Examining Forms of Informal Leadership (Non)Emergence

and Their Differential Consequences

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation addresses two issues in the literature on informal leadership emergence (i.e., the process of an individual without a formal leadership position coming to exert leadership influence over others). First, scholars have focused on situations in which a focal person's leadership claiming is aligned with a peer's leadership granting. In doing so, past work has overlooked instances of misalignment, that is, when a focal person claims more leadership than a peer grants (i.e., overclaiming) or when a peer grants more leadership than a focal person claims (i.e., underclaiming). Second, the consensus in the literature suggests that emerging as an informal leader provides more beneficial outcomes to the individual and their team than non-emerging. However, I argue that this assumption may not be warranted in some situations, for example when a focal person's lack of claiming is aligned with a peer's lack of granting. Drawing on the leadership identity claiming and granting framework, I postulate four forms of informal leadership (non)emergence, namely (1) dyadic emergent leadership, (2) dyadic leadership absence, (3) overclaiming, and (4) underclaiming. Based on role theory, I then build theory regarding their effects on behavioral consequences through affective and cognitive mechanisms. More precisely, I suggest that forms characterized by congruence in leadership claiming and granting (as opposed to forms characterized by incongruence) result in increased peer backing-up behavior towards the focal person (mediated by enthusiasm and respect) and reduced peer social undermining (mediated by anger and revenge cognitions). I further hypothesize asymmetrical incongruence effects and consider a focal person's prosocial motivation as a boundary condition. I conducted three

studies to examine my theorizing. In Pilot Study 1 ($N = 199$), I adapted and validated a measure to assess leadership claiming and granting. In Pilot Study 2 ($N = 151$), I shortened established measures. In the Main Study ($N = 279$), I tested my theoretical predictions yielding mixed findings. Whereas I find support for the congruence effect on backing-up behavior, all other hypotheses were not supported. I report supplemental analyses to examine these null results and discuss the theoretical, empirical, and practical implications of this research.

To Lena

Man braucht nur eine Insel
allein im weiten Meer.
Man braucht nur einen Menschen,
den aber braucht man sehr.

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In a bookstore in Tucson after my first week in the Ph.D. program, I found a postcard depicting a little child helping an old elephant climb on a circus wagon. Back then, I thought to myself that the time might come where I would feel like this kid struggling to lift the weight of the program. For all these years, I kept the postcard outside my office door, constantly asking myself when the elephant would finally step on my feet or bury me underneath. It turns out that never happened. I had all these helping hands along the way. I am grateful for your support in lifting the elephant on the circus wagon.

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CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

Time and again, scholars have emphasized the impact of leadership on team

effectiveness (Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, & Halpin, 2006; DeRue, Nahrgang,

Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017). Whereas

earlier work has focused on appointed leaders who are responsible for a team's

performance (i.e., formal leadership; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010; see also

Kozlowski, Gully, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001),

research has more recently turned towards examining informal leadership or the extent to

which individuals without a formal leadership position exert leadership influence over

others (e.g., Taggar, Hackett, & Saha, 1999; Wellman, 2017). More precisely, this stream

of research has shed light on the degree to which team members may share leadership

responsibilities (i.e., shared leadership; Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; He, Hao,

Huang, Long, Hiller, Li, 2020; Wellman, Newton, Wang, Wei, Waldman, & LePine,

2019) or emerge as leaders (i.e., emergent leadership; Gerpott, Lehmann-Willenbrock,

Voelpel, & van Vugt, 2019; Hu, Zhang, Jiang, & Chen, 2019; Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan,

1994). A defining theme of this work is its emphasis on the positive consequences of

individuals stepping up to become informal leaders (e.g., Cogliser, Gardner, Gavin, &

Broberg, 2012; Taggar et al., 1999; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014; Zhang, Waldman,

& Wang, 2012). In fact, past studies have recommended employees' emerging as

informal leaders as a way to improve individual and team effectiveness (e.g., Taggar et

al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2012).

Although prior research has expanded our understanding of the consequences of informal leadership emergence (i.e., the process of an individual without a formal leadership position coming to exert leadership influence over others)[1], work in this literature has yet to address two theoretical issues. First, researchers have predominately focused on the scenario where the extent to which an individual (hereafter referred to as the *focal person*) seeks to be an informal leader is aligned with the degree to which other team members (hereafter referred to as the *peers*) consider the focal person to be an informal leader. More precisely, past work has conceptualized informal leadership emergence as the degree to which peers come to perceive a focal person as an informal leader (e.g., Gerpott et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2019; Lee & Farh, 2019; see also Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Similarly, the leadership identity claiming and granting framework (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue, Ashford, & Cotton, 2009) suggests that a focal person emerges as a leader when their leadership claiming is aligned with the peers' leadership granting. These conceptualizations stress the alignment between a focal person's aspirations to be a leader (i.e., leadership claiming) and the peers' requests for leadership (i.e., leadership granting). However, these accounts have largely overlooked a potential misalignment between a focal person's leadership claiming and the peers' leadership granting, and, in doing so, neglected scenarios of a focal person's claiming exceeding the peers' granting (i.e., *overclaiming*) and a focal person's claiming falling behind the peers' granting (i.e., *underclaiming*). Thus, our current understanding of

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[1] Besides labeling this process, I use the term *informal leadership emergence* to label this stream of research. Further, I define informal leadership *non*emergence as the process of an individual without a formal leadership position *not* coming to exert leadership influence over others.

informal leadership emergence emphasizing the agreement between a focal person and the peers over a focal person's exerting informal influence may be incomplete.

Second, the prevailing belief in the literature is that emerging as an informal leader provides *better* outcomes for that individual (and their team) than not emerging as an informal leader. I challenge this belief. To elaborate, prior work has emphasized the positive consequences of a focal person emerging as an informal leader. For example, Zhang and colleagues (2012) noted peers' cooperative behaviors towards the emergent leader whereas others stressed the benefits of a focal person's fulfilling of critical team functions (Cogliser et al., 2012; Taggar et al., 1999). However, I suggest that a peer may respond similarly positively to a focal person's engaging in informal leadership as compared with another focal person not engaging in informal leadership. More precisely, when a focal person claims leadership and the peers grant leadership, the peers may seek to reinforce the focal person by engaging in more positive (i.e., cooperative) and less negative (i.e., undermining) behaviors towards the focal person. However, when a focal person does not claim leadership and the peers do not grant leadership—e.g., because there is no need for informal leadership from the focal person—the peers may react similarly positively to the focal person. In the latter case, the peers may also engage in more cooperative and less undermining behaviors because the focal person does not seek to exert unwanted influence. Thus, when leadership claiming and granting are aligned at high and low levels, positive consequences may similarly unfold—even when the focal person is not viewed as an informal leader. In sum, I seek to challenge the prevailing belief that an individual emerging as an informal leader is associated with better

consequences than an individual not emerging, thereby calling for in-depth theorizing on the consequences of informal leadership (non)emergence.

I argue that these two practices in the literature—focusing on scenarios of alignment in leadership claiming and granting to the neglect of misalignment scenarios, and believing that emergent leaders benefit more than their non-emergent counterparts, may have hindered a fuller understanding of the informal leadership emergence phenomenon. Said differently, by ignoring the potential for misalignment in leadership claiming and granting, past research has been unable to consider the interpersonal dynamics following a focal person seeking to emerge as an informal leader even though the peers do not want such informal influence (i.e., overclaiming). Similarly, current theorizing is unable to illuminate the consequences of a focal person seeking not to emerge even though their peers acknowledge or encourage their informal leadership (i.e., underclaiming). I argue that these misalignment scenarios are important for our understanding of informal leadership emergence as they may result in deleterious consequences for the focal person. Said differently, peers may rescind their support for a focal person and engage in undermining behaviors when the focal person seeks to exert too much or too little informal leadership. Moreover, past research has assumed that emerging is better than not emerging and advocated individuals to always engage in more informal leadership. However, individuals may not benefit from these promised positive consequences because their environment may not request and thus not recognize or even punish them for their informal leadership. In sum, this dissertation aims to comprehensively investigate the outcomes of informal leadership (non)emergence taking

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into account how this process may unfold for scenarios of alignment and misalignment in a focal person's leadership claiming and the peers' leadership granting.

In the following chapters, I conceptualize informal leadership (non)emergence as consisting of four forms of alignment/misalignment in leadership claiming and granting. More precisely, I draw on the leadership identity claiming and granting framework by DeRue and colleagues (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009) and take a dyadic approach to examine the extent to which a focal person claims leadership and a peer grants leadership. In doing so, I postulate four forms (or manifestations) of informal leadership (non)emergence, namely dyadic emergent leadership (high claiming/high granting), dyadic leadership absence (low claiming/low granting), overclaiming (high claiming/low granting), and underclaiming (low claiming/high granting). Figure 1 provides an overview of these four manifestations.

Drawing on role theory (Gross, Mason, & McEachern, 1958; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964), I then develop theoretical predictions about the influence of these forms on a peer's affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses targeted at the focal person. More precisely, I postulate an effect of a focal person's informal leadership (non)emergence on a peer's propensity to engage in cooperative (i.e., backing-up behavior or the "extent to which team members help each other perform their roles," Porter, Hollenbeck, Ilgen, Ellis, West. & Moon, 2003: 396) and undermining behaviors (i.e., social undermining or "behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation," Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002: 332). I then investigate affective

and cognitive mechanisms. On the one hand, when a focal person's leadership claiming is aligned with a peer's leadership granting (at either high or low levels—as compared to misalignment), the peer may experience more enthusiasm (i.e., a "pleasant affective state that is characterized by excitement"; Welsh, Baer, & Sessions, 2020: 170) and less anger (i.e., a "feeling of annoyance or displeasure generally stemming from a demeaning offense"; Baer, Matta, Kim, Welsh & Garud, 2018: 1768) towards the focal person and thus engage in more backing-up behavior and less social undermining. On the other hand, congruence[2] in claiming and granting (at either high or low levels—as compared to incongruence) may cause the peer to engage in these behaviors because they experience more respect (i.e., the "[perceived] worth accorded to one person by … [another person]"; Spears, Ellemers, Doosje, & Branscombe, 2006: 179) and less revenge cognitions (i.e., thoughts pertaining "to inflict[ing] damage, injury, discomfort, or punishment on [a person]" in response to harm or wrongdoing; Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006: 654). I further examine asymmetrical incongruence effects (i.e., distinguishing between the consequences of overclaiming versus underclaiming) as well as consider a focal person's prosocial motivation (i.e., the "desire to expend effort to benefit other people"; Grant, 2008: 49), as a moderator on the effects of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on peer responses. As such, this dissertation offers a comprehensive account of when and why different forms of informal leadership (non)emergence may result in beneficial or detrimental outcomes.

The present research intends to make three contributions to the literature on

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[2] In the present paper, I use the terms *alignment* and *congruence* as well as *misalignment* and *incongruence* interchangeably.

informal leadership emergence. First, I seek to shift the consensus in the literature emphasizing the benefits of individual team members' emerging as informal leaders and the drawbacks of not emerging as leaders. I argue that congruence in leadership claiming and granting—at both high and low levels (where, in the conventional sense, high-level congruence captures emergent leadership and low-level congruence captures the absence of emergent leadership)—leads to more positive responses (i.e., more backing-up behavior, less social undermining) as compared with incongruence. In contrast, the two forms that are characterized by incongruence (i.e., overclaiming and underclaiming) can differentially result in detrimental reactions and behaviors of the peer. The present work argues that seeking to exert informal influence may not always be beneficial and its absence may not always be detrimental, particularly for the congruence scenario at low levels of leadership claiming and granting. In doing so, I offer a more fine-tuned approach to examining the outcomes of informal leadership emergence. Second, the present work seeks to examine when and why informal leadership (non)emergence can facilitate backing-up behavior and social undermining targeted at the focal person. By investigating affective pathways (through enthusiasm and anger), cognitive pathways (through respect and revenge cognitions), and the moderating effect of a focal person's prosocial motivation, I offer in-depth theorizing of the effects of congruence/ incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on the peer's behavioral responses. Third, I aim to contribute to the literature by empirically testing a dyadic-level conceptualization of informal leadership emergence in teams. Whereas prior empirical work has emphasized a focal person's emergence process to be homogenous—and

therefore averaging ratings—across all peers, the present work follows the relational

conceptualization of informal leadership emergence and investigates this process at the

dyadic level of analysis. In doing so, I provide a measure of leadership claiming and

granting. Thus, the present work opens up future avenues into more fine-grained

investigations of informal leadership emergence in teams.

CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I set the foundation for my theorizing by reviewing previous work in different literatures and illuminating the connections between these areas of inquiry. The chapter is structured as follows: First, I give an overview of prior research on leadership emergence pointing towards seminal work that emphasizes the importance of characteristics in predicting whether or not an individual team member emerges as a leader. I then describe more recent investigations into antecedents, mechanisms, and boundary conditions to leadership emergence. I conclude this section by distinguishing leadership emergence from leadership effectiveness as well as differentiating between work on formal and informal leadership emergence. In doing so, I position the present work and its contributions within the broader literature on leadership emergence. Second, I review the leadership identity claiming and granting framework by DeRue and colleagues (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009) and define key concepts. In this section, I provide guidance on how this framework informs the present work's understanding of informal leadership emergence. Third, I give an overview of role theory and highlight the two concepts of role consensus and role conflict. Then, I argue that role theory is informative to my conceptualization of informal leadership emergence because it aligns with the leadership identity claiming and granting framework. Last, I review prior work that has examined micro-organizational phenomena using dyadic conceptualizations. In doing so, I point out the intricacies of dyadic considerations and

discuss how such an approach may be meaningful to the study of informal leadership emergence.

Leadership Emergence

One of the fundamental questions in the literature on leadership has been how individuals attain a position of influence over others. Early work focused on the extent to which individuals' traits, as opposed to situational influences, predict their subsequent emergence as leaders (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948). A meta-analysis by Lord, De Vader, and Alliger (1986) emphasized the importance of traits highlighting intelligence and masculinity (as opposed to femininity) in facilitating leadership emergence. Subsequent work further differentiated these trait-based approaches to leadership emergence. In their influential works, Judge and colleagues (2002, 2004) singled out general mental ability and the personality factors extraversion and conscientiousness as key predictors of leadership emergence. Since then, additional meta-analyses have connected leadership emergence to individual characteristics such as gender (Badura, Grijalva, Newman, Yan, & Jeon, 2018), narcissism (Grijalva, Harms, Newman, Gaddis, & Fraley, 2015), psychopathology (Landay, Harms, Credé, 2019), physical height (Judge & Cable, 2004), and authoritarianism (Ensari, Riggio, Christian, & Carslaw, 2011). These findings suggest that being male as well as high levels of narcissism, psychopathology, physical height, and authoritarianism increase the likelihood that an individual emerges as a leader.

Whereas earlier work examined stable interindividual differences and their effects on leadership emergence, more recent investigations have turned towards investigating

other antecedents, underlying mechanisms, and boundary conditions to leadership emergence. For example, scholars have pointed towards childhood influences. In their study on adolescents and their parents, Liu, Riggio, Day, Zheng, Dai, and Bian (2019) found that overly cautious parental behavior reduced the likelihood of students' leadership emergence. Similarly, Barling and Weatherhead (2016) found that the experience of poverty during childhood had detrimental effects on school education and personal mastery experiences, thereby reducing the likelihood of attaining a leadership position as an adult. Investigating macro-organizational factors that may influence leadership emergence, Gündemir, Carton, and Homan (2019) found that organizational hardship increased the likelihood of Asian Americans to become CEOs because Asian Americans were (assumed to be) more likely to engage in self-sacrificial behaviors. Other work has emphasized the influence of behaviors facilitating leadership emergence. For example, McClean, Martin, Emich, and Woodruff (2018) found that an individual engaging in promotive voice (i.e., making constructive suggestions) is more likely to emerge as a leader. Other interpersonal behaviors such as helping (Marinova, Moon, & Kamdar, 2013) and participating in group activities (Badura et al., 2018) have similarly been linked to leadership emergence. In sum, these studies expand the initial considerations on individual characteristics and point towards situational influences of leadership emergence.

To shed light on the underlying mechanisms of leadership emergence, Hu and colleagues (2019) examined peers' advice seeking and peer liking as mediators between extraversion and leadership emergence. In a similar vein, researchers have considered

group processes that may facilitate leadership emergence (e.g., Kalish & Luria, 2016; Lee & Farh, 2019; Wellman, 2017). Turning towards boundary conditions, past work has found that men and women may differ in their leadership emergence (e.g., Barling & Weatherhead, 2016; Landay et al., 2019; McClean et al., 2018). This stream of research has furthermore illuminated motivational (Hu et al., 2019), behavioral (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015), and process-related (Gerpott et al., 2019; Lee & Farh, 2019; Kalish & Luria, 2016) contingencies to leadership emergence. As we can see from these more recent investigations, the literature on leadership emergence keeps attracting the interest of organizational researchers who explore the intricacies of this phenomenon to the present day.

I close my review of leadership emergence by describing two themes in the literature, namely the distinction between leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness as well as the specification of formal and informal leadership emergence. The first theme describes the literature's emphasis on distinguishing leadership emergence from leadership effectiveness (e.g., Lord et al., 1986; Judge et al., 2002). That is, the fact that an individual emerges to a leadership position does not necessarily imply that they are effective in that position. On the one hand, past work has found that individuals were more likely to emerge as leaders when they were more competent (e.g., Bunderson, 2003), thereby implying a positive relationship between leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness. This finding is in line with earlier meta-analyses that did not find differential effects of personality and intelligence on leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness—even though their authors emphasized the

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distinction between the two constructs (e.g., Judge et al., 2002, 2004). On the other hand, research has suggested that some traits facilitating leadership emergence may not similarly predict leadership effectiveness (e.g., antagonism, dominance, narcissism, Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Ensari et al., 2011; Grijalva et al., 2015). More recent meta-analyses provide support for the distinction between leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness (e.g., Grijalva et al., 2015; Landay et al., 2019). Also of note, researchers have started to combine leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness into their theorizing. For example, Lanaj and Hollenbeck (2015) investigated the construct of overemergence—defined as the situation "when an individual's leadership emergence … is actually higher than [their] leadership effectiveness" (1476)—finding that men were more likely to emerge beyond their effectiveness as leaders.

The second theme is the inconsistent use of the label *leadership emergence* to reflect how individuals attain a formal or informal leadership position—or a combination of both. To elaborate, some studies emphasize formal leadership emergence by describing the process of how individuals come to occupy a formally recognized leadership role (e.g., Barling & Weatherhead, 2016; Gündemir et al., 2019). Other studies examine individuals' attainment of informal influence and thus informal leadership emergence (Gerpott et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2019; Kalish & Luria, 2016; Lee & Farh, 2019; Taggar et al., 1999). Yet, a third group of studies combines considerations of formal and informal leadership emergence (e.g., Marinova et al., 2013; McClean et al., 2018)—an approach that is mirrored by meta-analyses in the literature that aggregate indicators of formal and informal leadership emergence (Badura et al., 2018; Ensari et al.,

2011; Grijalva et al., 2015; Judge et al., 2002, 2004; Judge & Cable, 2004; Landay et al., 2019). I suggest that because formal leadership emergence requires the formal appointment to a leadership position, the underlying decision-making process may emphasize task-related criteria such as indicators of past performance or tenure. Conversely, informal leadership emergence does not assume a formalized process. Because this construct is a result of the interactions within a team, informal leadership emergence may highlight social criteria such as personality. Similarly, formal and informal leadership emergence may result in different consequences as (in)formal leaders may feel the need to justify their emergence by emphasizing task over social-related outcomes (or vice versa). In sum, I suggest that the underlying processes and outcomes of formal and informal leadership emergence may differ. Therefore, the present work highlights its focus on the study of informal leadership emergence and its consequences.

Leadership Identity Claiming and Granting Framework

In this next section, I provide an overview of the leadership identity claiming and granting framework which informs the conceptualization of informal leadership emergence in the present work. The leadership identity claiming and granting framework by DeRue and colleagues (DeRue et al., 2009; DeRue & Ashford, 2010) suggests that individuals construct leadership identities in a reciprocal process by engaging in identity claiming and granting. More precisely, this framework suggests that individuals claim or grant leadership identities as they seek to behave in accordance with their self-view as either a leader or a follower but may also explore and experiment in their interactions with other people (DeRue et al., 2010). In their initial conceptualization, DeRue and

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colleagues (2009) proposed that an individual engages in verbal or non-verbal behaviors that seek to assert that they are a leader, e.g., by referring to oneself as a leader or dressing leaderlike. The authors described this process as *leader identity claiming*. Alternatively, an individual may engage in verbal or non-verbal behaviors to assert that someone else is a leader, e.g., by verbally expressing that they consider their counterpart to be their leader or assigning them a prominent position at the meeting table (DeRue et al., 2009). DeRue and colleagues (2009) referred to this process as *leader identity granting*. Although they conceptualized that individuals can proactively engage in claiming and granting, they further proposed that claiming (or granting) may occur in response to another individual's granting (or claiming; DeRue et al., 2009; see also Carnabuci, Emery, & Brinberg, 2018).

In subsequent work, DeRue and Ashford (2010) further extended their theorizing to include actions pertaining to requesting to be a follower of others (i.e., *follower identity claiming*) and requesting others to be followers of oneself (i.e., *follower identity granting*). Said differently, an individual may claim the identity of being the follower of another individual by engaging in follower-like actions or reserve themself the right to be a leader by requesting follower-specific actions of others. Even though DeRue and Ashford (2010) distinguished between leader identity claiming on the one hand and follower identity granting on the other hand, they suggested that "a claim of a leader identity is likely to be accompanied by a reciprocal grant of a *follower* identity" (633, emphasis added). In doing so, the authors illustrate the conceptual overlap between leader identity claiming and follower identity granting. Because the present work focuses on

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leadership emergence—and in line with the initial theorizing by DeRue and colleagues (2009)—my theorizing emphasizes claiming and granting of leadership and does not make distinct predictions about claiming and granting of followership. Also of note, this dissertation combines aspects of the leadership identity claiming and granting framework with predictions of role theory. As a consequence of that, I examine the actual behaviors of team members and thereby refer to leadership claiming and granting as opposed to leadership *identity* claiming and granting. I elaborate on this feature of my theorizing in my review of role theory.

Despite its influence in the literature, the leadership identity claiming and granting framework has rarely been empirically tested. Even though past work has extensively drawn from this framework (e.g., Gerpott et al., 2018; Lee & Farh, 2019; McClean et al., 2018; Stewart, Astrove, Reeves, Crawford, & Solimeo, 2017; Zhang et al., 2012), such work has focused on behaviors that could be classified as either leadership claiming (e.g., helping, Marinova et al., 2013; voice, McClean et al., 2018; participation, Badura et al., 2018) or leadership granting (e.g., assigning informal influence, Gerpott et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2019; Lee & Farh, 2019). The only empirical investigation of the leadership identity claiming and granting framework is the study by Marchiondo, Myers, and Kopelman (2015). Their experimental results support the predictions of the framework finding that individuals are perceived as more leaderlike when their leadership claiming were reciprocated by their partner's leadership granting. Similarly and again in line with the framework, an individual appeared as more leaderlike when they rejected another person's leadership claims. Further extending the theorizing by DeRue and colleagues

(2009), Marchiondo and colleagues (2015) suggested perceived competence as a mediator between claiming/granting and leadership emergence. Yet, their work does not distinguish between different scenarios of aligned/misaligned leadership claiming and granting and instead examines how reciprocating or rejecting an individual's leadership claims influences outcomes.

Role Theory

Having reviewed prior work on leadership emergence and the leadership identity claiming and granting framework, I now provide an overview of role theory. In the following sections, I describe the role sending and role receiving process, define role conflict and role consensus, and conclude by discussing how I integrate role theory with the leadership identity claiming and granting framework. Role theory describes human interactions bringing in considerations from sociology, anthropology, and social psychology (Kahn et al., 1964; Goffman, 1961; Linton, 1936). According to role theory, individuals rely on expectations that have been established by culture and shaped through their surrounding for interactions with others (Heiss, 1992; Stryker & Statham, 1985). These expectations inform individuals regarding the activities that they and others may engage in and the characteristics that an individual may possess (Kahn et al., 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978). A cohesive set of such expectations constitutes a *role*—defined as the "summation of the requirements with which [others] confront[] the individual member" (Katz & Kahn, 1978: 186).

