

The People's Choice: Exploring the Role of Collective Leader Endorsement
in Dynamic Leadership Relationships

by

Amy L. Bartels

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Approved March 2018 by the
Graduate Supervisory Committee:

Jeffery LePine, Co-Chair
Suzanne Peterson, Co-Chair
Margaret Luciano

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

May 2018

ABSTRACT

Grounded in the relational view of leadership, this dissertation explores the dynamics of the leader/follower relationship in the context of a collective using a social networks approach. Specifically, I build on DeRue and Ashford's (2010) work that focuses on dynamic, socially constructed leadership relationships within a *dyad* to focus on such relationships within a *collective*. In doing so, I conceptualize collective leader endorsement – receiving a grant of leader identity from a collective of followers – and examine the implications of collective leader endorsement. As a dynamic relationship, collective leader endorsement can change as individuals give and receive grants of leader identity. I draw on relational models of leadership theory and appraisal theory to examine how contextual situations (i.e., identity jolts) prompt change in collective leader endorsement at the network level and how such change can influence individual functioning at the individual level. As a socially constructed relationship, collective leader endorsement creates the potential for disagreement among members of the collective regarding grants of leader identity. I draw on social comparison theory and appraisal theory to suggest that agreement (or lack thereof) can influence the individual's perceived demands and overall functioning within the collective. Using data from 106 individuals on a collegiate football team in the United States over 12 consecutive weeks, I find significant changes in collective leader endorsement and the associated leadership network over the course of the season. Specifically, I find that challenging situations prompted a reevaluation of leader identities and shifted the patterns within the leadership network. In addition, change in an individual's level of collective leader endorsement prompted additional perceived demands and lowered well-being. This relationship was

attenuated if the individual had a supportive coach to help him cope with additional leadership demands. Finally, (lack of) agreement regarding the individual's leader identity also influenced the individual's well-being. Specifically, the individual experienced enhanced perceived demands (and associated lower well-being) if the individual's perception of who should receive grants of leader identity was incongruent with the collective's perception of collective leader endorsement.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The completion of this dissertation and my PhD more generally would not have been possible without the guidance, support and encouragement of so many throughout the process. First, I want to thank my dissertation committee. Suzanne, thank you so much for being with me from the beginning and helping me learn that I can contribute in this field beyond my writing. You helped mold me into a scholar by showing me how to work with organizations to help them achieve their goals, how to present our work in an energizing way, and, of course, how to write. Jeff, I want to let you know how much I appreciate your willingness to step up and guide me through this process. You pushed me to think deeper and develop invaluable skills that will help me throughout my career. Margaret – I don't even know where to begin to thank you for everything you've done. You saw potential in me before I even saw it in myself and helped me believe that I can succeed in this career. You have also helped me see the bigger picture in research and motivated me to strive, as much as we can, to make a difference with our research. I feel so lucky to have found someone that not only continually serves as a fantastic role model for me but also has become such a close friend. Lauren, thank you for your willingness to step up and provide some invaluable help and feedback throughout the dissertation process. You are a fantastic scholar and I look forward to working with you in the future. In addition to my "formal" advisors and committee members, so many other individuals at ASU have served as invaluable mentors to me throughout my program. Jennifer, Christy and Ned, I want to thank all of you for always have an open-door policy and providing me with opportunities and feedback.

Second, I know I would not have gotten through my dissertation and the PhD program without the help and encouragement from my fellow PhD students. Although I may be a little biased, but I believe I have the best cohort in the world. Daniel, Rachel, Qi, and John – thank you so much for teaching me, supporting me and inspiring me throughout the program. Sometimes this journey can feel like an individual struggle, but I truly felt like the five of us were going through it together (even if we were in different cities for part of the journey). It made the hard parts seem not as challenging and the successes that much more enjoyable. I couldn't have done it without you! I also want to thank my academic big brother and sister – Melissa and Chris – for adopting me in right away and showing me everything. You two are amazing scholars and even better people and I feel lucky to call you both friends. Ji- thank you for always being willing to answer a methods question and make me laugh; although sometimes we messed up which one was supposed to occur at which time. Virgil, I want to thank you for being such a great friend and colleague. You inspire me to think deeper and become a better scholar.

Finally, I am forever indebted to my family for their willingness to go on this journey with me and their never-ending support and encouragement. Although my parents may have thought I was a little crazy when I told them that I was starting a PhD program, that didn't stop them from being my biggest fans and doing whatever they could to help me in the process – thank you Mom and Dad. Thanks to Jill, Erin, and Matt – you are the best siblings (and friends) in the world and I appreciate the supportive words (and glasses of wine)! I am also so lucky to have wonderful in-laws who have been there for everything.

Above all, I need to thank my husband, Zach, and my two boys – Austin and Jackson for always being there for me and giving me a place to unwind and enjoy life. Zach, you have been my rock and taken up so much slack when I needed to work. Even when I did not think I was going to make it, you kept believing in me and providing me whatever help you could. The three of you are the light of my life. Thank you so much for helping make one of my dreams come true!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	iv
LIST OF FIGURES.....	v
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	7
A Relational View of Leadership	8
Conceptualizing Collective Leader Endorsement.....	11
Understanding Collective Leader Endorsement Using Leadership Networks.....	17
The Role of Context in the Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement .	20
Boundary Conditions and Contextual Considerations	23
3 THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT	27
Understanding Collective Leader Endorsement within the Leadership Network	28
Dynamics of Receiving Grants of Collective Leader Endorsement from Individuals within the Collective	37
Agreement within the Collective regarding Grants of Collective Leader Endorsement to Individuals	46
4 METHODS	56
Sample and Procedure	56
Measures	59

CHAPTER	Page
Overview of the Analyses and Results	64
Social Networks Analyses and Results.....	65
Latent Growth Modeling Analyses and Results.....	69
Polynomial Regression Analyses and Results	72
Multilevel Modeling Analyses and Results	76
5 DISCUSSION	80
Theoretical Implications	81
Practical Implications	93
Limitations	95
Conclusion	98
REFERENCES	118
APPENDIX	
A IRB Approval Forms for Field-Based Study	135
B Interview Protocol for the Athletes prior to the Start of the Season.....	141
C Interview Protocol for the Coaches after the End of the Season.....	145
D Items and Scales used in the Study.....	150

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. The QAP-Correlation between the Types of Collective Leader Endorsement.....	100
2. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Latent Growth Modeling (<i>N</i> = 106).....	101
3. Proportion of Variance among Latent Growth Modeling Variables.....	102
4. Multiple Regression Results with the Estimates from Latent Growth Modeling.....	103
5. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Multilevel Modeling (<i>N</i> = 264).....	104
6. Proportion of Variance among Multilevel Modeling Variables	105

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Overview of the Approach of the Paper	106
2. Hypothesized Model of Dynamics of Receiving Grants of Collective Leader Endorsement from Individuals within the Collective.....	107
3. 2 x 2 Matrix of Agreement when <i>Receiving</i> Grants of Collective Leader Endorsement from the Collective	108
4. Hypothesized Model of Agreement within the Collective regarding Grants of Collective Leader Endorsement to Individuals	109
5. Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement (Multiplex Network)	110
6. Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement (Task-Oriented Network)	111
7. Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement (Relation-Oriented Network)....	112
8. SNCD Graph of Collective Leader Endorsement (Multiplex Network).....	113
9. SNCD Graph of Collective Leader Endorsement (Task-Oriented Network)....	114
10. SNCD Graph of Collective Leader Endorsement (Relation-Oriented Network)	115
11. Interaction of LMX Relationship with the Position Coach on the Relationship between Increases in Collective Leader Endorsement and Increases in the Individual’s Perceived Demands	116
12. Response Surface Methodology Plot.....	117

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Given the increasing number of organizations moving to flatter organizational structures with fewer formal (i.e., titled or positional) leaders, (Kastelle, 2013), scholarly attention has recently turned to understanding *informal* leaders within organizations (i.e., individuals who hold a leader identity but do not occupy a position of formal authority). Specifically, scholars have focused on identifying specific traits or mix of behaviors that makes an individual more likely to be identified as an informal leader (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). In doing so, the literature has considered informal leadership to be a largely static concept where a certain type of individual emerges and maintains his/her status as the informal leader (for an exception, *see* Drescher, Korsgaard, Welpe, Picot, & Wigand, 2014). However, in practice, an individual's identity as an informal leader may be much more dynamic as it ebbs and flows depending on a variety of factors (e.g., situational constraints, interactions among leaders and followers, etc.).

To try and bridge the gap between research on informal leadership and informal leadership in practice, scholars have begun to depict informal leadership as a dynamic, relational process where, rather than emerging as a leader because of certain objective traits or behaviors, an individual can be identified as an informal leader based on an alignment between the follower's perception and the leader's perception that s/he is the leader (e.g., Uhl-Bien, 2006). For example, DeRue and Ashford (2010) describe informal leadership as a process of dynamic, socially constructed perceptions where one individual claims an identity of "leader" and the follower agrees (or acquiesces) and grants that individual a leader identity while simultaneously claiming an identity of "follower." The

focus on socially constructed perceptions recognizes that claiming and granting a leader identity creates an ever-changing process where any individual can inhabit both roles (i.e., leader and follower) at one time by both claiming to be a leader and granting a leader identity to others.

This shift in focus toward informal leadership as a dynamic, socially constructed process has enhanced our understanding of the leader/follower relationship by highlighting the significant role of changing perceptions. However, this work has primarily focused on leadership relationships as a *dyad* with only one individual granting a leader identity to the other (i.e., serving in the follower role). In practice, individuals often work outside the dyadic relationship and can receive grants of leader identity from a myriad of followers within their team or organization. Scholars have suggested this phenomenon of receiving grants of leader identity from many followers is called *collective leader endorsement*, yet have stopped short of outlining how to conceptualize collective leader endorsement or its potential implications (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Brewer & Gardner, 1996). This is surprising given the burgeoning interest and associated recognition of the importance of collective leader endorsement within organizations seeking to enhance leader development and effectiveness (Llopis, 2014).

The general purpose of this study is to enhance our understanding of collective leader endorsement by grounding it within the personal reputation literature. This approach recognizes that high levels of collective leader endorsement are particularly important because they serve as an indication of the strength of the individuals' identities as leaders (Hinds & Mortensen, 2005). Indeed, popular wisdom suggests that it is relatively easy to maintain one's level of collective leader endorsement when things are

going well because there is no microscope on a leader (i.e., a “winning fixes everything” mentality), but maintaining collective leader endorsement is more difficult during stressful times. As such, I take an experience sampling methodology (ESM) approach to examine the effects of changing leadership perceptions within a collective (i.e., collective leader endorsement) specifically focusing on the role of changing workplace demands.

The shift in focus from dyadic leadership relationships toward the notion of collective leader endorsement allows me to highlight two distinct components of collective leader endorsement that may not be as applicable when focusing on dyadic perceptions of leader identity: the impact of dynamics and the impact of divergent perceptions of leader identity within the collective. For the former, the focus on the dyad allows incorporation of the change in leader identity between one leader and one follower. But, when focus shifts toward the collective, we can capture and assess the ripple of change from one grant of leader identity throughout the collective. For example, empirical evidence suggests that perceptions of leader identity can shape the leadership network structure (DeRue, Nahrgang, & Ashford, 2015) and vice versa (Brands, Menges, & Kilduff, 2015), which can have positive implications for collective performance (DeChurch et al., 2015). As such, *changing* grants of leader identity may also alter the structure of the entire leadership network in organizations (e.g., the centralization or density of the leadership network). Relatedly, this variability of leader identities over time may have implications for the functioning of the individual members within the collective. For example, as an individual receives increasing grants of collective leader endorsement, the individual may remain uncertain as to the stability of their leader identity which can alter the individual’s approach to demands in the workplace.

Therefore, one specific purpose of this dissertation is to enhance our understanding of the effects of changing grants of leader identity for the entire collective and the individuals within the collective.

The latter element that comes into play when shifting focus from the dyad to the collective is the potential for additional divergence of perceptions of leader identity. Specifically, within the dyad, divergence of perceptions can occur if there is a difference between the extent to which an individual claims a leader identity and a follower grants that individual a leader identity. Within the collective, divergence can also occur among the perceptions of the followers potentially granting an individual a leader identity. For example, Person A and Person B may choose to grant a leader identity to Person C, but Person D may choose to grant a leader identity to Person E instead of Person C. This divergence of perceptions can have implications not only for the individual receiving grants of leader identity (i.e., Persons C and E), but also for individuals granting a leader identity to others (i.e., Persons A, B and D). Therefore, the second specific purpose of this dissertation is to increase our understanding of the effects of agreement among members of the collective as to who should receive grants of leader identity.

Beyond the theoretical insight obtained by developing a deeper understanding of collective leader endorsement, I offer four main contributions to the literature. First, I integrate leadership identity construction theory with the relational models of leadership theory to examine the dynamics of a collective identity at the network level and suggest that exogenous shocks (i.e., identity jolts) may alter the shape of the leadership network (Wellman, 2017). This dissertation contributes to the relational models of leadership theory by going beyond the broad definition of identity jolts outlined by Wellman (2017)

to provide a deeper, clearer understanding of identity jolts than the one currently offered in the literature. Specifically, I theorize that identity jolts are best captured by leadership crucibles, which are defined as “transformative experiences from which an individual extracts a new or altered sense of identity” (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). Then, I use the leadership crucibles literature to provide clarity regarding three potential types of identity jolts: new territory crucibles, suspension crucibles, and reversal crucibles.

Second, prior work highlights the benefits of agreement of leadership perceptions for team and/or organizational (i.e., Cicero, Pierro, & van Knippenberg, 2007; Hogg, Fielding, Johnson, Masser, Russell, & Svensson, 2006). This dissertation contributes to the literature by shifting focus toward the effects of agreement of leadership perceptions for the individual. Specifically, integrating appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), I consider how divergence of leader identity perceptions within a collective can be draining to an individual. I predict that this drain has a proximal effect on an individual’s ability to cope with potential demands in the environment and a downstream effect on the individual’s well-being and performance.

Third, much of the research on informal leadership focuses on how leaders can benefit followers by, among other things, helping followers to reduce their stress level (e.g., Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Yet, scholars recognize that serving in a leader role, even informally, can have demanding implications for the leader as well and have called for an enhanced understanding of how serving in the leader role affects the leader (Wilson, Sin, & Conlon, 2010). Integrating appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), I contribute to the literature on leader demands by examining the downstream implications of not only

receiving grants of leader identity, but also self-identifying as an informal leader and the stability of such grants on an individual's well-being and performance.

Finally, to better align collective leader endorsement with the relational view of leadership (i.e., socially constructed leader and follower identities), I use a unique sample and approach. Specifically, I go beyond the boundaries set by the organization (i.e., group membership) to focus on how cognitive perceptions (i.e., leader identities) shape the leadership network within a collegiate football team. Scholars suggest that sports teams are ideally suited for this type of analysis because sports teams capture a full network with well-defined borders to allow scholars to focus in on cognitive perceptions (Lusher, Robins, & Kremer, 2010). This unique approach allows me to contribute beyond the leadership literature. For example, this dissertation contributes to our understanding of the connection between leadership perceptions and network dynamics by integrating the two. This is particularly important because, despite a growing interest in leadership and cognitive networks among scholars, our knowledge regarding their intersection is wholly underdeveloped (Brands, 2013). In addition, the unique sample contributes to the growing amount of literature that highlights the natural harmony between sports and the workplace (e.g., Mach, Dolan, & Tzafir, 2010; Macquet & Skalej, 2015).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Within this dissertation, my aim is to increase our understanding of informal leadership as a dynamic, socially constructed relationship. First, I outline the relational view of leadership as the background for conceptualizing collective leader endorsement within the informal leadership domain. Second, collective leader endorsement involves a grant of leader identity not from one follower, but from many followers in the collective so I provide a deeper understanding of collective leader endorsement than currently offered in the literature by using a personal reputation lens. I also distinguish collective leader endorsement from similar constructs and build on prior literature to suggest that collective leader endorsement can be broken down into two types of leader identity – task-oriented and relation-oriented leader identity. Next, building on my conceptualization of collective leader endorsement, I theorize that it is best captured using a social networks approach. As such, I review the research on leadership networks and how perceptions of leader identity can complement existing research on leadership networks. Then, I focus on the dynamic nature of collective leader endorsement and highlight the role of context (i.e., exogenous shocks) as I develop theory regarding the dynamics of collective leader endorsement. Specifically, I draw on the leadership crucibles literature to outline the types of exogenous shocks that may alter the shape of the leadership network over time. Finally, given the unique nature of my context – a

collegiate football team – I review the necessary boundary conditions and contextual considerations for my theorizing.

A Relational View of Leadership

As companies and organizations move toward flatter organizations, the traditional supervisor-subordinate relationship becomes less defined and the determination of which individuals should hold each role becomes less clear. As a result, leaders are not necessarily prescribed by hierarchical roles within the organization. Instead, the role of leader often emerges informally and is more like a relationship-building process (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The relational view of leadership conceptualizes leadership as a dynamic, social influence process by which the relational roles are socially constructed and coordinated within the broader environment (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Specifically, the relational view focuses on the leadership relationships by going beyond the traditional hierarchical relationships to focus on how the individuals perceive those relationships. Both individuals (leaders and followers) are critical actors in the relationship as they enact behaviors that influence and create the leadership roles. But such behaviors must be looked at more broadly with respect to the relationship and even the entire collective. Because these relationships are built on perceptions and social constructionism, they are consistently changing and understanding the underlying dynamics is critical to understanding the implications of the relational view of leadership.

Leader-member exchange theory. One of the most well-known theories that is grounded in the relational view of leadership is leader-member exchange (LMX) theory. At its core, LMX theory suggests that leaders have differential relationships with each of

their followers because each follower differs with regard to the attributes that they bring to the relationship (e.g., work motivation, desire to create a strong relationship, job performance). Scholars suggest that this relationship “differentiation” occurs as part of the role-making process where together the leader and follower determine their roles and, by extension, the quality of their leadership relationship (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Much of the LMX literature looks at the predictors of higher-quality LMX relationships by focusing on attributes of the leader and follower (e.g., personality, competence, and behaviors) or their working context (e.g., organizational culture and justice) (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). Scholars have also examined how being part of a higher-quality LMX relationship can have positive implications for the employee’s attitudes, behaviors, stress level and even withdrawal cognitions (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014). However, while LMX theory suggests that when differential relationships occur, such relationships are typically generated from formal leader-follower positions within the organization. In contrast, the relational view of leadership highlights social constructionism rather than hierarchical positions as the foundation for determining leader and follower roles. In addition, although LMX theory sets up LMX relationships as part of a dynamic process (Graen & Scandura, 1987) and empirical evidence has demonstrated that LMX relationships develop over time (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Ilies, 2009), much of the empirical literature on LMX relationships has assumed stability of the state of the LMX relationship. Therefore, we have only a limited understanding of the implications of changing LMX relationships based on informal leadership roles (Bartels, Sessions, Nahrgang, Wilson, Wu, & Law-Penrose, 2018).

Leadership identity construction theory. Work outside LMX theory that is also grounded in the relational view of leadership has helped to generate a deeper understanding of leadership as a dynamic process. Specifically, scholars have introduced leadership identity construction theory, which conceptualizes leadership as a social process involving a socially constructed identity negotiation where individuals claim and grant leader and follower identities (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). This theory centers on the relationships that individuals build across time and situations by focusing on repeated patterns of claiming and granting leader identities. Specifically, the leadership relationship is created when one individual implicitly or explicitly claims the role of leader and the other person grants that role. For example, an individual may take charge by offering direction to a colleague or verbally identifying him/herself as the leader thereby allowing others to perceive him/her as a leader. These perceptions of leadership (i.e., grants of leader identity) may continually change based on changing implicit or explicit grants by various individuals (e.g., decision-making behaviors, see Marchiondo, Myers, & Kopelman, 2015) as well as salient changes to the context. However, while leadership identity construction theory recognizes and incorporates the dynamics of leadership perceptions, its focus has been primarily on the dyadic relationship. Therefore, despite defining the relational view of leadership as a social construction by the *collective*, we have only a limited understanding of the distinctions that arise when examining collective perceptions rather than just dyadic perceptions (Brown & Hosking, 1986; Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2002; Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Despite its focus on the dyadic relationship, leadership identity construction theory does allude to the importance of receiving claims of leader identity from multiple

followers. Specifically, leadership identity construction theory suggests that a leader can be *collectively endorsed* whereby an individual is granted leader identity from many different followers (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). This notion of collective leader endorsement allows us to understand informal leadership as a dynamic, socially constructed process that shifts across time and situations, but simultaneously recognizes that a leader identity is often a result of being seen by the collective (rather than just one individual) as a leader. By focusing on collective leader endorsement, we can extrapolate on critical components of the leadership relationship that are present within a collective (i.e., agreement on grants of leader identity), but largely irrelevant when focusing on a dyad. Said differently, the shift in focus toward the collective opens the potential for elements of leadership perceptions that are not relevant for the dyad, but may be relevant for key outcomes. Therefore, I seek to build on leadership identity construction theory and past work on the relational view of leadership to conceptualize collective leader endorsement and, more importantly, its implications to the collective and individuals within the collective.

Conceptualizing Collective Leader Endorsement

At its core, collective leader endorsement is a grant of leader identity within a leadership relationship from many followers within the broader social environment (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). One key distinction is that, unlike in a traditional leadership relationship, individuals entering into the leadership relationship by granting leader identity often have incomplete information about the

leader¹. As a result, individuals may lack the understanding and knowledge needed to grant a leader identity. Therefore, decisions on grants of leader identity likely come not only from the individual's own experiences with the potential leader, but also from the collective perceptions of others (Ferris, Liden, Munyon, Summers, Basik, & Buckley, 2009). Said differently, when determining who to grant a leader identity, individuals may look toward the collective perceptions (i.e., an individual's reputation) to help "fill in the blanks" (Zinko & Rubin, 2015). These collective perceptions are "reflective of the complex combination of personal characteristics and accomplishments, demonstrated behavior, and intended images presented over some period of time as observed directly or reported from secondary sources" (Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky, Treadway, & Greenburg, 2003, p. 215).

Using a personal reputation lens. I draw on the work of personal reputations to provide a deeper understanding than is currently offered in the literature of what it means to receive grants of collective leader endorsement. Scholars define personal reputations as a type of identity formed from the collective perceptions of others that is based, in part, on the demonstrated behaviors of the focal individual over time (Zinko, Ferris, Blass, & Laird, 2007). Empirical evidence suggests that personal reputations are built upon the norms and values of the group evaluating the individual as well as determinations from the group on whether that individual positively or negatively deviates from those norms

¹ LMX theory suggests that, in the initial stages of the leadership (i.e., the first 3-6 months), perceptions and evaluations of leader identity are often based on incomplete information because both individuals are still getting to know each other. However, empirical evidence suggests that the dynamics during this stage have different implications than other stages (i.e., post 6-months into the relationship; Nahrgang et al., 2009). Collective leader endorsement brings this notion of incomplete information into the entire life of relationship.

(Zinko, et al. 2007). I suggest that collective leader endorsement is a *type* of personal reputation. As part of a socially negotiated leadership process, collective leader endorsement is granted when an individual claims the leadership role either explicitly or implicitly by demonstrating positively deviant leader behaviors that the collective deems reflective of the qualities of a leader. This exceptionality allows an individual to “stand-out” with his/her claim of leader identity and prompts more individuals within the collective to consider granting him/her a leader identity.

Like leader identities, personal reputations, can be explicitly or implicitly claimed by the leader. An individual can explicitly claim a leader identity by controlling his/her actions to deviate from the norm and increasing his/her chances of being noticed (Zinko et al., 2007). However, often individuals within the collective will perceive this information as inauthentic and self-serving and are therefore less likely to use this information to impute a grant of leader identity on that individual (Haviland, 1977). In contrast, grants of leader identity are implicitly claimed by information disseminated among the individuals within the collective. This information is more likely to be believed and incorporated into one’s perception of the individual (Zinko, Furner, Herdman, & Wikhamn, 2011; Zinko & Rubin, 2015). Furthermore, information perpetuated within the collective serves to strengthen the collective perception because members of the collective will seek a sense of solidarity that can be obtained when most of the members of the collective interpret the potential leader’s action in the same manner (Noon & Delbridge, 1993).

Distinction from collective leadership. Collective leader endorsement is distinct from collective leadership in its focus (i.e., team or individual level) and understanding of

role within the team. Collective leadership (encompassing shared leadership and other similar constructs) is a “dynamic, iterative process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals” (Conger & Pearce, 2003, p. 1). Collective leadership can be understood by looking at three elements: concentration of leadership (whether many individuals or only a select few are emerging into leadership positions), the roles (how much individuals step into the different types of leadership roles), and time (serving as a leader in certain situations, but not others) (Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, & Keegan, 2012). Said differently, collective leadership focuses on the team level and how responsibility for leadership is shared among the members of the collective because roles are often changing to serve the goals of the collective. For example, within a collective, Person A may step up and serve as a leader for Project A because it fits his/her skill set and Person B and C would then serve as a leader for subsequent projects. Within that collective, the leadership roles shift to maximize group achievement. In contrast, collective leader endorsement, although also part of a dynamic leadership process, focuses on how an individual gains grants of leader identity from rather than focusing on the collective-level distribution of leader identities.

Distinction from leader prototype. A prototype is described as an abstract schema about an individual that confers typical features of the collective on that individual (Kunda, 1999; Sluss & Ashforth, 2008; Sluss, Ployhart, Cobb, & Ashforth, 2012). Sluss and Ashforth (2008) suggest that prototypes range in abstraction from a “fuzzy set” of attributes to a more concrete prototype shaped by concrete interactions with that individual. Within the leadership literature, leader prototypes are often captured by drawing on implicit leadership theories (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). Specifically,

scholars suggest that individuals form prototypes to help process and organize information about that person, particularly when s/he lacks a personalized relationship with that person (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004). For example, a boss can expect delight from an employee as she conveys positive feedback to him based on past feedback experiences with that employee (Russell & Barrett, 1999).

