, p=0.000). The total effect of TM on MLP was significant (B = .370, t = 7.292, p=0.000); with the inclusion of the mediators, the effect of EI and SMU on TM and MLP was still significant (B = 0.09, t = 1.886, p=0.030). This shows a serial partial mediating role of EI and SMU in the relationship between TM and MLP. Hence, H6 was supported.

Figure 7: Serial Mediation using SMART-PLS4

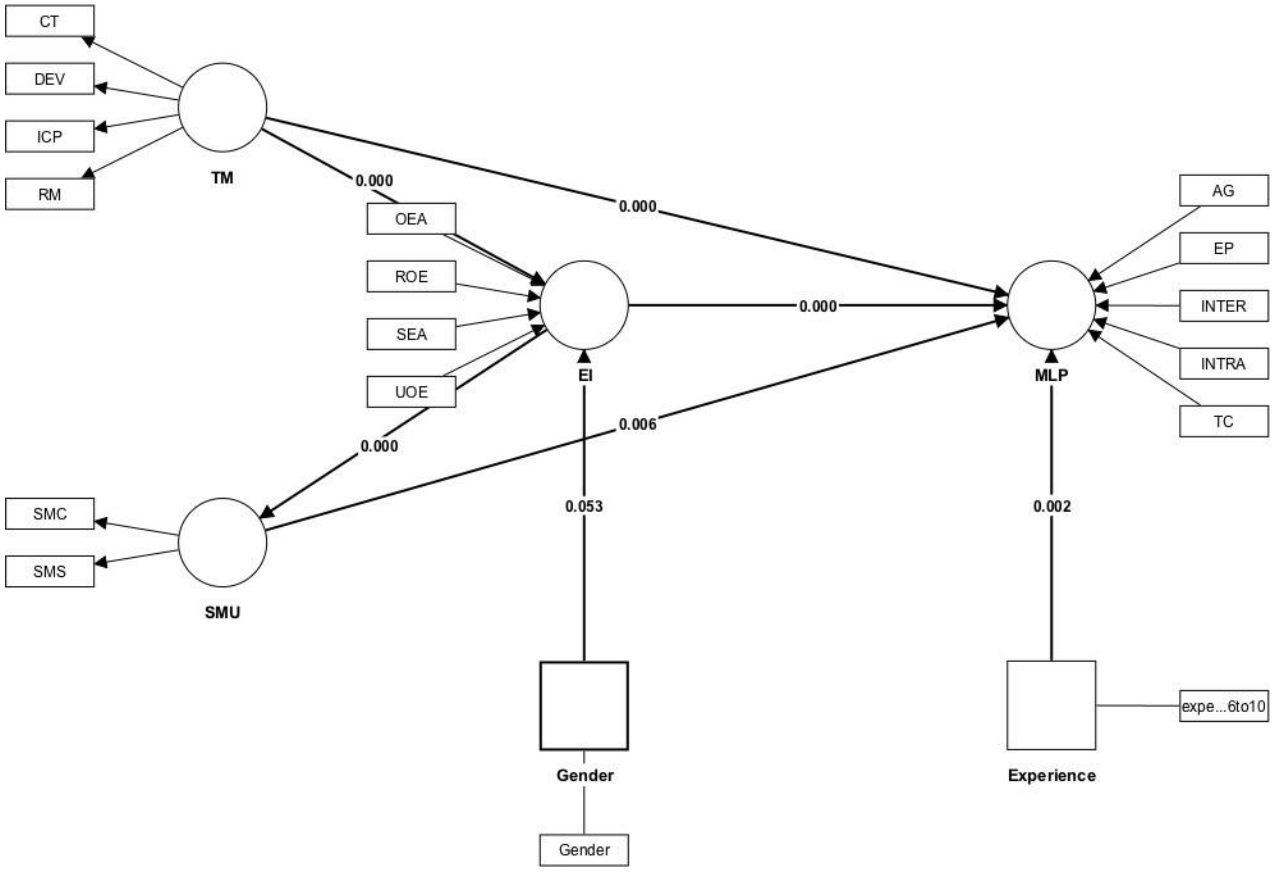


Table 22: Mediation Analysis using Smart PLS 4

#	Path	Beta coefficient	Standard Deviation	T-statistics	P values	Hypothesis Testing	Conclusion
H4	TM →EI → MLP	0.160	0.028	5.716	0.000	**Supported**	**Partial Mediation**
H5	EI →SMU → MLP	0.025	0.012	2.056	0.020	**Supported**	**Partial Mediation**
H6	TM→EI→SMU → MLP	0.009	0.005	1.886	0.030	**Supported**	**Serial partial mediation**

Note(s): **"TM"** (Talent Management), **"EI"** Emotional Intelligence **"SMU"** (Social Media Use) and **"MLP"** (Millennial Leadership Potential) and **P values** are p < 0 .05.

In complementing the mediation analysis run on SMART-PLS, the researcher also decided to run it on SPSS Process Macro V-4.2 by Andrew Hayes. The summary of the results is in Table 23. The study assessed the mediating role of EI on the relationship between TM and MLP. The results revealed a significant indirect effect of the impact of TM on MLP (b= 0.154, t = 5.749), supporting H4. Furthermore, the direct effect of TM on MLP with the inclusion of EI mediator was also found significant (b = 0.244, P=0.000). Hence, EI partially mediated the relationship between TM and MLP. The mediation analysis summary is presented in Table 23.

Moreover, the mediating role of SMU in the relationship between EI and MLP was evaluated. The results demonstrated a significant indirect effect of the impact of SMU on MLP (b= 0.030,t = 2.464), supporting H5. Furthermore, the direct effect of EI on MLP in the presence of the SMU mediator was also found significant (b = 0.477, P=0.000). Hence, SMU partially mediated the relationship between EI and MLP (See Table 23).

The study assessed the serial mediation with EI and SMU serially mediating the relationship between TM and MLP. The results revealed a significant indirect effect of TM on MLP through EI and SMU (b= 0.011, t = 1.822). Additionally, the confidence interval, with a lower limit (LLCI) of 0.004 and an upper limit (ULCI) of 0.024, does not include zero, further supporting the significance of this path, supporting H6. Furthermore, the direct effect of TM on MLP with the inclusion of the mediators was also found significant (b = 0.359, p = 0.000). Hence, there is partial serial mediation of EI and SMU on the relationship between TM and MLP (See Table 23).

In summary, the results indicate that EI and TM directly and indirectly affect MLP. The direct effect suggests that EI influences MLP directly, and TM influences MLP directly. Moreover, the indirect effect, mediated by SMU, demonstrates that part of the influence of EI on MLP and TM on MLP is mediated through its impact on SMU. Also, the effect of TM on MLP can be partially mediated through the sequential influence of EI and SMU. These findings highlight the complex relationships among the variables examined and add depth to understanding how these variables are interconnected and contribute to the outcome variable MLP in the research context.

Table 23: Serial Mediation Analysis using SPSS 29 PROCESS MODEL

	Paths	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	95 % CI		T-statistics	P-Value	Hypothesis Testing	Conclusion
					LL	UL				
H4	TM →EI → MLP	0.398	0.244	0.154	0.114	0.203	5.749	0.000	**Supported**	**Partial Mediation**
H5	EI →SMU→ MLP	0.506	0.477	0.030	0.014	0.055	2.464	0.007	**Supported**	**Partial Mediation**
H6	TM→EI→SMU → MLP	0.370	0.359	0.011	0.004	0.024	1.822	0.034	**Supported**	**Serial partial mediation**

Note(s): Standardised coefficients (Beta); **SE** = Standard Errors; **CI**, 95% confidence interval; **LL** = lower limit; **UL** = upper limit.

6.4.1.9 Control Variables

To ensure the reliability of our findings, we evaluate the influence of various control variables, such as experience and gender. Prior research indicates that Gender is linked to Emotional Intelligence

(Brescoll, 2016; Gipson et al., 2017; Nabih et al., 2023). Thus, the control variables, Gender and Experience, have been analysed for their impact on EI and MLP criterion variables. Results showed that Gender does not control EI (β = -0.153, t =1.631, p= 0.053). The associated p-value is 0.053, which is statistically insignificant, where the p-value is more than 0.05. This explains that Gender has an insignificant impact on EI, where females and males are considered indifferent regarding their EI ability, which contradicts EI and Gender literature results (Nabih et al., 2023). Moreover, Experience significantly controls MLP. This suggests that Experience significantly impacts MLP (β = -0.303, t=3.010, p= 0.002). This shows that employees with over 15 years of experience have more leadership potential than employees with 6 to 10 years of experience. In sum, these control variables explain variations in the outcome variables, highlighting their importance in the analysis.

6.4.1.10 Model Fit

The overall model fit assessment is a critical stage in model validation in SEM, which involves assessing how well the model explains the data (Kline, 2016, p. 120). If SEM is used, "then model fit testing and assessment is paramount, indeed crucial, and cannot be fudged for the sake of 'convenience' or simple intellectual laziness on the part of the investigator" (Barrett, 2007, p. 823). In light of this, the significance of model fit assessment is not dependent on a specific estimate. However, various indices provide various SEM model evaluation methods (Schuberth et al., 2023). However, one of the drawbacks of using PLS-SEM is not having an apparent goodness of fit measurement (Hair et al., 2021, p. 188).

Consequently, multiple indices were used to determine the overall model fit. Goodness of Fit (GoF) is used to indicate if the model fit is adequate, if GoF > 0.36; defining GoF $\sqrt{\text{AverageAVE} * \text{AverageR2}}$ (Wetzels & Odekerken, 2009). Thus, this study concludes that the research model has an excellent overall fit. This study's GoF is 0.389, showing that the research model has an acceptable fit. Moreover, another index used in the PLS is Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), considered a good model fit with values less than 0.08 (L. Hu & Bentler, 1998). This study has confirmed a good fit model with an SRMR value of 0.041, lower than the recommended threshold. The Normed Fit Index (NFI) is a relative fit index introduced by Bentler & Bonett (1980); it measures the increase in fit compared to a model's null fit. An Accepted threshold was set to NFI > 0.9 (Hu. & Bentler, 1999); see Table 24 for a summary of the model fit indices. Finally, measuring the model's explanatory power, the dependent variables' R2 values, and the model's

predictive power are the most important indices to be considered when evaluating a model fit within the PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2021, p. 114) (discussed in the next section).

Table 24: Summary of Model Fit Indices using SMART PLS4

Measures	GoF	SRMR	NFI	Chi-square X^2
Initial	0.389	0.041	0.936	317.053
Threshold	> 0.36	<0.08	>0.9	No fixed threshold

Note(s): *"GoF"* ***(Goodness of Fit),*** *"SRMR"* ***(Standardized Root Mean Square Residual),*** *"NFI"* ***(Normed Fit Index)***

6.4.1.11 Explanatory power

The coefficient of determination, known as R^2, explains the extent to which one or more independent variables account for the variation in a dependent variable. It measures how well the model can explain the changes in the endogenous constructs and indicates the model's explanatory capability or in-sample predictive power. R^2 values range from 0 to 1, with higher values signifying greater explanatory power. Typically, R^2 values for endogenous latent variables are evaluated using guidelines, such as 0.26 (substantial), 0.13 (moderate), and 0.02 (weak), as suggested by Cohen (1988), but what is considered acceptable can vary depending on the research context. To assess the contribution of each exogenous variable, we calculate the change in R^2 when a particular exogenous construct is excluded from the model, known as the effect size (f^2). Effect size measures the impact of each independent variable on the dependent variable. PLS path modelling quantifies how much an excluded independent variable influences the dependent variable's correlation values. An f^2 of 0.35 indicates a strong effect, while an f^2 of 0.15 is moderate, and an f^2 of 0.02 represents a small effect (Cohen 1988). Essentially, the model's f^2 effect size gauges the strength of the relationship between the latent variables.

In this analysis, EI, TM and SMU are the predictor variables of the endogenous MLP, which is the outcome of interest. The R^2 value of 0.362 indicates that the predictors explain approximately 36.2% of the variance in MLP. This suggests a substantial explanatory power per recommended thresholds (Cohen, 1988). The F^2 value of 0.227 suggests a moderate effect size, indicating that EI has a noteworthy impact on MLP compared to TM 0.051 and SMU 0.015 (Cohen, 1988). The Q^2 value of 0.166 is positive, signifying that the model has moderate predictive relevance, and EI, TM and SMU contribute to predicting MLP (Hair et al., 2011).

Moreover, TM is the predictor variable of EI. The R^2 value of 0.146 indicates that approximately 14.6 % of the variance in EI is explained by TM. This suggests a moderate level of explanatory power. The F^2 values suggest a weak to moderate effect size. The Q^2 value of 0.131 is positive, signifying that the model has moderate predictive relevance, where TM contributes to predicting EI. Also, in this analysis, EI serves as the predictor variable of SMU, where the R^2 value of 0.059 indicates that only a small proportion (5.9%) of the variance in SMU is explained by EI. This suggests a relatively weak relationship between EI and SMU.

In conclusion, these findings provide insights into the relationships between the predictor and outcome variables. EI appears to substantially influence MLP, while TM and SMU have weaker associations. The combined effects of TM, EI and SMU jointly impact MLP, and TM has a moderate to weak effect on EI. These results contribute to a comprehensive understanding of the interplay among the variables in this study. For a summary of the explanatory power, see Table 25.

Table 25: Explanatory Power

Predictor(s)	Outcome(s)	R^2	F^2	Q^2
EI	**MLP**	0.362	0.227	0.166
TM			0.051	
SMU			0.015	
TM	**EI**	0.146	0.171	0.131
EI	**SMU**	0.059	0.062	0.045

6.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the researcher presented the quantitative phase of the study, constituting the second phase, which was conducted to empirically test the hypotheses posited in the research. It offered a thorough exposition of the results of the quantitative phase of study two. It presented the steps of testing the hypothesis of the proposed conceptual model. The researcher identified several predictors associated with MLP based on the discerned outcomes; for example, EI, TM and SMU directly influence MLP. Serial mediation analysis revealed that TM practices significantly impact EI, which in turn affects employees' positive use of SMU. This positive usage of SMU then considerably impacts MLP. Finally, the demographic factors of gender and experience were examined to determine if they could statistically control the relationships. It was shown that experience had a considerable impact on controlling MLP. Overall, the model was deemed to be a moderate fit.

Chapter Seven: Research Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

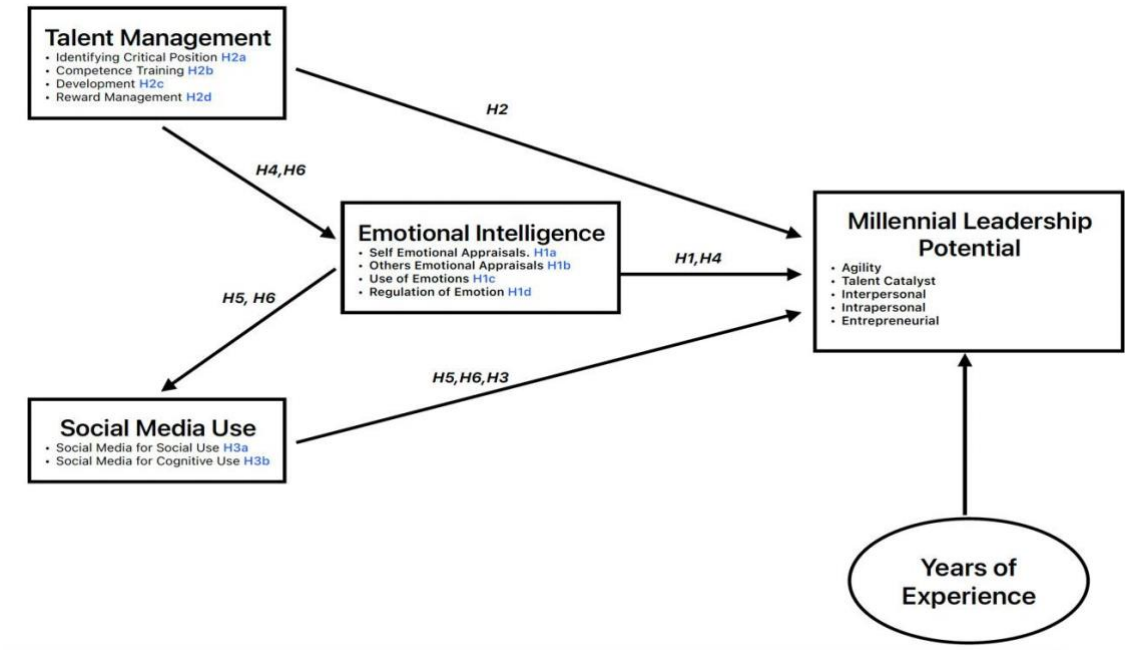
7.1 Introduction

The present chapter provides a discussion of the study's findings within the framework of existing scholarly literature. By doing so, the aforementioned actions address the research questions and objectives that were first presented in the thesis. This chapter provides an analysis of how the findings from the present research align with the current body of knowledge on Leadership Potential. In order to address the research inquiries that have been identified, a comprehensive analysis is undertaken on the findings derived from both investigations conducted within this research endeavour. Therefore, this chapter is structured into two distinct parts: the first section focuses on discussing the research findings, wherein it assesses the overall conclusions drawn from the data analyses, offering a clear comparison with the outcomes of previous studies, and the second section presents the conclusion and recommendations of the current study, revisiting the research aims and objectives. Contributions to research and advancements in existing knowledge are expounded upon. The chapter concludes by reviewing the theoretical and managerial implications, highlighting certain limitations encountered during the research and proposing potential direction for future research.

7.2 Research Discussion

The objective of the quantitative research was to verify the hypotheses that arose from the literature analysis and the refinement of the model in the qualitative study. The next paragraphs outline the current results and compare the findings with existing literature and research. Figure (8) presents the final model with the confirmed research hypotheses. Table 26 presents summary of the results of the relationships in this research

Figure 8: The Final **Model with the Confirmed Hypotheses**



Source: Researcher

7.2.1 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Millennial Leadership Potential

H1: There is a significantly positive impact between EI and MLP. (supported)

The first hypothesis included four sub-hypothesis: (H1a) Self-emotion appraisal positively impacts MLP, (H1b); Others Emotion Appraisal positively impacts MLP, (H1c); Use of Emotion positively impacts MLP, and (H1d) Regulation of emotion positively impacts MLP. The findings illustrated that emotional intelligence and its dimensions have significant positive relationships with millennial leadership potential. It is clear that individuals who exhibit emotional intelligence tend to develop their leadership potential. These findings are in line with the previous literature, which has shown that EI has a positive influence on Leadership (Drigas et al., 2023; Nabih et al., 2023). The domain of Leadership literature has shown that the interconnection between emotional intelligence and leadership is profound, signifying a leader's ability to foster and encourage the development of others (Miao et al., 2018). Emotional intelligence assumes a pivotal role in effective leadership, influencing various facets, including leadership styles, leader performance and leader emergence (Milhem et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). Hence, this study directs its attention to the early identification of potential leaders within organisational settings, emphasising the role of emotional intelligence as an early catalyst that may enhance the likelihood of successful leadership.