Role theorists frequently invoke theatrical imagery to describe how roles influence interactions. More specifically, in social situations, individuals assign roles to

themselves and their counterparts to order their behavior as well as clarify their relationships with other individuals (Stryker & Statham, 1985). When an individual slips into a role, they gain access to expected behaviors and characteristics of their role as well as of the roles of their counterparts. Similar to theater rehearsals, these expectations have been internalized through repeated prior interactions (Heiss, 1992; Stryker & Statham, 1985). At the same time, however, roles may not provide all necessary details on how to interact with others and thus require adjustment—or improvisation (Heiss, 1992). Furthermore, individuals switch between roles, just like an actor who plays different characters in a play (Heiss, 1992; Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Role theory proposes a role sending process that allows individuals to communicate with each other. To convey their understanding of a situation, an actor—i.e., the *role sender*—engages in activities that are representative of their role (Kahn et al. 1964; Stryker & Statham, 1985). By behaving according to their role expectations, the role sender transfers their understanding of the situation to other individuals and claims a role for themselves while assigning a—potentially complementary—role to other individuals (Stryker & Statham, 1985). The process of sending a role is also termed *role enactment*. An individual on the receiving end—i.e., the *role receiver*—may reciprocate the expectations of the role sender and engage in activities that are congruent with the assigned role. Role theorists have suggested that this process may be influenced by characteristics of both the role sender and the role receiver as individuals may perceive situations differently (e.g., Katz & Kahn, 1978). Therefore, both individuals may need to debate over their conception of the situation and how roles should be distributed. This

process can occur through activities or symbolic gestures (Stryker & Statham, 1985). It may result in role consensus in which both individuals can settle on a joint interpretation of the situation (Latack, 1981). Alternatively, when role sender and role receiver disagree in their role enactment, role theorists suggest that their interaction may result in role dissensus (Heiss, 1992) or (interpersonal) role conflict (Biddle, 1986; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Stryker & Statham, 1985).[3]

Role consensus and role conflict have substantial implications in terms of emotions, cognitions, and behaviors of the actors involved (Katz & Kahn, 1978). When individuals agree in their role enactment with each other (i.e., there is role consensus), they will experience satisfaction (Gross et al., 1958; Kahn et al., 1964). In turn, disagreement in their role enactment (i.e., role conflict) can trigger strain and hostility (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Furthermore, role theory suggests that actors' commitment to their role and each other depends on their appraisal of the role sending and receiving process. When they experience role consensus, individuals are more engaged (Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015). Conversely, individuals are more likely to refrain from future interactions when they experience role conflict (Stryker & Statham, 1985).

The present dissertation connects role theory with the leadership identity claiming and granting framework. Even though DeRue and colleagues (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009) grounded their framework in theory on the construction of leader

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[3] In their seminal conceptualization of role conflict, Kahn and colleagues (1964) suggested three types of role conflict, namely (1) inter-sender role conflict, (2) intra-sender conflict, and (3) inter-role conflict. Besides inter-sender role conflict that describes the case when two individuals disagree in their enactment of roles, intra-sender conflict describes contradictory pressures stemming from the same role whereas inter-role conflict describes an individual's engagement in multiple yet contradictory roles.

identities, I adopt role theory as my overarching framework for two reasons. First, role theory makes specific predictions about the consequences of various forms of informal leadership (non)emergence, as opposed to making predictions solely about whether an individual emerges or does not emerge as a leader. Said differently, role theory allows for contrasting different forms of informal leadership (non)emergence (e.g., overclaiming, underclaiming) and suggests affective, cognitive, and behavioral consequences. Conversely, leadership identity construction theory distinguishes between the successful or failed construction of a leadership identity but remains silent about cases characterized by misaligned leadership claiming and granting as well their consequences (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; see also Day & Harrison, 2007). Second, role theory highlights (observable) behaviors of individuals as the foundation for describing social interactions. Therefore, relying on role theory allows me to directly measure and analyze the behavioral role enactment of individuals. In contrast, identities are less tangible and thus more difficult to observe and examine (Day & Harrison, 2007; Hall, 2004).

Dyadic Conceptualizations in Organizational Behavior

I now turn towards the last section of the literature review in which I discuss the use of dyadic conceptualizations to understand organizational phenomena and point out how dyadic conceptualizations fit into my theorizing. Previous work has emphasized the importance of dyadic interactions as foundational to a range of constructs and made calls for theoretical and empirical work to examine dyadic relationships as opposed to conceptualizing organizational phenomena at the individual or team level. For example, Ferris, Liden, Munyon, Summers, Basik, and Buckley (2009) argued that individuals'

dyadic relationships are the basis for concepts such as leader-member exchange, mentoring, and interpersonal support. Similarly, Kozlowski, Gully, Nason, and Smith (1999) emphasized the formation of dyadic linkages as the first step in the team development process, highlighting how dyadic interactions can foster subsequent outcomes on higher levels. Along those lines, researchers have made numerous calls for more in-depth investigations of dyadic relationships (e.g., Grijalva et al., 2015, Humphrey & Aime, 2014; Hoption, Christie, & Barling, 2008). Seeking to answer these calls, recent empirical work has started to examine organizational concepts using methods that emphasize the dyadic level of analysis (Kenny, Kashy & Cook, 2006; Kenny, Mohr, & Levesque, 2001; Knight & Humphrey, 2019; Snijders & Kenny, 2001). For example, workplace aggression scholars argue that harming behavior may not just be a function of the perpetrator or the victim but also their relationship (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004). In fact, Lam, van der Vegt, Walter, and Huang (2011) found that the relationship between perpetrator and victim explained more variance than characteristics of the perpetrator, the victim, or the group. Similarly, the relationships between individuals may explain meaningful variance in trust and helping that is not captured at the individual or team level of analysis (e.g., Jones & Shah, 2016; Venkataramani & Dalal, 2007).

Dyadic considerations may be especially important when investigating team dynamics that give rise to informal leadership emergence. In their review of organizing processes in teams, Humphrey and Aime (2014) highlighted dyadic conceptualizations to account for the inner workings of teams. The authors lamented the dearth of such work due to theoretical and methodological issues such as requiring theory to span multiple

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levels as well as complicated data collection and analysis (Humphrey & Aime, 2014). Similarly, Grijalva and colleagues (2015) argued that a person's informal leadership emergence may depend on the responses of other team members to the traits of that person. These authors suggested a more in-depth consideration of how actors emerge thereby extending previous work that exclusively featured the characteristics of the emerging person (e.g., Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Ensari et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004). In fact, more recent work has started to investigate how dyadic relationships give rise to leadership processes in teams. For example, Kalish and Luria (2016) considered how the interplay of two individuals' characteristics influenced subsequent perceptions of leadership, whereas Joshi and Knight (2015) suggested that the demographical similarity of two team members may explain the extent to which they organize dyadic deference.

I suggest that dyadic conceptualizations are an inherent feature of role theory. Role theorists going back to Linton (1936), Merton (1949), and Goffman (1961) have emphasized the complementary nature of roles. Said differently, the roles of "parent" and "supervisor" are defined via the existence of roles such as "child" and "subordinate" (see also Heiss, 1992; Stryker & Statham, 1985). Goffman (1961) pointedly stated that the unit of analysis from a role theory point of view should therefore "not [be] the individual but the individual enacting [their] bundle of obligatory activity" in reference to another individual (86). Similarly, Kahn and colleagues (1964) emphasized the relationship between an actor and the unique expectations of their interaction partners stressing that to understand the role sending and receiving process, one "must consider … the unique relation of each [interaction partner] to the focal person" (166). When considering the

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behavior of individuals in groups, Kahn and colleagues (1964) encouraged that research abandon the use of *chorus* conceptualizations (i.e., assuming crowds of homogeneous, interchangeable individuals) and instead treating groups as *ensembles* of unique characters that have distinct relationships with each other. The authors suggested that even though it may be more convenient to assume homogeneity among actors, the responses to role conflict are primarily an outcome of violated role expectations in dyadic relationships.

CHAPTER 3:

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

I structure this chapter in the following way. First, I draw on the leadership identity claiming and granting framework (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009) and role theory (Gross et al., 1958; Kahn et al., 1964; see also Biddle, 1986; Stryker & Statham, 1985) to describe four forms of informal leadership (non)emergence, namely (1) dyadic emergent leadership, (2) dyadic leadership absence, (3) overclaiming, and (4) underclaiming. Second, I develop a theoretical model describing the effects of these four forms of leadership (non)emergence on subsequent outcomes. Following role theory, my theorizing explains how the extent to which a peer experiences role consensus or role conflict in their dyadic interactions with a focal person influences the peer's affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses towards the focal person. Third, I develop testable hypotheses based on my theoretical model.

Conceptualizing Informal Leadership (Non)Emergence through Leadership Claiming and Granting

I conceptualize four different forms of informal leadership (non)emergence by integrating the leadership identity claiming and granting framework (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009) and role theory (Gross et al., 1958; Kahn et al., 1964; see also Biddle, 1986; Stryker & Statham, 1985). In doing so, I focus on the dyadic interactions between individuals and how their enactment of leader and follower roles influences subsequent emotions, cognitions, and behaviors. I suggest that when an individual solves task-related problems, provides consideration to others, or challenges the status quo, they

enact the role of a leader and engage in leadership claiming. I define leadership claiming as the actions of an individual to assert leadership influence over others. In turn, when an individual requests the structuring of their work, accepts social support, or inquires about new ways to do their job from another individual, they enact the role of a follower. More precisely, the individual positions themself as a follower and their interaction partner as a leader, thereby engaging in leadership granting. I define leadership granting as the actions of an individual to acknowledge or encourage leadership influence from others.

I distinguish between four forms of informal leadership (non)emergence by considering the alignment/misalignment of a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting at high and low levels, namely (1) dyadic emergent leadership (high claiming/high granting), (2) dyadic leadership absence (low claiming/low granting), (3) overclaiming (high claiming/low granting), and (4) underclaiming (low claiming/high granting). I suggest that whereas dyadic emergent leadership represents informal leadership emergence, the other three forms (i.e., dyadic leadership absence, overclaiming, and underclaiming) describe informal leadership nonemergence. Said differently, dyadic emergent leadership describes the case when a focal person comes to exert informal leadership influence. In contrast, the other forms entail instances in which a focal person does not come to exert informal leadership influence because they do not claim leadership (in the case of underclaiming), the peer does not grant leadership (in the case of overclaiming), or neither (in the case of dyadic leadership absence).

These four forms of informal leadership (non)emergence are informed by DeRue and Ashford's (2010: 634) 2 × 2 matrix that describes *successful construction*,

unreinforced claim, and *unreinforced grant*. However, my conceptualization uses different labels for various reasons. First, I seek to emphasize the theoretical foundation of role theory as opposed to leader identity construction theory. Second, this conceptualization allows a differentiation within DeRue and Ashford's (2010) cell of *successful construction* by distinguishing between aligned leadership claiming and granting at high versus low levels (i.e., dyadic emergent leadership and dyadic leadership absence). Third, the terms *unreinforced claim* and *unreinforced grant* by DeRue and Ashford (2010) suggest a complete lack of reciprocation—an assumption that may not be warranted in dyadic interactions. Instead, I propose the terms overclaiming and underclaiming, which take into account the relative standing between a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting and thus provide a more nuanced consideration. Figure 1 provides an overview of the respective 2×2 matrix displaying the four forms of informal leadership (non)emergence. In the following, I define each cell and describe the different configurations of a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting.

   Dyadic emergent leadership. *Dyadic emergent leadership* describes the case when a focal person claims leadership from a peer and the peer grants leadership to the focal person. Said differently, leadership claiming and granting are aligned because high leadership claiming is met by high leadership granting. Informal leadership emergence unfolds in this form because a focal person may realize that a peer is struggling in their work due to a lack of a proper work structure or interpersonal problems. The focal person may thus engage in behaviors aimed at helping the peer to address these issues such as

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solving problems or initiating change (Morgeson et al., 2010). By fulfilling these

important leadership functions, the focal person enacts a leader role and claims leadership

(DeRue et al., 2009). Similarly, a peer may approach a focal person asking them for their

help in dealing with these issues. In doing so, the peer enacts a follower role and grants

leadership to the focal person. In sum, when a focal person claims leadership and a peer

grants leadership, the two actors agree that the focal person should exert influence over

the peer resulting in dyadic emergent leadership of the focal person.

   Dyadic leadership absence. *Dyadic leadership absence*[4] describes the case when

a focal person does not claim leadership from a peer and the peer does not grant

leadership to the focal person. Said differently, leadership claiming and granting are

aligned because low leadership claiming is met by low leadership granting. Similar to

high levels of claiming and high levels of granting, a focal person and a peer may decide

not to claim or grant leadership. Dyadic leadership absence may occur for different

reasons. For example, a focal person and a peer may both perceive that there is no need

for informal leadership in their dyadic interaction, e.g., because the peer does not need

additional structuring of their work or does not experience personal problems.

Alternatively, both individuals may realize that the focal person would not be a good fit

as an informal leader. As a consequence, the focal person does not engage in behaviors to

exert informal influence over the peer and chooses not to fulfill leadership functions

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[4] I note that dyadic leadership absence is a special case of DeRue (2011)'s concept of *leadership void*.
More precisely, DeRue (2011) describes leadership void as the lack of "reciprocal acts of leading and
following" (136). Leadership void therefore encompasses any form of informal leadership nonemergence
because it also entails the forms of overclaiming ("when [a focal person] attempt[s] to lead but those acts of
leadership are not reciprocated," DeRue, 2011: 136) and underclaiming ("when [a peer] attempt[s] to
follow but no one is attempting to lead," DeRue, 2011: 136).

thereby not enacting a leader role. Similarly, a peer may not turn towards a focal person for their leadership influence and thus does not enact a follower role. Thus, when neither the focal person claims nor the peer grants leadership, the two individuals agree with each other that the focal person should not emerge as an informal leader, resulting in dyadic leadership absence which constitutes a manifestation of informal leadership nonemergence.

Overclaiming. Turning towards scenarios of incongruence, *overclaiming* occurs when a focal person claims leadership from a peer but the peer does not grant leadership to the focal person. Said differently, leadership claiming and granting are not aligned because high leadership claiming is met by low leadership granting. In that case, the focal person may seek to exert influence over the peer even though the peer does not approve or request their leadership influence. For example, a focal person may assume that they are capable of providing resources to a peer whereas the peer may not want these resources. Similarly, a focal person may feel compelled to help a peer solve interpersonal problems but the peer does not want their intervention. As a consequence, there is disagreement on whether or not the focal person should exert informal leadership. More precisely, a focal person may enact a leader role and claim leadership. In contrast, a peer may not grant leadership. Thus, the focal person is overclaiming as their leadership claiming exceeds the level of the peer's leadership granting. Overclaiming constitutes a form of informal leadership nonemergence because even though a focal person is willing to be an informal leader, a peer is unwilling to be an informal follower. Therefore, the

focal person does not come to exert informal influence over the peer.[5]

Underclaiming. *Underclaiming* occurs when a focal person does not claim

leadership from a peer even though the peer grants leadership to the focal person. Said

differently, leadership claiming and granting are not aligned because low leadership

claiming is met by high leadership granting. In that case, a focal person does not engage

in behaviors to assert their influence over a peer even though the peer may request their

informal influence and would want the focal person to be an informal leader. For

example, a peer may ask a focal person for feedback on their performance, but the focal

person is too busy to assist the peer. Alternatively, a focal person may not notice a peer's

leadership granting and thus does not claim leadership. Therefore, there is disagreement

on whether or not a focal person should enact the role of an informal leader. Whereas the

peer may believe that the focal person should engage in informal leadership (and

therefore grants leadership), the focal person does not claim leadership. A focal person is

underclaiming because their leadership claiming falls behind a peer's leadership granting.

Underclaiming represents a form of informal leadership nonemergence because even

though a peer is willing to be an informal follower, a focal person is unwilling to be an

informal leader. Thus, the focal person does not emerge as an informal leader.

A Role Theory Perspective on Informal Leadership Emergence and Its Outcomes

In the following, I draw from role theory (Gross et al., 1958; Kahn et al., 1964;

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[5] This conceptualization differs from Lanaj and Hollenbeck's (2015) concept of *overemergence*. Whereas overclaiming describes a situation in which a focal person claims more leadership than a peer grants to them, overemergence as in Lanaj and Hollenbeck (2015) describes a situation in which an individual's leadership emergence exceeds their leadership effectiveness. Moreover, overclaiming describes a process (i.e., an individual unsuccessfully seeking to emerge as an informal leader), whereas overemergence describes a product (i.e., that an individual emerged despite their lack of effectiveness).

see also Biddle, 1986; Stryker & Statham, 1985) to propose how individuals react to the

role enactment of others. More specifically, I investigate how individuals react to

congruence in leadership claiming and granting (i.e., role consensus) and incongruence in

leadership claiming and granting (i.e., role conflict). Role theory argues that individuals'

reactions to the role enactment of others depend on whether they experience role

consensus or role conflict. Role consensus is defined as the "degree to which [an

individual's] expectations or perceptions … match the expectations of [their interaction

partner]" (Latack, 1981: 91). Therefore, when a focal person's leadership claiming is

aligned with a peer's leadership granting at either high or low levels (i.e., dyadic

emergent leadership and dyadic leadership absence), both the focal person and the peer

will experience role consensus. In turn, role conflict describes the case in which an

individual "hold[s] quite different role expectations" than their interaction partner (Kahn

et al., 1964: 18–19). Thus, when a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's

leadership granting are not aligned (i.e., overclaiming and underclaiming), both

individuals will experience role conflict. Investigating the outcomes of role consensus

and role conflict, my theorizing highlights the peer's affective, cognitive, and behavioral

responses that are targeted at the focal person.[6] I emphasize a peer's responses to a focal

person (as opposed to a focal person's responses to a peer) because I seek to illuminate

the interpersonal consequences of different forms of informal leadership

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[6] This conceptualization suggests two directed dyads for every pair of actors such that both individuals (i.e., Individual A and Individual B) serve as focal person and peer, respectively. To elaborate, the first directed dyad captures the extent to which A claims leadership and B grants leadership (i.e., A is the focal person, B is the peer) whereas the second directed dyad captures the extent to which B claims leadership and A grants a leadership (i.e., B is the focal person, A is the peer).

(non)emergence—and not the outcomes of informal deference (Joshi & Knight, 2015).

Said differently, examining the affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses of the focal

person towards the peer—in response to a *focal person's* experience of role consensus or

role conflict *with a peer*—would emphasize the consequences of (non)deference of a peer

as opposed to the consequences of (non)emergence of a focal person.

Role theory suggests that role consensus elicits constructive activity of interaction

partners towards each other, whereas role conflict hinders constructive activity. When

experiencing role consensus, role theory suggests that individuals are more likely to

engage in cooperative behaviors towards their interaction partner because they seek to

support their role enactment (Mead, 1934). In turn, when individuals experience role

conflict, they do not view the relationship with their interaction partner as beneficial and

thus may engage in less cooperative behavior (Kahn et al., 1964). In line with this

proposition, I argue that role consensus may facilitate backing-up behavior whereas role

conflict may hinder backing-up behavior. Backing-up behavior is defined as the "extent

to which team members help each other perform their roles" (Porter et al., 2003: 396; see

also Barnes, Hollenbeck, Wagner, DeRue, Nahrgang, & Schwind, 2008). I focus on

backing-up behavior as an outcome to role consensus and role conflict instead of more

broad positive behaviors (such as organizational citizenship behavior) because backing-

up behavior highlights the support of an individual towards the role enactment of their

interaction partner. I thus argue that when a peer experiences role consensus, they seek to

support the focal person *in their role enactment* of an informal leader (in the case of

dyadic emergent leadership) or an equal team member (in the case of dyadic leadership

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absence). In turn, when a peer experiences role conflict, they do not seek to support the focal person *in their role enactment* of an informal leader (in the case of overclaiming) or an equal team member (in the case of underclaiming).

Furthermore, role theory proposes that when experiencing role conflict, individuals are more likely to engage in retaliatory behavior because they seek to punish their interaction partner and prevent future conflicting role enactment (Katz & Kahn, 1978). In turn, when experiencing role consensus, individuals may not want to endanger their cooperative relationship with their interaction partner, thereby refraining from any destructive behaviors. I therefore suggest that role conflict facilitates social undermining whereas role consensus hinders social undermining. Social undermining refers to "behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation" (Duffy et al., 2002: 332). I suggest that individuals engage in social undermining as a consequence of role conflict because they seek to engage in targeted efforts to deter the (future) role enactment of their interaction partner. My theorizing therefore emphasizes social undermining instead of more general destructive behaviors (such as ostracism, deviance). I argue that when a peer experiences role conflict, they seek to punish the focal person in their role enactment. To do so, the peer may engage in undermining behaviors to retaliate against the focal person as well as prevent them from enacting a similar role in the future (Kahn et al., 1964). As a consequence, in the case of overclaiming, a peer may seek to obstruct the focal person's work, thereby hindering the focal person from engaging in informal leadership. In the case of underclaiming, a peer may ignore the focal person or

talk negatively behind their back to punish them for not enacting a leader role. In turn, for cases of role consensus, I argue that a peer may not engage in social undermining as they do not seek to jeopardize their (cooperative) relationship with the focal person (Mead, 1934; Stryker & Statham, 1985).

Contrasting the effects of overclaiming and underclaiming on subsequent behaviors, I suggest that the negative effects on backing-up behavior and the positive effects on social undermining may be stronger for overclaiming than underclaiming. To elaborate, role theory suggests that individuals seek to cope with role conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). If coping is possible, the individual experiences less role conflict whereas they experience more role conflict if coping is impossible. In case a focal person engages in overclaiming, they assume a position of power over a peer which can reduce the peer's ability to cope (Heiss, 1992). Thus, the peer may in turn experience more role conflict. Conversely, when a focal person is underclaiming, they do not seek to control a peer's behavior and instead demonstrate that they consider the peer as an equal (Brown & Robinson, 2011). In that case, the peer may consider the conflicting role enactment of the focal person as less threatening and hence experience less role conflict. In sum, drawing on the notion that individuals seek to cope with role conflict, I suggest that the peer may experience more role conflict for overclaiming and less role conflict for underclaiming. As a consequence, my theorizing argues that the effects of role conflict on backing-up behavior and social undermining are more pronounced for overclaiming than for underclaiming.

Further investigating how leadership claiming and granting results in backing-up

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behavior and social undermining, I argue that emotions and cognitions serve as two parallel pathways. In doing so, I follow role theory's proposition that affective and cognitive responses to role consensus and role conflict occur simultaneously (Kahn et al., 1964; see also Douglas, Kiewitz, Martinko, Harvey, Kim, & Chun, 2008). In the following, I elaborate on these mediational mechanisms. I describe two emotions that make up the affective pathway between role consensus and role conflict followed by two cognitions that represent the cognitive pathway.

First, I argue that individuals respond to role consensus and role conflict by experiencing differential levels of positive and negative emotions (Kahn et al., 1964; Mead, 1934). More precisely, I suggest that role consensus, as compared with role conflict, will elicit the feeling of enthusiasm and reduce anger. Enthusiasm has been described as a "pleasant affective state that is characterized by excitement" (Welsh et al., 2020: 170; see also Lazarus, 1991). Enthusiasm represents a positive and activating emotion and therefore is in line with role theory's suggestion that role consensus triggers a positive and approach-oriented state of mind (Gross et al., 1958: 212–216; Kahn et al., 1964: 67). Further, I suggest role conflict (as compared with role consensus) may foster the experience of anger and reduce feelings of enthusiasm. Anger is defined as the "feeling of annoyance or displeasure generally stemming from a demeaning offense" (Baer et al., 2018: 1768). Role theorists have repeatedly suggested anger as a negative and activating emotion following role conflict (e.g., Kahn et al., 1964: 236; also referred to as "hostility," Katz & Kahn, 1978: 204). I conceptualize enthusiasm and anger as two independent emotional responses to role consensus and role conflict that are targeted at

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their origin (Feldman Barrett & Russell, 1998; Lazarus, 1991; Russell, 1980; Russell & Feldman Barrett, 1999; Scott, Awasty, Johnson, Matta, & Hollenbeck, 2020; Warr, 1990). Thus, I suggest that whereas enthusiasm increases a peer's engagement in backing-up behavior, anger increases social undermining (Kahn et al., 1964; Spector & Fox, 2002). Enthusiasm and anger further differ from emotions activating more diffuse (e.g., anxiety, pride; Gross et al., 1958: 277; Lazarus, 1991) or no targeted responses at all (e.g., hope, guilt; Lazarus, 1991). I also do not consider envy because this emotion would imply social comparison processes between the focal person and the peer to occur (Bamberger & Belogolovsky, 2017; Sun, Li, Li, Liden, Li, & Zhang, 2020).