Leader prototypes and collective leader endorsement both focus on perceptions from one relationship partner about the other and both can be created from incomplete information. In addition, both constructs focus on receiving information from others within the collective to correctly form his/her perceptions. However, assessments of prototypicality focus on the individual's fit within the norms of the collective and whether that individual is typical of the role/organization/etc. In contrast, collective leader endorsement is an assessment that the individual is *exemplary* within that role/organization/etc. Rather than fitting the prototype, individuals that receive grants of collective leader endorsement have drawn the attention of others and/or generated the sharing of information about their leader identity among members of the collective. Such individuals do this by *breaking* the prototype and demonstrating that they are a positively atypical leader (i.e., claiming a leader identity).

Types of collective leader endorsement. Drawing on the leadership literature, I suggest that, because leaders can engage in different types of behaviors to (implicitly or explicitly) claim a leader identity, there are multiple types of collective leader endorsements. Although there are many different styles (e.g., transformational leadership, servant leadership, transactional leadership, etc.) that a leader can epitomize, the behaviors that the leader enacts within those styles will typically fall into one of two

broad categories² – task- and relation-oriented (DeRue et al., 2011). Some of the earliest work on leadership behaviors reiterates this breakdown by suggesting that such leader behaviors can be broken down into two different categories – “consideration” behaviors and “initiating structure” behaviors (Fleishman, 1953). This evolved to become known as task- and relation-oriented behaviors. Task-oriented behaviors involve tasks that provide direction or demonstrate the leader’s competence such as assigning tasks to followers or creating solutions to work problems raised by the followers (Yukl, 2011). In contrast, relation-oriented behaviors focus more on providing support and encouragement and creating a sense of respect within the relationship (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2011). Meta-analytic evidence provides additional support for the distinct nature of each category of behaviors both in generating leadership perceptions as well as leading to key organizational outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004).

When first established, the two types of leader behaviors focused on the leader rather than the relationship between the leader and follower and looked at one point in time (Fleishman, 1953). However, work relationships literature and leadership identity construction theory also highlights the importance of these behaviors within the leadership relationship. For example, research on work relationships suggests that behaviors such as effective coordination and building respect are critical to forming and maintaining a strong work relationship (Ferris et al., 2009). Furthermore, empirical research on leadership identity construction theory suggests that, even though this theory is grounded in the relational view, claims and grants of leader identity are at least

² Some scholars suggest that change-oriented behaviors are a separate type of leadership. However, because we are focusing more on the dynamic nature of leadership perceptions, arguably all behaviors fit under the “change” umbrella.

partially determined by the leader's competency behaviors (Marchiondo et al., 2015). Therefore, I suggest that the two types of leadership behaviors can be used as a basis to formulate two types of collective leader endorsement – task-oriented collective leader endorsement and relation-oriented collective leader endorsement. Specifically, I suggest that an individual can receive grants of relation-oriented leader identity based on the perception that the individual is providing the support and consideration for others and an individual can receive grants of task-oriented leader identity based on the perception that the individual is competent and can provide structure and direction for others. In short, a leader can be collectively endorsed based on a relation-oriented leader identity, a task-oriented leader identity, or both.

Understanding collective leader endorsement using leadership networks

Although most work on the relational view of leadership has focused on the traditional, dyadic-level relationship, recent work has begun to challenge this tradition by examining a follower's relationship with managers at multiple levels (Self, Holt, & Schaninger, 2005) or even the differential LMX relationships at the team level (e.g., Ma & Qu, 2010). One area of interest when going beyond the dyad has been the examination of the intersection between the relational view of leadership and social networks analysis. This is a natural extension because social networks analysis allows us to expand beyond the dyadic leader-follower relationship and look at how the leadership relationship fits within the broader collective. In fact, scholars have found that a social networks approach to leadership is particularly fruitful because it allows scholars to capture the organic nature of ties in the organization (i.e., not researcher-imposed work groups) while

concurrently recognizing that the interconnectedness (or lack thereof) of individuals has a significant impact on leadership (Carter, DeChurch, Braun, & Contractor, 2015).

Using leadership networks to develop informal social structures. In general, scholars suggest that there are three areas of significant intersection between leadership and social networks: 1) the importance of the informal leadership structure within organizations; 2) the nature of the relationship between dyads (i.e., leaders and followers) in terms of “tie strength” (Granovetter, 1973); and 3) cognitive understandings of the informal leadership structure (Sparrowe & Emery, 2015). Most the work on leadership networks has focused on the first area by examining how the leadership structure can affect the organization. Specifically, scholars have typically equated the network to the team and determined the impact of the shape of the network on team performance. For example, in a meta-analysis of 37 studies, Balkundi and Harrison (2006) found that, when taking a cross-sectional approach, a team structure where leaders are central in the intra-group network lead to increases in team performance. Leadership networks have also been used to understand changing network structures by comparing the dynamics of certain structures such as centralized and distributed leadership networks and how they change over time (Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson 2006; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010). Specifically, networks have been particularly valuable in expanding our understanding of collective leadership and how the different node attributes (i.e., expertise) can influence not only the leadership structure, but also how having the “right” node in the “right” place can influence salient network outcomes (Friedrich, Vessey, Schuelke, Ruark, & Mumford, 2009).

Using leadership networks to highlight ties among members of the collective.

In addition to the work on leadership as generating an informal social structure, scholars have conducted a great deal of research on the nature of the leadership relationship within a network (i.e., tie strength) and its associated implications. For example, in their meta-analytic work, Balkundi and Harrison (2006) found that, in addition to the leader's centrality, the strength of the leader's interpersonal ties positively influenced team performance. Similarly, Carson, Tesluk and Marrone (2007) found that the strength of the ties (captured by social support or external coaching levels) can influence the collective's effectiveness. Some scholars have attempted to combine work on the social structure and the strength of the ties to generate a richer understanding of leadership networks. For example, Zhang and Peterson (2011) found that the strength of the tie between a formal leader and follower (as captured by the leader's level of transformational leadership) was positively related to team performance through advice network density and was dependent on the leader's centralization within the network.

Leadership network as connections among cognitive perceptions of its members. Although prior work on leadership networks has established strong theory and produced credible empirical work to extend our understanding of the first two areas of social networks and leadership (e.g., Borgatti, Mehra, Brass, & Labianca, 2009), research on the third area (cognitive networks and leadership) is wholly underdeveloped. This is particularly surprising given the growing interest in leadership and cognitive networks among scholars (Brands, 2013). This area of research proposes to look at perceived leadership networks and the implications of those mental representations of the network on the individuals' attitudes and behaviors. For example, research in this area may help

us understand the impact of an individual's perception of his/her leadership network on that individual's feelings of belongingness within an organization. Collective leader endorsement, as a cognitive perception based on grants of leader identity within the network, appears to fall within this third intersection. As such, the examination of collective leader endorsement as part of the leadership network provides an important extension of prior work on the areas of intersection of leadership and social networks.

The Role of Context in the Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement

As part of a dynamic, social process based on incomplete information, collective leader endorsement may be altered when individuals within the collective have new, critical information to consider. Specifically, work on the relational view of leadership draws from the chemistry literature to suggest that a state of dis-equilibrium can disrupt the stability of leadership perceptions and spark a change (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009). Within chemistry, this notion of dis-equilibrium shows how collectives can transform when they enter states that are far from the thermodynamic equilibrium (Prigogine, 1955). Specifically, dis-equilibrium can be created from a threat/crisis within the environment or from fluctuation generated within the collective that alters the rest of the collective (Lichtenstein & Plowman, 2009). Together, these situations are often called exogenous shocks. Of importance to collective leader endorsement, when an exogenous shock occurs, scholars suggest that the informal leadership relationships will often take precedence over formal roles even if such roles exist (Dutton, Worline, Frost, & Lilius, 2006; Powley & Piderit, 2008). As such, the impact of dis-equilibrium, otherwise known

as exogenous shocks, on collective leader endorsement may have significant implications for the collective.

Leadership crucibles as salient contextual factors. Although fluctuations from within the collective can come from many different sources (i.e., changing behaviors of any individual), threats/crises from the environment are referred to in the leadership literature as crucibles – “transformative experiences from which an individual extracts a new or altered sense of identity” (Bennis & Thomas, 2002). The term crucible comes from medieval times where a crucible was something used by alchemists to turn a base metal into gold (Thomas, 2008). In the leadership context, the crucible will be something (an experience) that can be used to turn an individual into the gold standard of leadership. Although leadership crucibles are most commonly discussed within the realm of authentic leadership (Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005), I suggest that they should also apply to the relational view on leadership because, rather than influencing a leader to enact a specific style (e.g., authentic leadership), the crucible interacts with the leader’s personal understanding of the experience to produce change (Cooper et al., 2005). In general, a crucible is a trigger event, often referred to as an exogenous shock, which can quickly shift the grants of collective leader endorsement within a leadership network. Specifically, scholars suggest there are three types of leadership crucibles: new territory crucibles, suspension crucibles and reversal crucibles.

New territory leadership crucibles. New territory crucibles involve an individual being thrust into a new situation within a collective (Thomas, 2008). For example, starting a new job or moving the company’s office to a foreign location are considered new territory crucibles. Distinct to this crucible, individuals experiencing a new territory

crucible are required to take in and make sense of new information. When this occurs, there will likely be only a few individuals that will be able to communicate the new information to others in such a way that creates shared meaning to the followers. Such activities (i.e., creating shared meaning) is often equated to a claim of leader identity. Thereby, it's likely that a new territory crucible will shift the dispersion of grants of leader identity in a way that alters levels of collective leader endorsement within the leadership network.

Suspension leadership crucibles. Suspension crucibles are experiences that require the collective or an individual to take an extended period off; essentially, where there is a gap between the old and new (Bennis & Thomas, 2002; Thomas, 2008). Examples of suspension crucibles for an individual can include losing one's job or going back to school to learn a new skill. An example of a suspension crucible for a collective may be reentering a certain market after being a non-factor there for a significant portion of time. With suspension crucibles, there is a great deal of uncertainty and tension in the situations, so individuals must gain personal understanding of the crucible using their own values. In this process, they are likely to reevaluate their grants of leader identity which can alter collective leadership endorsement within the leadership network.

Reversal leadership crucibles. Finally, reversal crucibles involve "loss, impairment, defeat or failure" (Thomas, 2008, p. 21). This type of crucible can occur at any level. At the organization level, it can be a lost account or business failure of some sort. Similarly, at the team level, it can be any type of failure on the part of the team from not getting a project done on time to making a critical error during implementation. At the individual level, such crucibles can range from big events such as being demoted to

smaller, daily events that give create an opportunity for the individual to claim a leader identity. Specifically, how the individuals within the collective respond to a reversal crucible can create changes the perceptions of leader identity within the collective. For example, during the presence of a reversal leadership crucible, an individual may take steps to claim a leader identity or an individual previously granted a leader identity may cease engaging in leader behaviors. Such alterations could shift collective leader endorsement within the leadership network.

Boundary Conditions and Contextual Considerations

Within my dissertation, I am generating theory on a specific type of team (i.e., action teams) to better understand the dynamics of collective leader endorsement. In my analyses, I am focusing on a specific action team – a sports team. Below, I outline the rationalization for focusing on action teams and the appropriateness of a sports team for testing my hypotheses.

Team type. Although there are many types of teams, I am focusing on action teams within this dissertation. Action teams are defined as a set of individuals with specialized skills (i.e., experts at what they do) that come together to coordinate their actions in intense and often unpredictable situations (Sundstrom deMeuse, & Futrell, 1990). Examples of action teams include sports teams, emergency medical teams, operating room teams, military squads and cockpit crews (Edmondson, 2003). The skill differentiation within action teams (i.e., experts with many different skills coming together to work as a team) is considered a defining characteristic of action teams (Hollenbeck, Beersma, & Shouten, 2012).

I suggest that action teams, due to their intense and unpredictable environments, demand enhanced coordination to achieve their goals. Leadership, and specifically perceptions of leadership among the members of the collective, is often critical to establishing that coordination (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). In addition, action teams are often lower in temporal stability. For example, operating room teams may work together on certain tasks, but are not always part of the same team. As such, leadership perceptions are likely to be dynamic and such dynamics may influence the team and individuals. Therefore, enhancing our understanding of leadership perceptions may be particularly important and salient to action teams leading it to be the focal type of team in this dissertation.

Social networks and sports teams. In addition, sports teams are particularly appropriate when examining the intersection of leadership and social network. Social networks are salient not only within leadership research, but also within research specifically examining leadership in the sports context. This is not particularly surprising because, as prior scholars have noted, sports teams are ideally suited for social networks analysis because a sports team captures a full network with well-defined borders giving scholars the opportunity to capture more elusive concepts (Lusher et al., 2010). For example, scholars used a network approach with a men's basketball team to examine how the leader's perceived confidence influenced their teammate's confidence and performance (Fransen, Haslam, Steffens, Vanbeselaere, De Cuyper, & Boen, 2015a). In addition, using data from sports teams allow researchers to examine the interactions within the network while concurrently providing strong support for the critical role of context given rich contextual information that is often easily accessible for sports teams

(i.e., task demands, interdependencies and situational demands). For example, without qualifying the type of task or team that makes up a network, scholars have found that distributed leadership is positively related to team performance. Yet, in a study on cricket teams – a highly interactive sport where the leader has a lot of power and control over not only the outcome, but also other members – Mukherjee (2016) found that having a more centralized captain was positively related to team performance.

Finally, research on sports leadership has also been shown in the past to be particularly influential in helping scholars understand the distinctiveness of individuals that serve as informal and formal leaders as well as the distinctiveness of different types of leaders (i.e., task- and relation-oriented). For example, in a pair of studies, researchers found that, even in the presence of a formal leader, informal leaders are still influential and that 65.1% of the leadership functions were performed by informal leaders (Loughead, Hardy, & Eys, 2006; Loughead & Hardy, 2005). Similarly, Fransen and colleagues (2014) found that only 1% of participants perceived the formal leader (i.e., team captain) as fulfilling all the leadership functions and 70.5% of the participants identified an informal leader as the “best” leader. Regarding the distinctiveness between task-oriented and relation-oriented leaders, scholars found that there was only an 18.8% overlap between those individuals identified as the best task-oriented leader and those identified as the best relation-oriented leader. Building on that, Fransen, Van Puyenbroeck, Loughead, Vanbeselaere, De Cuyper, Vande Broek, and Boen (2015b) removed the qualifier of the “best” leader and found similar overlap between task-oriented and relation-oriented leaders when players were asked only to identify their leaders. Together, this suggests that the sports context can provide unique insight that is

relevant to our understanding informal leadership and examining collective leader endorsement in a collegiate football team may similarly inform our understanding of dynamic leadership perceptions within the broader workplace.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

In this next chapter, I build on the literature review to develop my hypotheses and associated theoretical development. I start by examining the entire leadership. Building on prior work on leadership networks and leadership identity construction theory, I use the relational models of leadership theory to predict the shape of the network over time. Specifically, I suggest that the centralization of the leadership network will increase over time, but that such trajectory will be disrupted by the presence of leadership crucibles. Then, I shift from the network level to the individual level and examine the implications of receiving grants of collective leader endorsement specifically focusing on implications associated with individual functioning (i.e., well-being and performance). To do so, I draw on conservation of resources theory and appraisal theory to suggest that the dynamics of collective leader endorsement (i.e., the extent of change from week to week) can influence individual functioning through changes in perceived demands. Yet, I qualify that this relationship is contingent on the individual's leadership relationship (i.e., LMX relationship) with his/her supervisor. Finally, I narrow my focus toward the role that agreement plays in understanding the implications of collective leader endorsement at the individual level. In doing, I integrate social comparison theory and appraisal theory to suggest that agreement levels within the collective regarding whom should receive grants of leader identity can also influence individual functioning through change in perceived demands. Because individuals are simultaneously serving in the leader and follower role, such agreement can occur both when granting and receiving grants of collective leader endorsement. Together, the hypotheses will allow me to provide a multi-

dimensional analysis of the dynamics of collective leader endorsement by starting broadly at the network level and moving toward the individual level and then one specific part (i.e., agreement) that is particularly salient to our understanding of informal leadership as a dynamic, socially constructed process (see Figure 1).

Understanding Collective Leader Endorsement within the Leadership Network

Proponents of the relational view of leadership insist that leadership relationships do not occur in a vacuum; instead, the entirety of the leadership relationships creates a relational context for each individual relationship (Uhl-Bien & Ospina, 2012). For example, when Person A chooses to grant a leader identity to Person B and C, Person A is also implicitly choosing not to grant a leader identity to Person D. If Person A then chooses to grant a leader identity to Person D at a later time, it affects his/her grant of leader identity to Person B and C even though their relationships did not change. Essentially, any change in grant of leader identity affects the rest of the leadership network. Therefore, to truly understand collective leader endorsement, we need to examine the shape of the network and how it changes over time. The “shape” of the network creates the relational context, which helps explain collective leader endorsement within the organization.

Social networks analysis. Social networks analysis, grounded in sociology, examines how the network structure can constrain social behavior and social change (Wellman, 1983). Specifically, network theory examines the consequences of network variables such as the number of ties or node location with respect to the rest of the network (Brass & Halgin, 2012). Regarding terminology, network theory focuses on

nodes (the individuals within the network), ties (the links between the individuals) and network structure (the pattern created by the ties) (Borgatti & Halgin, 2011). The tie can be indicated as present/absent or scholars can theorize as to the weight of the tie and examine how that affects the network structure. I suggest that, to gain a deeper understanding collective leader endorsement than currently offered in the literature, it is necessary to look beyond a count of how many followers and instead incorporate the leader's position within the network as well as the shape of the entire network. As a type of personal reputation, collective leader endorsement is based both on actions from the individual and on perceptions of others within the collective (Zinko et al., 2011). As such, it is critical to examine how well-connected an individual is and whether his/her leader identities put that individual right in the "thick of things" to accurately capture collective leader endorsement (Scott, 2013).

Relational models of leadership theory. It is not sufficient to examine a leader's collective leader endorsement at one point in time. Because it is grounded in the relational view, collective leader endorsement is a socially constructed process that is inherently dynamic due to the ever-changing perceptions of the members of the collective. Therefore, it is necessary to incorporate these dynamics into our understanding of collective leader endorsement. Within the leadership network, I suggest that the amount of information received by members of the collective will change over time leading to changes in the choice to grant (or withhold grants) of leader identity for certain individuals. Specifically, I draw on the relational models theory of leadership (Wellman, 2017) to suggest that, over time, the individual perceptions of leader identity by members of a collective will converge to create a consensus where the majority of the individuals

are granting a leader identity to a select few. Based on the type of collective identity context present within action teams, I suggest that the perceptions of collective leader endorsement will converge over time (i.e., increasing centralization of collective leader endorsement within the collective).

The relational models theory of leadership builds on prior work on collective-level dynamics to suggest that, as members of the collective interact, they generate shared interpretations, “which over time may converge on consensual views of the group” (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000, p. 10). Specifically, the relational models theory of leadership suggests that a collective-level identity such as collective leader endorsement unfolds through a four-step process where individuals engage in (1) *sensemaking* to form their initial perceptions; (2) *interacting* with other members of the collective so those perceptions can get shared among the group; (3) *challenging* perceptions, which occurs when views of collective leader endorsement among members of the collective are called into question and (4) *cementing* the views by making such perceptions stable and resistant to change (Wellman, 2017).

There is additional support for this convergence process in the broader literature on personal reputations from which collective leader endorsement is conceptualized. Specifically, such research suggests that, as individuals become aware of others’ reputations, they will concur with those reputations. Said differently, as time goes on, members of the collective will be cognitively biased to confirm those reputations (Smith & Collins, 2009). Interesting, such literature provides a more nuanced understanding of how the interactions help to share perceptions among the collective by noting that the information received from others is even more likely to lead to a grant of leader identity

than first-hand interaction information. Specifically, any interaction with a potential leader is going to be perceived through the individual's own lens and colored by that individual's past experiences, personality and values (Kang & Bodenhausen, 2015). However, when receiving the information based on someone else's perception, the individual is unlikely to attempt to reinterpret and make different judgments than the one portrayed to them by others (Mohr & Kenny, 2006). Furthermore, even if the individual was going to attempt to reinterpret the information, it was likely reported to them with such a slant that the recipient of the information is much more likely to just confirm this admittedly biased communication (Higgins & Rholes, 1978). For example, Individual X could interact with potential Leader A. In this interaction, Leader A could give only minimal directions and Individual X could interpret this as Leader A trusting him/her to make the right decisions. When this interaction is communicated to Individual Y, Individual X would be unlikely to just state that s/he received minimal directions. Instead, the communication about the interaction would be biased and focus on how empowering Leader A had been. Specifically, Individual X would likely describe the interaction in such a way that Individual Y would develop a similar impression of Leader A and likely also grant a leader identity to Leader A.

Convergence of leadership perceptions in a leadership network. To determine *what* the convergence of collective leader endorsement perceptions is most likely to look like in the leadership network, I draw on the relational models theory of leadership. This theory suggests that the collective identity context can be broken into two different categories – authority ranking and communal sharing (Wellman, 2017). The determination of which category is most applicable is based on four components. First,

the type of context depends on the extent of formal hierarchical differentiation (i.e., the extent to which the group relies on formal titles or level of authority to choose their initial leaders). Second, the organizational reward system – specifically whether the collective is rewarded on a group or individual basis – can determine the initial collective identity context. The third component focuses on the individuality in the team intergroup competition. Specifically, it helps dictate the extent to which the collective encourages “self-definition in terms of the attributes of that group” (Wellman, 2017, p. 602). Finally, the fourth component focuses more on the group in comparison to their peers; specifically, the exclusivity of the group. The specific type of collective identity context gives insight into whether the shape of the collective is more likely to resemble one of high centralization (i.e., authority ranking) or high density (i.e., communal sharing).

I theorize that action teams are more likely to resemble an authority ranking context and therefore demonstrate increasing centralization over time. The relational models theory of leadership (Wellman, 2017) suggests that an authority ranking context is most likely to occur when there is high hierarchical differentiation, individual rewards, low intergroup competition, and low exclusivity; whereas a communal sharing context is marked by low hierarchical differentiation, group rewards, high intergroup competition, and high exclusivity. Action teams, by their unpredictable nature, require coordination to deal with the uncertainties and such coordination is most easily accomplished when there is clear designation of authority such as in a high hierarchical differentiation context. In addition, due to the specialized expertise of the individuals within action teams, individuals are likely to focus on the distinctiveness rather than the similarity within the

team equating to low intergroup competition (Sundstrom, McIntyre, Halfhill, & Richards, 2000).

However, the reward system in action teams and the exclusivity of an action team may vary based on the team. For example, military squads are often seen as action teams (Walumbwa et al., 2011), yet membership in such squads may be more or less exclusive depending on the level of the squad within military ranking. Similarly, professional music groups are considered action teams (Sundstrom et al., 1990) and those rewards may vary from individual rewards (i.e., endorsement opportunities) to team rewards (i.e., Grammy nominations). This suggests that the collective identity context may be weaker for action teams than other teams. When the collective identity context is weaker due to its hybrid nature, composition of the personal attributes of members of the collective are more likely to play a role (Wellman, 2017). Specifically, “in weak identity contexts, greater heterogeneity in collective composition is likely to produce a pattern of collective-level leadership behaviors that is more consistent with the authority ranking context” (Wellman, 2017, p. 608). For action teams, there is an inherent heterogeneity in the collective composition because, by definition, action teams are highlighted by the expertise and unique skills that each member brings to the team. Therefore, even though an action team’s authority ranking identity is weaker, this gives room for group composition to be influential which further supports authority ranking identity context.

Overall, I suggest that, in the beginning, perceptions of leader identity may be disparate throughout the organization due to limited information and the initial sensemaking process that is occurring within the collective. However, as more information becomes known about the potential leaders and the potential suitability of

granting those individuals a leader identity, there will be a convergence of perceptions. This convergence will result in higher levels of collective leader endorsement for fewer individuals. At the network level, this phenomenon is synonymous with network centralization. A highly centralized network describes a cohesive network where all the ties are centered on just a few focal points (Scott, 2013). Therefore, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: The centralization of the leadership network will increase over time

Exogenous shocks as drivers of change in the leadership network. Although sensemaking and perceptual convergence can explain the general trajectory of change in leadership perceptions in a leadership network, significant *shocks* can alter this trajectory. Within social networks analysis, the examination of dynamic network change and identifying points of significant shock is still in its infancy (Scott, 2013). When focusing on an individual's level of collective leader endorsement over time, I suggest that examining exogenous shocks is critical to enhancing our understanding of the patterns of the leadership network. Network scholars describe exogenous shocks as events that spark changes to the interactions of the individuals within a network (McCulloh & Carley, 2011). Said differently, exogenous shocks are things that, rather than affecting just one individual, affect the entire collective to alter the patterns of cognition and behavior within the collective (Burke, Stagl, Salas, Pierce, & Kendall, 2006; Barley, 1986; Meyer, Brooks, & Goes, 1990). For example, when new legislation comes out that changes the way a firm can do business, this would be considered an exogenous shock because it will likely create interactions within the organization that change relationships. Within the

leadership network, individuals may change their grants of leader identity based on changes affecting the entire collective (i.e., exogenous shocks).

