TAKING THE REINS:
THE EFFECTS OF INCOMING LEADER STATUS AND BEHAVIOR ON
INFLUENCE PATTERNS IN TEAMS

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TAKING THE REINS: THE EFFECTS OF INCOMING LEADER STATUS AND
BEHAVIOR ON INFLUENCE PATTERNS IN TEAMS

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This dissertation examines how a newly assigned team leader’s status and leadership behaviors interact to affect the likelihood of influence rivalries with subordinate group members, and how these rivalries impact other group members and the group as a whole. In this research, I make distinctions between a leader-directed team interaction process and an emergent team process, and between leader-directed goalsetting and participative goalsetting. I hypothesize that leaders who use directive behaviors can be viewed as unfair, while leaders who allow a team process to emerge might be viewed as unassertive, and that leader status will moderate these relationships to affect subordinates’ assessments of the leader’s effectiveness and influence ability. This sets the stage for a potential influence rivalry between the new leader and a subordinate team member, which in turn impacts team performance.

I test my theory with a series of three studies using a number of different methodologies. I find that low status leaders are viewed more favorably when they use a directive style while high status leaders are viewed more favorably when they use an emergent style. In addition, I find that teams whose leaders are viewed more favorably perform better on a complex interdependent task. I discuss the implications for both theory and practice.
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Stephen Sauer obtained a B.S. in Aeronautical Engineering from Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute in Troy, New York in 1991. He was commissioned as an officer in the US Army and served for seven years before returning to school to obtain an MBA with a concentration in Organizational Behavior from the Johnson Graduate School of Management at Cornell University. Upon completion of his MBA, Stephen worked as a management consultant for two years before retuning to Cornell to enroll in the Ph.D. program in Management and Organizations. He earned his doctorate in May of 2008.
This work is dedicated to my son Thomas and my wife Melanie; their forbearance, support, and unconditional love have made this and all things possible.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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I would not be here without the guidance of my committee members, each of whom taught me valuable lessons in their own way. My chair, Beta Mannix, brought me to this program and then helped me find my own legs on the path to becoming an independent scholar. Kathleen O’Connor’s timely critiques and candid advice were invaluable, and her energy, enthusiasm, and empathy are something for all professionals to emulate. Melissa Thomas-Hunt’s unselfishness knows no bounds; I hope to one day be worthy of the time, resources, ideas, and emotional support that she gave so willingly. And finally, Tim Carroll’s sage counsel and steadfast presence have offered a solid mooring in the roughest of seas. My thanks to each of you.
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Imagine this scenario: the members of a Research and Development team working inside a large organization complete their most recent project successfully, and the team’s leader is transferred to a new location. A new leader is assigned to the team and they start working on a new project almost immediately. Now imagine that in one case, the incoming leader is a scientist with a reputation for expertise and technical skill. In the other case, the incoming leader is fresh out of business school and has no technical expertise whatsoever. How should each of these new leaders take charge of their team and establish themselves in the leadership role? What behaviors will gain them the respect and credibility of their subordinates and allow them to effectively lead the team to accomplish its task?

Literally thousands of research studies have looked at the effects of particular leadership behaviors (Yukl, 2001), but in this dissertation I will argue that who these leaders are has as much importance as what these leaders do. This is not to say that I am following in the tradition of the thousands of other research studies which have looked at the effects of leadership traits (see Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt, 2002 for a qualitative review). Instead, I argue that certain characteristics of the leader - specifically, leader status - will impact team members’ affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions to certain types of leadership behaviors. The same leadership style that works well for one incoming leader might have negative consequences for another leader.

Consider the experiences three new managers had when taking charge of their workgroups. The first is Winona Finch, whose team was tasked with launching a magazine in Latin America. Finch was known to have a warm and personable way
with people, but she lacked experience in the Latin American market and in managing profit-and-loss responsibilities. In order to be effective in her new role, Finch established a demanding culture for her team members. As one of Finch’s subordinates recalls:

“She [Winona] would ask and ask and ask to get to the bottom of something. You would say something to her, she would say it back to you, and that way everyone was 100% clear on what we were talking about. Once she got the information and knew what you were doing, you had to be consistent. She would say, ‘You told me X; why are you doing Y? I’m confused’” (Hill, 2007: 54).

Compare Winona Finch’s experience to that of Peter Isenberg, who took over the leadership of a group of senior traders in a global investment bank. Although he was new to the team, Isenberg was an experienced trader with established credentials, and he was eager to demonstrate his expertise:

[Isenberg] adopted a hands-on approach, advising traders to close down particular positions or try different trading strategies. The traders pushed back, demanding to know the rationale for each directive. Things got uncomfortable. The traders' responses to their new boss's comments became prickly and terse… In the traders' eyes, he was becoming a micromanager and a "control freak" who didn't deserve their respect. (Hill, 2007: 53)

What was different about the situations faced by Winona Finch and Peter Isenberg that accounts for their different experiences? Why did Finch have to be demanding in order to effectively lead her team, while Isenberg had to take a hands-off approach in order to earn his team members’ respect? Now consider the experience
of Lisa S., a marketing consultant I interviewed in the early stages of the current research. When I asked her to recall a time when an informal leader emerged in a hierarchical team, Lisa recounted this story:

“A director had never led a market research team before, but someone on her staff had a significant amount of experience in market research. During the course of the project, the team needed guidance and the director was providing either unclear or no guidance. As a result, the team tended to reach out to the employee with the market research expertise for guidance, resulting in loss of influence by the director.”

Why, in this case, did a hands-off style result in the leader losing influence to such an extent that a subordinate team member emerged as a rival source of guidance for the team? I contend that part of the explanation lies in the fact that these new leaders came into their teams with different levels of status relative to the rest of their team members, and that the leadership behaviors they chose to employ drew upon different bases of power. In this dissertation, I will argue that a team leader’s status interacts with the manner in which he or she establishes goals and manages the work processes of the team, either enhancing or diminishing the leader’s ability to influence members. In addition, team leader status and behavior interact to affect the likelihood that a subordinate will emerge as a rival source of influence within the team. Ultimately, this interaction will impact team performance.

Influence Patterns in Teams

1 Prior to starting this research, I surveyed a number of people, asking them to recall a time when the formal leader in a workgroup lost influence and the group members turned instead to an informal leader for guidance and leadership. Respondents came from a wide range of occupations ranging from consulting to manufacturing to operations management. Respondents’ anecdotes were used in the early stages of theory building.
Researchers in the management field have long recognized that consideration of power and influence is important for understanding organizational behavior and managerial effectiveness (Pfeffer, 1981; Mintzberg, 1983; Yukl and Falbe, 1991). Examining the way in which influence patterns emerge among members of a work team – knowing what impacts members’ ability to influence others – adds to this understanding. Today’s organizations increasingly rely upon the use of teams and groups to get things done (Barley, 1990; Hackman, 1990; Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford and Melner, 1999). In many organizations, these teams have a formalized hierarchical structure with a designated leader. Popular management books teach that in order to be most effective in aligning the work efforts of the team members with organizational goals, the team leader must be established as the primary source of influence in the group (Kotter, 1977; 1990), directing group members’ work activity, making or swaying their decisions, or driving their behavior in some manner. For the past half century, leadership researchers have focused on understanding how leaders should behave in order to exert influence and be most effective in achieving positive outcomes and favorable assessments from subordinates (e.g., Fleishman, 1953; House, 1971; Yukl, 2001). As Amabile (2004) points out, leadership failures have been, for the most part, considered only from the perspective of leaders exhibiting too few positive behaviors.

More recently, organizational scholars have started to look at the way in which some behaviors might negatively impact leadership. For example, in a study of the effects of leader behavior on subordinates’ perceptions of the leader, Peterson (1997) found that leaders’ outcome directiveness - making their preference known and trying to persuade others to redefine their own priorities - led to decreased group confidence among subordinates. In a qualitative study of the effects of leader behavior on group creativity, Amabile and her colleagues (2004) found that assigning tasks, directing
how to do work, and communicating expectations led to lower perceptions of support from the leader and lower levels of subordinate creativity. And in a recent study of subordinates' perceptions of leaders, Ames and Flynn (2007) observed a curvilinear relationship between assertiveness and leader effectiveness. Leaders who were very low in assertiveness were perceived as weak by the people they led, while leaders who were very high in assertiveness were seen as damaging relationships, and both perceptions led to lower ratings of leader effectiveness.

It is clear that certain leader behaviors might not only fail to achieve high levels of positive outcomes, but might actually result in less favorable assessments of the leader and negative outcomes for the group as a whole. At the same time, in an interdependent workgroup, the team leader is not the only source of influence encountered by each individual team member. Each individual is also influenced to some extent by every other person on the team, and continually faces a decision of how much influence to accord to each of the team members, including the leader. The influence patterns that evolve are doubtless affected by a multitude of factors: personalities, skills, competence, and behavior of team members and team leaders alike.

In some instances, the team leader’s actions (or inaction) might open the door for a subordinate group member to emerge as a rival source of influence within the group. This can occur because of an elevation of the team member’s standing (for example, if a group member displays previously unrecognized expertise on the task at hand), or because of a decline in the leader’s standing, or both. A good deal of the literature on status in groups has shown that group members’ status can change over time (see Ridgeway, 1987; Owens and Sutton, 2001; Bunderson, 2003, for example). However, little work has been done that examines how a leader’s own behaviors can serve to augment or undermine the effects of his or her status. And, to my knowledge,
no one has studied the impact that a newly appointed leader’s status might have on subordinates’ reactions to the leader’s behavior.

**Dissertation Overview**

Although a complete analysis of all types of leader behavior in all types of contexts would be ideal, this is well beyond the scope of the current research. Hence, this dissertation focuses solely on incoming leaders taking charge of their teams, and looks at two particular leadership styles. The goal of the current study is to examine the research questions: What factors affect an incoming leader’s ability to influence his or her team, changing members’ behaviors, perceptions, and attitudes? Under what conditions can a new leader’s behavior fail to earn them the respect and credibility of their subordinates, leaving an opening for a subordinate team member to emerge as a rival source of influence? And how will this influence rivalry affect the team?

Specifically, I develop and test a model of the mechanisms that affect the influence patterns that emerge among members of interdependent teams when a new leader takes charge.

Theory building begins in Chapter 2 where I review the research that relates to leadership behavior in organizations. Using theoretical perspectives rooted in literature on power and status, I develop predictions of how subordinates respond to a new leader’s status and behavior. I also theorize on how subordinates might come to view another team member as a source of influence to rival the team leader. Finally, I consider what impact an influence rivalry might have on the team’s performance.

Subsequently, an exploratory test of the theory is provided in Chapter 3. This chapter discusses a field study of teams of undergraduate business students at the University of South Carolina who were working on a complex management simulation as part of their capstone strategy course. The study used a longitudinal design and a
combination of online surveys and open-ended questionnaires to collect qualitative and quantitative data about team processes. The study was designed to: 1) find evidence that influence rivalries occur in hierarchical teams, 2) identify some of the mechanisms that might lead to an influence rivalry, and 3) determine the impact of influence rivalries on team performance. The exploratory field study discussed in Chapter 3 is not without its limitations, and although the study demonstrates that influence rivalries do occur in hierarchical teams, it does not provide a test of my hypotheses.

Testing the causal relationships in my theoretical model requires a rigorous study in which I can manipulate and control the independent variables and isolate their effects. To satisfy these requirements, I designed a vignette experiment using an interactive video scenario, which is discussed in Chapter 4. The study was designed to test how leader behaviors interact with leader status to affect perceptions of fairness, status, effectiveness, and influence. Participants played the role of consulting team member, interacting with a video of a team leader and other team members engaged in a complex decision-making task. The vignette used a 2 x 2 x 2 design with manipulations of leader status, interaction process, and establishment of objectives. After watching the video, participants responded to questionnaire items measuring perceptions of fairness, satisfaction with leader, affective commitment to leader, leader influence and effectiveness, goal commitment, and team member satisfaction. Participants also assessed the influence of subordinate team members and speculated on group performance. These data allow for causal claims to be made about the interactive effects of leader status and behavior.

Vignette or scenario studies have inherent weaknesses, primarily because participants respond to questionnaire items based on how they would behave or react. The methodology provides some evidence of individual’s true behaviors but it is not
as powerful as measuring actual behaviors. People might react very differently to a hypothetical context than to a real organizational context. Additionally, the study provides no way to measure the impact of leader status and behaviors on actual team performance.

Chapter 5 discusses a third study designed to provide behavioral measures of participants’ reactions to leader status and behavior, and to measure the likelihood of an influence rivalry and its subsequent impact on group performance. This experimental study used a 2 x 2 between subjects design, manipulating leader status and leader style. In the task, a newly-assigned leader took charge of a 3 subordinate team members and attempted to lead them through the Mystery of Time and Space online adventure game. The objective of the game is to get through as many levels as possible in a fixed amount of time using the fewest number of moves. At the end of the task, participants responded to questions about leader style, perceptions of fairness, effectiveness, and influence. In addition, participants completed a ranking task, providing a behavioral measure of the influence exerted by the team leader and by each of the other team members.

In conclusion, Chapter 6 addresses both the theoretical and managerial implications of the findings from this research. More specifically, this chapter provides a general discussion of my findings and describes how the present work fits into existing organizational discussions, what contributions have been made, and what future research endeavors would continue to add to the current knowledge in this area.
CHAPTER 2
EFFECTS OF LEADER STATUS AND LEADER BEHAVIOR

I focus my research on interdependent teams that are embedded within organizations and that are working on non-routine tasks. Members of interdependent teams share a sense of collective responsibility for performance outcomes and must use their collective knowledge and skills to get work done (Wageman, 1995); therefore, influence relationships between team members are important. A number of researchers have looked at interdependent teams working in a wide range of contexts, including decision-making (LePine, Hollenbeck, Ilgen and Hedlund, 1997), technical services (Wageman, 1995), and top management (Smith, Smith, Olian, Sims Jr., O'Bannon and Scully, 1994; Peterson, Owens, Tetlock, Fan and Martorana, 1998). The tasks in these studies are all similar in that they were complex, non-routine, and were completed by team members working together rather than individuals working alone.

Furthermore, I limit this research to the study of hierarchical teams: i.e., teams in which reporting structures are clearly defined in the company organization chart and members carry titles and ranks to denote their position in the hierarchy. Although each member of any interdependent team has the potential to influence other team members, I am most interested in the situation where a subordinate team member’s influence rivals that of the incoming team leader. Therefore I look only at teams that have a formally designated leader.

Power and Influence in Teams

By influence, I am referring to interpersonal influence, marked by the behavior of an individual influence target, enacted when the individual allows his or her
perceptions, attitudes, or behaviors to be affected by another person (Friedkin, 1993; Raven, Schwarzwald and Koslowsky, 1998). In a team setting, influence is enacted whenever a team member takes orders from another member, follows other’s guidance, or allows decisions to be swayed by others. Influence is a two-way exchange, and in interdependent teams the influence process takes place not only between team member and team leader, but also between one subordinate team member and another. From a group process perspective, one individual’s potential to influence another stems from the individual’s power (Bacharach and Lawler, 1980).

My conception of power follows that of a long line of researchers; power is an individual’s relative capacity to alter another’s psychological, behavioral, social, or material state (French and Raven, 1959; Wrong, 1968; Bacharach and Lawler, 1980; Brass and Burkhardt, 1993; Barry, 2001; Keltner, Gruenfeld and Anderson, 2003). Keltner and his colleagues bring an approach and inhibition perspective to theories of power, defining power as “an individual's relative capacity to modify others' states by providing or withholding resources or administering punishments” (Keltner et al., 2003: 265-266). The degree to which other group members depend on these resources determines the value of the resources. Keltner’s (2003) definition of power is particularly relevant to my research because it does not restrictively focus on one kind of resource or outcome, and it distinguishes between constructs of status and authority as determinants of power. Status is based on differences in prominence and respect (Anderson, John, Keltner and Kring, 2001), authority is derived from institutionalized roles or organizational structures (Weber, 1947). By definition, a hierarchical team setting will encompass both status and authority as potential power determinants.

For the purposes of this research, I categorize the various perspectives on power using the decades-old taxonomy of position power versus personal power (see Table 2.1).
### Table 2.1: Two-Factor Taxonomy of Power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position power</th>
<th>Personal power</th>
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<tr>
<td>Authority: power that derives from institutionalized roles or organizational structures (Weber, 1947)</td>
<td>Status: based on differences in prominence and respect (Zelditch et al., 1970; Berger, Ridgeway, Fisek, and Norman, 1998)</td>
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<tr>
<td>French and Raven (1959)</td>
<td>French and Raven (1959)</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Legitimate power: derived from position in the organizational hierarchy</td>
<td>• Expert power: derived from the perception of knowledge that one possesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reward power: based on ability to provide rewards such as pay raises, promotions, and favorable performance reviews</td>
<td>• Referent power: derived from one’s ability to persuade and influence others through charisma and interpersonal skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coercive power: stems from the perception that punishment will follow failure to comply. Punishments include unfavorable performance reviews, assignment to unsavory projects, and job termination</td>
<td>• Reward power: based on ability to provide rewards such as knowledge, affection, and decision-making opportunities; plus potential to positively affect another’s task performance ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coercive power: based on ability to levy punishments such as verbal abuse, withholding information, and ostracism; plus potential to negatively impact another’s task performance ability</td>
<td>• Coercive power: based on ability to levy punishments such as verbal abuse, withholding information, and ostracism; plus potential to negatively impact another’s task performance ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Legitimate power: an individual has the right, based on his/her position and others’ responsibilities, to give others tasks or assignments and to expect compliance</td>
<td>• Expertise: based on experience, knowledge, and skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Agent persuasiveness: ability to use facts and logic to make convincing arguments</td>
<td>• Agent persuasiveness: ability to use facts and logic to make convincing arguments</td>
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</table>

Position power is structural in nature, derived from the individual’s post in the organization, while personal power is determined by the individual’s personal attributes (Bass, 1960; Yukl and Falbe, 1991). Authority and status correspond to position power and personal power, respectively. French and Raven’s (1959) conceptualization of the bases of social power offers the same argument, and each of the five power sources proposed by French and Raven can be categorized as position or personal power (Wexley and Yukl, 1977). In the case of hierarchical teams, the
team leader alone has position power - the leader’s place in the organizational hierarchy imbues him or her with authority, legitimate power, reward power, and coercive power. However, any team member, including the leader, has some degree of personal power, derived from their status, expertise, referent power, and persuasiveness. Every team member also possesses some degree of reward and coercive power, based on their ability to provide socio-emotional rewards and punishments to teammates. Exchange theories of power tell us that each member derives power from whatever rewards and punishments he or she can deliver to others in the group (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; Emerson, 1962; Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik and Lipkus, 1991; Fiske, 1993). Rewards are conceptually different from punishments, and group members will place differential values on the importance of each. They will also differentiate between types of rewards and punishments, and how they view socio-emotional versus instrumental outcomes will impact their susceptibility to influence from those who deliver the rewards and punishments (Emerson, 1962). In an interdependent team, all team members control socio-emotional rewards such as knowledge, affection, and decision-making opportunities as well as punishments such as verbal abuse, withholding information, and ostracism. Therefore, each member of a team has the potential to influence other team members, based on position and/or personal power.

Empirical studies show that a leader’s success in influencing team members is more closely tied to his or her personal power than to his or her position power. Yukl and Falbe (1991) tested sources of power in the two-factor model and found that legitimate power, expert power, and agent persuasiveness were the three most important reasons reported for doing what a peer or boss requested. Although legitimate power is positional, expertise and persuasiveness are forms of personal power. In tracing the mechanisms that drove the effects, the study showed that
personal power was more important than position power as a determinant of task commitment and ratings of managerial effectiveness.

The fact that personal power has a greater impact than position power on a leader’s influence ability is an important point, because although the scope may vary, position power is a constant, based on the authority embodied in the leader role. Yet, personal power (status) can vary widely from one new leader to the next. For example, status characteristics theory tells us that group members assess one another’s social status and share their assessments through displaying their own and observing others’ status-claiming behaviors (Zelditch, Berger, Anderson and Cohen, 1970; Berger, Fisek, Norman and Zelditch, 1977) and that these status assessments form “the basis of observable inequalities in face-to-face social interaction” (Berger, Rosenholtz and Zelditch, 1980). Status assessments are based on an evaluation of personal attributes – known as status characteristics - that over time in society have become associated with certain levels of task competence (Ridgeway, 1982; Berger, Fisek, Norman and Wagner, 1985). Status characteristics fall into two categories: those that provide specific cues or information about task competence on a well-specified domain (e.g., math or language skills) and those that provide diffuse cues or more generalized information about ability or performance across a wide array of activities (e.g., race, age, physical attractiveness, gender).

In the case of an incoming leader, team members will start to form an assessment of the incoming leader even before they meet, during what Anderson and Thomas (1996) call the anticipation phase of newcomer socialization. They base this assessment on whatever information they have about the leader’s reputation, or background, or credentials. Members make a status evaluation during their first interaction with the new team leader, and will form expectations of the leader’s performance almost immediately (Moreland and Levine, 1982). During this newcomer
socialization period, knowledge about the leader’s expertise, competence, and skills is limited. Reputation, résumé, and biographical information might provide some specific status cues, but team members also rely on diffuse status cues when making their assessments of the new leader.

Remember Winona Finch and Peter Isenberg? Recall their experiences and consider some of the status cues available to their respective team members when they came on board. Finch is a woman who has never managed profit-and-loss responsibilities and who lacks experience in the market she is about to enter. Isenberg is a man who graduated with an engineering degree from Columbia, an MBA with honors from Dartmouth, and who had worked at one of the most prestigious firms on Wall Street. While they might have shared a similar degree of position power, it seems likely that these new leaders had entirely different levels of personal power when they took charge of their teams. Similarly, the newly-arrived R&D team leader with no technical expertise has some positional but very little personal power, while the scientist with a reputation for expertise has a high degree of both types of power. Understanding how much personal power an incoming leader possesses based on his or her status is an important element in understanding how the use of certain leadership behaviors might lead to different outcomes.