Overall, the research findings confirm and support several well-established theories in the fields of leadership and emotional intelligence, such as transformation leadership theory and leadership member exchange theory. By establishing a clear connection between emotional intelligence and leadership potential, this research helps to validate and improve both theoretical frameworks in both academic and practical contexts of leadership studies. Accordingly, a significant relationship between EI and MLP aligns with the leader-member exchange theory (LMX). LMX theory emphasises the importance of building quality relationships between leaders and followers (Gara Bach Ouerdian et al., 2021; Tziner et al., 2020). Building on that notion, this study's results support this theory by suggesting that leaders with higher emotional intelligence may foster positive relationships, creating an encouraging environment for leadership potential to flourish. Moreover, the role of EI in predicting LP can be further emphasised in light of transformational leadership theory, which posits that effective leaders inspire and motivate followers through emotional intelligence competencies (Baba et al., 2021; Mysirlaki & Paraskeva, 2020; Noori et al., 2023), thus suggesting a reversed reciprocal link where individuals with high EI suggesting better chances of exhibiting potential leadership.

Upon reviewing the findings of this study, it is evident that the impact of emotional intelligence on MLP can be attributed to the streamlined and effective recruitment and selection procedures employed by Multinational Companies (MNCs) when hiring people. Due to the methodical and lengthy selection procedure, the talent acquisition process ensures that exceptional talents who prioritise emotional intelligence, along with other personality attributes, are present among the potential candidates, therefore emphasising Emotional Intelligence (EI) as a crucial and effective element for leadership that must be both present and developed by the organisation.

Moreover, high emotional intelligence enhances interpersonal skills, facilitating effective communication and relationship-building within organisational settings. Leaders endowed with robust emotional intelligence are more adept at comprehending and addressing the needs of their team members, thereby cultivating a positive and collaborative work environment (Wezowski & Penton-Voak, 2023). Additionally, emotional intelligence also contributes to increased adaptability and flexibility in leadership styles. Leaders with strong emotional intelligence can adeptly adjust their approaches in response to emotional nuances, navigating diverse challenges and situations with enhanced ease (Mishra & Singh, 2022). Hence, considering one of the dimensions of MLP is agility, EI will enhance the individual's flexibility and agility and hence predict their potential leadership.

Furthermore, emotional intelligence assumes a crucial role in motivating and inspiring team members. Leaders possessing emotional intelligence can connect with the emotional needs and

aspirations of their teams, instilling a sense of purpose and dedication towards shared goals (Rubio et al., 2022). In the realm of decision-making, leaders with high emotional intelligence exhibit proficiency in making informed and balanced choices. They navigate complex situations by carefully considering both rational and emotional factors, resulting in more effective problem-solving and decision-making processes (Jehn & Chatman, 2000; Jordan & Troth, 2021).

In summary, the consequential association between Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Potential proves instrumental in enhancing various facets of leadership effectiveness, team dynamics and organisational success. This highlights the pivotal role that Emotional Intelligence plays in shaping leaders who are not only effective but also impactful in their organisational roles. Hence, Emotional Intelligence is considered a vital psychological variable in predicting potential leaders early.

7.2.2 Relationship between Talent Management Practice and Millennial Leadership Potential

H2: There is a positive relationship between TM practices and MLP. (partially supported)

The second hypothesis included four sub-hypotheses: (H2a) Identifying Critical Position positively predicts MLP, (H2b) Competence Training predicts MLP, (H3c) Development practices positively predicts MLP and (H4d) Reward Management positively predicts MLP. The results revealed that TM practices overall are significant. This can be evident through the resource-based view theory that suggests that organisational success is linked to the effective management of valuable resources. Talent is considered a critical resource and, hence, can be considered a competitive advantage, and this study's findings align by indicating that Talent Management practices significantly impact Leadership Potential, reinforcing the notion that effective talent utilisation contributes to organisational success (Ramaditya et al., 2022). Moreover, Human Capital Theory emphasises the role of investments in human capital, such as training and development, in enhancing organisational performance (AlQershi et al., 2022). The results are consistent with this theory by showcasing that effective Talent Management practices contribute significantly to Leadership Potential (Kaliannan et al., 2023), highlighting the importance of succession planning by nurturing and developing talent for potential leadership.

While Talent Management Practices were shown to be significant overall, the remaining sub-hypotheses were not significant, with the exception of Reward Management (RM), which was found to be significant. This can be elucidated by the significance of total organisational practices, wherein the efficacy of each individual practice is contingent upon the others. This points out the collective importance of implementing all possible talent management practices to guarantee positive outcomes

for identifying potential leaders. Furthermore, in order to understand why the observed correlation of each practice may diverge from identified theories, it is essential to consider the specific context. The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly impeded several Talent Management practices, resulting in the suspension of multiple practices and development programmes (Aguinis & Burgi-Tian, 2021; Kravariti et al., 2023; Mousa et al., 2022). This was a result of the lock-down at the beginning of the pandemic, as some industries faced financial challenges, which led to the suspensions of many practices; on the other side, some companies have managed to focus their training programs on crisis management (Oksanen et al., 2021), in addition to the dismissal of identifying critical positions for upward promotions and training and developmental programmes. Additionally, the economic circumstances in Egypt, specifically the devaluation of the Egyptian pound currency at the end of 2022, have resulted in Egypt's inflation rate increasing to 31.9% in February 2023, up from 25.8% in January 2023. This exceeded the market's anticipated rate of 26.9%. In 2023, Egypt saw the most severe level of inflation since August 2017, according to CAPMAS (2023). As a result, this has a detrimental effect on all Learning and Development initiatives and suspended any recruitment opportunities. This can be elucidated by the fact that the individual practices investigated in this study may not have a substantial impact on Leadership Potential for the aforementioned contextual and economic reasons.

Nevertheless, it is imperative to highlight that among the various talent management practices investigated, reward management emerged as the singular practice demonstrating a direct and substantial correlation with Millennials' Leadership Potential (MLP). This is evident in the crucial role this practice plays in stimulating individuals' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, as well as their drive to enhance their performance and, consequently, their prospects for potential leadership (Fernandes et al., 2023). This assertion finds support in recent empirical research conducted in the context of Egypt, revealing that the practice of offering compensation packages consisting of rewards and incentives is of great relevance in many organisations (Shehata et al., 2021). Furthermore, the recognition and appreciation received across several sectors throughout the COVID-19 pandemic can be attributed to the significance of aligning the administration of rewards with potential leaders. In parallel, a distinct study conducted in Egypt accentuated the pivotal role of employee recognition, encompassing both monetary and nonmonetary rewards, as a highly effective strategy for enhancing leadership effectiveness in contemporary organisations (El-Sharkawy et al., 2023). Hence, amongst the difficulties posed by the pandemic and currency devaluation in Egypt, reward management emerged as a prioritised practice when compared to other talent management practices.

In conclusion, these findings align with fundamental theories in organisational behaviour and human resource management, emphasising the strategic significance of talent management practices for developing potential leadership, however fully executing all TM practices collectively.

7.2.3 Relationship between Social Media Use and Millennial Leadership Potential

H3: Social Media Use positively influences MLP. (Not supported)

The third hypothesis included two sub-hypotheses: (H3a) Social Media for Social Use positively Influences MLP and (H3b) Social Media for Cognitive Use Positively Influences MLP. The study results illuminate a significant overall relationship between Social Media Use (SMU) and Leadership Potential, aligning with previous research findings that endorse Social Networking and Social Capital theories (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006; Magno & Cassia, 2019; Swanson et al., 2020). However, upon conducting individual testing of the sub-dimensions of using social media for social or cognitive purposes, both were deemed insignificant. This lack of significance can be explained by emphasising the integral role of integrating dimensions rather than relying solely on a singular dimension. It highlights the notion that individuals benefit from engaging with social media at work for both social and cognitive purposes. This integration becomes particularly pertinent considering the circumstances during the study, which was marked by the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic.

The timing of the research coincided with the initial stages of the COVID-19 pandemic, a period that witnessed an increase in the use of social media platforms, especially for professional purposes. Prior to the pandemic, social media platforms were already gaining power for professional activities (Oksa et al., 2022). However, in response to the pandemic, the frequency of their usage escalated significantly (Cao & Yu, 2019; Kodama, 2020; Leonardi, 2021; Nisar et al., 2019). Therefore, widely used platforms, such as Microsoft Teams, Zoom and WhatsApp groups, have been discreetly dominating the personal lives of employees for a considerable period of time (Barnes, 2020; Tams et al., 2020). Thus, employees relying on social media use at work included various activities, such as professional social networking, participating in discussions, following, creating or sharing work-related content and engaging in online collaborative meetings (Oksa et al., 2021; Oksanen et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, the measurement instrument employed to evaluate SMU may not capture the specific aspects of social media usage that contribute to developmental learning, such as the increasingly significant role of LinkedIn Learning, a product offered by LinkedIn, which has received a lot of attention from organisations in recent times. In addition, it is important to consider the use of

SMU in several other HRM practices that are pertinent to predicting leadership potential. Therefore, adopting a more refined measurement approach could potentially uncover a stronger correlation.

As a result, social media has assumed a pivotal role as a primary communication medium at work, facilitating the establishment of rapport, dissemination of work-related information and fostering team integration. The study's findings shed light on the nuanced nature of the relationship between social media use, particularly its integrated dimensions and the perception of Leadership Potential.

7.2.4 Mediation Analysis

This study aimed to test the mediation model by examining the strength and importance of different relationships within the model. The correlations between TM and following EI, EI and SMU were hypothesised and tested. Additionally, the hypothesised and tested serial mediation relationship between organisational TM and employees' EI and SMU in predicting MLP was also investigated. Generally, all of the proposed mediation hypotheses were supported (see Chapter 6).

The fourth hypothesis received significant support, which indicates that EI has a partial mediating role between Talent Management Practices and their Leadership Potential. This shows that the organisational TM practices aim at developing employees' EI, which in turn can affect their development and their potential for being future leaders. The discovery that an employee's EI serves as a partial mediator between organisational TM practices and MLP expands upon the previous research by Drigas et al. (2023) and Namugumya et al. (2023). Furthermore, the significant correlation between TM practices and developing employees' emotional intelligence serves as a fundamental foundation that enables employees to become successful leaders, which will enable them to effectively manage their emotions, cope with adverse emotional situations, daily frustrations and negative moods, while enhancing optimism and performance, as demonstrated in several studies (Milhem et al., 2019; Troth & Gyetvey, 2014; Wong & Law, 2002; Zhang et al., 2018).

Hypothesis five investigated how SMU mediates the relationship between EI and MLP. Interestingly, the inherited direct negative relationship between EI and SMU in the previous study served to build this notion (Arrivillaga et al., 2022; Kircaburun et al., 2019; Marino et al., 2020; Süral et al., 2019). Examining the influence of employees who exhibit EI on their positive use of Social Media at work has significantly impacted their leadership potential. One possible explanation for this result is that those with high EI are more adept at dealing with stressors and emotions, capable of capitalising on social media for their own benefit by building strong social bonds and networks with others, hence impacting their social networking and then their leadership potential.

The study investigated the relationship between Talent Management and MLP (see hypothesis two). However, it expanded on previous studies by examining the serial mediation pathway of EI and SMU in this relationship (see hypothesis six). The results highlight the significance of an organisation's investment in Talent Management practices and the impact of these practices on the development of employees' Emotional Intelligence (EI). This, in turn, enhances employees' emotional stability and intellect in utilising social media in a constructive manner, facilitating their interaction with social connections and serving as a job aid for sharing information. Collectively, these factors contribute to identifying potential leaders.

In sum, the outcome of the serial mediation model demonstrated an indirect influence of EI and SMU on the relationship between TM and MLP. This study is the first to establish a sequential connection between TM and MLP through EI and SMU.

7.2.5 Control Variables

Among the investigations conducted in Chapter six is the documentation of what variables are statistically controlled for when studying Leadership Potential. The impact of control variables on Emotional Intelligence and Millennial Leadership Potential is generally minor in terms of non-hypothesised effects. Nevertheless, there exists a substantial correlation between the number of years of experience that employees possess and their potential for millennial leadership. This demonstrates that the number of years of experience directly influences an individual's likelihood of becoming a leader. Prior research has demonstrated that experience is a notable indicator of leadership (Day et al., 2014). This is logically reasonable because as individuals accumulate more years of experience, they naturally acquire pertinent skills, such as problem-solving, adaptability and decision-making. Furthermore, individuals are exposed to many situations that enhance their knowledge and capacity to become leaders. Surprisingly, the analysis revealed that gender had a p-value of 0.053, which is close to being statistically significant. This finding contradicts previous research studies (Brescoll, 2016; Gipson et al., 2017; Nabih et al., 2023) that suggested a positive correlation between gender and Emotional Intelligence (EI). This phenomenon can be comprehended due to the recent conclusion of a global pandemic, during which a substantial number of individuals underwent significant transformations. In 2020, Egypt implemented various steps to alleviate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. One, women were afforded the opportunity for a sabbatical leave across all sectors, provided they were primarily pregnant or caregivers to a child aged 12 years or younger (P.Minster, 2020). This policy aimed to support working mothers during this challenging time. Given the substantial population

of Egypt, the implications of this policy were far-reaching. A significant number of women were encouraged to opt to stay at home, thereby altering the dynamics of their professional engagement. This may have had an impact on their Emotional Intelligence (EI) compared to earlier, perhaps resulting in a delay in leadership possibilities. The convergence of these factors suggests that the impact of the stay-at-home measures on Emotional Intelligence and subsequent delays in leadership opportunities might constitute an unprecedented and noteworthy consequence of the pandemic on changes in work dynamics, particularly in the context of Egypt.

Table 26: Summary of the results of the relationships in this research

Hypothesis number	Hypothesis	Results
H1	H1a: SEA positively impacts MLP	**Supported**
	H1b: OEA positively impacts MLP	**Supported**
	H1c: UOE positively impacts MLP	**Supported**
	H1d: ROE positively impacts MLP	**Supported**
H2	H2a: ICP positively predicts MLP	**Rejected**
	H2b: CT positively predicts MLP	**Rejected**
	H2c: DEV practices positively predicts MLP	**Rejected**
	H2d: RM positively predicts MLP	**Supported**
H3	H3a: Social Media for Social Use positively Influences MLP	**Rejected**
	H3b: Social Media for Cognitive Use Positively Influences MLP	**Rejected**
H4	H4:EI mediates the relationship between TM and MLP	**Supported**
H5	H5: SMU mediates the relationship between EI and MLP	**Supported**
H6	H6: TM practices will influence MLP through the mediating influence of employee's EI and, in turn, SMU.	**Supported**

Source: Researcher

7.3 Addressing the Research Question and Objectives

The primary objective of this thesis was to enhance our understanding of the determinants predicting potential leaders, with a specific emphasis on the millennial demographic employed in multinational corporations in Egypt. Consequently, the overarching research question guiding this thesis was formulated as follows: "To what extent can Emotional Intelligence, Organisational Talent Management Practices and Social Media Use predict Millennials' Leadership Potential?" To address this main research question, multiple questions and objectives were formulated, each of which was successfully accomplished during the course of this investigation. The subsequent discussion revisits each research question and delineates the manner in which they were addressed.

7.3.1 RQ1: How to conceptualize Millennial Leadership Potential

The first research question was concerned with the main focal point of the study, which is finding an understanding and clear assessment of Millennial Leadership Potential (MLP). This was driven by several considerations. First, previous research has indicated the multiplicity of approaches and theories in defining leadership as well as operationalisation and measurement. Second, leadership potential is underdeveloped in the literature and overlooked in contemporary organisations. Also, the present Leadership theories could not corroborate the new competencies required for future leadership, considering the new challenges faced. Finally, it focuses on the millennial generation, which is currently well-prepared and exerting significant influence in organisations. To address question one, a qualitative study was undertaken using semi-structured interviews (as detailed in Chapter 4). The findings of the qualitative investigation were utilised in the creation of an MLP scale, as described in Chapter 5. Therefore, a precise conception of MLP was developed by delineating five characteristics that constitute MLP: Agility, Talent Catalyst, Entrepreneurial, Intrapersonal and Interpersonal.

7.3.2 RQ2: What is the impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and its dimensions on MLP?

Question two was addressed throughout a quantitative study (as detailed in Chapter 6), where focusing on including a vital individual variable in the proposed model was vital to this thesis. Various theories and models were studied and considered for the current study discussed in Chapter two. Reviewing these theories helped in understanding emotion intelligence and its dimensions: Self-Emotion Appraisal, Others' Emotional Appraisal, Use of Emotion and Regulation of Emotion. This thesis aimed to utilise the WLEIS model for assessing Emotional Intelligence (EI) and its influence on MLP. With the acquired knowledge from the previous studies in Chapter two-part two, the research answered this question by supporting the developed hypothesis one.

7.3.3 RQ3: How do organisational Talent Management (TM) practices impact MLP?

The third research question aimed to assess the organisational variable under examination, namely Talent Management practices, with a specific focus on the prevalent and contemporary approaches employed by Human Resource Managers in organisations. The scrutinised practices encompassed the identification of critical positions, competence training, development programmes and reward management. Quantitative surveys were administered, and data analysis was executed using SMART-PLS4 to examine the impact of these Talent Management practices on Millennials'

Leadership Potential (as detailed in Chapter 6). The analysis results indicate that the sub-hypothesis related to reward management was the only one supported, signifying its significance in influencing Millennials' Leadership Potential. Notably, the overarching hypothesis regarding Talent Management as a whole was supported, underscoring the pivotal importance of implementing the entirety of these practices collectively and not individually.

7.3.4 RQ4: Does Social Media Use (SMU) influence MLP?

The fourth research question delved into the social aspect of the model by investigating the use of social media in the workplace, with a specific focus on two components: social media for social use and cognitive use. Various theories were explored to establish a robust connection between social media and Millennials' Leadership Potential (MLP), highlighting social media as a new medium for social networking. This emphasis drew upon social networking and social capital theories, postulating both as crucial assets for leadership (as detailed in Chapter 2, part 2). Employing SMART-PLS4 for data analysis in Chapter 6, the study scrutinised the impact of social media use on MLP. The results of the analysis underscored the insignificance of both sub-hypotheses. Furthermore, the holistic measurement of Social Media Use (SMU) emerged as significantly influential in shaping MLP, affirming the influential role of social media for both social and cognitive purposes in shaping Millennials' Leadership Potential, emphasising the importance of concurrently fostering social interactions and relationships while utilising social media for both professional and cognitive purposes.

7.4 Research Implications

This study contributed to the academia and practices in several ways. Accordingly, the section below discusses the theoretical and managerial implications.

7.4.1 Theoretical Implications

This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on potential leadership and generational leadership. In addition, prior research has examined leadership potential based on existing theories but has not specifically focused on the millennial generation or taken into account a multilevel perspective to analyse different predictors at psychological, organisational and social levels. As a result, this study has made significant contributions to theory: (1) a deeper understanding of Leadership Potential whilst contextualising it on millennial generation, which, to the best of our knowledge, has not

yet been a subject of scientific discussion and empirical examination; (2) focusing on the Egyptian context, since most studies have focused on western countries and disregarded Middle East; (3) the development and the validation of a new scale of MLP that considers contemporary traits that can better fit today's dynamic organisation and survive unstable environment; (4) the interplay between organisational, psychological and social variables was investigated, which contributed to a serial mediation between the different variables, which provides a robust understanding to developing leadership; (5) examining the years' experience as one the control variables, which contributes to the leadership potential literature as one of the factors that needs further exploration; (6) the novelty in the integration of the different variables that were taken from prior studies in a proposed comprehensive model that was tested in the Egyptian context. Finally, this study contributes to the theory by validating the scales of the variables discussed before in Egypt. The findings of this study also provide numerous managerial contributions for practitioners, which will be highlighted in the next section. The practitioners addressed in this study include Human Resource Managers and Top Managers in Multinational, Private and Public Companies and Small-Medium Enterprises.