The relational models theory of leadership similarly promotes the importance of exogenous shocks in understanding collective identities. However, the theory narrows down the type of shock and suggests that the most relevant types of exogenous shocks are called identity jolts. Specifically, scholars define identity jolts as any event that affects the collective and causes individual members to question their prevailing cognitive template of leader identity and, perhaps more importantly, their self-perception of their role within the leadership network (Wellman, 2017). As individuals look to others to determine where to grant leader identities, they have certain expectations about potential leaders based on norms and past behaviors. These can expectancies serve as “perceptual filters” for the individual that is determining whether to grant that individual a leader identity. However, when individuals that have been granted leader identity fail to conform to these expectations, which is particularly likely to happen during identity jolts, the collective’s attention is redirected and there is heightened potential for change to collective leader endorsement (Burgoon, 1993). However, while the relational models theory of leadership narrows down the broad concept of exogenous shocks toward a narrower conceptualization focusing on changes in identity, the literature is still lacks clarity as to potential types of identity jolts. Given its similar focus on events altering identity, I draw on the leadership crucibles literature to theorize specific types of identity jolts that may occur.

Leadership crucibles: Example of an exogenous shock. I suggest that leadership crucibles serve as identity jolts that can affect grants of leader identity within a collective

and ultimately the shape of the leadership network. A leadership crucible, as a potential crisis or point of significant change in the organization, causes individuals within the organization to reevaluate their surroundings. One of the key things that followers will reevaluate is whom to grant a leader identity to. This provides an opportunity not only for individuals to rise up and claim a leader identity, but also for individuals to join together for their own collective growth (Dutton et al., 2006). Specifically, individuals can band together and create a cohesive consensus regarding collective leader endorsement within the leadership network. The pre-existing relationships in the organization give the individuals the opportunity to come together and strengthen how the leader identity perceptions beyond even what it was prior to the crucible (Kahn, 1998). However, crucibles can also cause the individuals to reassess their leadership perceptions, but it may not bring the individuals in the collective together. Instead, individuals previously granted a leader identity may shirk under the crucible. Therefore, leadership crucibles, as identity jolts, will create a significant change to the structure of the leadership network, but the direction of the change will depend on how individuals within the collective react to the crucible.

Within an action team, all three types of leadership crucibles – new territory, suspension and reversal crucibles – are likely to lead to a decrease in centralization of the leadership network during that period. Specifically, the specialization of the individual members within an action team limits the strength of shared perceptions within the collective. Instead, scholars have found that action teams that don't have a shared schema (i.e., because of lack of cross-training) suffer from lower team performance (Marks, Sabella, Burke, & Zaccaro, 2002). For example, on the football team, the offensive

players may not know *why* the rest of the team sees a defender as a leader, but they also grant that defender a leader identity because of the collective perceptions. If a crucible occurs, the lack of understanding as to *why* that individual was granted a leader identity will make it more likely that an individual will change their grants of leader identity to someone they know better (i.e., another offensive player). Therefore, I hypothesize that the presence of a leadership crucible will limit the trajectory of increasing centralization during that period.

Hypothesis 2: The presence of a leadership crucible will significantly decrease the centralization of the leadership network during that period.

Dynamics of Receiving Grants of Collective Leader Endorsement from Individuals within the Collective

As the overall shape of the leadership network changes, so too do the positions of the individuals within the leadership network. For example, as the leadership network becomes more centralized, some individuals will shift toward the center of the network and receive additional grants of leader identity (i.e., increased collective leader endorsement) and some individuals will shift toward the fringe of the network and receive less grants of leader identity (i.e., decreased collective leader endorsement). This shift and associated change in grants of collective leader endorsement can affect the individual's ability to function within the collective. As such, I suggest that the dynamics of collective leader endorsement have implications not only for the shape of the leadership network, but also for the individuals within the collective. Specifically, as an individual's level of collective leader endorsement increases, I suggest that the extent to

which an individual perceives demands in the environment also increases. This has downstream effect of limiting an individual's well-being and performance, but it can be attenuated by a high-quality relationship (i.e., LMX relationship) with one's supervisor. Overall, I predict that, although increasing leader identity may be desirable, it can have some detrimental effects for the individual (see Figure 2).

The role of collective leader endorsement in demands perceptions of individuals within the collective. As the structure of the leadership network changes, the position of the individuals within the network will similarly change. This changing position can have significant implications for the individuals within the network. Specifically, receiving increasing grants of leader identity from a multitude of followers – and thereby increasing an individual's level of collective leader endorsement – can strengthen that individual's identity as the leader. Yet, this strengthened identity can come at a cost for the individual due to two key elements: uncertainty due to change in identity and the associated demands of the leader role.

Uncertainty generated by changes in leader identity. Capturing leadership as a socially prescribed identity naturally leads to uncertainty because, unlike when an individual is assigned to a formal leader role, such identity is subject to change at any time. For example, in describing the claiming and granting process, leadership identity construction theory suggests that the leader identity is the consequence of a continual negotiation process whereby an individual can continually claim leader identity, but grants can be given or withdrawn at any time. This uncertainty becomes particularly salient when the individual's level of collective leader endorsement is changing.

Drawing on conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011), I suggest that this uncertainty associated with changing grants of leader identity will affect the individual by draining the individual's resources. Specifically, as an individual receives increasing grants of leader identity, the individual begins to shift more from the role of a follower to the leader role. This new opportunity, although potentially exciting, also brings additional uncertainty due to the increased potential for subsequent loss of leader identity. Scholars suggest that this potential loss will be more salient to the individual than the potential gains thereby making increases in collective leader endorsement draining for the individual (Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson, & Shavit, 2005).

Enhanced demands associated with a leader identity. Although uncertainty and potential for loss of leader identity may occur during the gain or loss of leader identity, I suggest that increasing collective leader endorsement will be particularly draining due to the associated increase in demands when an individual becomes a leader. Although a great deal of research focuses on how the leader can influence the *followers* drain of resources, there is very little work examining whether serving in the leader role is draining. For example, Wilson, Sin and Conlon (2010) allude to the demands of the leader role and suggest that future research is needed to determine how the demands and potential resources of the role can influence the leader. Indirectly, scholars have found that serving in the leader role can be draining because individuals required additional resources (i.e., strong core self-evaluations) to engage specifically in transformational leader behaviors (Doci & Hofmans, 2015). As such, I suggest that the drain associated with uncertainty of the stability of a leader identity compounded with the drain associated with the demands of being a leader will be particularly harmful to individuals.

When an individual's resources are drained, it creates a loss spiral for that individual. Within a loss spiral, a drained individual is more likely to recognize and become negatively affected by other potential demands in the environment (Bakker & Costa, 2014). For example, empirical work on the spillover effect between an individual's work and home life suggests that an individual that is experiencing demands at work will experience more demands at home (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Similarly, scholars have found that those individuals experiencing certain episodic demands during the day are more likely to perceive additional demands at work (Reina-Tamayo, Bakker, & Derks, 2017). For example, Sonnentag, Kuttler and Fritz (2010) found that individual experience stressors at work (i.e., high workload) in the workplace are more likely to also experience other stressors such as emotional dissonance and work-family conflict. Therefore, I suggest that the drain associated with changing levels of collective leader endorsement will lead to enhanced perceived demands. I formally hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3: Within-individual increases in collective leader endorsement are positively related to increases in an individual's level of perceived demands

Appraisal theory. I draw on appraisal theory to gain a deeper understanding of *when* increases in collective leader endorsement will spark a loss spiral and lead the individual to perceive enhanced demands. Scholarly work suggests that demands in the workplace can be appraised as hindrance or challenge stressors. Hindrance stressors are those demands within the workplace that are perceived to be obstacles to the individual's personal growth or interfere with that individual's ability to achieve their goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). In contrast, challenge stressors are those demands within the

workplace that are perceived to be an opportunity for growth and unlikely to interfere with one's personal goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Such distinction is important because the appraisal of a situation (i.e., increases in collective leader endorsement) helps to determine whether the situation is likely to spiral and generate alter perceptions of additional demands in the environment.

When faced with potentially stressful circumstances, the individual engages in a primary appraisal whereby the individual determines whether the circumstances should be considered demanding (either hindrance or challenging) or whether the circumstances are merely benign and not stressful. Appraisal theory also suggests that, once a primary appraisal has determined that the circumstances are considered a stressor, the individual engages in a secondary appraisal to determine his/her ability to cope with the stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Specifically, if an individual perceives that he/she can overcome the stressor, it becomes appraised as a challenge stressor. In contrast, if an individual perceives that he/she cannot overcome the stressor, then it becomes appraised as a hindrance stressor. The secondary appraisal is a subconscious process whereby the individual is taking stock of their resources (e.g., social support or generalized self-efficacy) to determine if the resources are sufficient to conquer the perceived demand (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Therefore, the presence of a salient resource can shift the appraisal away from a hindrance and limit the draining impact of the stressor (i.e., increases in collective leader endorsement).

LMX relationships altering the appraisal. I suggest that the quality of the individual's LMX relationship with their supervisor will be a particularly salient resource. A high-quality LMX relationship is marked by mutual trust, respect, obligation,

and liking; whereas, a low-quality LMX relationship is more transactional and based predominantly on economic exchanges (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Empirical evidence suggests that individuals with high quality LMX relationships are more likely to have enhanced job performance, increased citizenship behaviors, and enhanced organizational commitment (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2015). Similarly, scholars suggest that high-quality LMX relationships can halt the loss spiral because the relationship provides psychological resources to help the individual recover and overcome potential stressors (e.g., Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti & van den Heuvel, 2015). Therefore, I suggest that the quality of LMX relationship with one's supervisor can alter the individual's appraisal of increases in collective leader endorsement as hindering.

When an individual has a high-quality LMX relationship with his/her supervisor, potential demands within the environment are less likely to be appraised as hindering despite the potential drain associated with increasing collective leader endorsement thereby limiting any connection between increases in collective leader endorsement and the perception of demands within the environment. Alternatively, individuals with low quality LMX relationships will be unlikely to perceive that they can cope the stressors, so the drain associated with increasing collective leader endorsement will be enhanced leading the individual to perceive other demands in the environment. Thus, I formally hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: Quality of the LMX relationship between the individual and the supervisor will moderate the positive relationship between within-individual increases in collective leader endorsement and increases in an individual's level

of perceived demands such that when LMX quality is high, the positive relationship is weakened and when LMX quality is low, the positive relationship is enhanced

Downstream effects of receiving grants of collective leader endorsement for an individual within the collective. Stress has become a salient issue in the workplace not only because of its short-term effects (i.e., the presence of demands can lower engagement and enhance emotional exhaustion), but also because of its increasing effects over time (i.e., chronic burnout). When examining increasing perceived demands, I suggest that the increase in perceived demands over time will have an impact on the individual's functioning level. Said differently, the greater the rate of increase in an individual's perceived demands over time, the lower the rate of increase in individual functioning. Specifically, I argue that increases in individual functioning are best captured by examining increases in well-being and task performance.

Individual well-being. There are many different conceptualizations in the literature regarding how to measure workplace well-being, particularly in breadth of the construct covered. However, in general, many scholars suggest that well-being consists of hedonic well-being (feelings of happiness and other pleasant thoughts/emotions) and eudaimonic well-being (feelings of meaningfulness and growth) (Diener, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff, 1989). Within the workplace, much of the motivation and energy that individuals experience are direct results of their well-being. For example, scholars suggest that fulfilling basic psychological needs such as belongingness within a collective can serve as a foundation for motivation and achieving higher levels of well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Meta-analytic work also emphasizes the critical nature of well-being

suggesting that workplace well-being can have strong implications for an employee's health, costs of organization-provided healthcare benefits, an employee's desire to stay/leave an organization and an employee's overall happiness outside of work (Parks & Steelman, 2008). When an individual is drained due to the loss spiral of increasing demands, it will decelerate any increases in well-being on the part of the individual. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 5: Within-individual increases in an individual's level of perceived demands is negatively related to increases in individual well-being

Individual task performance. There are many different definitions of job performance depending on whether the focus is on specific tasks within an individual's job or whether the definition is made to include other "optional" behaviors such as deviant behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors. One of the most accepted definitions of job performance specifies task performance (those focused on the individual's specific role) and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Specifically, there are two types of behaviors that make up task performance. First, there are those activities that directly turn raw materials into goods for the organization. Second, there are those activities that serve the technical core so that others can turn raw materials into goods. Both components are critical because they help the organization succeed, so both are considered key elements of an individual's task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). When an individual is experiencing increasing perceived demands, the individual may not have the energy or desire to put effort into engaging in activities that exemplify high levels of task performance. Therefore, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6: Within-individual increases in an individual's level of perceived demands is negatively related to increases in individual performance

Moderated mediation. Overall, I suggest that increasing collective leader endorsement will influence an individual's appraisal of other potential demands in the environment such that the greater the increase, the greater the increase in perceived demands. However, based on appraisal theory, this relationship is contingent on the quality of the individual's LMX relationship with their supervisor where individuals with high-quality LMX relationships will be less susceptible to the loss spiral and subsequent demands because of an enhanced perception of their own coping ability. I also hypothesized that increases in perceived demands would have a downstream effect on the individual's functioning level. Specifically, the greater the increases in perceived demands, the lower the increase in individual performance and well-being. Combined, these hypotheses imply moderated mediation such that the quality of the LMX relationship with an individual's supervisor moderates the first stage of the indirect effect connecting increases in collective leader endorsement to increases in individual performance and well-being (c.f. Edwards & Lambert, 2007). That is, if an individual has a high-quality LMX relationship with his/her supervisor, then the within-person, indirect effects will be diminished. Similarly, if an individual has a low-quality LMX relationship with his/her supervisor, then the within-person, indirect effects should be enhanced. I formally hypothesize:

Hypothesis 7: LMX quality moderates the negative indirect effect between within-individual increases in collective leader endorsement and increases in individual well-being such that when LMX quality is high, the indirect effect is weakened

Hypothesis 8: LMX quality moderates the negative indirect effect between within-individual increases in collective leader endorsement and increases in individual performance such that when LMX quality is high, the indirect effect is weakened

Agreement within the Collective regarding Grants of Collective Leader

Endorsement to Individuals

Within an informal leadership network, individuals are simultaneously serving in the leader and following role. Said differently, every individual has the potential to concurrently receive grants of leader identity and grant leader identity to other members of the collective. Going beyond the dyadic-level to focus on collective leader endorsement also invites the opportunity for divergence between an individual's perceptions of leader identity and those of the collective. Specifically, there are three different components of agreement that can have implications for an individual's functioning. *First*, an individual may grant themselves a leader identity and level of agreement would be determined by how many others in the collective also grant that individual a leader identity. *Second*, an individual may receive grants of leader identity from others in the collective thereby obtaining high levels of collective leader endorsement. The level of agreement would be determined by how much the individual agrees with those grants of leader identity based on his/her self-perceptions of leader identity. *Third*, an individual can also grant a leader identity to others in the collective.

The level of agreement would be determined by how many others in the collective agree by also granting those individuals a leader identity. I integrate social comparison theory and appraisal theory to hypothesize about the implications of both types of agreement – agreement when receiving grants of leader identity and when granting a leader identity to others – on an individual’s ability to function in the workplace (see Figure 4).

Social comparison theory. At its core, social comparison theory examines the way that individuals can gain a better understanding of themselves including their understanding of whether they agree with the collective regarding grants of leader identity. Festinger (1954) suggests that it is human nature to look to others to validate our thoughts and perceptions. As an extension, it is only natural to suggest that individuals will look to others in their social circle to verify that they have identified the right person as the leader and determine if there is a consensus. When a perception is based more on non-objective information (i.e., how someone makes you feel rather than how an individual performed on a task), individuals are particularly inclined to look to others to verify their own perception. In addition, because of their subjective nature, these perceptions are often unstable and can change at any time. As such, individuals will continue to compare their grants of leader identity with others to continually reaffirm their own perceptions (Festinger, 1954).

Empirical evidence suggests that this comparison process may have strong implications for the individual. For example, when the individual is unable to find someone to compare and reaffirm his/her own perceptions, that individual can experience high levels of discomfort and strain (Taylor, Buunk, & Aspinwall, 1990). Furthermore, when the individual can find others to affirm their perceptions and perceive that the

collective has come to a consensus, the individual will feel a sense of belongingness and gain valuable psychological resources (Bliese & Britt, 2001). However, such psychological resources may be particularly fleeting since perceptions are susceptible to change and individuals are likely to keep looking to the collective to continually confirm their perceptions. Essentially, social comparison theory suggests that individuals can find comfort and affirmation in their beliefs when looking outward to compare those beliefs with others, but such comfort may be short-lived as those comparisons are ever changing as the information and situation changes. While social comparison theory offers insight into the psychological benefits (detriments) of agreeing (disagreeing) with referent others, it does not offer insight into the potential implications of those psychological benefits (determinants). Therefore, I integrate appraisal theory to examine the proximal and downstream effects of agreement with others regarding leader identity.

Appraisal theory. As noted above, when individuals are faced with potentially stressful situations, appraisal theory suggests that individuals engage in a primary and secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Specifically, individuals will determine whether the situation is stressful or benign and, if stressful, whether they believe they have the resources to overcome the situation. Together, the primary and secondary appraisals determine the impact of the situation on an individual's well-being. Recent empirical evidence reiterates the importance of the appraisal process by suggesting that it is not the objective characteristics of the situation driving change in individual well-being; it is the appraisal process (LePine, Zhang, Rich, & Crawford, 2016; Webster, Beehr, & Love, 2011). For example, two individuals experiencing the same high

workload may not have the same diminished well-being because it depends on how the individuals *appraise* the high workload.

Such distinction is critical because an individual's current psychological state plays a key role in the appraisal process thereby also helping to determine the impact of the potentially stressful situations. For example, an individual feeling discomfort due to disagreement from a social comparison is likely to appraise a situation as stressful because that individual may be unable to cope with any potential demands. Alternatively, an individual with boosted psychological resources from a positive social comparison is likely to appraise the same situation as manageable due to a perceived ability to cope with any demands. Said differently, the psychological impact of a social comparison helps determine the other demands that an individual perceives in the workplace and the downstream effect of such an appraisal.

Implications of agreement when receiving a grant of leader identity from the collective. As a member of the collective, an individual has the potential to receive grants of leader identity from other members of the collective. However, equally as influential is the individual's perceptions of their own leader identity within the collective. Scholars suggest that this self-perception is best captured by an individual's leader self-efficacy (Guillen, Mayo & Korotov, 2015), which is defined as an individual's "belief in their perceived capability to organize their positive psychological capabilities, motivation, means, collective resources, and courses of action required to attain effective, sustainable performance across their various leadership roles, demands, and contexts" (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008, p. 670). For example, Hoyt (2005) found that leader self-efficacy was positively related to leader self-identification and McCormick and

colleagues (2002) found that leader self-efficacy was positively related to the assumption of leadership positions and engaging in leadership behaviors.

Drawing on social comparison theory and appraisal theory, I suggest that when an individual is *receiving* grants of leader identity, the agreement between their self-perceptions and the perceptions of others influences the individual's perception of other demands within the environment. Specifically, I propose a 2 x 2 matrix whereby I outline the differences between agreement and lack thereof at high and low levels of self- and other-perceptions of leader identity (see Figure 3).

Distinction between agreement and disagreement of collective leader endorsement. First, I suggest that agreement of self- and other-perceptions will lead individuals to perceive less demands in their environment (i.e., individuals in Quadrant 1 and 2 will perceive less demands than individuals in Quadrant 3 and 4; see Figure 2). When individuals experience agreement among self- and other-perceptions regarding their identity as a leader, individuals will receive a psychological boost from the affirmation of their own beliefs. On the flip side, when individuals experience lack of agreement between their self-perceptions and others' perceptions of them as a leader, the individuals will be motivated to try and reduce those discrepancies either by altering their own perceptions or attempting to alter others' perceptions, both of which are draining on an individual. When combined with the lack of the psychological boost associated with agreement, the individual is likely to feel drained. When these individuals appraise their environment, they are more likely to perceive demands.

Hypothesis 9: For an individual receiving grants of collective leader endorsement from others within the collective, the amount of agreement between self-

perceptions of leader identity and other-perceptions of leader identity is negatively related to the individual's perceived demands

Distinction between agreement at high v. low levels of collective leader

endorsement. Next, I tease out the different types of agreement – agreement of self- and other-perceptions at high (Quadrant 1) and low (Quadrant 2) levels of collective leader endorsement. Because there is agreement in perceptions of leader identity, the individuals do not experience any additional drain from trying to deal with the cognitive implications of divergent perceptions. However, when individuals obtain agreement at high levels of leader identity, the demands of the leader role may be draining for those individuals. Indirectly, scholars have found that serving in the leader role can be draining and require additional resources (i.e., strong core self-evaluations) to engage in leader behaviors (Dóci & Hofmans, 2015). In addition, Wilson and colleagues (2010) alluded to the demanding nature of the leader role and suggested that future research was needed to determine the effects of being identified as the leader. On the flip side, when individuals do not self-identify as a leader and are not receiving grants of collective leader endorsement, those individuals are unlikely to experience the drain associated with the leader role. Therefore, I suggest that agreement at high levels of leader identity will be more draining to individuals sparking increased perceptions of demands in the environment.

Hypothesis 10a: The individual's perceived demands are higher when there is agreement at high levels self- and other-perceptions of leader identity than at low levels

Distinction between high other-perceptions/low self-perceptions v. low other-perceptions/high self-perceptions. Finally, I also tease out the differences between the two types of disagreement at the different levels of leader identity. Specifically, I theorize that disagreement at high levels of self-granted leader identity and low levels of collective leader endorsement (Quadrant 4) will be more draining to individuals than when other-perceptions are high and self-perceptions are low (Quadrant 3). Such drain may be generated by a cognitive or a behavioral process. From a cognitive perspective, individual's identification of themselves as a leader has been shown to affect their thought processes by altering their appraisal of the situation (Bandura, 1989). However, other-perceptions are less likely to be internalized by individuals and thereby less likely to be applied during the appraisal process. From a behavioral perspective, the extent to which individuals respond to grants of leader identity from others is less strong than the extent to which individuals act based on their own perceptions (Klein, 1997). In the former case, the perceptions may not be strong enough to alter their behavior to fit into a leader role (and its associated demands). Said differently, if individuals do not internalize others' perceptions of them as a leader, the individuals are less likely to engage in the draining leader behaviors.

Hypothesis 10b: The individual's perceived demands are lower when other-perceptions of leader identity are high and self-perceptions are low compared to when other-perceptions of leader identity are low and self-perceptions are high

Implications of agreement when granting leader identity to others. As a member of the collective, an individual also has the potential to grant leader identity to

other members of the collective. When individuals grant a leader identity to other individuals that have also been identified by others as a leader (i.e., individuals with high collective leader endorsement), it can positively influence them. Circling back to social comparison theory, when individuals feel that there is consensus of leader identities, they may find comfort from the similarity of perceptions (i.e., being part of the “in-group” due to leadership perceptions). Specifically, positive social comparisons that affirm individuals’ beliefs and allude to a consensus can help individuals cope with potential demands within their environment (Taylor et al., 1990). For example, when individuals are faced with a demanding situation, they look to others to determine how to react (Schachter & Singer, 1962). When individuals see others parroting their same beliefs and perceptions, this can have a calming influence and prompt those individuals to believe that they can cope and therefore not appraise the situation as demanding. In addition, Bliese and Britt (2001) found that when group members believed there was a consensus with regard to group leadership, members experienced less strain. Therefore, I suggest that, when granting leader identity to others, agreement between individuals’ grants of leader identity and those of the rest of collective will be negatively related to individuals’ perceptions of demands within their environment.

Hypothesis 11: For an individual granting leader identity to other individuals in the collective, the amount of weekly agreement between an individual’s leader identity perceptions and those of the rest of the collective is negatively related to the individual’s level of perceived demands

Indirect effects. Overall, I hypothesize that agreement among self- and other-perceptions when receiving or granting leader identity can diminish the amount of demands that individuals perceive within their environment. In addition, I suggest that this has a downstream effect on individual functioning. Specifically, like the dynamics model, I suggest that the amount of perceived demands negatively impacts an individual's well-being and performance. As individuals perceive more demands in their environment, valuable emotional and cognitive resources are used as they attempt to cope with the additional demands. As such, the individuals will become exhausted and have fewer resources to cope with the performance demands leading to lower well-being and performance. Combined, I hypothesize a downstream effect of agreement through perceived demands on individual well-being and performance. Specifically, I hypothesize a positive indirect effect from agreement (either when receiving or granting leader identity) to individual well-being and performance through diminished perceived demands.

Hypothesis 12: There is a positive indirect effect between agreement of self- and other-perceptions of leader identity when receiving grants of collective leader endorsement and individual well-being through perceived demands.

Hypothesis 13: There is a positive indirect effect between agreement of self- and other-perceptions of leader identity when receiving grants of collective leader endorsement and individual performance through perceived demands.

Hypothesis 14: There is a positive indirect effect between agreement of self- and other-perceptions of leader identity when granting collective leader endorsement

to others within the collective and individual well-being through perceived demands.

Hypothesis 15: There is a positive indirect effect between agreement of self- and other-perceptions of leader identity when granting collective leader endorsement to others within the collective through perceived demands.

CHAPTER 4

METHODS

Sample and Procedure

I collected data from a football team at a major university within the United States. All athletes were recruited to participate in the research study by individuals within the Athletic department that work primarily in the life skills area. They were informed that the purpose of the research was to gain a better understanding of leadership on the team. Those athletes who volunteered to participate received the initial survey prior to the start of the season and weekly surveys. Of the 121 athletes on the team, 106 individuals participated at least once throughout the course of the season yielding an 87.6% participation rate.