**Leader Behavior**

Researchers from multiple disciplines have looked at a wide variety of leadership behaviors, all of which can be effective under the right circumstances. Therefore, a closer look at researchers’ operationalization of leader behavior is required to develop a usable construct for my study. Table 2.2 summarizes the key components of this construct taken from a sample of relevant research studies.
Table 2.2: Summary of Leader Behaviors
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Leader behavior</th>
<th>Conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Somech (2006)</td>
<td>Directive leadership: leader provides framework for interactions, manages transfer of information and knowledge.</td>
<td>When teams are high in functional heterogeneity, directive leadership leads to higher in-role performance. Participative leadership promotes team reflection, but leads to lower in-role performance. When teams are low in functional heterogeneity, directive leadership promotes team reflection.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Participative leadership: team members involved in joint decision making, team members &quot;have a say&quot; in decisions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peterson (1997)</td>
<td>Process directiveness: leader engages all group members in discussions, encourages dissent, resolves conflict, respects concerns and feelings of others.</td>
<td>High process directiveness was positively associated with impressions of leader effectiveness, group confidence, process quality, and decision quality. Outcome directiveness: leader makes preference known, tries to persuade others to redefine goals and priorities, is loyal to close supporters, is forceful and ambitious. Outcome directiveness led to decreased group confidence. High outcome-directive leaders were more persuasive than low outcome-directive leaders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sagie (1996)</td>
<td>High directive: leaders were involved in each of the group’s interactions; group members communicated with each other only through the leader.</td>
<td>Highly directive leaders achieved the highest rates of performance, achievement satisfaction, and task satisfaction. Low directive: all team members communicated freely with one another. Participative goal setting was positively related to all measures of members' attitudes: task difficulty, goal commitment, task interest, achievement satisfaction, and task satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wageman (2001)</td>
<td>Leader coaching: cues/rewards for self-management, problem-solving consultation, process consultation, negative signals, task intervention, identifying team problems.</td>
<td>Task intervention and identifying team problems contribute negatively to work satisfaction, especially when goal is clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durham, Knight, and Locke (1997)</td>
<td>Commander: selected based on Directive Leader Scale. Commander alone determines strategy, directs activities, and sets team goal.</td>
<td>Coordinator role had positive effects on team tactics, which in turn had positive effects on team performance. Assigned goal difficulty positively affected team-set goal difficulty, which in turn positively affected team performance. Teams engaged in new, complex tasks should be allowed to set team goals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.2 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Leader behavior</th>
<th>Conclusions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Korsgaard, Schweiger, and Sapienza (1995)</td>
<td>High leader consideration of members' input - active listening, taking notes, rephrasing, acknowledgement of input.</td>
<td>Consideration of member input has a positive effect on procedural fairness and decision commitment (stronger positive effect when influence is low).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low consideration - listening without comment and presenting final decision without acknowledgment.</td>
<td>High influence had positive impact on perceptions of fairness, decision commitment, and decision quality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High influence - leaders changed their decision based on member input.</td>
<td>Perceived fairness partially mediates the effects of consideration and influence on decision commitment, partially mediates the effect of consideration on group attachment, and fully mediates the impact of consideration on trust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low influence - leaders presented their own decisions as final.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manz and Sims (1987)</td>
<td>Self management behaviors: encouraging team members to take initiative in problem solving and work planning, facilitating goal-setting, team expectations, encouraging group problem solving.</td>
<td>Leader behaviors that facilitate the team's self-management through self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement are positively correlated with overall leadership effectiveness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Griffin (1980)</td>
<td>Directive behavior: planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, and controlling subordinates' work.</td>
<td>For individuals working on routine tasks, directive leadership style results in higher overall satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participative behavior: consulting with subordinates, asking for suggestions, listening to their advice on which assignments should be made, considering what they have to say.</td>
<td>For individuals with high growth needs working on non-routine tasks, participative leadership style results in higher overall satisfaction, higher job satisfaction, and higher satisfaction with supervision.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

These articles were selected based on keyword searches within article titles, keywords, and abstracts of the Science Citation Index Expanded, the Social Sciences Citation Index, and the Arts & Humanities Citation Index. The search included the terms “team leader behavior,” “leader status,” and “new leader.” I limited the search to articles published in Administrative Science Quarterly, Academy of Management Journal, Academy of Management Review, Journal of Applied Psychology, Organization Science, and Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes during the past 15 years. I eliminated articles that studied distributed teams, virtual teams, leaderless teams, multi-team systems, and teams working on routine tasks. I
extended the search to look at secondary references cited in the original set. Not all of the articles included share the same context as my research, but they serve to illustrate the effects of specific leader behaviors (see Table 2.2).

For the purposes of this study, I distinguish between a leader-directed team process and an emergent process, and between leader-directed and participative objectives. I define directive process leadership as a set of behaviors that demonstrate a team leader setting a clear direction for the team (Somech, 2006), actively managing team members’ interactions (e.g., Korsgaard, Schweiger and Sapienza, 1995; Sagie, 1996), and structuring team members’ activity (Griffin, 1980; Keller, 2006). My view of directive leadership is a departure from many leadership researchers whose concept of “directive” is more akin to Lewin et al.’s (1939) “autocratic” style, wherein the leader controls every aspect of subordinates’ activity without consideration whatsoever for subordinates' input. Much of the research on the effects of directive leadership has adopted a similar definition (see Bass, 1990 for a review), and not surprisingly, has found that directive leadership can be perceived as tyrannical or dictatorial (McClelland, 1975). This view of “directive equals autocratic” is simply not relevant in the context of today’s organizations, where purely autocratic leaders are rarely seen. And as Cartwright and Zander (1968) noted, Lewin’s intention was not to mirror any pure societal types, but rather to isolate the specific influence of certain behaviors. My definition of directive process leadership encompasses Peterson’s (1997) process directive behaviors, in which the leader engages all group members in discussions, encourages dissent, and respects the concerns and feelings of others. In my definition, a directive leader may still ask for input or suggestions from the team members, but the decision of which suggestions are incorporated into the team’s process is clearly in the hands of the leader. My operationalization of the directive process includes the leader 1) designating member roles, 2) assigning work activity to
team members, 3) controlling the flow of information and transfer of knowledge among team members, and 4) determining decision rules.

A leader who displays emergent process behaviors, by contrast, allows team members to determine for themselves how they will work to accomplish the objective. In essence, a leader who uses an emergent process enables the team to become self-managed to some extent. While the idea of leading a self-managed team seems paradoxical (Manz and Sims, 1987), the practice of giving teams more responsibility in executing their tasks is advocated by a number of leadership scholars. Hackman (2002) states that the likelihood of team effectiveness is increased when a team is real, has a compelling direction and enabling structure, operates within a supportive organizational context, and has expert coaching. In an interdependent team, the leader does not bear the sole responsibility for executing the task at hand, but instead can help to create and maintain the conditions that enable team effectiveness (Hackman, 2002). In my research, I define emergent process leadership as a set of behaviors that demonstrate a team leader providing cues for team members to manage themselves (Wageman, 2001) and providing consultation rather than direction (Amabile et al., 2004). My operationalization of the emergent process construct includes 1) allowing team members to decide how they will work on the task, 2) giving them the freedom to select their own work assignments, 3) encouraging a free flow of information among team members, and 4) allowing them to determine their own decision rules.

From the perspective of the subordinate team member, the directive or emergent leadership style manifests itself whenever the subordinate embarks upon an activity related to the team’s work. If the leader is directing the team process, the subordinate engages in the activity because the leader told him or her to do so. By contrast, if the leader is allowing the team process to emerge, the subordinate either takes it upon him/herself to initiate the activity or does so at the suggestion of another
team member, but not at the direction of the team leader. This is a key distinction, because assigning a work activity to another individual represents an exertion of influence on that individual. A directive leader relies on the power of his or her position, which gives the leader the right to give others tasks or assignments and to expect compliance (Yukl and Falbe, 1991). A leader who allows the team process to emerge is not relying on position power, but instead is relying on personal power to influence team members and effectively manage the team. Since incoming team leaders can vary widely in the amount of personal power they possess, it makes theoretical sense to pit directive leader behaviors against emergent behaviors, and to examine team members’ reactions to each in order to gain a better understanding of how patterns of influence emerge in teams.

Reactions to Leader Behavior

Recall Ames and Flynn’s (2007) finding that leaders who were very high in assertiveness received less favorable assessments from subordinates. Assertiveness is a natural corollary in my conceptualization of directive leadership, so the potential for negative socio-emotional outcomes bears consideration. For one thing, a leader’s use of either directive or emergent behaviors will affect subordinates’ perceptions of the procedural fairness of the team’s process. Procedural justice theory tells us that subordinates value considerate and respectful treatment from their managers and respond favorably when they perceive fairness in their interactions (Tyler and Lind, 1992). Subordinates also react favorably when given voice; i.e., the opportunity to have a say in the decision making process. Extensive research on voice in organizations has shown that when individuals are provided with voice they tend to view those in authority as more fair, regardless of the actions of those authority figures.
In an experiment using intact management teams working on a strategic decision making exercise, Korsgaard and her colleagues (1995) manipulated leader consideration of members’ input and members’ influence on the team’s decision. The researchers found that when leaders considered members’ input, perceptions of procedural fairness and decision commitment increased. In addition, when members believed themselves to be influential on the team’s decision, perceptions of fairness, decision commitment, and decision quality increased. Perceptions of fairness played a mediating role in each of these relationships. Fairness partially mediated the effects of consideration and influence on decision commitment and the effect of consideration on group attachment. Perceived fairness fully mediated the impact of consideration on trust in the team leader.

Subordinates will experience varying degrees of satisfaction in response to directive or emergent leader behaviors. In a series of studies examining students’ evaluations of teachers and of citizens’ evaluations of political leaders, Tyler and Caine (1981) concluded that individuals focus heavily on procedures when forming their evaluations of leaders, and are more satisfied and will endorse leaders who are perceived to rely on fair procedures. A later study found that individuals who had greater voice in determining a group’s process reported higher levels of satisfaction with leaders (Tyler et al., 1985). Similarly, in a study of strategy decision making teams in the microcomputer industry, researchers found that team members were willing to accept decisions made by their firm’s chief executive officer when they felt that the CEO had listened to them, but they were frustrated with the decision process if they perceived that they were unable to voice their opinions (Eisenhardt and Bourgeois, 1988). Finally, in looking at teams engaged in ranking items in a survival
scenario, Krehbiel and Cropanzano (2000) found that negative emotions of anger and frustration were highest when subjects received unfavorable outcomes and perceived that the procedures used in the task were unfair.

A team leader who uses emergent process behaviors gives subordinates a great deal of voice in allowing them to determine the team process, and shows a high level of acknowledgement and consideration of their input and contributions. Therefore, using an emergent team process will lead to greater perceptions of fairness and higher levels of satisfaction with the team leader.

**Hypothesis 1:**

*Team members’ perceptions of fairness will be higher in teams whose leaders use emergent process management behaviors than in teams whose leaders use directive process management behaviors.*

**Hypothesis 2:**

*Team members will be more satisfied with leaders who use emergent process management behaviors than with leaders who use directive process management behaviors.*

Emotional responses to leader behaviors will also impact the degree to which subordinates are committed to the team leader. Emotional commitment has been studied in several literatures, most notably as an affective attachment aspect of organizational commitment (Meyer, Allen and Gellatly, 1990), described as an employee's acceptance of the organization's values, a willingness to exert effort on behalf of this organization, and a desire to remain in the organization (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982). More relevant to the current study is the concept of personal
commitment, characterized by satisfaction with the relationship, a moral belief supporting remaining in the relationship, and a contribution to one’s identity provided by the relationship (Johnson, 1982). It may seem unlikely that any strong attachments could form when the leader is new to the team, but as Ballinger and Schoorman (2007) argue, cognitive appraisals and affective reactions to a new leader begin very early in an exchange relationship. For example, even before work begins, subordinates may have high initial levels of trust in a new leader (McKnight, Cummings and Chervany, 1998). Team members who are engaged in determining their own work activities and sharing their opinions with the team leader will, by definition, have a greater amount of contact with the leader. Research on the effects of transformational leadership demonstrates that subordinates form stronger identification with and personal commitments to leaders who ask for their input and express confidence in their opinions (Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993). It follows that subordinate team members will be more committed to an incoming team leader who enables them to determine their own work activity through an emergent process than to a leader who directs their activity.

**Hypothesis 3:**

*Team members will be more affectively committed to leaders who use emergent process management behaviors than to leaders who use directive process management behaviors.*

Since a leader’s ability to influence team members relies on either position or personal power, it makes sense that an incoming leader’s level of status will moderate the impact of any type of leader behavior on subordinates’ perceptions. Using directive behaviors may be detrimental for social outcomes and perceptions of
fairness, undermining the leader’s personal power, but the impact on subordinates’ evaluations of the leader will be different for high and low status leaders. Recall that the use of directive leader behaviors is based on the authority embodied in the leadership position. A leader who directs team members’ activities is likely to be perceived as asserting him or herself in the leadership role. Alternatively, a leader who allows the team process to emerge might be perceived as not being assertive. In the case where the incoming leader has low status and therefore very little personal power to begin with, the importance of relying on position power will outweigh the detriment to personal power. In a sense, being perceived as assertive serves to compensate for the leader’s low status position.

A high status leader, by contrast, has a high degree of personal power, and any behaviors that undermine this power will have a negative impact on subordinates' perceptions of the leader. The high status leader who uses a directive style might come off as being too assertive, damaging relationships and lowering team members’ assessments. This leads me to predict that leader status will moderate the relationship between leadership style and team members’ perceptions of the leader’s effectiveness.

**Hypothesis 4a:**

Low status leaders who use directive process management behaviors will be perceived as more effective than low status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors.

**Hypothesis 4b:**

High status leaders who use directive process management behaviors will be perceived as less effective than high status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors.
Just as an incoming leader’s level of status will moderate the affective and cognitive impact of leader style on subordinates’ perceptions, it makes sense that status and style will interact to affect subordinates’ behavior. Effective leadership relies on an ability to manage the work efforts of the team and to align members’ activities with the overall team objective (Kotter, 1977; Hackman, 1987; Kotter, 1990). In short, leader effectiveness denotes a leader’s ability to influence team members. In the same way that leader status will moderate the relationship between leadership style and perceptions of a leader’s effectiveness, it will moderate the impact of leadership style on team members’ assessments of the leader’s influence.

**Hypothesis 5a:**

*Low status leaders who use directive process management behaviors will have more influence than low status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors.*

**Hypothesis 5b:**

*High status leaders who use directive process management behaviors will have less influence than high status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors.*

The above hypotheses imply that perceptions of fairness mediate the relationship between leader behavior and the various outcomes. This is consistent with the literature on procedural justice, which argues that group members are willing to defer to the decisions of authorities and to follow social rules when they view those authorities as legitimate. Group members judge legitimacy primarily by assessing the fairness of authorities’ decision-making procedures (Kim and Mauborgne, 1993;
Tyler, 2000). Similarly, Tyler and De Cremer (2005) found that in addition to being viewed as more legitimate, leaders who act in procedurally fair ways are viewed as being more competent, and employees are more accepting of their influence. Hence, subordinate team members’ perceptions of a leader’s fairness will affect their assessments of the leader’s ability to be effective and their willingness to accept the leader’s influence.

_Hypothesis 6a:_

Team members’ perceptions of fairness will mediate the relationship between leader status and behavior and perceptions of leader effectiveness.

_Hypothesis 6b:_

Team members’ perceptions of fairness will mediate the relationship between leader status and behavior and assessments of leader influence.

_Goal Setting Behavior_

In my conceptualization, a leader, regardless of whether he or she uses a directive or emergent process management style, establishes a goal or an outcome objective for the team at the outset of the team’s interaction. This sets the “clear and engaging direction” (Hackman and Walton, 1986; Hackman, 1987) that is essential for effective team performance. Goal setting theory assumes that goals are immediate regulators of human action and that goals have motivational influence on what people will do and how they will perform (Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham, 1981). The theory also tells us that specific and challenging goals lead to higher performance than do easy goals, "do your best" goals, or no goals at all. Moreover, goal acceptance or commitment is critical to improving performance outcomes. Finally, research on
participative goal setting demonstrates that member participation can lead to the setting of higher goals and increased goal commitment in groups (Locke and Latham, 1990; Durham, Knight and Locke, 1997).

A review of the articles in Table 2 reveals that a team’s objectives can either be imposed by the team leader or can be set through the participation of the team members. I define an assigned objective as one that is set by the team leader, without input from team members. This is a specific description of what the team needs to achieve in order to accomplish the task at hand. For example, establishment of an assigned objective for a strategy decision making team might sound something like “We need to develop a strategy that will grow revenue by 10% and increase market share by 15%.” A participative objective, on the other hand, is one that emerges based on team members’ input and opinions. Establishment of a participative objective for the same strategy decision making team might sound something like, “We need to develop a strategy to grow the business; what targets should we try to achieve?”

I view the establishment of objectives and management of the team’s interaction process as two distinct aspects of leader behavior. I argue that use of a directive or emergent process management style and an assigned or participative objective will interact to affect team members’ perceptions of the leader, and that the leader’s level of status will alter these perceptions. For example, a leader can assign a specific objective and then allow the team members to determine their own activities through an emergent process, or the leader can ask for members’ input in determining the objective and then directively manage team members’ activity to achieve that objective. In either case, because they have the opportunity to voice their opinion and/or to have a say in determining their own work activities, team members are likely to view the leader’s behaviors as being procedurally fair (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Greenberg, 1996). Only when the leader directs both the objective and the interaction
process are team members likely to perceive a lack of fairness. As I argued earlier, this will impact their assessments of the leader most strongly when the leader has high status to begin with.

**Hypothesis 7a:**

*High status leaders who establish assigned objectives and use directive process management behaviors will be viewed by team members as less effective than high status leaders who either allow team member participation in establishing objectives or use emergent process management behaviors, or both.*

**Hypothesis 7b:**

*High status leaders who establish assigned objectives and use directive process management behaviors will be less influential than high status leaders who either allow team member participation in establishing objectives or use emergent process management behaviors, or both.*

Incoming leader status also plays a role in the team’s acceptance of and commitment to the goal. For instance, consider the leader who establishes a specific objective and then allows the team members to determine how they will work to achieve that objective. Hackman (2002) would claim that these behaviors will enable the team to be the most effective, and in the case of the high status leader this would be true. However, if the leader has low status, team members are less likely to accept the goal. Expectation states and status characteristics theories tell us that people hold low performance expectations for low status individuals (Berger et al., 1977), give them fewer opportunities to participate (Meeker and Weitzel O'Neill, 1977), and
accord them less influence (Thomas-Hunt and Phillips, 2004; Sheldon, Thomas-Hunt and Proell, 2006). Low status group members’ contributions are largely ignored when making strategic decisions (Stewart and Stasser, 1995), so if a low status leader attempts to establish an objective based on his or her own opinion, it may be discounted by team members because of the leader’s lack of experience or expertise. In the case of leader-directed objectives, team members are likely to be hesitant to commit to a goal that is set by a low status leader.

**Hypothesis 8:**

*Team members will be more committed to objectives that are assigned by high status leaders than by low status leaders.*

This implies that for low status leaders, the best way to achieve a high level of commitment to the team’s objective is to include the participation of team members when setting the objective. This will in turn lead to more favorable perceptions and higher assessments of the leader’s overall ability.

**Hypothesis 9:**

*In teams that are led by a low status leader, team members will be more committed to participative objectives than to assigned objectives.*

**Hypothesis 10a:**

*Low status leaders who allow team member participation in establishing objectives will be viewed by team members as more effective than low status leaders who assign objectives.*
Hypothesis 10b:

Low status leaders who allow team member participation in establishing objectives will be more influential than low status leaders who assign objectives.

This poses a challenging dilemma for the low status leader taking charge of a team: to be most effective, he or she must ask for the participation of the team members in setting the team’s objective, but then must directly manage the team’s interaction process in order to avoid being seen as weak or unassertive. At the same time, use of directive process management behaviors will make team members less satisfied and less committed to the leader. The high status leader also faces a dilemma: some of the very behaviors that helped the leader rise in the organizational hierarchy (taking charge, being assertive, making quick decisions) bear the potential for negative socio-emotional reactions from group members. In either case, the leader’s position as the primary source of influence within the group may be threatened by negative reactions from group members.

Influence Rivalries in Teams

To this point, I have discussed the way in which a number of factors affect subordinate perceptions of the team’s leader and the leader’s ability to influence the group. Recall that all members of an interdependent workgroup, not just the leader, have the potential to influence one another’s behavior to some degree. This is an important point because much of the research on power and influence focuses on the superior-subordinate dyadic exchange relationship (Cook and Emerson, 1978), and different outcomes emerge when we consider group as opposed to dyadic interactions. In a superior-subordinate dyad the pattern of influence is fairly straightforward - the
superior member has more power, based on authority and status, and the subordinate is, for the most part, the target of influence attempts. However, when group members number three or more, there is potential for a shift in the balance of power. Simmel (1950) theorized about this phenomenon over a half century ago, contending that any three-person group tends to break up into a pair and another party. Simmel theorized that the third person could threaten the unity of the other two, acting as the holder of the balance of power if the other two were in conflict with one another. A few years later, Mills (1953) provided empirical support for the idea that two members of a three-person group will form a coalition, and proposed that: “(1) the development most threatening to any member in a threesome is the solidarity between the other two, and (2) the condition most conducive to the intensification of a solidary bond is the presence of a common object of opposition” (Mills, 1953: 356).

This is relevant to the current research because the opportunity to form coalitions impacts the assessment and attainment of status within groups. Positions of high and low status are fixed in a superior-subordinate dyad, but moving beyond the dyad sets the stage for a collective exchange network among group members, whereby one member’s deference to another (by contributing to the task at hand) benefits the entire group (Cook and Emerson, 1978; Emerson, 1981). This creates a structure in which attempts at personal dominance will be met with an implicit coalition of others who are willing to accord influence only in proportion to the expected ability to contribute to the task. Thus task capacity, not dominance behavior, becomes the basis for status assessment (Ridgeway and Diekema, 1989). In addition, positions of high and low status are no longer fixed as in the superior-subordinate dyad. Status is a relative construct, so team members might move up or down in the status hierarchy. The conclusion we can draw from this body of research is that in an interdependent team, where members work together, share information, knowledge, and expertise to
get the job done, every member will have some degree of personal power. Therefore, every member will, to a greater or lesser extent, have the potential to influence other members.