Second, I argue that the effects of role consensus and role conflict on backing-up behavior and social undermining are mediated by respect and revenge cognitions. More precisely, I suggest that role consensus, as compared with role conflict, will elicit the experience of respect and reduce revenge cognitions. Respect is the "[perceived] worth accorded to one person by … [another person]" (Spears et al., 2006: 179, see also Rogers & Ashforth, 2017).[7] Past work on role theory has emphasized the importance of respect as a cognitive link between role consensus and cooperative behavior (e.g., Kahn et al., 1964). In turn, when a peer experiences role conflict, as opposed to role consensus, I suggest that they will respond with revenge cognitions and experience less respect. Revenge cognitions are thoughts about "inflict[ing] damage, injury, discomfort, or punishment on [a person]" in response to perceived harm or wrongdoing by that person

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[7] The present definition of respect excludes considerations about status and therefore does not invoke a hierarchical differentiation (Rogers & Ashforth, 2017). Furthermore, this definition emphasizes that respect and *dis*respect, i.e., the "denial of perceived worth [to a person]" (Rogers & Ashforth, 2017: 1600) do not represent two ends of the same continuum, but instead describe separate—yet related—constructs.

(Aquino et al., 2006: 654, see also Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Bradfield & Aquino, 1998). I suggest that revenge cognitions mirror role theory's suggestion that role conflict increases an individual's accessibility of thoughts about the punishment of their interaction partner (Heiss, 1992; Stryker & Statham, 1985). I focus on respect and revenge cognitions as two targeted and approach-oriented cognitions. Thus, I suggest that whereas respect facilitates backing-up behavior, social undermining facilitates social undermining (Heiss, 1992; Stryker & Statham, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964). Respect and revenge cognitions differ from constructs that are either not targeted (e.g., perceived competence; Sonnentag & Grant, 2012; Ouyang, Xu, Huang, Liu, & Tang, 2018; self-efficacy, Bandura, 1977) or not approach-oriented (e.g., cognitive depletion, Koopman, Rosen, Gabriel, Puranik, Johnson, & Ferris, 2020; Lanaj, Johnson, & Wang, 2016; cognitive withdrawal, Shani & Westphal, 2016; Maner, Nathan, Baumeister, & Schaller, 2007).[8] Also of note, I suggest that respect represents a more suitable mechanism than constructs describing social exchange such as trust, justice, or commitment because respect represents a foundation to social exchange (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Colquitt, 2001; McAllister, 1995; Rogers & Ashforth, 2017).[9]

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[8] Even though role theorists emphasize *cognitive withdrawal*—i.e., the reduced willingness of an actor to interact with a conflicting interaction partner (Kahn et al., 1964; see also Shani & Westphal, 2016: 303, Mitchell, Vogel, & Folger, 2015)—as a common reaction to role conflict, my theorizing does not include this mediating mechanism for two reasons. First, individuals in teams work interdependently with each other and therefore may not easily withdraw from future interactions. Along those lines, Kahn and colleagues (1964) suggested that withdrawal may fail as a coping mechanism to role conflict because the interaction partner may double down on their role enactment. Second, withdrawal reflects an avoidance-oriented cognition and is therefore in contrast to the approach-oriented emotion of *anger* specified by role theory. Recent work has emphasized the importance of distinguishing between approach-oriented and avoidance-oriented cognitions when predicting workplace aggression phenomena such as social undermining (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, & Fatimah, 2016, see also Elliot & Thrash, 2002).

[9] In fact, Kahn and colleagues (1964) compared how role consensus versus role conflict influenced peers' trust, liking, and respect of a focal person finding that effects were most pronounced for respect (Kahn et al., 1964: 68).

Last, my theorizing proposes that a focal person's prosocial motivation serves as a boundary condition shaping a peer's perception of role conflict, thereby influencing the effects of incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on affective and cognitive responses. Prosocial motivation is the "desire to expend effort to benefit other people" (Grant, 2008: 49). Role theory suggests that social norms influence role expectations (Katz & Kahn, 1978; see also Heiss, 1992). Therefore, when an individual is prosocially motivated, they may signal to others that they hold their conduct to a higher normative standard (Grant, 2008). As a consequence, others may view that individual's role enactment—even if in conflict with their own role enactment—as benefitting the collective good. I therefore suggest that a focal person's prosocial motivation may influence the extent to which the peer responds to role conflict (and their subsequent affective and cognitive responses). More precisely, I suggest that high levels of prosocial motivation may attenuate the effects of role conflict whereas low levels of prosocial motivation may strengthen the effects. I note that my theorizing emphasizes prosocial motivation as a characteristic of the focal person. Even though Kahn and colleagues (1964) discussed how the individual differences of both the focal person and the peer may influence the perception of role consensus and role conflict, Hollenbeck, LePine, and Ilgen (1996) concluded that role theory has been unable to "provide any systematic attempt to develop a content-oriented approach that specifies what specific traits are likely to affect which specific aspects of the [peer's] role-taking process" (307). I thus focus on the focal person's characteristics. In the following, I elaborate on my theorizing by developing study hypotheses.

Congruence Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-up Behavior

Based on my theorizing, I examine the degree to which congruence in dyadic leadership claiming and granting (i.e., dyadic emergent leadership and dyadic leadership absence) as opposed to incongruence (i.e., overclaiming and underclaiming), positively influences subsequent backing-up behavior. More specifically, I suggest that under conditions of congruence in leadership claiming and granting (i.e., a focal person claims and a peer grants leadership or a focal person does not claim and a peer does not grant leadership), the peer will seek to uphold the cooperative relationship with the focal person and engage in backing-up behavior. In contrast, when a focal person and a peer disagree in their leadership claiming and granting (i.e., the focal person claims but the peer does not grant leadership or when the focal person does not claim but the peer grants leadership), I argue that the peer will be less likely to engage in backing-up behavior.

Based on role theory, I suggest that individuals engage in behaviors that are in line with their judgment of social interactions (Kahn et al., 1964). Therefore, when a focal person and a peer agree in their leadership claiming and granting, they engage in behaviors that are in line with the role expectations of the other. Using the theatrical language of role theory, both the focal person and the peer share a mutual understanding and enact roles that are complementary to each other. Such role consensus enables the focal person and the peer to recognize themselves in their interaction partner. More precisely, Mead (1934) suggests that role consensus enables an actor to engage in role taking, or the "process of anticipating the responses of others with whom one is implicated in social interaction" (Stryker & Statham, 1985: 324). As a consequence,

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when a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting are aligned, both interaction partners can anticipate the other's response and engage in "co-operative activity" to reaffirm and reinforce their relationship (Mead, 1934: 254–255). Therefore, as the focal person and the peer agree on whether or not the focal person should emerge (i.e., dyadic emergent leadership or dyadic leadership absence), both individuals will be supportive of the other. In the case of dyadic emergent leadership, the peer may seek to support the focal person in their role as an informal leader for example by offering insights about the inner workings of the team which facilitates the focal person's informal leadership. In contrast, for dyadic leadership absence, the peer may seek to support the focal person in their role as an equal team member for example by helping them out if they fall behind their workload which facilitates the focal person's goal achievement.

Conversely, when a focal person and a peer differ in their leadership claiming and granting (i.e., overclaiming or underclaiming), the two actors will be less motivated to engage in cooperative behaviors towards each other. In these cases, the interactions between the two actors are characterized by role conflict. My theorizing suggests that the extent to which a focal person's claiming is unmet by a peer's granting (or vice versa) reduces their cooperation because role conflict negatively affects role-taking. More precisely, role theory suggests that when the role expectations of two actors do not match, the two individuals disagree in their assessment of their surrounding as well as the role scripts that they assign for themselves and their interaction partner. Therefore, when a focal person is overclaiming, they overestimate the peer's need for their leadership and may engage in informal leadership that is not sought after by the peer. In turn, when a

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focal person is underclaiming, they do not realize or fulfill the peer's request for their leadership. In that case, the peer may want the focal person to fill essential functions such as setting expectations or solving interpersonal conflicts. In contrast, a focal person may not believe that they should engage in these behaviors. In these two conditions of role conflict, the peer (and similarly the focal person) will be less able to take the role of their counterpart because their role expectations do not match with the role enactment of their interaction partner. As a consequence, they will be less likely to view their relationship as cooperative and therefore engage in less supportive behavior. As Kahn and colleagues (1964) state, when individuals experience role conflict, they will less likely "seek out the counsel and cooperation of [their interaction partner] in finding solutions … [and] volunteer [their] aid in working on … problems" (70). In the case of overclaiming, I argue that a peer may be less willing to support a focal person in their role as an informal leader whereas, for underclaiming, a peer may be less willing to support a focal person in their role as an equal team member.

I suggest that if a focal person and a peer agree with each other on whether or not the focal person should engage in leadership behavior, the peer is more motivated and willing to engage in backing-up behavior to support the focal person (Barnes et al., 2008; Porter et al., 2003). More precisely, their congruence in leadership claiming and granting will allow the peer to understand the role enactment of the focal person, that is, take their role (Mead, 1934). In doing so, the peer may realize the needs of the focal person and recognize how fulfilling these needs may help the focal person perform their role (Porter et al., 2003). To illustrate, if a focal person's leadership claiming is aligned with a peer's

leadership granting, the latter may support the focal person in their leadership activities and help clear out potential obstacles. Similarly, when a peer agrees with a focal person's non-claiming of leadership, the peer may feel connected to the focal person and reaffirm their relationship by supporting the focal person in their endeavors as an equal team member. Conversely, when a focal person and a peer disagree in their leadership claiming and granting, the peer may not take the role of the focal person. In that case, both actors differ in their assessment of the interaction and want to change the other's leadership claiming or granting. As a consequence, the peer will less likely support the focal person in their role enactment as an informal leader (when overclaiming) or equal team member (when underclaiming). Therefore, when leadership claiming and granting are aligned, a peer will engage in more backing-up behavior towards a focal person. Thus, I hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 1: The more congruent a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting, the higher the peer's backing-up behavior towards the focal person.*

Asymmetrical Incongruence Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-up Behavior

Having established that congruence in leadership claiming and granting increases a peer's backing-up behavior whereas incongruence reduces backing-up behavior, I now examine the effects of overclaiming and underclaiming. In doing so, I suggest an asymmetrical incongruence effect. To elaborate, I argue that a focal person's overclaiming (i.e., claiming leadership even though the peer is not granting leadership) is more strongly (and negatively) associated with backing-up behaviors than underclaiming (i.e., not claiming leadership even though the peer is granting leadership). In the

following, I argue that overclaiming—compared to underclaiming—exacerbates a peer's role conflict because the focal person assumes a dominant position over the peer (Heiss, 1992; Kahn et al., 1964; Stryker & Statham, 1985).

In line with role theory, I suggest that an individual's perceptions of role conflict—and therefore their response to role conflict—depend on whether or not they assume that they have power over their interaction partner (Heiss, 1992; Kahn et al., 1964). Therefore, the relative power between a focal person and a peer can influence the peer's experience of role conflict and thereby affect their likelihood to engage in backing-up behavior. To elaborate, I suggest that as a focal person claims leadership, they assume a position of power over a peer because they seek to control the behavior of the peer (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009). Conversely, when a focal person does not claim leadership, they suggest that they are equal to a peer and do not seek to exert influence over them. When leadership claiming and granting are misaligned, whether or not a focal person engages in dominant behaviors (such as seeking to exert influence) may therefore shape the extent to which a peer experiences role conflict. More precisely, when a focal person is overclaiming, their dominant behavior may reduce a peer's ability to cope, thereby exacerbating perceptions of role conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). Conversely, when underclaiming, a focal person may convey a non-dominant position towards a peer because the focal person does not seek to control the peer's behavior, thereby allowing the peer to cope more easily with the role conflict. Therefore, when a focal person is overclaiming, I argue that a peer experiences more role conflict than when a focal person is underclaiming. As a consequence, when a focal person is overclaiming, a peer engages

in less backing-up behavior targeted at the focal person as compared to underclaiming.

My theorizing aligns with the concept of reactance—defined as a motivational state directed towards the re-establishment of lost or threatened freedom (Brehm & Cole, 1966). More precisely, when a focal person is overclaiming, they are engaging in behaviors that reduce a peer's freedom or autonomy more strongly than when a focal person is underclaiming. As a consequence, the peer may be more motivated to reinstate their ability to engage in action and, in turn, reduce their cooperation with the focal person (Miron & Brehm, 2006). Conversely, when a focal person is underclaiming, they may signal that they do not seek to infringe upon a peer's autonomy. In that case, the peer may experience less need to engage in backing-up behavior. In sum, I expect an asymmetrical incongruence effect of leadership claiming and granting on a peer's backing-up behavior targeted at a focal person. Because overclaiming may result in stronger perceptions of role conflict, it may further reduce a peer's backing-up behavior. Conversely, underclaiming may result in weaker perceptions of role conflict, thereby resulting in more backing-up behavior. Thus, I hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 2: Backing-up behavior is lower when a focal person's leadership claiming is higher than a peer's leadership granting (i.e., overclaiming) as compared to when a peer's leadership granting is higher than a focal person's leadership claiming (i.e., underclaiming).*

Congruence Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Social Undermining

Besides engaging in backing-up behavior to uphold the cooperative relationship with a focal person, my theorizing suggests that a peer may engage in detrimental behaviors to express and confirm their relationship with a focal person. In the following, I elaborate on why I expect the congruence in leadership claiming and granting to decrease

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a peer's social undermining targeted at a focal person whereas incongruence will increase social undermining.

I argue that role consensus and the resulting shared understanding between a focal person and a peer will enable and motivate the peer to engage in fewer behaviors that may jeopardize their cooperative relationship (Stryker & Statham, 1985). Said differently, when a focal person and a peer agree in their role expectations, the peer will be equipped and motivated to support the focal person and therefore less likely to engage in destructive behaviors aimed at the focal person. To illustrate, when a focal person and a peer agree that the focal person should emerge as an informal leader, the peer may not have any reason to hinder the focal person in their role enactment as an informal leader and therefore not engage in social undermining.

Conversely, when a focal person and a peer do not agree in their leadership claiming and granting, the peer may be more motivated to engage in destructive behaviors targeted at the focal person. To deal with such role conflict, the peer may use different ways of coping. Kahn and colleagues (1964) suggested that individuals may cope by engaging in aggressive actions or communication, especially when removal from the relationship may prove unsuccessful. Therefore, a peer may seek to retaliate against a focal person explicitly or implicitly (Kahn et al., 1964) by engaging in gossiping, intentionally delaying their work, or ignoring the focal person. These behaviors that constitute social undermining may go unnoticed yet damage the focal person and their role enactment (Lee, Kim, Bhave, & Duffy, 2016). In a similar vein, an individual experiencing role conflict may seek to engage in behaviors aimed at rectifying the

circumstances by changing the role expectations of their counterpart. Role theory

suggests that individuals seek to change the assessment of actors that do not agree with

them to prevent future role conflicts (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Therefore, as a focal person

may not enact the role expectations of a peer, the latter may engage in social undermining

to convey their role expectations onto the focal person. Because their relationship is

characterized by low cooperativeness (a consequence of their role conflict), the peer may

choose to engage in destructive behaviors such as delaying the work of the focal person

or ignoring their input.

In summary, I suggest that under conditions of role consensus, a peer may seek to

reinforce behaviors of a focal person by refraining from engaging in social undermining.

Conversely, under conditions of role conflict, a peer may seek to actively punish their

counterpart through retaliation by socially undermining a focal person. Thus, I

hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 3: The more congruent a focal person's leadership claiming and a
> peer's leadership granting, the lower the peer's social undermining towards the
> focal person.*

**Asymmetrical Incongruence Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Social
Undermining**

Further integrating my theorizing about a peer's responses to asymmetrical

incongruence in leadership claiming and granting, I suggest that the effect of

overclaiming on social undermining is more pronounced than the effect of underclaiming.

When a focal person is overclaiming, a peer may perceive them as more threatening

because the focal person seeks to exert unwanted influence over the peer. As a

consequence, the peer may respond more strongly to the focal person's overclaiming.

Conversely, when a focal person is underclaiming, a peer may view the focal person's behavior as a nuisance but not as a threat because the focal person does not infringe upon their autonomy. Therefore, I argue that the incongruence effect of leadership claiming and granting on social undermining depends on whether a focal person is overclaiming or underclaiming. I suggest that when a focal person is overclaiming, a peer will respond more strongly with social undermining, whereas underclaiming will elicit a less pronounced response. Thus, I hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 4: Social undermining is higher when a focal person's leadership claiming is higher than a peer's leadership granting (i.e., overclaiming) as compared to when a peer's leadership granting is higher than a focal person's leadership claiming (i.e., underclaiming).*

Affective Pathways of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-up Behavior and Social Undermining

To unpack the mechanisms through which the congruence/incongruence of leadership claiming and granting influences subsequent behaviors, I examine the affective responses of a peer when experiencing role consensus or role conflict with a focal person. I suggest that when a focal person's leadership claiming is aligned with a peer's leadership granting, the peer may experience more positive emotions that facilitate subsequent backing-up behaviors and less negative emotions that promote social undermining. Conversely, role conflict between a focal person and a peer may elicit more negative emotions and less positive emotions and therefore result in less backing-up behavior and more social undermining. My theorizing suggests that the positive emotion *enthusiasm* and the negative emotion *anger* serve as conduits between congruence/ incongruence in leadership claiming and granting and backing-up behavior as well as

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social undermining. More precisely, I suggest that whereas enthusiasm may mediate the effect of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior, anger may mediate the effect on social undermining. I further extend my previous considerations about the asymmetrical incongruence effects of leadership claiming and granting below.

Enthusiasm. I propose that when a focal person's leadership claiming is aligned with a peer's leadership granting, the peer may experience more enthusiasm, as compared with conditions of role conflict. As illustrated above, role consensus allows an individual to take the role of their interaction partner, which elicits positive feelings because the shared role expectations provide the individual with the feeling that they can enact their role and achieve goals (Lazarus, 1991; Mead, 1934). Therefore, when a focal person claims leadership and a peer grants leadership, the peer may feel enthusiastic towards the focal person because the focal person behaves according to the peer's role expectations and exerts the requested informal influence. Similarly, in cases of dyadic leadership absence, a peer may realize that a focal person shares their assessment, namely that there should not be any informal influence. As a consequence, the peer may experience positive feelings towards the focal person because they view their relationship as cooperative and rewarding (Kahn et al., 1964).

Conversely, in the case of incongruence in leadership claiming and granting, I suggest that the relationship between a focal person and a peer may be strained because they do not share a common understanding. Hence, a peer may experience low enthusiasm (Kahn et al., 1964). In that case, a peer may not perceive the relationship with

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a focal person to be cooperative and beneficial to their goal attainment (Mead, 1934).

Taking up my argument about asymmetrical incongruence effects, I expect overclaiming and underclaiming to result in different levels of enthusiasm. To elaborate, when a focal person is overclaiming, they seek to exert (unwanted) control of the behavior of a peer. In that case, the peer may not view their relationship as cooperative because the focal person is imposing unwanted influence over them. However, when a focal person is underclaiming, a peer may not perceive the focal person's behavior as reducing their autonomy. Instead, the peer's enthusiasm may not be as low as when the focal person is overclaiming because the peer may view the focal person's low leadership claiming as an opportunity to receive the desired influence in the future. Thus, a peer may be more enthusiastic about cases of underclaiming than overclaiming. Integrating these considerations about the effect of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting, I suggest that a peer's enthusiasm about a focal person is high for congruence in leadership claiming and granting, lower for underclaiming, and lowest for overclaiming.

Anger. I also expect the role enactment of a focal person and a peer to influence the extent to which a peer experiences anger. For congruence in leadership claiming and granting, I expect a peer to experience low levels of anger at a focal person. More precisely, when a focal person and a peer both claim and grant leadership (i.e., dyadic emergent leadership), the focal person is asserting the informal influence that the peer wants. In turn, the peer may not experience anger. Similarly, when a focal person does not claim leadership and a peer does not grant leadership (i.e., dyadic leadership absence), the peer may not experience negative emotions. In that instance, the focal

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person does not violate any role expectations and does not seek to exert (unwanted) influence over the peer. Conversely, I expect that incongruence in leadership claiming and granting elicits anger because the resulting role conflict may call into question an individual's assessment of the surroundings and restrain their perceptions of autonomy (Kahn et al., 1964; Stryker & Statham, 1985). In that case, a peer may be angry at a focal person because the focal person is violating the role expectations of the peer.

At the same time, I expect differences in a peer's anger to depend on whether a focal person is underclaiming or overclaiming. When a focal person is underclaiming, a peer may be annoyed by the lack of informal leadership given their requests for such influence. As a consequence, the focal person's inaction may elicit anger on behalf of the peer. However, I suggest that a peer will experience even more anger when a focal person is overclaiming. In that case, the focal person engages in behaviors that may be infringing upon the peer's territory and eliciting outrage because they assume an (unwanted) position of power over the peer (Brown & Robinson, 2011). Thus, I suggest that overclaiming may be viewed as a more demeaning offense than underclaiming and elicit more anger (Baer et al., 2018; Lazarus, 1991). In sum, I expect that a peer's anger towards a focal person will be low for cases of congruence in leadership claiming and granting, higher for underclaiming, and highest for overclaiming.

Effects of emotions on behaviors. Having argued that the congruence/ incongruence in leadership claiming and granting influences a peer's enthusiasm and anger, I proceed to describe how these two affective responses influence a peer's subsequent behavior. First, when a peer is in a pleasant, activated affective state such as

enthusiasm, they may feel a close connection to a focal person as the source of their

enthusiasm and thus increase their cooperativeness (Barsade, 2002; Dalal, Lam, Weiss,

Welch, & Hulin, 2009; George, 1991; Yang, Simon, Wang, & Zheng, 2016). Therefore,

enthusiasm towards a focal person may increase a peer's backing-up behavior because

the peer wants to maintain their positive relationship with the focal person. Conversely, a

peer's anger at a focal person may result in reactionary defenses to punish the focal

person and prevent them from such behavior in the future (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014;

Brown & Robinson, 2011; Lazarus, 1991; Stryker & Statham, 1985). The peer may

therefore engage in more social undermining to retaliate against the focal person and

"right their wrongs." As a consequence, I expect that enthusiasm facilitates subsequent

backing-up behavior whereas anger facilitates subsequent social undermining. However,

I do not suggest that enthusiasm influences a peer's propensity to engage in social

undermining given that the mere absence of enthusiasm may not motivate social

undermining. Similarly, I do not expect anger to predict backing-up behavior given that a

lack of anger may not encourage a peer to assist a focal person with their work

performance. This theorizing follows the voluntary work behavior model proposing that

positive emotions facilitate citizenship behaviors whereas negative emotions facilitate

counterproductive behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2002; see also Dalal et al., 2009). In sum, I

expect enthusiasm to mediate the relationship between congruence/incongruence in

leadership claiming and granting and backing-up behavior. In contrast, I expect anger to

mediate the relationship with social undermining. Thus, I hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 5: The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership*
> *claiming/granting and backing-up behavior is mediated by a peer's enthusiasm*

towards a focal person.
Hypothesis 6: The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and social undermining is mediated by a peer's anger towards a focal person.