7.4.2 Managerial Implications

This study aims to examine the impact of Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management practices and Social Media Use in predicting Millennials' Leadership potential. Predicting early leadership or discovering hidden potentials have been very popular across organisations (Birtch et al., 2021). Moreover, following the COVID-19 pandemic, businesses must adjust their talent management strategies and processes to align with new strategic directions and market dynamics in order to help improve leadership development, organisational performance, adaptability and resilience (Kravariti et al., 2023).

The empirical evidence presented in this study showed the importance of rethinking our understanding of what constitutes leadership as well as adjusting our assessments to fit today's turbulent environment. Furthermore, the multilevel analysis conducted offers a clear framework for managers to prioritise and strategise their spending in the realm of their organisational functions. To elaborate more, EI has been deemed the highest impact in predicting MLP; accordingly, HR managers need to focus on the recruitment and selection process of the potential candidates from the beginning to ensure choosing highly emotionally intelligent talents. Therefore, we recommend that the organisational spending must be on creating a comprehensible selection process to ensure that each

selected candidate serves as a potential future leader. This can be done by incorporating measures of Emotional Intelligence into the recruitment and selection processes.

Moreover, the results highlighted the importance of conducting Talent Management practices; therefore, we advise HR managers and CEOs to make sure they are considering conducting a set of TM activities and not relying on one, given the importance of the totality of practices in early predicting LP, in addition to refining existing Talent Management practices to align with the identified predictors of Millennials' Leadership Potential. This may involve adjusting performance appraisal criteria, mentoring programs or career development pathways to better nurture and recognise leadership qualities. Thus, we advise HR managers to include several in-basket programmes when conducting the succession planning process, as well as tailoring leadership development programmes that are designed to enhance emotional competencies necessary for effective leadership.

In addition, HR should prioritise the significance of Social Media (SM) as a crucial means of communication and networking that cannot be disregarded. HR should also highlight how managers can integrate SM into organisational practices by promoting its use among employees for information sharing and participation in interactive learning platforms. Furthermore, HR should encourage the creation of social networking groups to foster team cohesion and networking among different departments and regions. Therefore, we encourage organisations to incorporate SM and to have SM presence across different digital platforms, such as LinkedIn, Instagram, Facebook, YouTube, Slack and WhatsApp, mandating its importance and benefits. Likewise, we recommend that managers develop social media training on how to effectively use social media for leadership communication and provide guidance on building a positive personal brand, engaging with followers and leveraging social platforms to enhance their leadership presence.

Another implication derived from the results is corroborating the use of the MLP-developed scale as a self-report assessment that can be distributed across the employees in a given organisation to assess their LP readiness on different dimensions, such as agility, interpersonal, intrapersonal, entrepreneurial and talent catalyst. Also, organisations need to establish a system for continuous monitoring and adaptation of leadership development initiatives based on evolving trends in Emotional Intelligence, Talent Management practices and social media dynamics. This ensures that managerial strategies remain effective and relevant over time.

In sum, the findings of this study aim to set an actionable framework that organisations can proactively apply to cultivate the leadership potential of millennials, fostering a more capable and emotionally intelligent workforce.

7.5 Conclusion

Organisational studies have mostly concentrated on conducting extensive research on the subject of leadership, which has been a source of controversy. Previous studies have discussed many facets of leadership and came up with many theoretical underpinnings. Particularly, the emphasis on identifying and nurturing leaders early in their careers has driven substantial investments in leadership development programmes, particularly within the realm of large multinational organisations. Within this context, this study directed its attention toward the millennial generation, recognising their prominence within organisational structures. The predominant objective was to construct a comprehensive, multilevel framework, delving into the predictors of potential leadership by studying psychological, organisational and social variables, specifically emotional intelligence, talent management practices and social media use.

The methodology employed in this research comprised a mixed-methods approach, commencing with a qualitative study followed by a quantitative investigation. The qualitative phase involved 18 semi-structured interviews, serving a dual purpose of refining the proposed model and conceptualising a measurement tool for Millennial Leadership Potential (MLP). The outcome of this qualitative phase resulted in the creation of five dimensions: agility, talent catalyst, interpersonal, intrapersonal and entrepreneurial, which collectively constituted the MLP variable. Subsequently, a scale was developed, measured and subjected to validation.

The subsequent quantitative study involved the distribution of an online survey designed to measure the hypothesised relationships between the predictors and the newly developed MLP. The model was scrutinised on two analytical levels: the direct relationships of the sub-hypotheses and the measurement of latent variables as a whole, including mediation analysis. The findings revealed that Emotional Intelligence exhibited robust support, emerging as a significant predictor of Millennial Leadership Potential. Conversely, Talent Management practices received partial support when evaluating sub-dimensions individually. The impact of Social Media Use was deemed insignificant when assessed directly at the sub-hypothesis level. In examining latent variables, the study uncovered a serial mediation, suggesting a strategic approach for Human Resource Management (HRM) managers. Specifically, organisations are encouraged to prioritise the implementation of Talent Management practices to cultivate emotionally intelligent employees who can effectively harness social media at work, ultimately fostering the development of potential leaders.

In summary, this research contributes to a multilevel framework that HRM managers can utilise to enhance HR functions, concentrating efforts on the strategic development of potential leaders within

the millennial workforce in Egypt. The insights derived from this study serve as a valuable guide for organisations seeking to optimise their leadership development initiatives in the contemporary professional landscape. In addition, they contribute to the academic theory by exploring potential correlations and new pathways for the specified variables.

7.6 Research Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Current research accepts several limitations that could be improved in future studies. First, this research considers studying LP from a multilevel perspective; however, it considers only a single variable within each level, neglecting other variables that could add input and deepen the understanding of other predictors influencing MLP. Second, the sample of this study focused on the millennial generation in Egypt, which is composed of a certain age group. Thus, the results may not generalise to other generational groups and different cultures. Also, considering Hofstede cultural dimensions, such as individualism versus collectivism or power distance, could have an impact on how people view the characteristics of a potential leader (Knoll & Sternad, 2021). We, therefore, suggest that further studies on LP could also include data from other world regions while maybe comparing between different generational cohorts. Third, the qualitative study utilised a present study, which utilised purposive (judgmental) sampling to select human resource managers and supervisors for conducting the online interviews. While this sampling technique proved valuable for conceptualising MLP and its dimensions, it also possesses certain drawbacks. Purposive sampling, being a non-probability sampling technique, carries the risk of selection of subjective bias and does not guarantee representativeness (Saunders et al., 2016). Moreover, the quantitative study relied on convenience sampling, which can result in a sample that may not represent the actual population and hence cannot be generalised (Saunders et al., 2016). Fourth, Emotional Intelligence was measured using the WLEIS measurement model, which is a self-report measure that has four dimensions: (1) appraisal and expression of emotion in the self; (2) appraisal and recognition of emotion in others; (3) regulation of emotion in the self; and (4) use of emotion to facilitate performance. Despite ensuring anonymity and confidentiality of respondents' responses, there is a concern in relation to self-report measures of EI as respondents might fall entrap of social desirability responses, such as faking a good attitude as well as the measure may overlap with personality measures (Prentice, 2019). Thus, further studies can consider a triangulation methodology by combining multiple methods to cross-reference self-report data with other methods, such as observation, thereby gaining a more comprehensive understanding of EI influence under investigation. Fifth, the research context focused on millennials in multinational companies operating in Egypt.

Despite the validity of the justification for choosing such a context, considering Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) and micro businesses might be a great opportunity to spot early leadership. Finally, the current study employed a cross-sectional approach to investigate the relationships between the variables of interest. Therefore, the results provided just a brief insight into the present abilities and expertise of the potential candidates. This hinders the research's ability to establish a causal relationship between variables. In addition, future studies in leadership should utilise longitudinal timeframes to investigate the relationship between variables related to leadership potential and the subsequent growth or development of leadership effectiveness rather than treating potential as an independent concept. Therefore, it is important to validate leadership potential models through empirical evidence, using repeated measures to assess leadership traits and outcomes across multiple points in time (Bouland-van Dam et al., 2021; Church et al., 2021).

References:

Aas, R. W., Ellingsen, K. L., Lindøe, P., & Möller, A. (2008). Leadership qualities in the return to work process: a content analysis. *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation*, *18*, 335–346.

Abdel-Monem, O. (2012). Measuring the Impact of Human Resource Management Practices on Organization Performance in Pharmaceutical Multinational Companies in Egypt. *Journal of American Science*, *8*(11), 186–197.

Abhicharttibutra, K., Wichaikum, O., Nantsupawat, A., Kunnaviktikul, W., & Turale, S. (2023). Total rewards preferences: A cross-sectional study among two generations of nurses in rural and remote Thailand. *International Nursing Review*.

Agnihotri, R. (2020). Social media, customer engagement, and sales organizations: A research agenda. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *90*, 291–299.

Agnihotri, R., Dingus, R., Hu, M. Y., & Krush, M. T. (2016). Social media: Influencing customer satisfaction in B2B sales. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *53*, 172–180.

Agnihotri, R., Kalra, A., Chen, H., & Daugherty, P. J. (2022). Utilizing social media in a supply chain B2B setting: A knowledge perspective. *Journal of Business Logistics*, *43*(2), 189–208.

Aguinis, H., & Burgi-Tian, J. (2021). Talent management challenges during COVID-19 and beyond: Performance management to the rescue. *BRQ Business Research Quarterly*, *24*(3), 233–240.

Ahmad, S. Z., Abu Bakar, A. R., & Ahmad, N. (2019). Social media adoption and its impact on firm performance: the case of the UAE. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, *25*(1), 84–111.

Akanda, M. H. U., Bhuiyan, A. B., Kumarasamy, M. M., & Karuppannan, G. (2021). A Conceptual Review of the Talent Management and Employee Retention in Banking Industry. *International Journal of Business and Management Future*, *6*(1), 42–68.

Al-Asfour, A., & Lettau, L. (2014). Strategies for leadership styles for multi-generational workforce. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability & Ethics*, *11*(2).

Alahmad, R., Carter, M., Pierce, C., & Robert, L. (2018). The impact of enterprise social media identity on job performance and job satisfaction. *Twenty-Fourth Americas Conference on Information Systems*, 1–10.

Ali-Hassan, H., Nevo, D., & Wade, M. (2015). Linking dimensions of social media use to job performance: The role of social capital. *Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, *24*(2), 65–89.

AlNuaimi, B. K., Kumar Singh, S., Ren, S., Budhwar, P., & Vorobyev, D. (2022). Mastering digital transformation: The nexus between leadership, agility, and digital strategy. *Journal of Business Research*, *145*(March), 636–648.

AlQershi, N. A., Thurasamy, R., Ali, G. A., Al-Rejal, H. A., Al-Ganad, A., & Frhan, E. (2022). The effect of talent management and human capital on sustainable business performance: an empirical investigation in Malaysian hospitals. *International Journal of Ethics and Systems*, *38*(2), 316–337.

Amagoh, F. (2009). Leadership development and leadership effectiveness. *Management Decision*, *47*(6), 989–999.

Anand, N., & Conger, J. A. (2007). Capabilities of the Consummate Networker. *Organizational*

Dynamics, *36*(1), 13–27.

Anderson, H. J., Baur, J. E., Griffith, J. A., & Buckley, M. R. (2017). What works for you may not work for (Gen)Me: Limitations of present leadership theories for the new generation. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *28*(1), 245–260.

Anlesinya, A., Amponsah-Tawiah, K., & Dartey-Baah, K. (2019). Talent management research in Africa: towards multilevel model and research agenda. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, *10*(4), 440–457.

Antonakis, J., Bastardoz, N., Jacquart, P., & Shamir, B. (2016). Charisma: An Ill-Defined and Ill-Measured Gift. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *3*, 293–319.

Antonakis, J., d'Adda, G., Weber, R. A., & Zehnder, C. (2022). "Just words? Just speeches?" On the economic value of charismatic leadership. *Management Science*, *68*(9), 6355–6381.

Aristigueta, M. P. (1997). Strategy and Theory for Intrapersonal Development in Public Administration Education. *Journal of Public Administration Education*, *3*(2), 163–176.

Arjomandy, D. (2016). Social media integration in electronic human resource management: Development of a social eHRM framework. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne Des Sciences de l'Administration*, *33*(2), 108–123.

Arrivillaga, C., Rey, L., & Extremera, N. (2022). A mediated path from emotional intelligence to problematic social media use in adolescents: The serial mediation of perceived stress and depressive symptoms. *Addictive Behaviors*, *124*, 107095.

Ashaye, O. R., Mahmoud, A. B., & Ali, N. (2023). The role of social media engagement and emotional intelligence in successful employment employment. *Higher Education, Skills and Work-Based Learning*.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Daus, C. S. (2005). Rumors of the death of emotional intelligence in organizational behavior are vastly exaggerated. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(4), 441–452.

Ashton, C, & Morton, L. (2005). Managing talent for competitive advantage. *Strategic HR Review*, *4*(5), 28–31.

Ashton, Chris, & Morton, L. (2005). Managing talent for competitive advantage. *Strategic HR Review*, *4*(5), 28–31.

Asrar-ul-Haq, M., & Anwar, S. (2018). The many faces of leadership: Proposing research agenda through a review of literature. *Future Business Journal*, *4*(2), 179–188.

Azma, F., Farahbakhsh, M. T., Safarzad, R., & Farahnaki, E. (2019). Investigating relationship of talent management and organizational entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Life Sciences & Earth Sciences*, *2*(1), 25-37.

Baba, M. M., Makhdoomi, U. M., & Siddiqi, M. A. (2021). Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership among academic leaders in institutions of higher learning. *Global Business Review*, *22*(4), 1070–1096.

Badura, K. L., Galvin, B. M., & Lee, M. Y. (2022). Leadership emergence: An integrative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *107*(11), 2069.

Bag, S., & Wood, L. C. (2022). Guest editorial: Human resource development in the digital age: recent

issues and future research directions. *International Journal of Manpower*, *43*(2), 253–262.

Bagheri, A., & Harrison, C. (2020). Entrepreneurial leadership measurement: a multi-dimensional construct. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, *27*(4), 659–679.

Bagshaw, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence – training people to be affective so they can be effective. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *32*(2), 61–65.

Balkundi, P., & Harrison, D. A. (2006). Ties, leaders, and time in teams: Strong inference about network structure's effects on team viability and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *49*(1), 49–68.

Balkundi, P., & Kilduff, M. (2006). The ties that lead: A social network approach to leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *17*(4), 419–439.

Bar-On, R., Brown, J. M., Kirkcaldy, B. D., & Thomé, E. P. (2000). Emotional expression and implications for occupational stress; an application of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). *Personality and Individual Differences*, *28*(6), 1107–1118.

Barbuto, J. E., & Burbach, M. E. (2006). The Emotional Intelligence of Transformational Leaders: A Field Study of Elected Officials. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *146*(1), 51–64.

Bardzil, P., & Slaski, M. (2003). Emotional intelligence: Fundamental competencies for enhanced service provision. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, *13*(2), 97–104.

Barnes, S. J. (2020). Information management research and practice in the post-COVID-19 world. *International Journal of Information Management*, *55*, 102175.

Baron, L., Rouleau, V., Grégoire, S., & Baron, C. (2018). Mindfulness and leadership flexibility. *Journal of Management Development*, *37*(2), 165–177. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-06-2017-0213

Barrett, P. (2007). Structural equation modelling: Adjudging model fit. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *42*(5), 815–824.

Barry, J. M., & Gironda, J. T. (2019). Operationalizing thought leadership for online B2B marketing. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *81*, 138–159.

Bartol, K. M., & Zhang, X. (2007). Networks and leadership development: Building linkages for capacity acquisition and capital accrual. *Human Resource Management Review*, *17*(4), 388–401.

Basaad, S., Bajaba, S., & Basahal, A. (2023). Uncovering the dark side of leadership: How exploitative leaders fuel unethical pro-organizational behavior through moral disengagement. *Cogent Business & Management*, *10*(2), 2233775.

Bass, B. M., & Bass Bernard, M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Free press New York.

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*.

Beatty, P. C., & Willis, G. B. (2007). Research Synthesis: The Practice of Cognitive Interviewing. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *71*(2), 287–311.

Becker, C. H. (2009). Student Values and Research: Are Millennials Really Changing the Future of Reference and Research? *Journal of Library Administration*, *49*(4), 341–364.

Beechler, S., & Woodward, I. C. (2009). The global "war for talent." *Journal of International Management*, *15*(3), 273–285.

Beesley, L. G. A., & Cooper, C. (2008). Defining knowledge management (KM) activities: Towards

consensus. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *12*(3), 48–62.

Behringer, N., & Sassenberg, K. (2015). Introducing social media for knowledge management: Determinants of employees' intentions to adopt new tools. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *48*, 290–296.

Bell, A. (2020). Age period cohort analysis: a review of what we should and shouldn't do. *Annals of Human Biology*, *47*(2), 208–217.

Benson, V., Saridakis, G., Tennakoon, H., & Ezingeard, J. N. (2015). The role of security notices and online consumer behaviour: An empirical study of social networking users. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, *80*, 36–44.

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, *88*(3), 588–606.

Bernerth, J. B., Cole, M. S., Taylor, E. C., & Walker, H. J. (2018). Control Variables in Leadership Research: A Qualitative and Quantitative Review. *Journal of Management*, *44*(1), 131–160.

Besharat, M. A. (2005). Evaluating psychometric properties of Farsi version of the Positive and Negative Perfectionism Scale. *Psychological Reports*, *97*(1), 33–42.

Bharati, P., Zhang, W., & Chaudhury, A. (2015). Better knowledge with social media? Exploring the roles of social capital and organizational knowledge management. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *19*(3), 456–475.

Bhatnagar, J. (2007). Talent management strategy of employee engagement in Indian ITES employees: Key to retention. *Employee Relations*, *29*(6), 640–663.

Biddle, C., & Schafft, K. A. (2015). Axiology and Anomaly in the Practice of Mixed Methods Work: Pragmatism, Valuation, and the Transformative Paradigm. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *9*(4), 320–334.

Birtch, T. A., Chiang, F. F. T., Cai, Z., & Wang, J. (2021). Am I choosing the right career? The implications of COVID-19 on the occupational attitudes of hospitality management students. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *95*, 102931.

Blake, A. B., Luu, V. H., Petrenko, O. V, Gardner, W. L., Moergen, K. J. N., & Ezerins, M. E. (2022). Let's agree about nice leaders: A literature review and meta-analysis of agreeableness and its relationship with leadership outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *33*(1), 101593.

Boateng, G. O., Neilands, T. B., Frongillo, E. A., Melgar-Quiñonez, H. R., & Young, S. L. (2018). Best Practices for Developing and Validating Scales for Health, Social, and Behavioral Research: A Primer. *Frontiers in Public Health*, *6*(June), 1–18.