In a related sense, the presence of more than one subordinate sets the stage for a status contest among team members if the leader’s behavior causes a loss of standing to such an extent that the leader’s standing in the group approaches the same level that of one or more of the subordinate team members (Diehl and Stroebe, 1987; Diehl and Stroebe, 1991; Owens and Sutton, 2001). Since other team members will differentiate among individuals who share equivalent status, regardless of their hierarchical level (Shelly and Troyer, 2001), any team members who share similar status as the team leader might be seen as rival sources of influence for other team members.

This is less likely to occur when the team is led by a high status leader, where high levels of both personal and positional power render the leader’s position in the group’s influence hierarchy virtually unassailable. We can more readily imagine an influence rivalry in the case of a leader who enters a team at a low status level. Incumbent team members (i.e., subordinates) will have had multiple interactions with one another and will have had opportunities to demonstrate their expertise and share individuating information with one another (Flynn, Chatman and Spataro, 2001), but the incoming leader will have had no chance to provide specific status cues. An incoming low status leader therefore enters the team with little or no personal power, while an incumbent subordinate might have amassed a high degree of personal power. This high-powered subordinate is most likely to emerge as an influence rival when the incoming leader engages in the most detrimental behaviors, establishing an assigned objective and allowing an emergent team process.
Hypothesis 11:

Low status leaders who establish assigned objectives and who use emergent process management behaviors will be more likely to experience influence rivalries with subordinate group members than low status leaders who either allow team member participation in establishing objectives or use directive process management behaviors, or both.

In addition, if there is a rival source of influence (i.e., a subordinate group member who stands to emerge as the team’s informal leader), individual group members might experience dissonance or dissatisfaction. They will be conflicted with the desire to either accord influence in line with their informal perception of the influence hierarchy or to bow to organizational, political, and normative pressures and to adhere to the formally-designated leadership structure.

Hypothesis 12:

Members of teams that experience influence rivalries will be less satisfied than members of teams that do not experience influence rivalries.

It is unclear how the presence of an influence rival might affect a team’s performance. On the one hand, according to some management theorists, a team’s leader should be the primary source of influence within a team, setting clear and engaging goals and aligning the work efforts of the team members with those goals to enable better group performance (Kotter, 1977; Hackman, 1987; Kotter, 1990). Having multiple people “in charge” will diffuse the team’s work activities, cause confusion, and force group members to try to respond to conflicting guidance.
Therefore, we might expect that teams that experience influence rivalries will perform more poorly than teams that do not experience influence rivalries.

On the other hand, groups engaged in a creativity task could benefit from multiple sources of influence in the team, which might encourage more divergent thinking. This is akin to the argument in favor of task conflict in groups, which posits that a moderate level of conflict can be beneficial. Task conflict can serve to concentrate debate and discussion of the task and allow groups to adopt new perspectives, improving group performance (Jehn and Mannix, 2001).

In addition, the presence of someone to rival the leader’s influence could help the team overcome some of the difficulties that plague the group decision making process. Members of decision making groups often fall prey to groupthink, a phenomenon that occurs when members’ desire for unanimity overrides their motivation to realistically appraise alternative courses of action (Janis, 1971). Strong leadership is typically cited as a key cause of groupthink, because the leader is more likely to promote his/her own solution (McCauley, 1987). In this situation, an influence rival might serve as an antidote to the strong leader, encouraging the group to consider a wider range of alternatives.

Another phenomenon that occurs in decision making groups is the common knowledge effect, where group discussion tends to focus on information that members already share and information that supports, rather than opposes, the predominant sentiment within the group (Stasser and Titus, 1985). In this case, an influence rival might serve as a “devil’s advocate”, thereby enhancing the quality of group decisions.

In short, the potential for an influence rivalry to help or hinder group performance is largely dependent on the type of task and the context of the organizational setting. This is beyond the scope of the current research, and is a subject for future discussion.
Overview of the Methodology

Figure 2.1 depicts a model that describes the mechanisms that affect the emergence of influence patterns and the likelihood of influence rivalries within teams.

![Theoretical Model of the Effects of Leader Status and Behaviors on Influence Patterns in Teams](image)

I tested this model with a series of three studies using different methodologies to increase both the internal and external validity of my findings. Table 2.3 lists the hypotheses tested in each study.

**Table 2.3: Overview of Studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Hypotheses tested</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Exploratory field study</td>
<td>4(a,b), 5(a,b), 11, 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Interactive video experiment</td>
<td>1 - 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lab experiment</td>
<td>1 – 6, 11, 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First I conducted an exploratory field study to better understand and draw inferences about the influence patterns that emerge in teams in the context in which I am interested. In the second study, I used an interactive video vignette design to isolate and rigorously test some of the affective and cognitive mechanisms identified in the model. Finally, I conducted a lab experiment to isolate and examine the impact of leader status and style on team members’ perceptions, behaviors, and performance.
CHAPTER 3
EFFECTS OF LEADER STATUS AND LEADER BEHAVIOR: STUDY 1

In my first study, I looked at teams of undergraduate business students who were working on a complex seven-week-long management simulation task as part of their capstone strategy course. The study used a longitudinal design and a combination of online surveys and open-ended questionnaires to collect qualitative and quantitative data about team processes at different points during the semester. The study was designed to: 1) find evidence that influence rivalries occur in hierarchical teams, 2) identify some of the mechanisms that might lead to an influence rivalry, and 3) determine the impact of influence rivalries on team performance. Although this study was primarily exploratory in nature, the design of the study allowed me to test Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 5a, 5b, 11, and 12. I also looked at effects for Leader Member Exchange and conflict resolution processes, even though these variables were not included in my theory.

Participants and Demographics

Participants in this study were undergraduate business students at the University of South Carolina who were enrolled in a capstone strategy course. Most of the students (97%) were in their senior year of business school. The mean age of participants was 21.7 years old (SD = 1.5). 39% of the participants were female and 93% were US citizens. The majority of participants listed their race or ethnicity as Caucasian (83%), followed by Black/African American (8%), Asian/Asian-American (4%), and Hispanic/Latino (3%). Participants were arranged in 25 teams of five to six people each, and a team leader was assigned to each team. Thus, there were 25 students who served as team leaders and 108 students who worked as subordinate
team members. Of these 108 students, 99 completed all three questionnaires and were therefore included as participants. These 99 participants are the respondents of interest for all of the individual dependent measures used in this study.

Task and Procedure

At the midpoint of the semester, students in the course were assigned to teams for a seven-week business strategy simulation. The simulation is designed to give each team responsibility for developing and implementing a strategy as they run their firm over a number of years. The firm’s performance was part of each team member’s final semester grade.

On the day they were assigned to their new teams, students participated in an adapted version of Human Synergistics’ business turnaround exercise (Cook, 1998). In this exercise, participants played the role of a business consultant whose team had been asked to recommend a strategy for a troubled manufacturing plant. Participants were given background information on the plant, transcripts from interviews with employees, and financial information about comparable plants. Participants then rank-ordered 14 issues which were thought to be contributing to the operating loss at the plant. The correct ranking is based on the actual dollar amount each item contributed to the operating loss. Participants completed the ranking task individually prior to class. During class, participants learned their team assignments and came together as teams for the first time. Then, under the new leader’s supervision, team members engaged in a 30-minute face-to-face discussion to reach a consensus ranking of issues.

Three weeks later, after they had run their simulated businesses for a number of years, I administered a team interaction survey (entitled Team Interaction Questionnaire; see Appendix A for a detailed description of study materials) to measure members’ perceptions of the team leader’s attributes and interaction style.
At the end of the semester I administered a 360 feedback survey (entitled 360 Feedback Questionnaire in Appendix A) to measure perceptions of satisfaction, effectiveness, status, and influence.

**Independent Variables**

Leader status. All of the students who took part in the simulation were peers when they formed their teams, and newly-assigned team leaders and team members shared roughly the same status at the outset. Therefore I used each team leader’s performance on the business turnaround exercise as a measure of incoming leader status. To calculate this measure, I subtracted every person’s individual ranking of each of the issues from their team consensus ranking and calculated the sum of the differences for each person. This provided a measure of each individual’s influence on the team as a whole: the smaller the difference, the more impact they had on their team’s decision. I then formed a categorical variable for the incoming leader’s status. If the team leader had the smallest difference score among all members of the team, I coded the new leader’s status as high. If someone else on the team had a greater impact on the team decision, I coded the new leader’s status as low. I used this categorical variable in my analyses.

Leadership style. At the midpoint of the simulation I administered a team interaction survey to capture participants’ perceptions of their team leader. I measured leader attributes using items adapted from scales for communality and agency (Conway, Pizzamiglio, and Mount, 1996) and the Personality Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich, and Holahan, 1979; Eagly and Steffen, 1984). Participants rated each item on a 7-point scale, and responses were averaged to form a single score. All subsequent scales were created by averaging items, and used the same 1-7 response format unless otherwise noted.
Four items provided a measure of the team leader’s use of a directive leadership style. Items include, “To what extent is the team leader directive (regulates the team process or advocates a particular strategy decision)?”, “To what extent is the team leader assertive?”, “To what extent is the team leader able to make decisions easily?”, “To what extent is the team leader self-confident?” The reliability for the four scale items was adequate ($\alpha = .86$). I took the mean of these four items to form a measure of directive style perception. I then used a median split to form a categorical variable for leadership style which I used in my analyses.

**Dependent Measures**

Leader effectiveness. A single item measured team members’ perceptions of the leader’s effectiveness. I asked "How effective was the team leader in his/her designated role?"

Leader influence. I measured the team leader’s influence using two items, “To what extent was the team leader influential?” and “Imagine that the leader suggested an idea that was different from your own. How likely are you to change your mind?” The two items had a Cronbach’s $\alpha$ of .64.

Satisfaction with team. Two items measured each participant’s satisfaction with their team, “How satisfied have you been working with your team?” and “To what extent would you like to participate in another simulation with the same teammates?” The two items had a Cronbach’s $\alpha$ of .93.

Conflict resolution. In the interaction questionnaire that I administered at the midpoint of the simulation, I measured each team member’s perception of their team’s ability to manage conflict. The conflict resolution scale consisted of five items which asked the extent to which participants agreed with these statements: “Conflict is dealt with openly during our group interactions”, “Strategy-related disagreements are
encouraged in my team”, “Disagreements about the specific work being done are usually discussed and resolved”, “Relationship conflicts are usually discussed and resolved”, and “Disagreements about who should do what are usually discussed and resolved in my team.” The items had a Cronbach’s $\alpha$ of .82.

Influence rivalry. At the end of the semester I asked participants to rank their team members from most influential to least influential. I coded the response as an influence rivalry if an individual listed another team member, rather than the team leader, as the most influential person on the team.

Team performance. The simulation software captured measures of each team’s Return on Equity, Return on Investment, Market Capitalization, Market Share, Cumulative Profit, Return on Assets, Asset Turnover, and Stock Price. These measures were aggregated in the software to provide an overall measure of team performance.

Leader member exchange. As part of my exploratory study of these teams, I measured the quality of each team member’s relationship with the team leader. Although I didn’t theorize about these relationships specifically, I looked for these measurements to provide more detail around team interactions and members’ perceptions of their leaders. I used Graen and Scandura’s nine-item scale (Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp, 1982; Scandura and Graen, 1984) of Leader Member Exchange. Sample items include “How much do you agree with this statement? My working relationship with my team leader is effective.” and “My team leader recognizes my expertise.” This scale was highly reliable ($\alpha = .94$).
Results

Hypothesis Testing

Since this was an exploratory study, I began my analysis with an examination of the correlations between variables of interest. Table 3.1 presents means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and correlations among the variables.

Table 3.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations among Study 1 Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>s.d.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Leader status</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Directive leadership</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Leader member exchange</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Effectiveness</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Influence</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Satisfaction with team</td>
<td>6.04</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Conflict resolution</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale reliabilities are on the diagonal in boldface.
Correlations greater than .21 are significant at p < .05
Correlations greater than .30 are significant at p < .01.

Effectiveness. In Hypotheses 4a and 4b I predict that an incoming leader’s status will moderate the effects of leadership style on subordinates’ assessments of the leader’s effectiveness, such that low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors would be perceived as more effective than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 4a) and high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors would be perceived as less effective than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 4b).

ANOVA provided support for these hypotheses. Low status leaders who used highly directive process management behaviors were perceived to be more effective (M = 6.35, SD = .84) than low status leaders who used less directive leadership.
behaviors (M = 5.83, SD = 1.41), while high status leaders who used a highly directive style were perceived to be less effective (M = 5.53, SD = 1.55) than high status leaders who used less directive leadership behaviors (M = 6.13, SD = 1.30, F(1,98) = 4.37, p < .05, see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness

Influence. In Hypotheses 5a and 5b I predict that leader status will moderate the effects of leadership style on subordinates’ assessments of the leader’s influence, such that low status leaders who used more directive process management behaviors would be perceived as more influential than low status leaders who used a less directive style (Hypothesis 5a) and high status leaders who used more directive process management behaviors would be perceived as less influential than high status leaders who used a less directive leadership style (Hypothesis 5b).
ANOVA revealed a pattern of results similar to those for effectiveness (see Figure 3.2).

![Figure 3.2: Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Influence](image)

Low status leaders who used highly directive process management behaviors were perceived to be more influential ($M = 5.61$, $SD = .97$) than low status leaders who used less directive leadership behaviors ($M = 5.08$, $SD = .97$), while high status leaders who used a highly directive style were perceived to be less effective ($M = 4.99$, $SD = 1.08$) than high status leaders who used less directive leadership behaviors ($M = 5.68$, $SD = 1.24$, $F_{(1,98)} = 7.93$, $p < .01$, see Table 3.2).
Table 3.2: ANOVA Results for the Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Low Status Team Leader</th>
<th>High Status Team Leader</th>
<th>F – test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low Directive Style</td>
<td>High Directive Style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 33)</td>
<td>(N = 28)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Effectiveness</td>
<td>5.83 (1.41)</td>
<td>6.35 (.84)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leader Influence</td>
<td>5.08 (.97)</td>
<td>5.61 (.97)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                    | Low Directive Style    | High Directive Style    |          |
|                    | (N = 18)               | (N = 20)                |          |
| Leader Effectiveness | 6.13 (1.30)           | 5.53 (1.55)             | .94      |
| Leader Influence   | 5.68 (1.24)            | 4.99 (1.08)             | .96      |

* p < .05; two-tailed test.  
** p < .01; two-tailed test.  
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.

Influence rivalry. Almost half (45 out of 99) participants in this study reported an influence rivalry; that is, they viewed another team member as being more influential than the team leader. Hypothesis 11 predicts that low status leaders who establish assigned objectives and who use emergent process management behaviors will be more likely to experience influence rivalries with subordinate group members than low status leaders who either allow team member participation in establishing objectives or use directive process management behaviors, or both. While this study was not designed to test the impact of goalsetting behavior, it did allow me to test the effects of leadership style on the likelihood of an influence rivalry. Since the dependent measure was dichotomous (influence rivalry occurred or did not), I used binary logistic regression analysis to test the impact of leadership style. Hypothesis 11 was supported by this analysis; among low status leaders, using a more directive style significantly reduced the likelihood of a subordinate team member emerging as a rival source of influence to the team leader (B = -.75, Wald = 3.41, p < 0.05, one-tailed).
Satisfaction with team. I predict that team members who experience influence rivalries will be less satisfied than team members who do not experience influence rivalries (Hypothesis 12). Analysis of participants’ level of satisfaction with their teams supports this hypothesis. Participants who perceived an influence rival were less satisfied with their teams (M = 5.78, SD = 1.36) than participants who did not perceive an influence rival (M = 6.27, SD = .91, F\(_{(1,98)}\) = 4.53, p < .05).

Conflict resolution. ANOVA revealed a main effect for leader status and leadership style on team members’ assessments of their team’s ability to manage conflict. Teams led by high status leaders had lower ratings (M = 5.27, SD = 1.16) than leaders who had low status (M = 5.64, SD = .87, F\(_{(1,98)}\) = 3.62, p < .05, one-tailed). Also, teams led by directive style leaders had higher conflict resolution ratings (M = 5.66, SD = 1.01) than leaders who were less directive (M = 5.34, SD = .98, F\(_{(1,98)}\) = 3.17, p < .05, one-tailed, see Table 3.3). The interaction of leader status and style had no significant effect on ratings of conflict resolution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3.3: ANOVA Results for the Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Conflict Resolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent Variable</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict Resolution</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05; one–tailed test.  
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.
Team performance. Finally, although I did not specifically predict the effects that leader status and style or a rival source of influence would have on team performance, this study enabled me to examine these effects. I aggregated team members’ perceptions of leader status, leadership style, and influence rivalry to come up with a categorical measure of each variable for each team. I then conducted an ANOVA at the group level, examining the impact of each factor on group performance. My analysis revealed no significant effect for any of these variables. Upon further investigation the only significant correlation I found was between team performance and conflict resolution behavior.

I aggregated conflict resolution ratings from the members of each team to form a group-level measure. Using this measure in a linear regression, I found that teams that were better at resolving conflict in their team interactions performed better overall in the business simulation (standardized $\beta = .38$, $t_{(24)} = 1.95$, $p < .05$, one-tailed).

Leader Member Exchange. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that incoming leader status and leadership style had significant main effects on team members’ assessments of their relationship with the leader. Leaders who had high status when they started working with their team members had lower quality LMX relationships ($M = 5.73$, $SD = 1.07$) than leaders who had low status ($M = 6.07$, $SD = .81$, $F_{(1,98)} = 4.06$, $p < .05$, see Table 3.4). Also, leaders who used a more directive leadership style had higher quality relationships ($M = 6.26$, $SD = .73$) than leaders who were less directive ($M = 5.64$, $SD = 1.00$, $F_{(1,98)} = 14.03$, $p < .01$).
Table 3.4: ANOVA Results for the Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Leader Member Exchange Relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Low Status Team Leader</th>
<th>High Status Team Leader</th>
<th>F – test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low Directive Style</td>
<td>High Directive Style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 33)</td>
<td>(N = 28)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>5.86 (.89)</td>
<td>6.31 (.64)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.27 (1.09)</td>
<td>6.17 (.86)</td>
<td>4.06*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05; two–tailed test.
** p < .01; two–tailed test.
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.

Discussion

The main goal of Study 1 was to identify some of the mechanisms that might lead to an influence rivalry and to determine how that rivalry would impact the team. Hypotheses predicting the impact of leader status and leadership style on perceptions of effectiveness and influence were supported in this study. Overall, I found that team leaders who had low status when they took charge of their teams were perceived more favorably when they used a more directive leadership style. Team leaders who had high status at the outset received higher ratings when they acted in a less directive manner.

While these findings are encouraging, it is important to recognize that they are purely correlational in nature. The study was exploratory; there were no manipulations of any of the variables of interest and there was no controlling for extraneous factors, so identification of causal mechanisms is purely inferential. None of the team leaders were clearly high or low status, and none of them acted in a purely directive fashion. This is evidenced by the finding that a more directive style had a positive impact on leader member exchange relationships. Even though some leaders were more directive
than others, they were clearly engaging in other relationship-maintaining behaviors as well.

I found that team members’ perceptions of their teams and their leaders varied widely. In the team interaction survey I asked for comments. One team member responded “I LOVE my team! We all work so well together and everyone has something different but important to contribute to this project. We all listen to each others ideas and support opinions. My team leader is great as well, I’m lucky to be in this group!” This team was led by a high status, highly directive leader. Another respondent, in a team led by a low status, low directive leader, was less enamored of the team leader: “Her personality is way too passive. Other people function as team leaders even though the title belongs to her.” Clearly, this respondent experienced an influence rivalry, and was not shy about looking to other team members for guidance and direction.

Almost half of the participants reported a rival source of influence within their teams. This was not necessarily a bad thing. Although influence rivalries negatively affected satisfaction with the team, there was no significant detriment to team performance. In fact, the practice of looking to another team member for guidance and leadership may have been more than an individual perception. Recall that the team leaders in this study were peers with the members of their teams. They had no special skills or experience to recommend them for the leader role, and some of them were uncomfortable and reluctant serving in that capacity. In one team the leader abdicated leadership responsibility entirely and the team agreed upon and formally installed a replacement. This case would be recorded as occurrence of an influence rivalry, but it was openly discussed and was not an artifact of team members’ perceptions.

This points to the role that conflict resolution plays in team performance. Teams that were better able to manage their conflict performed better in the business
simulation. I submit that one of the conflicts they might have had to resolve is “who’s in charge here?” In some cases, resolving this issue successfully may have entailed handing the reins over to someone other than the assigned leader. In some cases, selecting the right person for the job and accepting this person as rival source of influence may have been beneficial for team performance.

Although this exploratory field study provided valuable insight into how leader status and leader behaviors affect influence patterns in hierarchical teams, it does not provide a controlled test of my hypotheses. For one thing, incoming team leaders’ relative status was unclear; they were essentially peers with their team members. Also, most team leaders did not use a purely directive or emergent style. By and large, team leaders seemed content to let the team process manage itself. Even if they had been inclined to impose their will in a more directive manner, team leaders had limited power. Because these were teams of students rather than, say, employees in a firm, the political and organizational pressures for team members to remain loyal to a leader were nonexistent, and there was low cost associated with ignoring the team leader’s guidance.

Testing the causal relationships in my theoretical model requires a rigorous study in which I can control the independent variables and isolate their effects. To satisfy these requirements, I designed an experimental study using an interactive video vignette. This study is discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 4
EFFECTS OF LEADER STATUS AND LEADER BEHAVIOR: STUDY 2

Study 2 was an experiment using an interactive video vignette designed to test how a leader’s status and behaviors affect team members’ perceptions of fairness, satisfaction, commitment, effectiveness, and influence. Vignette methodology allows me to control the situation and to narrow in on a particular set of team leader behaviors. As I’ve discussed in an earlier section, the extant literature on leadership behaviors is both plentiful and widely varied, but nowhere does it provide a concise definition or illustration for directive and emergent styles. Therefore the literature offers little help for an experimental design. Using a vignette, I am able to control leader behaviors precisely in order to operationalize the constructs as I’ve laid them out in my model. I can manipulate the different factors and see how people would react if they were in that situation, enabling me to draw clear relationships between the independent variables and the outcomes. The vignette study allows me to measure affective and cognitive reactions to leader status and behaviors, which enables me to test hypotheses 1 through 10.