Cognitive Pathways of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-Up Behavior and Social Undermining

I now examine the cognitive pathways that illuminate the effects of congruence/ incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior and social undermining. My theorizing suggests that when leadership claiming and granting are aligned, a peer may respect a focal person more and have less revenge cognitions. Conversely, for cases of misalignment, a peer may not hold a focal person in high esteem and instead seek to inflict harm upon the focal person, i.e., have less respect and more revenge cognitions. In the following, I argue that a peer's respect and revenge cognitions serve as two separate mediators in the relationship between the congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior and social undermining. Whereas I assume that respect mediates the effect on backing-up behavior, I suggest that revenge cognitions mediate the effect on social undermining. I again extend my considerations about asymmetrical incongruence below.

Respect. I expect that whereas congruence in leadership claiming and granting increases the respect between interaction partners, incongruence in leadership claiming and granting reduces respect. When a focal person claims leadership and a peer grants leadership (i.e., dyadic emergent leadership), the peer may hold the focal person in high esteem because they feel supported by the focal person's role enactment (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007, 2008). Furthermore, the congruence in leadership claiming and granting

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may enable a peer to take the role of a focal person, thereby making the peer realize the focal person's qualities as a leader (Cranor, 1975). Said differently, role taking may increase a peer's acceptance and reduce stereotyping of a focal person (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005; Ramarajan, Rothbard, & Wilk, 2017). Similarly, in cases of dyadic leadership absence, a peer may understand a focal person's decision not to engage in informal leadership and therefore may not form any prejudice. Whereas congruence in leadership claiming and granting will increase a peer's respect, I suggest that incongruence will decrease a peer's respect. Extending my previous argumentation regarding asymmetrical incongruence effects of leadership claiming and granting, I expect respect to be lower when a focal person is underclaiming and lowest when a focal person is overclaiming. More precisely, when a focal person is underclaiming, a peer may be less accepting of the focal person because of their conflicting role enactment. At the same time, the peer may assume that the focal person is not sure about their potential performance as an informal leader or does not recognize the peer's request for informal leadership. Thus, even though a focal person does not claim leadership, a peer may still view them as capable of being an informal leader. Compared to that, when a focal person is overclaiming, I expect a peer's respect of the focal person to be the lowest because the focal person exerts unwanted informal influence over the peer. In that case, the focal person's (presumed) ineptitude to lead paired with their dominant behavior may severely influence the peer's judgment of the focal person's worth. Because the focal person engages in a role that they mistakenly assume that they can fill, the peer may hold them in lower esteem than if the focal person underclaims (i.e., not engages in a role that they

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could fill in the eyes of the peer). In sum, I expect that a peer's respect for a focal person will be high for congruence in leadership claiming and granting, lower for underclaiming, and lowest for overclaiming.

Revenge cognitions. I further argue that role conflict will elicit revenge cognitions. As I described above, one of the defining features of role conflict is that it represents an aversive state and thus triggers coping mechanisms as individuals seek to deal with that situation (Gross et al., 1958; Harrison & Minor, 1978). Individuals may therefore feel inclined to engage in aggressive actions or communications because they find that their interaction partner engaged in wrongdoing targeted at them and thus want to restore power and justice (Bies & Tripp, 2003; Kahn et al., 1964; Tepper & Henle, 2011). Along those lines, Katz and Kahn (1978) suggested that individuals may seek to punish their interaction partners if they do not follow role expectations to prevent future role conflict. Research on role stress further suggests that role conflict elicits feelings of victimization, which facilitate subsequent aggressive behavior (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). I suggest that a peer's revenge cognitions targeted at a focal person will be low for dyadic emergent leadership and dyadic leadership absence, high for underclaiming, and highest for overclaiming. To elaborate, when a focal person and a peer agree in their role expectations, both actors will experience their relationship as rewarding and therefore will not seek to retaliate against the other. For dyadic emergent leadership, a peer will view a focal person's informal influence as positive and thus will not have any need to punish the focal person or restore their power (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997). Similarly, for dyadic leadership absence, a peer will view their

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relationship as mutual and thus not feel mistreated by a focal person. Therefore, the peer will not seek to retaliate against the focal person (Hershcovis et al., 2007). In turn, when a focal person is underclaiming, a peer may consider the focal person to be the source of their role stress and attribute blame (Aquino et al., 2001; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999). As a consequence, the peer may feel that they need to "get even" with the focal person (Bies et al., 1997). Conversely, when a focal person is overclaiming, I expect a peer's revenge cognitions to be the highest. In that case, exerting unwanted influence may be considered as a threat because the focal person engages in dominant behaviors and thus may elicit the need to retaliate (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). As a consequence, I expect that a peer's revenge cognitions targeted at a focal person will be low for congruence in leadership claiming and granting, higher for underclaiming, and highest for overclaiming.

Effects of cognitions on behaviors. Turning towards the effects of respect and revenge cognitions on subsequent behaviors, I argue that respect may be positively associated with backing-up behavior. In contrast, revenge cognitions may positively relate to social undermining. On the one hand, when a peer respects a focal person, they are more likely to engage in affiliative behaviors to express their esteem towards the focal person as well as uphold their cooperative relationship (Mead, 1934; Leiter, Laschinger, Day, & Oor, 2011; Porath, Gerbasi, & Schorch, 2015). On the other hand, I expect that when seeking revenge, a peer may be more likely to engage in aggressive behaviors (Bies & Tripp, 2003; Restubog, Zagenczyk, Bordia, Bordia, & Chapman, 2015). In that case, they may engage in instrumental behaviors to retaliate against a focal person such as ignoring or talking negatively behind the focal person's back (Duffy et al., 2002; Duffy,

Scott, Shaw, Tepper, & Aquino, 2012; Lee et al., 2016). Thus, I expect high levels of

respect to increase backing-up behavior and high levels of revenge cognitions to increase

social undermining. At the same time, I do not expect respect to influence social

undermining or revenge cognitions to predict backing-up behavior. Mirroring my

arguments regarding the voluntary work behavior model (Spector & Fox, 2002), I do not

suggest low levels of respect—as opposed to *dis*respect—to be sufficient to increase

social undermining. Similarly, I do not expect a peer to engage in backing-up behaviors

just because they do not seek revenge. All in all, I therefore suggest that whereas respect

mediates the effect of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on

backing-up behavior, revenge cognitions mediate the effect on social undermining. Thus,

I hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 7: The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and backing-up behavior is mediated by a peer's respect towards a focal person.*
> *Hypothesis 8: The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and social undermining is mediated by a peer's revenge cognitions towards a focal person.*

The Moderating Effect of Prosocial Motivation

After considering the extent to which role consensus and role conflict influence

affective and cognitive responses, I consider a focal person's prosocial motivation and its

influence on the effect of leadership claiming and granting on subsequent reactions of a

peer. Past work has investigated the effects of prosocial motivation on performance at

both the individual (e.g., Cardador & Wrzesniewski, 2015; Grant & Sumanth, 2009) and

team level of analysis (e.g., Hu & Liden, 2015). Furthermore, past work has investigated

prosocial motivation as a boundary condition influencing the effects of individual

differences (e.g., Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Hu et al., 2019), helping (e.g., Lanaj et al., 2016), and intrinsic motivation (e.g., Grant, 2008; Grant & Berry, 2011) on subsequent outcomes. In the following, I examine a focal person's prosocial motivation as a characteristic on the individual level of analysis that moderates the dyadic-level relationship between the congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on a peer's affective and cognitive responses—i.e., a cross-level interaction effect. My theorizing suggests that the congruence/incongruence effect on emotions and cognitions will be more pronounced at lower levels of prosocial motivation and less pronounced at higher levels of prosocial motivation.

I argue that a focal person's prosocial motivation may influence a peer's experience of role conflict but not role consensus. To elaborate, in cases where a focal person and a peer are aligned in terms of their leadership claiming and granting, the focal person's underlying motivation—i.e., whether or not they want to do good to others— may not influence the peer's affective and cognitive responses. Instead, I suggest that prosocial motivation moderates the congruence/incongruence effects of leadership claiming and granting on enthusiasm, anger, respect, and revenge cognitions. However, I argue that prosocial motivation does not influence the asymmetrical incongruence effects (i.e., does not strengthen or weaken the differences between overclaiming and underclaiming). In the following, I describe a peer's affective and cognitive responses at low and high levels of a focal person's prosocial motivation for both cases of overclaiming and underclaiming.

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My theorizing suggests that the effect of overclaiming and underclaiming on a peer's responses—resulting in lower enthusiasm and respect, higher anger and revenge cognitions—are strengthened when a focal person has low prosocial motivation and weakened when a focal person has high prosocial motivation. Past work has emphasized that individuals can recognize the value systems of their interaction partners—such as prosocial motivation (Maierhofer, Griffin, & Sheehan, 2000). In fact, individuals low on prosocial motivation may appear as less warm than individuals low on prosocial motivation (Grant & Berry, 2011; Hu et al., 2019). Because a focal person low on prosocial motivation does not seek to do good for others, any overclaiming may appear even less desirable and thereby elicit less enthusiasm and more anger. Furthermore, a peer may evaluate a focal person more negatively. Because a focal person low on prosocial motivation is not interested in the welfare of others, a peer may consider their conflicting role enactment as potentially serving their interests. Thus, the peer may have less respect and more revenge cognitions (Grant & Berg, 2011). Conversely, I suggest that high levels of a focal person's prosocial motivation may attenuate the affective and cognitive responses to overclaiming. Because the focal person wants to benefit others, the peer may consider the focal person's overclaiming as excessive but well-meaning and thus experience more enthusiasm and less anger. The peer may further view such behavior as more beneficial and less threatening to themself resulting in more respect and less revenge cognitions. In sum, I expect a focal person's prosocial motivation to moderate the effect of overclaiming on enthusiasm, anger, respect, and revenge

cognitions such that the effect is stronger when prosocial motivation is low and weaker when prosocial motivation is high.

Turning towards underclaiming, I argue that prosocial motivation will similarly influence a peer's affective and cognitive responses. When a focal person underclaims and has low prosocial motivation, a peer may assume that the focal person is reluctant to engage in informal leadership because of its potential risks (DeRue, Nahrgang, & Ashford, 2015; Zhang, Nahrgang, Ashford, & DeRue, 2020). As a consequence, the peer may be less excited and instead annoyed with the focal person and thus experience less enthusiasm and more anger. Similarly, the focal person's lack of prosocial motivation may make their underclaiming appear less beneficial and instead more sinister, and thus reduce the peer's respect as well as increase their revenge cognitions. In contrast, when a focal person underclaims and has high prosocial motivation, I suggest that a peer may not respond as strongly in terms of their affective and cognitive responses. Because a prosocially motivated individual seeks to promote the collective interest and serve the needs of others (Lanaj et al., 2016; De Dreu, Weingart, & Kwon, 2000), a peer may view their conflicting role enactment in the light of their "good" intentions. For example, a peer may see a focal person's underclaiming as a way of avoiding hierarchical differences or promoting others to engage in informal leadership. In that case, the peer may be more enthusiastic and less angry at the focal person as well as have more respect and less revenge cognitions. In sum, I expect prosocial motivation to moderate the effect of underclaiming on enthusiasm, anger, respect, and revenge cognitions such that the effect is stronger for lower levels of prosocial motivation and weaker for higher levels of

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prosocial motivation.

In conclusion, I expect lower levels of prosocial motivation to exacerbate a peer's negative response to incongruence (i.e., a greater decrease in enthusiasm and respect, a greater increase in anger and revenge cognitions). Conversely, higher levels of prosocial motivation may mitigate a peer's negative responses to incongruence in leadership claiming and granting (i.e., a smaller decrease in enthusiasm and respect, a smaller increase in anger and revenge cognitions). At the same time, my theorizing does not suggest that this interaction effect differs between overclaiming and underclaiming. Therefore, I argue that a focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the congruence/incongruence effect of leadership claiming and granting but does not moderate the asymmetrical incongruence effect. Thus, I hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 9: A focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the effects of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on a peer's (a) enthusiasm, (b) anger, (c) respect, and (d) revenge cognitions towards the focal person such that the effects are stronger when prosocial motivation is lower.*

Conditional Indirect Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-Up Behavior and Social Undermining

Taking my arguments together, I expect that a focal person's prosocial motivation interacts with the indirect effects of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior (mediated by enthusiasm and respect) and social (mediated by anger and revenge cognitions). That is, prosocial motivation represents a first-stage moderator of moderated mediation (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). More precisely, I suggest that the indirect effect of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior and social undermining is more

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pronounced for lower levels of prosocial motivation and less pronounced for higher

levels of prosocial motivation. Thus, I hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 10: A focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the indirect effect of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on backing-up behavior through (a) enthusiasm and (b) respect such that the conditional indirect effect is stronger when prosocial motivation is lower.*
> *Hypothesis 11: A focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the indirect effect of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on social undermining through (a) anger and (b) revenge cognitions such that the conditional indirect effect is stronger when prosocial motivation is lower.*

Team-Level Consequences of Backing-up Behavior and Social Undermining

Even though my theorizing focuses on the affective, cognitive, and behavioral

responses on the dyadic level, I suggest that backing-up behavior and social undermining

may emerge as a shared property at the team level. More precisely, Humphrey and Aime

(2014) suggested that dyadic interactions may influence subsequent team performance

through shared behavior. When a peer is engaging in backing-up behavior targeted at a

focal person, their behavior may represent a social cue to other team members

encouraging them to engage in similar (and beneficial) behavior. In turn, when a peer is

engaging in social undermining, they may signal to other team members that such

behavior is acceptable thereby allowing other individuals to engage in such destructive

behavior. As a consequence of this, the members of a team may engage in more similar

behaviors than members across teams thereby developing a shared pattern of collective

backing-up behavior and social undermining. I further propose that the collective pattern

of backing-up behavior and social undermining may influence team performance. On the

one hand, when individual team members assist each other in the execution of their work,

the team may be more likely to achieve their goals because individuals emphasize task

accomplishment and may argue less with each other. On the other hand, a shared climate

of social undermining may negatively influence team performance because individuals

are less likely to collaborate with others which impedes the team's ability to coordinate

the contributions of its members. Because role theory does not make predictions about

team-level outcomes, I therefore pose the following research question:

Research Question: Do team-level backing-up behavior and social undermining predict team performance?

Table 1 summarizes the study hypotheses and Figure 2 provides an overview of

the theoretical model.

CHAPTER 4:

PILOT STUDY 1

In the next three chapters, I describe the methods and results of the three studies that I conducted. In Chapter 4 (the present chapter), I describe Pilot Study 1 in which I sought to validate a scale that assesses leadership claiming and granting. Using an online sample, I tested different items that capture the extent to which an individual may claim or grant leadership by drawing from the Team Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ; Morgeson et al., 2010). In this study, participants indicated the extent to which they claim and grant leadership to their work colleagues as well as provide ratings regarding other constructs of interest. In Chapter 5, I describe Pilot Study 2 which used a second online sample. In this study, I shortened measures for the subsequent use in research settings that require brief but reliable scales. In Chapter 6, I describe the Main Study in which I tested my study hypotheses using data collected from MBA student teams. Using a round-robin design, participants described the extent to which they claim and grant leadership as well as reported their affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses to other individual team members' informal leadership (non)emergence.

Methods

I conducted an online study to establish and validate a measurement of leadership claiming and granting because prior research does not provide such a measure. As described in Chapter 2, the only empirical investigation of the leadership identity claiming and granting framework is the experimental study by Marchiondo and colleagues (2015). In this study, the authors manipulated claiming and granting via

scenarios followed by the manipulation check, "To what extent do you believe that this person … was trying to become a leader during the meeting?" (888–889) for leadership claiming and the manipulation check, "To what extent do you believe this person was trying to make someone else a leader during the meeting?" (889). The first goal of the first pilot study was thus to draw from existing leadership items and adapt them to create a measure of leadership claiming and granting. The second goal was to examine its distinctiveness from other related constructs.

Sample and procedure. I recruited 199 individuals (37.2% women, 62.8% men) with an average age of 32.37 years ($SD = 9.00$) through Prolific. To be included in the study, participants had to be fluent in English and at least 18 years old as well as work full-time in a workgroup with one to ten other team members. After consenting to participate, individuals were asked to provide the names of the coworkers on their team. Depending on the size of their work team, one or two team members were randomly selected and participants provided ratings about these coworkers. More precisely, participants indicated the extent to which they engaged in leadership claiming and granting towards a given team member, experienced role conflict with said team member, viewed the coworker as an emergent leader, and identified with being a leader of the team member. Further, participants indicated their dyadic tenure. After providing these dyadic-level ratings, participants were asked to provide individual-level ratings. More precisely, participants indicated their trait-level willingness to engage in leadership claiming and granting, their motivation to lead, sense of power, desire of control, and Big Five

personality factors. Participants received a compensation of $5 for filling out the online survey.

Measures. All items utilized a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) unless noted otherwise. Appendix A presents the items.

Leadership claiming and granting. Participants rated the extent to which they claimed and granted leadership from a given team member in the past two weeks using a total of 41 items that were adapted from the TLQ (Morgeson et al., 2010). The TLQ offers a direct assessment of leadership behaviors in teams and is therefore suitable to be adapted to measure leadership claiming and granting. More specifically, I adapted items from the subscales "Structure and plan," "Support social climate," and "Challenge team" to capture task-, social-, and change-oriented leadership behaviors (DeRue et al., 2011; Gerpott et al., 2019; Wellman et al., 2019). I adapted 11 items to capture leadership claiming and 30 items to capture leadership granting. Because the definition of leadership granting entails aspects pertaining to both proactive and reactive behaviors (i.e., requesting as well as acknowledging informal leadership), I included more preliminary leadership granting items to adequately reflect these considerations.

To indicate their claiming of leadership from a given team member, participants rated whether they agreed with items that describe their engagement in leadership behaviors directed at that coworker. This conceptualization mirrors my definition of leadership claiming as actions of an individual to assert leadership influence over others. Sample items include "I defined and structured the work for [team member]" and "I

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responded to [team member]'s needs or concerns." The coefficient alpha for all 11 leadership claiming items was .92.

To indicate the extent to which a participant granted leadership to a given team member, participants rated whether they sought leadership behavior from them. This conceptualization is in line with my definition of leadership granting as actions of an individual to acknowledge or encourage leadership influence from others. Sample items include "I asked [team member] to define and structure my work" and "I reached out to [team member] regarding my needs or concerns." The coefficient alpha for all 30 leadership granting items was .97.

Leader emergence. Participants indicated the extent to which they considered the team member to be a leader using the five items by Cronshaw and Lord (1987). Sample items include "[Team member] is a typical leader" and "[Team member] engages in leadership behaviors." The coefficient alpha for leader emergence was .96.

Interpersonal role conflict. Participants rated the extent to which they perceived the team member to engage in behaviors contrary to their role expectations using the three-item measure by Wellman, Mayer, Ong, & DeRue (2016). The lead-in to the items was "Overall, given [team member]'s position within the team, his/her actions…" The items were "were reasonable", "were appropriate", and "made sense." The coefficient alpha for interpersonal role conflict was .93.

Identification with being a leader. Participants indicated the extent to which they identified with being a leader of a given team member using three items that were developed based on work by Doosje, Ellemers, and Spears (1995) and Haslam, Oakes,

Reynolds, and Turner (1999). Sample items include "I see myself as a leader of [team member]" and "Being a leader of [team member] is important to me." The coefficient alpha for identification with being a leader was .84.

Willingness to claim and grant leadership. Participants indicated their general tendency to claim and grant leadership using 14 items by Giessner and colleagues (in progress). Sample items for the willingness to claim leadership include "I feel comfortable to take the lead" and "I am open to the position of leading someone." Sample items for the willingness to grant leadership include "It feels okay for me to follow another person" and "I would gladly let someone else step up and deliver on something." The coefficient alphas for willingness to claim leadership and willingness to grant leadership were .92 and .90, respectively.

Motivation to lead. Participants indicated their general propensity to exert leadership using a shortened version of the measure by Chan and Drasgow (2001). Wellman and colleagues (2019) validated ten items that tap into the three dimensions of motivation to lead. Sample items for each dimension include "I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in" (affective-identity motivation to lead), "I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked" (social-normative motivation to lead), and "If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits" (noncalculative motivation to lead). The coefficient alpha for motivation to lead was .81.

Sense of power. Participants indicated the extent to which they perceive that they have power over other people using eight items by Anderson, John, and Keltner (2012). Sample items include "I think I have a great deal of power" and "If I want to, I get to

make the decisions." The coefficient alpha for sense of power was .85.

Desire of control. Participants indicated their desire to control other people using three items by Dahling, Whitaker, and Levy (2009). Sample items include "I enjoy being able to control the situation" and "I enjoy having control over other people." The coefficient alpha for desire of control was .82

Personality. Participants rated their Big Five personality factors using 20 items by Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, and Lucas (2006). Sample items for each factor include "I have a vivid imagination" (Openness to experience), "I like order" (Conscientiousness), "I am the life of the party" (Extraversion), "I sympathize with others' feelings" (Agreeableness), and "I have frequent mood swings" (Neuroticism). The coefficient alphas for openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism were .81, .57, .83, .81, and .66 respectively.

Proactive personality. Participants indicated the extent to which they seek to effect change using 11 items by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer (1999). Sample items include "I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life" and "If I see something I don't like, I fix it." The coefficient alpha for proactive personality was .91.

Demographics. Participants indicated their gender (1 = men, 2 = women, 3 = other, 4 = prefer not to specify), age, and dyadic tenure with each coworker (in years).

Analytical strategy. I examined the adapted items capturing leadership claiming and granting by conducting a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). I then proceeded to inspect the item loadings on their respective dimension (i.e., task-, social-, and change-oriented leadership behaviors) as well as reliabilities and item-rest

correlations (i.e., the correlation between a single item and the other items of a scale). In doing so, I sought to single out items that adequately assess leadership claiming and granting. To investigate the validity of these new scales, I examined the correlations between key variables, calculated the average variance extracted (AVE; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011), and ran χ^2 difference tests to investigate the model fit when loading constructs on separate or omnibus factors (Djurdjevic et al., 2017).

Results and Discussion

Table 2 provides an overview of the CFA loadings, item-rest correlations, and reliabilities for the 11 leadership claiming items and the 30 leadership granting items. To select adequate items, I examined each item's factor loadings, item-rest correlations, and resulting reliabilities. This statistical information, along with an item's content, allowed the retention of two items for each dimension—representing task orientation, social orientation, and change orientation. The coefficient alphas for the six-item scales of leadership claiming and leadership granting were .87 and .88, respectively. The means, standard deviations, and correlations among these two scales and other constructs assessed in the Pilot Study 1 are depicted in Table 3.

Factor structure. I examined the factor structure of the selected leadership claiming and granting items in Mplus 8.5 using a sandwich estimator to account for data nestedness (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). The item loadings all exceeded the critical value of .30 and were significant at $p < .001$ (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Furthermore, the fit of the proposed factorial structure with two factors (i.e., leadership

claiming and leadership granting) and three subfactors (i.e., task orientation, social orientation, and change orientation) was appropriate ($\chi^2(43) = 100.58$, $p < .001$, scaling correction factor = 1.28; $RMSEA = .06$; $SRMR = .06$; $CFI = .97$; $TLI = .96$). Examining leadership claiming and leadership granting as two separate models with an omnibus factor (and correlated residuals for items capturing the same leadership orientation) resulted in adequate fit indices, $\chi^2(6) = 9.11$, $p = .17$, scaling correction factor = 1.36; $RMSEA = .04$; $SRMR = .02$; $CFI = 1.00$; $TLI = .99$ and $\chi^2(6) = 19.29$, $p = .004$, scaling correction factor = 1.30; $RMSEA = .08$; $SRMR = .02$; $CFI = .99$; $TLI = .96$ for leadership claiming and leadership granting, respectively.