Bolton, R. N., Parasuraman, A., Hoefnagels, A., Migchels, N., Kabadayi, S., Gruber, T., Loureiro, Y. K., & Solnet, D. (2013). Understanding Generation Y and their use of social media: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Service Management*, *24*(3), 245–267.

Boudreau, J. W., & Ramstad, P. M. (2005). Talentship talent segmentation, and sustainability: A new hr decision science paradigm for a new strategy definition. *Human Resource Management*, *28*(2), 17–26.

Bouland-van Dam, S. I. M., Oostrom, J. K., De Kock, F. S., Schlechter, A. F., & Jansen, P. G. W. (2021). Unravelling leadership potential: conceptual and measurement issues. *European Journal of Work*

and Organizational Psychology, *30*(2), 206–224.

Bowen, G. A. (2008). Naturalistic inquiry and the saturation concept: a research note. *Qualitative Research*, *8*(1), 137–152.

Brachle, B., & McElravy, L. J. (2023). WHAT ARE WE MISSING? Problems with using generational cohorts in leadership research and suggestions for a better direction. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 1–18.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology; in Qualittaive Research in Psychology. *Uwe Bristol*, *3*(2), 77–101.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2014). What can "'thematic analysis"' offer health and wellbeing researchers? *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-Being*, *9*(1), 1–3. https://doi.org/10.3402/qhw.v9.26152

Brescoll, V. L. (2016). Leading with their hearts? How gender stereotypes of emotion lead to biased evaluations of female leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *27*(3), 415–428.

Briscoe, J. P., & Hall, D. T. (1999). Grooming and picking leaders using competency frameworks: Do they work? An alternative approach and new guidelines for practice. *Organizational Dynamics*, *28*(2), 37–52.

Brooks, S. (2015). Does personal social media usage affect efficiency and well-being? *Computers in Human Behavior*, *46*, 26–37.

Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Applied Research.* (2nd editio). Guilford Publications.

Buckingham, M., & Vosburgh, R. (2001). The 21st century human resources function: it's the talent, stupid! *Human Resource Planning*, *24*(4), 17–23.

Budhwar, P., Pereira, V., Temouri, Y., & Do, H. (2021). International business research and scholarship in the Middle East: developments and future directions. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, *51*(3), 185–200.

Burrell;, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis* (1st ed.).

Byrne, B. M. (2016). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming, Third Edition. In *Routledge* (Third). Routledge.

Cai, X., Gura, D., & Kurilova, A. (2022). Stakeholders' impact on the leadership potential of small and medium-sized construction enterprises. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, *29*(8), 2999–3022.

Cai, Z., Huang, Q., Liu, H., & Wang, X. (2018). Improving the agility of employees through enterprise social media: The mediating role of psychological conditions. *International Journal of Information Management*, *38*(1), 52–63.

Campbell, R. N., & Fiedler, F. E. (1968). A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *13*(2), 344.

Cao, X., & Yu, L. (2019). Exploring the influence of excessive social media use at work: A three-dimension usage perspective. *International Journal of Information Management*, *46*, 83–92.

CAPMAS (Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics). (2023). *Inflation Rate in Egypt*. CAPMAS.

Carmeli, A., Reiter-Palmon, R., & Ziv, E. (2010). Inclusive leadership and employee involvement in creative tasks in the workplace: The mediating role of psychological safety. *Creativity Research Journal*, *22*(3), 250–260.

Carmeli, A., Yitzhak-Halevy, M., & Weisberg, J. (2009). The relationship between emotional intelligence and psychological wellbeing. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *24*(1), 66–78.

Carter, D. R., DeChurch, L. A., Braun, M. T., & Contractor, N. S. (2015). Social network approaches to leadership: An integrative conceptual review. In *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Vol. 100, Issue 3, pp. 597–622). American Psychological Association Inc.

Cartwright, S., & Pappas, C. (2008). Emotional intelligence, its measurement and implications for the workplace. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *10*(2), 149–171.

Caruth, G. D. (2013). Demystifying Mixed Methods Research Design: A Review of the Literature. *Mevlana International Journal of Education*, *3*(2), 112–122.

Carvalho, A., Alves, H., & Leitão, J. (2022). What research tells us about leadership styles, digital transformation and performance in state higher education? *International Journal of Educational Management*, *36*(2), 218–232.

Carvalho, V. S., Guerrero, E., Chambel, M. J., & González-Rico, P. (2016). Psychometric properties of WLEIS as a measure of emotional intelligence in the Portuguese and Spanish medical students. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, *58*, 152–159.

Cascio, W. F., & Collings, D. G. (2022). Potential: The Forgotten Factor in Talent Management Research. In D. Collings, V. Vaiman, & H. Scullion (Eds.), *Talent Management: A Decade of Developments* (pp. 65–84). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Chaudhuri, S., Hirudayaraj, M., & Ardichvili, A. (2018). Borrow or grow: An overview of talent development/management practices in Indian IT organizations. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *20*(4), 460–478.

Chen, A. S. Y., Bian, M. D., & Hou, Y. H. (2015). Impact of transformational leadership on subordinate's EI and work performance. *Personnel Review*, *44*(4), 438–453.

Chen, S.-Y. (2012). *A Study of Strategic Talent Management System â Workforce Differentiation Perspectives*.

Chen, W., & Srinivasan, S. (2023). Going digital: Implications for firm value and performance. *Review of Accounting Studies*, 1–47.

Chillakuri, B., & Mogili, R. (2018). Managing millennials in the digital era: building a sustainable culture. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, *26*(3), 7–10.

Chugh, S., & Bhatnagar, J. (2006). Talent Management as High Performance Work Practice: Emerging Strategic HRM Dimension. *Management and Labour Studies*, *31*(3), 228–253.

Church, A., Guidry, B., Dickey, J., & Scrivani, J. (2021). Is there potential in assessing for high-potential? Evaluating the relationships between performance ratings, leadership assessment data, designated high-potential status and promotion outcomes in a global organization. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *32*(5), 101516.

Church, A. H., & Conger, J. A. (2018). So you want to be a high potential? Five X-factors for realizing the high potential's advantage. *People & Strategy*, *41*(1), 17–22.

Church, A. H., & Rotolo, C. T. (2013). How are top companies assessing their high-potentials and senior executives? A talent management benchmark study. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, *65*(3), 199–223.

Church, A. H., & Silzer, R. (2014). Going behind the corporate curtain with a BluePrint for Leadership Potential. *People & Strategy*.

Church, A., & Silzer, R. (2014). Going behind the Corporate Curtain with a BluePrint for Leadership Potential: An Integrated Framework for Identifying High-Potential Talent. *People Strategy*, *36*(4), 50–58.

Clark, C., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2023). Understanding Millennials' nature-based tourism experience through their perceptions of technology use and travel constraints. *Journal of Ecotourism*, *22*(3), 339–353.

Clark, L. (2020). Leadership will never be the same post-covid. *Leadership Excellence, Harvard Business Publishing*, 14–16.

Clark, T., Foster, L., Sloan, L., & Bryman, A. (2021). *Bryman's Social Research Methods* (6th ed.). Oxford University Pres.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences Second Edition*.

Collado-Soler, R., Trigueros, R., Aguilar-Parra, J. M., & Navarro, N. (2023). Emotional Intelligence and Resilience Outcomes in Adolescent Period, is Knowledge Really Strength? *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 1365–1378.

Collings, D. G. (2014). Toward mature talent management: Beyond shareholder value. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(3), 301–319.

Collings, D. G., McMackin, J., Nyberg, A. J., & Wright, P. M. (2021). Strategic Human Resource Management and COVID-19: Emerging Challenges and Research Opportunities. *Journal of Management Studies*, *58*(5), 1378–1382.

Collings, D. G., & Mellahi, K. (2009). Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, *19*(4), 304–313.

Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K., & Cascio, W. F. (2019). Global talent management and performance in multinational enterprises: A multilevel perspective. *Journal of Management*, *45*(2), 540–566.

Collins, C. J., & Clark, K. D. (2003). Strategic human resource practices, top management team social networks, and firm performance: The role of human resource practices in creating organizational competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*(6), 740–751.

Coman, A., Grigore, A.-M., & Ardelean, A. (2021). Social Media, Leadership and Organizational Culture: The Case of Romanian Leaders. *International Conference on Human-Computer Interaction*, 3–17.

Contractor, N. S., Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (2006). Testing multitheoretical, multilevel hypotheses about organizational networks: An analytic framework and empirical example. In *Academy of Management Review* (Vol. 31, Issue 3, pp. 681–703). Academy of Management.

Cooke, F. L., Saini, D. S., & Wang, J. (2014). Talent management in China and India: A comparison of management perceptions and human resource practices. *Journal of World Business*, *49*(2), 225–235.

Cox, A. (2005). The outcomes of variable pay systems: tales of multiple costs and unforeseen

consequences. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *16*(8), 1475–1497.

Crane, B., & Hartwell, C. J. (2019). Global talent management: A life cycle view of the interaction between human and social capital. *Journal of World Business*, *54*(2), 82–92.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research. In *Educational Research* (fourth). Pearson Education.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (H. Salmon, C. Neve, M. O'Heffernan, D. C. Felts, & A. Marks, Eds.; 5th ed.). SAGE Publications.

Criado, J. I., Sandoval-Almazan, R., & Gl-Garcia, J. R. (2013). Government innovation through social media. In *Government Information Quarterly* (Vol. 30, Issue 4, pp. 319–326).

Cullen-Lester, K. L., Maupin, C. K., & Carter, D. R. (2017). Incorporating social networks into leadership development: A conceptual model and evaluation of research and practice. *Leadership Quarterly*.

Curran, P. J., West, S. G., & Finch, J. F. (1996). The robustness of test statistics to nonnormality and specification error in confirmatory factor analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *1*(1), 16–29.

Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations. A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *13*(1), 46–78.

Darrag, M., Mohamed, A., & Aziz, H. A. (2010). Investigating recruitment practices and problems of multinational companies (MNCs) operating in Egypt. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues*, *3*(2), 99–116.

Dave, H. P., Keefer, K. V, Snetsinger, S. W., Holden, R. R., & Parker, J. D. A. (2021). Stability and change in trait emotional intelligence in emerging adulthood: A four-year population-based study. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *103*(1), 57–66.

Davison, R. M., Wong, L. H. M., & Peng, J. (2023). The art of digital transformation as crafted by a chief digital officer. *International Journal of Information Management*, *69*, 102617.

Day, D. V. (2011). Integrative perspectives on longitudinal investigations of leader development: From childhood through adulthood. *Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 561–571.

Day, D. V., & Dragoni, L. (2015). Leadership Development: An Outcome-Oriented Review Based on Time and Levels of Analyses. In *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 2, pp. 133–156). Annual Reviews Inc.

Day, D. V., Gronn, P., & Salas, E. (2004). Leadership capacity in teams. In *Leadership Quarterly* (Vol. 15, Issue 6, pp. 857–880).

Day, D. V. (2001). Leadership development: A review in context. *Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(4), 581–613.

Day, D. V, Fleenor, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Sturm, R. E., & McKee, R. A. (2014). Advances in leader and leadership development: A review of 25years of research and theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(1), 63–82.

De Vos, A., & Dries, N. (2013). Applying a talent management lens to career management: The role of human capital composition and continuity. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(9), 1816–1831.

Deng, H., Duan, S. X., & Wibowo, S. (2023). Digital technology driven knowledge sharing for job

performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *27*(2), 404–425.

DeRue, D. S. (2011). Adaptive leadership theory: Leading and following as a complex adaptive process. In *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 31, pp. 125–150). Elsevier.

Devonish, D., & Greenidge, D. (2010). The effect of organizational justice on contextual performance, counterproductive work behaviors, and task performance: Investigating the moderating role of ability-based emotional intelligence. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *18*(1), 75–86.

Dimitrov, A. (2018). The digital age leadership: a transhumanistic perspective. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *12*(3), 79–81.

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(1), 36–62.

Dionne, S. D., Gupta, A., Sotak, K. L., Shirreffs, K. A., Serban, A., Hao, C., Kim, D. H., & Yammarino, F. J. (2014). A 25-year perspective on levels of analysis in leadership research. In *Leadership Quarterly* (Vol. 25, Issue 1, pp. 6–35).

Dobni, C. B., Wilson, G. A., & Klassen, M. (2022). Business practices of highly innovative Japanese firms. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, *27*(3), 155–162.

Donaldson-Feilder, E., Lewis, R., Yarker, J., & Whiley, L. A. (2022). Interpersonal mindfulness in leadership development: A Delphi study. *Journal of Management Education*, *46*(5), 816–852.

Dries, N. (2013). The psychology of talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 272–285.

Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2007). Using emotional intelligence to identify high potential: A metacompetency perspective. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, *28*(8), 749– 770.

Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2008). "Real" high-potential careers: An empirical study into the perspectives of organisations and high potentials. *Personnel Review*, *37*(1), 85–108.

Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2012). How to identify leadership potential: Development and testing of a consensus model. *Human Resource Management*, *51*(3), 361–385.

Dries, N., Vantilborgh, T., & Pepermans, R. (2012). The role of learning agility and career variety in the identification and development of high potential employees. *Personnel Review*, *41*(2), 340–358.

Drigas, A., Papoutsi, C., & Skianis, C. (2023). Being an Emotionally Intelligent Leader through the Nine-Layer Model of Emotional Intelligence—The Supporting Role of New Technologies. *Sustainability*, *15*(10), 8103.

Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (1999). Can emotional intelligence be measured and developed? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *20*(5), 242–253.

El-Sharkawy, S. A., Nafea, M. S., & Hassan, E. E.-D. H. (2023). HRM and organizational learning in knowledge economy: investigating the impact of happiness at work (HAW) on organizational learning capability (OLC). *Future Business Journal*, *9*(1), 10.

Erkutlu, H. (2008). The impact of transformational leadership on organizational and leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Management Development*, *27*(7), 708–726.

Eva, N., Wolfram Cox, J., Tse, H. H. M., & Lowe, K. B. (2019). From competency to conversation: A multi-perspective approach to collective leadership development. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1–14.

Farhan, B. Y. (2021). Customizing leadership practices for the millennial workforce: A conceptual framework. *Cogent Social Sciences*, *7*(1), 1930865.

Fatt, J. P. T. (2002). Emotional Intelligence : For Human Resource Managers Biographical Note James Poon Teng Fatt is Assistant Professor at the Nanyang Business School , Nanyang. *Management Research New*, *25*(11), pp57-74.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*(4), 1149–1160.

Fernandes, C., Veiga, P. M., Lobo, C. A., & Raposo, M. (2023). Global talent management during the COVID-19 pandemic? The Gods must be crazy! *Thunderbird International Business Review*, *65*(1), 9–19.

Fiedler, F. E., & Garcia, J. E. (1987). New approaches to effective leadership: Cognitive resources and organizational performance. In *New approaches to effective leadership: Cognitive resources and organizational performance.* John Wiley & Sons.

Filo, K., Lock, D., & Karg, A. (2015). Sport and social media research: A review. In *Sport Management Review* (Vol. 18, Issue 2, pp. 166–181). Elsevier Ltd.

Finkelstein, L., Costanza, D., & Goodwin, G. (2018). Do your high potentials have potential? The impact of individual differences and designation on leader success. *Personnel Psychology*, *71*(1), 3–22.

Fino, E., Popușoi, S. A., Holman, A. C., Blanchard, A., Iliceto, P., & Heym, N. (2023). The dark tetrad and trait emotional intelligence: Latent profile analysis and relationships with PID-5 maladaptive personality trait domains. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *205*, 112092.

Fiori, M., Udayar, S., & Vesely Maillefer, A. (2022). Emotion information processing as a new component of emotional intelligence: Theoretical framework and empirical evidence. *European Journal of Personality*, *36*(2), 245–264.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 39–50.

Fosse, E., & Winship, C. (2019). Analyzing age-period-cohort data: A review and critique. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *45*, 467–492.

Fredricks, S. M. (2003). Creating and Maintaining Networks Among Leaders: An Exploratory Case Study of Two Leadership Training Programs. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *10*(1), 45–54.

Galdames, S., & Guihen, L. (2022). Millennials and leadership: a systematic literature review. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, *33*(1–2), 146–162.

Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Dries, N., & González-Cruz, T. F. (2013). What is the meaning of "talent" in the world of work? *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 290–300.

Gannon, M. J., Taheri, B., & Azer, J. (2022). Contemporary Research Paradigms and Philosophies. *Contemporary Research Methods in Hospitality and Tourism*, 5–19.

Gao, R., & Liu, B. (2023). Avoiding the scenario of "The farmer and the snake": the dark side of servant leadership and an intervention mechanism. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *38*(4), 289–302.

Gara Bach Ouerdian, E., Mansour, N., Gaha, K., & Gattoussi, M. (2021). Linking emotional intelligence to turnover intention: LMX and affective organizational commitment as serial mediators. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *42*(8), 1206–1221.

Garavan, T. N., Carbery, R., & Rock, A. (2012). Mapping talent development: definition, scope and architecture. *European Journal of Training and Development*, *36*(1), 5–24.

Gardner, W. L., Cogliser, C. C., Davis, K. M., & Dickens, M. P. (2011). Authentic leadership: A review of the literature and research agenda. *Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(6), 1120–1145.

Garver, M. S., & Mentzer, J. T. (1999). Logistics research methods: employing structural equation modeling to test for construct validity. *Journal of Business Logistics*, *20*(1), 33.

Gasson, S. (2009). Employing a Grounded Theory Approach for MIS Research. In *Handbook of Research on Contemporary Theoretical Models in Information Systems.* (pp. 34–56).

Gaus, N., Basri, M., Thamrin, H., & Ritonga, F. U. (2022). Understanding the nature and practice of leadership in higher education: a phenomenological approach. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *25*(5), 685–703.

Gelaidan, H. M., Houtgraaf, G., & Al-kwifi, O. S. (2022). Creativity and innovation in rapidly developing Qatar: the impact of leadership and the mediation of psychological empowerment amidst rapid growth. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *35*(3), 257–275.

Gilleard, C. (2004). Cohorts and generations in the study of social change. *Social Theory & Health*, *2*(1), 106–119.

Giorgi, G. (2013). Organizational emotional intelligence: development of a model. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *21*(1), 4–18.

Gipson, A. N., Pfaff, D. L., Mendelsohn, D. B., Catenacci, L. T., & Burke, W. W. (2017). Women and Leadership: Selection, Development, Leadership Style, and Performance. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *53*(1), 32–65.

Goleman, D. (1998). The emotionally competent leader. *The Healthcare Forum Journal*, *41*(2), 36–76.

Gong, C., & Ribiere, V. (2023). Understanding the role of organizational agility in the context of digital transformation: an integrative literature review. *VINE Journal of Information and Knowledge Management Systems*.

Gorard, S., & Taylor, C. (2004). Combining Methods n Educational and Social Research. In *(London: Open University Press)* (p. 191).

Gorsuch, R. L. (1990). Common Factor Analysis versus Component Analysis: Some Well and Little Known Facts. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *25*(1), 33–39.