Participants and Demographics
143 people participated in this study. I solicited participants via email from lists of current and former business school students and colleagues. Respondents were paid $10 for their participation. The mean age of participants was 29.5 years old (SD = 7.2), mean years of work experience was 6.5 years (SD = 6.6), and mean years of supervisory experience was 3.0 (SD = 3.7). 49 participants were female (34% female) and 94 (66%) were US citizens. Their education and job types also varied. The majority of participants (57%) were MBA students or MBA alumni. Of the non-
MBAs, 37 were graduate students or had graduate degrees. In total, 120 participants (84%) were MBA or graduate students or alumni. Participants classified themselves in more than 20 different job functions, ranging from CEO of a startup company to homemaker. The most heavily represented function was in finance/accounting, with 35 participants (24.5%) classifying themselves in that field. 19 participants (13.3%) came from sales/marketing, 19 (13.3%) came from operations/logistics, and 16 participants (11.2%) came from the management/administrative area. Nine participants (6.3%) came from research and development, eight (5.6%) came from IT/software development, and seven participants (4.9%) came from the consulting field. All other areas were represented by five or fewer participants.

**Task and Procedure**

This study was conducted entirely online. Participants received an email message with instructions to first read a scenario description, then to follow embedded links to two separate video clips and an online survey. In the scenario, participants were asked to play the role of a member of a management consulting team, interacting with a video-recorded team leader and two other team members engaged in a complex decision-making task. The team was part of Synergetic Consulting, Inc., a small firm that specializes in providing management consulting in the high tech manufacturing industry. Participants were told that they had been working at Synergetic for about two years as a consultant on various projects, and for the past six months they had worked as part of an engagement team with two other team members, Laura and Brian, and an engagement team leader, David. Laura had been with Synergetic for just over 3 years; Brian had been with the company almost 4 years. Participants were told that the team leader, David, had taken a job in the company’s Chicago office after the successful completion of the team’s most recent project, and their new team leader, Matt
Reynolds, is due to join the team this morning. Participants were told that the team would start working on a new engagement this morning, developing a turnaround plan for GlobalTech Corporation’s Westside production facility, which had been plagued by problems.

Participants first read the scenario description above, and then watched a video filmed from the first person perspective such that the participant played the role of a team member interacting with other team members. The video opens with a shot of two people, Brian and Laura, in a small conference room. They exchange pleasantries with each other and with the participant as they pour themselves some coffee and offer a cup to the participant. Laura asks Brian if he’s heard anything about the incoming team leader, at which point Brian produces the new team leader’s bio that he pulled from the company website. Brian hands a copy of the bio to Laura and another copy to the camera, and reads aloud, providing information about the new team leader’s name (Matt Reynolds), age, alma mater, and prior work experience. Soon after, the video shows the new team leader entering the room and introducing himself to the three members of his team. After watching this video clip, which lasted less than two minutes, participants responded to a set of questions which asked them to recall information about the team leader’s age and education and which asked about their perceptions of each of team member’s status.

Participants then watched another interactive video segment which lasted about five minutes. In this segment, participants saw the team leader establish the team’s objectives for the Westside plant turnaround plan. In addition, they saw the leader manage the team’s work activities and interaction process as they developed the plan. At the end of the video, participants responded to questionnaire items measuring their perceptions of the leader and other team members.
Design and Manipulations

Study 2 used a 2 x 2 x 2 design with manipulations of the incoming leader’s status (high vs. low), establishment of objectives (assigned vs. participative), and style of managing the team’s interaction process (directive vs. emergent). The same three actors played Matt, Laura, and Brian in each of the eight videotaped conditions.

Leader status. I manipulated the incoming leader’s status through his biographical information, dress, and appearance. In the high status condition, the biography of the new team leader, Matt, states that he is 38 years old, received his MBA from Stanford, and had worked for Bain and McKinsey before coming to Synergetic. In addition, he’d been with Synergetic for almost five years and had developed strategies for Nikon’s two most recent product launches. When the actor portraying Matt appears in the video he is dressed in a well-tailored navy blue suit with a conservative tie, wears fashionable wire-rimmed glasses and an expensive gold watch, and carries a leather briefcase.

In the low status condition, Matt’s bio states that he is 32 years old, has an MBA from Baruch, and had worked for HP and Accenture before coming to Synergetic. He’d been with Synergetic for almost six months and had developed strategy for one recent product launch. In the video, the same actor portrays Matt, but he is dressed in business casual, wearing a light blue shirt and khaki pants, no glasses, and a black sports watch, and he has the strap of a messenger bag slung on his shoulder.

Establishment of objectives. I manipulated the team leader’s goalsetting behavior through the dialogue of the team leader and subordinate team members. In the assigned objectives condition, the team leader states

“Now, you may have your own ideas, but after reviewing the Initial Assessment Report and the Financial Information, it’s clear to me that the biggest
problem in this plant is that the cost of direct labor is too high. Supervision of direct labor, turnover, and absenteeism are all excessive. Therefore, our objective for this engagement is to lower direct labor costs by at least 7 percentage points, so that it makes up no more than 20% of sales. We also need a plan to reduce employee turnover and absenteeism each by 50%. We need to plan our work around getting to those targets.”

In the participative objectives condition, the team leader states “Now, I have my own ideas, but I would like to know what you think our objective should be. After reviewing the Initial Assessment Report and the Financial Information, what do you consider to be the biggest problems in this plant?” Laura and Brian respond with specific ideas for what the objective for this engagement should be. Brian suggests “I think we need to figure out a way to lower direct labor costs by at least seven percentage points, so that it makes up no more than 20% of sales.” Laura says “And we should come up with a plan to reduce employee turnover and absenteeism each by 50%.” The team leader accepts their recommendations, saying “Okay, I guess we should plan our work around getting to those targets.” Note that Laura and Brian recommend the exact same objectives as those in the assigned condition (i.e., lower direct labor costs by seven percent and reduce employee turnover and absenteeism each by 50 percent).

Leadership style. I manipulated the team leader’s style of managing the team process through the dialogue of the team leader and subordinate team members. In the directive condition, the team leader says “Laura, I want you to come up with more detail around why absenteeism and turnover are so bad. Call the HR manager at the Westside plant and get an updated set of numbers. I want absentee rates and turnover numbers for the last three quarters. Brian, you look at the financial reports and figure
out which items go into accounting for direct labor costs. Then contact the GlobalTech accountants and see if you can get a more detailed breakdown of costs.”

The scene fades to black as the team members get to work. Later, the team leader asks “How you doing with those absentee rates and turnover numbers Laura?” Laura responds “Well, I emailed the Westside HR manager but I haven’t heard back yet.” The team leader replies “Go ahead and call them. They might be slow in responding to email. After that, I want you to contact the consulting team that did the Initial Assessment Report and ask them for transcripts of the original interviews, and see what you find there.” He then asks “How are you doing with the direct labor breakdown Brian? How much more time do you need?” Brian replies “I’m working through the numbers now; should be done in a half hour or so.” The team leader responds “Okay, when you get the breakdown, I want you to figure out how much each employee absence costs in terms of direct labor. Then figure out an estimate of the cost associated with turnover. How much does it cost to find, hire, and train a replacement? Laura, let Brian know what the absentee and turnover numbers look like for the past three quarters so he can work those into his calculations.”

Later, the team leader says “After you’ve collected all of your information, I want each of you to draft a short proposal for me, laying out a list of options for how we’re going to get the Westside plant to lower direct labor costs by at seven percentage points and reduce employee turnover and absenteeism each by 50%. Your proposal should outline the options and the costs of implementing each, and should have a timeline with specific milestones. I’ll look at the options and decide which items to include in the turnaround plan we put together for the client.”

In the emergent condition, the team leader begins by asking “How would you like to approach this? What do you think we should do?” Laura replies “I’ll come up with more detail around why absenteeism and turnover are so bad. I’ll contact the HR
manager at the Westside plant and get an updated set of numbers for absentee rates and turnover for the last three quarters.” Brian says “And I’ll look at the financial reports and figure out which items go into accounting for direct labor costs. I can contact the GlobalTech accountants and see if I can get a more detailed breakdown of costs.” The scene fades to black as the team members get to work.

Later, the team leader asks “How’s it going?” Laura responds “Well, I emailed the Westside HR manager but I haven’t heard back yet, so I’m go ahead and call them. They might be slow in responding to email. After that, I’ll get in touch with the consulting team that did the Initial Assessment Report and ask them for transcripts of the original interviews, and see what I can find there.” Brian adds “I’m working through the numbers on the direct labor breakdown now; I should be done in a half hour or so. When I get the breakdown, I’ll figure out how much each employee absence costs in terms of direct labor. Then I’ll figure out an estimate of the cost associated with turnover - how much it costs to find, hire, and train a replacement. Laura, can you tell me what the absentee and turnover numbers look like for the past three quarters so I can work those into my calculations?”

Later, Brian suggests “After we get all of our information, let’s each draft a short proposal, laying out a list of options for how we’re going to get the Westside plant to lower direct labor costs by at seven percentage points and reduce employee turnover and absenteeism each by 50%. We should outline the options and the costs of implementing each, and we should have a timeline with specific milestones.” Laura adds “Once we have the proposals, we can all look at the options together and decide which items to include in the turnaround plan we put together for the client.”
Dependent Measures

Fairness. I measured fairness perceptions using four items adapted from scales of procedural justice (Moorman, 1991; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993) and procedural fairness (Tyler and Caine, 1981; Tyler et al., 1985). Participants rated each item on a 7-point scale, and responses were averaged to form a single score. All subsequent scales were created by averaging items, and used the same 1-7 response format unless otherwise noted (see Appendix B for a detailed description of study materials). Items include, “How were team members treated by the team leader during this task?”, “To what extent were the procedures used by the team leader fair?”, “How fair were the decision making procedures used by Matt, the team leader, to develop the plan?”, and “How fair were the task delegation procedures used by the team leader?” The reliability for the four items was adequate (α = .85).

Satisfaction with the leader. I measured respondents’ satisfaction with the leader using three items: “How satisfied are you with Matt’s leadership?”, “To what extent would you like to work on a real project with Matt as your team leader?”, and “To what extent is Matt a good choice for team leader?” This scale was sufficiently reliable (α = .95).

Affective commitment. I adapted items from Meyer and Allen’s (1984) Affective Commitment Scale to assess commitment characterized by positive feelings of identification with and attachment to the team leader. The two item scale includes “If you were actually working on this team, how committed would you be to Matt as a team leader?” and “To what extent do you find Matt likeable?” Scale items were reliable (α = .88).

Effectiveness. I measured perceptions of the leader’s effectiveness using a two item scale, which included one item from the Leader Member Exchange (Graen et al., 1982; Scandura and Graen, 1984) scale. Items included “To what extent is Matt, the
leader, effective in the leadership role?” and “To what extent are team members’ working relationships with the team leader effective?” The two items had a Cronbach’s α of .66.

Influence. I measured the team leader’s influence using two items, “To what extent is Matt, the team leader, influential?” and “Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from Matt’s opinion. How likely would you be to defer to Matt’s opinion?” The two items had a Cronbach’s α of .35.

Commitment to objectives. I measured objective commitment with two items from Hollenbeck’s goal commitment scale (Hollenbeck, Oleary, Klein, and Wright, 1989; Hollenbeck, Williams, and Klein, 1989). Participants rated the extent to which they agree with the statements “The team members are strongly committed to pursuing the stated goals” and “It wouldn’t take much to make team members abandon the stated goals (reverse scored).” The two items had a Cronbach’s α of .67.

Results

Manipulation Checks.

Leader status. To evaluate the effectiveness of the incoming team leader’s status manipulation, I asked participants: “How much status does Matt, the team leader, have in this team?” and “To what extent is Matt, the team leader, high status?” the two items had a Cronbach’s α of .51. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that participants in the high-status condition perceived the new team leader as having higher status (M = 4.80, SD = 1.15) than did participants in the low-status condition (M = 3.81, SD = 1.18, F(1,142) = 25.65, p < .001).

Establishment of objectives. Participants answered two questions to verify the manipulation of the incoming team leader’s goal setting behavior. When asked “To what extent did the team leader establish the objectives for working on this task?”
participants in the assigned objectives condition gave a higher rating than participants in the participative objectives condition (M = 6.08, SD = 1.22 vs. M = 4.19, SD = 2.05, F(1, 142) = 45.65, p < .001). When asked “To what extent did the team leader allow team members to participate in setting the objectives for this task?” participants in the assigned objectives condition gave a lower rating than participants in the participative objectives condition (M = 2.13, SD = 1.60 vs. M = 5.04, SD = 1.86, F(1,142) = 100.58, p < .001).

Leadership style. I used ten questions to verify the manipulation of the incoming team leader’s behavior. Exploratory factor analysis revealed that the items formed two factors with an eigenvalue over 1.00. The first factor, comprised of items indicating a directive leadership style, explained 63 percent of the variance among the five items. Items included “To what extent did the team leader decide how the team would work on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader designate roles for working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader assign work activities to other team members while working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader determine the decision rules while working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader control the flow of information among team members?” The five items formed a reliable scale measurement of directive leadership (Cronbach’s α = .87).

The second factor, comprised of items indicating an emergent style, explained an additional 11 percent of the variance. Items included “To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to decide how the team would work on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own roles for working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to determine their own activities while working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own decision rules while working on this task?” and “To what extent did the team leader allow
information to flow freely among team members?” The five items formed a reliable scale measurement of an emergent process management style; Cronbach’s $\alpha = .93$ (see table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Factor Analysis of Leader Behaviors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
<th>Component 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader decide how the team would work on this task?</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>-.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to decide how the team would work on this task?</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader designate roles for working on this task?</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>-.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own roles for working on this task?</td>
<td>-.40</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader assign work activities to other team members while working on this task?</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>-.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to determine their own activities while working on this task?</td>
<td>-.39</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader determine the decision rules while working on this task?</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>-.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own decision rules while working on this task?</td>
<td>-.24</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader control the flow of information among team members?</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>-.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To what extent did the team leader allow information to flow freely among team members?</td>
<td>-.43</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

ANOVA showed a significant main effect for the new leader’s behavior. Participants in the directive leader condition perceived the new team leader as being more directive than did participants in the emergent leader condition ($M = 5.54, SD = 1.09$ vs. $M = 3.04, SD = 1.35$, $F_{(1,142)} = 147.51, p < .001$). Participants in the directive leader condition also perceived the new team leader as having less of an emergent
style than did participants in the emergent leader condition (M = 2.43, SD = 1.25, vs. M = 5.49, SD = 1.24, F\(_{(1,142)} = 215.36, p < .001\).

**Hypothesis Testing**

Table 4.2 presents means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and correlations among the variables.

**Table 4.2: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations among Study 2 Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>s.d.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Leader status</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Establishment of objectives</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Directive leadership style</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Emergent leadership style</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-.58</td>
<td>-.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Fairness</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.36</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Satisfaction With leader</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Affective commitment</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Effectiveness</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Commitment to objectives</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.36</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale reliabilities are on the diagonal in boldface. Correlations greater than .16 are significant at p < .05, and correlations greater than .23 are significant at p < .01.

As expected, perceptions of fairness, satisfaction, and commitment were affected by leadership style, supporting Hypotheses 1 - 3. What was unexpected was
the sizeable, often negative, impact of goalsetting behavior. Assigning team objectives was negatively correlated with perceptions of fairness, leader satisfaction and affective commitment, ratings of effectiveness, and commitment to the team’s objectives. Team members’ perceptions of fairness will be higher in teams whose leaders use emergent process management behaviors than in teams whose leaders use directive process management behaviors (Hypothesis 1). I tested this hypothesis with a between-subjects ANCOVA, controlling for leader status and goalsetting behavior. In support of the hypothesis, participants judged the leader as more fair when he used an emergent style (M = 4.34, SD = 1.34) than when he used a directive style (M = 3.83, SD = 1.38, F(1,142) = 5.50, p < .05). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. The manipulation of the incoming team leader’s behavior resulted in a significant decrease in perceptions of fairness when he used a directive leadership style.

*Satisfaction with the leader.* Team members will be more satisfied with leaders who use emergent process management behaviors than with leaders who use directive process management behaviors (Hypothesis 2). Between-subjects ANCOVA revealed higher levels of satisfaction when the new team leader used an emergent style (M = 3.24, SD = 1.68) than when he used a directive style (M = 2.64, SD = 1.48, F(1,142) = 4.69, p < .05). Thus, Hypothesis 2 is supported.

*Affective commitment.* Team members will be more affectively committed to leaders who use emergent process management behaviors than to leaders who use directive process management behaviors (Hypothesis 3). Once again, a between-subjects ANCOVA supported the hypothesis. Participants gave higher ratings for affective commitment to team leaders who used an emergent style (M = 3.55, SD =
1.64) than to leaders who used a directive style (M = 2.75, SD = 1.43, F(1,142) = 8.90, p < .05).

Figure 4.1 displays the effects of the different leadership styles on perceptions of fairness, satisfaction with the leader, and affective commitment to the leader.

![Figure 4.1: Effects of Leadership Style on Perceptions of Fairness, Satisfaction and Commitment](image)

Effectiveness. In Hypotheses 4a and 4b I predict that an incoming leader’s status will moderate the effects of leadership style on subordinates’ assessments of the leader’s effectiveness. Specifically, I predicted that low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors would be perceived as more effective than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 4a) and that high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors would
be perceived as less effective than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 4b). ANCOVA results showed a main effect for goalsetting behavior alone; the effects of leader status and leader style on perceptions of effectiveness were nonsignificant. Participants rated effectiveness higher when the new team leader asked team members to participate in setting the team’s objectives (M = 3.94, SD = 1.37) than when he assigned objectives (M = 3.31, SD = 1.31, F(1,142) = 7.43, p < .05, see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: ANCOVA Results for the Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Low Status Team Leader</th>
<th>High Status Team Leader</th>
<th>F - test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emergent Style (N = 41)</td>
<td>Directive Style (N = 31)</td>
<td>Leader Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
<td>3.74 (1.40)</td>
<td>3.65 (1.44)</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.77 (1.41)</td>
<td>3.29 (1.25)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, two-tailed test.
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.

Clearly, the impact of goalsetting behavior on perceptions of the leader is more sizeable than I had predicted. To further investigate this impact, I conducted an ANOVA with goalsetting included in a full factorial model. Results revealed a three-way interaction between leader status, leader style, and goalsetting behavior. In the participative objective condition, leader status and leadership style interacted to affect perceptions of leader effectiveness in the manner I predicted. Low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be more effective (M = 4.25, SD = 1.32) than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = 3.55, SD = 1.30), while high status leaders who used directive process
management behaviors were perceived to be less effective (M = 3.66, SD = 1.40) than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = 4.35, SD = 1.41, $F_{(1,67)} = 4.47, p < .05$, see Table 4.4). Simple effects tests yield no significant results for the impact of leadership style in either the low status (M = 3.55, SD = 1.30 vs. M = 4.25, SD = 1.32, $t_{(33)} = -1.57, ns$) or high status condition (M = 4.35, SD = 1.41 vs. M = 3.66, SD = 1.40, $t_{(33)} = 1.42, ns$). In addition, when I examined the pattern of the interaction by making pairwise comparisons using the Tukey multiple comparison procedure to control for the overall error rate, I found no significant contrasts between cells ($F_{(3,67)} = 1.55, ns$). Despite this, the interaction of leader status and leadership style is significant. Therefore, Hypotheses 4a and 4b are supported, but only in cases where the team leader asked team members to participate in setting objectives.

Table 4.4: ANOVA Results for the Effects of Goalsetting, Leader Status, and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goalsetting</th>
<th>Low Status Team Leader</th>
<th>High Status Team Leader</th>
<th>F - test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emergent Style</td>
<td>Directive Style</td>
<td>Leader Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>3.55 (1.30)</td>
<td>4.25 (1.32)</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>(N = 19)</td>
<td>(N = 16)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assigned</td>
<td>3.91 (1.49)</td>
<td>3.00 (1.32)</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>(N = 22)</td>
<td>(N = 15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, two-tailed test.
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.
In the assigned objectives condition, analysis of variance yields a different pattern of results (see Figure 4.2).

The interaction of leadership status and style is non-significant ($F_{(1,74)} = 1.68, ns$). In the low status condition, simple effects tests reveal a significant effect of leadership style on perceptions of effectiveness. Participants who saw a low status leader assign objectives to the team and then use a directive leadership style rated the leader as less effective ($M = 3.00, SD = 1.32$) than participants who saw a low status leader assign objectives and use an emergent style ($M = 3.91, SD = 1.49$, $t_{(35)} = 1.91$, $p < .05$, one-tailed). Simple effects tests in the high status condition yielded no significant effects for leadership style ($M = 3.16, SD = 1.15$ vs. $M = 3.02, SD = 1.09$).

**Figure 4.2: Effects of Goalsetting, Leader Status, and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness**
Finally, pairwise comparisons using the Tukey procedure yields no significant contrasts between cells ($F_{(3,74)} = 2.36$, $ns$).

The pattern of results indicates that when an incoming team leader assigned objectives to the team, low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less effective than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors, while leadership style had no impact on perceptions of effectiveness for high status leaders. Thus, Hypotheses 4a and 4b are not supported in cases where the team leader assigned objectives without team member participation.

**Influence.** In hypotheses 5a and 5b I predict that an incoming leader’s status will moderate the effects of leadership style on assessments of influence. Low status leaders who use directive process management behaviors will be more influential than low status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 5a). High status leaders who use directive process management behaviors will be more influential than high status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 5b). Results from an ANCOVA, controlling for the goalsetting manipulation, revealed a main effect for both leader status and leader style on perceptions of leader influence. Overall, participants rated the high status team leader as more influential ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.22$) than the low status team leader ($M = 3.753$, $SD = 1.24$, $F_{(1,142)} = 6.5$, $p < .05$, see Table 4.5).
The interaction of status and style did not have a significant effect on perceptions of leader influence ($F_{(1,142)} = .81$, $ns$). Simple effects tests provide some support for the hypothesis, however. A comparison of means in the low status leader condition alone reveals a significant effect of leader style on perceptions of influence. Among participants who saw the low status leader, those who saw a directive leadership style rated the leader’s influence as higher ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.24$) than those who saw an emergent style ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.20$, $F_{(1,71)} = 3.84$, $p < .05$, one-tailed). Thus, Hypothesis 5a is supported; low status leaders who use directive process management behaviors are perceived to be more influential than low status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors. Among participants who saw the high status leader, leadership style had no significant impact on perceptions of influence. Figure 4.3 displays these results.
Participants who saw a directive leadership style rated the leader’s influence about the same as those who saw an emergent style ($M = 4.20, SD = 1.37$ vs. $M = 4.43, SD = 1.08, F_{(1,71)} = .47, ns$). Thus, Hypothesis 5b is not supported; high status leaders who use directive process management behaviors are not perceived to be less influential than high status leaders who use emergent process management behaviors.