Correlations with other constructs. To assess validity, I examined the correlations between leadership claiming and granting with other constructs. As can be seen from Table 3, leadership claiming correlated positively with identification with being a leader ($r = .59$, $p < .001$), willingness to claim leadership ($r = .24$, $p < .001$), motivation to lead ($r = .28$, $p < .001$), and proactive personality ($r = .30$, $p < .001$). Leadership granting correlated positively with leader emergence ($r = .60$, $p < .001$) and negatively with interpersonal role conflict ($r = -.30$, $p < .001$). I then examined the correlations between leadership claiming and granting with demographical variables. Leadership claiming and granting were neither related to gender ($r = .09$, $p = .21$ and $r = .04$, $p = .57$, respectively) nor dyadic tenure ($r = .06$, $p = .40$ and $r = .10$, $p = .16$, respectively). Further, leadership claiming was not associated with age ($r = -.01$, $p = .89$). I also computed the average variance extracted for leadership claiming and granting, finding that the AVE values for leadership claiming and leadership granting

both exceeded the recommended value of .50 (MacKenzie et al., 2011) and were larger than the squared correlations between the factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Further, I ran several χ^2 difference tests to compare the suggested three-factor models (where leadership claiming, leadership granting, and each related construct were modeled as distinct factors) to one-factor models (where leadership claiming, leadership granting, and the related construct were modeled as one omnibus factor). The three-factor models consistently demonstrated a superior fit than the omnibus models (see Table 4).

The goal of the first pilot study was to adapt items from the TLQ (Morgeson et al., 2011) to capture behaviors pertaining to leadership claiming and granting. Starting with a pool of 41 items, I selected 12 items to form brief and reliable measures for leadership claiming and leadership granting. These items follow the prior conceptualization that leadership behavior entails three domains, namely task-oriented, social-oriented, and change-oriented leadership behaviors (DeRue et al., 2011; Gerpott et al., 2019; Wellman et al., 2019). Pilot Study 1 furthermore sought to establish validity of the leadership claiming and granting measure by examining constructs with varying levels of conceptual proximity to leadership claiming and granting. I now proceed to describe Pilot Study 2, which sought to shorten other constructs for the Main Study to facilitate the data collection using a round-robin design and reduce survey fatigue (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997; Yarkoni, 2010).

CHAPTER 5:

PILOT STUDY 2

Method

  Sample and procedure. I recruited 151 individuals (34.4% women, 65.6% men)

with an average age of 33.03 years (*SD* = 7.93) through Prolific. I used the same

eligibility criteria that were used in Pilot Study 1. Furthermore, participants from Pilot

Study 1 were not eligible to participate in Pilot Study 2. Again, after consenting to

participate, participants provided the names of all coworkers on their team. Participants

then provided dyadic ratings about one randomly selected team member as well as

demographical information. More precisely, they provided ratings about their dyadic task

interdependence with the team member, respect and revenge cognitions towards the

coworker, as well as backing-up behavior and social undermining towards the team

member. Participants received a compensation of $2 for filling out the online survey.

  Measures. All items utilized a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly*

disagree) to 7 (*strongly agree*) unless noted otherwise. Appendix B presents the items.

  Dyadic task interdependence. Participants indicated the extent to which they need

to closely collaborate with the other team member using four items by Van der Vegt and

Jansen (2003). Sample items include "I need to collaborate with [team member] to

perform my job well" and "I need information from [team member] to perform my job

well." The coefficient alpha for dyadic task interdependence was .79.

  Respect. Participants rated the extent to which they respect the other team

member using six items by Ng (2016). Participants were asked, "Thinking of your

interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you

thought each of the following…" Sample items include "I respect [team member]" and "I

am impressed by what [team member] accomplishes at work" (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*).

The coefficient alpha for respect was .93.

     Revenge cognitions. Participants indicated the extent to which they have revenge

cognitions towards the other team member using five items by McCullough, Rachal,

Sandage, Worthington, Brown, and Hight (1998). Participants were asked, "Thinking of

your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have

you thought each of the following…" Sample items include "I wish that something bad

would happen to [team member]" and "I want [team member] to get what [team member]

deserves" (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*). The coefficient alpha for revenge cognitions was

.65.

     Backing-up behavior. Participants indicated the extent to which they experienced

that the other team member supported their role performance using five items by Van der

Vegt, Bunderson, and Oosterhof (2006) that are based on the scale by Settoon and

Mossholder (2002). Participants were asked, "Thinking of your work with [team

member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time did [team member] do each of the

following to you…" Sample items include "[Team member] went out of their way to help

me with work-related problems" and "[Team member] took on extra responsibilities in

order to help me when things got demanding" (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*). The coefficient

alpha for backing-up behavior was .92.

Social undermining. Participants rated the extent to which they experienced that the other team member engaged in social undermining towards them by responding to 13 items by Duffy and colleagues (2002). Participants were asked, "Thinking of your work with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time did [team member] do each of the following to you…" Sample items include "[Team member] delayed work to make me look bad or slow me down" and "[Team member] gave me incorrect or misleading information about the job" (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*). The coefficient alpha for social undermining was .94.

Demographics. Participants indicated their gender (1 = men, 2 = women, 3 = other, 4 = prefer not to specify) and age.

Analytical strategy. To shorten the measures for dyadic task interdependence, respect, revenge cognitions, backing-up behavior, and social undermining, I examined the item loadings in separate CFAs as well as item-rest correlations and reliabilities.

Results and Discussion

Table 5 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables. Based on the examination of the results of factor analyses and reliability analyses as well as the inspection of item content allowed the inclusion of three items per construct to develop shortened yet reliable scales. The coefficient alphas for the three-item scales of dyadic task interdependence, respect, revenge cognitions, backing-up behavior, and social undermining were .81, .91, .81, .90, and .84, respectively. I also examined the correlations between each construct's full measure and the shortened measure to ensure conceptual overlap. These correlations suggest that the constructs'

shortened measures adequately reflect the full measures, dyadic task interdependence ($r = .96$, $p < .001$), respect ($r = .96$, $p < .001$), revenge cognitions ($r = .78$, $p < .001$), backing-up behavior ($r = .98$, $p < .001$), and social undermining ($r = .96$, $p < .001$). Thus, in Pilot Study 2, I developed measures that were subsequently used in the round-robin design of the Main Study given that these shortened measures adequately assess the underlying phenomena yet do not overburden study participants. The following chapter describes the Main Study which sought to test my study hypotheses.

CHAPTER 6:

MAIN STUDY

Method

To test my study hypotheses, I conducted a three-wave, time-lagged study on MBA student teams at two major universities. One university (Public University A) is located in the Southwestern United States and the other university (Private University B) is located in the Southern United States. Students at both universities were randomly assigned to their teams at the beginning of the Fall semester and worked together on class projects throughout the 7- or 8- week period of their respective quarter courses. I used a round-robin design with measurement waves separated by two weeks which is consistent with prior work on dyadic relationships and leadership emergence (e.g., Jones & Shah, 2016; Wellman et al., 2019).

Sample and procedure. All students who attended a total of eight sections of first- and second-year MBA classes at Public University A and Private University B were targeted as potential participants and informed via in-class announcements as well as follow-up emails and recruitment videos. Approximately two weeks after the start of the semester, participants were invited to participate in the first survey (Time 1). This online survey included measures of individuals' leadership claiming and granting towards each member of their team, prosocial motivation, and liking of each member of their team. Out of 338 students that were initially contacted, 300 (88.8%) students consented to participate in the study and completed the first survey. After two weeks, participants were again contacted and invited to participate in the second survey (Time 2). This survey

included measures of their enthusiasm, anger, respect, and revenge cognitions towards each member of their team as well as the extent to which they worked virtually with their team members. A total of 280 participants completed this survey. Two weeks later, participants were again contacted with a third survey (Time 3). This survey included measures of individuals' perceptions of backing-up behavior and social undermining that they experienced from the other members of their team as well as demographical information. A total of 279 students participated in this survey. Students received (extra) course credit for their participation depending on how many surveys they filled out and their respective sections. After the end of the course, the MBA class instructors provided ratings of each team.

Across all three waves, the retention rate of participants who consented to participate is 93.0%. The response rate of all eligible participants is 82.5%. For my analyses, I deleted all participants that did not participate in all three waves (i.e., listwise deletion). Thus, the final sample included 279 participants (37.3% women, 61.3% men, 1.4% other; mean age = 29.09 [SD = 4.23] years) in a total of 66 teams (average team size = 5.12 [SD = 0.64] members. These 279 participants provided a total of 972 directed dyadic ratings which is in line with prior studies using a similar round-robin design (e.g., Jones & Shah, 2016; Joshi, 2014; Lam et al., 2011).

Measures. All items utilized a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) unless noted otherwise. Appendix C presents the items.

Leadership claiming and granting. Team members indicated the extent to which they claim and grant leadership towards each member of their team using the two six-

item scales developed and validated in Pilot Study 1 at Time 1. The coefficient alphas for leadership claiming and leadership granting were .87 and .88, respectively.

Prosocial motivation. Participants indicated their prosocial motivation using four items by Grant (2008) at Time 1. Sample items include "I care about benefiting others through my work" and "I want to help others through my work." The coefficient alpha for prosocial motivation was .90.

Enthusiasm. Participants indicate the extent to which they experienced enthusiasm towards each of their team members by responding to three items by Warr (1990) at Time 2. Participants were asked, "Thinking of your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you felt each of the following…" The items were "cheerful," "enthusiastic," and "optimistic" (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*; Welsh et al., 2020). The coefficient alpha for enthusiasm was .96.

Anger. Participants indicated the extent to which they experienced anger towards each of their team members by responding to three items by Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, and Larkin (2003) at Time 2. Participants were asked, "Thinking of your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you felt each of the following…" The items were "angry," "irritated," and "annoyed" (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*; Mitchell et al., 2015). The coefficient alpha for anger was .92.

Respect. Participants indicated the extent to which they respected each of their team members by responding to the three items that were adapted in Pilot Study 2 at Time 2 (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*). The coefficient alpha for respect was .90.

Revenge cognitions. Participants indicated the extent to which they had revenge cognitions towards each of their team members by responding to the three items that were adapted in Pilot Study 2 at Time 2 (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*). The coefficient alpha for revenge cognitions was .97.

Backing-up behavior. Participants indicated the extent to which they experienced that each of their team members engaged in backing-up behavior towards them by responding to the three items that were adapted in Pilot Study 2 at Time 3 (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*). The coefficient alpha for backing-up behavior was .96.

Social undermining. Participants indicated the extent to which they experienced that each of their team members engaged in social undermining towards them by responding to the three items that were adapted in Pilot Study 2 at Time 3 (1 = *never* to 7 = *always*). The coefficient alpha for social undermining was .89.

Team performance. The MBA course instructors provided ratings about the team performance of each team after the teams had delivered their project work. Specifically, instructors rated team performance using the five criteria identified by Ancona and Caldwell (1992) and Van der Vegt and Bunderson (2005), namely efficiency, quality, productivity, mission fulfillment, and overall achievement at Time 3 (1 = *far below average* to 7 = *far above average*; Zhang et al., 2012). The coefficient alpha for team performance was .98.

Control variables. To control for potential alternative explanations, several other dyadic-level variables were assessed and subsequently included in the analyses. Specifically, I controlled for peer liking, dyadic task interdependence, gender similarity,

age similarity, and ethnic similarity as well as virtual working. *Peer liking* was measured using the one-item measure by Hu and colleagues (2019) at Time 1. I included this variable because past research has suggested that peer liking may influence the extent to which an individual emerges as an informal leader (Hu et al., 2019). *Dyadic task interdependence* was measured using the three items that were adapted in Pilot Study 2 at Time 2. I controlled for this variable (coefficient alpha = .85) because role theory suggests that dyadic task interdependence may exacerbate the response to role conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). *Gender similarity* was coded as a dummy variable with similar focal person and peer gender coded as "1" and dissimilar focal person and peer gender coded as "0." *Age similarity* was coded as the absolute difference between the age of the focal person and the peer (Matta et al., 2015). *Ethnic similarity* was coded as a dummy variable with similar focal person and peer ethnicities coded as "1" and dissimilar focal person and peer ethnicities coded as "0." The variables pertaining to demographic similarity were included as past work has suggested that similarity may foster the development of dyadic relationships (Matta et al., 2015). Last, I controlled for *virtual working* by asking participants how they worked with each team member. Working together in-person was coded as "1", working half in-person, half virtually was coded as "2", and working virtually was coded as "3". I included this variable to control for differences in the peer's responses based on whether they had more or less face-to-face contact with the focal person.

  Analytical strategy. To test my hypotheses on the dyadic level of analysis, I used the Social Relations Model (SRM; Kenny et al., 2001, 2006; Knight & Humphrey, 2019)

and the polynomial regression approach (Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993). Descriptive statistics and correlations were obtained using Stata 16.1 (StataCorp, 2020). The statistical models were estimated in R using syntax from Knight and Humphrey (2019) and replicated using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute, 2015). The variables leadership claiming and leadership granting were scale-midpoint centered (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Parry, 1993). All other exogenous variables were grand-mean centered to facilitate the interpretation of coefficient estimates.

Social relations model. To adequately model the dyadic interactions between individuals, I employed Kenny's SRM approach (Kenny et al., 2001, 2006; see also Knight & Humphrey, 2019). Because I employed a round-robin design for my data collection, every participant represents both a focal person and a peer to all other team members. Thus, every pair of participants (e.g., Participant A and Participant B) represents two directed dyads. To elaborate, in the first directed dyad, Participant A's leadership claiming from Participant B paired with Participant B's leadership granting towards Participant A at Time 1 was used to predict Participant B's enthusiasm, anger, respect, and revenge cognitions towards Participant A at Time 2. In turn, these emotions and cognitions of Participant B were modeled to predict Participant B's backing-up behavior and social undermining towards Participant A at Time 3. For the second directed dyad, which participant is the focal person and which participant is the peer was reversed. This means that Participant B's leadership claiming from Participant A together with Participant A's leadership granting towards Participant B at Time 1 was used to predict Participant A's enthusiasm, anger, respect, and revenge cognitions towards

Participant B at Time 2 which was then used to predict Participant A's backing-up

behavior and social undermining towards Participant B at Time 3.

The SRM can take into account the fact two directed dyads are nested within each

pair of participants. This analytical approach models effects on three levels of analysis,

namely the team level (Level-3), the individual level (Level-2), and the dyadic level

(Level-1; Snijders & Kenny, 1999). The SRM is conceptualized by the following

equation (see also Kenny et al., 2006; Knight & Humphrey, 2019):

$$X_{ijk} = \mu + T_k + A_{ik} + P_{jk} + D_{ijk} \tag{1}$$

Where X_{ijk} represents a given variable (such as leadership claiming) of focal person j

targeted at peer i in team k, μ is the overall intercept, T_k is the team-level effect, A_{ik} is the

actor effect, P_{jk} is the partner effect, and D_{ijk} is the dyadic (or relationship) effect.

More specifically, the term T_k captures team-level differences because each team

has a random intercept, i.e., the *team effect*. At the individual level, the SRM estimates

two distinct effects represented by A_{ik} and P_{jk}. The *actor effect A_{ik}* describes the extent

to which an actor tends to respond similarly to other people whereas the *partner effect P_{jk}*

captures the extent to which different actors respond similarly to a particular person

(Joshi & Knight, 2015; Kenny et al., 2001). Because both the mediating mechanisms and

outcome variables describe a peer's emotions, cognitions, and behaviors, the peer is

conceptualized as the actor whereas the focal person is conceptualized as the target (i.e.,

partner). Said differently, the actor effect captures when a peer tends to respond more

enthusiastically to other team members in general. In turn, variance attributable to the

fact that a focal person tends to, for example, attract more angry responses from other

people would be captured by the partner effect. At the dyadic level of analysis, the SRM estimates the *dyadic (or relationship) effect* D_{ijk}, or "the unique way in which a[n actor] behaves with a particular partner" (Kenny et al., 2001: 130). Thus, this effect captures the extent to which a specific peer responds to a specific focal person. After including the variables of interest as well as the control variables, all effects of the SRM (i.e., the team effect, the actor effect, the partner effect, the dyadic effect, and the dyad-level residual) are simultaneously estimated using a multilevel modeling framework as random effects (Joshi & Knight, 2015).

Polynomial regression approach. To test my hypotheses pertaining to congruence and incongruence, I used the polynomial regression and response surface methodology (Edwards, 2002; Edwards & Parry, 1993) implemented within the SRM framework. The following equation illustrates the different effects:

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu + T_k + A_{ik} + P_{jk} + D_{ijk} + \beta_1 X_{jk} + \beta_2 Z_{ik} + \beta_3 X_{jk}^2 + \beta_4 X_{jk} \times Z_{ik} \qquad (2)$$
$$+ \beta_5 Z_{ik}^2 + \boldsymbol{C}$$

where Y_{ijk} represents the dependent variable, the terms $\mu, T_k, A_{ik}, P_{jk}, D_{ijk}$ describe the partitioning of the variance of Y_{ijk} on the team-, individual-, and dyadic level, X_{jk} describes a focal person's leadership claiming, Z_{ik} describes a peer's leadership granting, $X_{jk}^2, X_{jk} \times Z_{ik}$, and Z_{ik}^2 describe the second-order polynomial terms, and $\boldsymbol{C}$ describes a vector of control variables.

Hypotheses 1 and 3 describe congruence/incongruence effects of leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior (Hypothesis 1) and social undermining (Hypothesis 3). Following the suggestions by Edwards and Parry (1993), I examined

whether the curvature of the incongruence line (i.e., when $X = -Z$) was different from 0.

Hypotheses 2 and 4 describe asymmetrical incongruence effects of leadership claiming

and granting on backing-up behavior (Hypothesis 2) and social undermining (Hypothesis

4). These hypotheses were tested by assessing the slope of the incongruence line (see also

Matta et al., 2015). Hypotheses 5 through 8 suggested that the congruence/incongruence

effects in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior and social

undermining are mediated by enthusiasm (Hypothesis 5), anger (Hypothesis 6), respect

(Hypothesis 7), and revenge cognitions (Hypothesis 8). To test these hypotheses, I

multiplied the estimated parameters of the curvature along the congruence line as well as

the slope of the incongruence line (i.e., the respective a-path) with the estimated

parameters of the effect of the mediating variable on the dependent variable (i.e., the

respective b-path). I then constructed 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CI) using

the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method (Preacher and Selig, 2012).

To test the interaction effect of prosocial motivation on the effect of congruence/

incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on enthusiasm, anger, respect, and

cognitive avoidance (Hypothesis 9), I used a moderated polynomial regression approach

(see Lam, Lee, Taylor, & Zhao, 2018; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016). Thus, I expanded

Equation 2 to include the interactive effects of a focal person's prosocial motivation (or

W_j) such that

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu + T_k + A_{ik} + P_{jk} + D_{ijk} + \beta_1 X_{jk} + \beta_2 Z_{ik} + \beta_3 X_{jk}^2 + \beta_4 X_{jk} \times Z_{ik} \qquad (3)$$

$$+ \beta_5 Z_{ik}^2 + \beta_6 W_j + \beta_7 X_{jk} \times W_j + \beta_8 Z_{ik} \times W_j + \beta_9 X_{jk}^2 \times W_j$$

$$+ \beta_{10} X_{jk} \times Z_{ik} \times W_j + \beta_{11} Z_{ik}^2 \times W_j + C$$

where W_j represents the main effect of prosocial motivation and $X_{jk} \times W_j$, $Z_{ik} \times W_j$, $X_{jk}^2 \times W_j$, $X_{jk} \times Z_{ik} \times W_j$, and $Z_{ik}^2 \times W_j$ describe the second- and third-order polynomial terms representing the effects of leadership claiming and leadership granting conditional on prosocial motivation.

I first examined the F-statistic which indicates whether the addition of the second- and third-order polynomial interaction effects explained incremental variance. I then inspected the response surface for high (i.e., $+1$ SD) and low (i.e., $–1$ SD) values of prosocial motivation (Aiken & West, 1991). Last, I tested the first stage moderated mediation effects (Hypotheses 10 and 11) by examining the conditional indirect effects at high and low values of prosocial moderation. Again, I calculated 95% bias-corrected CIs using the MCMC method.

Results and Discussion

Table 6 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the study variables. Table 7 provides the variance estimates for team (T_k), actor (A_{ik}), target (P_{jk}), and dyadic effects (D_{ijk}) following the SRM's partitioning of variance on three levels of analysis as suggested in Equation 1 (Knight & Humphrey, 2019). As can be seen, between 20 and 56 percent of the variance in the focal variables was attributable to the dyadic level of analysis. These findings highlight the importance of testing informal leadership emergence and its consequences on the dyadic level of analysis.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the more congruent a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting, the higher the peer's backing-up behavior towards the focal person. In Model 1a, I regressed the control variables as well as the

independent variables leadership claiming (X) and leadership granting (Z) on backing-up behavior (see Table 8). In Model 1b, I introduced the second-order polynomial terms (or X^2, XZ, and Z^2). Figure 3 illustrates the response surface based on the coefficients in Model 1b. As can be seen in Table 8, the three second-order polynomial terms were marginally significant thereby suggesting that the inclusion of these three terms marginally explained incremental variance ($F = 2.60$, $p = .05$). The response surface along the incongruence line curved downward (curvature $= -0.11$, $p = .02$). When examining the response surface in Figure 3, we see that backing-up behavior is highest along the congruence line (i.e., when leadership claiming and leadership granting are aligned). In turn, any deviation from the congruence line (i.e., when leadership claiming and leadership granting are *not* aligned) is associated with lower backing-up behavior. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that backing-up behavior is lower when a focal person's leadership claiming is higher than a peer's leadership granting (i.e., overclaiming) as compared to when a peer's leadership granting is higher than a focal person's leadership claiming (i.e., underclaiming). As shown in Table 8, the slope along the incongruence line was significant (slope $= 0.30$, $p < .001$). Examining the surface in Figure 3 revealed that backing-up behavior is higher at the left corner (high leadership claiming/low leadership granting) than at the right corner (low leadership claiming/high leadership granting). These findings contradict the prediction made by Hypothesis 2 which was therefore not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the more congruent a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting, the lower the peer's social undermining towards the focal person. Model 2a in Table 8 describes the main effects of leadership claiming and granting as well as the control variables on social undermining. Model 2b includes the three second-order polynomial terms. Figure 4 illustrates the response surface based on the coefficients from Model 2b. As depicted in Table 8, the inclusion of X^2, XZ, and Z^2 did not predict incremental variance in social undermining ($F = 0.54$, $p = .66$). Similarly, the response surface was not curved along the incongruence line (curvature = 0.01, $p = .60$). Therefore, social undermining did not differ when leadership claiming and leadership granting were aligned as compared with when leadership claiming and leadership granting were misaligned. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that social undermining is higher when a focal person's leadership claiming is higher than a peer's leadership granting (i.e., overclaiming) as compared to when a peer's leadership granting is higher than a focal person's leadership claiming (i.e., underclaiming). As shown in Table 8, the slope along the incongruence line was not significant (slope = 0.02, $p = .48$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that the relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and backing-up behavior is mediated by a peer's enthusiasm towards a focal person. To test this hypothesis, I ran one model in which enthusiasm was regressed on the focal variables and control variables (Model 3 in Table 9) and one model in which backing-up behavior was regressed on these variables as well as enthusiasm (Model 5). As can be seen in Model 3b, the incongruence line had neither a significant

curvature nor slope (curvature = 0.03, p = .36, slope = –.03, p = .58). Further, enthusiasm did not significantly predict backing-up behavior in Model 5 (b = .04, p = .38). The confidence intervals of the indirect effects of the curvature and slope on backing-up behavior via enthusiasm included 0 (indirect effect $_{Curvature}$ = 0.001, 95% CI [–0.001; 0.011] and indirect effect $_{Slope}$ = –0.001, 95% CI [–0.013; 0.002], respectively). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and social undermining is mediated by a peer's anger towards a focal person. As can be seen in Table 10, the incongruence line of the response surface of Model 6b had neither a significant curvature nor slope (curvature = 0.01, p = .59, slope = 0.03, p = .40). In turn, in Model 8, anger marginally predicted social undermining but in the opposite direction (b = –0.04, p = .08). The confidence intervals of the indirect effects of the curvature and slope on social undermining via anger included 0 (indirect effect $_{Curvature}$ = –0.001, 95% CI [–0.005; 0.001] and indirect effect $_{Slope}$ = –0.001, 95% CI [–0.008; 0.001], respectively). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that the relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and backing-up behavior is mediated by a peer's respect towards a focal person. As can be seen in Table 9, the incongruence line of the response surface of Model 4b was not significantly curved (curvature = –0.01, p = .63). At the same time, the slope of the incongruence line was marginally significant (slope = –0.07, p = .08). Further, respect significantly predicted backing-up behavior but in the opposite direction (see Model 5; b = –0.12, p = .04). The confidence intervals of the indirect

effects of the curvature and slope on backing-up behavior via respect included 0 (indirect effect $_{Curvature}$ = 0.001, 95% CI [–0.002; 0.009] and indirect effect $_{Slope}$ = 0.008, 95% CI [–0.003; 0.020], respectively). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that the relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and social undermining is mediated by a peer's revenge cognitions towards a focal person. As can be seen in Table 10, the incongruence line of the response surface of Model 7b had both a significant curvature and slope (curvature = 0.03, p = .01, slope = –0.05, p = .01). However, revenge cognitions did not predict social undermining in Model 8 (b = –0.05, p = .21). The confidence intervals of the indirect effects of the curvature and slope on social undermining via revenge cognitions included 0 (indirect effect $_{Curvature}$ = –0.002, 95% CI [–0.006; 0.0005] and indirect effect $_{Slope}$ = 0.003, 95% CI [–0.001; 0.009], respectively). Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Hypothesis 9 predicted that a focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the effects of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on a peer's enthusiasm (Hypothesis 9a), anger (Hypothesis 9b), respect (Hypothesis 9c), and revenge cognitions (Hypothesis 9d) towards the focal person such that the effects are stronger when prosocial motivation is lower. To test this hypothesis, I added second- and third-order polynomial terms into the estimation equation as suggested by Equation 3. I calculated the respective slopes and curvatures of the response surfaces at high (+1 SD) and low (–1 SD) values of W (Aiken & West, 1991).