Gottfried, A. E., Gottfried, A. W., Reichard, R. J., Guerin, D. W., Oliver, P. H., & Riggio, R. E. (2011). Motivational roots of leadership: A longitudinal study from childhood through adulthood. *Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 510–519.

Graen, G., & Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role-making model leadership in formal organizations A developmental approach.pdf. *Leadership Frontiers*.

Graybill, J. O. (2014). Millennials among the professional workforce in academic libraries: Their perspective on leadership. *Journal of Academic Librarianship*, *40*(1), 10–15.

Greer, C. R., & Virick, M. (2008). Diverse succession planning: Lessons from the industry leaders.

Human Resource Management, *47*(2), 351–367.

Grilli, L. (2022). Entrepreneurship and new product development: Exploring the “advantage of youth” and “business acumen” views. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *39*(5), 662–685.

Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. (1998). Mapping the Domain of Expressivity: Multimethod Evidence for a Hierarchical Model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*(1), 170–191.

Groves, K. S., & Feyerherm, A. E. (2022). Developing a leadership potential model for the new era of work and organizations. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *43*(6), 978–998.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, *2*(163–194), 105.

Gudergan, S. P., Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2008). Confirmatory tetrad analysis in PLS path modeling. *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(12), 1238–1249.

Guilford, J. P. (1956). The structure of intellect. *Psychological Bulletin*, *53*(4), 267–293.

Hair, J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). Multivariate Data Analysis (7th ed.). In *Analysis*. Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hair, J., Hult, G. T. M. ., Ringle;, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2021). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)-Third Edition*.

Hair, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a Silver Bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *19*(2), 139–152.

Hannah Murphy, Keahey, L., Bennett, E., Drake, A., Brooks, S. K., & Rubin, G. J. (2021). Millennial attitudes towards sharing mobile phone location data with health agencies: a qualitative study. *Information, Communication \& Society*, *24*(15), 2244–2257.

Hartman, J. L., & McCambridge, J. (2011). Optimizing millennials’ communication styles. *Business Communication Quarterly*, *74*(1), 22–44.

Harzing, A.-W. (2006). Response styles in cross-national survey research: A 26-country study. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, *6*(2), 243–266.

Hatami, H., & Segel, L. H. (2021). What matters most? Five priorities for CEOs in the next normal. In *McKinsey Quarterly*. https://www.mckinsey.com/capabilities/strategy-and-corporate-finance/our-insights/what-matters-most-five-priorities-for-ceos-in-the-next-normal#/

Hayes, S. C., Bunting, K., Herbst, S., Bond, F. W., & Barnes-Holmes, D. (2006). Expanding the Scope of Organizational Behavior Management. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, *26*(1–2), 1–23.

Haynes, S. N., Richard, D. C. S., & Kubany, E. S. (1995). Content validity in psychological assessment: A functional approach to concepts and methods. *Psychological Assessment*, *7*(3), 238–247.

Heavey, C., Simsek, Z., Kyprianou, C., & Risius, M. (2020). How do strategic leaders engage with social media? A theoretical framework for research and practice. *Strategic Management Journal*, *41*(8), 1490–1527.

Heinen, J. S., & O’Neill, C. (2004). Managing talent to maximize performance. *Employment Relations Today*, *31*(2), 67–82.

Henderson, K. A. (2011). Post-positivism and the pragmatics of leisure research. *Leisure Sciences*, *33*(4), 341–346.

Henry, G. T. (1990). *Practical sampling*. SAGE Publication.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *43*(1), 115–135.

Hersey, P. (1969). Life cycle theory of leadership. *Training and Development Journal*, *23*(5), 26–34.

Higgs, M., & Aitken, P. (2003). An exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership potential. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *18*(8), 814–823.

Hilgard, E. R. (1980). The trilogy of mind: Cognition, affection, and conation. *Journal of the History of the Behavioral Sciences*, *16*(2), 107–117.

Hirschfeld, R. R., & Thomas, C. H. (2011). Age- and gender-based role incongruence: Implications for knowledge mastery and observed leadership potential among personnel in a leadership development program. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*(3), 661–692.

Hitt, M. A., & Duane, R. (2002). The Essence of Strategic Leadership: Managing Human and Social Capital. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *9*(1), 3–14.

Hodzic, S., Scharfen, J., Ripoll, P., Holling, H., & Zenasni, F. (2018). How efficient are emotional intelligence trainings: A meta-analysis. *Emotion Review*, *10*(2), 138–148.

Höglund, M. (2012). Quid pro quo? Examining talent management through the lens of psychological contracts. *Personnel Review*, *41*(2), 126-142.

Holt, S., & Marques, J. (2012). Empathy in leadership: Appropriate or misplaced? An empirical study on a topic that is asking for attention. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *105*, 95–105.

Honig-Haftel, S., & Martin, L. R. (1993). The effectiveness of reward systems on innovative output: An empirical analysis. *Small Business Economics*, *5*, 261–269.

House, R.J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, *23*(3), 409–473.

House, Robert J. (1971). A Path Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *16*(3), 321–399.

House, Robert J., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Hanges, P. J., & Luque, M. F. S. de. (2014). *The GLOBE Study of CEO Leadership Behavior and Effectiveness in 24 Countries*. Sage PublicationsSage CA: Thousand Oaks, CA.

House, Robert J, Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Sage publications.

Howard, C. S., & Irving, J. A. (2014). The impact of obstacles defined by developmental antecedents on resilience in leadership formation. *Management Research Review*, *37*(5), 466–478.

Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2009). The Baby boom. In *Millennials Rising: The Next Great Generation (Google eBook)* (first). Random House LLC.

Hu., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *6*(1), 1–55.

Hu, J., & Dutta, T. (2022). What's charisma got to do with it? Three faces of charismatic leadership and

corporate social responsibility engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *13*, 829584.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modeling : Sensitivity to underparameterized model misspecification. *Psychological Methods*, *3*, 424–453.

Humphrey, R. H. (2002). The many faces of emotional leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*(5), 493–504.

Hung, A. (2013). Understanding talent attraction: Perceived attractiveness of financial reward elements. In *University of Cape Town*.

Hwang, S. (2012). The strategic use of Twitter to manage personal public relations. *Public Relations Review*, *38*(1), 159–161.

Hyde-Clarke, N. (2023). Academic leadership and leadership styles in strategic plans: a study of five top-ranked public universities in South Africa. *Cogent Social Sciences*, *9*(1), 2220533.

Iles, P., Chuai, X., & Preece, D. (2010). Talent Management and HRM in Multinational companies in Beijing: Definitions, differences and drivers. *Journal of World Business*, *45*(2), 179–189.

Iles, P., Preece, D., & Chuai, X. (2010). Talent management as a management fashion in hrd: Towards a research agenda. *Human Resource Development International*, *13*(2), 125–145.

Iliceto, P., & Fino, E. (2017). The Italian version of the Wong-Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS-I): A second-order factor analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *116*, 274–280.

Ince, H., Imamoglu, S. Z., & Turkcan, H. (2022). Relationships among absorptive capacity, creativity and job performance: the moderating role of social media usage. *Management Decision*, *60*(3), 858–882.

Ismail, H. N., Kertechian, K. S., & Blaique, L. (2023). Visionary leadership, organizational trust, organizational pride, and organizational citizenship behaviour: A sequential mediation model. *Human Resource Development International*, *26*(3), 264–291.

Issah, M. (2018). Change leadership: The role of emotional intelligence. *Sage Open*, *8*(3), 2158244018800910.

J. Ahn, M., & W. Ettner, L. (2014). Are leadership values different across generations? *Journal of Management Development*, *33*(10), 977–990. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-10-2012-0131

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1990). Human resource planning: Challenges for industrial/organizational psychologists. *American Psychologist*, *45*(2), 223–239.

Jafar, R. M. S., Geng, S., Ahmad, W., Niu, B., & Chan, F. T. S. (2019). Social media usage and employee's job performance: The moderating role of social media rules. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, *119*(9), 1908–1925.

Jang, D., Elfenbein, H. A., & Porath, C. (2023). Who succeeds in a leadership course? Achievement is predicted by ability-tested but not self-reported emotional intelligence. *Social Sciences & Humanities Open*, *8*(1), 100566.

Jayaraman, S., Talib, P., & Khan, A. F. (2018). Integrated Talent Management Scale: Construction and Initial Validation. *SAGE Open*, *8*(3), 1–12.

Jehn, K. A., & Chatman, J. A. (2000). The influence of proportional and perceptual conflict composition on team performance. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *11*(1), 56–73.

Jensen, U. T., Andersen, L. B., Bro, L. L., Bøllingtoft, A., Eriksen, T. L. M., Holten, A.-L., Jacobsen, C.

B., Ladenburg, J., Nielsen, P. A., Salomonsen, H. H., Westergård-Nielsen, N., & Würtz, A. (2016). Conceptualizing and Measuring Transformational and Transactional Leadership. *Administration & Society*, *51*(1), 3–33.

Johnson, N., Turnbull, B., & Reisslein, M. (2022). Social media influence, trust, and conflict: An interview based study of leadership perceptions. *Technology in Society*, *68*, 101836.

Jones, J. T., Whitaker, M., Seet, P. S., & Parkin, J. (2012). Talent management in practice in australia: Individualistic or strategic? An exploratory study. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *50*(4), 399–420.

Jooss, S., McDonnell, A., & Burbach, R. (2021). Talent designation in practice: an equation of high potential, performance and mobility. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *32*(21), 4551–4577.

Jooss, S., McDonnell, A., Burbach, R., & Vaiman, V. (2019). Conceptualising talent in multinational hotel corporations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *31*(10), 3879–3898.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M., Härtel, C. E. ., & Hooper, G. S. (2002). Workgroup emotional intelligence: Scale development and relationship to team process effectiveness and goal focus. *Human Resource Management Review*, *12*(2), 195–214.

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2021). Managing emotions during team problem solving: Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution. *Emotion and Performance*, *17*(2), 195–218.

Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional Intelligence: An Integrative Meta-Analysis and Cascading Model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(1), 54–78.

Ju, M., Murray, J. Y., Gao, G. Y., & Kotabe, M. (2019). Concurrent sourcing strategy of multinational firms in China: Drivers and performance implications. *Journal of World Business*, *54*(6), 101015.

Jucan, M., Jucan, C., & Rotariu, I. (2013). "The Social Destination ": How Social Media Influences the Organisational Structure and Leadership of DMOs. *Waset.Org*, *7*(6), 1672–1678.

Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(5), 751–765.

Judge, T. A., & Piccol, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(5), 755–768.

Juhdi, N., Pa'wan, F., & Hansaram, R. (2015). Employers' experience in managing high potential employees in Malaysia. *Journal of Management Development*, *34*(2), 187–201.

Kabalina, V., & Osipova, A. (2022). Identifying and assessing talent potential for future needs of a company. *Journal of Management Development*, *41*(3), 147–162.

Kafetsios, K., & Zampetakis, L. A. (2008). Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction: Testing the mediatory role of positive and negative affect at work. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *44*(3), 712–722.

Kaifi, B. A., Nafei, W. A., Khanfar, N. M., & Kaifi, M. M. (2012). A Multi-Generational Workforce: Managing and Understanding Millennials. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *7*(24), 88–93.

Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the Fate of Organizations. *American Psychologist*, *63*(2), 96–110.

Kaliannan, M., Darmalinggam, D., Dorasamy, M., & Abraham, M. (2023). Inclusive talent development as a key talent management approach: A systematic literature review. *Human Resource Management Review*, *33*(1), 100926.

Kamales, N., & Knorr, H. (2018). Leaders With Managing Cultural Diversity and Communication. *Asia Pacific Journal of Religions and Cultures*, *3*(1), 63–72.

Kankam, P. K. (2019). The use of paradigms in information research. *Library and Information Science Research*, *41*(2), 85–92.

Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business Horizons*, *53*(1), 59–68.

Kaplan, R. E. (1984). Trade routes: The manager's network of relationships. *Organizational Dynamics*, *12*(4), 37–52.

Kapoor, K. K., Tamilmani, K., Rana, N. P., Patil, P., Dwivedi, Y. K., & Nerur, S. (2017). Advances in Social Media Research: Past, Present and Future. *Information Systems Frontiers*, *20*(3), 531–558.

Karim, J., & Weisz, R. (2010). Cross-Cultural Research on the Reliability and Validity of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). *Cross-Cultural Research*, *44*(4), 374–404.

Karriker, J. H., & Hartman, N. S. (2019). The harder they must fall?: Leadership self-efficacy as hindrance to Millennials' leadership development. *International Leadership Journal*, *11*(1), 55–77.

Kelm, R. C., & Ibrahim, O. (2023). Modernizing marketing strategies for social media and millennials in dermatology. *Clinics in Dermatology*, *41*(2), 246–252.

Kerr, R., Garvin, J., Heaton, N., & Boyle, E. (2006). Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *27*(4), 265–279.

Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *22*(3), 375–403.

Khan, A. N., Mehmood, K., Le, J., & Khan, N. A. (2023). Visionary leadership and leaders' burnout: a weekly diary analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 1–30.

Khan, N. A., & Khan, A. N. (2019). What followers are saying about transformational leaders fostering employee innovation via organisational learning, knowledge sharing and social media use in public organisations? *Government Information Quarterly*, *36*(4), 1–11.

Kim, J., Waldman, D. A., Balthazard, P. A., & Ames, J. B. (2023). Leader self-projection and collective role performance: A consideration of visionary leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *34*(2), 101623.

Kim, T., Jung-Eun Yoo, J., Lee, G., & Kim, J. (2012). Emotional intelligence and emotional labor acting strategies among frontline hotel employees. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *24*(7), 1029–1046.

Kircaburun, K., Griffiths, M. D., & Billieux, J. (2019). Trait emotional intelligence and problematic online behaviors among adolescents: The mediating role of mindfulness, rumination, and depression. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *139*, 208–213.

Kjellström, S., Stålne, K., & Törnblom, O. (2020). Six ways of understanding leadership development: An exploration of increasing complexity. *Leadership*, *16*(4), 434–460.

Klein, C., DeRouin, R. E., & Salas, E. (2006). Uncovering workplace interpersonal skills: A review, framework, and research agenda. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology 2006*, *21*, 79–126.

Kline, R. B. (2016). Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling. In *The Guilford Press*.

Kluemper, D. H., & Rosen, P. A. (2009). Future employment selection methods: evaluating social networking web sites. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *24*(6), 567–580.

Knoll, C., & Sternad, D. (2021). Identifying global leadership potential. *Journal of Management Development*, *40*(4), 253–272.

Kobe, L. M., Reiter-Palmon, R., & Rickers, J. D. (2001). Self-reported leadership experiences in relation to inventoried social and emotional intelligence. *Current Psychology*, *20*, 154–163.

Kodama, M. (2020). Digitally transforming work styles in an era of infectious disease. *International Journal of Information Management*, *55*, 102172.

Konczak, L., & Foster, J. (2009). Developing next generation leaders: High priority on high potentials. *The Industrial-Organizational Psychologist*, *47*(2), 39–45.

Korkmaz, A. V., Van Engen, M. L., Knappert, L., & Schalk, R. (2022). About and beyond leading uniqueness and belongingness: A systematic review of inclusive leadership research. *Human Resource Management Review*, *32*(4), 100894.

Kotlyar, I. (2018). Identifying high potentials early: case study. *Journal of Management Development*, *37*(9–10), 684–696.

Kotter, J. P. (1990). What leaders really do. *Harvard Business Review*, *13*(1), 3–11.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2006). *The leadership challenge* (Vol. 3). John Wiley & Sons.

Kravariti, F., Jooss, S., & Scullion, H. (2023). Talent management and COVID-19: lessons and opportunities: Guest editorial. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *35*(8), 2685–2690.

Krishnamurthy, S., & Dou, W. (2008). Advertising with User-Generated Content: A Framework and Research Agenda. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, *8*(2), 1–7.

Kristensen, T. S., Hannerz, H., Høgh, A., & Borg, V. (2005). The Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire - A tool for the assessment and improvement of the psychosocial work environment. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health*, *31*(6), 438–449.

Kuhnert, K. W., & Lewis, P. (1987). Transactional and Transformational Leadership: A Constructive/Developmental Analysis. *Academy of Management Review*, *12*(4), 648–657.

Lacey, M. Y., & Groves, K. (2014). Talent management collides with corporate social responsibility: Creation of inadvertent hypocrisy. *Journal of Management Development*, *33*(4), 399–409.

Landers, R. N., & Callan, R. C. (2014). Validation of the beneficial and harmful work-related social media behavioral taxonomies: Development of the work-related social media questionnaire. *Social Science Computer Review*, *32*(5), 628–646.

Larson, L., & DeChurch, L. A. (2020). Leading teams in the digital age: Four perspectives on technology and what they mean for leading teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *31*(1), 101377.

Law, K. S., Wong, C.-S., & Song, L. J. (2004). The Construct and Criterion Validity of Emotional Intelligence and Its Potential Utility for Management Studies. In *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Vol. 89, Issue 3, pp. 483–496).

Leadership Globe Project. (2023). https://www.globeproject.com/

Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2015). *Practical Research Planning and Design*. Pearson Education.

Leeper, R. W. (1948). A motivational theory of emotion to replace "emotion as disorganized response." *Psychological Review*, *55*(1), 5–21.

Leidner, D. E., Gonzalez, E., & Koch, H. (2018). An affordance perspective of enterprise social media and organizational socialization. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, *27*(2), 117–138.

Leonardi, P. M. (2021). COVID-19 and the new technologies of organizing: digital exhaust, digital footprints, and artificial intelligence in the wake of remote work. *Journal of Management Studies*, *58*(1), 249.

Leonardi, P. M., & Vaast, E. (2017). Social media and their affordances for organizing: A review and agenda for research. *Academy of Management Annals*, *11*(1), 150–188.

Lewis, R. E., & Heckman, R. J. (2006). Talent management: A critical review. *Human Resource Management Review*, *16*(2), 139–154.

Li, D., & Patterson, M. (2023). Improving self-perceived emotional–social competencies with relational outcomes through the strength deployment inventory. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *55*(1), 77–92.

Libbrecht, N., Beuckelaer, A. De, Lievens, F., & Rockstuhl, T. (2014). Measurement Invariance of the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale Scores: Does the Measurement Structure Hold across Far Eastern and European Countries? *Applied Psychology*, *63*(2), 223–237.

Lombardo, M. M., & Eichinger, R. W. (2000). High potentials as high learners. *Human Resource Management*, *39*(4), 321–329.

Lub, X., Bijvank, M. N., Bal, P. M., Blomme, R., & Schalk, R. (2012). Different or alike?: Exploring the psychological contract and commitment of different generations of hospitality workers. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *24*(4), 553–573.

Luqman, A., Talwar, S., Masood, A., & Dhir, A. (2021). Does enterprise social media use promote employee creativity and well-being? *Journal of Business Research*, *131*, 40–54.

Luria, G., Kahana, A., Goldenberg, G., & Noam, Y. (2019). Contextual moderators for leadership potential based on trait activation theory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 1–13.

Lyons, S., & Kuron, L. (2014). Generational differences in the workplace: A review of the evidence and directions for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *35*(S1), S139–S157.

Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in Educational Research*, *16*, 1–11.