**Fairness mediation.** In Hypothesis 6a I predicted that perceptions of fairness will mediate the relationship between leader status and behavior and leader effectiveness. I conducted the mediation analysis using Kenny and colleagues’ four-step procedure (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998). In the first step, I look for a relationship between leader status and style and subordinates’ perceptions of effectiveness (independent variable to the dependent variable). In the second step, I demonstrate a relationship between leader status and style and
subordinates’ perceptions of fairness (independent variable to the mediator). Third, perceptions of fairness must predict perceptions of effectiveness (mediator predicting the dependent variable). Lastly, I must demonstrate that when controlling for perceptions of fairness, the effects of leader status and style become nonsignificant when predicting perceptions of effectiveness (the independent variable becomes nonsignificant in predicting the dependent variable when controlling for the mediator).

Since goalsetting behavior had such an impact on perceptions of effectiveness, and since the interaction of leader status and leader style had a significant effect only in cases where goals were set participatively, I limit the mediation analysis to the participative objectives condition. As I’ve already discussed, ANOVA revealed a significant interaction effect for leader status and leader behavior on subordinates’ perceptions of effectiveness ($F_{(1,142)} = 5.08, p < .05$). This satisfies step 1 of the mediation analysis. The requirements for step 2 were met with an analysis of the impact of leader status and style on subordinates’ perceptions of fairness. Low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be more fair ($M = 4.84$, $SD = 1.65$) than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors ($M = 4.17$, $SD = 1.23$), while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less fair ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.19$) than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.29$, $F_{(1,67)} = 5.69, p < .05$, see Figure 4.4).
In step 3, regression revealed that perceptions of fairness had a significant impact on perceptions of effectiveness (standardized $\beta = .75$, $t_{(67)} = 9.13$, $p < .001$). Finally, in step 4, full mediation is demonstrated if the effects of the independent variables are reduced to nonsignificance when controlling for the mediators. When I included fairness in the model, the interaction effect for leader status and leader behavior on subordinates’ perceptions of effectiveness was no longer significant ($F_{(1,67)} = .271, ns$). Therefore, in cases where the team leader asked for participation in establishing the team’s objectives, Hypothesis 6a is supported: perceptions of fairness fully mediate the relationship between leader status and style and perceptions of leader effectiveness.

In Hypothesis 6b I predicted that perceptions of fairness will mediate the relationship between leader status and behavior and leader influence. Hypothesis 6b is not supported, since the requirements for step 1 of the mediation analysis are not met:
the interaction of leader status and leader style did not have a significant effect on perceptions of leader influence \( F_{(1, 142)} = .81, ns \).

**Effects of goalsetting.** In Hypotheses 7a and 7b I argued that team members are most likely to perceive a lack of fairness when the incoming team leader directs both the goalsetting process (i.e., assigns the team’s objectives) and the interaction process, and that this will impact their assessments of the leader most strongly when the leader has high status to begin with. Specifically, I predict that high status leaders who establish assigned objectives and use directive process management behaviors will be viewed by team members as less effective than high status leaders who either allow team member participation in establishing objectives or use emergent process management behaviors, or both (hypothesis 7a). To test this hypothesis, I selected only the cases where the participants saw a high status leader and made pairwise comparisons using Tukey’s procedure to control for the overall error rate. Only one of the pairwise differences was significant: high status leaders who assigned objectives and used a directive style were rated as less effective \( M = 3.02, SD = 1.09 \) than high status leaders who both allowed team member participation in establishing objectives and used an emergent leadership style \( M = 4.35, SD = 1.41, q = 3.28, p < .05 \). High status leaders who assigned objectives and used a directive style were not rated as significantly less effective than high status leaders who either used participative goalsetting \( M = 3.66, SD = 1.40, q = 1.53, ns \) or used emergent process management behaviors \( M = 3.16, SD = 1.15, q = .32, ns \). Thus, Hypothesis 7a received only partial support.

I also used pairwise comparisons to test whether high status leaders who assigned objectives and used a directive style would be less influential than high status leaders who used either participative goalsetting or an emergent leadership style
(Hypothesis 7b). Tukey’s procedure yields no significant contrasts between cells \( F_{(3,70)} = 1.99, \text{ns} \), therefore Hypothesis 7b is not supported.

**Commitment to objectives.** Team members will be more committed to objectives that are assigned by high status leaders than by low status leaders (Hypothesis 8). To test this prediction, I selected cases where the team leader assigned objectives and used ANCOVA, controlling for leader style, to test for an effect of leader status. There was no significant difference between ratings of objective commitment for high status leaders (M = 3.59, SD = 1.20) and low status leaders (M = 3.91, SD = 1.51, \( F_{(1,74)} = .20, \text{ns} \)). Therefore this hypothesis was not supported.

I also predict that in teams that are led by a low status leader, team members will be more committed to participative objectives than to assigned objectives (Hypothesis 9). ANCOVA, controlling for leader style, supported this hypothesis. Participants rated commitment higher when the leader asked for team member participation in setting objectives (M = 4.51, SD = 1.15) than when the leader simply assigned objectives (M = 3.91, SD = 1.51, \( F_{(1,71)} = 4.26, p < .05 \)).

**Goalsetting effects on effectiveness and influence.** In Hypotheses 10a and 10b I predict that low status leaders who allow team member participation in establishing objectives will be viewed by team members as more effective (Hypothesis 10a) and more influential (Hypothesis 10b) than low status leaders who assign objectives. ANCOVA, controlling for leader style, provides no support for hypothesis 10a. Low status leaders who used a participative goalsetting process were seen as no more effective (M = 3.87, SD = 1.34) than low status leaders who assigned objectives (M = 3.54, SD = 1.47, \( F_{(1,71)} = 1.01, \text{ns} \)).
Hypothesis 10b is unsupported as well. Low status leaders who allowed team member participation in establishing objectives were perceived to be no more influential ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 1.33$) than low status leaders who assigned objectives ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.15$, $F_{(1, 71)} = 1.04$, $ns$).

Therefore I can conclude that the manner in which a new team leader establishes the team’s objectives has no effect on perceptions of the leader’s effectiveness and influence when the leader has low status.

**Discussion and Supplemental Analyses**

The main goal of Study 2 was to test how a leader’s status, leadership behavior, and manner of establishing objectives affect team members’ perceptions of fairness, satisfaction, commitment, effectiveness, and influence. In addition, I identified and tested for processes that mediate these relations.

In summary, I found support for Hypotheses 1 – 3. Participants reported higher levels of fairness, satisfaction, and commitment for the team leader who used an emergent leadership style than for the team leader who used a directive style. In addition, in cases where the team leader used participative goalsetting, I found that the interaction of leader status and style affected these perceptions. Although using a directive style had an overall negative impact, the effect was moderated by the leader’s status, such that being directive was acceptable for low status leaders. I asked participants “To what extent was the team leader’s behavior acceptable?” ANOVA analysis of their responses revealed that it was more acceptable for low status leaders to use a directive style ($M = 4.88$, $SD = 1.46$) than to use an emergent style ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 1.71$), while it was more acceptable for high status leaders to use an emergent style ($M = 4.88$, $SD = 1.86$) than a directive style ($M = 4.38$, $SD = 1.26$, $F_{(1, 66)} = 4.99$, $p < .05$).
My analyses also demonstrated that goalsetting behavior has a significant impact on affective and cognitive reactions to certain types of leader behavior. In the same way that leadership style affected perceptions of fairness, satisfaction, and commitment, tests of hypotheses 1-3 revealed a strong main effect for goalsetting behavior. This leads me to explore corollaries to these hypotheses, substituting establishment of objectives for leadership style. If an incoming team leader assigns objectives to a team, rather than asking for participation from team members, the impact on perceptions of fairness, satisfaction, and commitment will be the same as using a directive leadership style. Similarly, a leader who asks for participation in setting objectives will be perceived in a similar manner to a leader who uses an emergent leadership style.

ANCOVA analyses of the effects of goalsetting support these post hoc hypotheses. Participants rated fairness higher when the new team leader asked team members to participate in setting the team’s objectives (M = 4.67, SD = 1.39) than when he assigned objectives (M = 3.57, SD = 1.15, F(1,142) = 26.70, p < .05).

Participants were more satisfied with the team leader who asked team members to participate in setting the team’s objectives (M = 3.25, SD = 1.77) than with the leader who assigned objectives (M = 2.68, SD = 1.42, F(1,142) = 4.48, p < .05).

Finally, participants reported higher levels of affective commitment for the team leader who used participative goals (M = 3.47, SD = 1.64) than for the leader who assigned goals (M = 2.89, SD = 1.50, F(1,142) = 4.84, p < .05, see Figure 4.5).
The manner in which a new team leader sets the team’s objectives sets the tone for their entire interaction. When a new boss comes in and states “now I have my own ideas, but I want to know what you think we should work toward”, team members feel that the goals they have been working toward under the old boss are valid and legitimate. When a new boss comes in and states “you may have your own ideas, but here is what we should be working toward”, team members feel an unspoken criticism of the direction they had been going. The new leader is implying that the status quo is no longer valid or correct.

I also found support for Hypotheses 4a and 4b, but only in cases where the team leader asked team members to participate in setting objectives. In these cases, low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived
to be more effective than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors, while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less effective than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors. This pattern of results is consistent with the findings from study 1, where team members judged directive behavior to be effective only when the leader had low status.

Hypothesis 5a was supported; the low status leader who used directive process management behaviors was perceived to be more influential than the low status leader who used emergent process management behaviors. Hypothesis 5b was not supported; the high status leader who used directive process management behaviors was not perceived to be less influential than the high status leader who used emergent process management behaviors. This is in contrast to the results from the first study, where high status, highly directive leaders were rated as less influential. This difference might be attributed to the lack of organizational pressures to accept the leader’s influence in Study 1; team members who judged a leader’s behavior as ineffective were quick to ignore the leader’s influence. The difference might also be an artifact of the different study designs: participants watching a video in Study 2 may have felt less of a sting from the high status leader’s directive behavior, so his influence ability suffered less of a detriment due to negative socio-emotional reactions.

Further investigation of the impact of goalsetting reveals an interaction with leadership style to affect perceptions of a new team leader’s influence. ANOVA with goalsetting included in a full factorial model revealed a two-way interaction between leadership style and goalsetting behavior. Team leaders who asked team members to participate in setting objectives and then used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be more influential (M = 4.33, SD = 1.13) than leaders who used participative goalsetting and emergent process management behaviors (M = 3.42, SD

78
= 1.45), while team leaders who assigned objectives and used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be no more influential (M = 4.22, SD = 1.20) than team leaders who assigned objectives and used an emergent style (M = 4.20, SD = 1.06, F(1,142) = 5.96, p < .05, see Figure 4.6).

Hypothesis 6a was supported in cases where the team leader asked for participation in establishing the team’s objectives. In these cases, perceptions of fairness fully mediated the relationship between leader status and style and perceptions of leader effectiveness. Hypothesis 6b was not supported; the interaction of leader status and leader style did not mediate perceptions of leader influence.

I found partial support for Hypothesis 7a. The high status leader who assigned objectives and used a directive style was rated as less effective than the high status leader who used both participative goalsetting and an emergent leadership style, but

Figure 4.6: Effects of Goalsetting Behavior and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Influence

Hypothesis 6a was supported in cases where the team leader asked for participation in establishing the team’s objectives. In these cases, perceptions of fairness fully mediated the relationship between leader status and style and perceptions of leader effectiveness. Hypothesis 6b was not supported; the interaction of leader status and leader style did not mediate perceptions of leader influence.

I found partial support for Hypothesis 7a. The high status leader who assigned objectives and used a directive style was rated as less effective than the high status leader who used both participative goalsetting and an emergent leadership style, but
was rated as no less effective than the leader who used either one or the other. Hypothesis 7b was not supported; high status leaders who assigned objectives and used a directive style were perceived to be no less influential than high status leaders who used either participative goal-setting or an emergent leadership style, or both.

I found no support for Hypothesis 8; there was no significant difference between ratings of objective commitment for high status leaders and low status leaders who assigned the team’s goals. However, Hypothesis 9 was supported; in teams that were led by a low status leader, team members were more committed to participative objectives than to assigned objectives.

Hypotheses 10a and 10b were not supported; low status leaders who allowed team member participation in establishing objectives were perceived to be neither more effective nor more influential than low status leaders who assigned objectives. I attribute this effect to respondents’ perceptions of the incoming leader’s willingness to take charge of the team and to assert himself in the leader role. Assertiveness has a curvilinear impact on subordinates’ perceptions of leader effectiveness (Ames and Flynn, 2004). In addition to testing the relationships outlined in my theory, I used this study to examine the effects that perceptions of a leader’s assertiveness had on perceptions of effectiveness and influence, and to shed some light on the mechanisms underlying Ames and Flynn’s finding. In addition to the dependent variables of interest for the current research, I asked participants to rate the degree to which the team leader asserted himself and took control of the team. I asked “To what extent is Matt, the team leader, assertive?” and “To what extent is Matt, the team leader, micro-managing?” The two items had a scale reliability of $\alpha = .68$.

When I regressed perceptions of the leader’s assertion on perceptions of effectiveness, I found marginal evidence of a negative linear relationship ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .1$), but the quadratic fit was significant (see Table 4.6).
Table 4.6: Regression Results for the Effects of Leader Assertiveness on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equation</th>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>Parameter Estimates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>df₁</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Cases</td>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Status Leader</td>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>4.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Status Leader</td>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, team leaders who were perceived to be very low or very high in assertiveness received less favorable assessments from participants. Taking a closer look by investigating the relationships for high status and low status leaders separately, I found that among high status leaders, there was no curvilinear effect for assertiveness. Instead, the relationship between assertiveness and effectiveness was purely linear and negative ($\beta = -.20, p < .05$). In cases where the incoming leader had low status, the relationship was purely curvilinear.

When I regressed perceptions of the leader’s assertion on perceptions of influence, I found evidence of strong positive relationships, both linear and quadratic. Overall, team leaders who were perceived to be high in assertiveness received more favorable assessments from participants, and the most influential leaders were neither very low nor very high in assertiveness. Looking at the relationships for high status and low status leaders separately yielded no difference to this pattern (see Table 4.7).
Table 4.7: Regression Results for the Effects of Leader Assertiveness on Perceptions of Leader Influence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equation</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df₁</th>
<th>df₂</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>β₁</th>
<th>B₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Cases</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>17.91</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>10.32</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Status Leader</td>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>10.51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Status Leader</td>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>-.08</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

This serves as another demonstration that perceptions of leader effectiveness and leader influence are not the same, a finding that is consistent throughout these analyses. This has implications for both theory and practice which I will discuss in Chapter 6.
CHAPTER 5
EFFECTS OF LEADER STATUS AND LEADER BEHAVIOR: STUDY 3

I learned a number of things from my first two studies, and the design for Study 3 builds on these lessons. For one thing, the vignette design used in Study 2 provided a good test of the mechanisms laid out in my theoretical model, but participants responded to questionnaire items based on how they thought they would behave in a given situation, rather than how they actually behaved. People might react very differently to a hypothetical context than to a real organizational context, and I wanted to test my hypotheses with measurements of actual behavior. Therefore, I designed my third study to involve face to face interactions and interdependent work with team leaders and other team members. Also, I wanted to make the pressure to adhere to the team leader’s guidance more salient than it was in the first two studies, so I gave leaders a bonus which they could pay out to individual team members based on their contribution. In addition, I wanted to measure team performance in a controlled experimental setting. The first study measured team performance, but I had no control over the independent variables. Study 2 provided control, but the vignette methodology didn’t allow for a measure of performance. My third study solves these problems. Finally, I learned from Study 2 that the leader’s goalsetting behavior sets the tone for the entire team interaction, and that a leader-directed goalsetting style overshadows other leadership behaviors, such that I only saw effects in the participative goals condition. Therefore, I dropped the goalsetting manipulation from my third study, and focused on the manipulations of leader status and style.

Study 3 is an experiment in which participants work as members of a 4-person team to complete a complex online adventure game called the Mystery of Time and Space (MOTAS). One participant in each team is designated as leader and attempts to
lead the team through as many levels of the game as possible in the allotted time. The study uses a 2 x 2 design with manipulations of leader status (high or low) and interaction process (directive or emergent). At the end of the task, participants respond to questionnaire items measuring perceptions of fairness, satisfaction with leader, affective commitment, leader influence and effectiveness, and team member influence. The experimental study allows me to measure team members’ affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions to leader status and style, which enables me to test hypotheses 1 through 6, 11, and 12. In addition, I am able to examine the effects of leader status and style on overall team performance. Hypotheses 7 – 10 concerned goalsetting behavior and commitment to objectives. These hypotheses were not tested in this study.

Participants and Demographics

216 people participated in this study. I solicited participants through the Business Simulation Lab at Cornell’s Johnson School. Participants were paid $20 and entered into a lottery for a cash award in exchange for their participation. Participants were arranged in 54 four-person teams, each with a team leader and three subordinates. Thus, there were 162 participants who worked as subordinate team members; these are the respondents of interest for all of the individual dependent measures used in this study. Among participants who worked as subordinate team members, the mean age was 20.8 years old (SD = 2.9), mean years of work experience was 2.8 years (SD = 2.7), and mean years of supervisory experience was 1.0 (SD = 1.7). 86 participants were female (53% female). The majority of participants listed their race or ethnicity as Caucasian (43%), followed by Asian/Asian-American (35%), Indian (7%), Black/African American (4%), and Hispanic/Latino (4%).
**Task and Procedure**

Participants signed up for the study ahead of time and arrived at the lab in groups of four. One of the four was then designated as the team leader and the other three as subordinate team members. The three subordinates went into a separate room where a research assistant trained them on how to play the online computer game. The designated leader stayed in the main room with me, and I trained the leader on how to play the game and how to manage the team process.

Team member training. In the team room, subordinate team members received 15 minutes of training. At the start of their training, each person wrote their name on a nametag and affixed it to their shirt. They were then told the team leader’s name, academic year, and major, and that he/she was enrolled in a leadership course at the business school. Team members received these instructions (see Appendix C for a detailed description of study materials):

“The three of you will spend the next 15 minutes learning how to play the game. You will then be joined by your team leader, who has also received training on the game. Working together under your team leader’s guidance, your team will attempt to get through as many levels of the adventure game as possible in the allotted time. Your score will depend on how many levels you complete successfully, how quickly you maneuver through the game, and how efficiently you manage your movements.

The objective of this exercise is to get through as many levels as possible in the time allotted while using the fewest number of mouseclicks. If you find yourself struggling to complete a level, you can buy a HintCard which will help you to continue. Each HintCard ‘costs’ 15 mouseclicks. That is, for every HintCard you buy, 15 mouseclicks will be added to your total.
Someone in the team should be in charge of moving the mouse and clicking on items in each room. Someone should keep track of the items you find and the messages that appear at the bottom of the screen. Someone must keep track of the number of times you click on the mouse.”

The instructions given to team members also provided them with tips on strategy for playing the game and using HintCards:

“Performance is measured determined by the number of levels your team clears in the allotted time and the number of mouseclicks you use. You should focus on minimizing the time it takes you to clear a level, ignoring the number of mouseclicks. This means you should click on every item to see whether or not it’s useful, and you should buy a HintCard immediately if you get stuck.

You should focus on searching furniture and cabinets, wall-hangings and plants, and you should explore each room on a level thoroughly before moving to the next room. This way you can gather all available items before attempting to use them to continue.”

Team members then spent the next 15 minutes working as a three-person team to complete the first three levels of the game. At the end of their training, members completed a short questionnaire (entitled “Team Member Pre-Task Questionnaire,” see Appendix C) and awaited the incoming team leader.

Team leader training. I gave team leaders these instructions:

“You will lead a 4-person team of students who will soon be working together to complete an online adventure game. You will spend the next 15 minutes training on the game. You will then join the other three members of
your team, who have also received 15 minutes of training. We have told your team members that you are enrolled in a leadership course at the business school, and that students in the course participate in this computer game exercise as a way to practice their team leadership skills.”

I then coached the team leader on how to manage the team interaction process, either directly or emergently. I told the leader that team members should fill the roles of Mouse Controller, Recorder, Click-Counter, and HintCard Purchaser. I also provided tips on strategy, which were different from those received by team members:

“Your team performance is based on how many times you have to click the mouse to make your way through each level, so focus on minimizing the number of mouseclicks, even if it means taking extra time to plan each move.

Remember that each HintCard will cost 15 mouseclicks, so be absolutely sure you need a hint before purchasing a HintCard. You should exhaust all possibilities before wasting mouseclicks on a HintCard.

Most levels have a number of rooms; you should pass through each room on a level to get the “big picture” before exploring each room thoroughly. This will give you a better idea how to use the items once you find them. After you have a better idea of the “big picture”, go through each room thoroughly looking for hidden items.”

Team leaders spent the next 15 minutes working through the first three levels of the game. At the end of their training, leaders completed a short questionnaire, donned a nametag, and moved to the other room to join their teams. Before they started work, I reminded the teams of the payout structure for the exercise:
“You will be paid the base amount for you time today, but you also have the chance to earn more based on your performance on the game. Your total payment will be based on team performance; that is, how well your team performs compared to other teams. This is measured in two ways: number of mouseclicks used and number of levels cleared. You and each of your teammates can earn up to an additional $5 each for team performance.

In addition, the team leader can award a bonus to each of the team members, based on how well they contributed to the group’s overall performance. The leader will have a bonus pool of $11 which he/she can allocate as he/she sees fit.”

I then gave the team leader five minutes to meet team members, develop a plan, and set up the team. At the end of this time, teams started work on Level 4 of the game. They played for 20 minutes, during which the experimenter interacted with the team only to provide HintCards upon request.

At the end of their time, participants moved away from the game and completed a ranking task. They were given a picture of what looked to be two more MOTAS rooms and received these instructions:

“As you reach the next level, you find yourself in this Billiards Room; with a Storage Room through the door to the left and an unknown room through the door to the right (see the pictures).

Your task is to rank the 11 items or actions (listed on the next page) that are potentially useful. Rank them according to the order of importance and the order in which you will click on them with your mouse as you attempt to move through this level (i.e., determine the best way to spend your mouseclicks). Start with a “1” for the most important/first click, to “11” for the
least important/last click. You will notice that each room offers the option to buy a HintCard; you should include this in your ranking.