I collected two types of data throughout the study. First, I conducted initial interviews with 23 players and post-season interviews with the entire coaching staff³. The participants of the initial interviews were categorized based on their role of the team (i.e., offense/defense, starters v. non-starters) to represent a comprehensive view of the team and then individuals were randomly chosen by the Athletic Department from each category to participate in the interviews. The interview answers were used to derive critical distinctions between the athlete's understanding of task-oriented and relation-oriented collective leader endorsement as well as generate specific examples of daily stressors and other potential aspects of the team that may affect leadership. In addition,

³ One member of the coaching staff had left to pursue a head coaching opportunity at another university. As such, he was not available for interviews. All other members of the coaching staff participated in the interviews.

the interview answers helped me formulate the correct language for the survey items. Using language familiar to the athletes not only helped aid their understanding of the survey questions, but also helped to minimize interpretation biases that may otherwise occur. Finally, I also conducted post-season interviews from the coaching staff to gain additional insight into the breakdown of the season and when potential leadership crucibles occurred. See Appendix B and C for a list of questions from each interview.

Second, all participating athletes responded to weekly survey questions to capture the underlying leadership network structure and the time-variant constructs. The initial survey captured all the static variables including leader member-exchange and all control variables. The weekly surveys are designed to look at the change in leader identity perceptions as well as the change in key weekly outcomes such as perceived demands and well-being. The weekly surveys were distributed every Monday morning at their weekly team meeting. Such timing was necessitated by the agreement with the Athletic Department, but was likely still close enough to the performance event (i.e., the football game) to capture accurate perceptions of leadership during the game. All performance data was collected at the end of the season from a database that tracked and analyzed the performance on a weekly basis. This was done because some of the performance data was double-checked and updated at the end of the season by the database manager to ensure accuracy.

My study design is a version of experience sampling methodology (ESM) because the sampling times are strategically done to capture performance and well-being experiences each week. This design is critical because it reduces the potential noise introduced by memory bias that enters when participants are forced to remember multiple

time frames or accurately recall behaviors and perceptions long after the event has ceased (Beal & Weiss, 2003; Larson, Lingle, & Scerbo, 1984). Specifically, it allowed me to collect individual information after each event (football game) and explore both within- and between-person differences (Uy, Foo, & Aguinis, 2010). Finally, because each variable was collected multiple times (weekly for approximately 12 weeks), this allowed me to reduce potential third variable explanations that may be explaining my observed effect rather than my theoretical justifications (Beal & Weiss, 2003).

When analyzing network data and ESM data, both the inclusion criteria for the sample and the response rates were important. Network scholars require a sample with relevant boundaries because the boundaries are must clearly understood (in this case, by their role as an athlete on the team) and all individuals within the boundary must be given the opportunity to participate (Scott, 2013). Based on other ESM studies (e.g., Scott, Colquitt, Paddock, & Judge, 2010), a response rate between 50 and 80% is considered a typical response. However, for social networks studies, scholars suggest that the response rate be above 70% (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008). Therefore, I worked with the Athletic department to send repeated reminders to the athletes to complete the survey as well as had Athletic department personnel follow-up with the athletes at their regularly scheduled football activities. In addition, each week, I randomly selected three surveys from the group of completed surveys and awarded those three participants a \$20 gift card to a local restaurant. Despite these efforts, I only received an average of 40.3% of the completed surveys each week. To boost response rates above the recommended 70%, I grouped the weekly surveys into four groups – Weeks 1-3, Weeks 4-6, Weeks 7-9 and Week 10-12. Such grouping not only allowed me to obtain an average response above the

recommended 70%, but also matched the breakdown identified by the coaching staff in the post-season interviews as theoretically significant points of change.

Measures

Collective leader endorsement (network-level). For the weekly survey, each athlete received a roster of all of the individuals on their side of the ball (offense or defense) and special teams players. Those athletes that primarily play special teams received the entire roster. The athletes were asked to identify all individuals that they perceived as leaders that week. Specifically, they received a definition of task-oriented leader (as derived from the literature and the pre-season interviews) and the roster as well as a definition of relation-oriented leader and the roster. Each week, 50% of the individuals were randomly selected to receive the task-oriented leader definition (and associated roster) first and the rest received the relation-oriented leader definition (and associated roster) first. Each player only received half of the roster to minimize cognitive fatigue. However, they were also given space to include anyone else that was not on their roster and given the opportunity to identify that person as a task-oriented or relation-oriented leader. To focus on informal leader, players were directed to exclude individuals that they identified as a leader *only* because of their title as a leader within the leader.

To measure the dispersion of leader identities, I examined the entire leadership network. Specifically, I measured the centralization of the leadership network to examine the cohesiveness of the leadership network around the identified focal points (Scott, 2013). Centralization is calculated by creating ratios from the differences between each of the node's centrality measures. Specifically, centralization is the sum of all the

calculated differenced over the maximum possible sum of differences for that number of nodes. As a ratio, the centralization scores will range from 0 (every individual's centrality is the same, typically in a circle-type shape) to 1 (one person is central in the network, typically in a star-type shape). Specifically, because I focused on degree centralization, this measure focused more on nodes with local centralization than nodes that serve as bridges between the different local clusters (Freeman, 1979).

Other-perceptions when receiving grant of collective leader endorsement.

Network theory suggests that in-degree centrality⁴ best measures the various adjacent ties throughout that leader's environment (Nieminen, 1973). Therefore, to calculate each individual's level of collective leader endorsement when *receiving* a grant of leader identity, I examined the in-degree centrality of that individual. In-degree centrality measures how well-connected a node is by examining how many points are directed at that node. Degree-based centrality focuses on local centrality rather than centrality in the entire network. Specifically, I used a $k = 2$ to use individuals that directly identify the person as the leader as well as individuals one step removed to calculate centrality. This is preferable over a geodesic measure such as global centrality because such measures are less affected by changes by other nodes in the network (Scott, 2013). Theoretically, I wanted to examine changes in the leadership perceptions of those identified as a leader by certain individuals, so local centrality was a more accurate measure. In addition, I used

⁴ I chose to measure in-degree centrality rather than centrality because the ties are not necessarily reciprocal within my theory. Specifically, the followers grant an individual a leader identity, but that leader does not ever indicate who his/her followers should be. Because the focus is on receiving collective perceptions, the indication of who the followers are is not theoretically relevant. In addition, I chose to measure local centrality rather than global centrality because global centrality is a geodesic measure (Scott, 2013). For geodesic measures, any change in the network with even one tie affects the network measures for every node. This violates an assumption of independence needed for accurate analysis. I outline my methods that I will use to attempt to minimize non-independence in the Analysis section.

in-degree rather than out-degree because this allowed me to focus on the granting of leader identity. Specifically, in-degree indicates that another individual within the network has identified that this person is a leader; out-degree centrality would indicate that an individual is identifying certain individuals as have the potential to grant the focal individual leader identity and that is beyond the theoretical scope of this dissertation.

Self-perceptions when receiving grants of collective leader endorsement.

Following prior research on self-perceptions and leader identity within leadership identity construction theory (e.g., Lester, Hannah, Harms, Vogelgesang, & Avolio, 2011), I captured self-perceptions of leader identity using Hannah, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Chan's (2012) 6-item measure of leader self-efficacy. Specifically, this scale captures an individual's internal beliefs of their identity and ability to be a leader in a particular situation or at a particular point in time ($\alpha = .90$).

Agreement with others when granting collective leader endorsement. To calculate each individual's level of collective leader endorsement when *granting* leader identity to others in the collective, I examined the inverted eccentricity centrality of that individual. Eccentricity centrality measures the maximum distance for a node to all other nodes (Hage & Harary, 1995) specifically maximizing the value for those nodes that are on the outskirts of the group. In my sample, those that are on the outskirts will have minimum agreement regarding leader identity to others in the collective. I inverted the eccentricity centrality measurement to best capture the maximum agreement when granting leader identity. Scholars suggest that eccentricity centrality is better than similar centrality constructs (i.e., betweenness centrality or closeness centrality) at determining who are the most central nodes (Batool & Niazi, 2014) thereby allowing me to best

capture agreement among an individual's choice of leader identity in others and the choice of the collective.

Leader-member exchange. I measured the quality of the LMX relationship between an individual and their coach using Liden and Maslyn's (1998) 12-item measure of LMX quality ($\alpha = .96$). I theorized that the individual's relationship with a direct supervisor could aid the individual in reframing their perception of the environment as less demanding. Therefore, I chose to capture the individual's relationship with the supervisor most proximal to him – his position coach – when measuring LMX quality.

Perceived demands. Perceived demands were derived from the interview process where the athletes were asked about some of the demands that they experience during the season (both football and non-football related). The result was a 4-item measure that captured the athlete's perceived demands during the football season ($\alpha = .61$).

Individual well-being. I measured workplace well-being using a combined 11-item scale of eudaimonic workplace well-being and hedonic workplace well-being to capture the entire breadth of the workplace well-being construct (Bartels, Peterson, & Reina, 2018; $\alpha = .92$). Specifically, I adapted the scale to contextualize football-related activities as the athlete's workplace.

Task performance. To measure each athlete's performance in the game while concurrently appreciating the different demands of each position on the field, I utilized a database from Pro Football Focus (PFF) that uses statistical modeling to analyze quality of performance in football games. Specifically, PFF uses subject matter experts to watch each game and analyze performance and then uses to statistical modeling to generate a series of weighted scores for each athlete based on the demands of their position. For

example, a running back receives a score based on their running ability, catching ability and blocking ability. However, the three components are weighted based on the demands of the position meaning; for the running back, the running ability was given the most weight. For my purposes, I wanted to specifically focus on the amount of discipline that each athlete exhibits during the game. The dynamics and agreement associated with my predictor variables psychologically affect an individual's ability to perform. While the athlete may still be able to physically perform on the field, diminished mental capacity is more closely associated with decreased discipline performance. Therefore, this is the measure I used to capture the athlete's level of performance each week.

Control variables. My dissertation seeks to understand what happens after an individual emerges as an informal leader. Therefore, I collected many potential control variables to account for the individual attributes that make an individual pre-disposed to emerge as an informal leader and may contribute to an individual's level of functioning. This allowed me to focus on the implications of changing perceptions of leader identity. Specifically, past research suggests that an individual's level of generalized self-efficacy and self-monitoring may influence their ability to emerge as an informal leader (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007). Generalized self-efficacy has also been found to positively influence an individual's level of well-being (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005). I measured generalized self-efficacy using Chen, Gully and Eden's (2001) scale ($\alpha = .98$) and self-monitoring using Snyder's (1974) scale ($\alpha = .91$). Furthermore, an individual's desire to emerge as a leader may be influenced by their motivation to lead and narcissism (Hill & Roberts, 2012). Scholars suggest that motivation to lead can influence team performance (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007) and narcissism influences individual well-being. I

measured motivation to lead using a 12-item shortened version of Chan and Drasgow's (2001) scale ($\alpha = .96$) and narcissism using a 16-item shortened version of the NPI that has been previously validated by Ames, Rose, and Anderson (2006; $\alpha = .91$).

When determining who to grant leader identity, an individual's perception may be influenced by their formal leaders (e.g., their position coach). To attempt to minimize this, I controlled for the follower's perception of transformational leadership provided by their coach using Avolio, Bass and Jung's (1999; $\alpha = .98$) measure of transformational leadership. Finally, I also captured the Big 5 personality traits ($\alpha = .92$) and key demographic variables such as: position on the depth chart, years on the team, age, whether the athlete was a designated captain and ethnicity.

As noted below, most of my analyses were conducted at the within-person level to examine change over the course of the season. Given that the majority of the control variables are time invariant variables, they likely had only minimal effects on the results. However, given my challenges with response rates, I was limited on the amount of power in my relationships. Therefore, I excluded all control variables from my analyses.

Overview of Results and Analyses

The results are separated below into three components based on the different types of analyses: social networks, latent growth modeling, polynomial regression and multilevel modeling. First, I outline the results from the social network analyses to test Hypotheses 1-2. Such analyses examine the patterns of the leadership networks over the course of the football season (including hypothesized identity jolts for leadership crucibles). Next, I examined the dynamics of collective leader endorsement and the

implications of increasing collective leader endorsement for the individual (Hypotheses 3-8). Then, I overview the results that examined agreement among grants of leader identity for individuals within the collective. Specifically, I examined the implications of agreement between individuals' self-perceptions and other's perceptions of leader identity when *receiving* grants of leader identity (Hypotheses 9-10) using multilevel polynomial regression analyses. Finally, I used multilevel modeling and tested a comprehensive model that examined the implications of agreement when *receiving* grants of leader identity and when *granting* a leader identity to others in the collective (Hypotheses 11-15). For all individual analyses, I conducted three sets of analyses using the task-oriented leadership network, the relation-oriented leadership network and the multiplex leadership network. Unfortunately, only results for the relation-oriented leadership network were significant. Therefore, to maintain consistency, all reported results at the individual-level use the relation-oriented network measures.

Social Network Analysis and Results

Analyses. For the social network analysis (Hypotheses 1-2), I created an agent-by-agent matrix where each cell indicates a tie or absence of a tie (e.g., whether the respondent granted that individual leader identity) between two agents. Specifically, there are three separate matrices: those individuals granted task-oriented collective leader endorsement, those individuals granted relation-oriented collective leader endorsement and a multiplex matrix that includes individuals that were identified as either type. In the last matrix, the weight within the cell will be the sum of the weights from the other two matrices. To determine the appropriate network to use for my analyses, I conducted a

social-network-specific analysis called the quadratic assignment procedure (QAP) test (Krackhardt, 1988). This test allows me to determine if there is a significant relationship between the ties in the different leadership networks. Specifically, it allowed me to test the difference between the relation-oriented and task-oriented collective leader endorsement network to determine if it is appropriate to use the multiplex leadership network. The QAP-test uses restricted permutation tests to address the problem of the autocorrelated structure of network data (Dekker, Krackhardt, & Snijders, 2007) making it less biased than a classical hypothesis test (Krackhardt, 1988).

Next, in line with prior work on leadership and social networks analysis (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Fransen et al., 2015a) and the relational models of leadership theory (Wellman, 2017), I calculated the centralization of the leadership network to test my hypotheses. Specifically, this measures the strength of the ties (i.e., leadership relationships) among the different nodes (i.e., team members). Within social networks analysis, the weight on the tie typically refers to the distance between two ties. When calculating network measures, such as centrality, higher numbers indicate a further distance between the nodes. In this case, the weight of the node refers to the strength of the leadership perception and a higher number is theoretically reflective of a closer tie. Therefore, in each matrix, I created inverse scores before conducting the centralization analyses.

For my hypothesis testing of the network, I engaged in two complementary analyses. First, I examined the patterns of each of the three networks (task-, relation-oriented and multiplex) to determine the predominant shape for each time frame and determine the trajectory of the centralization of the network. Specifically, I followed the

patterns described by Mehra and colleagues (2006) to identify the prominent shape of each leadership network at each time point. Second, I examined potential disruptions to the leadership network patterns and tried to identify where the centralization is significantly different than normal shifts in the network; specifically, I used social network change detection analysis (SNCD; McCulloh & Carley, 2011). This analysis separates out change that occurs through normal shifts of time and change that occurs because of an exogenous shock; the latter of which is of theoretical interest in this dissertation. The SNCD algorithm uses any network measure and determines whether a significant change has occurred. To maintain consistency, I applied the SNCD algorithm to each network's centralization measures (task-oriented collective leader endorsement leadership network, relation-oriented collective leader endorsement network and the multiplex network) and if and when an exogenous shock occurred.

Results. First, I examined the QAP correlations between the task-oriented collective leader endorsement networks and the relation-oriented collective leader endorsement networks (at each point in time) to determine if they were distinct networks. As shown in Table 1, the average correlations between the task-oriented and relation-oriented collective leader endorsement network at any point in time are only moderate correlations suggesting that the two different types of leader networks are distinct (Fransen et al., 2015a) and therefore the multiplex network is most appropriate⁵.

⁵ Although I focused on the multiplex network in the leadership networks analyses, such analyses were not appropriate for the individual level. Specifically, at the individual, the results suggested that there were critical differences between the implications of the task-oriented and relation-oriented network and that the multiplex network may not be applicable. Instead, I focused on the relation-oriented network in all individual-level analyses.

Next, I examined the shape of the leadership network to determine whether there was a pattern of increasing centralization in line with Hypothesis 1 (see Figures 5 – 7). Interestingly, the centralization of the network was greatest during the first group of weeks (Week 1-3). However, after a significant decrease in centralization during the second group of weeks (Week 4-6), there was increasing centralization over the course of the season. This pattern was mirrored in the task-oriented collective leader endorsement networks, but it differed for the relation-oriented collective leader endorsement networks. Instead, for the latter, the pattern mirrored a distributed-coordinated leadership structure where there are two distinct groups of leaders, but they are connected by individuals that identify both individuals as leaders (Mehra et al., 2006). This pattern persisted throughout the course of the season. Taken together, the significant change in the second group and the differences in the relation-oriented collective leader endorsement suggest that Hypothesis 1 is only partially supported.

Finally, to test Hypothesis 2, I examined the graphs generated by the SNCD analysis (McCulloh & Carley, 2011) to determine if leadership crucibles significantly altered the shape of the leadership network (see Figures 8-10). Prior to running the analysis, I conducted post-season interviews with the coaching staff. They indicated that the increasing performance failures that began during the second group of weeks (Weeks 4-6) were significant challenges for the team and likely prompted individuals within the network to question and re-examine their leadership perceptions. When examining both the Shewhart X-bar graph and the Cumulative Sum graph that examine the shifts, I found that centralization was significantly different in all three leadership networks (multiplex, task-oriented collective leader endorsement and relation-oriented collective leader

endorsement) during the second group of weeks (Weeks 4-6). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Latent Growth Modeling Analyses and Results

Analyses. To test the implications of increasing grants of collective leader endorsement (Hypotheses 3-8), I used a two-step approach combining latent growth modeling and multiple regression models. Specifically, I first used latent growth modeling to generate estimates of the latent intercept (representing the initial status on a measure) and slope (representing the rate of change over time on a measure) for each individual within the collective. The generated estimates were then tested in a multiple regression model to test the conditional indirect effects. The latter step is necessary because latent growth modeling techniques are not designed to test moderated mediation effects (Ng & Lucianetti, 2016).

For latent growth modeling, the model generates estimates of the latent intercept (i.e., the initial status of the individual on a measure) and the slope (i.e., the rate of change of that measure over the course of the season) for each individual in the dataset. I followed the steps outlined by Duncan, Duncan, and Strycker (2006) to build several models and generate the needed estimates. Specifically, I set the factor loadings from the intercept factor of each of the first-order latent constructs to 1 and the factor loadings from the slope factor of each of the first-order latent constructs to 0, 1, 2 and 3. The latter is done to represent linear positive changes. Said differently, setting the factor loadings as such allows me to generate estimates based on the increases in the construct over the course of the season (i.e., perceived demands, well-being and performance).

Once generated, I exported the estimates of the latent slope factors to use in the multiple regression models and test the conditional indirect effects as hypothesized (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Specifically, I regressed the mediator (increases in the individual's perceived demands) on the predictor variable (increases in collective leader endorsement). Then, I tested for the interaction effect by regressing the mediator on the predictor variable, the moderator (quality of LMX relationship with the individual's position coach) and the interaction term. To test the conditional indirect effect, I generated indirect effects at high and low levels of the moderator (quality of LMX relationship with the individual's position coach) and then created 95% bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals for the difference in the indirect effect. If the bootstrapped confidence intervals do not include zero, then the difference between the indirect effect at high levels of the moderator and the indirect effect at low levels of the moderator is significant.

Results. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations for all constructs included in the latent growth modeling and associated multiple regression analyses. I also conducted a variance decomposition analysis to determine the proportion of variance attributable to between-individual differences and within-individual changes (Shavelson, Webb, & Rowley, 1989; see Table 3).

First, I examined the implications of increases in collective leader endorsement over the course of the season (see Table 4). Specifically, I found that increases in collective leader endorsement were not significantly related to increases in the individual's perceived demands ($B = .03$, $s.e. = .58$, $n.s.$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Hypothesis 4 examined whether the relationship between increases in

collective leader endorsement and increases in individual's perceived demands was conditional on the quality of the individual's LMX relationship with his position coach. My results demonstrated that the interaction term was negative and significant as predicted ($B = -2.03, s.e. = .77, p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Next, I examined whether increases in perceived demands would be negatively related to increases in individual well-being and individual performance (Hypotheses 5-6, respectively). I found that increases in perceived demands are negatively related to increases in well-being ($B = -.11, s.e. = .05, p < .05$) suggesting that, as the rate of increases in perceived demands grows, the rate of increase in individual well-being decreases. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported. However, there was non-convergence of the latent growth model for performance so I could not put the performance construct into the multiple regression model. Therefore, Hypotheses 6 was not supported.

Finally, I predicted that, in addition to moderating the relationship between increases in collective leader endorsement and increases in individual's perceived demands, LMX quality would serve as a first-stage moderator and moderate the negative indirect effect between increases in collective leader endorsement and the dependent variables (increases in individual well-being and performance; Hypothesis 7-8, respectively). The results demonstrate that there is a negative indirect effect from increases in collective leader endorsement to increases in individual well-being. However, the indirect effect is not significant at high or low levels of the moderator and there is not a significant difference between the indirect effect at high and low levels of LMX quality ($DIFF = .34, 95\% CI: [-.08, .75]$). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was not

supported. In addition, due to the non-convergence of the individual performance latent growth model, Hypothesis 8 was also not supported.

Polynomial Regression Analyses and Results

Analyses. To test the implications of agreement when *receiving* grants of collective leader endorsement from others in the collective (Hypotheses 9-10), I used multilevel path analysis with response surface methodology (see Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Parry, 1993). All within-person endogenous variables were group-mean centered prior to any analysis (Bliese, 2000; Enders & Tofighi, 2007) and I used random slopes modeling to test the hypothesized paths in my overall model.

First, I generated five polynomial terms – b_1 other-perceptions of leader identity, b_2 self-perceptions of leader identity, b_3 other-perceptions², b_4 other-perceptions \times self-perceptions, b_5 self-perceptions² – and regressing those terms on the mediator (individual's perceived demands). Said differently, I estimated the following equation:

$$M = b_0 + b_1O + b_2S + b_3O^2 + b_4(OS) + b_5S^2 + e$$

where M represents the individual's perceived demands, O represents other-perceptions of the level of leader identity of the focal individual to capture collective leader endorsement, and S represents self-perceptions of leader identity. Then, I used the regression coefficients to plot the three-dimensional response surface where other-perceptions (O) and self-perceptions (S) of leader identity were plotted on the perpendicular horizontal axes and the individual's level of perceived demands (M) was

plotted on the vertical axis (c.f. Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015; Cole, Carter, & Zhang, 2013).

Next, following the guidelines set out by Edwards and Cable (2009), I examined three key conditions of the response surface to test Hypothesis 9 and 10a. For the first condition, I examined the curvature of the incongruence line ($O = -S$). To support an incongruence effect (i.e., agreement between self-perceptions and other-perceptions of leader is negatively related to the individual's perceived demands), the curvature along the incongruence line must be positive and significant. Second, I examined the ridge representing the peak of the response surface. Specifically, I examined whether the dependent variable (individual's perceived demands) is minimized at the point of congruence at each level of other-perceptions (O) and self-perceptions (S) of leader identity (Edwards & Cable, 2009) as evidence by a slope of -1 and an intercept of 0 for the congruence line (Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993). In addition to examining the ridge and the slope/intercept, scholars suggest testing the significant of the peak (e.g., Cole, et al., 2013; Matta et al., 2015). Specifically, due to the nonlinear combinations of regression coefficients needed, I used 10,000 bootstrapped samples to construct 95% confidence intervals to test whether the surface along the congruence line is flat (i.e., that the individual's perceived demands is the same regardless of whether the aligned self- and other-perceptions of leader identity are low or high) as indicated by a finding that the slope does not significantly differ from -1 and the intercept does not significant differ from zero. Finally, for the third condition, I examined the slope of the congruence line. To show that the individual's perceived demands is higher for agreement at high levels of collective leader endorsement than it is for agreement at low levels of collective leader

endorsement, the slope of the congruence line ($O = S$) must be positive. Scholars suggest that typically this slope should be non-significant to establish a congruence effect (Cole et al., 2013; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Matta et al., 2015). Not all conditions are necessary to support the agreement hypotheses; the first condition is necessary to support Hypothesis 9, but if the first condition is met and the second condition is not, then the focus shifts to the third condition which focuses on the deviation of the ridge from the congruence line and suggests that agreement is driving the individual's perceived demands, but there is no need to distinguish between high and low levels of agreement. Alternatively, if the first and second condition are met, then failure to support the third condition just suggests that the maximum value of individual's perceived demands does depend on whether the agreement of collective leader endorsement between self- and other-perceptions is at low or high levels.

To test Hypothesis 10a, the asymmetrical congruence effect, I followed Matta and colleagues (2015) and examined the slope of the congruence line to determine whether the individual's perceived demands is higher for agreement between self- and other-perceptions of leader identity at high levels of collective leader endorsement than it is at low levels of collective leader endorsement. Specifically, to find support for this hypothesis, the congruence line ($O = S$) must be positive and significant (i.e., indicating that the second condition from above was not met).

To test Hypothesis 10b, I followed the approach used by Matta and colleagues (2015) and tested whether the slope of the incongruence line ($O = -S$) was negative and significant indicating that the individual's perceived demands decrease as one moves

along the incongruence line from low other-perceptions and high self-perceptions to high other-perceptions and low self-perceptions of leader identity.