MacKenzie, W. I., & Scherer, R. F. (2019). Millennial research on fleek: Suggestions for improving generational research design. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *159*(2), 119–124.

Magno, F., & Cassia, F. (2019). Establishing thought leadership through social media in B2B settings: effects on customer relationship performance. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing*, *35*(3), 437–446.

Mahaney, R. C., & Lederer, A. L. (2006). The effect of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards for developers on information systems project success. *Project Management Journal*, *37*(4), 42–54.

Mäkelä, K., Björkman, I., & Ehrnrooth, M. (2010). How do MNCs establish their talent pools? Influences on individuals' likelihood of being labeled as talent. *Journal of World Business*, *45*(2), 134–142.

Mannheim, K. (2013). *Essays on the Sociology of Knowledge* (Vol. 5). Routledge.

Manning, T., & Robertson, B. (2011). The dynamic leader revisited: 360-degree assessments of leadership behaviours in different leadership situations. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *43*(2), 88–97.

Maqbool, R., Sudong, Y., Manzoor, N., & Rashid, Y. (2017). The impact of emotional intelligence, project managers' competencies, and transformational leadership on project success: An empirical perspective. *Project Management Journal*, *48*(3), 58–75.

Maqueira, J. M., Bruque, S., & Uhrin, Á. (2019). Talent management: two pathways to glory? Lessons from the sports arena. *Employee Relations*, *41*(1), 340–358.

Marcinkus Murphy, W. (2012). Reverse mentoring at work: Fostering cross-generational learning and developing millennial leaders. *Human Resource Management*, *51*(4), 549–574.

Marcy, R. T. (2023). Reflections on gaps in public sector leadership development theory. *International Journal of Public Leadership*, *a head of print*, a head of print.

Marino, C., Gini, G., Angelini, F., Vieno, A., & Spada, M. M. (2020). Social norms and e-motions in problematic social media use among adolescents. *Addictive Behaviors Reports*, *11*, 100250.

Marques, J. (2013). Got the MEMO? Management education is moving on. *On the Horizon*, *21*(4), 304–311.

Marques, J. F. (2010). Awakened leaders: born or made? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *31*(4), 307–323.

Marshall-Mies, J. C., Fleishman, E. A., Martin, J. A., Zaccaro, S. J., Baughman, W. A., & McGee, M. L. (2000). Development and evaluation of cognitive and metacognitive measures for predicting leadership potential. *Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(1), 135–153.

Marshall, ;Bryan, Cardon, P., Poddar;, A., & Fontenot, R. (2013). Does Sample Size Matter in Qualitative Research?: A Review of Qualitative Interviews in is Research. *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, *54*(1), 11–22.

Martin, E., & Warshawsky, N. (2017). Guiding principles for creating value and meaning for the next generation of nurse leaders. *JONA: The Journal of Nursing Administration*, *47*(9), 418–420.

Masood, A., Zhang, Q., Ali, M., Cappiello, G., & Dhir, A. (2023). Linking enterprise social media use, trust and knowledge sharing: paradoxical roles of communication transparency and personal blogging. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *27*(4), 1056–1085.

Matthews, M. J., Matthews, S. H., Wang, D. D., & Kelemen, T. K. (2022). Tweet, like, subscribe! Understanding leadership through social media use. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *33*(1), 101580.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, *27*, 267–298.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, *15*(3), 197–215.

Mayer, J., & Salovey, P. (1993). The intelligence of emotional intelligence. *Intelligence*, *17*(4), 433–442.

Mayer, J., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is Emotional Intelligence? In *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence*.

Mayr, S., Buchner, A., Erdfelder, E., & Faul, F. (2007). A short tutorial of GPower. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, *3*(2), 51–59.

McCoach, D. B., Gable, R. K., & Madura, J. P. (2013). *Instrument development in the affective domain : school and corporate applications* (3rd ed.). Springer New York LLC.

McDonnell, A. (2011). Still Fighting the "War for Talent"? Bridging the Science Versus Practice Gap. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *26*(2), 169–173.

McDonnell, A., Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K., & Schuler, R. (2017). Talent management: a systematic review and future prospects. *European J. of International Management*, *11*(1), 86–128.

McDowell, I., & MacLean, L. (1998). Blending qualitative and quantitative study methods in health services research. *Health Informatics Journal*, *4*(1), 5–22.

McGregor1, S. L. T., & Murnane, J. A. (2010). Paradigm, methodology and method: intellectual integrity in consumer scholarship. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *34*, 419–427.

McKercher, B. (2023). Age or generation? Understanding behaviour differences. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *103*, 103656.

Mehmood, M. S., Jian, Z., Akram, U., Akram, Z., & Tanveer, Y. (2022). Entrepreneurial leadership and team creativity: the roles of team psychological safety and knowledge sharing. *Personnel Review*, *51*(9), 2404–2425.

Mehraein, V., Visintin, F., & Pittino, D. (2023). The dark side of leadership: A systematic review of creativity and innovation. *International Journal of Management Reviews*.

Meisler, G. (2014). Exploring emotional intelligence, political skill, and job satisfaction. *Employee Relations*, *36*(3), 280–293.

Men, L. R. (2015). The internal communication role of the chief executive officer: Communication channels, style, and effectiveness. *Public Relations Review*, *41*(4), 461–471.

Mensah, J. K. (2015). A "coalesced framework" of talent management and employee performance: For further research and practice. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *64*(4), 544–566.

Mensah, J. K. (2018). Talent Management and Employee Outcomes: A Psychological Contract Fulfilment Perspective. *Public Organization Review*, *19*(3), 325–344.

Mergel, I., & Bretschneider, S. I. (2013). A Three-Stage Adoption Process for Social Media Use in Government. *Public Administration Review*, *73*(3), 390–400.

Mertens, D. M. (2010). Research and Evaluation in Education and Psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches. In V. Knight, S. Connelly, L. Habib, A. Virding, & T. Bigelow (Eds.), *Research and Evaluation in Education and Psychology* (third). SAGE Publication.

Meyers, M., & van Woerkom, M. (2014). The influence of underlying philosophies on talent management: Theory, implications for practice, and research agenda. *Journal of World Business*, *49*(2), 192–203.

Meyers, M., van Woerkom, M., & Dries, N. (2013). Talent - Innate or acquired? Theoretical considerations and their implications for talent management. *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 305–321.

Meyers, M., van Woerkom, M., Paauwe, J., & Dries, N. (2019). HR managers' talent philosophies: prevalence and relationships with perceived talent management practices. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1–17.

Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2018). Emotional intelligence and authentic leadership: a meta-analysis. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *39*(5), 679–690.

Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). The War for Talent. In *Harvard Business School Press Books* (pp. 1–199).

Milhem, M., Muda, H., & Ahmed, K. (2019). The Effect of Perceived Transformational Leadership Style on Employee Engagement: The Mediating Effect of Leader's Emotional Intelligence. *Foundations of Management*, *11*(1), 33–42.

Miller, D., & Desmarais, S. (2007). Developing your talent to the next level: Five best practices for leadership development. *Organization Development Journal*, *25*(3), 37–43.

Minster, P. (2020). *Decision of the Prime Minister*.

Mishra, A., & Singh, P. (2022). Effect of emotional intelligence and cognitive flexibility on entrepreneurial intention: mediating role of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, *ahead-of-p*(ahead-of-print).

Molero Jurado, M. del M., Pérez-Fuentes, M. del C., Oropesa Ruiz, N. F., Simón Márquez, M. del M., & Gázquez Linares, J. J. (2019). Self-efficacy and emotional intelligence as predictors of perceived stress in nursing professionals. *Medicina*, *55*(6), 237.

Moon, T. (2010). Emotional intelligence correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Gender in Management*, *25*(8), 876-898mor.

Moorley, C., & Chinn, T. (2016). Developing nursing leadership in social media. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *72*(3), 514–520.

Morehouse, M. M. (2007). An exploration of emotional intelligence across career arenas. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *28*(4), 296–307.

Morgado, F. F. R., Meireles, J. F. F., Neves, C. M., Amaral, A. C. S., & Ferreira, M. E. C. (2017). Scale development: ten main limitations and recommendations to improve future research practices. *Psicologia: Reflexão e Crítica 2017 30:1*, *30*(1), 1–20.

Moss, S. (2016). *Generational cohort theory. Sicotests*.

Mousa, M., Arslan, A., & Szczepańska-Woszczyna, K. (2022). Talent management practices in the extreme context of hospitality sector: an exploratory study. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *31*(7), 3502–3518.

Mubarak, N., Khan, J., Bashir, S., & Safdar, S. (2023). Dark side of leadership and information technology project success: the role of mindfulness. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*.

Mueller, J. S., & Curhan, J. R. (2006). Emotional intelligence and counterpart mood induction in a negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *17*(2), 110–128.

Mujtaba, M., Mubarik, M. S., & Soomro, K. A. (2022). Measuring talent management: a proposed

construct. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, *44*(5), 1192–1215.

Murray, A. (2011). Mind the gap: Technology, millennial leadership and the cross-generational workforce. *Australian Library Journal*, *60*(1), 54–65.

Mysirlaki, S., & Paraskeva, F. (2020). Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in virtual teams: Lessons from MMOGs. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *41*(4), 551–566.

Nabih, Y., Massoud, H. K., Ayoubi, R. M., & Crawford, M. (2023). A revisit to the role of gender in moderating the effect of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness: A study from Egypt. *Cogent Business & Management*, *10*(2), 2215078.

Naderi Anari, N. (2012). Teachers: emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *24*(4), 256–269.

Naderi, I., & Van Steenburg, E. (2018). Me first, then the environment: young Millennials as green consumers. *Young Consumers*, *19*(3), 280–295.

Naim, M. F. (2014). Leveraging social media for Generation Y retention. *European Journal of Business and Management*, *6*(23), 173–179.

Naim, M. F., & Lenka, U. (2018). Development and retention of Generation Y employees: a conceptual framework. *Employee Relations*, *40*(2), .433-455.

Namugumya, J., Munene, J. C. K., Mafabi, S. S., & Kagaari, J. (2023). Mediation role of systems adaptability between emotional intelligence and talent management. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *55*(2), 172–198.

Nembhard, I. M., & Edmondson, A. C. (2006). Making it safe: The effects of leader inclusiveness and professional status on psychological safety and improvement efforts in health care teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, *27*(7), 941–966.

Newcomer, K. E., Hatry, H. P., & Wholey, J. S. (2015). *HANDBOOK OF PRACTICAL PROGRAM EVALUATION* (fourth edi). John Wiley & Sons.

Ngai, E. W. T., Tao, S. S. C., & Moon, K. K. L. (2015). Social media research: Theories, constructs, and conceptual frameworks. *International Journal of Information Management*, *35*(1), 33–44.

Nieken, P. (2023). Charisma in the gig economy: The impact of digital leadership and communication channels on performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *34*(6), 101631.

Nisar, T. M., Prabhakar, G., & Strakova, L. (2019). Social media information benefits, knowledge management and smart organizations. *Journal of Business Research*, *94*, 264–272.

Nishii, L. H., & Mayer, D. M. (2009). Do inclusive leaders help to reduce turnover in diverse groups? The moderating role of leader–member exchange in the diversity to turnover relationship. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(6), 1412.

Noori, A. Q., Orfan, S. N., & Noori, N. (2023). Principals' transformational leadership and teachers' emotional intelligence: A cross-sectional study of Takhar high schools, Afghanistan. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 1–16.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). Psychometric theory. In *McGraw-Hill series in psychology TA - TT -* (3rd ed). McGraw-Hill New York. https://doi.org/LK - https://worldcat.org/title/28221417

Oc, B. (2018). Contextual leadership: A systematic review of how contextual factors shape leadership

and its outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 218–235.

Odoom, R., Anning-Dorson, T., & Acheampong, G. (2017). Antecedents of social media usage and performance benefits in small-and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, *30*(3), 383–399.

Ogurlu, U. (2021). A meta-analytic review of emotional intelligence in gifted individuals: A multilevel analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *171*, 110503.

Oksa, R., Kaakinen, M., Savela, N., Ellonen, N., & Oksanen, A. (2021). Professional social media usage: Work engagement perspective. *New Media & Society*, *23*(8), 2303–2326.

Oksa, R., Pirkkalainen, H., Salo, M., Savela, N., & Oksanen, A. (2022). Professional social media-enabled productivity: a five-wave longitudinal study on the role of professional social media invasion, work engagement and work exhaustion. *Information Technology & People*, *35*(8), 349–368.

Oksanen, A., Oksa, R., Savela, N., Mantere, E., Savolainen, I., & Kaakinen, M. (2021). COVID-19 crisis and digital stressors at work: A longitudinal study on the Finnish working population. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *122*, 106853.

Olanrewaju, A. S. T., Hossain, M. A., Whiteside, N., & Mercieca, P. (2020). Social media and entrepreneurship research: A literature review. In *International Journal of Information Management* (Vol. 50, pp. 90–110). Elsevier Ltd.

Othman, A. A. E., & Khalil, M. H. M. (2018). Lean talent management: a novel approach for increasing creativity in architectural design firms. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, *25*(10), 1355–1375.

Oztimurlenk, S. (2020). Demographic factors affecting emotional intelligence levels: A study on human resources managers in Turkey. *Journal of Global Business and Technology*, *16*(1), 80–90.

Palalic, R., & Ait Sidi Mhamed, E. M. (2020). Transformational leadership and MNCs: evidence from Morocco community. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, *14*(2), 201–230.

Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS survival manual* (6th ed.).

Palmer, B., Walls, M., Burgess, Z., & Stough, C. (2001). Emotional intelligence and effective leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *22*(1), 5–10.

Pantouvakis, A., & Karakasnaki, M. (2019). Exploring the links between talent philosophies and talent management in service organizations. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *51*(4), 277–286.

Parmentier, M., Pirsoul, T., & Nils, F. (2019). Examining the impact of emotional intelligence on career adaptability: A two-wave cross-lagged study. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *151*, 109446.

Parrish, D. R. (2015). The relevance of emotional intelligence for leadership in a higher education context. *Studies in Higher Education*, *40*(5), 821–837.

Parveen, F., Jaafar, N. I., & Ainin, S. (2015). Social media usage and organizational performance: Reflections of Malaysian social media managers. *Telematics and Informatics*, *32*(1), 67–78.

Pascal, C. (2004). *Foreward. In Schweyer (2004), Talent Management Systems: Best Practices in Technology Solutions for Recruitment, Retention and Workforce Planning.* Wiley.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. In *Qualitative Inquiry* (Third Edit). SAGE Publication.

Pearce, C. L., Wassenaar, C. L., Berson, Y., & Tuval-Mashiach, R. (2019). Toward a theory of meta-paradoxical leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *155*, 31–41.

Petrides, K. V. (2009). *Technical manual for the trait emotional intelligence questionnaires*. London Psychometric Laboratory.

Pirsoul, T., Parmentier, M., Sovet, L., & Nils, F. (2023). Emotional intelligence and career-related outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Human Resource Management Review*, *33*(3), 100967.

Pitelis, C. N., & Wagner, J. D. (2019). Strategic Shared Leadership and Organizational Dynamic Capabilities. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *30*(2), 233–242.

Piwowar-Sulej, K., & Iqbal, Q. (2023). Leadership styles and sustainable performance: A systematic literature review. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *382*, 134600.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. In *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Vol. 88, Issue 5, pp. 879–903). American Psychological Association.

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-Reports in Organizational Research: Problems and Prospects. *Journal of Management*, *12*(4), 531–544.

Polat, S., & Olcum, D. (2016). Characteristics of diversity leadership according to teachers. *Anthropologist*, *24*(1), 64–74.

Polychroniou, P. V. (2009). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership of supervisors: The impact on team effectiveness. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, *15*(7/8), 343–356.

Posner, B. Z. (2015). An investigation into the leadership practices of volunteer leaders. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, *36*(7), 885–898.

Posthumus, J., Bozer, G., & Santora, J. C. (2016). Implicit assumptions in high potentials recruitment. *European Journal of Training and Development*, *40*(6), 430–445.

Preece, D., Iles, P., & Chuai, X. (2011). Talent management and management fashion in Chinese enterprises: Exploring case studies in Beijing. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *22*(16), 3413–3428.

Prentice, D. C. (2019). Managing service encounters with emotional intelligence. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *51*, 344–351.

Putriastuti, B. C. K., & Stasi, A. (2019). How to lead the millennials: A review of 5 major leadership theory groups. *Journal of Leadership in Organizations*, *1*(2).

Quinton, S., & Wilson, D. (2016). Tensions and ties in social media networks: Towards a model of understanding business relationship development and business performance enhancement through the use of LinkedIn. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *54*, 15–24.

Ragas, M. W., & Culp, R. (2021). Business Acumen for Strategic Communicators: A Primer. *Business Acumen for Strategic Communicators: A Primer*, *8*(1), 180–186.

Ramaditya, M., Maarif, M. S., Affandi, J., & Sukmawati, A. (2022). Reinventing talent management: How to maximize performance in higher education. *Frontiers in Education*, *7*, 929697.

Randel, A. E., Dean, M. A., Ehrhart, K. H., Chung, B., & Shore, L. (2016). Leader inclusiveness, psychological diversity climate, and helping behaviors. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *31*(1),

216–234.

Randel, A. E., Galvin, B. M., Shore, L. M., Ehrhart, K. H., Chung, B. G., Dean, M. A., & Kedharnath, U. (2018). Inclusive leadership: Realizing positive outcomes through belongingness and being valued for uniqueness. *Human Resource Management Review*, *28*(2), 190–203.

Rank, S., & Contreras, F. (2021). Do millennials pay attention to corporate social responsibility in comparison to previous generations? Are they motivated to lead in times of transformation? A qualitative review of generations, CSR and work motivation. *International Journal of Corporate Social Responsibility*, *6*, 1–13.

Reed, L. L., Vidaver-Cohen, D., & Colwell, S. R. (2011). A new scale to measure executive servant leadership: Development, analysis, and implications for research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *101*, 415–434.

Reiche, B. S., Mendenhall, M. E., Szkudlarek, B., & Osland, J. S. (2019). Global leadership research: Where do we go from here? In *Advances in global leadership* (Vol. 12, pp. 211–234). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Reitz, A. (2012). Social Media's Function in Organizations: A Functional Analysis Approach. *Global Media Journal: Canadian Edition*, *5*(2), 41–56.

Riggio, R. E., & Reichard, R. J. (2008). The emotional and social intelligences of effective leadership: An emotional and social skill approach. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *23*(2), 169–185.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. M., & Ormston, R. (2013). *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. Sage Publications Ltd.

Robledo-Ardila, C., & Román-Calderón, J. P. (2022). Potential: in search for meaning, theory and avenues for future research a systematic review. *Management Review Quarterly*, *72*(1), 149–186.

Rodriguez, A., & Rodriguez, Y. (2015). Metaphors for today's leadership: VUCA world, millennial and "Cloud Leaders." *Journal of Management Development*, *34*(7), 854–866.

Rothwell, W. (2005). Effective succession planning: ensuring leadership continuity and building talent from within. In *Amacom*.

Rotolo, C. T., Church, A. H., Adler, S., Smither, J. W., Colquitt, A. L., Shull, A. C., Paul, K. B., & Foster, G. (2018). Putting an End to Bad Talent Management: A Call to Action for the Field of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *11*(2), 176–219.