Without discussing with others, rank the 11 items in the order of importance and the order in which you will click on them with your mouse as you attempt to move through this level. Record your individual ranking in the first column.”

Participants were then told to rejoin their teammates, and under the leader’s supervision, to reconsider the 11 items and come up with a new set of rankings on a consensus basis. After they completed the team consensus ranking, participants completed a final individual ranking, recording what they believe to be the correct ranking for the items.

The entire team interaction was video recorded, from the team leader’s initial introduction to the completion of the team consensus ranking. Participants then moved to individual computer terminals to complete a detailed questionnaire.

**Design and Manipulations**

Study 3 used a 2 x 2 design with manipulations of the incoming leader’s status (high vs. low) and style of managing the team’s interaction process (directive vs. emergent). Unlike in the second study, I did not manipulate the leader’s goalsetting behavior.

Leader status. I manipulated the incoming team leader’s status by changing their undergraduate/graduate category and major. In the low status condition, participants were told that the team leader was an undergraduate student majoring in communications. Participants were also told that the team leader was enrolled in the
Foundations Leadership Course at the business school, which is an elective open to all
students in the university.

In the high status condition, I told participants that the team leader was a
graduate student in the MBA program. Participants were also told that the team leader
was enrolled in the Foundations Leadership Course at the business school, which is
open only to specially selected students based on academic merit and demonstrated
leadership potential.

Because my high status leader manipulation used an MBA cover story, my
selection of participants to play the role of high status leader was not random. Instead,
in the interest of plausibility, I selected the most senior person among each group of
participants to play the role of high status leader. Therefore there was a significant
difference between the average ages of high status (M = 23.2, SD = 3.2) and low
status leaders (M = 19.9, SD = 2.0, t_{51} = 4.57, p < .01). There were no other
demographic differences between conditions; gender, race, and academic major were
evenly distributed across all conditions.

Leadership style. I manipulated the incoming team leader’s style through the
instructions I gave during their leader training. In the directive condition, I told
leaders:

“Prior research has found that the most effective way to lead a team on
a complex problem-solving task such as this is to use a directive leadership
style. That is, as team leader, you should direct the activities of all of your
team members, rather than letting them decide for themselves how they should
work together. This does not mean that you need to be heavy-handed or
dictatorial, but you have to let your team members know that you're in charge.
The complexity of the task requires strong leadership if your team is to
succeed. Your “enrollment” in the Foundations Leadership Course means that
your teammates will expect you to use a directive style, and if you bear this in
mind you are more likely to be successful.

You will have 5 minutes to set up your team and come up with a plan for playing the game. To aid you in directing your team’s process, here are some actions you should take as a leader:

- Determine decision rules. As team leader you should have the final say in determining when and where to click the mouse.
- Assign work activity. Team members should only do the things you tell them to do, and should not take it upon themselves to do anything.
- Designate member roles and assign each team member to fill a role. At a minimum, you will want to assign the following roles:
  - Mouse Controller. You should be sure this person only clicks on those items that you designate.
  - Click-Counter.
  - Recorder.
  - HintCard Purchaser. This person decides if and when you want to buy a HintCard, and this is the only person authorized to buy HintCards. You may want to reserve this role for yourself to avoid spending mouseclicks unnecessarily.”

In the emergent condition, I told leaders:

“Prior research has found that the most effective way to lead a team on a complex problem-solving task such as this is to use an emergent leadership style. That is, as team leader, you should allow the team process to emerge, letting the members of your team decide for themselves how they want to work together, rather than directing their specific activities. This does not mean that
you shouldn’t be involved in the process, but you have to give your team members the freedom to work as they see fit. The complexity of the task requires everyone’s input if your team is to succeed. Your responses on the leadership questionnaire indicate that you are well suited to use an emergent style, and if you bear this in mind you are more likely to be successful.

You will have 5 minutes to set up your team and come up with a plan for playing the game. To aid you in allowing your team’s process to emerge, here are some actions you should take as a leader:

- Ask team members how they would like to approach the adventure. Let the team members establish a strategy for navigating each level, and let them determine when and where to click the mouse.
- Do not assign work activity. Let team members take it upon themselves to do things.
- Allow team members to select their own roles. They will probably take on the following roles:
  - Mouse Controller. This is the person who moves the mouse and clicks on items in each room.
  - Click-Counter. This person keeps track of the number of mouseclicks you spend, either by clicking items or by buying HintCards.
  - Recorder. This person keeps track of all the items you find on each level and the messages that appear when you click on items.
  - HintCard Purchaser. This person decides if and when you want to buy a HintCard, and this is the only person authorized to buy HintCards.”
Dependent Measures

Fairness. I measured fairness perceptions using the same four items I used in study 2. Participants rated each item on a 7-point scale. Participants rated each item on a 7-point scale, and responses were averaged to form a single score. All subsequent scales were created by averaging items, and used the same 1-7 response format unless otherwise noted. Items include “How fair were the decision making procedures used by the Team Leader to develop the plan for completing the task?”, “How fair were the task delegation procedures used by the team leader?”, “To what extent were the procedures used by the team leader fair?”, and “To what extent did the team leader consider other team members’ opinions when working on this task?” The reliability for the four items was high (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .91$).

Satisfaction with the leader. I measured respondents’ satisfaction with the leader using three items, “How satisfied are you with the team leader’s leadership?”, “To what extent would you like to work on another project with the team leader?”, and “To what extent is the team leader a good choice?” This scale was sufficiently reliable ($\alpha = .96$).

Affective commitment. I measured commitment to the leader using two items similar to those used in study 2. Items included “If you were to continue working on this team, how committed would you be to the team leader?” and “To what extent do you find the team leader likeable?” Scale items were reliable ($\alpha = .83$).

Effectiveness. I measured perceptions of the leader’s effectiveness using a four item scale, which included two items which were the same as those in study 2. Items included “To what extent is the leader effective in the leadership role?”, “To what extent are team members’ working relationships with the team leader effective?” Participants also rated the extent to which they agree with the statements “The team
leader was successful in leading us through the adventure game” and “The team leader did a good job in his/her role.” Scale items had high reliability ($\alpha = .94$).

Influence. I measured the team leader’s influence through the team members’ perceptions as well as their behaviors. To measure perceptions, I asked “To what extent is the team leader influential?” I also used the scores from the ranking task as a behavioral measure of the extent to which each team member was influenced by the leader. To calculate this measure, I subtracted each team member’s initial rankings from the team leader’s initial rankings and used the sum of these differences to determine how much agreement each member had with the team leader before the team discussion. I then subtracted each team member’s final ranking from the team leader’s initial ranking and compared it to the initial separation to determine how much the leader was able to move each individual toward his/her opinion, as a percentage. Finally, I divided this number by the amount of variance in the team members’ initial rankings, since it takes more influence on the leader’s part to sway team members whose opinions are similar to one another.

Influence rivalry. At the end of the exercise, I asked participants “Who is the most influential member of the team?” Naming anyone other than the team leader indicated that the participant viewed someone else as a rival. This was a dichotomous measure; participants either perceived an influence rival or they didn’t.

Satisfaction with the team. In addition to satisfaction with the leader, I measured participants’ overall satisfaction with their teams. I asked “How satisfied were you working with this team?” and “To what extent would you like to work with these same teammates on another project?” The two items had an $\alpha = .90$.

Team performance. I measured team performance based how far teams progressed during the allotted time and the number of mouseclicks they used. Thus, team performance is measured as clicks per level (smaller is better).
**Results**

*Manipulation Checks.*

*Leader status.* To evaluate the effectiveness of the incoming team leader’s status manipulation, I asked participants at the end of their training, but before they’d met the leader “How much status do you expect the team leader to have in this team?”, “How much respect do you expect the team leader to have in this team?”, “How much prominence do you expect the team leader to have in this team?”, and “How much competence do you expect the team leader to have in this team?” The four items formed a reliable scale ($\alpha$ of .93) of overall status perception. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that participants in the high-status condition perceived the new team leader as having higher status ($M = 5.88$, $SD = .92$) than did participants in the low-status condition ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.31$, $F_{(1,161)} = 7.54$, $p < .01$).

*Leadership style.* To evaluate the effectiveness of the manipulation of the team leader’s style, I used the same ten questions I used in study 2. Five items measured a directive leadership style, and included “To what extent did the team leader decide how the team would work on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader designate roles for working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader assign work activities to other team members while working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader determine the decision rules while working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader control the flow of information among team members?” As in study 2, the five items formed a reliable scale measurement of directive leadership (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$).

Five items measured an emergent style, and included “To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to decide how the team would work on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own roles for working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader allow other
team members to determine their own activities while working on this task?”, “To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own decision rules while working on this task?” and “To what extent did the team leader allow information to flow freely among team members?” The five items formed a reliable scale measurement of an emergent leadership style ($\alpha = .85$).

ANOVA showed a significant main effect for the new leader’s behavior. Participants in the directive leader condition perceived the new team leader as being more directive than did participants in the emergent leader condition ($M = 3.96, SD = 1.18$ vs. $M = 3.55, SD = 1.31$, $F_{(1,161)} = 4.19$, $p < .05$). Participants in the directive leader condition also perceived the new team leader as having less of an emergent style than did participants in the emergent leader condition ($M = 4.89, SD = 1.17$, vs. $M = 5.59, SD = .90$, $F_{(1,161)} = 18.51$, $p < .001$).

**Hypothesis Testing**

Analytical approach. Participants in this study were nested in teams; therefore the data in the study are multilevel in nature, with leadership at the team level influencing individual perceptions and behaviors. Although I recognize that leaders may not be perceived in the same way by all team members, in this study I do not view leadership as a dyadic process, but rather as a group process. Therefore, the most appropriate analytical approach is one that takes into account the multilevel structure of the study. Thus, I use linear mixed models, controlling for team assignment, for all individual-level analyses. A benefit of this approach is that individual differences in team member reactions to the leader are treated as error. Team performance was measured at the group level and all other measures were taken at the individual level of analysis.
Table 5.1 presents means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and correlations among the variables that measured team members’ perceptions.

Table 5.1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations among Study 3 Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>s.d.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Leader status perception</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Directive style perception</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Emergent style perception</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fairness</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Satisfaction w/ leader</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Affective commitment</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Effectiveness</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Influence perception</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Satisfaction w/ team</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale reliabilities are on the diagonal in boldface. For variables other than Influence behavior, correlations greater than .16 are significant at p < .05, and correlations greater than .21 are significant at p < .01. For Influence behavior, correlations greater than .19 are significant at p < .05, and correlations greater than .26 are significant at p < .01.

*Fairness.* Team members’ perceptions of fairness will be higher in teams whose leaders use emergent process management behaviors than in teams whose leaders use directive process management behaviors (Hypothesis 1). Mixed model analysis, controlling for team assignment, lends support to the hypothesis. Participants rated fairness higher when the incoming team leader used an emergent style (M = 5.78, SD = 1.04) than when the leader used a directive style (M = 5.13, SD = 1.31, \(F_{(1,50)} = 9.30, p < .01\), see Table 5.2).
Table 5.2: Linear Mixed Model Results for the Effects of Leadership Style on Perceptions of Fairness, Satisfaction, and Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Emergent Style (N = 81)</th>
<th>Directive Style (N = 81)</th>
<th>F-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>5.78 (1.04)</td>
<td>5.13 (1.31)</td>
<td>.49 9.30**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with Leader</td>
<td>4.22 (1.60)</td>
<td>4.07 (1.52)</td>
<td>2.56 .38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>4.70 (1.46)</td>
<td>4.48 (1.43)</td>
<td>2.22 .79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, two–tailed test
** p < .01, two–tailed test
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.

Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. Using a directive leadership style resulted in a significant decrease in perceptions of fairness. This finding is consistent with the results from Study 2.

Satisfaction with the leader. Team members will be more satisfied with leaders who use emergent process management behaviors than with leaders who use directive process management behaviors (Hypothesis 2). Mixed model analysis revealed no significant difference in satisfaction with the leader, regardless of style. Satisfaction with team leaders who used an emergent style (M = 4.22, SD = 1.60) was the same as satisfaction with directive leaders (M = 4.07, SD = 1.52, F<sub>(1,51)</sub> = .38, ns). Thus, Hypothesis 2 is not supported.

Affective commitment. I predicted that team members will be more affectively committed to leaders who use emergent process management behaviors than to leaders who use directive process management behaviors (Hypothesis 3). This hypothesis was
unsupported; team leaders who used an emergent style (M = 4.70, SD = 1.46) received the same ratings for affective commitment as leaders who used a directive style (M = 4.48, SD = 1.43, F(1,51) = .79, ns). Leadership style had no impact on affective commitment or satisfaction with the leader in this study. These results are inconsistent with the results of Study 2, and I will discuss this finding in more detail in the section on post hoc analyses.

Figure 5.1 displays the effects of the different leadership styles on perceptions of fairness, satisfaction with the leader, and affective commitment to the leader.

![Figure 5.1: Effects of Different Leadership Styles on Perceptions of Fairness, Satisfaction and Commitment](image)

**Effectiveness.** In Hypotheses 4a and 4b I predict that an incoming leader’s status will moderate the effects of leadership style on subordinates’ assessments of the leader’s effectiveness, such that low status leaders who used directive process
management behaviors would be perceived as more effective than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 4a) and high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors would be perceived as less effective than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 4b). Mixed model analysis revealed that leader status and leader style interacted to affect perceptions of effectiveness.

Low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be more effective \((M = 4.52, SD = 1.18)\) than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors \((M = 4.19, SD = 1.29)\), while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less effective \((M = 4.16, SD = 1.51)\) than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors \((M = 5.06, SD = 1.35, F_{(1,50)} = 5.73, p < .05, \text{ see Table 5.3})\).

**Table 5.3: Linear Mixed Model Results for the Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness and Leader Influence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Low Status Team Leader</th>
<th>High Status Team Leader</th>
<th>F - test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emergent Style</td>
<td>Directive Style</td>
<td>Emergent Style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
<td>4.19 (1.29)</td>
<td>4.52 (1.18)</td>
<td>5.06 (1.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>((N = 42))</td>
<td>((N = 42))</td>
<td>((N = 39))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence Perception</td>
<td>4.24 (1.76)</td>
<td>4.88 (1.38)</td>
<td>5.18 (1.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>((N = 42))</td>
<td>((N = 42))</td>
<td>((N = 39))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* \(p < .05\), two–tailed test.  
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.
Pairwise comparisons using Tukey’s procedure to control for the overall error rate revealed significant contrasts between ratings of effectiveness for high status leaders who used an emergent style and high status leaders who used a directive style ($q = 2.98, p < .05$) and between high status leaders who used an emergent style and low status leaders who used an emergent style ($q = 2.92, p < .05$, see Figure 5.2).

**Figure 5.2: Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness**

*Influence perception.* Low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors would be perceived as more influential than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 5a) and high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors would be perceived as less influential than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (Hypothesis 5b). Mixed model analysis supports these hypotheses (see Table 5.3). Low status leaders who used a directive style were perceived to be more influential (M
= 4.88, SD = 1.38) than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = 4.24, SD = 1.76), while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less effective (M = 4.64, SD = 1.58) than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = 5.18, SD = 1.25, \( F_{(1,50)} = 4.25, p < .05 \), see Figure 5.3).

**Figure 5.3: Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Influence**

Pairwise comparisons using Tukey’s procedure revealed a significant contrast between ratings of influence for high status leaders who used an emergent style and low status leaders who used an emergent style (\( q = 2.80, p < .05 \), see Figure 5.3).

*Influence behavior.* The above results refer to subordinate team members’ perceptions of influence, as measured by responses to the question “To what extent is the team leader influential?” Results for the behavioral measure of influence, which used the sum of difference scores on the ranking task as a dependent measure,
followed the same pattern. Analysis of the mixed model revealed that low status leaders who used a directive style were perceived to be more influential (M = .032, SD = .049) than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = .013, SD = .049), while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less effective (M = -.002, SD = .069) than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = .022, SD = .055), but the interaction was not significant (F(1,50) = 3.12, ns, see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Linear Mixed Model and ANOVA Results for the Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Influence from Leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Low Status Team Leader</th>
<th>High Status Team Leader</th>
<th>F - test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emergent Style</td>
<td>Directive Style</td>
<td>Emergent Style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed Model</td>
<td>.013 (.036)</td>
<td>.032 (.049)</td>
<td>.022 (.055)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 42)</td>
<td>(N = 42)</td>
<td>(N = 39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Linear Model</td>
<td>.013 (.036)</td>
<td>.032 (.049)</td>
<td>.022 (.055)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 42)</td>
<td>(N = 42)</td>
<td>(N = 39)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, two-tailed test.
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.

However, since the calculation of the behavioral measure includes a measurement of the initial ranking variance for each team, I would argue that the effects of team membership are already accounted for. Therefore, it is appropriate to use analysis of variance with a general linear model to test these hypotheses. ANOVA reveals a significant interaction of leader status and style (F(1,161) = 6.52, p < .05).
Note that in the high status directive style condition, not only did team members find their leader less influential, but they actually moved away from the leader’s opinion (see Figure 5.4).

![Figure 5.4: Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Leader Influence](image)

The significant interaction effects of leader status and leadership style on leader influence are inconsistent with the findings from Study 2. Factors which might account for this difference are discussed in more detail in the next section.

*Fairness mediation.* Perceptions of fairness will mediate the relationship between leader status and behavior and leader effectiveness (Hypothesis 6a). I conducted the mediation analysis using Kenny and colleagues’ four-step procedure (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998). The first step is satisfied by the tests of Hypotheses 4a and 4b already discussed; leader status and leader behavior had a significant interaction effect for on subordinates’ perceptions of effectiveness. The requirements for step 2 were not met when I analyzed the impact of leader status.
and style on subordinates’ perceptions of fairness, however. Low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less fair (M = 5.19, SD = 1.15) than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = 5.58, SD = 1.00), while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were perceived to be less fair (M = 5.07, SD = 1.47) than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors (M = 6.01, SD = 1.03, F(1,50) = 1.63, ns, see Figure 5.5).

**Figure 5.5: Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Perceptions of Leader Fairness**

Since the interaction was not significant, I can conclude that Hypothesis 6a is not supported; perceptions of fairness do not mediate the relationship between leader style and perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Hypothesis 6b predicts that fairness will mediate the relationship between leader status and behavior and leader influence. Once again, since the interaction of status and style does not impact fairness perceptions, I can conclude that Hypothesis
6b is not supported; perceptions of fairness do not mediate the relationship between leader status and behavior and leader influence.

**Influence rivalry.** Hypothesis 11 predicts that low status leaders who establish assigned objectives and who use emergent process management behaviors will be more likely to experience influence rivalries with subordinate group members than low status leaders who either allow team member participation in establishing objectives or use directive process management behaviors, or both. While this study was not designed to test the impact of goalsetting behavior, it did allow me to test the effects of leadership style on the likelihood of an influence rivalry.

Since the dependent measure was dichotomous (influence rivalry occurred or did not), I used binary logistic regression analysis to test the impact of leadership style. Among low status leaders, using a directive style significantly reduced the likelihood of a subordinate team member emerging as a rival source of influence to the team leader (B = -0.92, Wald = 3.96, p < 0.05). Thus Hypothesis 11 is supported.

**Satisfaction with team.** I predict that team members who experience influence rivalries will be less satisfied than team members who do not experience influence rivalries (Hypothesis 12). Analysis of participants’ level of satisfaction with their teams did not support this hypothesis. Participants who perceived an influence rival were just as satisfied (M = 4.49, SD = 1.28) as participants who did not perceive an influence rival (M = 4.51, SD = 1.35, F(1,160) = 0.03, ns).

Finally, although my theory did not specifically predict the effects that an incoming team leader’s status and leadership style would have on team performance, this study enabled me to examine these effects. Using a performance measure of mouseclicks per level, ANOVA revealed that teams led by low status leaders who
used a directive style (M = 108.9, SD = 31.3) performed better than teams led by low status leaders who used an emergent style (M = 126.0, SD = 31.4), while teams led by high status leaders who used a directive style (M = 119.3, SD = 19.1) performed worse than teams led by high status leaders who used an emergent style (M = 92.5, SD = 12.8, F(1,53) = 10.19, p < .01, see Figure 5.6).

![Figure 5.6: Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Team Performance](image)

To provide a more clear interpretation of these results, I note that over all teams, the highest number of levels cleared was 3.12. With perfect knowledge of how to play the game and no wasted motions, a team would have to use 127 mouseclicks to clear 3.12 levels. Therefore, the absolute best score a team could achieve is 41 clicks per level. Actual scores in this study ranged from 61 to 178 clicks per level. In terms of the distance teams progressed through the game (regardless of mouseclicks), those led by high status leaders who used an emergent style went the farthest (M = 2.0)
levels, SD = .66), and teams led by high status directive style leaders progressed the least (M = 1.4 levels, SD = .27)

**Discussion and Post Hoc Analyses**

The main goal of Study 3 was to test how a leader’s status and leadership behavior affect team members’ perceptions of the fairness, satisfaction, commitment, effectiveness, and influence. Once again, we see that who an incoming team leader is affects reactions to what he or she does, and it’s clear that team members have similar perceptions of new leaders regardless of whether they are simply watching a video clip or interacting in real time to complete a complex task.

As I found in the vignette study, incoming leaders who used a directive leadership style were perceived to be less fair, regardless of their status. Unlike the results from study 2, I found no significant impact of the interaction of leader status and style on perceptions of fairness. I asked participants “To what extent was the team leader’s behavior acceptable?” Mixed model analysis of their responses yielded a main effect for style; an emergent leadership style was viewed as more acceptable (M = 5.98, SD = 1.08) than a directive style (M = 5.40, SD = 1.46, F(1,50) = 6.22, p < .05). Recall the results from study 2, where acceptability of the leader’s behavior depended on the interaction of style and status. I surmise that while participants who watched a video might have felt that it was acceptable for a low status leader to be directive, participants who confronted that behavior in person were less willing to accept it, and this impacted their perceptions of fairness. As I argued in the last chapter, I think that face to face interaction makes the “sting” of being told what to do by a newcomer more palpable, resulting in a more intense negative reaction.

Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported. Participants reported the same levels of satisfaction and commitment for team leaders who used an emergent leadership
style as they did for team leaders who used a directive style. Unlike perceptions of fairness, however, satisfaction and commitment were affected by the interaction of leader status and style (see Table 5.5).

Table 5.5: Linear Mixed Model Results for the Effects of Leader Status and Leadership Style on Satisfaction and Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Low Status Team Leader</th>
<th>High Status Team Leader</th>
<th>F - test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emergent Style</td>
<td>Directive Style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with Leader</td>
<td>3.75 (1.46)</td>
<td>4.13 (1.43)</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Leader</td>
<td>4.21 (1.34)</td>
<td>4.60 (1.34)</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emergent Style</td>
<td>Directive Style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.73 (1.61)</td>
<td>4.01 (1.63)</td>
<td>2.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Leader</td>
<td>5.23 (1.40)</td>
<td>4.35 (1.54)</td>
<td>2.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leader Status</td>
<td>Leader Style</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4.31*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to Leader</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>6.73*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, two-tailed test.
Means. Standard deviations in parentheses.

Once again, it is clear that team members consider who the leader is in their response to what the leader does. This is in contrast to the findings from Study 2, where leadership style alone accounted for difference in satisfaction and commitment. I submit that, because they were interacting in real time, participants in Study 3 were making an appraisal of the leader’s effectiveness when asked about satisfaction and commitment. Whereas perceptions of fairness are mostly emotional, perceptions of satisfaction and commitment called for more of a cognitive evaluation of how well the leader performed, and whether or not he or she was successful. This explanation would account for the similar patterns of results I witnessed for members’ perceptions of satisfaction, commitment, and effectiveness.
Hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported; low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were rated as less effective than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors, while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were less effective than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors. These findings are consistent with the results of the second study, but only for Study 2 cases where the leader asked for participation in setting objectives. This implies that incoming leaders, when left to their own devices, will not typically assign objectives to the team. Anecdotal evidence gleaned from watching the video-recorded team interactions supports this assertion. Most of the leaders in Study 3, regardless of status or style, either asked team members what they wanted to achieve or refrained from setting objectives altogether.

A look at team members’ reactions to the leader’s assertiveness help explain their perceptions of effectiveness. Regression analysis revealed an overall positive linear ($\beta = .30, p < .01$) and curvilinear relationship between assertiveness and effectiveness (see Table 5.6).

**Table 5.6: Regression Results for the Effects of Leader Assertiveness on Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equation</th>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>Parameter Estimates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>F 18.47, df$_1$ 1, df$_2$ 160, p-value .000</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>F 9.37, df$_1$ 2, df$_2$ 159, p-value .000</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>All Cases</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>High Status Leader</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear</td>
<td>Low Status Leader</td>
<td>2.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quadratic</td>
<td>Low Status Leader</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Investigating the relationships for high status and low status leaders separately, I found that among high status leaders, the relationship between assertiveness and effectiveness was purely linear and positive ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$). Why would assertiveness have a positive impact on effectiveness for high status leaders in this study when it had a negative impact in study 2? I submit that these reactions are specific to the type of task used in study 3, where there is recognition that decisiveness and quick action are crucial for team success. In these cases, assertiveness might be viewed as a valuable component of effectiveness, regardless of the potential for negative socio-emotional reactions. Absent the time pressures induced in this study, I don’t think high status leaders’ assertiveness would be viewed as favorably.

Hypotheses 5a and 5b were supported by an examination of team members’ cognitive and behavioral perceptions of influence. Low status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were more influential than low status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors, while high status leaders who used directive process management behaviors were less influential than high status leaders who used emergent process management behaviors. These results are different from what I found in Study 2, where leader status and leadership style each had a main effect on perceptions of influence, but the interaction was insignificant. The Study 3 results are consistent with Study 1, however. I submit that this difference is an artifact of the vignette methodology used in the second study. Participants who never had a face to face interaction with a team leader may have felt socio-emotional reactions less saliently than participants who actually worked as part of a team.

Hypothesis 6a was supported only in cases where the incoming team leader had high status; perceptions of fairness mediated the relationship between leader style and perceptions of leader effectiveness. Hypothesis 6b was not supported; the
interaction of leader status and leader style did not mediate perceptions of leader influence.

Hypothesis 11 was supported; low status leaders who used a directive style were less likely to have a subordinate team member emerge as a rival source of influence to the team leader. I also analyzed the impact of leadership style for high status leaders and found that among high status leaders, using a directive style did not significantly increase the likelihood of a subordinate team member emerging as a rival source of influence to the team leader (B = -.52, Wald = 1.29, ns). However, when I include the interaction of leader status and leadership style in the model, I found a significant main effect for status (B = .97, Wald = 4.27, p < .05), marginal significance for the effect of style (B = .92, Wald = 3.69, p < .1), and a significant interaction effect (B = 1.54, Wald = 5.25, p < .05).

I found no support for Hypothesis 12; the occurrence of an influence rivalry had no effect on team members’ satisfaction with the team. This implies that team members can be satisfied with multiple sources of influence within their team. This runs counter to the perceptions of team members who participated in the business simulation I discussed in Chapter 3, where the presence of an influence rival led to lower levels of satisfaction with the team.
CHAPTER 6
GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The manner in which an incoming team leader’s behavior and status interact to affect the leader’s ability to exert influence and effectively manage a team is an important area of organizational study. The same leadership style that works well for one new leader might sabotage another. While the body of leadership research that has focused on leader behaviors is vast, featuring thousands of studies covering a span of 75 years (Yukl, 2001), very little research has focused particularly on the situation where an incoming leader takes over an extant team. And while a huge number of other studies have explored how certain characteristics of the leader affect power and influence, none have looked at how leader status might moderate the impact of certain types of leadership behaviors on team member’s affective, cognitive, and behavioral reactions.

In this dissertation I explored how a new leader’s status interacts with style to affect the leader’s ability to influence his or her team. In doing so, I examined the processes that teams experience when encountering a new leader, and from these processes, I identified factors that influence team members’ evaluations of the leader. The results are clear and consistent across all three of my studies: each subordinate’s perceptions of what the leader does depend on who the leader is. In short, I argued and found that low status leaders are rated more favorably when they use a directive style, while high status leaders are better off using an emergent style. At the group level, the same interaction pattern occurs for dependent measures of team performance and team leader influence.
Theoretical Implications

My findings have significant theoretical implications for the study of power and status. A broad implication of these findings concerns the gain or loss of status that results from calling upon different bases of power to influence others in a group. I found that incoming leaders with low status were able to be effective and to influence subordinate team members when they “took charge” and told others what to do. Since these low status leaders had little personal power at the outset, they were relying purely on the authority vested in their position as leader. The higher ratings of influence that resulted from using a directive leadership style indicate that these leaders, by definition, had higher status after their interaction with their teams. Recall from my arguments in Chapter 2 that status equates to personal power. The results of my studies imply that low status individuals in a group setting are able to enhance their level of personal power by drawing upon whatever positional power they hold. I also found that when high status leaders exercised their authority with a directive style, they lost influence, decreasing their status. This would suggest that high status individuals are better off relying solely on their personal power to influence others in a group setting. This also implies that there is something of a Matthew Effect in the exercise of power in groups, whereby the use of position power leads to higher status which leads to more effective use of personal power which leads to even higher status. This underscores the changeable nature of status and influence relationships that exist in interdependent teams, and lends credence to the idea of viewing power as a dynamic integrative process (Kim, Pinkley, and Fragale, 2005).

This research has implications for the study of status characteristics as well. The long tradition of status characteristics research tells us that group members make attributions about one another as soon as they first meet (Berger et al., 1977), and continue to interpret status cues and develop a view of each other’s relative status as
the continue to interact (Flynn et al., 2001). Group members attribute status and reorder the status hierarchy based on their observations of others’ behaviors. Any individual with an initially low status position must demonstrate multiple examples of competence in order to mitigate their low status and to compel others to shift their status-based expectations of competence (Hollingshead and Fraidin, 2003). My research indicates that the assessment of these examples of competence is based not only on behavior, but on status as well. As I saw across all three studies, the same leader behaviors which garnered higher standing in one team led to lower standing in another, depending on the leader’s status. Examples of competence, and any behaviors for that matter, are subject to an appraisal which is clouded by status. Recent work has focused on how attributions concerning a leader’s assertiveness affect assessments of the leader’s effectiveness (Ames and Flynn, 2004). Like this previous research, I find that leader assertiveness has a curvilinear impact on perceptions of effectiveness; leaders who are not assertive enough or leaders who are too assertive are not viewed as being effective. However, unlike this previous research, I find that an incoming leader’s status moderates the nature of this relationship. For low status leaders, the relationship is curvilinear, but for high status leaders, the relationship is purely linear and negative. In other words, high status leaders don’t have to assert themselves in order to be viewed as effective; the personal power attributed to their high status is sufficient. An implication of this finding is that leader status not only moderates the impact of certain types of leader behaviors on team member’s perceptions, it also moderates the impact of certain leader attributions.

My research also extends the work on interpersonal influence in teams to an organizational setting. Across three studies I found that subordinates do not view leader influence and leader effectiveness in exactly the same manner. This implies that even though the ability to influence subordinate team members may be the sine qua
non of leadership, it does not necessarily equate to leadership effectiveness. A leader can be highly influential without being perceived as highly effective. For example, recall Captain William Bligh of the HMS *Bounty*: he was highly influential, a martinet controlling each and every aspect of his sailors’ lives, but he wasn’t highly effective. In fact, even though he was extremely influential, he was so ineffective that he precipitated what is probably the most famous influence rivalry in history, the mutiny on the *Bounty*. Clearly, there is an aspect of leader effectiveness that transcends an ability to influence subordinates. Recent leadership studies have focused on people who are dubbed “Level 5 leaders” (Collins, 2001). These are leaders who gain commitment to a clear and compelling vision, and who use personal humility to build “enduring greatness.” It’s not hard to imagine that many of the Level 5 attributes were embodied in the leaders I saw in my studies. Consider Matt Reynolds, from my video vignette, who gained commitment to a clear and compelling set of goals by asking for member participation in setting objectives for the team. Think of high status leaders in the team adventure study who, even thought they were clearly the highest status members of their teams from the moment they took charge, displayed humility by asking team members to participate in determining their own work activities. Level 5 leaders are described as possessing a “paradoxical mixture of personal humility and professional will” (Collins, 2001: 67). I submit that a high status leader who uses an emergent style is displaying personal humility, and a low status leader who uses a directive style is displaying professional will. Undoubtedly, these Level 5 qualities served to enhance perceptions of these new leaders’ effectiveness.

Just as influence does not necessarily equate to effectiveness, I also found that effectiveness does not equate to influence. Many of the incoming leaders I studied were perceived to be highly effective, but they were not necessarily the sole source of influence in their teams. In addition, I found that this influence rivalry is not
necessarily detrimental. In my first study I found that team members who experienced an influence rivalry were not as satisfied, but their team performance did not suffer appreciably. In my third study I found that the presence of a rival source of influence had no significant effect on satisfaction or on team performance. This implies that while group members draw inferences about an incoming leader’s attributes and seek to place the leader in the influence hierarchy almost immediately (Berger et al., 1980), they are able to deal with a situation where multiple group members are sources of influence. My examination of a pattern of influence relationships, with consideration of both leader and subordinate group members’ status and the relationships between group members, yields a better understanding how influence plays out in organizations.

**Managerial Implications**

I found that an incoming leader’s status and leadership style interact to impact a whole range of team members’ affective and cognitive appraisals. More significantly, at least from a managerial perspective, I found that leader status and style interact to affect objective measures of group success. Consider the performance of teams in study 3 who were led by high status leaders. Those leaders who used a directive style used, on average, 119 mouseclicks to clear each level. Leaders who used an emergent style cleared each level with 92 clicks. In other words, these teams were 29% more efficient. Now imagine that instead of mouseclicks per level, the performance measurement is dollars per unit in manufacturing cost, minutes per call in customer service, or bang per buck in any industry; a 29% increase in performance is huge. Self awareness on the part of a team leader, understanding where he or she stand in the status hierarchy, and selecting the appropriate leadership behaviors can have a significant impact on the bottom line.
Another implication of this research centers on the impact of goalsetting in a team environment, especially in the context of the incoming team leader. Prior research suggests that for teams that are engaged in new, complex tasks, allowing team members to set their own goals enhances commitment to the team’s objectives and the overall performance of the team (Durham et al., 1997). My research suggests that in cases where a new team leader is taking charge of an existing team, the impact of goalsetting goes well beyond goal commitment and performance. I found that for low status leaders, the manner in which the team leader establishes the team’s objectives has no effect on perceptions of the leader’s effectiveness and influence. But in cases where the incoming leader has high status, the manner in which the leader establishes the team’s objectives sets the tone for the entire team interaction. When the new leader assigns objectives, team members feel an implication that the direction they had been going is no longer valid or correct. From this point on, it doesn’t matter how the leader acts or what style the leader uses; the impact of group members’ initial reaction to the leader’s goalsetting behavior overshadows all other interactions.

New managers need to consider how they set the tone when they take over their teams. This is especially important when the new leader has high status, and has a lot to lose in terms of personal power. In study 2 I found that the manner in which the leader established the team’s objectives set the tone for the entire team interaction, and group members’ initial reaction overshadowed all subsequent interactions. I can’t say whether this impact is a function of goalsetting specifically or an artifact of my study structure, where goalsetting was the first order of business addressed by the new team leader. It’s likely that whatever a new team leader does and says at the very outset of the team’s interaction will set the tone for all future interactions. New leaders would be well advised to bear this in mind.
The studies in this dissertation look at a specific set of behaviors applied in a specific context; namely, interdependent teams working on complex tasks. Obviously, different situations demand a different type of leadership style. Leader behaviors that garner negative socio-emotional reactions for a high status consultant team leader may be seen as perfectly acceptable for a fire chief or a football coach. What managers should take away from this research is the importance of recognizing the context: is this business as usual or is the team in the middle of a crisis? Myriad leadership studies have looked at contingent leadership behaviors (for examples, see Jago, 1982; Bass, 1990), and my research is by no means intended to add another contingency. I merely submit that recognizing context in a very broad sense will help new leaders to adopt a style and set of behaviors that will be seen as appropriate and effective for the situation.

**Limitation and Directions for Future Research**

Like any study, the present research has limitations that leaves some questions unanswered, providing the opportunity for future research. Some of my findings were inconsistent across studies. I attribute these inconsistencies to weaknesses in the study methodology or to idiosyncrasies in the study design, but these are incomplete explanations. For example, one of the weaknesses in Study 1 was the lack of control over leader status and leader behavior. It would be interesting to see how the capstone simulation teams would respond if, at the midpoint of their semester, actual MBA students took charge of each of the teams, and used a specific leadership style which I had primed. In Study 2 I found that goalsetting behavior had a huge impact on perceptions of the leader. I would like to test whether this impact is due to the goalsetting process itself or because in my study the leader set objectives near the beginning of the video clip, thus setting a tone for the interaction. What would happen
if the objectives were established later in the interaction? Alternatively, are there other ways that a leader establishes him or herself as a directive or emergent type of leader? In these studies I took a broad look at the effects of certain leader behaviors, categorizing them as part of a directive or emergent leadership “style.” I would like to take a more fine-grained approach to studying particular aspects of each style, to determine whether the effects I see are a reaction to an entire leader persona or to one or two specific actions.

Secondly, I examined leader status and style factors interact in the context of an incoming team leader, but in future research I would like to look at these mechanisms in a long-term team setting. Does status continue to matter long when the team leader is no longer new? Does the assertiveness of a low status leader continue to have a curvilinear effect on perceptions of effectiveness, or does it take on a negative linear relation after a time? Alternatively, do team members become accustomed to a directive leader’s brusqueness and cease to have negative affective reactions to this behavior? Future research might look at the changeable nature of status and influence relationships in working groups, to examine whether there really is a Matthew Effect in the use of power.

Additional research opportunities should also examine the mechanisms that account for the team performance outcomes witnessed in study 3. As I watched teams working their way through the team adventure game, I observed different types of dysfunction in the way teams worked. Anecdotally, in teams led by high status directive leaders, it seemed that team members shut down and were unwilling to contribute. At times it looked like the high status directive leader was operating alone. In teams led by low status emergent leaders, it often seemed that there was a complete lack of control as team members clicked on anything and everything in their path.
Future research would take a closer look at these processes, examining how leader behaviors affect subordinates’ willingness and ability to contribute to a team process.

Finally, I want to conduct further research into the impact that influence rivalries have on team members and team performance. In the current research I found mixed results for the likelihood that influence rivalries will occur, and my results don’t allow me to draw inferences about their effects. An experimental study in which I explicitly manipulate the presence of an influence rivalry will provide insight into the findings from these studies. I foresee a future study using a video vignette design similar to that used in Study 2. In this case the actors would disagree about work activities or objectives, and one of the team members would emerge as a potential influence rival. Another study might use a design similar to that of Study 3, but with a confederate on the team who purposefully rivals the leader’s influence.

Conclusion

This dissertation examined how a newly-assigned team leader’s status and leadership behaviors interact to affect group members’ perceptions and group performance. In this research, I made distinctions between a leader-directed interaction process and an emergent process, and between leader-assigned and participative objectives. Across a field study and two experiments, I found that leaders who used directive behaviors were viewed as unfair, while some leaders who allowed a team process to emerge were viewed as unassertive. I also found that leader status moderated the effects of these behaviors, such that low status leaders were viewed more favorably when they used a directive style while high status were viewed more favorably when they used an emergent style. In addition, I found that teams whose leaders were viewed as being more effective performed better on a complex team task.
New leaders face a challenging task when they “take the reins” in their teams. They have to recognize where they stand and they have to determine when to let the team process emerge and when to rein it in. Understanding the nature of the interaction of leader status and leadership style and its impact on teams remains a critical endeavor, ripe for future research.
Team Interaction Questionnaire

The following questions concern your team process and interaction while you were working on the Capstone Simulation. Please answer the questions with your own team in mind, using the scale below.

How much conflict is there within your team?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
None A great deal

How often do people get angry while working within your team?

How much are personality clashes evident within your team?

To what extent do you disagree about the way to do things within your team?

How much interpersonal friction is there within your team?

To what extent do you work as a team (rather than individually)?

How cooperative are your group members?

How much cohesiveness or group spirit is there in your work group?

To what extent do you like the other members of your group?

To what extent would you like to participate on another simulation with the same group members?

How well do you know the other people in your group?

How close is your relationship to the other people in your group?

How satisfied are you working with your team?

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

My team works together in a well-coordinated fashion.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Strongly disagree Strongly agree

My team is very efficient with time.
If I could leave this team and work with another team, I would.

I would rate this team higher than other teams I have worked with at this university.

I feel strongly committed to my team.

It is easy to ask for advice from any member of this group.

My group members are very helpful.

I would be proud to tell others that I am part of this work group.

Conflict is dealt with openly during our group interactions.

Strategy-related disagreements are encouraged in my team.

Disagreements about the specific work being done are usually discussed and resolved.

Relationship conflicts are usually discussed and resolved.

Disagreements about who should do what are usually discussed and resolved in my team.

It is easy to talk openly to all members of this group.

I trust my team members completely.

I respect my team members.

I feel comfortable delegating important functions to my team members.

I feel that my team members can be counted on to help me.

My team members are competent.

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If you are the team leader, respond in the way you think your team members will respond to these questions.

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

I usually know where I stand with my team leader.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
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</table>

My working relationship with my team leader is effective.

My team leader recognizes my expertise.

My team leader has enough confidence in me that he/she would defend and justify my recommendations if I was not present to do so.
My team leader understands my problems and needs.

My team leader uses my suggestions.

My team leader takes action on things brought up by me.

My team leader is willing to make changes.

My team leader is open to feedback.

To what extent is your team leader effective in the leadership role? (if you are the team leader, Additional comments:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<th>A great deal</th>
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<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Considerate of other team members' opinions and ideas</td>
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<td>Directive (regulates the team process or advocates a particular strategy decision)</td>
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<td>Aware of other team members' feelings</td>
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<td>Able to make decisions easily</td>
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<td>Egotistical</td>
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<tr>
<td>Understanding of what is important for others</td>
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<td>Independent</td>
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<td>Competitive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dictatorial (makes decisions by him/herself)</td>
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<td>Self-confident</td>
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<td>Compassionate</td>
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<td>Participative (involves others in making decisions)</td>
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How much ____ does the team leader have in your group? (team leaders may ignore this question)

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<th>None at all</th>
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<th>A great deal</th>
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<td>Respect</td>
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<td>Influence</td>
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Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from the opinion of the team leader. How likely are you to give his/her opinion serious consideration?

How much ____ do you yourself have in your group?
- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence

Name another member of your team (first or last name is OK): ___________________

How much ______ does the person you just named have in your group?
- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from the opinion of the person you just named. How likely are you to give his/her opinion serious consideration?

Name another member of your team (first or last name is OK): ___________________

How much ______ does the person you just named have in your group?
- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from the opinion of the person you just named. How likely are you to give his/her opinion serious consideration?
360 Feedback Questionnaire

The following questions concern your perceptions of your teammates while you were working on the Capstone Simulation. Please answer the questions as thoroughly and honestly as possible.

How well do you think your team performed on the Capstone Simulation?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Very poorly Very well

How satisfied have you been working with your team?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Not at all Very much

To what extent would you like to participate on another simulation with the same teammates?

Please rank all of the members of your team (include yourself in the ranking) along the following dimensions:

Respect (list all team members, from most respected to least respected):

_____________________
_____________________
_____________________
_____________________

Status (list all team members, from highest status to lowest):

_____________________
_____________________
_____________________
_____________________

Influence (list all team members, from most influential to least influential):

_____________________
_____________________
Please name a member of your team (first or last name is OK): ___________________

How effective was this person in his/her designated role?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very ineffective  Very effective

How would you rate your relationship with this person?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I barely know this person  I know this person very well

How would you rate your relationship with this person?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I don’t dislike this person at all  I dislike this person a great deal

How would you rate your relationship with this person?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

We don’t get along  We’re great friends

Imagine that the person you just named suggested an idea that was different from your own. How likely are you to change your mind?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Stick with my own idea  Go with this person’s suggestion

How much _______ does this person have in your group?

- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence

Please name another member of your team (first or last name is OK): ___________________

How would you rate your relationship with this person?

How would you rate your relationship with this person?