Results. To begin, I conducted the within-person polynomial path analysis and corresponding three-dimensional response surface plot (see Figure 12). Hypothesis 9 predicted an agreement effect whereby the greater the agreement between self- and other-perceptions on grants of leader identity, the lower the individual's perceived demands. As shown in Figure 12, the U-shaped curve along the incongruence line ($O = -S$) demonstrates that the individual's perceived demands are lower when self-grants and other-grants of leader identity are aligned (curvature = .023, $p < .05$). To provide further support for Hypothesis 9, I examined the first principle axis to determine if the principle axis slope significantly differed from -1 and the principal axis intercept significant differ from zero. My test revealed that the intercept was not significantly different from zero because the 95% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals did include zero (-21.42, 1947.5) and the slope did not significantly differ from -1 because the 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals included -1 (-2114.5, .15). Finally, I also examined the slope of the congruence line. The slope of the congruence line ($O = S$) was positive, but not significant (slope = .13, *n.s.*) indicating that the minimum value of the individual's perceived demands did not depend on whether self- and other-perceptions of leader identity were low or high. Together, these results suggest that at each and every level of self- and other-perceptions of leader identity, the individual's perceived demands were minimized when there was agreement among such grants. Thus, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Hypothesis 10a predicted an asymmetrical congruence effect such that when self- and other-perceptions of leader identity were in agreement at high levels, the individual's perceived demands would be higher than when leader identity was in agreement at low levels. As noted above, the congruence line was positive and not significant (slope = .13, *n.s.*) indicating the congruence effect is the same at high or low levels of collective leader endorsement, therefore Hypothesis 10a is not supported. On the flip side, Hypothesis 10b predicted an asymmetrical incongruence effect. Specifically, this hypothesis suggested that the individual's perceived demands will be lower when other-perceptions of leader identity are high and self-perceptions of leader identity are low than when other-perceptions of leader identity are low and self-perceptions of leader identity are high. As predicted, the slope along the incongruence line (slope = -.53, $p < .05$) was statistically significant. Thus, Hypothesis 10b was supported.

Multilevel Modeling Analyses and Results

Analyses. In addition to testing the implications of agreement when *receiving* grants of leader identity, I also tested the implications of agreement when *granting* leader identity to others in the collective. I used multilevel path analysis with Monte Carlo bootstrapping (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010) and built upon prior model and added the agreement when granting collective leader endorsement to others as an additional predictor variable (Hypothesis 11). Specifically, I regressed the mediator (individual's perceived demands) on the agreement when *granting* leader identity to others to model one of the "α" paths.

To generate the other “ α ” path (i.e., agreement when *receiving* grants of leader identity, I followed the block variable approach advocated by Edwards and Cable (2009). Specifically, I multiplied the estimated polynomial regression coefficients with the raw data to obtain a weighted linear composite otherwise referred to as a block variable. Then, I regressed the mediator, individual’s perceived demands, on the block variable to represent the path estimate between the receiving grants of leader identity polynomial variables and individual’s perceived demands. As scholars have highlighted, such an approach is an ideal way to begin the test of an indirect effect because, due to its method of being calculated, the variance explained by the block variable is identical to the variable explained by the equation using the original polynomial terms (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Lambert et al., 2012; Cole et al., 2013; Matta et al., 2015).

After modeling both “ α ” paths, I calculated both “ β ” paths from individual’s perceived demands to individual well-being and performance after controlling for the effects of the five polynomial terms and agreement when granting leader identity to others on both dependent variables. Then, I used the dual “ α ” paths and dual “ β ” paths to examine the indirect effect of agreement both when *receiving* grants of leader identity (i.e., the block variable compiled using the weighted coefficients of the polynomial terms) and *granting* leader identity to others on individual well-being and performance (Hypotheses 12-15). Specifically, I tested the significance of the within-person mediation effects from both predictor variables to both dependent variables by using a Monte Carlo simulation (20,000 iterations) to construct 95% bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals (Selig & Preacher, 2008).

Results. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics and correlations for all constructs included in the multilevel modeling. Given my focus on within-person fluctuations, I utilized a series of nulls models and estimated the proportion of variance across levels of analysis for each construct. As shown in Table 6, there is sufficient within-person variance in each of my focal constructs to justify within-person hypothesis testing.

Building on the polynomial regression, Hypothesis 11 shifted focus toward the implications of granting leader identity to others and predicted that the level of agreement when granting collective leader endorsement to others would be negatively related to perceived demands. Although I found a moderately significant relationship, the level of agreement was positively related in opposition of my predictions ($B = .04$, $s.e. = .02$, $p = .06$), thus Hypothesis 11 was not supported.

Hypotheses 12 and 14 examined the indirect effect from agreement when receiving grants and when granting leader identity to others, respectively, on individual well-being through the individual's level of perceived demands. As predicted, my results showed a positive indirect effect between agreement when *receiving* grants of leader identity and individual well-being through perceived demands ($IND = .11$, 95% BCCI: [.01, .28]). Thus, Hypothesis 12 is supported. Interestingly, I found a significant negative indirect effect when examining the indirect effect of agreement when *granting* leader identity on individual well-being through perceived demands ($IND = -.01$, 95% BCCI: [-.02, -.000]). Thus, Hypothesis 14 was not supported.

Hypotheses 13 and 15 examined the indirect effect from agreement when receiving grants and when granting leader identity to others on individual performance through the individual's level of perceived demands. Unfortunately, the “ β ” paths from

perceived demands to individual performance were not significant. As such, the indirect effects between agreement when *receiving* a grant of leader identity ($IND = -.63$, BCCI: [-2.81, 1.20]) and agreement when *granting* leader identity ($IND = .07$, BCCI: [-.14, .25]) were not significant. Therefore, Hypotheses 13 and 15, respectively, were not supported.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The relational view of leadership highlights the salient role that dynamics and shared perceptions play on the implications serving in an informal leader role within a collective. My findings help to extend our understanding by conceptualizing *collective leader endorsement* and exploring its dynamics and implications. At the network level, I find that the collective began as a highly centralized leadership structure and then, after a leadership crucible, it transitioned into two separate cliques. Interestingly, these cliques had their own centralized leadership structure and maintained that structure over time. At the individual level, the changes in leader identity (driven by the change in leadership structure) had implications for the individuals. Specifically, increases in collective leader endorsement were positively related to increases in perceived demands, but *only* when for individuals that had low-quality LMX relationships with their position coaches. In addition, contrary to my predictions, the increases in perceived demands did not significantly relate to increases in well-being or performance.

After examining the dynamics of collective leader endorsement at the individual-level, I examined the influence of agreement regarding perceptions of leader identity. I found that agreement when *receiving* grants of leader identity was negatively related to perceived demands. Specifically, agreement among self- and other-perceptions of leader identity (regardless of whether they were at high or low levels of leader identity) limited the individual's perceived demands. In addition, self-perceptions appeared to be more salient to the individual as disagreement when self-perceptions were high and other-perceptions were low were more draining to the individual than when other-perceptions

were high and self-perceptions were low. These relationships also had a downstream effect as evidenced by the positive indirect effect of agreement when *receiving* grants of leader identity on individual well-being (but not individual performance) through perceived demands.

Interestingly, the results regarding agreement when *granting* a leader identity were contrary to what I predicted. Specifically, rather than the hypothesized negative relationship, I found a positive relationship between agreement with the collective when *granting* a leader identity to others in the collective and perceived demands. This positive relationship flowed downstream to individual well-being (but not individual performance) as a negative indirect effect. From these results, it appears that, when identifying other leaders within the collective, individuals gain energy and psychological resources from being distinct in their leader identity choices. I dive deeper into these results and examine the implications of my results in the following sections.

Theoretical Implications

Within my study, I drew on several theories to engage in a rich and deep examination of collective leader endorsement. Below, I highlight the implications for each of those theories (i.e., leadership identity construction theory, relational models of leadership theory, social comparison theory and appraisal theory) from my results. In addition, I propose future directions for each theory based on such results.

Leadership identity construction theory. I suggest that my findings have several implications for leadership identity construction theory. Specifically, my study helps to provide more clarity on the conceptualization and measurement of collective

leader endorsement and highlight the potential differences between task- and relation-oriented leader identities. In their seminal article, DeRue and Ashford (2010) outline the claiming and granting process whereby, within a dyad, the identity of the leader is socially constructed and negotiation between both members. Such work highlights the frequent calls in our literature to acknowledge that leadership does not happen in a vacuum and one cannot be a leader with a follower (DeRue, 2011). However, it is equally as important to recognize that many leaders are identified and form a leadership relationship not with *one* follower, but with many followers. My findings extend leadership identity construction theory to conceptualize collective leader endorsement as the leader identity from many followers and highlight the unique perspective that social networks analysis provides to our understanding of collective leader endorsement. Specifically, conceptualizing and measuring collective leader endorsement emphasizes that a change in even one grant of leader identity within the collective has a ripple effect to change the shape of the leadership network for the entire collective. Additionally, like the dynamics of claiming and granting at the dyadic-level, collective leader endorsement is a dynamic process as noted by the changes of the shape of the leadership network over time and the changes in individual's grants of leader identity over time.

By conceptualizing collective leader endorsement as a personal reputation, I also highlight the importance of claiming behaviors that are not necessarily directed at certain followers. For example, when an individual is claiming leader identity by helping a peer achieve their goals, such behavior could be observed by others and disseminated among members of the collective. This allows individuals to claim leader identity not just to the individual that they helped, but also over other members of the collective that learn about

the behavior. Future research could expand on this notion by providing more clarity and testing the efficacy of specific claiming behaviors and their potential to be disseminated within the collective and influence collective leader endorsement. For example, Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe (2003) suggest that relational cues are typical behaviors that can provide information to others regarding identity. Specifically, relational cues need not be specifically directed at an individual to provide that individual with information. Although Wrzesniewski and colleagues do not refer specifically to *leader* identities, recent work has extended the notion of relational cues to better understand the dynamics of dyadic leadership relationships (Bartels et al., 2018). Future research could build on this and the claiming/granting notion within leadership identity construction theory to provide clarity on what may be considered a relational cue for the collective.

Building on this, future research could also better integrate the literature on collective-level leadership and identity to provide further insight into the collective leader endorsement process. For example, DeRue and Ashford (2010) suggest that leader identities are fluid because such identities are frequently re-negotiated by the claiming and granting process. When focusing on the dyad, this suggests that an individual may *stop* claiming leader identity when he/she no longer wants to hold a leader identity. The prompt for this choice may come from a variety of places (e.g., seeing the other member of the dyad as the leader instead, diminished efficacy in his/her own ability to lead, etc.), but it is likely a decision from that individual that he/she is no longer claiming leader identity. However, when broadening out to the collective, it gives rise for the potential that individuals stop claiming because of the actions of other members of the collective. For example, work on the vicarious enactment of leader identity suggests that, when an

individual sees others engaging in identity work, they connect those behaviors back to themselves and perceive themselves as engaging in those same behaviors even if they are not. Within the leadership relationship, this could involve observing another in the collective as engaging in claiming behaviors and internally adopting the behaviors as their own without externally mirroring those behaviors.

My findings also suggest that, when looking beyond to dyad to collective leader endorsement, it opens the possibility for cliques or splinter groups. Within the identity literature, splinter groups are defined by those within the collective that split off due to their more extreme identities. My results demonstrate that this is possible when looking at the leadership network as I found that, after a leadership crucible occurred, the team split into two cliques. The interviews suggested that these cliques had rather extreme identities – one clique wanted to quit on the season and one had extreme pride for the university and wanted to represent them well. Future research could examine implications of these splinter groups by comparing collectives with splinter groups and those without splinter groups as well as the performance implications of splinter groups. Similarly, future research could examine the use of key individual such as boundary spanners from social networks analysis and determine whether they can minimize the presence or impact of splinter groups.

Finally, when looking at collective leader endorsement both at the network and individual levels, I found key distinctions between task- and relation-oriented leader identities. Specifically, I found that the dynamics of individual leader identity and the shape of the leadership network differed depending on the *type* of leader identity. For example, at the beginning of the season, the task-oriented leadership network showed

strong centralization that disintegrated after a leadership crucible and then reformed to create two distinct groups with strong centralization. In contrast, the relation-oriented leadership network showed the two distinct groups from the beginning. They were also dispersed in the presence of an identity jolt and then found their way back to the original shape (i.e., two distinct groups with strong centralization). Future research could examine why the leadership networks started differently and, perhaps more importantly, if the processes that led them to similar network shapes at the end were the same.

At the individual-level, I also found significant differences between holding a task-oriented leader identity and a relation-based leader identity. Specifically, whereas I found significant results at the individual level for relation-oriented collective leader endorsement, I did not find significant results for task-oriented collective leader endorsement. This was likely due to the limited change in task-oriented leader identities compared to relation-oriented leader identities. Specifically, although both leadership network structures were altered due to the identity jolt, the relation-oriented leadership network more showed a more gradual change back to centralization and even saw different individuals occupying the most centralized locations during different time periods. I suggest this may be due to the authority ranking identity context outlined in the relational models of leadership theory. In this structure, the theory suggests hierarchical identities are important in dictating perceptions of leadership (Wellman, 2017). Future research could examine whether hierarchical identities are more closely aligned task-oriented leadership behaviors and thereby have a greater impact on task-oriented leadership network. In addition, the results highlight the importance of maintaining clarity in our definitions and measurement of informal leadership (i.e., task-oriented or

relation-oriented) because different leader identities may have different implications for the individual.

Relational models of leadership theory. My work contributes to the relational models of leadership theory by extending our understanding of what may be considered an identity jolt and offering potential insight into the process that occurs after an identity jolt. In the theory, identity jolts are understandably vague given the necessity of relating a potential identity context to the specificities of the identity jolt. I find that a leadership crucible – defined as a potential crisis or point of significant change in the organization – can serve as an identity jolt due to its alteration of collective leader endorsement within the organization. My findings demonstrate the presence of a reversal leadership crucible altered perceptions of collective leader endorsement and limited the centralization within the leadership network associated with an authority ranking context. Prior empirical evidence supports the notion that a reversal crucible would alter perceptions of leader identity by demonstrating that individuals facing change and insecure times (such as failure) often face feelings of uncertainty and stress from the disruptions to normality (Ashford, 1988). When this occurs, rather than seeking out information on other individuals that may be worthy of a grant of leader identity, individuals are more likely to attempt to reduce uncertainty by granting a leader identity to those most familiar, which is more akin to a communal sharing identity context. Reversal leadership crucibles, in particular, are associated with failure and/or negative events, so such crucibles are more likely to limit the trajectory of the leadership network centralization during that time period. My findings show that, when the team suffered a big loss of talent (i.e., lost

starting and second-string quarterback), the crisis significantly decreased the amount of network centralization from the previous time period.

The relational models of leadership theory also suggests that when an identity jolt occurs (such as a leadership crucible), the identity context will shift from one to the other. For example, because the football team started as an authority ranking context (high centralization), when the team experienced an identity jolt, the identity context should've shifted to a communal sharing context. Interestingly, when the football team experienced an identity jolt, the team initially shifted to a communal sharing context, but then shifted back closer to an authority ranking context. This suggests that, although the jolt did prompt individuals to question and re-evaluate their leader identity perceptions, perhaps their norms about leadership structure and prototype were so engrained that it merely shifted *who* filled those roles rather than how many and how distributed the leadership structure may be. Such a result is not particularly surprising when looking beyond the leadership and identity literature toward the larger teams literature. For example, social entrainment theory suggests that, as teams work together they develop a rhythm that may give rise to shared cognitions and behaviors (Harrison, Mohammed, McGrath, Florey, & Vanderstoep, 2003). Similarly, when examining the shift from a functional team structure to a divisional team structure, scholars found that the communication and interactions norms from the original structure persisted (Moon, Hollenbeck, Humphrey, Ilgen, West, Ellis, & Porter, 2004). Therefore, I suggest that, the norms from an authority ranking identity context were so engrained within the team that, when experiencing an identity jolt, the team initially shifted toward a communal identity structure as they searched for

new leaders but then converged back to more centralized leadership structure (i.e., an authority ranking identity context) once the new individuals had been identified.

My findings indicated that, although the team reverted to an authority ranking identity context after the identity jolt, it shifted toward two distinct cliques of highly centralized leadership. Relational models of leadership theory, because of its focus on smaller groups, did not account for this type of leadership structure. According to my interviews with the coaching staff, such cliques were split among those individuals that wanted to give up on the season (containing a few identified leaders that perpetuated that belief) and those individuals that wanted to maintain a high standard of performance and effort (containing individuals identified to promote that standard). Future research could better examine the role of cliques and how it affects not only collective leader endorsement dynamics, but also the group identity context as outlined in the relational models theory of leadership. Specifically, are there specific team characteristics (i.e., size, function, etc.) that are more likely the development of cliques? What are the implications of cliques within the collective identity context? For example, are such collectives more susceptible to identity jolts?

Finally, when identifying the football team as an authority ranking context, it only matched two of the components – high hierarchical differentiation and low exclusivity – yet, the team exhibited strong centralization prior to the identity jolt which matches the authority ranking context. This suggests that, potentially, there is a hierarchy in the components that determine the type of identity context for a collective. Future research could further tease out this suggestion to better understand if there is a hierarchy of components and, perhaps more importantly, the potential implications of not satisfying

all the components. Specifically, scholars could engage in a typology of the groups and then conduct interviews with group members to determine which components helped them to identify their leaders and leadership structure. Then, the group could be tracked to follow the dynamics of such leadership perceptions. I believe this type of research could offer further insight not only in the hierarchy of the components, but also in the elasticity of the identity context based on how many components the collective “meets” from relational models of leadership theory.

Social comparison theory. Drawing on social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), I theorized that agreement with the collective regarding leader identities would promote a sense of belonging for that individual thereby limiting that individual’s perceived demands. My findings show that this pattern holds when *receiving* grants of leader identity (i.e., agreement between self- and other-perceptions of leader identity), but not when an individual is *granting* a leader identity to others (i.e., agreement between an individual’s grants and those of the rest of the collective). I extend social comparison theory to suggest that the implications of potentially disparate perceptions go beyond the extent of perceptual agreement. Instead, we need to integrate role identity to better understand the implications of these types of perceptual assessments.

Self-categorization theory also looks at perceptual assessments but takes an identity approach to suggest that feelings of belongingness are strongest when an identity provides both agreement and a sense of distinctiveness (Haslam & Ellemers, 2005; Turner, 1982). Said differently, when making perceptual assessments, there are levels of optimal distinctiveness when the opposing needs of assimilation and differentiation from others are met (Brewer, 1991). This work has been extended into the social network

analysis literature as well. For example, Mehra, Kilduff, and Brass (1998) used social networks to examine how being on the fringe of the network, but still with others who confirmed some of their perceptions led to shared identity and enhanced social interactions.

Therefore, I suggest that, although perceptual agreement is important both when receiving and granting leader identity, it is important in different ways. When receiving grants of leader identity that match the individual's self-perceptions, that individual will receive benefits from the identity confirmation and perceived assimilation within the group. However, because the perception is one of leader identity (a distinctive role in and of itself), this agreement also meets the individual's need for distinctiveness. In contrast, when an individual is granting leader identity to others, that individual is serving in the follower role. This identity, because it is shared by much of the collective, offers little inherent distinctiveness. Instead, the individual already has feelings of assimilation because they fit within the collective (i.e., identity as a follower among many followers), so perceptual assessments of leader identity in this role need to allow the individual to differentiate and feel more distinct. Therefore, more agreement with the collective when *granting* a leader identity to others enhanced rather than diminished the individual's perceived demands and well-being. Future research could engage in interviews to better connect the leader and follower role to optimal distinctiveness (Brewer, 1991) and determine additional downstream effects of this at both the collective and individual level (i.e., team cohesion and individual OCB's or creativity).

Appraisal theory. This study can also help extend the understanding of stress appraisals and appraisal theory. The literature on stress appraisals highlights the

importance of the appraisal of the situation rather than just the objective characteristics of the potentially stressful situation. For example, LePine and colleagues (2016) found that appraising a situation as potentially harmful or threatening can limit an employee's performance. My findings extend this by suggesting that appraising a situation as demanding can change the individual's lens to focus on parts of the situation that may also be considered demands. This loss spiral of demands can limit an individual's well-being. The specific connection of this change in lens to leadership has been theorized within the executive job demands theory (EJD; Hambrick, Finklestein, & Mooney, 2005). Within EJD theory, scholars suggest that a CEO or top executive typically engages in rational decision-making. Yet, when under stress, the lens of the CEO or top executive shifts from rationality so that he/she perceives the environment differently (e.g., as having more demands). I found a similar process when examining the implications an individual was *receiving* grants of leader identity from other members of the collective. Specifically, lack of agreement on the individual's identity as a leader was draining on the individual thereby shifting the individual's lens to perceive the environment as containing more demands. This perception then had a downstream effect of limiting the individual's well-being.

Interestingly, when individuals were fulfilling the *follower* role by granting a leader identity to other members of the collective, lack of agreement was not draining on the individual. Although this could be because lack of agreement regarding *grants* of leader identity is energizing and limiting the relationship with perceived demands; it could also be that lack of agreement regarding *grants* of leader identity are not draining or energizing. Following EJD theory, this would suggest that when an individual is not

under strain, the individual engages in rational thought to evaluate other areas of the environment (Hambrick et al., 2005). Future research could better explore the distinctiveness of EJD theory as it relates to leaders. Does it change the process depending on the role that the individual is holding?

Future research on appraisals and appraisal theory would also improve our understanding of the loss spiral as it relates to challenge and hindrance appraisals. Although my results take a multilevel approach and look at the individual change throughout the course of a season, each time point is roughly 3 weeks apart. Given that stress and well-being have been shown to change even more frequently (i.e., daily; DeLongis, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1988; Hill, Sin, Turiano, Burow, & Almeida, 2018), future research could better explore the daily changes in stress appraisals. For example, scholars could explore the extent of daily fluctuations in leader identity and connect it to stress appraisals and daily fluctuations in well-being.

Finally, despite my predictions, agreement when receiving and granting leader identity only had downstream effects for individual well-being; not individual performance. I suggest these findings might be more closely related to my challenges in measuring performance than a lack of a relationship between perceived demands and individual performance. Somewhat unique to my sample, only some individuals have a measure of a performance at any given time because only certain individuals played in each football game. Alternatively, each individual reported their well-being levels each time period creating more power to explore the change in the relationship between perceived demands and individual well-being. For future research, I would like to build on work connecting challenge and hindrance stress appraisal to performance (i.e., LePine

et al., 2016) and better explore the dynamics and potential contingencies of this relationship.

Practical Implications

In addition to the theoretical implications, I suggest that there are several practical implications to my study as well. First, my findings focus on informal leaders and the dynamic, social perceptions that identify those leaders. In addition, I find that the implications of leader identity stem at least partially from the (lack of) agreement between an individual's receipt of leader identity from others and the individual's self-perceptions of leader identity. Specifically, although lack of agreement enhances perceived demands, it can be particularly draining for individuals to self-perceive high levels of leader identity and not receive grants from other members of the collective rather than the other way around. This suggests that, when conducting leader development training, it may be beneficial to gain an accurate perception of who individuals within the collective identify as a leader. Otherwise, such disagreement (i.e., high self-perceptions and low other-perceptions) is likely to be very draining for the individual. Alternatively, if organizations still want to engage the individual in leader development training (because of the other benefits associated with leader development training), it could be beneficial to provide extra support to allow that individual to cope with the increased perceived demands in the short term. This way, if such an individual begins engaging in claiming behaviors and receiving grants of leader identity, then the individual will have the support to handle the demands of their new role.

Second, within my study, I examined the dynamics of increasing leader identity over the course of the season. As an individual's collective leader endorsement increases over the season, it increases the rate at which an individual's perceived demands increases over the season. Yet, this relationship can be attenuated by the presence of a strong relationship with one's supervisor. Specifically, I found that the positive relationship became non-significant if the individual had a high quality LMX relationship with their supervisor. At times, organizations will decrease their mentoring of leadership for individuals as they rise up and become a leader themselves. However, my findings suggest that this is a time when a good relationship with one's superior becomes even more important. This is not particularly surprising given the additional strain and responsibilities associated with increasing leader identity. However, it highlights the need for organizations to ensure that LMX relationships and leader support is continually given even as an individual steps into a leadership role.

Finally, my findings suggest that, even in a fairly hierarchical collective like a football team, leader identity is dynamic and shifts over time. Within a football team, coaches and athletes alike often believe that the leaders at the beginning of the season will likely be the leaders at the end of the season (barring injury). For example, the vast majority of collegiate football teams have set captains for the entire season that they choose approximately two weeks prior to the start of the season (Russo, 2017). Although this may work fine for teams when they are winning, my findings suggest that an identity jolt will lead members of the collective to re-evaluate their leadership perceptions. When this occurs, coaches should be cognizant to provide information to the team and reduce

uncertainty if they want to revert back to the highly centralized leadership structure that was likely present prior to the identity jolt.

Limitations

As with any study, there are several limitations. First, I utilized network data to best capture the dynamics of collective leader endorsement. This approach appreciates not only the dynamic nature of grants of leader identity, but also the interrelated nature of such grants of leader identity. However, the combined network size (over 100 individuals) and inconsistent response rates suggested the data would be more accurately represented as four time points rather than twelve. This also matched the critical event points identified through post-season interviews. The benefit of a large network is that it allowed me to examine the presence of cliques within the network that may not have been visible within a smaller leadership network. However, examining change over four time points rather than twelve limits the richness of the change data. Specifically, the results were not significant when examining the non-linear trends over the course of the season. Future research could use a longitudinal study with more data points to better compare the linear vs. non-linear nature of the constructs over time.

Relatedly, I utilized network data to best capture the dynamics of collective leader endorsement. This approach allowed me to examine not only the effects of leader identity for individual nodes (i.e., athletes) within the collective, but also the interrelated nature of grants of leader identity. However, with only one network, I was unable to examine potential interesting connections *between* collectives that may affect grants of leader identity. For example, the identity literature raises the potential for splinter groups to

occur which are defined by those within the collective that split off due to their more extreme identities (Brewer, 1991). Future research could examine implications of these splinter groups by comparing collectives with splinter groups and those without as well as the associated impact on team and individual functioning. Similarly, future research could explore whether granting leader identity to individuals to broker between the splinter groups (i.e., boundary spanners) could minimize the presence or impact of splinter groups.