As can be seen in Model 9 in Table 11, the F-statistic for these added terms did not predict incremental variance in enthusiasm, F = 1.76, p = .12. Further, the curvature

along the incongruence line for high levels of prosocial motivation was not significantly different from 0 (curvature = 0.03; 95% CI [–0.060; 0.117]) and overlapped with the nonsignificant curvature along the incongruence line for low levels of prosocial motivation (curvature = 0.06, 95% CI [–0.063; 0.180]). Thus, Hypothesis 9a was not supported. Figure 5 depicts the response surface at high and low levels of prosocial motivation.

Turning towards Hypothesis 9b tested in Model 10, the additional polynomial terms did not predict incremental variance, $F = 0.74$, $p = .59$. Further, the curvature along the incongruence line for high levels of prosocial motivation was not significantly different from 0 (curvature = 0.03, 95% CI [–0.045; 0.096]) and overlapped with the nonsignificant curvature along the incongruence line for low levels of prosocial motivation (curvature = 0.00, 95% CI [–0.099; 0.092]). Therefore, Hypothesis 9b was not supported. Figure 6 depicts the response surface at high and low levels of prosocial motivation.

With regards to Hypothesis 9c, the F-statistic again suggested that the additional polynomial terms did not predict incremental variance, $F = 1.33$, $p = .25$. Similarly, the curvature along the incongruence line for high levels of prosocial motivation was not significantly different from 0 (curvature = –0.01, 95% CI [–0.083; 0.053]) and overlapped with the nonsignificant curvature along the incongruence line for low levels of prosocial motivation (curvature = 0.01, 95% CI [–0.083; 0.103]). Thus, Hypothesis 9c was not supported. Figure 7 depicts the response surface at high and low levels of prosocial motivation.

Last, the *F*-statistic in Model 12 suggested that the prosocial motivation altered the response surface, $F = 2.80$, $p = .02$. The curvature along the incongruence line for high levels of prosocial motivation was positive (curvature = 0.05, 95% CI [0.021; 0.087]) but overlapped with the nonsignificant curvature along the incongruence line for low levels of prosocial motivation (curvature = 0.01; 95% CI [–0.041; 0.052]). Therefore, Hypothesis 9d was not supported. Figure 8 depicts the response surface at high and low levels of prosocial motivation.

Hypothesis 10 predicted that a focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the indirect effect of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on backing-up behavior through enthusiasm (Hypothesis 10a) and respect (Hypothesis 10b) such that the conditional indirect effects are stronger when prosocial motivation is lower. To test this hypothesis, I calculated the bias-corrected 95% MCMC CIs of the indirect effects of the curvature along the incongruence line on backing-up behavior through enthusiasm and respect for high and low levels of prosocial motivation and then tested their differences. Table 12 depicts the conditional indirect effects. Again, the conditional indirect effects through enthusiasm were not significant at neither high nor low levels of prosocial motivation (indirect effect $_{High}$ = 0.001, 95% CI [–0.002; 0.012] and indirect effect $_{Low}$ = 0.002, 95% CI [–0.002; 0.019], respectively). Similarly, the difference between these conditional indirect effects was not significant (difference = –0.001, 95% CI [–0.018; 0.004]). Thus, Hypothesis 10a was not supported. Turning towards respect, the conditional indirect effects were again not significant (indirect effect $_{High}$ = 0.002, 95% CI [–0.006; 0.014] and indirect effect $_{Low}$ = –0.001, 95% CI [–0.017; 0.010],

respectively) and also did not differ (difference = 0.003, 95% CI [–0.009; 0.024]). Thus, Hypothesis 10b was not supported.

Hypothesis 11 predicted that a focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the indirect effect of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on social undermining through anger (Hypothesis 11a) and revenge cognitions (Hypothesis 11 b) such that the conditional indirect effects are stronger when prosocial motivation is lower. As can be seen in Table 12, the conditional indirect effects on social undermining through anger were not significant at neither high nor low levels of prosocial motivation (indirect effect $_{High}$ = –0.001, 95% CI [–0.007; 0.001] and indirect effect $_{Low}$ = 0.000, 95% CI [–0.004; 0.006], respectively). Further, these two effects did not differ significantly (difference = –0.001, 95% CI [–0.010; 0.003]). Thus, Hypothesis 11a was not supported. Turning towards revenge cognitions, the conditional indirect effects were not significant (indirect effect $_{High}$ = –0.002, 95% CI [–0.009; 0.001] and indirect effect $_{Low}$ = 0.000, 95% CI [–0.005; 0.002], respectively) and also did not differ (difference = –0.002, 95% CI [–0.011; 0.001]). Thus, Hypothesis 11b was not supported.

Research question. The present work also sought to shed light on the effects of team-level backing-up behavior and social undermining on team performance. To examine this research question, I aggregated backing-up behavior and social undermining to the team level given the agreement within dyads and individuals.[10] I excluded 8 teams

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[10] Within dyads, the agreement for backing-up behavior and social undermining was adequate, mean $r_{wg(j)}$ = 0.74, ICC(1) = 0.64, ICC(2) = 0.87 and mean $r_{wg(j)}$ = 0.97, ICC(1) = 0.45, ICC(2) = 0.75, respectively. Within individuals, the agreement for backing-up behavior and social undermining was again adequate, mean $_{rwg(j)}$ = 0.64, ICC(1) = 0.23, ICC(2) = 0.53 and mean $r_{wg(j)}$ = 0.99, ICC(1) = 0.37, ICC(2) = 0.69, respectively.

in which less than 70% of the team members provided ratings. I then regressed team performance on team-level backing-up behavior and team-level social undermining controlling for team size using robust standard errors. Whereas team-level backing-up behavior did not significantly predict team performance ($b = 0.26$, $p = .11$), team-level undermining did negatively impact team performance ($b = -1.45$, $p = .03$). Thus, I found support that team-level social undermining negatively influenced team performance whereas I did not find evidence that team-level backing-up behavior facilitated team performance.

Supplemental analysis 1: Distinguishing between dimensions of leadership claiming and granting. Calculating the average of leadership claiming and leadership granting may not adequately take into account that individuals differ in the extent to which they claim and grant different aspects of informal leadership. Said differently, an individual may overclaim with regards to task-oriented informal leadership whereas they may underclaim with regards to change-oriented informal leadership. Therefore, I re-ran the analyses by distinguishing between the claiming and granting of task-oriented, relationship-oriented, and change-oriented leadership behaviors. These analyses did not fundamentally change any conclusion with regards to my hypothesis testing. Figure 9 depicts the response surface for task-oriented leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behaviors. As can be seen from this figure, again, I found a congruence effect (curvature along the incongruence line = -0.08, $p = .03$), thereby providing additional support for Hypothesis 1. Furthermore, the slope of the incongruence line was not significant (slope = 0.07, $p = .26$). Figure 10 depicts the response surface for social-

oriented leadership claiming and granting. Again, the curvature along the incongruence line was significant (curvature = –0.07, p = .04). Mirroring the findings of my main analyses, the slope of the incongruence line was significant (slope = 0.30, p < .001). In turn, the response surface for change-oriented leadership claiming and granting was not significantly curved along the incongruence line (curvature = –0.05, p = .18, slope = 0.09, p = .09).

Supplemental analysis 2: Examining leadership claiming and granting at Time 2. Because the sample in the main study consisted of newly formed student teams, students may not have spent that much time collaborating at the beginning of the semester when the Time 1 data collection occurred. Hence, I re-ran my analyses using participants' ratings of leadership claiming (coefficient alpha = .88) and leadership granting (coefficient alpha = .90) at Time 2 to predict subsequent outcomes. As can be seen in Figure 11, this supplemental analysis suggested that peers experience more anger when leadership claiming is misaligned to leadership granting (curvature along the incongruence line = 0.07, p = .01). Further, anger was higher when the focal person was overclaiming relative to when they were underclaiming (slope of incongruence line = 0.10, p = .01). At the same time, anger was not associated with social undermining in the specified direction (b = –0.05, p = .05). Similarly, Figure 12 suggests that peers experienced more respect when leadership claiming and granting were aligned at Time 2. Specifically, the curvature along the incongruence line was marginally significant (curvature = –0.04, p = .07) whereas the slope of the incongruence line was significant (slope = –0.22, p < .001). However, respect was not associated with backing-up behavior

(b = –0.11, p = .06). Therefore, this supplemental analysis provided some insights into the effects of informal leadership (non)emergence on affective and cognitive responses but did not provide additional support for the mediating effects of anger and respect.

Supplemental analysis 3: Exclusion of control variables. I furthermore re-ran my analyses excluding any control variables (Breaugh, 2008; Spector & Brannick, 2011). Again, the F-statistic indicated that the polynomial terms of leadership claiming and granting explained marginal variance in backing-up behavior (F = 2.50, p = .06). Similarly, the curvature along the incongruence line was negative (curvature = –0.12, p = .02). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was again supported. Turning towards the other hypotheses, excluding the control variables did not change any of my conclusions.

Supplemental analysis 4: Inclusion of interaction effects between dyadic task interdependence and leadership claiming/granting. I also examined whether controlling for the interaction effects of dyadic task interdependence and leadership claiming/granting influenced my findings (as opposed to including only the main effect of dyadic task interdependence). Role theory suggests that individuals may be more likely to notice conflicting role performances of their interaction partners and thus experience role conflict if they work more closely together with them (Kahn et al., 1964). Therefore, dyadic task interdependence may not only directly influence subsequent outcomes (i.e., a main effect) but also influence the extent to which congruence/ incongruence in leadership claiming and granting affects subsequent outcomes (i.e., an interaction effect). Including second- and third-order interaction terms involving dyadic task interdependence, the curvature along the incongruence line of leadership claiming

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and granting predicting backing-up behavior was negative (F- statistic $= 2.27$, $p = .08$, curvature $= -0.12$, $p = .02$). However, including these additional terms did not change any of my conclusions pertaining to the remaining hypotheses.

CHAPTER 7:

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In this final chapter, I discuss the findings of my dissertation. I first provide a summary of the results of each study that I conducted. More precisely, I detail the findings of Pilot Study 1 in which I adapted and validated the scales to measure leadership claiming and granting. I then discuss Pilot Study 2 which sought to shorten established measures of key constructs in my model for the subsequent use in a round-robin study design. The third and last study, that is, the Main Study, tested my study hypotheses. Here, I offer theoretical and methodological explanations for why several hypotheses were not supported.

Subsequently, I discuss the intended theoretical implications of this dissertation by focusing on three contributions to the literature on informal leadership emergence, namely (1) shifting the consensus from the assumption that informal leadership emergence is more beneficial than nonemergence, (2) theorizing about the mediating role of specific emotions and cognitions in the relationship between informal leadership (non)emergence and subsequent outcomes, and (3) conducting a dyadic-level test of informal leadership emergence.

After these theoretical implications, I discuss the actual empirical contributions of the present work, namely (1) developing and validating a behavioral measure of leadership claiming and granting, (2) unpacking the variance in leadership claiming and granting as well as its consequences at various levels of analysis, and (3) testing the role of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior.

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I furthermore discuss three practical implications of my work namely (1) the revision of prior work's recommendation for employees to constantly seek to emerge as informal leaders, (2) the benefits associated with aligning one's role enactment with social interaction partners, and (3) the importance of aligned or misaligned role enactment in teams. I then discuss the limitations of my work that open up opportunities for future work. Here, I identify aspects relating to theory, research methodology, and findings. I end the chapter by providing an overall conclusion to this dissertation.

Summary of Results

In the course of this dissertation, I conducted three studies with different objectives. More precisely, I adapted and validated scales to capture leadership claiming and granting (Pilot Study 1), shortened established scales for measuring key variables to make them suitable for a round-robin study design (Pilot Study 2), and tested my study hypotheses in a sample of MBA work teams at two US universities (Main Study). In the following, I discuss the findings of each study separately.

Pilot Study 1. This study sought to adapt existing items from the TLQ (Morgeson et al., 2011) to capture behaviors associated with leadership claiming and granting. Based on the TLQ, I created 41 items capturing task-oriented, social-oriented, and change-oriented behaviors that reflect leadership claiming and granting. These items were tested using an online sample from Prolific. After examining participants' responses, I was able to create two six-item scales that reliably capture leadership claiming and granting. Both scales had coefficient alpha values greater than 0.80. Furthermore, I examined the scales' associations with a number of related constructs. Mirroring my expectations, I found that

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leadership claiming was associated with an individual's identification with being a leader, their motivation to lead, as well as their overall willingness to claim leadership. At the same time, leadership claiming did not significantly correlate with participants' openness to experience, conscientiousness, and neuroticism nor with gender, age, and dyadic tenure. In turn, leadership granting was negatively related to interpersonal role conflict and positively associated with leader emergence of the targeted person such that individuals grant more leadership to a person they consider an emergent leader. Mirroring my expectations, leadership granting did not correlate with personality factors and demographic information such as gender and dyadic tenure. In short, in Pilot Study 1, I was able to adapt and validate two scales capturing leadership claiming and granting as I found that the adapted items correlated with conceptually close constructs but did not correlate with distant constructs.

Pilot Study 2. The second study of my dissertation sought to shorten established scales to facilitate the round-robin study design of the Main Study. Again, I drew a sample from Prolific and asked participants to fill out established measures of dyadic task interdependence, respect, revenge cognitions, backing-up behavior, and social undermining. After examining participants' responses, I selected three items from each full measure. These shortened scales were reliable and substantially correlated with the full measures.

Main Study. In the third study, I tested my hypotheses using a round-robin study design on a sample of MBA students working in class teams. I examined how congruence/incongruence of a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership

granting influenced subsequent peer emotions and cognitions as well as peer behaviors targeted at the focal person. Whereas I found support for Hypothesis 1 that congruence in leadership claiming and granting was associated with subsequent peer backing-up behavior towards the focal person, I did not find support for the other hypotheses. Specifically, I found that a focal person who overclaimed (as opposed to underclaimed) informal leadership, received more backing-up behavior from the peer, thus contradicting Hypothesis 2. I suggest that these contradicting findings need to be considered in the light of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Specifically, when the focal person overclaims, the peer may still seek to reciprocate the focal person's engagement in structuring their work, providing support, as well as driving change—even when such informal leadership occurs against the wishes of the peer.

Similarly, I did not find the expected effect of congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on social undermining, thus failing to find support for Hypotheses 3 and 4. I acknowledge that the observability and social desirability of social undermining may have contributed to these null findings. More specifically, given that the majority of the dyads collaborated virtually, participants may not have had sufficient opportunities to experience undermining behaviors of their interaction partners. Besides, they may have felt uneasy to report such behavior towards them. As can be seen in Table 6, the mean and standard deviation of social undermining among participants was very low, $M = 1.17$, $SD = 0.64$. As a consequence, my study may have suffered from a restriction of range which reduced the statistical power to detect a significant effect of the predictors. This may have been further exacerbated by the fact that second-order

polynomial predictors are less reliable than the associated main effects of their components (Jaccard & Wan, 1995; Schwab, 2005).

Turning towards the affective pathways linking leadership claiming and granting to backing-up behavior and social undermining as predicted by Hypotheses 5 and 6, I did not find evidence for effects involving the emotions of enthusiasm and anger. Specifically, peers' enthusiasm or anger did not differ between the four forms of the focal person's informal leadership (non)emergence. Similarly, the direct effects of enthusiasm on backing-up behavior and anger on social undermining were not significant. I recognize that the temporal separation may not have been enough for the peer to develop (detectable) emotional responses in response to the focal person's informal leadership (non)emergence. More specifically, even though I aligned the study design with prior studies (e.g., Gerpott et al., 2019; Wellman et al., 2019), students in the newly formed teams may not have immediately started their project work. Thus, the team members may have had fewer dyadic interactions leading up to the first survey. At the same time, the zero effect of anger on social undermining represents an empirical puzzle given the robust effects of anger on counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Ferris et al., 2016). On the one hand, the low base rate of social undermining may have obfuscated potential relationships. On the other hand, the virtual nature of the collaboration between a focal person and a peer may have provided peers with the opportunity to withdraw from their interactions as opposed to confronting the focal person's conflicting role enactment (Kahn et al., 1964). As a result, a focal person may not experience more social

undermining from the peer because the peer seeks to withdraw from the focal person and thus has fewer interactions less with the focal person.

I also did not find support for respect and revenge cognitions as mechanisms of the effect of leadership claiming and granting on the peer's behavioral responses as suggested by Hypotheses 7 and 8. More precisely, the congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting was not associated with respect. However, respect was linked to subsequent backing-up behavior in the opposite direction that I had predicted. In fact, higher levels of respect resulted in lower levels of backing-up behavior. This finding, namely that peers may be hesitant to help out the colleagues whom they respect is interesting because it runs counter to predictions of role theory and social exchange theory (e.g., Boezeman & Ellemers, 2007; Ng, 2016). Similarly, I did not find evidence for my predictions regarding the effect of informal leadership (non)emergence on revenge cognitions. Again, I suggest that the low base rate of revenge cognitions may obfuscate potential relationships, $M = 1.04$, $SD = 0.41$ (see Table 6). The fact that I did not observe any substantive variance in revenge cognitions may have furthermore contributed to the nonsignificant relationship between revenge cognitions and social undermining even though such an effect has been suggested in the literature (Douglas, Kiewitz, Martinko, Harvey, Younhee, & Jae, 2008; Douglas & Martinko, 2001).

Turning towards the potential moderating influence of prosocial motivation, I did not find that the inclusion of the respective interaction terms explained additional variance in enthusiasm, anger, and respect. Again, the fact that the majority of dyads were collaborating virtually may have influenced the observability of interaction partners.

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In this case, the peer may not have noticed the prosocial motivation of the focal person. As a consequence, the peer could be less attuned to the underlying motivation of the focal person that would otherwise influence the peer's responses. However, I did find that prosocial motivation interacted with the congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on revenge cognitions. More precisely, when prosocial motivation is high, there seems to be a positive main effect of leadership granting on revenge cognitions (see Figure 8a) that disappears when prosocial motivation is low (see Figure 8b). However, I suggest that these findings need to be interpreted with caution given the mean and variance of prosocial motivation (i.e., $M = 6.33$, $SD = 0.68$ in Table 6). More specifically, individuals from the present sample with *high* values of prosocial motivation may in fact represent *extreme* cases of prosocial motivation given that they would score a value of 7.01 on a 1 through 7 scale. Such ratings may be the result of inflated self-perceptions which have been shown to result in submissive peer responses (i.e., leadership granting) but may also produce negative cognitions (Grijalva et al., 2015).

Last, I was not able to conclusively answer my research questions. Whereas team-level social undermining did in fact have a negative effect on team performance, the coefficient for backing-up behavior was positive yet not significant. I suggest that the small number of eligible teams (i.e., $N = 58$) reduced the statistical power for this analysis.

Theoretical Implications

The first intended theoretical contribution of this dissertation is to shift the consensus in the literature regarding the outcomes of informal leadership emergence.

Whereas prior work has emphasized positive outcomes following informal leadership emergence and negative outcomes following informal leadership nonemergence, I propose a focus on the consequences of alignment versus misalignment in leadership claiming and granting. More specifically, I argue that positive outcomes such as more cooperative and less destructive behaviors follow when leadership claiming and granting are aligned—either at low levels or high levels. In turn, I propose that less cooperative and more destructive behaviors occur when leadership claiming and granting are misaligned. Thus, an individual who overclaims (i.e., claims more leadership than the peer grants them) may receive less backing-up behavior and more social undermining than an individual who claims as much (or as little) as the peer grants—thus congruence at low levels is better than overclaiming in terms of receiving peer backing-up behavior and peer social undermining. More generally, my work suggests that the assumption of prior research that informal leadership emergence is *always* better than nonemergence needs to be called into question.

Second, by integrating the leadership identity claiming and granting framework and role theory, my theorizing attempts to shed light on how informal leadership (non)emergence can shape interpersonal dynamics through different emotions and cognitions. More precisely, in line with the predictions of role theory, I propose that a focal person's informal leadership (non)emergence is associated with a peer's experience of enthusiasm and anger as two affective consequences as well as respect and revenge cognitions as two cognitive consequences. Further, I elaborate on how these affective and cognitive consequences subsequently may facilitate backing-up behavior and social

undermining. In doing so, this dissertation seeks to explicate how forms of informal leadership (non)emergence can affect individual- and team-level outcomes, thus allowing for a closer examination of its consequences. Even though my empirical evidence remains inconclusive regarding the effects of leadership claiming and granting on these affective and cognitive mechanisms, my theorizing provides a roadmap for studying the proximal and distal interpersonal consequences of informal leadership emergence and nonemergence. More broadly, the present research suggests that scholarly attention should be paid to the interpersonal responses to leadership claiming and granting.

The third and final intended theoretical implication of my dissertation is the advancement of the dyadic conceptualization of informal leadership emergence. Whereas DeRue and colleagues (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009) provide the theoretical foundation for examining the interplay between a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting, the present work tests and extends their work. More precisely, I implement their idea of leadership emergence occurring within dyads. In doing so, I extend prior empirical work which has assumed a homogeneous emergence process and thus ignored relational conceptualizations of informal leadership. Thus, the present work paves the way for future examinations into the dynamics of informal leadership emergence occurring at the dyadic level.

Empirical Implications

Despite the lack of support for my hypotheses, my dissertation makes a number of empirical contributions that may facilitate subsequent research on informal leadership emergence. First, I develop and validate a measure of leadership claiming and granting.

In doing so, I propose a behavioral operationalization of the leadership identity claiming and granting framework (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009) and offer two scales to reliably assess the extent to which individuals claim and grant leadership. By distinguishing between task-, social-, and change-oriented leadership claiming and granting, I introduce further nuance to the initial conceptualization.

Second, my work helps unpack the phenomenon of informal leadership emergence by attributing variance components to different levels of analysis. By finding that between 20 and 25 percent of the variance in leadership claiming and granting is on the dyadic level of analysis, my work emphasizes the need to examine informal leadership emergence using relational conceptualizations. Similarly, the fact that after taking into account individual differences, dyadic interactions explain the most variance in emotions and cognitions as well as behaviors underlines the need for close examinations of dyadic interactions in this context.

Third, my findings regarding the effect of congruence versus incongruence in leadership claiming and granting on backing-up behavior provide initial support for my theorizing suggesting that nonemergence can result in similar outcomes than emergence. More precisely, I find that when a focal person over- or underclaimed, they received less backing-up behavior than when they and their peer sought to (not) emerge as an informal leader. Even though I did not find these congruence/incongruence effects on social undermining, it is noteworthy that I did *not* find evidence for a main effect of leadership claiming on social undermining (or backing-up behavior for that matter) either as suggested by past work (Taggar et al. 1999; Zhang et al., 2012). In sum, my empirical

findings offer a new path forward to examining the consequences of informal leadership emergence.