Imagine that the person you just named suggested an idea that was different from your own. How likely are you to change your mind?
How much ______ does this person have in your group?
-Respect
-Status
-Prominence
-Influence

Finally, if you could choose only two of your teammates to work with you on another simulation, which two people would you select:

Who would you most like to work with? __________________________

Why would you select this person?
____________________________________________________

Who would be your next choice to work with? __________________________

Why would you select this person?
____________________________________________________

Please rate all members of your team, including yourself. The first three factors should be rated on a scale of one (poorest) to five (best).

For the last column, assume that your team was awarded a $1000 bonus for your work on this project. Please allocate this total amount among the team members in a way that you feel equitably reflects the contribution that each team member made to the project and to the team effort.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Team member name (include yourself, the evaluator, in this list)</th>
<th>How well did this team member communicate with the rest of the team?</th>
<th>How well did this team member complete assigned tasks on time?</th>
<th>What was the quality of this team member’s work?</th>
<th>What share of the $1000 team bonus should be allocated to this team member?</th>
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The total of this column must equal $1000; you may divide the bonus up evenly, or assign different shares to different team members.
APPENDIX B
MATERIALS FOR STUDY 2

Post Task Questionnaire
The following questions concern your team process and interaction while you were working on the Westside plant turnaround plan. Please answer each question as if you were really part of this team, working on the turnaround plan.

How fair were the decision making procedures used by Matt, the team leader, to develop the plan?

How fair were the task delegation procedures used by the team leader?

To what extent would did the team leader consider other team members’ opinions when working on this plan?

How were team members treated by the team leader during this task?

To what extent was the team leader consistent when making decisions about how to work on the turnaround plan?

To what extent did the team leader treat team members with kindness and consideration while working on the turnaround plan?

To what extent is the team leader effective in the leadership role?

Please respond to the following questions about the leader’s behavior.

To what extent did the team leader decide how the team would work on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to decide how the team would work on this task?

To what extent did the team leader designate roles for working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader control the flow of information among team members?

To what extent did the team leader assign work activities to other team members while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to determine their own activities while working on this task?
To what extent did the team leader determine the decision rules while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own decision rules while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader establish the objectives for working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow team members to participate in setting the objectives for this task?

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior acceptable?

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior trustworthy?

To what extent did the team leader judge the situation accurately?

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior legitimate?

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior appropriate for working on this task?

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

The members of this team usually know where they stand with the team leader.

Team members’ working relationships with the team leader are effective.

The team leader recognizes members’ expertise.

The team leader has enough confidence in the members of this team that he would defend and justify their recommendations if they were not present to do so.

The team leader understands the problems and needs of the members of this team.

The team leader uses suggestions from the members of this team.

The team leader takes action on things brought up by the members of this team.

The team leader is willing to make changes.

The team leader is open to feedback.

The members of this team participate in establishing the team’s objectives.
The members of this team determine their own work activities.

Please answer each question as if you were really part of this team, working on the turnaround plan.

To what extent is Matt, the team leader:

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<tbody>
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<td>Assertive</td>
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<tr>
<td>Considerate of other team members' opinions and ideas</td>
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<td>Directive (regulates the team process or advocates a particular strategy decision)</td>
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<td>Aware of other team members' feelings</td>
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<td>Able to make decisions easily</td>
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<td>Egotistical</td>
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<td>Understanding of what is important for others</td>
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<td>Competitive</td>
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<td>Dictatorial (makes decisions by himself)</td>
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<td>Self-confident</td>
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<td>Compassionate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participative (involves others in making decisions)</td>
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How much ____ does Matt, the team leader have in this group?
- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from Matt’s opinion. How likely would you be to give his opinion serious consideration?

How would you rate Matt’s level of competence?

How would you rate Matt’s level of expertise in this task?
How much ______ does Brian have in this group?
-Respect
-Status
-Prominence
-Influence

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from the Brian’s opinion. How likely would you be to give his/her opinion serious consideration?

How would you rate Brian’s level of competence?

How would you rate Brian’s level of expertise in this task?

How much ______ does Laura have in this group?
-Respect
-Status
-Prominence
-Influence

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from the Laura’s opinion. How likely would you be to give his/her opinion serious consideration?

How would you rate Laura’s level of competence?

How would you rate Laura’s level of expertise in this task?
Using the scale below, please answer each question as if you were really part of this team, working on the Westside plant turnaround plan.

While working on this task, I felt:

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<th>Not at all</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>A great deal</th>
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<td>Distressed</td>
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<td>Relaxed</td>
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<td>Interested</td>
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<td>Tired</td>
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<td>Upset</td>
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<td>Bored</td>
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<td>Enthusiastic</td>
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<td>Sluggish</td>
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<td>Hostile</td>
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<td>Serene</td>
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<td>Inspired</td>
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<td>Determined</td>
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<td>Dull</td>
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<tr>
<td>At Rest</td>
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<td>Drowsy</td>
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<tr>
<td>At Ease</td>
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To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

The team members are strongly committed to pursuing the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism.

The team members are willing to put forth a great deal of effort beyond what they would normally do to achieve the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism.

The team members don’t care whether or not they achieve the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism.

There is not much to be gained by trying to achieve the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism.

It is quite likely that the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism may need to be revised, depending on how things go at the plant.
It wouldn't take much to make team members abandon the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism.

It's unrealistic for this team to expect to reach the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism.

Since it's not always possible to tell how difficult a situation is until you've been in it a while, it's hard to take this goal seriously.

I think the goal of 7% reduction in direct labor costs and 50% reduction of turnover and absenteeism is a good goal to shoot for.

---

Please answer each question as if you were really part of this team, working on the turnaround plan.

How well do you think this team will perform in developing a turnaround plan for Westside plant?

How satisfied would you be working with this team?

To what extent would you like to work with these same teammates on a real project?

To what extent would you like to work on a real project with Matt as your team leader?
Leader Instructions

Congratulations, you have been selected to play the role of team leader for the upcoming task.

You will lead a 4-person team of students who will soon be working together to complete an online adventure game. You will spend the next 15 minutes training together on the game. You will then join the other three members of your team, who have also received 15 minutes of training on the game.

Low status condition:
We have told your team that you are an undergraduate student in human development, and that you are enrolled in the Foundations Leadership Course at the Johnson School, which is a leadership elective open to selected undergrad and graduate students. We told them that students in the course participate in this online adventure game exercise as a way to practice their team leadership skills. This is meant to provide you with legitimacy as the team leader. Should a discussion of your major or leadership qualifications come up, please adhere to this cover story.

High status condition:
We have told your team that you are a graduate student in the MBA program, and that you are enrolled in the Foundations Leadership Course at the Johnson School, which is a leadership elective open to selected graduate students. We told them that students in the course participate in this online adventure game exercise as a way to practice their team leadership skills. This is meant to provide you with legitimacy as the team leader. Should a discussion of your major or leadership qualifications come up, please adhere to this cover story, and tell them you’re an MBA student.
The objective of this exercise is to get through as many levels as possible in the time allotted while using the fewest number of mouseclicks. If you find yourself struggling to complete a level, you can buy a HintCard which will help you to continue. Each HintCard “costs” 15 mouseclicks. That is, for every HintCard you buy, 15 mouseclicks will be added to your total.

**Directive condition:**

Directive Style:

Prior research has found that the most effective way to lead a team on a complex problem-solving task such as this is to use a directive leadership style. That is, as team leader, you should direct the activities of all of your team members, rather than letting them decide for themselves how they should work together. This does not mean that you need to be heavy-handed or dictatorial, but you have to let your team members know that you’re in charge. The complexity of the task requires strong leadership if your team is to succeed. Your “enrollment” in the Foundations Leadership Course means that your teammates will expect you to use a directive style, and if you bear this in mind you are more likely to be successful.

Leader Actions:

You will have 5 minutes to set up your team and come up with a plan for playing the game. To aid you in directing your team’s process, here are some actions you should take as a leader:

- Determine decision rules. As team leader you should have the final say in determining when and where to click the mouse.
- Assign work activity. Team members should only do the things you tell them to do, and should not take it upon themselves to do anything.
- Designate member roles and assign each team member to fill a role. At a minimum, you will want to assign the following roles:
- **Mouse Controller.** This is the person who moves the mouse and clicks on items in each room. You should be sure this person only clicks on those items that you designate.

- **Click-Counter.** This person keeps track of the number of mouseclicks you spend, either by clicking items or by buying HintCards.

- **Recorder.** This person keeps track of all the items you find on each level and the messages that appear when you click on items.

- **HintCard Purchaser.** This person decides if and when you want to buy a HintCard, and this is the only person authorized to buy HintCards. You may want to reserve this role for yourself to avoid spending mouseclicks unnecessarily.

---

**Emergent condition:**

Emergent Style:

Prior research has found that the most effective way to lead a team on a complex problem-solving task such as this is to use an emergent leadership style. That is, as team leader, you should allow the team process to emerge, letting the members of your team decide for themselves how they want to work together, rather than directing their specific activities. This does not mean that you shouldn’t be involved in the process, but you have to give your team members the freedom to work as they see fit. The complexity of the task requires everyone’s input if your team is to succeed. Your responses on the leadership questionnaire indicate that you are well suited to use an emergent style, and if you bear this in mind you are more likely to be successful.

Team Process:

You will have 5 minutes to set up your team and come up with a plan for playing the game. To aid you in allowing your team’s process to emerge, here are some actions you should take as a leader:
- Ask team members how they would like to approach the adventure. Let the team members establish a strategy for navigating each level, and let them determine when and where to click the mouse.

- Do not assign work activity. Let team members take it upon themselves to do things.

- Allow team members to select their own roles. They will probably take on the following roles:
  - Mouse Controller. This is the person who moves the mouse and clicks on items in each room.
  - Click-Counter. This person keeps track of the number of mouseclicks you spend, either by clicking items or by buying HintCards.
  - Recorder. This person keeps track of all the items you find on each level and the messages that appear when you click on items.
  - HintCard Purchaser. This person decides if and when you want to buy a HintCard, and this is the only person authorized to buy HintCards.

**Payment:**

You will be paid the base amount for your time today, but you also have the chance to earn more based on your performance on the game. Your total payment will be based on team performance; that is, how well your team performs compared to other teams. This is measured in two ways: number of mouseclicks used and number of levels cleared. You and each of your teammates can earn up to an additional $5 each for team performance.

In addition, you as team leader can award a bonus to each of your team members, based on how well you think they contributed to the group’s overall performance. You will have a bonus pool of $11 which you can allocate as you see fit, paying as much as you like to each member, including yourself.
Strategy:
Some tips for increasing your chances of success (and your payment):

- Your team performance is based in part on how many times you have to click the mouse to make your way through each level, so focus on minimizing the number of mouseclicks, even if it means taking extra time to plan each move.

- Remember that each HintCard will cost 15 mouseclicks, so be absolutely sure you need a hint before purchasing a HintCard. You should exhaust all possibilities before wasting mouseclicks on a HintCard.

- Most levels have a number of rooms; you should pass through each room on a level to get the “big picture” before exploring each room thoroughly. This will give you a better idea how to use the items once you find them. After you have a better idea of the “big picture”, go through each room thoroughly looking for hidden items.
Team Adventure Study: Instructions to team members
You are members of a 4-person team of students who will soon be working together to
complete a complex, computer-based, online adventure game. You will have three
team members (the three of you) and a team leader, who will join you soon.

The three of you will spend the next 15 minutes learning how to play the game. You
will then be joined by your team leader, who has also received training on the game.
Working together under your team leader's guidance, your team will attempt to get
through as many levels of the adventure game as possible in the allotted time. Your
score will depend on how many levels you complete successfully, how quickly you
maneuver through the game, and how efficiently you manage your movements.

Low status condition:
Team Leader:
Your team leader will be ________________ (leader’s name). He/she is an
undergraduate student in communications who is enrolled in the Foundations
Leadership Course at the business school. This course is an elective open to all
students in the university. Students in the course participate in this computer
game exercise as a way to practice their team leadership skills. He/she will join
you at the end of your training.

High status condition:
Team Leader:
Your team leader will be ________________ (leader’s name). He/she is a
graduate student in the MBA program who is enrolled in the Foundations
Leadership Course at the business school. This course is open only to specially
selected students based on academic merit and demonstrated leadership
potential. Students in the course participate in this computer game exercise as a
way to practice their team leadership skills. He/she will join you at the end of
your training.
**Objective:**

The objective of this exercise is to get through as many levels as possible in the time allotted while using the fewest number of mouseclicks. If you find yourself struggling to complete a level, you can buy a HintCard which will help you to continue. Each HintCard “costs” 15 mouseclicks. That is, for every HintCard you buy, 15 mouseclicks will be added to your total.

**Payment:**

You will be paid the base amount for you time today, but you also have the chance to earn more based on your performance on the game. Your total payment will be based on two things:

1. Team performance: Based on how well your team performs compared to other teams. This is measured in two ways: number of mouseclicks used and number of levels cleared. You can earn up to an additional $5 each for team performance.

2. Individual performance: This is a bonus based on the team leader’s evaluation of your individual contribution. The team leader will have a bonus pool of $11 which he can allocate as he sees fit, paying as much as he likes to each member, including himself.

**Strategy:**

Performance is measured determined by the number of levels your team clears in the allotted time and the number of mouseclicks you use. You should focus on **minimizing the time it takes you to clear a level, ignoring the number of mouseclicks**. This means you should click on every item to see whether or not it’s useful, and you should **buy a HintCard immediately** if you get stuck.
You should focus on searching furniture and cabinets, wall-hangings and plants, and you should explore each room on a level thoroughly before moving to the next room. This way you can gather all available items before attempting to use them to continue.

- Someone in the team should be in charge of moving the mouse and clicking on items in each room.
- Someone should keep track of the items you find and the messages that appear at the bottom of the screen.

Someone must keep track of the number of times you click on the mouse.
Team Adventure Study: Team Leader Pre-Task Questionnaire

You have just completed your training and soon you will join your team members for the actual exercise. Before you meet the team, please respond to these questions:

To what extent will you allow other team members to decide how the team should work on this task?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 - not at all</th>
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<th>4</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7 - very much</th>
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To what extent will you designate roles for working on this task?

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<th>1 - not at all</th>
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<th>7 - very much</th>
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To what extent will you allow other team members to determine their own activities while working on this task?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 - not at all</th>
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To what extent will you determine the decision rules while working on this task?

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<th>1 - not at all</th>
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In a few words, describe your overall strategy for setting up the team and playing the game:
How much _______ do you expect to have in this group?
(please put an X in the appropriate box)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 none at all</th>
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<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7 a great deal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
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<td>Expertise</td>
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To what extent do you think you will be effective in the leadership role?

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<tr>
<th>1 - not at all</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7 - very much</th>
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</thead>
</table>
Team Adventure Study: Team Member Pre-Task Questionnaire
You and your teammates have just completed your training and your team leader will join you soon for the actual exercise. Before the team leader arrives, please respond to these questions about your team.

Please list the names of your teammates
(designate one teammate as Member A and the other as Member B):

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Member A</td>
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<tr>
<td>Member B</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your name</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Of you three team members, who had the best ideas or suggestions for succeeding in the game? Please comment:

How much _______ does Member A have in this group?
(please put an X in the appropriate box)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 none at all</th>
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</table>

How much _______ does Member B have in this group?

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<th></th>
<th>1 none at all</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7 very much</th>
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<td>Respect</td>
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</table>
How much _______ do you yourself have in this group?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 none at all</th>
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</table>

What is your Team Leader’s name? ___________________

What year is your team leader in school?

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<td>Freshman</td>
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<td>Sophomore</td>
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<td>Junior</td>
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<td>Grad Student</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

How much _______ do you expect the Team Leader to have in this group?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 none at all</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7 very much</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respect</td>
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</table>

To what extent do you expect the Team Leader to be effective in the leadership role?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 - not at all</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7 - very much</th>
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</table>
Team Adventure Study: Mystery of Time and Space Ranking Task

The Challenge:
As you reach the next level, you find yourself in this Billiards Room; with a Storage Room through the door to the left and an unknown room through the door to the right (see the pictures).

Your task is to rank the 11 items or actions (listed on the next page) that are potentially useful. Rank them according to the order of importance and the order in which you will click on them with your mouse as you attempt to move through this level (i.e., determine the best way to spend your mouseclicks). Start with a “1” for the most important/first click, to “11” for the least important/last click. You will notice that each room offers the option to buy a HintCard; you should include this in your ranking.

Individual Ranking Task.
Without discussing with others, rank the 11 items in the order of importance and the order in which you will click on them with your mouse as you attempt to move through this level. Record your individual ranking in the column A, labeled “Individual Ranking.”

Team Ranking Task.
Rejoin your teammates. With your team, reconsider the 11 items and come up with a new set of rankings on a consensus basis. Your objective is to work toward a team solution that all members of your group can live with and are willing to support. Record your consensus ranking in column B, labeled “Team Ranking.” Once team work begins, do not change your individual ranking.

Final Individual Ranking.
(to be completed AFTER the Team Ranking Task is complete)
You may or may not agree with the team’s consensus ranking, but you may have changed your mind about some of your initial rankings. In column C, labeled “Final Individual Ranking,” record what you believe to be the correct ranking for the items.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-- Items/Actions --</th>
<th>A. Individual Ranking</th>
<th>B. Team Ranking</th>
<th>C. Final Individual Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Buy a HintCard - Storage Room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log Book (with map) – open on desk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chest – closed, may be locked</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxes – closed on shelf</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go to Billiards Room – leave Storage Room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy a HintCard - Billiards Room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pin – holding flag</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coin Slot</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cue Stick</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go to Storage Room – leave Billiards Room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go to next (unknown) room– leave Billiards Room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Buy a Hint Card - Billiards Room

Buy a Hint Card - Storage Room

Coin slot
Pin
Cue stick

Go to next (unknown) room
Go to Storage Room

Boxes
Logbook (with map)

Chest
Go to Billiards Room
Team Adventure Study: Post-Task Questionnaire

Using a scale of 1-7, (1 = none at all and 7 = very much):

How much status does the Team Leader have in this team?

How much status does Team Member A have in this team?

How much status does Team Member B have in this team?

How much status do you yourself have in this team?

We are calculating your group performance score, which will be used to determine part of your payment. In the meantime, your team leader can award a bonus to each of the team members, based on how well they contributed to the group’s overall performance.

The team leader has a bonus pool of $11 which he/she can allocate to each member.

The sum of all bonus payments must equal $11.

- How much bonus should the team leader give to you?
- How much bonus should the team leader give to Member A?
- How much bonus should the team leader give to Member B?
- How much bonus should the team leader give to him/herself?

How fair were the decision making procedures used by the Team Leader to develop the plan for completing the task?

How fair were the task delegation procedures used by the team leader?

To what extent did the team leader consider other team members’ opinions when working on this task?

How were team members treated by the team leader during this task?

To what extent did the team leader treat team members with consideration while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader treat team members with kindness while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader treat team members with respect while working on this task?
To what extent were the procedures used by the team leader fair?

To what extent did the team leader make sure that all subordinate team members’ concerns were heard before decisions were made?

To what extent was the team leader effective in the leadership role?

Please respond to the following questions about the leader’s behavior.

To what extent did the team leader decide how the team would work on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to decide how the team would work on this task?

To what extent did the team leader designate roles for working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader control the flow of information among team members?

To what extent did the team leader assign work activities to other team members while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow other team members to determine their own activities while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader determine the decision rules while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow team members to determine their own decision rules while working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader establish the objectives for working on this task?

To what extent did the team leader allow team members to participate in setting the objectives for this task?
To what extent do you agree with the following statement: The team leader was successful in leading us through the adventure game.

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior acceptable?

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior trustworthy?

To what extent did the team leader judge the situation accurately?

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior legitimate?

To what extent was the team leader’s behavior appropriate for working on this task?

To what extent is the team leader:

- Respected
- Expert
- Egotistical
- Assertive
- Independent
- Competitive
- Prominent
- Heavy-handed
- Compassionate
- Competent
- Influential
- High-status
- Self-confident
- Micro-managing

To what extent did the team leader:

- Consider other team members' opinions and ideas
- Regulate the team process or advocate a particular strategy decision
- Maintain awareness of other team members' feelings
- Understand what is important for others
- Make decisions by him/herself
- Involve others in making decisions
- Make decisions easily

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from the team leader’s opinion. How likely would you be to defer to his opinion?
To what extent do you agree with this statement:
The team leader did a good job in his/her role.

How much _______ did Member A have in this group?
- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence
- Competence
- Expertise

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from Member A’s opinion. How likely would you be to defer to his/her opinion?

How much _______ did Member B have in this group?
- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence
- Competence
- Expertise

Imagine that you had an opinion that was different from Member B’s opinion. How likely would you be to defer to his/her opinion?

How much _______ did you yourself have in this group?
- Respect
- Status
- Prominence
- Influence
- Competence
- Expertise
To what extent would you like to work with these same teammates on another project?

How satisfied were you working with this team?

How satisfied are you with the team leader’s leadership?

To what extent is the team leader a good choice?

To what extent would you like to work on another project with the team leader?

If you were to continue working on this team, how committed would you be to the team leader?

To what extent do you find the team leader likeable?

To what extent did the team leader’s behavior make you feel ________:

- Engaged
- Ignored
- Valued
- Dismissed
- Disrespected
- Trusted
- Contempt
- Acknowledged
- Unneeded

To what extent do you feel emotionally attached to this team?

To what extent do you feel a strong sense of belonging to this team?

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following:

Our team accomplished our objectives in this game.

I learned from other team members while doing this exercise.

The members of this team usually know where they stand with the team leader.

Team members’ working relationships with the team leader are effective.

The team leader recognizes members’ expertise.
The team leader has enough confidence in the members of this team that he would defend and justify their recommendations if they were not present to do so.

The team leader understands the problems and needs of the members of this team.

The team leader uses suggestions from the members of this team.

The team leader takes action on things brought up by the members of this team.

The team leader is willing to make changes.

The team leader is open to feedback.

The members of this team participate in establishing the team’s objectives.

The members of this team determine their own work activities.

If you had to play this game again, who would you choose as your team leader? Why?

Who would be your second choice for team leader? Why?

Who would be your third choice for team leader? Why?

Who is the most influential member of this team?

What is your gender?

What is your age?

What is your race/ethnicity?

How many years of work experience do you have?

What is your current (or most recent) functional area?

How many years of supervisory/managerial experience (in a leadership role) do you have?
REFERENCES