Third, I did not have consistent response rates throughout the season creating a lack of power for some of my relationships. For example, when examining the relationships between the increases in collective leader endorsement and increases in perceived demands, such analyses had to occur at the individual level. Furthermore, only 64 individuals completed the initial survey meaning my analysis of the interaction effect was further limited. Given increased power, I may have been able to discover other salient moderators to the relationship. For example, future research could examine whether individual differences (i.e., an individual's adaptability) could also attenuate the relationship between increases in collective leader endorsement and increases in perceived demands.

Fourth, I am unable to provide insight into the individual causes of change in collective leader endorsement or the cause of an initial status of collective leader endorsement. As a first step in this study, I conceptualized and measured the dynamics of collective leader endorsement. At the network level, I could clearly track changes throughout the season and, at the individual level, I tracked the implications of those changes. However, such findings assume a cause to the change in grants of leader identity

likely based on behavioral changes of the potential leader or new information for members of the collective; yet, I was unable to capture that cause. In addition, I conducted interviews both with the athletes and the coaches. Interestingly, the collective lacked a common definition of leadership limiting my ability to theorize the cause of an initial status of collective leader endorsement. Future research could engage in more frequent interviews to better capture the thinking of members of the collective, engage in observational methods to track changes in behavior among those in the collective and incorporate multiple collectives to better understand how differences in base perceptions of leadership can affect the dynamics of collective leader endorsement.

Fifth, the sample consisted of a collegiate football team. The salience of leadership and high stress environment makes it a unique context to study the effects of leader identity perceptions and well-being. In addition, scholars suggest that the dynamics of sports teams are often analogous in the dynamics of action teams in the broader workplace and provide a unique and valuable setting to answer key research questions (Katz, 2001; Wolfe et al., 2005). For example, work on NBA teams has been found to provide insight on how skill heterogeneity affects an action team's performance in the traditional workplace (De La Torre-Ruiz, Aragón-Correa, & Ferrón-Vílchez, 2011). However, replication of the findings is necessary to increase generalizability to other types of teams that do not operate in unpredictable environments like action teams (Sundstrom deMeuse, & Futrell, 1990).

Finally, the majority data for this study was collected using self-report survey measures leading to the potential for common method variance. I attempted to reduce this concern by collecting the data at multiple time periods and designing the study

instruments so consecutive variables that were theoretically related were not collected together when possible (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The measures of collective leader endorsement were based on the individual's grants in comparison with the entire leadership network. Specifically, the measure for *receiving* grants of leader identity is captured by other reports of leader identity limiting common method variance between the predictor and mediator variables. However, although I hypothesized two dependent variables – individual well-being and individual performance – I only found significant results for the self-report variable (individual well-being). Such results could be driven by common method variance or by lack of power for performance as indicated above. That being said, future research could enhance the power for all constructs and capture well-being using the report from a co-worker, boss or family member to provide a deeper understanding of the relationship between increases perceived demands and decreases in well-being and performance.

Conclusion

Overall, my dissertation sought to examine socially constructed leader identities within a collective by conceptualizing collective leader endorsement and testing my hypotheses within a collegiate football team. I suggested that collective leader endorsement is best captured using a social networks approach and found it to be a significant and dynamic leadership construct. At the network-level, I found that leadership crucibles significantly influenced the shape of the leadership network. At the individual-level, I found that changes in an individual's level collective leader endorsement – had negative implications for the individual's perceptions of demands, but

that such implications can be tempered by support from the individual's own leader. In addition, by focusing on the perceptions of the whole collective rather than the perceptions of individual dyads, I found that the implications of collective leader endorsement were partially driven by agreement within the collective regarding leader identities. Specifically, I found that agreement between individuals' self-perceptions of leader identity and the collective's perceptions of leader identity (as captured by collective leader endorsement) had significant implications for individual's well-being. Such findings help to highlight the new understanding of informal leadership that can be gained from extending beyond the leader-follower dyad to capture collective leader endorsement.

Tables

Table 1

The QAP-correlations between the different collective leader endorsement networks

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Group 1 (task)	1	0.661	0.603	0.499	0.389	0.499	0.364	0.487
2. Group 1 (relation)		1	0.814	0.707	0.563	0.54	0.706	0.535
3. Group 2 (task)			1	0.667	0.622	0.544	0.71	0.534
4. Group 2 (relation)				1	0.318	0.408	0.54	0.417
5. Group 3 (task)					1	0.6	0.726	0.698
6. Group 3 (relation)						1	0.478	0.598
7. Group 4 (task)							1	0.744
8. Group 4 (relation)								1

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Latent Growth Modeling Variables ($N = 106$)

	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3
1. Increases in Collective Leader Endorsement	0.01	0.02	*		
2. LMX Quality with One's Position Coach	3.98	0.79	-0.01	*	
3. Increases in Perceived Demands	0.04	0.08	0.04	-0.23	*
4. Increases in Individual Well-Being	-0.05	0.03	-0.04	0.20	0.08

Table 3

Proportion of Variance among Latent Growth Modeling Variables

Variable	Within-Individual Variance (ρ^2)	Between-Individual Variance (τ_{00})	Percentage of Variability Within-Individual
Collective Leader Endorsement	.035*	.004*	89.7%
Perceived Demands	.41*	.13*	75.9%
Individual Well-Being	4.81*	.89*	84.4%

Note. ρ^2 = within-individual variance in the dependent variable. τ_{00} = between-individual variance in the dependent variable. Percentage of variability within-individual was computed as $\rho^2/(\rho^2 + \tau_{00})$.

* $p < .05$

Table 4

Multiple Regression Results with the Estimates from Latent Growth Modeling

	Dependent Variable	
	Increases in Perceived Demands	Increases in Individual Well-Being
<i>Main effects</i>	B (s.e.)	B (s.e.)
Increases in Collective Leader Endorsement	.028 (.58)	.01 (.24)
LMX Quality with One's Position Coach	.02 (.01)	.01* (.005)
Increases in Perceived Demands		.11* (.05)
ΔR^2	.05	.06*
<i>Interaction effect</i>		
Increases in Collective Leader Endorsement \times LMX Quality with One's Position Coach		-2.03* (.77)
ΔR^2		.09*

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Multilevel Modeling Variables ($N = 264$)

	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5
1. Other-Perceptions of Leader Identity	.18	.04	*				
2. Self-Perceptions of Leader Identity	4.65	.80	0.455	*			
3. Agreement when Granting Leader Identity to Others	2.78	9.6	-0.486	-0.642	*		
4. Perceived Demands	4.17	.54	-0.091	-0.101	0.111	*	
5. Individual Performance	66.62	135.22	0.685	0.316	-0.191	-0.182	*
6. Individual Well-Being	4.22	.57	0.958	0.46	-0.487	-0.133	0.674

Table 6

Proportion of Variance among Multilevel Modeling Variables

Variable	Within-Individual Variance (ρ^2)	Between-Individual Variance (τ_{00})	Percentage of Variability Within-Individual
Other-Perceptions of Leader Identity	.035*	.004*	89.7%
Self-Perceptions of Leader Identity	.59*	.23*	72.0%
Agreement when Granting Leader Identity to Others	8.84*	.76	92.1%
Perceived Demands	.41*	.13*	75.9%
Individual Performance	125.24*	10.18*	92.5%
Individual Well-Being	4.81*	.89*	84.4%

Note. ρ^2 = within-individual variance in the dependent variable. τ_{00} = between-individual variance in the dependent variable. Percentage of variability within-individual was computed as $\rho^2/(\rho^2 + \tau_{00})$.

* $p < .05$

Figures

Figure 1

Overview of the Approach of the Paper

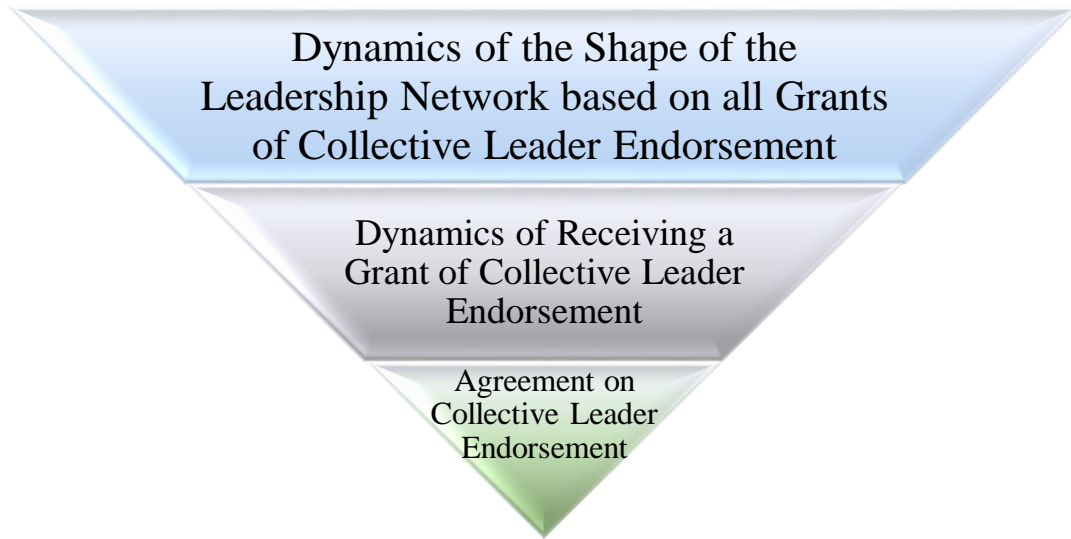


Figure 2

Hypothesized Model of Dynamics of Receiving Grants of Collective Leader

Endorsement for an Individual within the Collective

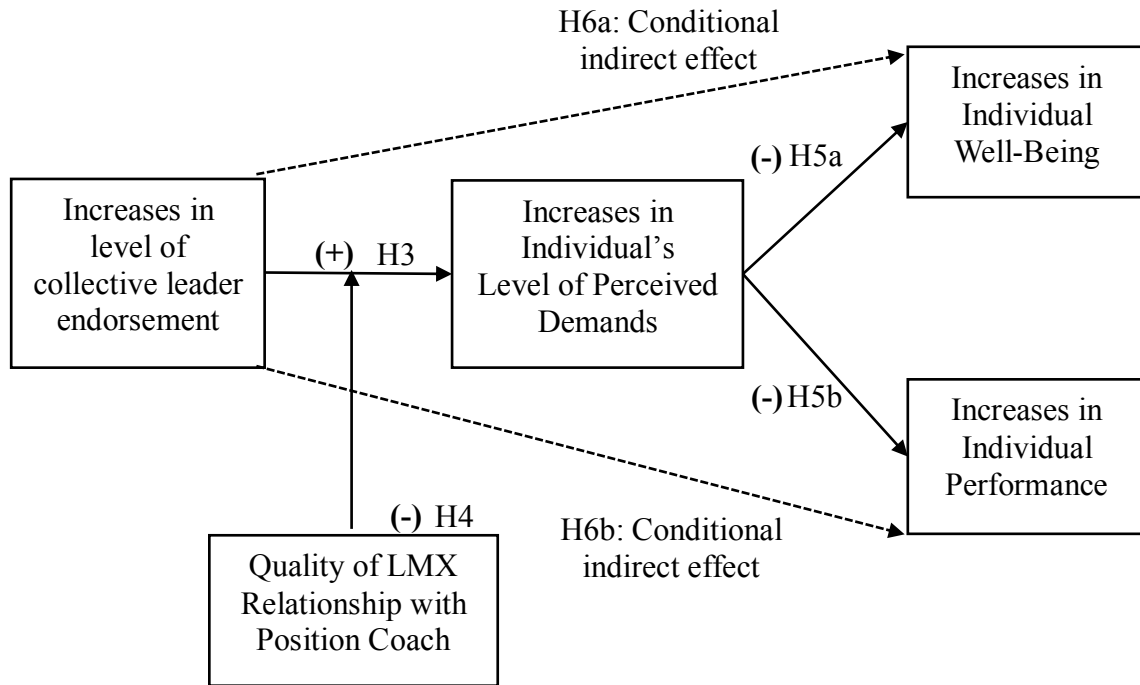


Figure 3

Agreement among Perceptions when *Receiving* Grants of Collective Endorsement from Member of the Collective

Self-Perceptions of Collective Leader Endorsement

		High	Low
Other-Perceptions of Collective Leader Endorsement	High	Agreement between perceptions creating no need for extra effort to resolve any discrepancy; High levels of collective leader endorsement generate extra demands associated with the leader role <i>(Quadrant 1)</i>	Disagreement between perceptions creating the need for extra effort to resolve any discrepancy; Yet, individuals are less likely to believe other-perceptions than self-perceptions <i>(Quadrant 3)</i>
	Low	Disagreement between perceptions creating the need for extra effort to resolve any discrepancy; Increased effort due to desire to confirm <i>own</i> perceptions <i>(Quadrant 4)</i>	Agreement between perceptions creating no need for extra effort to resolve any discrepancy; Low levels of collective leader endorsement do not generate the demands associated with the leader role <i>(Quadrant 2)</i>

Figure 4

Hypothesized Model of Agreement among Self- and Other-Perceptions when Granting and Receiving Grants of Leader Identity within the Collective

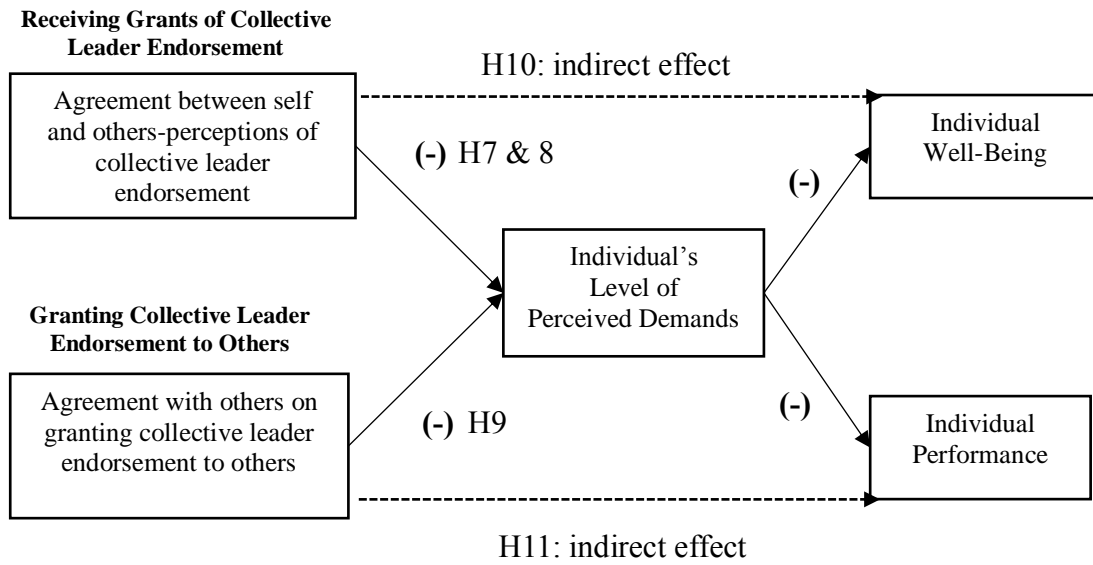
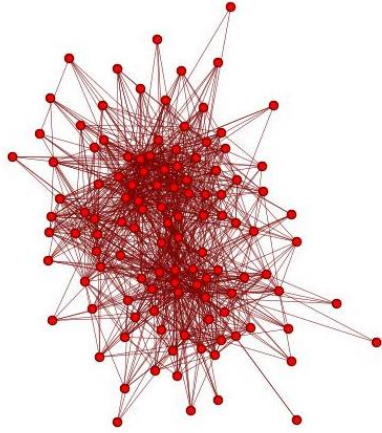
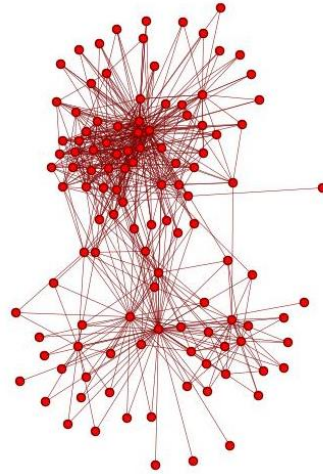


Figure 5

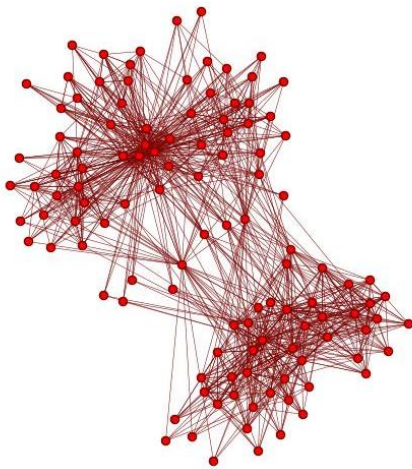
Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement (Multiplex Network)



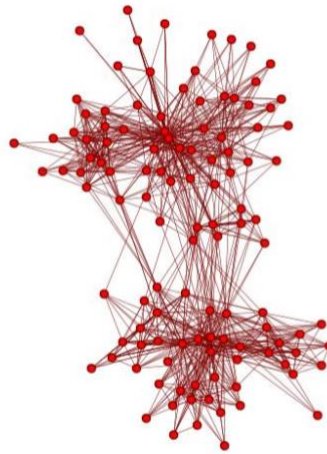
Group 1 (Weeks 1-3)



Group 2 (Weeks 4-6)



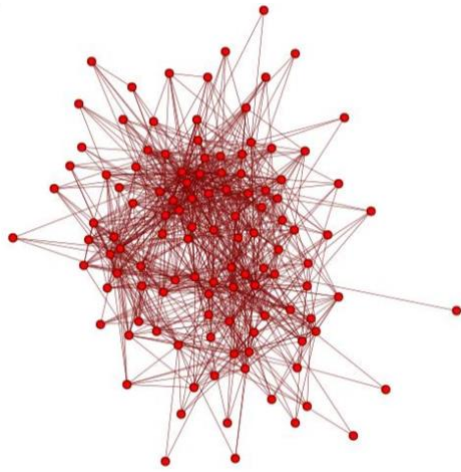
Group 3 (Weeks 7-9)



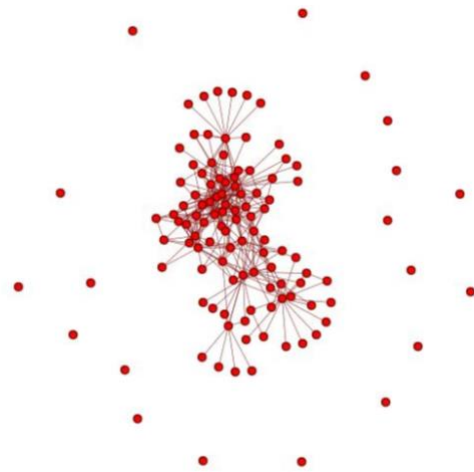
Group 4 (Weeks 10-12)

Figure 6

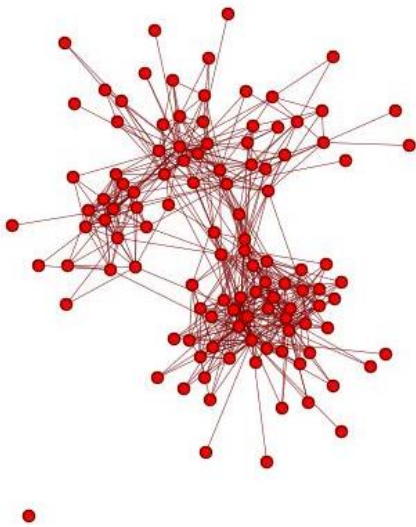
Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement (Task-Oriented Network)



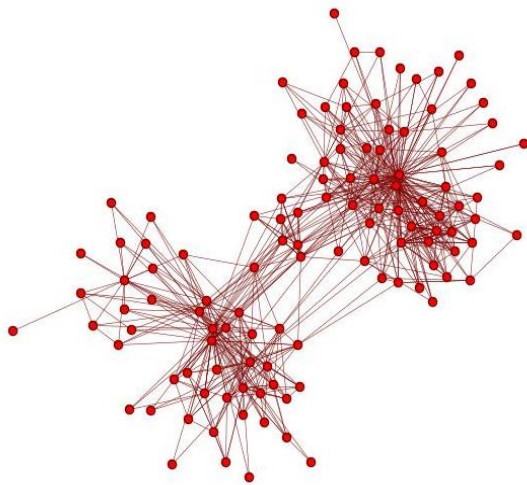
Group 1 (Weeks 1-3)



Group 2 (Weeks 4-6)



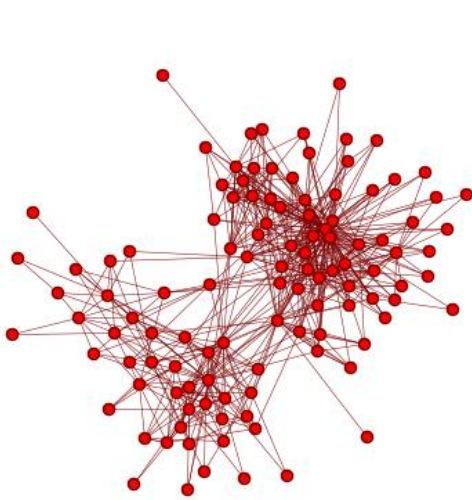
Group 3 (Weeks 7-9)



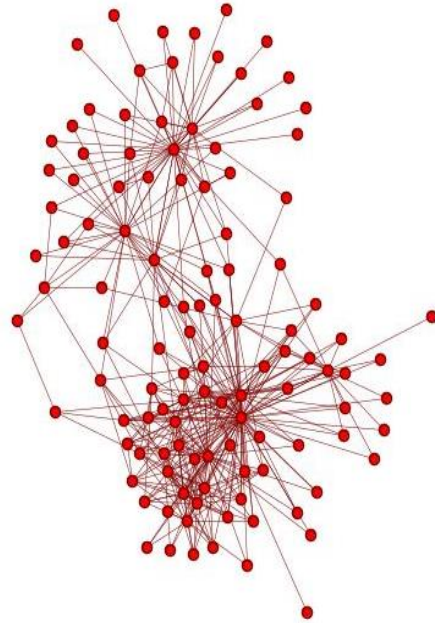
Group 4 (Weeks 10-12)

Figure 7

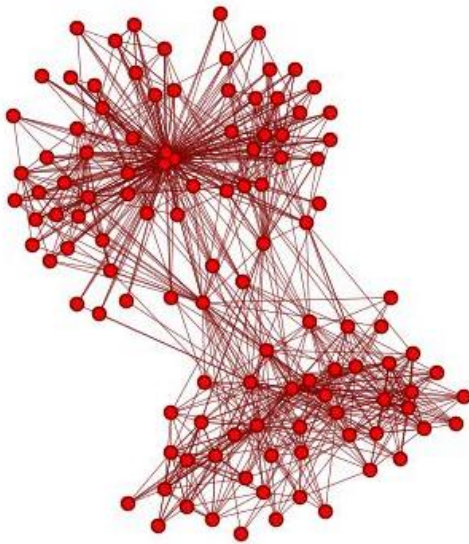
Dynamics of Collective Leader Endorsement (Relation-Oriented Network)



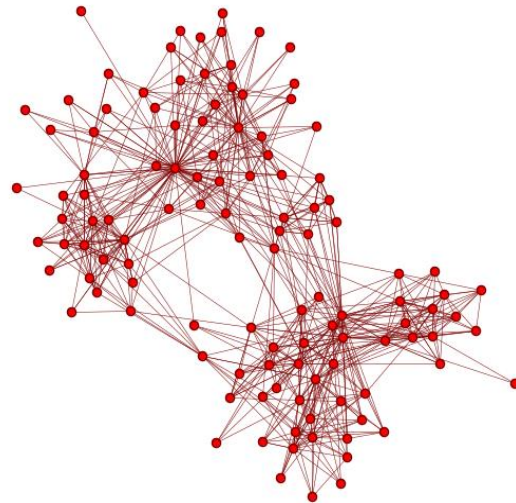
Group 1 (Weeks 1-3)



Group 2 (Weeks 4-6)



Group 3 (Weeks 7-9)

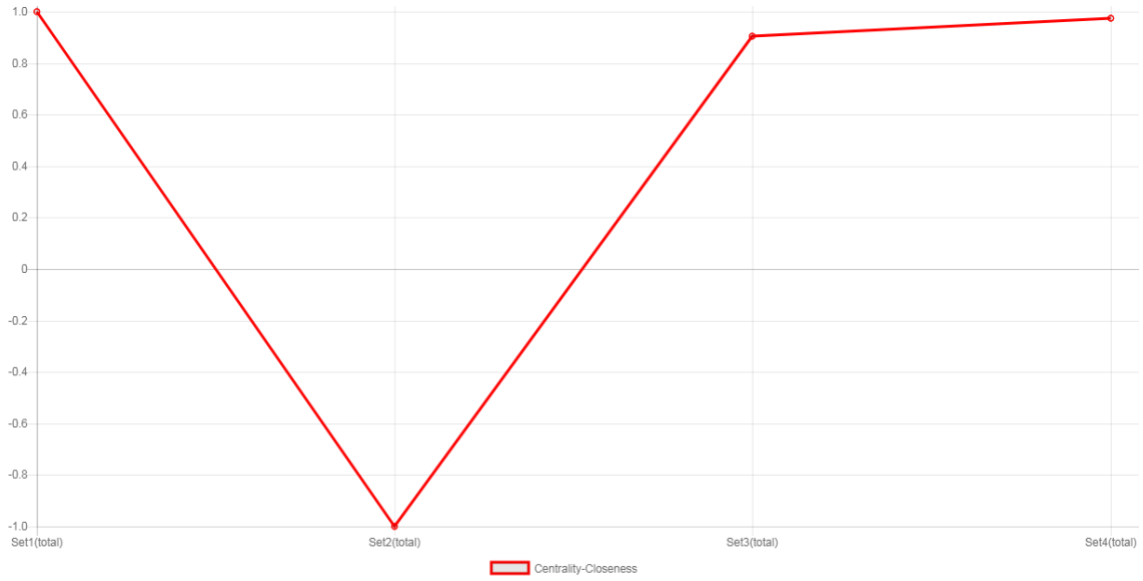


Group 4 (Weeks 10-12)