Rubio, I. M., Ángel, N. G., Esteban, M. D. P., & Ruiz, N. F. O. (2022). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of motivation, anxiety and leadership in athletes. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*(12), 7521.

Rudolph, C. W., Rauvola, R. S., Costanza, D. P., & Zacher, H. (2021). Generations and generational differences: Debunking myths in organizational science and practice and paving new paths forward. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *36*, 945–967.

Rudolph, C. W., Rauvola, R. S., & Zacher, H. (2018). Leadership and generations at work: A critical review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 44–57.

Ruppe, L. (2006). Tools and dialogue set the stage for talent management at Johns Manville. *Journal of Organizational Excellence*, *25*(3), 37–48.

Russell, R. F. (2001). The role of values in servant leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development*

Journal, *22*(2), 76–84.

Ryder, N. B. (1985). The Cohort as a Concept in the Study of Social Change. In W. M. Mason & S. E. Fienberg (Eds.), *Cohort Analysis in Social Research: Beyond the Identification Problem* (pp. 9–44). Springer New York.

Saddozai, S. K., Hui, P., Akram, U., Khan, M. S., & Memon, S. (2017). Investigation of talent, talent management, its policies and its impact on working environment. *Chinese Management Studies*, *11*(3), 538–554.

Salahuddin, M. M. (2010). Generational differences impact on leadership style and organizational success. *Journal of Diversity Management (JDM)*, *5*(2).

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence and Its Relationship to Other Intelligences. *Cognition and Personality*, *9*(3), 185–211.

Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., Goldman, S. L., Turvey, C., & Palfai, T. P. (1995). Emotional attention, clarity, and repair: Exploring emotional intelligence using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. In *Emotion, disclosure, & health.* (pp. 125–154). American Psychological Association.

Samul, J. (2020). Emotional and spiritual intelligence of future leaders: Challenges for education. *Education Sciences*, *10*(7), 178.

Sanatigar, H., Hadi Peikani, M., & Gholamzadeh, D. (2017). Identifying organizational agility and leadership dimensions using Delphi technique and factor analysis. *International Journal of Public Leadership*, *13*(4), 276–294.

Sancino, A. (2021). Local political leadership: from managerial performances to leaders-hip hop on social media? *International Journal of Public Leadership*, *17*(3), 283–297.

Santos, A., Wang, W., & Lewis, J. (2018). Emotional intelligence and career decision-making difficulties: The mediating role of career decision self-efficacy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *107*, 295–309.

Santos, C., Coelho, A., Filipe, A., & Marques, A. M. A. (2023). The dark side of leadership: abusive supervision and its effects on Employee's behavior and well-being. *Journal of Strategy and Management*, *ahead-of-p*(ahead-of-print).

Sarstedt, M., Hair, J. F., Cheah, J. H., Becker, J. M., & Ringle, C. M. (2019). How to specify, estimate, and validate higher-order constructs in PLS-SEM. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, *27*(3), 197–211.

Sarstedt, M., & Mooi, E. (2014). A Concise Guide to Market Research: The Process, Data, and Methods Using IBM SPSS Statistic. In *the process, data, and methods using IBM SPSS statistics*.

Saunders, M. N. K., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2016). *Research Methods for Business Students*. Pearson Education Limited.

Schafer, J. A. (2010). Effective leaders and leadership in policing: Traits, assessment, development, and expansion. *Policing:An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, *33*(4), 644–663.

Schiemann, W. A. (2014). From talent management to talent optimization. *Journal of World Business*, *49*(2), 281–288.

Schinka, J. A., Velicer, W. F., & Weiner, I. B. (2012). Handbook of psychology: Research methods in psychology, Vol. 2, 2nd ed. In J. A. Schinka, W. F. Velicer, & I. B. Weiner (Eds.), *Handbook of*

psychology: Research methods in psychology, Vol. 2, 2nd ed. John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Schleu, J. E., & Hüffmeier, J. (2021). Simply the best? A systematic literature review on the predictive validity of employee performance for leader performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, *31*(2), 1–27.

Schroth, H. A. (2019). Are You Ready for Gen Z in the Workplace? *California Management Review*, *61*, 18–5.

Schuberth, F., Rademaker, M. E., & Henseler, J. (2023). Assessing the overall fit of composite models estimated by partial least squares path modeling. *European Journal of Marketing*, *57*(6), 1678–1702.

Schumacher, L., Wheeler, J. V., & Carr, A. S. (2009). The relationship between emotional intelligence and buyer's performance. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing*, *24*(3–4), 269–277.

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *25*(2), 167–177.

Seibel, M., Kaufman, E. K., Cletzer, D. A., & Elliott-Engel, J. (2023). ADVANCING ADAPTIVE LEADERSHIP THROUGH ADAPTION-INNOVATION THEORY: ENHANCEMENTS TO THE HOLDING ENVIRONMENT. *Journal of Leadership Studies*.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business* (7th ed.). Wiley.

Serban, A., Yammarino, F. J., Dionne, S. D., Kahai, S. S., Hao, C., McHugh, K. A., Sotak, K. L., Mushore, A. B. R., Friedrich, T. L., & Peterson, D. R. (2015). Leadership emergence in face-to-face and virtual teams: A multi-level model with agent-based simulations, quasi-experimental and experimental tests. *Leadership Quarterly*, *26*(3), 402–418.

Shafique, I., & Kalyar, M. N. (2018). Linking transformational leadership, absorptive capacity, and corporate entrepreneurship. *Administrative Sciences*, *8*(2), 9.

Shatali, D. A. (2011). *Islamic University – Gaza Dean of Postgraduate Studies Faculty of Commerce Business Administration* [The Islamic University- Gaza].

Shehata, G. M., Montash, M. A.-H., & Areda, M. R. (2021). Examining the interrelatedness among human resources management practices, entrepreneurial traits and corporate entrepreneurship in emerging markets: an evidence from Egypt. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, *13*(3), 353–379.

Shi, J., & Wang, L. (2007). Validation of emotional intelligence scale in Chinese university students. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *43*(2), 377–387.

Shrestha, Y., Ben-Menahem, S., & Krogh, G. (2019). Organizational Decision-Making Structures in the Age of Artificial Intelligence. *California Management Review*, *61*(4), 66–83.

Siangchokyoo, N., Klinger, R. L., & Campion, E. D. (2020). Follower transformation as the linchpin of transformational leadership theory: A systematic review and future research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *31*(1), 101341.

Sievert, H., & Scholz, C. (2017). Engaging employees in (at least partly) disengaged companies. Results of an interview survey within about 500 German corporations on the growing importance of digital engagement via internal social media. *Public Relations Review*, *43*(5), 894–903.

Silzer, R. F., & Dowell, B. (2010). Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative. In *john*

wiley and sons.

Silzer, R, & Borman, W. C. (2017). The potential for leadership. In *The Oxford handbook of talent management*. Oxford University Press Oxford, UK.

Silzer, Rob, & Church, A. H. (2009). The Pearls and Perils of Identifying Potential. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *2*(4), 377–412.

Silzer, Rob, Church, A. H., Rotolo, C. T., & Scott, J. C. (2016). I-O practice in action: Solving the leadership potential identification challenge in organizations. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *9*(04), 814–830.

Singhal, N. (2021). Leading in a VUCA World: Lessons from Covid-19. *IUP Journal of Business Strategy*, *18*(2), 49–54.

Sivanathan, N., & Cynthia Fekken, G. (2002). Emotional intelligence, moral reasoning and transformational leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *23*(4), 198–204.

Siyal, S. (2023). Leadership and management in organizations: Perspectives from SMEs and MNCs. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *14*, 1156727.

Smith, B. G., & Gallicano, T. D. (2015). Terms of engagement: Analyzing public engagement with organizations through social media. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *53*, 82–90.

Smith, C., Smith, J. B., & Shaw, E. (2017). Embracing digital networks: Entrepreneurs' social capital online. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *32*(1), 18–34.

Song, Q., Wang, Y., Chen, Y., Benitez, J., & Hu, J. (2019). Impact of the usage of social media in the workplace on team and employee performance. *Information & Management*, *56*(8), 103160.

Sorcher, M., & Brant, J. (2002). Are you picking the right leaders? *Harvard Business Review*, *80*(2), 78–87.

Spreitzer, G. M., McCall Jr., M. W., & Mahoney, J. D. (1997). Early identification of international executive potential. In *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Vol. 82, Issue 1, pp. 6–29). American Psychological Association.

Stange, K. C., Miller, W. L., Crabtree, B. F., O'Connor, P. J., & Zyzanski, S. J. (1994). Multimethod research: Approaches for integrating qualitative and quantitative methods. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, *9*, 278–282.

Statista. (2022). *Statista*. Egypt -Statistics and Facts.

Stead, G. B. (2004). Culture and career psychology: A social constructionist perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *64*(3), 389–406.

Steffens, N. K., Fonseca, M. A., Ryan, M. K., Rink, F. A., Stoker, J. I., & Nederveen Pieterse, A. (2018). How feedback about leadership potential impacts ambition, organizational commitment, and performance. *Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(6), 637–647.

Stein, S. J., Papadogiannis, P., Yip, J. A., & Sitarenios, G. (2009). Emotional intelligence of leaders: A profile of top executives. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, *30*(1), 87–101.

Stevens, J. (1996). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences*.

Stoller, E. (2013). Our shared future: Social media, leadership, vulnerability, and digital identity. *Journal of College and Character*, *14*(1), 5–10.

Su, T. S., Chen, C., Cui, X., Yang, C., & Ma, W. (2020). Consistency at different levels: A meta-analytic

examination of organizational trust and performance. *Nankai Business Review International*, *11*(4), 537–567.

Süral, I., Griffiths, M. D., Kircaburun, K., & Emirtekin, E. (2019). Trait Emotional Intelligence and Problematic Social Media Use Among Adults: The Mediating Role of Social Media Use Motives. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*, *17*(2), 336–345.

Swanson, E., Kim, S., Lee, S.-M., Yang, J.-J., & Lee, Y.-K. (2020). The effect of leader competencies on knowledge sharing and job performance: Social capital theory. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *42*, 88–96.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2019). Using Multivariate Statistics. In *pearson*. Pearson Education.

Tajudeen, F. P., Jaafar, N. I., & Ainin, S. (2018). Understanding the impact of social media usage among organizations. *Information & Management*, *55*(3), 308–321.

Tams, S., Ahuja, M., Thatcher, J., & Grover, V. (2020). Worker stress in the age of mobile technology: The combined effects of perceived interruption overload and worker control. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, *29*(1), 101595.

Tang, N., Wang, Y., & Zhang, K. (2017). Values of Chinese generation cohorts: Do they matter in the workplace? *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *143*, 8–22.

Tansley, C. (2011). What do we mean by the term "talent" in talent management? *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *43*(5), 266–274.

Tarique, I., & Schuler, R. S. (2010). Global talent management: Literature review, integrative framework, and suggestions for further research. *Journal of World Business*, *45*(2), 122–133.

Taylor, C. M., & Stein, L. (2014). Stories of generational leadership: Women higher education administrators voices. *Advancing Women in Leadership Journal*, *34*, 1–10.

Thorndike, E. L. (1920). A constant error in psychological ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *4*(1), 25–29.

Thunnissen, M., Boselie, P., & Fruytier, B. (2013). Talent management and the relevance of context: Towards a pluralistic approach. *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 326–336.

Tian, H., Dogbe, C. S. K., Pomegbe, W. W. K., Sarsah, S. A., & Otoo, C. O. A. (2021). Organizational learning ambidexterity and openness, as determinants of SMEs' innovation performance. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, *24*(2), 414–438.

Tlaiss, H. (2021). Exploring talent management in practice: an Arab country-specific empirical investigation. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, *43*(1), 63–81.

Trainor, K. J., Andzulis, J. M., Rapp, A., & Agnihotri, R. (2014). Social media technology usage and customer relationship performance: A capabilities-based examination of social CRM. *Journal of Business Research*, *67*(6), 1201–1208.

Treem, J. W., & Leonardi, P. M. (2013). Social media use in organizations: Exploring the affordances of visibility, editability, persistence, and association. *Annals of the International Communication Association*, *36*(1), 143–189.

Troth, A. C., & Gyetvey, C. (2014). Identifying leadership potential in an Australian context. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, *52*(3), 333–350.

Twenge, J. M. (2010). A review of the empirical evidence on generational differences in work attitudes.

Journal of Business and Psychology, *25*(2), 201–210.

Twenge, J. M., Campbell, S. M., Hoffman, B. J., & Lance, C. E. (2010). Generational differences in work values: Leisure and extrinsic values increasing, social and intrinsic values decreasing. *Journal of Management*, *36*(5), 1117–1142.

Tziner, A., Shkoler, O., & Fein, E. C. (2020). Examining the effects of cultural value orientations, emotional intelligence, and motivational orientations: how do LMX mediation and gender-based moderation make a difference? *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*, 502903.

Uhl-Bien, M., Marion, R., & McKelvey, B. (2007). Complexity Leadership Theory: Shifting leadership from the industrial age to the knowledge era. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*(4), 298–318.

Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2012). What is talent? *Leader to Leader*, *63*(1), 55–61.

UNCTAD. (2022). *United Nations Trade and Development Report*.

Uysal, M. S., Akfırat, S. A., & Cakal, H. (2022). The social identity perspective of social media leadership in collective action participation. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *32*(6), 1001–1015.

Vagias, W. M. (2006). Likert-type scale response anchors. In *Clemson International Institute for Tourism & Research Development, Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management. Clemson University*.

Vaiman, V., Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2012). Talent management decision making. *Management Decision*, *50*(5), 925–941.

Valenti, A. (2019). Leadership preferences of the millennial generation. *Journal of Business Diversity*, *19*(1), 75–84.

Valk, L. J. Van De. (2008). Leadership Development and Social Capital: Is There a Relationship? *Journal of Leadership Education*, *7*(1).

van Breda, L., Terblanche-Smit, M., & Pelser, T. (2023). The effectiveness of sustainability social marketing use of fear and guilt appeals to influence the behavioural intention of millennials. *European Business Review*, *35*(2), 202–222.

Vardi, S., & Collings, D. G. (2023). What's in a name? talent: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *33*(3), 660–682.

Verma, P., Sharma, R. R. K., Kumar, V., Hsu, S. C., & Lai, K.-K. (2022). Identifying organizational variables to the implementation of horizontal strategy in conglomerates. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, *29*(5), 1703–1733.

Verma, S., & Mehta, M. (2022). Corporate entrepreneurship and leadership theories: conceptual review. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, *14*(5), 902–925.

Vernon, P. E. (1933). Some Characteristics of the Good Judge of Personality. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *4*(1), 42–57.

Vloeberghs, D., Pepermans, R., & Thielemans, K. (2005). High-potential development policies: An empirical study among Belgian companies. *Journal of Management Development*, *24*(6), 546–558.

Vroom, V. (1974). Leadership and decision making. *Decision Sciences Institute, George State University, Atlanta*, *5*, 321–335.

Walter, F., Humphrey, R. H., & Cole, M. S. (2012). Unleashing leadership potential: Toward an

evidence-based management of emotional intelligence. *Organizational Dynamics*, *41*(3), 212–219.

Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic Leadership: Development and Validation of a Theory-Based Measure†. *Journal of Management*, *34*(1), 89–126.

Wang, C., Kim, D.-H., & Ng, K.-M. (2011). Factorial and Item-Level Invariance of an Emotional Intelligence Scale Across Groups of International Students. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, *30*(2), 160–170.

Wang, F., Mack, E. A., & Maciewjewski, R. (2017). Analyzing entrepreneurial social networks with big data. *Annals of the American Association of Geographers*, *107*(1), 130–150.

Wang, Z., Xu, H., & Liu, Y. (2018). Servant leadership as a driver of employee service performance: Test of a trickle-down model and its boundary conditions. *Human Relations*, *71*(9), 1179–1203.

Warrier, U., Foropon, C., & Chehimi, M. (2022). Examining the influence of mindfulness on organizational role stress (ORS): a monitor acceptance theory perspective. *International Journal of Manpower*, *43*(2), 448–462.

Wetzels, M., & Odekerken, G. (2009). Using PLS Path Modeling for Assessing Hierarchical Construct Models: Guidelines and Empirical Illustration. *Management Information Systems Quarterly - MISQ*, *33*.

Wezowski, K., & Penton-Voak, I. (2023). Associations between workplace emotional intelligence and micro expression recognition. *Acta Psychologica*, *240*, 104046.

White, D. R., & Schafer, J. (2023). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of workgroup fit among police leaders. *Policing: An International Journal*, *46*(5/6), 780–794.

Whitman, D. S., van Rooy, D. L., Viswesvaran, C., & Kraus, E. (2009). Testing the second-order factor structure and measurement equivalence of the Wong and Law emotional intelligence scale across gender and ethnicity. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *69*(6), 1059-1074.

Wolor, C. W., Nurkhin, A., & Citriadin, Y. (2021). Leadership style for millennial generation, five leadership theories, systematic literature review. *Calitatea*, *22*(184), 105–110.

Wong, C.-S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*(3), 243–274.

Worthington, R. L., & Whittaker, T. A. (2006). Scale Development Research: A Content Analysis and Recommendations for Best Practices. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *34*(6), 806–838.

Wu, C., Zhang, Y., Huang, S., & Yuan, Q. (2021). Does enterprise social media usage make the employee more productive? A meta-analysis. *Telematics and Informatics*, *60*, 101578.

Yang, X., Ye, H. (Jonathan), & Wang, X. (2021). Social media use and work efficiency: Insights from the theory of communication visibility. *Information & Management*, *58*(4), 103462.

Yang, Y., Thu Hue, H. M., & Takeda, S. (2023). Turnover intention among Vietnamese millennials in the workplace. *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, *ahead-of-print*(ahead- of-print).

Yeung, A. (2006). Setting people up for success: *Human Resource Management*, *45*(2), 267–7.

Yigiter, M. S., Demir, S., & Dogan, N. (2023). The relationship between problematic social media use

and depression: A meta-analysis study. *Current Psychology*, 1–16.

Yingjie, L., Deng, S., & Pan, T. (2019). Does usage of enterprise social media affect employee turnover? Empirical evidence from Chinese companies. *Internet Research*, *29*(4), 970–992.

Young, A. P., Hernon, P., & Powell, R. R. (2006). Attributes of Academic Library Leadership: An Exploratory Study of Some Gen-Xers. *Journal of Academic Librarianship*, *32*(5), 489–502.

Yuki, G. (1989). Managerial Leadership: A Review of Theory and Research. *Journal of Management*, *15*(2), 251–289.

Yukl, G., & Mahsud, R. (2010). Why flexible and adaptive leadership is essential. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *62*, 81–93.

Zaccaro, S. J. (2007). Trait-based perspectives of leadership. *American Psychologist*, *62*(1), 6–16.

Zaccaro, S. J., Green, J. P., Dubrow, S., & Kolze, M. J. (2018). Leader individual differences, situational parameters, and leadership outcomes: A comprehensive review and integration. *Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 2–43.

Zacharakis, J., & Flora, J. (2005). Riverside: A Case Study of Social Capital and Cultural Reproduction and their Relationship to Leadership Development. *Adult Education Quarterly*, *55*(4), 288–307.