Practical Implications

Furthermore, my work has several practical implications. First, my theorizing, as well as the empirical evidence, suggests that the recommendation of prior research—that individuals should always seek to emerge as informal leaders within their teams (e.g., Taggar et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2012)—may need to be revised, at least for backing-up behavior. Instead, I argue that at times *not* emerging as an informal leader may result in similarly positive outcomes than emerging as an informal leader, such that dyadic leadership absence and dyadic emergent leadership have similar outcomes. This is in line with past work suggesting that at times ineffective team members emerge as informal leaders (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015). However, the present work further emphasizes peers' responses to prevent or rectify such situations. Along those lines, the empirical results of my Main Study support the expectation that nonemergence may result in similar levels of backing-up behavior than emergence. Moreover, I find that when an individual seeks to emerge as an informal leader against the will of a peer (i.e., they overclaim), they receive less backing-up behavior than when the focal person and peer agree that the focal person should not emerge (i.e., dyadic leadership absence). These findings are in line with past work suggesting that individuals who behave counter to the expectations of their teammates are met with dislike (Anderson, Ames, & Gosling, 2008). Thus, the current work demonstrates that individuals should not always seek to emerge as an informal leader at all costs, thus calling previous conclusions into question.

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Second, by utilizing a role theory perspective to examine informal leadership emergence at the dyadic level, this dissertation suggests that individuals should pay attention to adapting their role enactment to match the role expectations of their interaction partner. In fact, the present work suggests that the individuals whose leadership claiming matches the leadership granting of their interaction partner benefit more than the individuals whose leadership claiming mismatches the leadership granting of their peer. Specifically, my theorizing, as well as my empirical evidence, suggests that individuals receive more helping behavior from the peer if their leadership claiming is aligned to their leadership granting than when their role enactments are misaligned. Therefore, ensuring that one's engagement in informal leadership is aligned with the desire of one's interaction partner can result in receiving more support (and potentially less interference) from said interaction partner. By offering a measure of leadership claiming and granting, the present work further enables the assessment of the extent to which team members engage and request informal leadership from other team members. Thus, organizational practitioners may use the present work when designing personnel development strategies.

Third, this study has practical implications for the team context. On the surface, I found that team-level social undermining negatively impacts team performance whereas I did not find evidence that team-level backing-up behavior positively influences team performance. Thus, team leaders may want to keep members of their team from socially undermining their colleagues. At the same time, my theoretical emphasis on interpersonal role conflict as a consequence of misaligned role expectations may be similarly insightful

for both formal and informal team leaders. Specifically, my empirical evidence suggests that team members' misaligned role enactment—in the present case, leadership claiming and granting—may influence team members' behaviors. Therefore, teams may mitigate members' potentially undermining behaviors—if team members' role enactment is compatible with the role expectations of the other team members. Thus, setting clear expectations and ensuring that team members understand and share these expectations regarding each member's role(s) may facilitate subsequent team processes.

Limitations and Future Research

Like all research, the present work has limitations that point towards opportunities for future research. First of all, the sample for the Main Study consisted of MBA students from two US universities which may reduce the generalizability of my findings to other work contexts. Even though student work teams are commonly used in management research (e.g., De Jong & Dirks, 2012; Dineen, Noe, Shaw, Duffy, & Wiethoff, 2007; Duffy et al., 2012; Mathieu, Kukenberger, D'Innocenzo, & Reilly, 2015; Mathieu & Schulze, 2006; Sinha, Janardhanan, Greer, Conlon, & Edwards, 2016), their use for the examination of interpersonal dynamics related to informal leadership emergence may suffer from a few issues. For example, in the present case, students may not have interacted as much with each other at the beginning of the data collection because they may have postponed their project-related work until later in the semester. As a consequence, students may not have had many opportunities to engage in leadership claiming or granting in the two weeks leading up to the Time 1 survey. At the same time, my supplemental analyses showed that leadership claiming and granting measured in the

Time 2 survey did not substantively alter my conclusions. As such, other contextual factors such as issues associated with the COVID-19 pandemic may have also contributed to the lack of findings. However, future research should examine the dynamics involving informal leadership emergence using field samples from contexts other than student teams.

Further, the theorizing in this dissertation did not explicitly incorporate the virtual work environment for most study participants. Even though I sought to control for differences with regards to the nature of dyadic interactions—that is whether two team members primarily collaborated in-person, half in-person half virtually, or exclusively virtually—my theorizing did not consider how the virtual nature of such interactions may impact participants' role enactment and experience of role conflict. However, I submit that informal leadership emergence and the postulated mechanisms linking the four forms of (non)emergence to peer behaviors may operate differently for virtual as opposed to in-person dyads. More precisely, individuals may be unsure about the role expectations within their work team as they shift between different work and social roles when working remotely (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). These other roles may influence individuals' expectations towards their own role enactment as well as the expected role enactment of their interaction partner. Therefore, the salience and accessibility of other roles may influence perceptions of role conflict. To advance theory regarding informal leadership emergence in virtual teams as well as contribute to role theory, future research should therefore include the mode of interaction in their theorizing. Such work could furthermore directly compare the dynamics of the different forms of informal leadership

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(non)emergence between virtual and traditional teams.

Another limitation of the present work is the fact that it examined between-dyad differences in leadership claiming and granting and thus cannot speak to within-dyad changes or trajectories. Said differently, by capturing whether a focal person overclaimed or underclaimed in relation to a particular peer, my dissertation argues that individuals differ in the extent to which they (versus others) emerge as leaders for a given peer. However, my work cannot speak to how an individual may receive more/less backing-up behavior and social undermining from that particular peer if they start (mis)aligning their leadership claiming to the peer's leadership granting. Examining such within-dyad differences or dyadic informal leadership (non)emergence trajectories may help uncover how this process occurs over time (Gerpott et al., 2019). Such research could furthermore examine the unique consequences associated with moving between different forms of informal leadership (non)emergence. For instance, one may expect more positive and less negative outcomes when a focal person moves from conditions of incongruence (e.g., overclaiming) to conditions of congruence (e.g., dyadic leadership absence) whereas moving from dyadic leadership emergence to overclaiming may result in particular backlash from peers (see also Burgoon, 1993; Burgoon & Le Poire, 1993).

Last, it should be emphasized that most of my study hypotheses were not supported. Even though I sought to shed light at the beginning of this chapter on the reasons for not finding empirical support, I am cognizant that the empirical evidence for my theorizing remains scarce. I submit that not finding support for my hypotheses should not be equated with the falsification of my theorizing. In fact, the absence of the

postulated effects may only be one explanation for the lack of support. Other reasons may include undiscovered contingency effects and countervailing mediating mechanisms that mask relationships as well as a restriction of range reducing the statistical power to detect such relationships Therefore, I encourage future research to build on this dissertation's theorizing despite the lack of empirical support that I received from my sample of MBA teams collaborating predominately virtually during an ongoing pandemic.

Conclusion

This dissertation sought to uncover how and when dyadic-level informal leadership (non)emergence influences interpersonal processes. By drawing from the leadership identity claiming and granting framework as well as role theory, I shed light on the building blocks of informal leadership emergence and postulate four distinct forms of emergence and nonemergence. Taking a dyadic approach, I build theory on how congruence in leadership claiming and granting may result in constructive peer responses through a peer's experience of enthusiasm and respect. I further propose that forms of incongruence may result in destructive peer responses through anger and revenge cognitions. Testing my hypotheses using a sample of MBA teams provided only weak support for my predictions. This dissertation puts a spotlight on the dyadic processes surrounding informal leadership emergence and calls for further empirical examinations into its dynamics and consequences.

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Table 1. Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1	The more congruent a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting, the higher the peer's backing-up behavior towards the focal person.
Hypothesis 2	Backing-up behavior is lower when a focal person's leadership claiming is higher than a peer's leadership granting (i.e., overclaiming) as compared to when a peer's leadership granting is higher than a focal person's leadership claiming (i.e., underclaiming).
Hypothesis 3	The more congruent a focal person's leadership claiming and a peer's leadership granting, the lower the peer's social undermining towards the focal person.
Hypothesis 4	Social undermining is higher when a focal person's leadership claiming is higher than a peer's leadership granting (i.e., overclaiming) as compared to when a peer's leadership granting is higher than a focal person's leadership claiming (i.e., underclaiming).
Hypothesis 5	The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and backing-up behavior is mediated by a peer's enthusiasm towards a focal person.
Hypothesis 6	The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and social undermining is mediated by a peer's anger towards a focal person.
Hypothesis 7	The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and backing-up behavior is mediated by a peer's respect towards a focal person.
Hypothesis 8	The relationship between congruence/incongruence in leadership claiming/granting and social undermining is mediated by a peer's revenge cognitions towards a focal person.
Hypothesis 9	A focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the effects of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on a peer's (a) enthusiasm, (b) anger, (c) respect, and (d) revenge cognitions towards the focal person such that the effects are stronger when prosocial motivation is lower.

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Hypothesis 10	A focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the indirect effect of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on backing-up behavior through (a) enthusiasm and (b) respect such that the conditional indirect effect is stronger when prosocial motivation is lower.
Hypothesis 11	A focal person's prosocial motivation moderates the indirect effect of congruence (versus incongruence) in leadership claiming/granting on social undermining through (a) anger and (b) revenge cognitions such that the conditional indirect effect is stronger when prosocial motivation is lower.
Research question	Do team-level backing-up behavior and social undermining predict team performance?

Table 2. Results of Adapted Items to Assess
Leadership Claiming and Granting (Pilot Study 1)

Item	Loading	Item-Rest Correlation	Item-Deleted Coefficient Alpha
Leadership claiming			
Task-oriented leadership behaviors			
1. I defined and structured the work for [team member].	.87	.83	.88
2. I identified key aspects of the work that [team member] has to complete.	.86	.82	.88
3. I clarified task performance strategies for [team member].	.87	.81	.89
4. I made sure that [team member] has a clear role.	.81	.77	.90
Social-oriented leadership behaviors			
5. I responded to [team member]'s needs or concerns.	.66	.61	.83
6. I did things to make it pleasant for [team member] to be a team member.	.68	.65	.81
7. I looked out for the personal well-being of [team member].	.84	.74	.77
8. I ensured the personal welfare of [team member].	.84	.71	.78
Change-oriented leadership behaviors			
9. I challenged the status quo of [team member]'s work.	.64	.56	.84
10. I suggested to [team member] new ways of looking at how to complete his/her work.	.84	.72	.68
11. I contributed ideas to [team member] to improve how [team member] performs his/her work.	.84	.71	.69
Leadership granting			
Task-oriented leadership behaviors			
1. I asked [team member] to define and structure my work.	.90	.87	.95
2. I relied on [team member] to define and structure my work.	.90	.87	.95
3. I acknowledged that [team member] defines and structures my work.	.88	.85	.95
4. I turned to [team member] to learn about key aspects of the work that I need to complete.	.74	.73	.96
5. I counted on [team member] to identify key aspects of the work that I need to complete.	.80	.79	.95
6. I approached [team member] about task performance strategies.	.77	.77	.95
7. I followed [team member]'s task performance strategies.	.79	.78	.95
8. I used task performance strategies provided to me by [team member].	.82	.82	.95
9. I asked [team member] to clarify my role.	.85	.82	.95
10. I relied on [team member] to clarify my role.	.88	.85	.95
Social-oriented leadership behaviors			

11. I reached out to [team member] regarding my needs or concerns.	.82	.79	.95
12. I turned to [team member] regarding my needs or concerns.	.83	.80	.95
13. I counted on [team member] to respond to my needs and concerns.	.79	.77	.95
14. I asked [team member] to make it pleasant for me to be a team member.	.70	.68	.95
15. I relied on [team member] to make it pleasant for me to be a team member.	.77	.76	.95
16. I wanted [team member] to make it pleasant for me to be a team member.	.63	.61	.95
17. I brought up issues about my personal well-being to [team member].	.78	.76	.95
18. I acknowledged that [team member] looks out for my personal well-being.	.82	.79	.95
19. I asked [team member] to ensure my personal welfare.	.77	.75	.95
20. I accepted that [team member] ensures my personal welfare.	.83	.80	.95
21. I relied on [team member] to ensure my personal welfare.	.84	.82	.94
22. I considered [team member] to ensure my personal welfare.	.85	.82	.94
Change-oriented leadership behaviors			
23. I turned to [team member] to challenge the status quo of my work.	.77	.75	.94
24. I accepted it when [team member] challenges the status quo of my work.	.77	.76	.94
25. I considered it when [team member] challenges the status quo of my work.	.81	.80	.94
26. I turned to [team member] for new ways of looking at how to complete my work.	.82	.78	.94
27. I considered suggestions by [team member] how to complete my work.	.86	.82	.94
28. I accepted suggestions by [team member] how to complete my work.	.88	.85	.94
29. I asked [team member] to contribute ideas to improve how I perform my work.	.84	.80	.94
30. I attended to [team member]'s ideas to improve how I perform my work.	.88	.84	.94

Note. Bolded items were retained for the final leadership claiming and granting scales. Standardized loadings are provided.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Coefficient Alphas Among Study Variables (Pilot Study 1)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Leadership claiming	4.57	1.36	(.87)							
2 Leadership granting	3.77	1.43	.27**	(.88)						
3 Leader emergence	3.84	1.80	.08	.60**	(.96)					
4 Interpersonal role conflict	2.21	1.16	-.15*	-.30**	-.40**	(.93)				
5 Identification with being a leader	3.94	1.61	.59**	.02	-.03	-.09	(.84)			
6 Willingness to claim leadership	5.74	0.97	.24**	-.07	.04	-.10	.42**	(.92)		
7 Willingness to grant leadership	5.91	0.72	-.03	.04	.14*	-.29**	-.06	.13	(.90)	
8 Motivation to lead	4.91	0.89	.28**	.02	.09	-.07	.46**	.70**	-.03	(.81)
9 Sense of power	4.97	0.89	.16*	-.10	-.03	-.10	.25**	.57**	.06	.44**
10 Desire of control	4.38	1.21	.20**	.14*	.03	.06	.31**	.42**	-.18**	.50**
11 Openness to experience	5.23	1.22	.02	.10	.09	-.05	.01	.02	.05	.08
12 Conscientiousness	5.22	1.01	.11	-.10	.00	-.04	.17*	.45**	.07	.46**
13 Extraversion	3.80	1.38	.18*	.13	.11	-.05	.11	.42**	-.07	.44**
14 Agreeableness	5.41	1.10	.17*	.09	.21**	-.15*	.11	.19**	.19**	.29**
15 Neuroticism	3.58	1.16	-.07	.02	-.04	.13	-.03	-.20**	-.20**	-.22**
16 Proactive personality	5.23	0.92	.30**	.15*	.20**	-.13	.29**	.61**	.01	.52**
17 Gender	1.63	0.48	.09	.04	-.11	.02	.10	.00	-.12	-.05
18 Age	32.37	8.99	-.01	-.22**	-.08	.07	.10	.16*	-.03	.08
19 Dyadic tenure	2.85	3.83	.06	.10	.07	-.03	.05	-.03	-.07	-.02

Note. $N = 398$. The final measures for leadership claiming and leadership granting are provided. Gender was measured as 1 = man, 2 = woman. Coefficient alphas are provided in parentheses on the diagonal. Significance levels are adjusted to reflect data nestedness.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 3 continued

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
9 Sense of power	(.85)									
10 Desire of control	.34**	(.82)								
11 Openness to experience	.01	.09	(.81)							
12 Conscientiousness	.41**	.19**	.03	(.57)						
13 Extraversion	.37**	.38**	.10	.24**	(.83)					
14 Agreeableness	.06	-.02	.30**	.14*	.27**	(.81)				
15 Neuroticism	-.31**	.04	-.05	-.27**	-.18*	-.09	(.66)			
16 Proactive personality	.52**	.44**	.23**	.45**	.44**	.20**	-.25**	(.91)		
17 Gender	-.11	.14*	.10	-.09	-.04	-.14*	-.05	.00		
18 Age	.14*	-.08	-.10	.04	.01	.06	-.12	-.03	.08	
19 Dyadic tenure	-.05	-.04	-.09	-.01	-.03	-.04	-.06	.03	.12	.36**

Note. $N = 398$. The final measures for leadership claiming and leadership granting are provided. Gender was measured as $1 =$ man, $2 =$ woman. Coefficient alphas are provided in parentheses on the diagonal. Significance levels are adjusted to reflect data nestedness.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 4. Results of χ^2 Difference Tests Between Leadership Claiming, Leadership Granting, and Related Constructs (Pilot Study 1)

Measurement models	Three-factor model				One-factor model				Difference in χ^2
	χ^2	*df*	CFI	SRMR	χ^2	*df*	CFI	SRMR	
1 Leader emergence	225.31	98	.97	.07	Model did not converge				—
2 Interpersonal role conflict	177.66	69	.96	.07	668.82	72	.78	.20	318.08**
3 Identification with being a leader	183.44	69	.96	.07	538.74	72	.82	.18	357.86**
4 Willingness to claim leadership	259.52	131	.95	.05	673.97	134	.80	.17	810.85**
5 Willingness to grant leadership	241.32	131	.96	.05	750.31	134	.79	.18	360.76**
6 Motivation to lead	582.51	188	.87	.09	1,017.13	191	.73	.17	539.95**
7 Sense of power	381.01	149	.91	.08	871.53	152	.73	.18	856.29**
8 Desire of control	117.60	69	.98	.06	642.51	72	.75	.20	581.88**
9 Openness to experience	227.56	83	.94	.06	792.06	86	.69	.21	1,165.14**
10 Conscientiousness	163.37	83	.96	.07	480.99	86	.81	.12	571.61**
11 Extraversion	149.73	83	.97	.06	668.26	86	.75	.19	634.49**
12 Agreeableness	178.52	83	.96	.06	706.66	86	.74	.20	676.31**
13 Neuroticism	142.54	83	.97	.06	575.67	86	.77	.13	858.17**
14 Proactive personality	390.70	188	.93	.05	811.74	191	.79	.14	436.76**

Note. $N = 398$. All measurement models include leadership claiming and leadership granting as well as the specified construct. Residuals within a dimension of leadership claiming and granting (i.e., task-oriented, social-oriented, and change-oriented leadership) were allowed to covary. Differences in χ^2 were calculated using the formula provided by Satorra and Bentler (2010).
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Coefficient Alphas Among Study Variables (Pilot Study 2)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Dyadic task interdependence	4.88	1.27	(.79)					
2 Dyadic task interdependence (S)	4.70	1.43	.96**	(.81)				
3 Respect	5.36	1.23	.29**	.25**	(.93)			
4 Respect (S)	5.57	1.24	.26**	.22**	.96**	(.91)		
5 Revenge cognitions	1.63	0.86	-.03	-.03	.05	-.01	(.65)	
6 Revenge cognitions (S)	1.23	0.69	-.13	-.10	-.08	-.13	.78**	(.81)
7 Backing-up behavior	3.45	1.62	.31**	.32**	.50**	.47**	.18*	.17*
8 Backing-up behavior (S)	3.40	1.68	.28**	.29**	.50**	.47**	.17*	.16*
9 Social undermining	1.28	0.57	.00	.05	-.24**	-.25**	.48**	.63**
10 Social undermining (S)	1.29	0.68	.01	.07	-.23**	-.24**	.47**	.62**
11 Gender	1.66	0.48	-.02	-.01	-.12	-.11	.19*	.16*
12 Age	33.03	7.93	.01	.02	-.21*	-.27**	-.12	-.12

Note. N = 151. Shortened measures are indicated with (S). Gender was measured as 1 = man, 2 = woman. Coefficient alphas are provided in parentheses on the diagonal. $^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 5 continued

Variable	7	8	9	10	11
7 Backing-up behavior	(.92)				
8 Backing-up behavior (S)	.98**	(.90)			
9 Social undermining	.07	.06	(.94)		
10 Social undermining (S)	.09	.09	.96**	(.84)	
11 Gender	.01	.01	.08	.07	
12 Age	-.30**	-.31**	-.09	-.11	.11

Note. *N* = 151. Shortened measures are indicated with (S). Gender was measured as 1 = man, 2 = woman. Coefficient alphas are provided in parentheses on the diagonal. $^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ (two-tailed).

**Table 6. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Coefficient Alphas
Among Study Variables (Main Study)**

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Leadership claiming	4.17	1.22	(.87)	.84**	.19	.16	.12	.26*	.28*	.33**
2 Leadership granting	3.90	1.28	.13**	(.88)	.31*	.29*	-.04	.36**	.21	.29*
3 Prosocial motivation	6.33	0.68	.18**	.04	(.90)	.28*	.01	.26*	.06	.12
4 Enthusiasm	5.63	1.40	.06	.22**	.06	(.96)	-.41**	.68**	-.08	.27*
5 Anger	1.41	0.88	.04	-.06	.00	-.40**	(.92)	-.43**	.53**	.02
6 Respect	6.28	1.08	.04	.21**	.02	.62**	-.41**	(.90)	-.08	.13
7 Revenge cognitions	1.04	0.41	.02	.09**	.04	-.02	.25**	-.06	(.97)	.07
8 Backing-up behavior	3.89	1.98	.21**	.01	.10**	.07*	.01	.00	.03	(.96)
9 Social undermining	1.17	0.64	.10**	.03	-.05	-.04	.01	-.01	.00	-.04
10 Liking	5.85	1.18	.08*	.31**	.07*	.54**	-.28**	.44**	-.03	.10**
11 Dyadic task interdependence	4.60	1.45	.05	.28**	.04	.21**	-.07*	.16**	.04	.02
12 Gender similarity	0.51	0.50	.03	.00	-.05	-.02	.02	.00	.01	-.03
13 Age similarity	4.13	3.83	-.03	-.03	.03	.00	-.01	-.05	-.02	-.05
14 Ethnic similarity	0.38	0.49	-.07*	-.01	.03	.05	-.07*	.05	-.02	.06
15 Virtual working	2.73	0.56	.04	-.02	.04	-.07*	-.07*	-.02	-.01	-.11**
16 Team performance	4.37	1.69								
17 Team size	5.12	0.64								

Note. $N = 972$ for dyadic-level correlations (below diagonal) and $N = 66$ for team-level correlations (above diagonal). Coefficient alphas are provided in parentheses on the diagonal.
 * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 6 continued

Variable	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1 Leadership claiming	.25*	.30*	.32**	-.07	-.01	-.23	.12	-.07	.18
2 Leadership granting	.14	.37**	.39**	-.11	.06	-.19	.15	.00	.21
3 Prosocial motivation	.04	.37**	.16	.02	.03	.08	.18	-.03	-.01
4 Enthusiasm	-.13	.59**	.20	-.01	.11	.18	-.13	.24	.10
5 Anger	.56**	-.22	-.04	-.07	-.23	-.02	-.22	-.11	-.38**
6 Respect	-.12	.51**	.20	-.07	.06	.15	.04	.37	.10
7 Revenge cognitions	.64**	.06	.16	-.07	-.07	-.14	.02	.02	-.02
8 Backing-up behavior	.11	.28*	.18	.11	-.09	.23	-.22	.10	.13
9 Social undermining	(.89)	-.08	.08	-.06	-.15	-.02	-.19	-.09	-.18
10 Liking	-.04		.11	.04	-.02	.10	-.03	.13	.11
11 Dyadic task interdependence	.04	.18**	(.85)	.05	.28*	.14	.04	.00	.11
12 Gender similarity	.00	-.02	-.02		.08	.31*	.01	-.10	.19
13 Age similarity	.00	-.11**	.06	-.04		-.02	.28*	-.01	.20
14 Ethnic similarity	-.03	.01	.08**	-.04	-.04		-.43**	.08	-.08
15 Virtual working	-.04	-.03	-.03	.07*	.13**	-.23**		-.11	.28*
16 Team performance								(.98)	-.11
17 Team size									

Note. $N = 972$ for dyadic-level correlations (below diagonal) and $N = 66$ for team-level correlations (above diagonal). Coefficient alphas are provided in parentheses on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

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Table 7. Variance Partitioning of Study Variables (Main Study)