Figure 8

SNCD Graph (Multiplex Network)

Shewhart X-bar (centrality)



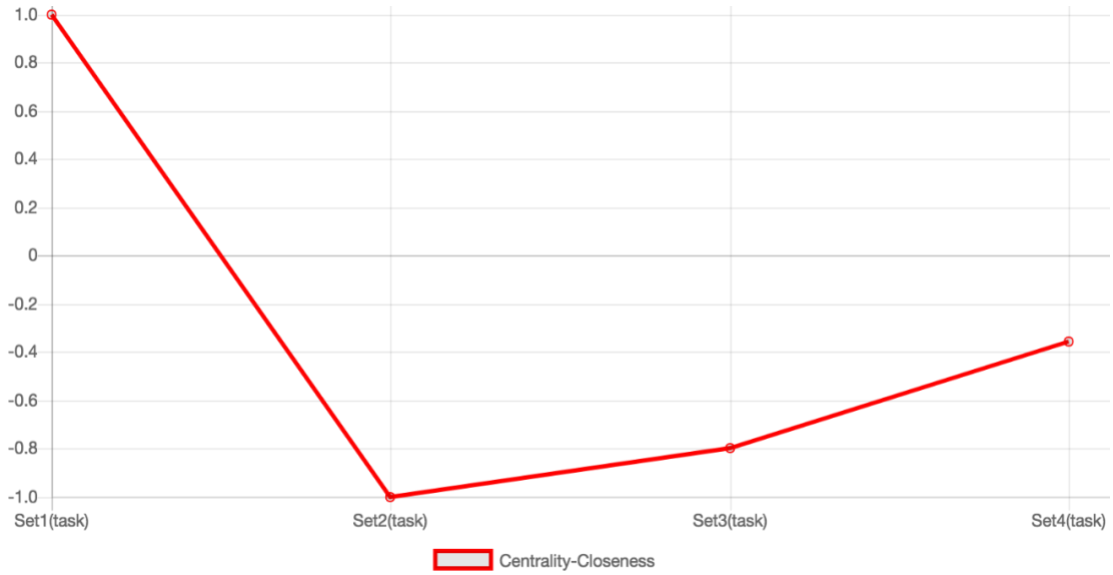
Cumulative Sum chart (centrality)



Figure 9

SNCD Graph (Task-Oriented Network)

Shewhart X-bar (centrality)



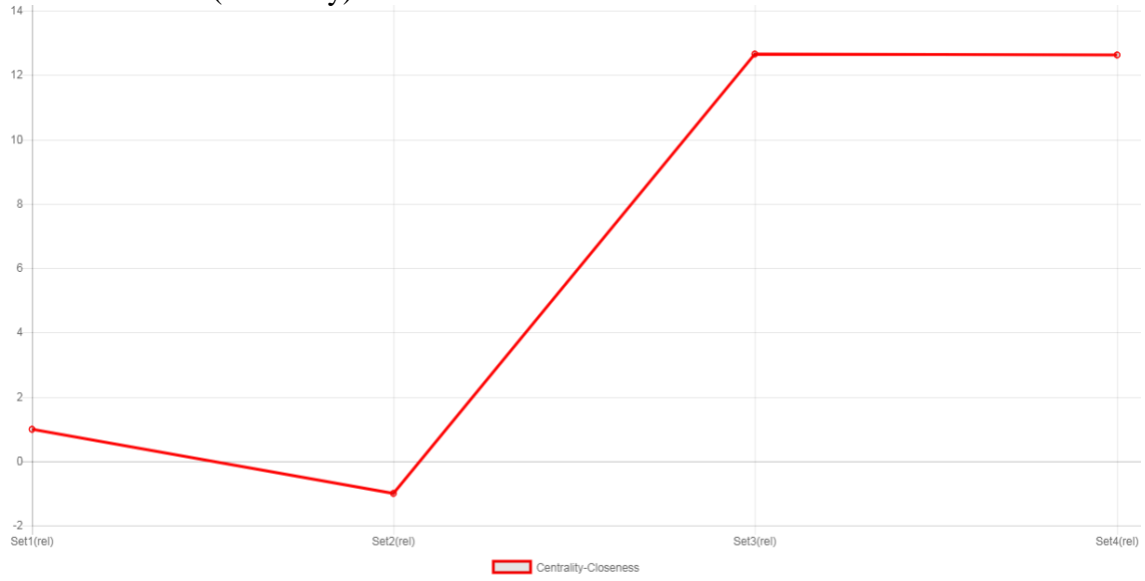
Cumulative Sum chart (centrality)



Figure 10

SNCD Graph (Relation-Oriented Network)

Shewhart X-bar (centrality)



Cumulative Sum chart (centrality)



Figure 11

Interaction of LMX Relationship with the Position Coach on the Relationship between Increases in Collective Leader Endorsement and Increases in the Individual's Perceived Demands

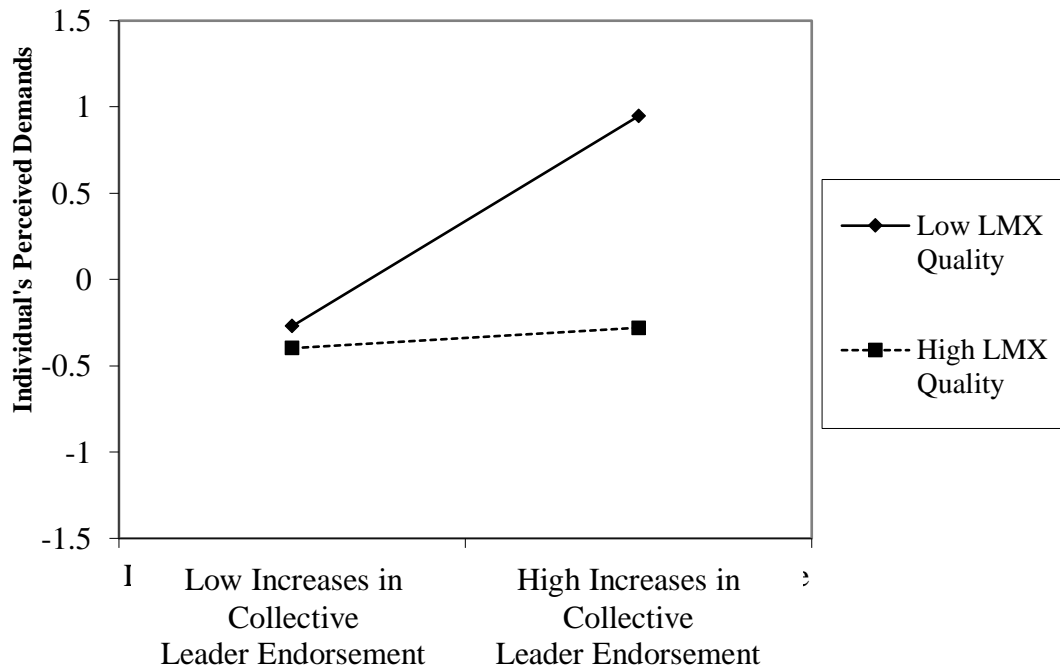
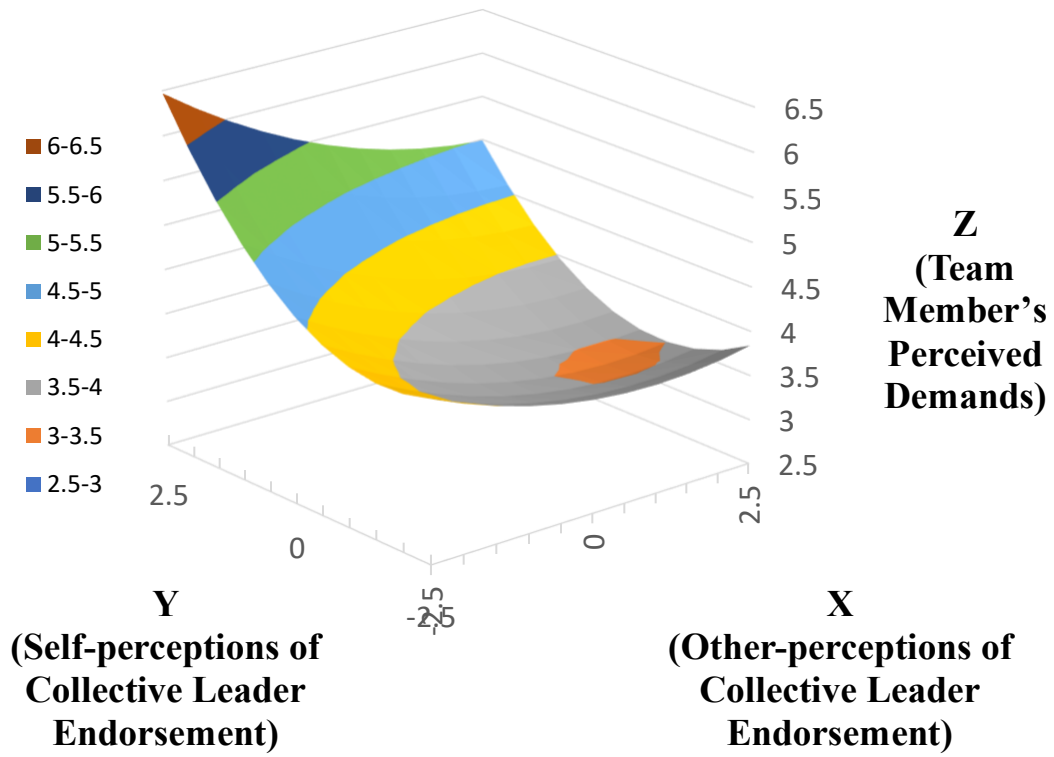


Figure 12

Response Surface Methodology Plot



REFERENCES

- Ames, D. R., Rose, P., & Anderson, C. P. (2006). The NPI-16 as a short measure of narcissism. *Journal of Research in Personality, 40*(4), 440-450.
- Ashford, S. J. (1988). Individual strategies for coping with stress during organizational transitions. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 24*(1), 19-36.
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72*(4), 441-462.
- Bakker, A. B., & Costa, P. L. (2014). Chronic job burnout and daily functioning: A theoretical analysis. *Burnout Research, 1*(3), 112-119.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22*(3), 309-328.
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Euwema, M. C. (2005). Job resources buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 10*(2), 170.
- Balkundi, P., & Harrison, D. A. (2006). Ties, leaders, and time in teams: Strong inference about network structure's effects on team viability and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(1), 49-68.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Regulation of cognitive processes through perceived self-efficacy. *Developmental Psychology, 25*(5), 729.
- Barley, S. R. (1986). Technology as an occasion for structuring: Evidence from observations of CT scanners and the social order of radiology departments. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 78*-108.
- Bartels, A. L., Peterson, S. J., & Reina, C. S. (2018). Toward a deeper understanding of workplace well-being: Theoretical development and scale development.
- Bartels, A. L., Sessions, H., Nahrgang, J., Wilson, K. S., Wu, L., & Law-Penrose, J. (2018). From Me to You . . . and Back to Me: Examining the Daily Reciprocal Influence Process in LMX Relationships.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Batool, K., & Niazi, M. A. (2014). Towards a methodology for validation of centrality measures in complex networks. *PloS one, 9*(4), e90283.

- Beal, D. J., & Weiss, H. M. (2003). Methods of ecological momentary assessment in organizational research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 6(4), 440-464.
- Bennis, W., & Thomas, R. J. (2002). *Geeks & Geezers: How Era, Values, and Defining Moments Shape Leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349-381). San Francisco, CA, US: Jossey-Bass.
- Bliese, P. D., & Britt, T. W. (2001). Social support, group consensus and stressor-strain relationships: Social context matters. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(4), 425-436.
- Borgatti, S. P., & Halgin, D. S. (2011). On network theory. *Organization Science*, 22(5), 1168-1181.
- Borgatti, S. P., Mehra, A., Brass, D. J., & Labianca, G. (2009). Network analysis in the social sciences. *Science*, 323(5916), 892-895.
- Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel Selection in Organizations* (pp. 71-98). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bowlby, J. (1982). Attachment and loss: retrospect and prospect. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 52(4), 664.
- Brands, R. A. (2013). Cognitive social structures in social network research: A review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(1), S82-S103.
- Brands, R. A., Menges, J. I., & Kilduff, M. (2015). The leader-in-social-network schema: Perceptions of network structure affect gendered attributions of charisma. *Organization Science*, 26(4), 1210-1225.
- Branscombe, N. R., Wann, D. L., Noel, J. G., & Coleman, J. (1993). In-group or out-group extemity: Importance of the threatened social identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 19(4), 381-388.
- Brass, D. J., & Halgin, D. S. (2012). Social networks: The structure of relationships. In L. T. Eby & T. D. Allen (Eds.), *Personal relationships: The effect on employee attitudes, behaviors, and well-being* (pp. 367-381). New York, NY: Routledge.

- Breevaart, K., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & van den Heuvel, M. (2015). Leader-member exchange, work engagement, and job performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 30*(7), 754-770.
- Brewer, M. B. (1991). The social self: On being the same and different at the same time. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 17*(5), 475-482.
- Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this "We"? Levels of collective identity and self representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71*(1), 83.
- Brown, M. H., & Hosking, D. M. (1986). Distributed leadership and skilled performance as successful organization in social movements. *Human Relations, 39*(1), 65-79.
- Burgoon, J. D. (1993). Interpersonal expectations, expectancy violations, and emotional communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 12*(1-2), 30-48.
- Burgoon, J. D., & Aho, L. (1982). Three field experiments on the effects of violations of conversational distance. *Communications Monographs, 49*(2), 71-88.
- Burgoon, J. D., & Hale, J. L. (1988). Nonverbal expectancy violations: Model elaboration and application to immediacy behaviors. *Communication Monographs, 55*(1), 58-79.
- Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Salas, E., Pierce, L., & Kendall, D. (2006). Understanding team adaptation: A conceptual analysis and model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(6), 1189.
- Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(5), 1217-1234.
- Carter, D. R., DeChurch, L. A., Braun, M. T., & Contractor, N. S. (2015). Social network approaches to leadership: An integrative conceptual review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(3), 597-622.
- Cavanaugh, M. A., Boswell, W. R., Roehling, M. V., & Boudreau, J. W. (2000). An empirical examination of self-reported work stress among US managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(1), 65.
- Chan, K. Y., & Drasgow, F. (2001). Toward a theory of individual differences and leadership: understanding the motivation to lead. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 481.
- Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods, 4*(1), 62-83.

- Cicero, L., Pierro, A., & van Knippenberg, D. (2007). Leader group prototypicality and job satisfaction: The moderating role of job stress and team identification. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 11(3), 165.
- Cole, M. S., Carter, M. Z., & Zhang, Z. (2013). Leader–team congruence in power distance values and team effectiveness: The mediating role of procedural justice climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(6), 962-973.
- Conger, J. A., & Pearce, C. L. (2003). *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Contractor, N. S., DeChurch, L. A., Carson, J., Carter, D. R., & Keegan, B. (2012). The topology of collective leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(6), 994-1011.
- Cooper, C. D., Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2005). Looking forward but learning from our past: Potential challenges to developing authentic leadership theory and authentic leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 475-493.
- Crawford, E. R., LePine, J. A., & Rich, B. L. (2010). Linking job demands and resources to employee engagement and burnout: A theoretical extension and meta-analytic test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(5), 834.
- Dansereau, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13(1), 46-78.
- Dawson, J. F. (2014). Moderation in management research: What, why, when, and how. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 29(1), 1-19.
- De La Torre-Ruiz, J. M., Aragón-Correa, J. A., & Ferrón-Vílchez, V. (2011). Job-related skill heterogeneity and action team performance. *Management Decision*, 49(7), 1061-1079.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. (2002). Overview of self-determination theory: An organismic dialectical perspective. *Handbook of Self-Determination Research*, 3-33.
- Dekker, D., Krackhardt, D., & Snijders, T. A. (2007). Sensitivity of MRQAP tests to collinearity and autocorrelation conditions. *Psychometrika*, 72(4), 563-581.
- DeLongis, A., Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1988). The impact of daily stress on health and mood: psychological and social resources as mediators. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(3), 486-495.
- DeRue, D. S. (2011). Adaptive leadership theory: Leading and following as a complex adaptive process. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 31, 125-150.

- DeRue, D. S., & Ashford, S. J. (2010). Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(4), 627-647.
- DeRue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., & Ashford, S. J. (2015). Interpersonal perceptions and the emergence of leadership structures in groups: A network perspective. *Organization Science*, 26(4), 1192-1209.
- DeRue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 7-52.
- Diener, E. (2000). *Subjective well-being: The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index* (Vol. 55): American Psychological Association.
- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *Academy of Management Review*, 11(3), 618-634.
- Dóci, E., & Hofmans, J. (2015). Task complexity and transformational leadership: The mediating role of leaders' state core self-evaluations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(3), 436-447.
- Drescher, M. A., Korsgaard, M. A., Welp, I. M., Picot, A., & Wigand, R. T. (2014). The dynamics of shared leadership: Building trust and enhancing performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(5), 771-783.
- Dulebohn, J. H., Bommer, W. H., Liden, R. C., Brouer, R. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2012). A meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of leader-member exchange: Integrating the past with an eye toward the future. *Journal of Management*, 38(6), 1715-1759.
- Duncan, T. E., Duncan, S. C., & Strycker, L. A. (2006). *An introduction to latent variable growth curve modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Dutton, J. E., Worline, M. C., Frost, P. J., & Lilius, J. (2006). Explaining compassion organizing. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 51(1), 59-96.
- Edmondson, A. C. (2003). Speaking up in the operating room: How team leaders promote learning in interdisciplinary action teams. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(6), 1419-1452.
- Edwards, J. R. (2002). Alternatives to difference scores: Polynomial regression and response surface methodology. *Advances in Measurement and Data Analysis*, 350-400.

- Edwards, J. R., & Cable, D. M. (2009). The value of value congruence. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(3), 654.
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: a general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods, 12*(1), 1.
- Edwards, J. R., & Parry, M. E. (1993). On the use of polynomial regression equations as an alternative to difference scores in organizational research. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*(6), 1577-1613.
- Enders, C. K., & Tofighi, D. (2007). Centering predictor variables in cross-sectional multilevel models: A new look at an old issue. *Psychological Methods, 12*(2), 121-138.
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2004). Implicit leadership theories in applied settings: factor structure, generalizability, and stability over time. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(2), 293-310.
- Erdogan, B., & Bauer, T. N. (2014). Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory: The Relational Approach to Leadership. In D. Day (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of leadership and organizations* (pp. 407-433). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Ferris, G. R., Blass, F. R., Douglas, C., Kolodinsky, R. W., Treadway, D. C., & Greenberg, J. (2003). Personal reputation in organizations. In J. Greenberg (Ed.), *Organizational behavior: The state of science* (pp. 201-234). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Ferris, G. R., Liden, R. C., Munyon, T. P., Summers, J. K., Basik, K. J., & Buckley, M. R. (2009). Relationships at work: Toward a multidimensional conceptualization of dyadic work relationships. *Journal of Management.*
- Festinger, L. (1950). Informal social communication. *Psychological Review, 57*(5), 271.
- Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of social comparison processes. *Human Relations, 7*(2), 117-140.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1964). A contingency model of leadership effectiveness. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 1*, 149-190.
- Fisher, R., & Brown, S. (1988). How can we accept those whose conduct is unacceptable? *Negotiation Journal, 4*(2), 125-136.
- Fleishman, E. A. (1953). The measurement of leadership attitudes in industry. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 37*(3), 153.

- Foste, E. A., & Botero, I. C. (2012). Personal reputation effects of upward communication on impressions about new employees. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 26(1), 48-73.
- Foti, R. J., & Hauenstein, N. (2007). Pattern and variable approaches in leadership emergence and effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(2), 347.
- Fransen, K., Haslam, S. A., Steffens, N. K., Vanbeselaere, N., De Cuyper, B., & Boen, F. (2015a). Believing in “us”: Exploring leaders’ capacity to enhance team confidence and performance by building a sense of shared social identity. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied*, 21(1), 89.
- Fransen, K., Van Puyenbroeck, S., Loughead, T. M., Vanbeselaere, N., De Cuyper, B., Broek, G. V., & Boen, F. (2015b). Who takes the lead? Social network analysis as a pioneering tool to investigate shared leadership within sports teams. *Social Networks*, 43, 28-38.
- Fransen, K., Vanbeselaere, N., De Cuyper, B., Vande Broek, G., & Boen, F. (2014). The myth of the team captain as principal leader: Extending the athlete leadership classification within sport teams. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 32(14), 1389-1397.
- Freeman, L. C., Roeder, D., & Mulholland, R. R. (1979). Centrality in social networks: Experimental results. *Social Networks*, 2(2), 119-141.
- Friedrich, T. L., Vessey, W. B., Schuelke, M. J., Ruark, G. A., & Mumford, M. D. (2009). A framework for understanding collective leadership: The selective utilization of leader and team expertise within networks. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(6), 933-958.
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-Analytic review of leader–member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(6), 827.
- Graen, G. B., & Scandura, T. A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 9, 175-208.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219-247.
- Graffin, S. D., Haleblan, J. J., & Kiley, J. T. (2016). Ready, AIM, acquire: Impression offsetting and acquisitions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59(1), 232-252.
- Granovetter, M. S. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1360-1380.

- Grzywacz, J. G., & Marks, N. F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work–family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*(1), 111.
- Guillén, L., Mayo, M., & Korotov, K. (2015). Is leadership a part of me? A leader identity approach to understanding the motivation to lead. *The Leadership Quarterly, 26*(5), 802-820.
- Hage, P., & Harary, F. (1995). Eccentricity and centrality in networks. *Social Networks, 17*(1), 57-63.
- Hambrick, D. C., Finkelstein, S., & Mooney, A. C. (2005). Executive job demands: New insights for explaining strategic decisions and leader behaviors. *Academy of Management Review, 30*(3), 472-491.
- Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Harms, P. D. (2008). Leadership efficacy: Review and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*(6), 669-692.
- Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Chan, A. (2012). Leader self and means efficacy: A multi-component approach. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 118*(2), 143-161.
- Hannah, S. T., Walumbwa, F. O., & Fry, L. W. (2011). Leadership in action teams: Team leader and members' authenticity, authenticity strength, and team outcomes. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(3), 771-802.
- Harrison, D. A., Mohammed, S., McGrath, J. E., Florey, A. T., & Vanderstoep, S. W. (2003). Time matters in team performance: Effects of member familiarity, entrainment, and task discontinuity on speed and quality. *Personnel Psychology, 56*(3), 633-669.
- Haslam, S. A., & Ellemers, N. (2005). Social identity in industrial and organizational psychology: Concepts, controversies and contributions. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 20*(1), 39-118.
- Haviland, J. B. (1977). Gossip as competition in Zinacantan. *Journal of Communication, 27*(1), 186-191.
- Higgins, E. T., & Rholes, W. S. (1978). "Saying is believing": Effects of message modification on memory and liking for the person described. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 14*(4), 363-378.
- Hill, P. L., & Roberts, B. W. (2012). Narcissism, well-being, and observer-rated personality across the lifespan. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 3*(2), 216-223.

- Hill, P. L., Sin, N. L., Turiano, N. A., Burrow, A. L., & Almeida, D. M. (2018). Sense of Purpose Moderates the Associations Between Daily Stressors and Daily Well-being. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*.
- Hilton, J. L., Klein, J. G., & von Hippel, W. (1991). Attention allocation and impression formation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17(5), 548-559.
- Hinsz, V. B., Tindale, R. S., & Vollrath, D. A. (1997). The emerging conceptualization of groups as information processors. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121(1), 43.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2011). Conservation of resource caravans and engaged settings. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(1), 116-122.
- Hoffman, A. J., & Ocasio, W. (2001). Not all events are attended equally: Toward a middle-range theory of industry attention to external events. *Organization Science*, 12(4), 414-434.
- Hogg, M. A., Fielding, K. S., Johnson, D., Masser, B., Russell, E., & Svensson, A. (2006). Demographic category membership and leadership in small groups: A social identity analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(4), 335-350.
- Hollenbeck, J. R., Beersma, B., & Schouten, M. E. (2012). Beyond team types and taxonomies: A dimensional scaling conceptualization for team description. *Academy of Management Review*, 37(1), 82-106.
- Hoyt, C. L. (2005). The role of leadership efficacy and stereotype activation in women's identification with leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 11(4), 2-14.
- Ilies, R., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Leader-member exchange and citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 269.
- Jackson, L. A., Sullivan, L. A., & Hodge, C. N. (1993). Stereotype effects of attributions, predictions, and evaluations: No two social judgments are quite alike. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(1), 69.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(1), 36.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Pucik, V., & Welbourne, T. M. (1999). Managerial coping with organizational change: A dispositional perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(1), 107.