Zacharatos, A., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Development and effects of transformational leadership in adolescents. *Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(2), 211–226.

Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2004). Emotional intelligence in the workplace: A critical review. *Applied Psychology*, *53*(3), 371– 399.

Zhang, L., Cao, T., & Wang, Y. (2018). The mediation role of leadership styles in integrated project collaboration: An emotional intelligence perspective. *International Journal of Project Management*, *36*(2), 317–330.

Zhang, X., Ma, L., Xu, B., & Xu, F. (2019). How social media usage affects employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention: An empirical study in China. *Information & Management*, *56*(6), 103136.

Zhou, Y. (2019). A Mixed Methods Model of Scale Development and Validation Analysis. *Measurement*, *17*(1), 38–47.

Zych, I., Ortega-Ruiz, R., & Marín-López, I. (2017). Emotional content in cyberspace: Development and validation of E-motions Questionnaire in adolescents and young people. *Psicothema*, *29*(4), 563–569.

Zyed, Z. A. S., Low, C. S., & Tedong, P. A. (2021). Delivery mechanism on homeownership education among millennials in Kuala Lumpur. *International Journal of Housing Markets and Analysis*, *14*(2), 410–423.

Appendix A

Interview Guide Draft/ Semi-Structured Interview

Key Area	Questions	Purpose of Question
Introductory Questions	1. What does the term leadership bring to mind? 2. Do you believe in generational differences? And Why? 3. Do you think emotional intelligence is an ability or a skill? And why? 4. Do you use social media? What platforms? And for what purposes?	**Introducing the Variables**
Independent Variable	1. In your opinion tell me how do you define the word "talent"? 2. What do you think of the role of talent Management Practices in organizations? 3. What are the talent management practise in your organizations employs? And what do you think about them? Do you consider that they should have? And why? 4. In the literature we have two kind of TM approaches in your opinion tell me would you rather adopt an inclusive *(considering all employees as talented)*or exclusive *(focusing only on talented/special employees)* talent management approach ? And why? (depends on the interviewee level and knowledge) 5. Do you think organization applying TM practices affects leaders' identification? And why so? Do you think TM practices would help to identify leadership? Why so?	**Talent Management**
Independent Variable	1. Do you believe that emotional intelligence could be learned or developed? And why? 2. In your opinion you think emotional intelligence can affect/ impact leadership, if yes how and if not why?	**Emotional Intelligence**
Independent Variable	1. What do you think about social media? 2. In your opinion, do you believe social media sites/platforms can be integrated/ used in organization practices or not? And how so? 3. Do you think the use of social media impacts the success of the leader? How so?	**Social media**
Dependent Variable	1. In your opinion, what constitutes/ makes a leader? 2. Do you think it's possible to predict leadership potential ? if yes what are the early signs of potential leader? If not , why? 3. In today's workforce, can you see trait differences among leaders from different generations? And why? 4. Do you believe leadership has changed through time?(depends on the level of the interviewee) 5. If you step out to create a profile for millennials leadership potential *(born between 1981 and 2000)* what will it look like? Please describe.	**Millennial Leadership potential**
Conclusion Section	1. Do you think that future research should focus on contextual variables or universal traits? 2. If you would focus all efforts on one major area that contributes to a leader development would it be to focus on rank according to importance (EI, TM,SMU)? 3. Would you like to add something else or ask a specific questions? 4. Is there any questions you felt that should be added to this interview that wasn't included?	**Future preference**

Appendix B

Ethical Consent Form

Dear Mr. / Ms. (name).....,

Over the last few years, there is a paradigm shift in the workforce demographics with continued influx of Millennial employees. On that sense a holistic model have been set to test the importance of understanding the potential of millennial leaders; to help organizations in focusing their spending on which factor/predictor. Thus, the aim of this interview to help in conceptualizing a solid understanding of "Millennials Leadership Potential" as well help in the development of Leadership Potential questionnaire that will be used in the second study of this doctoral thesis. Accordingly, you have been selected to be part of a representative sample based on purposeful sampling technique, thus you are invited to participate in this interview which covers Human Resource (HR) academics and practitioners viewpoint on leadership predictors. If you kindly agree to participate, you will be interviewed by a PhD student about your understanding of leadership in particular and your view point on leadership indicators this study is considering to be predicting leadership potential. The approximate duration of the whole interview is 60 minutes and will be conducted in English. You will be requested to reply to questions related to the area of Talent Management, Emotional Intelligence , Social Media and Leadership Potential. Your personal data will be handled with strict confidentiality. The interview will be web-based interview via ZOOM with agreed on date and time.

If you have any questions concerning the procedure or need some clarification regarding the consent form, please feel free to contact Yasmine Nabih , Mobile number (002)(01207033329),email address yasmine.ynabih@gmail.com.

Therefore your participation and your feedback is very important to us and it would be greatly appreciated. We hope that you are willing to contribute to this important study. Please confirm your intention by filling in, signing and returning one copy of the enclosed consent form via email address to yasmine.ynabih@gmail.com

Upon receiving your agreement we will confirm the date and time of the interview.

Your contribution is very much appreciated, thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Yasmine Nabih

Appendix C

Operationalisation of Existing Scales

Variable	Dimension	Items	Source
Emotional Intelligence (14 items)	Self-emotion appraisal (SEA) α: **0.81**	I have a good sense of why I often have certain feelings.	(Wong & Law, 2002)
		I have a good understanding of my own emotions.	
		I understand what I feel.	
		I always know whether or not I am happy.	
	Other emotion Appraisal (OEA)α : **0. 88**	I always know my friends' emotions from their behaviour.	
		I am a reasonable observer of others' emotions.	
		I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others. ***	
		I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	
	Use of emotion (UOE)α: **0.82**	I always set goals and try my best to achieve them.	
		I always tell myself I am a competent person.	
		I am a self-motivated person.	
		I would always encourage myself to try my best.	
	Regulation of emotion (ROE)α: **0.87**	I can control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	
		I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	
		I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	
		I have good control of my own emotions.	
Talent Management (26 Items)	Identifying criticalPositions (ICP) α: **0.809**	My company identifies the critical positions aligned with business strategies.	(Chen, 2012) (Jayaraman et al., 2018)
		My company builds up a talent pool in the organisation.	
		My company differentiates the identified talent based on their contribution levels.	
		My company identifies the talent that makes the maximum impact on an organisation's success.	
	Competence training (CT)α: **0.875**	The training activities for the identified talent are focused on required competencies.	
		The training activities for identified talent are implemented continuously.	
		The content of the training activities for the identified talent is based on job performance.	
		The training activities for the identified talent require time and extensive financial resources.	
		Training activities for the identified talent are in line with assigned critical tasks.	
		The training activities for the identified talent are designed to develop firm-specific skills/knowledge.	
	Development (DEV)α: **0.862**	My company identifies development training needs for talent.	
		Identified talent has many opportunities for upward mobility (promotion).	
		Talents have clear career paths in this organisation.	
		Talents have more than one avenue (opportunity) for promotion.	
		Developmental activities include feedback on the developmental growth agenda for the identified talents.	
	Reward Management (RM) α: **0.885**	My company provides recognition, e.g., financial recognition such as cash, paid travel, incentive bonus/ variable pay, etc.	
		My supervisor discusses and provides meaningful and helpful feedback on job performance.	
		My company values my work and contribution.	
		My company has a fair and just system of rewarding employees.	

Variable	Dimension	Items	Source
		My company sets challenging targets in my job.	(Hung, 2013) (Jayaraman et al., 2018)
		I have supportive and like-minded colleagues.**	
		My company supports a balanced lifestyle (between my work and personal life).	
		My company encourages and organises employee team building or other social networking activities.	
		My company provides a competitive pay package (i.e., basic salary plus benefits, allowances or variable pay).	
		My company provides medical aid, retirement, and pension benefits.	
		My company provides recognition via nonfinancial means, e.g., certificates of recognition.	
Social Media Use (10 items)	Social Media for Social Use (SMS) **α: 0.900**	In my organisation, I use social media to create new relationships at work.	(Ali-Hassan et al., 2015)
		In my organisation, I use social media to get to know people I would otherwise not meet at work	
		In my organisation, I use social media to maintain close social relationships with people at work.	
		I use social media in my organisation to get acquainted with colleagues who share my interests. *(modified to get to know)*	
		In my organisation, I use social media to discover colleagues with interests similar to mine.**	
	Social Media for Cognitive Use (SMC) **α: 0.902**	In my organisation, I use social media to share content with colleagues.	
		In my organisation, I use social media to create content in collaboration with colleagues.	
		In my organisation, I use social media to create content for work.	
		In my organisation, I use social media to disseminate content at work.	
		In my organisation, I use social media to access content created by my colleagues.	

****Removed when pretesting**
***** Removed after pilot testing**
α Original source Cronbach Alpha value

Appendix D

Universidade do Minho
Escola de Economia e Gestão

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is part of a study in the Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management field. The study aims to *investigate the impact of individual and organizational factors on Leadership Potential*. The information you provide will help the researcher better identify, explore and measure various variables associated with the study. There is no right or wrong answer. So kindly read the following statements and express your honest opinion on the statements provided The questionnaire is anonymous and any information provided by you will be treated with confidentiality and for research purposes only.

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

The researcher greatly appreciates your help.

***The questionnaire will not take more than 7-10 minutes

Doctoral Student

1- Do you work in a Multinational Company operating in Egypt?

◯ Yes *(Continue the survey)* ◯ No *(End the survey)*

2- Year of Birth

- ◯ 1961-1970 *(End the survey)*
- ◯ 1971-1980 *(End the survey)*
- ◯ 1981-1990 *(Continue the survey)*
- ◯ 1991-2000 *(Continue the survey)*
- ◯ 2001-2009 *(End the survey)*

Section One:

The following statements are related to how you perceive yourself emotionally. Using the following 5-point scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

Dimensions	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Self-emotion appraisal	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	1	2	3	4	5
	I have good understanding of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
	I really understand what I feel.	1	2	3	4	5
	I always know whether or not I am happy.	1	2	3	4	5
Others emotion Appraisal	I always know my friends' emotions from I behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5
	I am a good observer of others' emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	1	2	3	4	5
	I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	1	2	3	4	5
Use of emotion	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5
	I always tell myself I am a competent person.	1	2	3	4	5
	I am a self-motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5
	I would always encourage myself to try my best.	1	2	3	4	5
Regulation of emotion	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	1	2	3	4	5
	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5
	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	1	2	3	4	5
	I have good control of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5

Section Two:

The following statements measure your outlook concerning your Company's Talent Management Practices. Using the following 5-point scale, ranged from (1) never to (5) always.

Dimensions	Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Identifying critical positions	My company identifies the critical positions aligned with business strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company builds up talent pool in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company differentiates the identified talent on the basis of their contribution levels.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company identifies the talent that makes maximum impact on organization success.	1	2	3	4	5
Competence training	The training activities for the identified talent are focused on required competencies.	1	2	3	4	5
	The training activities for identified talent are implemented continuously.	1	2	3	4	5
	The content of the training activities for the identified talent are based on job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
	The training activities for the identified talent require time and extensive financial resources.	1	2	3	4	5
	The training activities for the identified talent are designed to develop firm-specific skills/knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
Development	Development needs are identified for talent.	1	2	3	4	5
	Identified talent have many opportunities for upward mobility.	1	2	3	4	5
	Talents have clear career paths in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
	Talents have more than one avenue for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
	Developmental activities include feedback on developmental growth agenda for the identified talents.	1	2	3	4	5
Reward Management	My company provides recognition, e.g., financial recognition such as cash, paid travel, incentive bonus/ variable pay, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
	My supervisor discusses and provides meaningful and helpful feedback on job performance.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company values my work and contribution.	1	2	3	4	5
	I believe that my company has a fair and just system of rewarding employees.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company sets challenging targets in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
	I have supportive and likeminded colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company supports a balanced lifestyle (between my work and personal life).	1	2	3	4	5
	My company encourages and organizes team building or other social networking activities among employees.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company provides a competitive pay package (i.e., basic salary plus benefits, allowances or variable pay).	1	2	3	4	5
	My company provides medical aid, retirement, and pension benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
	My company provides recognition via nonfinancial means, e.g., certificates of recognition.	1	2	3	4	5

Section Three:

The following statements explore reasons behind your Social Media Use . Social Media Platforms includes (LinkedIn, Whats app, Facebook, Instagram, Youtube, Tiktok, Slack and Twitter). Using the following 5-point scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

Dimensions	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Social media for Social Use	In my organization, I use social media to. . . create new relationships at work	1	2	3	4	5
	get to know people I would otherwise not meet at work	1	2	3	4	5
	maintain close social relationships with people at work	1	2	3	4	5
	get acquainted with colleagues who share my interests	1	2	3	4	5
	discover colleagues with interests similar to mine	1	2	3	4	5
Social media for Cognitive Use	In my organization, I use social media to. share content with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
	create content in collaboration with colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
	create content for work	1	2	3	4	5
	disseminate content at work	1	2	3	4	5
	access content created by my colleagues					

Section Four:

The following statements measures your leadership potentiality. Using the following 5-point scale, ranged from (1) never to (5) always.

Dimensions	Statement	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Agility	I am committed to attracting and developing diverse talent.	1	2	3	4	5
	I actively seek opportunities to improve my digital skills.	1	2	3	4	5
	I encourage the use digital tools to improve performance.	1	2	3	4	5
Talent catalyst	I motivate others to exceed their expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
	I allow others to build on joint expertise and experience.	1	2	3	4	5
	I am open to learn from other perspectives.	1	2	3	4	5
	I leverage expertise by empowering others.	1	2	3	4	5
	I offer support and guidance when needed.	1	2	3	4	5
Interpersonal	I am empathetic with others at work.	1	2	3	4	5
	I actively foster collaboration among other team members.	1	2	3	4	5
	I adapt to others emotions to create better understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
Intrapersonal	I seek to provide out-of-the-box ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
	I constructively confront difficult situations without avoidance.	1	2	3	4	5
	I insist that my actions reflect what I say.	1	2	3	4	5
	I seek innovative solutions before concluding.	1	2	3	4	5
Entrepreneurial	I seek to inspire others.	1	2	3	4	5
	I seek future opportunities that benefit the organisation as a whole.	1	2	3	4	5
	I take the initiative to achieve goals even under tough conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
	I consider myself proactive when making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5

Section Five:

Demographic Questions

Age:

- 23-29
- 30-36
- 37-43

Highest Completed Level of Education:

- Bachelor Degree (BSc)
- Masters Degree (MBA, MSc)
- Doctorate Degree (DBA, PhD)

Gender:

- Male
- Female

Marital Status:

- Single
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed

Years of Experience:

- less than 1 year
- 1 to 5 years
- 6 to 10 years
- 11 to 15 years
- more than 15 years

Number of Children:

- None
- One
- Two
- More than two

City of residence:

- Cairo
- Giza
- Alexandria
- Other:

Current Job Level:

- Entry- level
- Junior or associate level
- First-line manager
- Senior manager
- Director
- Other_____

Department:

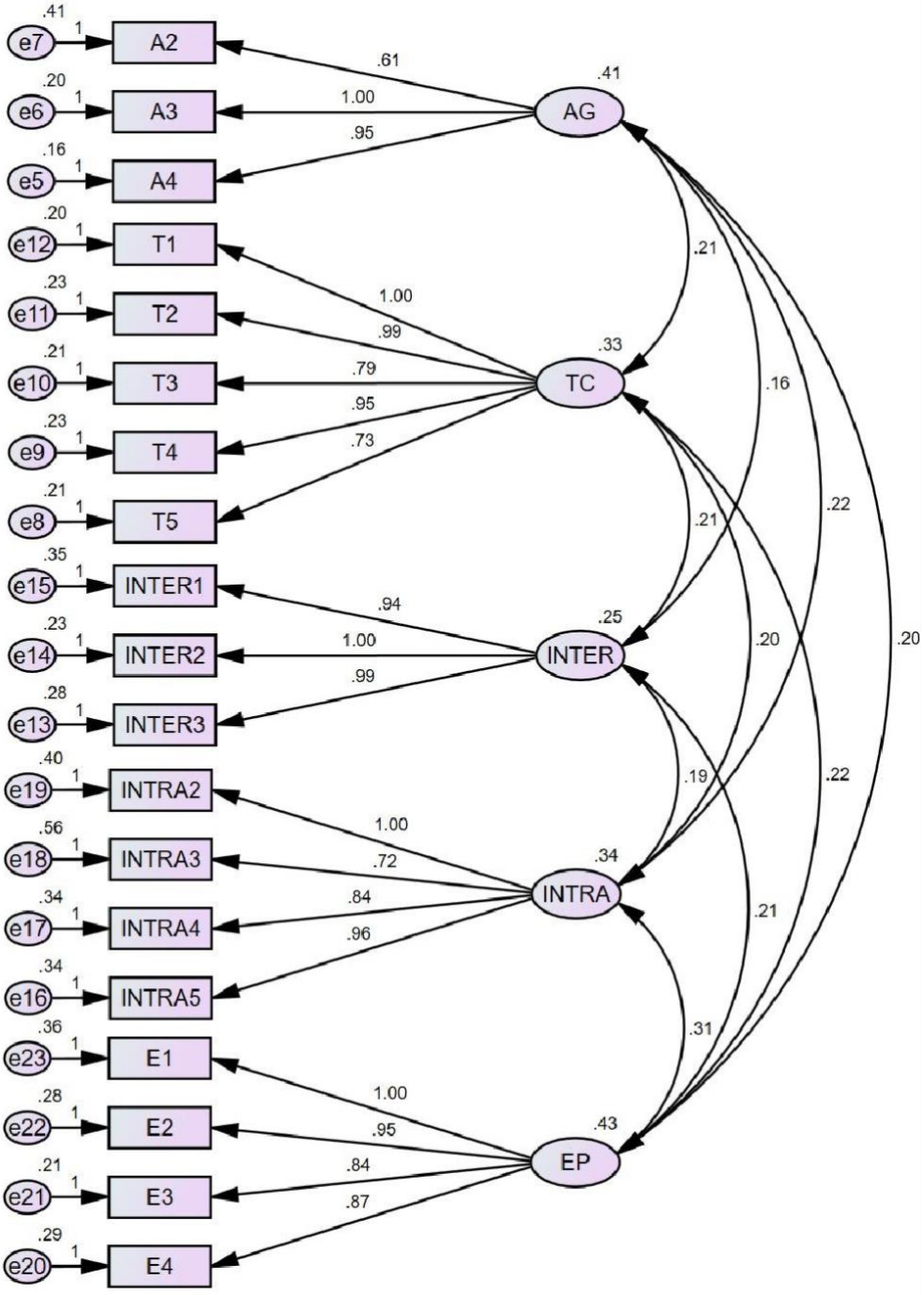
- Marketing
- Finance
- Production/Operation
- Sales
- IT
- Risk
- Logistics/Supply chain
- Warehousing
- Research & Development
- Legal
- Business Analytics
- Human Resources
- Other_____

Origin of the Company:

- British
- American
- Chinese
- Indian
- Japanese
- European
- Middle Eastern
- Other_____

Appendix E

NVIVO Word Frequency

Appendix F

AMOS Measurement Model-CFA