- Jussim, L., Coleman, L. M., & Lerch, L. (1987). The nature of stereotypes: A comparison and integration of three theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(3), 536.
- Jussim, L., Fleming, C. J., Coleman, L., & Kohberger, C. (1996). The Nature of Stereotypes II: A Multiple-Process Model of Evaluations. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 26(4), 283-312.
- Kahn, W. A. (1998). Relational systems at work. In B. M. Staw (Ed.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 20, pp. 39-79). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Kang, S. K., & Bodenhausen, G. V. (2015). Multiple identities in social perception and interaction: Challenges and opportunities. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 66, 547-574.
- Kark, R., & Van Dijk, D. (2007). Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: The role of the self-regulatory focus in leadership processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 500-528.
- Kastelle, T. (2013). Hierarchy is overrated. *Harvard Business Review*.
- Katz, N. (2001). Sports teams as a model for workplace teams: Lessons and liabilities. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 15(3), 56-67.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2002). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Klein, K. J. (2000). A multilevel approach to theory and research in organizations: Contextual, temporal, and emergent processes. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 3-90). San Francisco, CA, US: Jossey-Bass.
- Krackhardt, D. (1988). Predicting with networks: Nonparametric multiple regression analysis of dyadic data. *Social Networks*, 10(4), 359-381.
- Kunda, Z. (1999). *Social cognition: Making sense of people*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Lambert, L. S., Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Holt, D. T., & Barelka, A. J. (2012). Forgotten but not gone: An examination of fit between leader consideration and initiating structure needed and received. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(5), 913-930.
- Larson, J. R., Lingle, J. H., & Scerbo, M. M. (1984). The impact of performance cues on leader-behavior ratings: The role of selective information availability and probabilistic response bias. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 33(3), 323-349.

- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, Appraisal, and Coping*. New York: Springer Publishing Company
- Le Poire, B. A., & Burgoon, J. D. (1994). Two contrasting explanations of involvement violations: Expectancy violations theory versus discrepancy arousal theory. *Human Communication Research*.
- LePine, J. A., Podsakoff, N. P., & LePine, M. A. (2005). A meta-analytic test of the challenge stressor–hindrance stressor framework: An explanation for inconsistent relationships among stressors and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(5), 764-775.
- LePine, M. A., Zhang, Y., Rich, B., & Crawford, E. (2016). Turning their pain to gain: Charismatic leader influence on follower stress appraisal and job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, amj.2013.0778.
- Lester, P. B., Hannah, S. T., Harms, P. D., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avolio, B. J. (2011). Mentoring impact on leader efficacy development: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10(3), 409-429.
- Lichtenstein, B. B., & Plowman, D. A. (2009). The leadership of emergence: A complex systems leadership theory of emergence at successive organizational levels. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(4), 617-630.
- Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, 24(1), 43-72.
- Llopis, G. (2014). One powerful way to control your leadership reputation. Forbes.com.
- Lord, R. G., & Dinh, J. E. (2014). What Have We Learned That Is Critical in Understanding Leadership Perceptions and Leader-Performance Relations? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 7(2), 158-177.
- Loughead, T. M., & Hardy, J. (2005). An examination of coach and peer leader behaviors in sport. *Psychology of Sport and exercise*, 6(3), 303-312.
- Loughead, T. M., Hardy, J., & Eys, M. A. (2006). The nature of athlete leadership. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 29(2), 142.
- Lusher, D., Robins, G., & Kremer, P. (2010). The application of social network analysis to team sports. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science*, 14(4), 211-224.
- Luszczynska, A., Scholz, U., & Schwarzer, R. (2005). The general self-efficacy scale: Multicultural validation studies. *The Journal of Psychology*, 139(5), 439-457.

- Ma, L., & Qu, Q. (2010). Differentiation in leader–member exchange: A hierarchical linear modeling approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(5), 733-744.
- Marchiondo, L. A., Myers, C. G., & Kopelman, S. (2015). The relational nature of leadership identity construction: How and when it influences perceived leadership and decision-making. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(5), 892-908.
- Marion, R., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2002). Leadership in complex organizations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12(4), 389-418.
- Martin, R., Guillaume, Y., Thomas, G., Lee, A., & Epitropaki, O. (2016). Leader–Member exchange (LMX) and performance: A Meta-Analytic review. *Personnel Psychology*, 69(1), 67-121.
- Matta, F. K., Scott, B. A., Koopman, J., & Conlon, D. E. (2015). Does seeing “eye to eye” affect work engagement and organizational citizenship behavior? A role theory perspective on LMX agreement. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(6), 1686-1708.
- McCormick, M. J., Tanguma, J., & López-Forment, A. S. (2002). Extending self-efficacy theory to leadership: A review and empirical test. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 1(2), 34-49.
- McCulloh, I., & Carley, K. M. (2011). Detecting Change in Longitudinal Social Networks. *Journal of Social Structures*, 12(3), 1-37.
- McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., & Cook, J. M. (2001). Birds of a feather: Homophily in social networks. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 415-444.
- Mehra, A., Kilduff, M., & Brass, D. J. (1998). At the margins: A distinctiveness approach to the social identity and social networks of underrepresented groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(4), 441-452.
- Mehra, A., Smith, B. R., Dixon, A. L., & Robertson, B. (2006). Distributed leadership in teams: The network of leadership perceptions and team performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(3), 232-245.
- Meyer, A. D., Brooks, G. R., & Goes, J. B. (1990). Environmental jolts and industry revolutions: Organizational responses to discontinuous change. *Strategic Management Journal*, 93-110.
- Mohr, C. D., & Kenny, D. A. (2006). The how and why of disagreement among perceivers: An exploration of person models. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 42(3), 337-349.

- Moon, H., Hollenbeck, J. R., Humphrey, S. E., Ilgen, D. R., West, B., Ellis, A. P., & Porter, C. O. (2004). Asymmetric adaptability: Dynamic team structures as one-way streets. *Academy of Management Journal*, *47*(5), 681-695.
- Morgeson, F. P. (2005). The external leadership of self-managing teams: intervening in the context of novel and disruptive events. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(3), 497.
- Morgeson, F. P., DeRue, D. S., & Karam, E. P. (2010). Leadership in teams: A functional approach to understanding leadership structures and processes. *Journal of Management*, *36*(1), 5-39.
- Mukherjee, S. (2016). Leadership network and team performance in interactive contests. *Social Networks*, *47*, 85-92.
- Nahrgang, J. D., Morgeson, F. P., & Ilies, R. (2009). The development of leader-member exchanges: Exploring how personality and performance influence leader and member relationships over time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *108*(2), 256-266.
- Ng, T. W., & Lucianetti, L. (2016). Within-individual increases in innovative behavior and creative, persuasion, and change self-efficacy over time: A social-cognitive theory perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(1), 14-34.
- Nieminen, U. (1973). On the centrality in a directed graph. *Social Science Research*, *2*(4), 371-378.
- Noon, M., & Delbridge, R. (1993). News from behind my hand: Gossip in organizations. *Organization Studies*, *14*(1), 23-36.
- Parks, K. M., & Steelman, L. A. (2008). Organizational wellness programs: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *13*(1), 58.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879-903.
- Powley, E. H., & Piderit, S. K. (2008). Tending Wounds Elements of the Organizational Healing Process. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *44*(1), 134-149.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *42*(1), 185-227.
- Preacher, K. J., Zyphur, M. J., & Zhang, Z. (2010). A general multilevel SEM framework for assessing multilevel mediation. *Psychological Methods*, *15*(3), 209-233.

- Prigogine, I. (1955). *An introduction to thermodynamics of irreversible processes*. Springfield, IL: Thomas.
- Reeder, G. D., Hesson-McInnis, M., Krohse, J. O., & Scialabba, E. A. (2001). Inferences about effort and ability. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(9), 1225-1235.
- Reeder, G. D., Kumar, S., Hesson-McInnis, M. S., & Trafimow, D. (2002). Inferences about the morality of an aggressor: The role of perceived motive. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(4), 789.
- Reina-Tamayo, A. M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2017). Episodic Demands, Resources, and Engagement. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 16, 125-136.
- Rhee, M., & Valdez, M. E. (2009). Contextual factors surrounding reputation damage with potential implications for reputation repair. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(1), 146-168.
- Russell, J. A., & Barrett, L. F. (1999). Core affect, prototypical emotional episodes, and other things called emotion: dissecting the elephant. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(5), 805.
- Russo, R. A. (2017, August 19). Oy, Oy captain! Picking captains can give coaches headaches. *USA Today*. Retrieved from <https://www.usatoday.com/story/sports/ncaaf/2017/08/19/oy-oy-captain-picking-captains-can-give-coaches-headaches/104747398/>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 141-166.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069.
- Schachter, S., & Singer, J. (1962). Cognitive, social, and physiological determinants of emotional state. *Psychological Review*, 69(5), 379.
- Scott, B. A., Colquitt, J. A., Paddock, E. L., & Judge, T. A. (2010). A daily investigation of the role of manager empathy on employee well-being. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 113(2), 127-140.
- Scott, J. (2013). *Social network analysis* (3 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Scott, M. B., & Lyman, S. M. (1968). Accounts. *American Sociological Review*, 46-62.

- Self, D. R., Holt, D. T., & Schaninger, W. S. (2005). Work-group and organizational support: A test of distinct dimensions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78(1), 133-140.
- Selig, J. P., & Preacher, K. J. (2008, June). Monte Carlo method for assessing mediation: An interactive tool for creating confidence intervals for indirect effects [Computer software]. Available from <http://quantpsy.org/>.
- Shavelson, R. J., Webb, N. M., & Rowley, G. L. (1989). Generalizability theory. *American Psychologist*, 44(6), 922-932.
- Sluss, D. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (2008). How relational and organizational identification converge: Processes and conditions. *Organization Science*, 19(6), 807-823.
- Sluss, D. M., Ployhart, R. E., Cobb, M. G., & Ashforth, B. E. (2012). Generalizing newcomers' relational and organizational identifications: Processes and prototypicality. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(4), 949-975.
- Smith, E. R., & Collins, E. C. (2009). Contextualizing person perception: distributed social cognition. *Psychological Review*, 116(2), 343.
- Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30(4), 526.
- Sonnentag, S., Kuttler, I., & Fritz, C. (2010). Job stressors, emotional exhaustion, and need for recovery: A multi-source study on the benefits of psychological detachment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76(3), 355-365.
- Sosik, J. J., & Godshalk, V. M. (2000). Leadership styles, mentoring functions received, and job-related stress: A conceptual model and preliminary study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 365-390.
- Sparrowe, R. T., & Emery, C. (2015). Tracing Structure, Tie Strength, and Cognitive Networks in LMX Theory. In T. N. Bauer & B. Erdogan (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of leader-member exchange* (pp. 293). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Sundstrom, E., De Meuse, K. P., & Futrell, D. (1990). Work teams: Applications and effectiveness. *American Psychologist*, 45(2), 120.
- Sundstrom, E., McIntyre, M., Halfhill, T., & Richards, H. (2000). Work groups: From the Hawthorne studies to work teams of the 1990s and beyond. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 4(1), 44.
- Taylor, S. E., Buunk, B. P., & Aspinwall, L. G. (1990). Social comparison, stress, and coping. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 16(1), 74-89.

- Thomas, R. J. (2008). Crucibles of leadership development. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 49(3), 15.
- Turner, J. C. (1982). Towards a cognitive redefinition of the social group. In H. Tajfel (Ed.), *Social identity and intergroup relations* (pp. 15-40). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Uhl-Bien, M. (2006). Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), 654-676.
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Marion, R. (2009). Complexity leadership in bureaucratic forms of organizing: A meso model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(4), 631-650.
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Ospina, S. M. (2012). *Advancing relational leadership research: A dialogue among perspectives*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, Inc.
- Uy, M. A., Foo, M. D., & Aguinis, H. (2010). Using experience sampling methodology to advance entrepreneurship theory and research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 13(1), 31-54.
- Vardaman, J. M., Taylor, S. G., Allen, D. G., Gondo, M. B., & Amis, J. M. (2015). Translating intentions to behavior: The interaction of network structure and behavioral intentions in understanding employee turnover. *Organization Science*, 26(4), 1177-1191.
- Webster, J. R., Beehr, T. A., & Love, K. (2011). Extending the challenge-hindrane model of occupational stress: The role of appraisal. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(2), 505-516.
- Wellman, B. (1983). Network analysis: Some basic principles. *Sociological Theory*, 155-200.
- Wellman, N. (2017). Authority or community? A relational models theory of group-level leadership emergence. *Academy of Management Review*, 42(4), 596-617.
- Westman, M., Hobfoll, S. E., Chen, S., Davidson, O. B., & Laski, S. (2004). Organizational stress through the lens of conservation of resources (COR) theory. P. L. Perrewe, & D. C. Gansters (Eds.). *Exploring interpersonal dynamics* (Research in Occupational Stress and Well-being, Vol. 4: pp. 167-220). New York: Emerald Group Publishing Limited
- Wilson, K. S., Sin, H. P., & Conlon, D. E. (2010). What about the leader in leader-member exchange? The impact of resource exchanges and substitutability on the leader. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(3), 358-372.

- Wolfe, R. A., Weick, K. E., Usher, J. M., Terborg, J. R., Poppo, L., Murrell, A. J., ... & Jourdan, J. S. (2005). Sport and organizational studies: Exploring synergy. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 14*(2), 182-210.
- Wrzesniewski, A., Dutton, J. E., & Debebe, G. (2003). Interpersonal sensemaking and the meaning of work. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 25*, 93-135.
- Yukl, G. (2011). Contingency theories of effective leadership. In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson, & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of leadership* (pp. 286-298). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Rittman, A. L., & Marks, M. A. (2001). *Team leadership. The Leadership Quarterly, 12*(4), 451-483.
- Zhang, Z., & Peterson, S. J. (2011). Advice networks in teams: The role of transformational leadership and members' core self-evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(5), 1004.
- Zinko, R., & Rubin, M. (2015). Personal reputation and the organization. *Journal of Management & Organization, 21*(2), 217-236.
- Zinko, R., Ferris, G. R., Blass, F. R., & Laird, M. D. (2007). Toward a theory of reputation in organizations. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 26*, 163.
- Zinko, R., Furner, C. P., Herdman, A., & Wikhamn, W. (2011). Gossip: A vehicle for the development of personal reputation in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Moral Psychology, 2*(1), 39.
- Zohar, D., & Tenne-Gazit, O. (2008). Transformational leadership and group interaction as climate antecedents: a social network analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(4), 744.

APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL FORMS FOR FIELD-BASED STUDY

APPROVAL: EXPEDITED REVIEW

Suzanne Peterson
 Management
 480/727-6241
 Suzanne.Peterson@asu.edu

Dear Suzanne Peterson:

On 7/6/2016 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title:	Yours, Mine, and Ours: The role of collective endorsement in understanding leadership
Investigator:	Suzanne Peterson
IRB ID:	STUDY00004509
Category of review:	(6) Voice, video, digital, or image recordings, (7)(b) Social science methods, (7)(a) Behavioral research
Funding:	Name: Arizona State University (ASU)
Grant Title:	
Grant ID:	
Documents Reviewed:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Email from ASU Athletic dept.pdf, Category: Off-site authorizations (school permission, other IRB approvals, Tribal permission etc); • Interview Questions- Coaches.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Consent Form- Athletes.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Internal Grant application, Category: Sponsor Attachment; • Consent Form- Coaches.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Interview Questions- Players.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • IRB application, Category: IRB Protocol; • Survey measures.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions);

	• Recruitment Script.pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials;
--	--

The IRB approved the protocol from 7/6/2016 to 7/5/2017 inclusive. Three weeks before 7/5/2017 you are to submit a completed Continuing Review application and required attachments to request continuing approval or closure.

If continuing review approval is not granted before the expiration date of 7/5/2017 approval of this protocol expires on that date. When consent is appropriate, you must use final, watermarked versions available under the “Documents” tab in ERA-IRB.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator

cc: Amy Bartels
Amy Bartels
Margaret Luciano
Suzanne Peterson

APPROVAL: EXPEDITED REVIEW

Suzanne Peterson
 Global Management, Thunderbird School of
 602/978-7157
 Suzanne.Peterson@thunderbird.asu.edu

Dear Suzanne Peterson:

On 9/27/2016 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Modification
Title:	Yours, Mine, and Ours: The role of collective endorsement in understanding leadership
Investigator:	Suzanne Peterson
IRB ID:	STUDY00004509
Category of review:	(mm) Minor modification
Funding:	Name: Arizona State University (ASU)
Grant Title:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal Grant application, Category: Sponsor Attachment; • Consent Form- Updated Information.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Survey measures- Basketball additions.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Survey measures.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Interview Questions- Coaches.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Consent Form- Coaches.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Consent Form- Athletes.pdf, Category: Consent Form;

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Email from ASU Athletic dept.pdf, Category: Off-site authorizations (school permission, other IRB approvals, Tribal permission etc); • Consent Form- Basketball Athletes.pdf, Category: Consent Form; • Interview Questions- Players.pdf, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • IRB application- 9-18.docx, Category: IRB Protocol; • Recruitment Script.pdf, Category: Recruitment Materials;
--	---

The IRB approved the protocol from 7/6/2016 to 7/5/2017 inclusive. Three weeks before 7/5/2017 you are to submit a completed Continuing Review application and required attachments to request continuing approval or closure.

If continuing review approval is not granted before the expiration date of 7/5/2017 approval of this protocol expires on that date. When consent is appropriate, you must use final, watermarked versions available under the “Documents” tab in ERA-IRB.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator

cc: Amy Bartels
Amy Bartels
Margaret Luciano
Suzanne Peterson



APPROVAL:CONTINUATION

Suzanne Peterson
Global Management, Thunderbird School of
602/978-7157
Suzanne.Peterson@thunderbird.asu.edu

Dear Suzanne Peterson:

On 6/5/2017 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Continuing Review
Title:	Yours, Mine, and Ours: The role of collective endorsement in understanding leadership
Investigator:	Suzanne Peterson
IRB ID:	STUDY00004509
Category of review:	(7)(b) Social science methods, (7)(a) Behavioral research
Funding:	Name: Arizona State University (ASU)

The IRB approved the protocol from 6/5/2017 to 7/4/2018 inclusive. Three weeks before 7/4/2018 you are to submit a completed Continuing Review application and required attachments to request continuing approval or closure.

If continuing review approval is not granted before the expiration date of 7/4/2018 approval of this protocol expires on that date. When consent is appropriate, you must use final, watermarked versions available under the “Documents” tab in ERA-IRB.

In conducting this protocol you are required to follow the requirements listed in the INVESTIGATOR MANUAL (HRP-103).

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator

cc: Amy Bartels
Amy Bartels
Margaret Luciano
Suzanne Peterson

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR THE PLAYERS PRIOR TO START OF SEASON

Team culture

1. How much time do you spend outside of football with your teammates? What kinds of stuff do you guys do?
2. On a big team, you clearly aren't going to be best friends with everyone. How did you become friends with your closest friends on the team?
3. What do you think is the biggest opportunity for the team this year? What about the biggest upcoming challenge for the year?
4. When you think back to last season (if they were here last season), think of the leaders of the team? Are they the same this year? If not, how come?
5. Please think of the person on the team that you trust the most. What makes that individual so trustworthy?

Leadership Task Behaviors

1. Please think of someone on the team (not a coach) that you think of as a great leader. In general terms, can you describe that leader?
2. Have you always thought of that person as a great leader? If yes, do you remember one of the first things they did to make you see them as a great leader? If not, how has that person changed so that you now think of them as a leader?
3. Please think of someone in your life (does not have to be on the team) that you think of as an ineffective leader. In general terms, can you describe that leader?
4. Have you always thought of that person as an ineffective leader? If yes, do you remember one of the first things they did to make you see them as a great leader? If not, how has that person changed so that you now think of them as a leader?
5. Why do you think that ineffective leader was even considered a leader?

6. Please think of the person in your position group that you believe is most athletically-gifted other than yourself. Do you consider that person a leader to you? Why or why not?
7. Please think of the person on offense (if the player is on offense) that you believe is the best player other than yourself. Do you consider that person a leader? Why or why not?
8. Does the person that you think of as your leader always stay the same? If so, is there anything they could do that would make you not think of them as a leader? If not, what do you think changes to make you reconsider whether or not that person is a leader?

Leadership Relationship Behaviors- (NOTE- these questions build on the first five questions from the previous section)

1. When you think of a great leader on the team, are you thinking about someone you knew before joining the team? If so, what kind of relationship did you have? Has that relationship changed at all since joining the team?
2. Do you consider your leader on the team to be a friend as well? Why or why not?
3. Please think of the person on the team, other than the coaches, that has been the most helpful to you. What has he done that is helpful?

Leadership trust violations and recovery

1. In general, are there things that people you know do that make you lose trust in them?
2. Has a leader even broken your trust? If so, what happened?

3. Please think of a time when your leader (either on the team or outside of the team) made a mistake. What type of mistake was it?
4. How did that make you feel?
5. If you were in that leader's position and had made that mistake, what would you have done?
6. Did the leader's mistake affect your trust in him/her as a leader? If so, could s/he have done anything to regain your trust?
7. When you personally make a mistake, what kinds of things do you do to rectify them?
8. Do you think a good leader rectifies a mistake more effectively through words or actions? How so?

Stressors

1. What kinds of things cause you the most stress in football?
2. What kinds of things outside of football cause you the most stress?
3. Specifically, with regard to school, is there anything that is particularly stressful?
4. What kinds of things help motivate and challenge you? Are there any things in your life (football or outside of football) that are an annoyance and seem inconvenient that you have to do them?

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR THE COACHES AT THE END OF THE SEASON

Leader Identity

1. Who did you personally see as a leader on the team as a whole?
 - a. Why do you see them as a leader?
 - b. Prompt for specific behaviors- Can you tell me a story or about a time when you really saw this person as a leader?
2. Who did you personally see as a leader in your position group?
 - a. Why do you see them as a leader?
 - b. Prompt for specific behaviors- Can you tell me a story or about a time when you really saw this person as a leader?
 - c. How is this person similar or different from the one you described above?
3. Who do you think your players see as a leader?
 - a. How did these individuals develop that reputation?
 - b. Do you think it's an accurate reputation? Why or why not?
4. On the team, did there ever seem to be any disagreement between the players and coaches as to who was the leader?
 - a. Yes- what do you think caused this disagreement? Do you think this type of disagreement is healthy for the team?
 - b. No- how do you think a consensus as to who the leader was developed? Do you think this type of agreement is healthy for the team?

Dynamics of Leader Perceptions

5. How has your perception of who is a leader on the team changed throughout the season?

- a. How/why did it change? Can you tell me the narrative/story of this change?
 - b. Are there leadership behaviors you wish you had seen?
6. How has the player's perception of who is a leader on the team changed throughout the season?
- a. How/why did it change? Can you tell me the narrative/story of this change?
 - i. NOTE- gradual change or specific events?
 - b. Are there leadership behaviors you wish you had seen?

Exogenous Shocks/Identity Jolts

7. As a team, you had to deal with a lot of injuries this year. Can you think of any players that were particularly influential during this time?
- a. What specifically did they do?
 - b. Did other players seem to follow their lead?
 - c. Were these players seen as leaders BEFORE the injuries to others occurred?
 - i. Yes- did it change the way they were seen as a leader at all? How?
 - ii. No- after this phase kind of passed, were they still seen as a leader?
Why or why not?
 - d. What about the injured players specifically, were they seen as a leader?
 - i. Yes- what specifically did they do that allowed them to still be a leader?

- ii. No- were they seen as a leader before their injury? What do you think changed once they became injured? Do you think it's possible to be a leader when injured? What would this look like?
- 8. You also had to deal with a rough stretch of games. During this stretch, did it change who the players saw as a leader?
 - a. How did players emerge that hadn't been a leader before?
 - i. Yes- what specifically did they do? Was there a consensus that this person was now a leader or was it kind of mixed?
 - ii. No- what do you think a player would've had to do to emerge as a leader during this time?
 - b. Did anyone that had been a leader not seem to be as strong of a leader anymore?
 - i. Yes- Did they seem to change behaviors or did it come more from the other players no longer seeing that person as a leader?
 - 1. Why do you think they didn't want to be a leader anymore?
 - ii. No- Was this consistency in leadership helpful? Do you think it would've been a good or bad thing if new leadership emerged?

Own Perceptions on Leadership

- 9. You've been a football coach for many years and around football players for even longer.
 - a. How does leadership typically change throughout the season?
 - b. Why does it typically change throughout the season?

- i. Does timing matter at all? For example, if this happens early vs. late in the season, does that make a difference?
 - c. How do changes in leadership, if they occur impact team dynamics? Can you give me an example?
 - d. Do you think of changes in leadership as more of a gradual process or usually prompted by a specific event? How come?
10. Finally, based on what we've talked about today, is there anything you think I missed or that you expected to talk about?

APPENDIX D

ITEMS AND SCALES USED IN THE STUDY

Variable Name	Citation	Adaptation (If Any)
Leader Self-Efficacy	Hannah, Avolio, Walumbwa & Chan (2012)	Adapted to refer to leader self-efficacy within the last week
Leader-Member Exchange Quality	Liden & Maslyn (1998)	Adapted to refer to the athlete's position coach as their supervisor
Perceived Demands	Zhang, LePine, Buckman, & Wei (2014) and pilot interviews with the athletes	Adapted to refer to perceived demands within the last week; items listed below*
Well-Being	Bartels, Peterson, & Reina (2018)	Adapted to refer to football-related activities as the athlete's workplace
Generalized Self-Efficacy	Chen, Gully, & Eden (2001)	
Self-Monitoring Motivation to Lead	Snyder (1974) Chan & Drawgow (2001)	12-item shortened version validated by Wellman, Newton, LePine, and Waldman (2018)
Narcissism	Ames, Rose, & Anderson (2006)	
Transformational Leadership	Avolio, Bass, & Jung (1999)	Adapted to refer to the athlete's position coach as their supervisor
Big 5 Personality Traits	Costa & McCrae (1985)	

*Perceived Demands Items:

Please answer the following questions based on the average amounts over the last week:

(1 = None, 2 = A little, 3 = Some, 4 = A moderate amount, 5 = Quite a bit, and 6 = A ton)

1. How much schoolwork did you have to do this week?
2. How much did any coach yell at you/criticize you this week?
3. How much time were you able to talk to your family this week?
4. How much sleep did you get this week?