Variable	Team variance (T_k)	Actor variance (A_{ik})	Target variance (P_{jk})	Dyadic variance (D_{ijk})
Leadership claiming	7.1%	2.0%	70.8%	20.1%
Leadership granting	0.0%	67.4%	8.1%	24.5%
Enthusiasm	3.3%	47.1%	11.3%	38.4%
Anger	0.9%	24.3%	29.2%	45.7%
Respect	3.3%	50.3%	14.8%	31.6%
Revenge cognitions	0.0%	43.1%	0.9%	56.0%
Backing-up behavior	12.4%	9.0%	52.8%	25.8%
Social undermining	8.1%	5.9%	48.1%	37.9%

Note. $N = 972$ directed dyads within 279 individuals within 66 teams. Actor variance represents the variance attributed to the peer. Target variance represents the variance attributed to the focal person.
[*] $p < .05$ [**] $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 8. Results of Social Relations Model Analyses for Backing-up Behavior and Social Undermining (Main Study)

Variable	Backing-up behavior		Social undermining	
	Model 1a	Model 1b	Model 2a	Model 2b
Leadership claiming (X)	0.21** (0.06)	0.22** (0.06)	0.02 (0.02)	0.02 (0.02)
Leadership granting (Z)	-0.07 (0.04)	-0.09* (0.04)	0.00 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)
X^2		-0.03 (0.03)		0.01 (0.01)
XZ		0.07** (0.03)		0.00 (0.01)
Z^2		-0.01 (0.02)		0.00 (0.01)
Prosocial motivation	0.24 (0.14)	0.27 (0.14)	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.05)
Liking	0.10* (0.04)	0.10* (0.04)	-0.04* (0.02)	-0.04* (0.02)
Dyadic task interdependence	0.07 (0.04)	0.07 (0.04)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Gender similarity	-0.06 (0.09)	-0.05 (0.08)	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.03 (0.04)
Age similarity	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Ethnic similarity	0.30** (0.11)	0.29** (0.11)	-0.08* (0.04)	-0.08 (0.04)
Virtual working	-0.43** (0.13)	-0.42** (0.13)	-0.01 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.05)
Intercept	3.69** (0.14)	3.73** (0.15)	1.23** (0.05)	1.21** (0.05)
F-statistic for X^2, XZ, and Z^2		2.60		0.54
Congruence (X = Z) Line				
Slope		0.13 (0.07)		0.02 (0.03)
Curvature		0.03 (0.04)		0.01 (0.02)
Incongruence (X = –Z) Line				
Slope		0.30** (0.07)		0.02 (0.03)
Curvature		-0.11* (0.05)		0.01 (0.02)

Note. N = 972 dyads. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors (*SEs*, in parentheses) are depicted.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

**Table 9. Results of Social Relations Model Analyses
for Mediated Effects on Backing-up Behavior (Main Study)**

Variable	Enthusiasm		Respect		Backing-up behavior
	Model 3a	Model 3b	Model 4a	Model 4b	Model 5
Leadership claiming (X)	0.01 (0.03)	0.01 (0.03)	0.00 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)	0.22** (0.06)
Leadership granting (Z)	0.03 (0.04)	0.04 (0.04)	0.07* (0.03)	0.07* (0.03)	-0.08 (0.04)
X^2		0.01 (0.02)		0.00 (0.01)	-0.03 (0.03)
XZ		0.00 (0.02)		0.00 (0.02)	0.07** (0.03)
Z^2		0.02 (0.02)		-0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.02)
Prosocial motivation	0.03 (0.05)	0.03 (0.05)	0.01 (0.04)	0.01 (0.04)	0.26 (0.14)
Liking	0.54** (0.03)	0.54** (0.03)	0.32** (0.03)	0.32** (0.03)	0.11* (0.05)
Dyadic task interdependence	0.12** (0.03)	0.12** (0.03)	0.08** (0.02)	0.08** (0.03)	0.07 (0.04)
Gender similarity	-0.01 (0.07)	-0.02 (0.07)	0.02 (0.05)	0.02 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.08)
Age similarity	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Ethnic similarity	0.08 (0.08)	0.09 (0.08)	0.05 (0.06)	0.05 (0.06)	0.29** (0.11)
Virtual working	-0.10 (0.09)	-0.10 (0.09)	-0.01 (0.07)	-0.01 (0.07)	-0.43** (0.13)
Enthusiasm					0.04 (0.05)
Anger					-0.05 (0.06)
Respect					-0.12* (0.06)
Revenge cognitions					0.15 (0.11)
Intercept	5.59** (0.07)	5.53** (0.08)	6.28** (0.06)	6.29** (0.07)	4.15** (0.42)
F-statistic for X^2, XZ, and Z^2		0.85		0.11	
Congruence (X = Z) Line					
Slope		0.05 (0.05)		0.07 (0.04)	
Curvature		0.04 (0.03)		0.00 (0.02)	
Incongruence (X = –Z) Line					
Slope		-0.03 (0.05)		-0.07 (0.04)	
Curvature		0.03 (0.04)		-0.01 (0.03)	

Note. $N = 972$ dyads. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors (*SEs*, in parentheses) are depicted.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 10. Results of Social Relations Model Analyses for Mediated Effects on Social Undermining (Main Study)

Variable	Anger		Revenge cognitions		Social undermining
	Model 6a	Model 6b	Model 7a	Model 7b[1]	Model 8
Leadership claiming (X)	0.04 (0.03)	0.05 (0.03)	0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	0.02 (0.02)
Leadership granting (Z)	0.00 (0.03)	0.01 (0.03)	0.03* (0.01)	0.05** (0.01)	0.00 (0.02)
X^2		0.01 (0.01)		0.00 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
XZ		0.01 (0.02)		0.00 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Z^2		0.02 (0.01)		0.03** (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
Prosocial motivation	0.01 (0.05)	0.01 (0.05)	0.02 (0.02)	0.02 (0.02)	-0.06 (0.05)
Liking	-0.23** (0.03)	-0.23** (0.03)	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.04 (0.02)
Dyadic task interdependence	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Gender similarity	0.01 (0.05)	0.00 (0.05)	0.00 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.04)
Age similarity	0.00 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.01)
Ethnic similarity	-0.14* (0.06)	-0.14* (0.06)	0.00 (0.03)	0.00 (0.03)	-0.09* (0.04)
Virtual working	-0.11 (0.06)	-0.11 (0.06)	0.02 (0.03)		-0.01 (0.05)
Enthusiasm					-0.02 (0.02)
Anger					-0.04 (0.02)
Respect					0.01 (0.02)
Revenge cognitions					-0.05 (0.04)
Intercept	1.46** (0.06)	1.41** (0.06)	1.05** (0.03)	1.00** (0.03)	1.39** (0.16)
F-statistic for X^2, XZ, and Z^2		1.44		6.74**	
Congruence (X = Z) Line					
Slope		0.06 (0.04)		0.04** (0.02)	
Curvature		0.04 (0.02)		0.03** (0.01)	
Incongruence (X = –Z) Line					
Slope		0.03 (0.04)		-0.05** (0.02)	
Curvature		0.01 (0.03)		0.03* (0.01)	

Note. $N = 972$ dyads. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors (*SEs*, in parentheses) are depicted.

[1] The control variable "Virtual working" was removed from Model 8b to facilitate model convergence.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 11. Results of Social Relations Model Analyses for Moderation Effects (Main Study)

Variable	Enthusiasm	Anger	Respect	Revenge Cognitions
	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12[1]
Leadership claiming (X)	0.02 (0.03)	0.05 (0.03)	0.01 (0.02)	0.00 (0.01)
Leadership granting (Z)	0.05 (0.04)	0.02 (0.03)	0.07* (0.03)	0.05** (0.01)
X^2	0.02 (0.02)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)
XZ	0.00 (0.02)	0.02 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)	0.00 (0.01)
Z^2	0.03 (0.02)	0.02 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.03** (0.01)
Prosocial motivation (W)	0.13 (0.07)	0.03 (0.06)	0.04 (0.06)	-0.01 (0.03)
XW	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.08* (0.03)	-0.01 (0.02)
ZW	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.03 (0.03)	0.04 (0.03)	0.04* (0.01)
X^2W	-0.02 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.03 (0.02)	0.00 (0.01)
XZW	-0.03 (0.03)	-0.03 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.01)
Z^2W	-0.03 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.01 (0.02)	0.03** (0.01)
Liking	0.53** (0.03)	-0.23** (0.03)	0.32** (0.03)	-0.02 (0.01)
Dyadic task interdependence	0.12** (0.03)	-0.01 (0.02)	0.08** (0.02)	0.01 (0.01)
Gender similarity	-0.02 (0.07)	0.00 (0.05)	0.02 (0.05)	0.01 (0.02)
Age similarity	0.01 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.00 (0.01)	
Ethnic similarity	0.09 (0.08)	-0.13* (0.06)	0.05 (0.06)	
Virtual working	-0.12 (0.09)	-0.11 (0.06)	-0.01 (0.07)	
Intercept	5.53** (0.08)	1.41** (0.06)	6.29** (0.07)	1.00** (0.03)
F-statistic for *XW*, *ZW*, X^2W, *XZW*, and Z^2W	1.76	0.74	1.33	2.80*
High *W* (+1 *SD*)				
Congruence (X = Z) Line				
Slope	0.05 (0.06)	0.03 (0.05)	0.05 (0.04)	0.07** (0.02)
Curvature	-0.02 (0.04)	0.03 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.07)	0.04** (0.01)
Incongruence (X = –Z) Line				
Slope	-0.04 (0.06)	0.04 (0.05)	-0.13** (0.05)	-0.08** (0.02)
Curvature	0.03 (0.05)	0.03 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.03)	0.05** (0.02)
Low *W* (–1 *SD*)				
Congruence (X = Z) Line				
Slope	0.10 (0.06)	0.11* (0.05)	0.11* (0.05)	0.03 (0.02)
Curvature	0.10** (0.04)	0.07* (0.03)	0.02 (0.03)	0.02 (0.01)
Incongruence (X = –Z) Line				
Slope	-0.03 (0.07)	0.03 (0.06)	0.02 (0.06)	-0.01 (0.03)
Curvature	0.06 (0.06)	0.00 (0.05)	0.01 (0.05)	0.01 (0.02)

Note. $N = 972$ dyads. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors (*SEs*, in parentheses) are depicted. 95% confidence intervals are depicted in brackets.
[1] The control variables *age similarity*, *ethnic similarity*, and *virtual working* were removed from Model 12 to facilitate model convergence.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 12. Results of Social Relations Model Analyses for
Moderated Mediation Effects (Main Study)

Mediator	Backing-up behavior	Social Undermining
Enthusiasm		
High W (+1 SD)	0.001 [-0.002; 0.012]	
Low W (−1 SD)	0.002 [-0.002; 0.019]	
Difference	-0.001 [-0.018; 0.004]	
Respect		
High W (+1 SD)	0.002 [-0.006; 0.014]	
Low W (−1 SD)	-0.001 [-0.017; 0.010]	
Difference	0.003 [-0.009; 0.024]	
Anger		
High W (+1 SD)		-0.001 [-0.007; 0.001]
Low W (−1 SD)		0.000 [-0.004; 0.006]
Difference		-0.001 [-0.010; 0.003]
Revenge cognitions		
High W (+1 SD)		-0.002 [-0.009; 0.001]
Low W (−1 SD)		0.000 [-0.005; 0.002]
Difference		-0.002 [-0.011; 0.001]

Note. N = 972 dyads. Unstandardized coefficients and 95% bias-corrected MCMC confidence intervals (in brackets) are depicted.

Figure 1. Four Forms of Informal Leadership (Non)Emergence

Focal Person's Leadership Claiming — High	*Overclaiming*	*Dyadic Emergent Leadership*
Focal Person's Leadership Claiming — Low	*Dyadic Leadership Absence*	*Underclaiming*
	Low	High
	Peer's Leadership Granting	
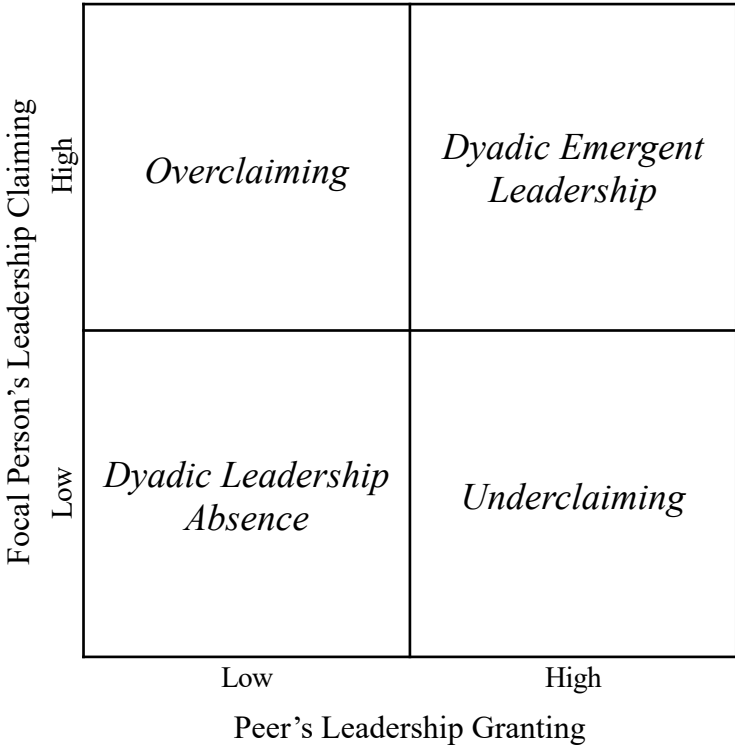
Note. Overview of 2 × 2 matrix of informal leadership (non)emergence using the leadership identity claiming and granting framework.

Figure 2. Overview of Study Model
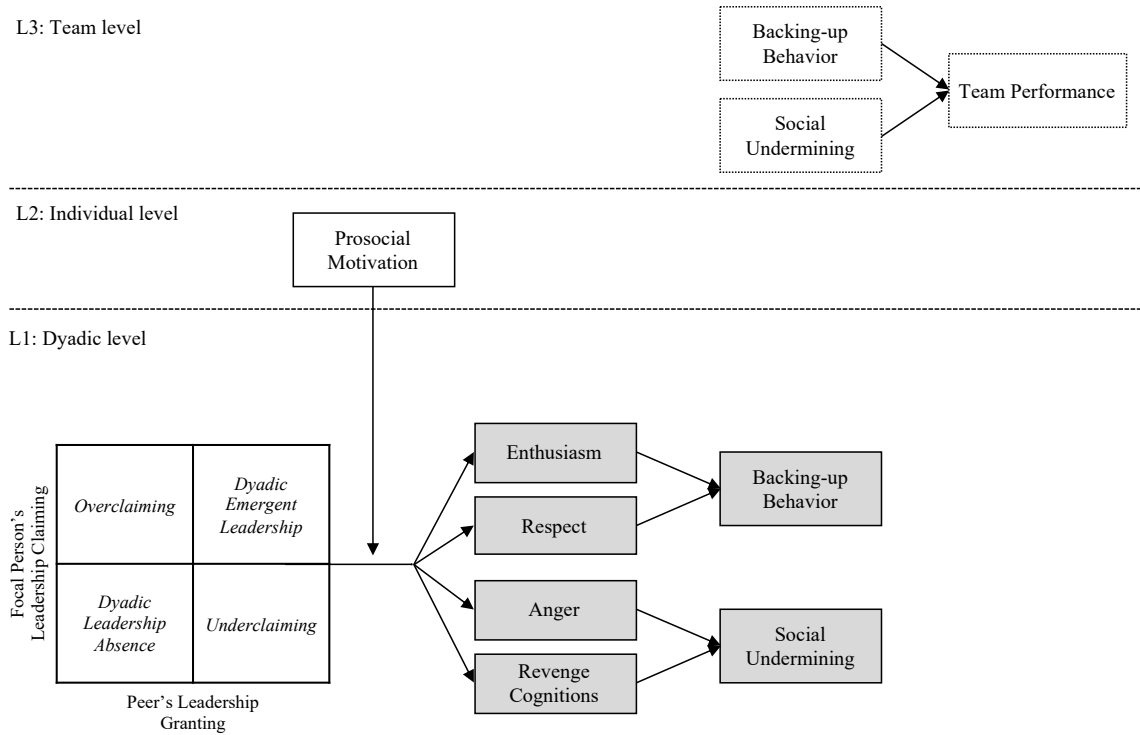
Note. Shaded boxes indicate affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses of the peer. Dashed boxes indicate non-hypothesized relationships.

Figure 3. Congruence Effect and Asymmetrical Incongruence Effects of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-Up Behavior
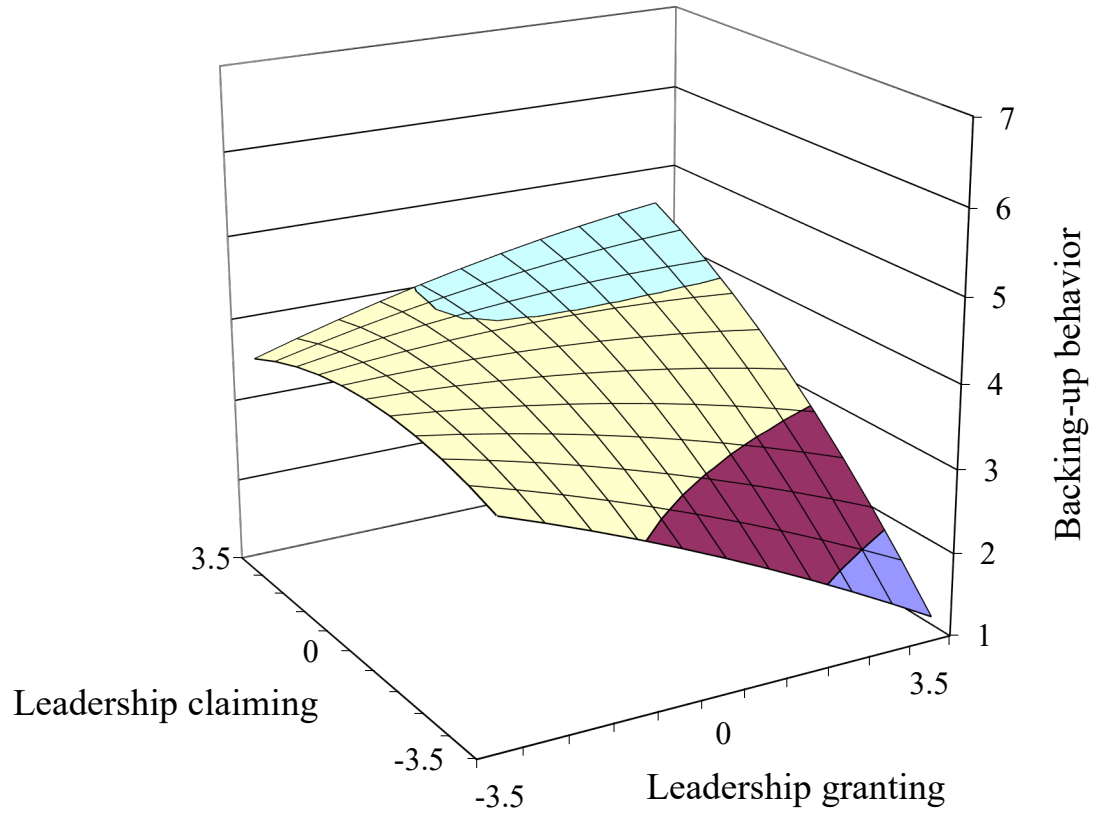
Figure 4. Congruence Effect and Asymmetrical Incongruence Effects of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Social Undermining
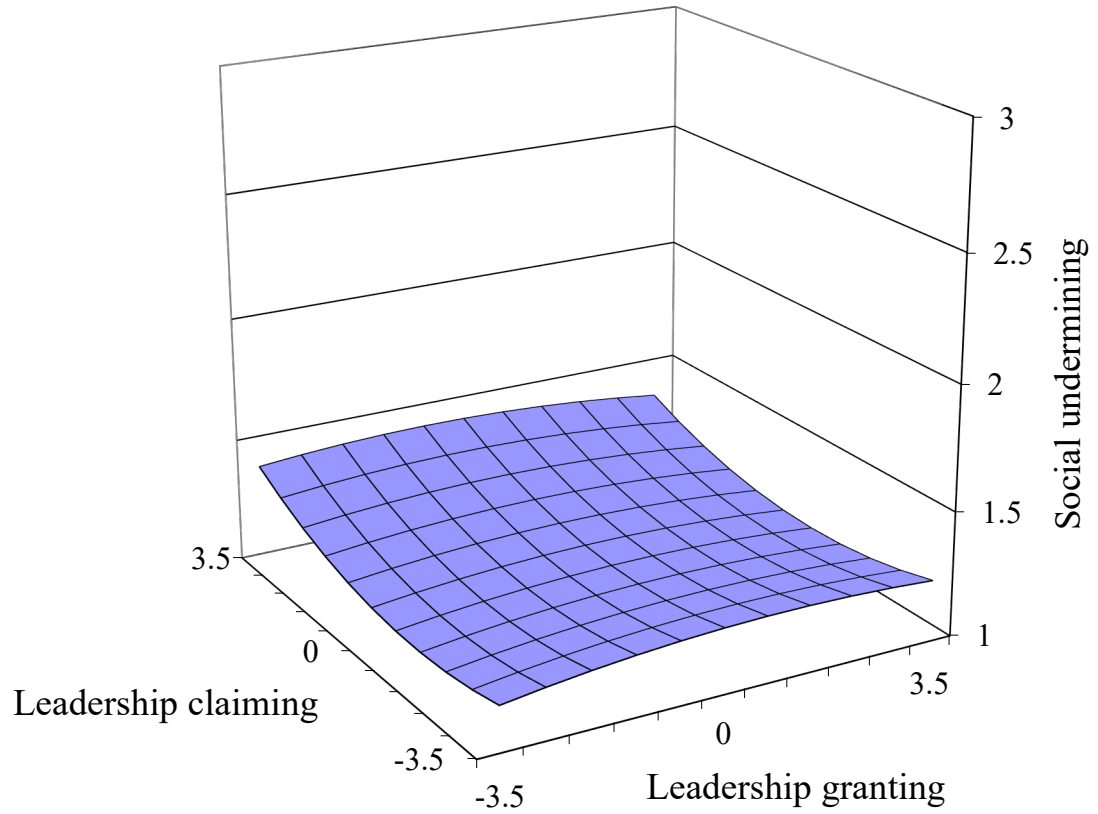
**Figure 5. Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Enthusiasm
at High and Low Levels of Prosocial Motivation**
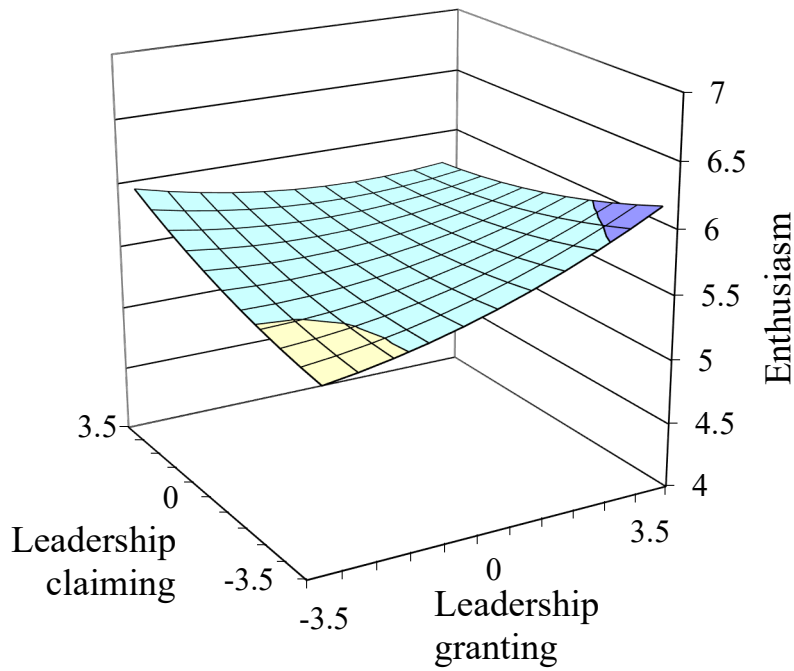
Figure 5a. Response surface when prosocial motivation is high.
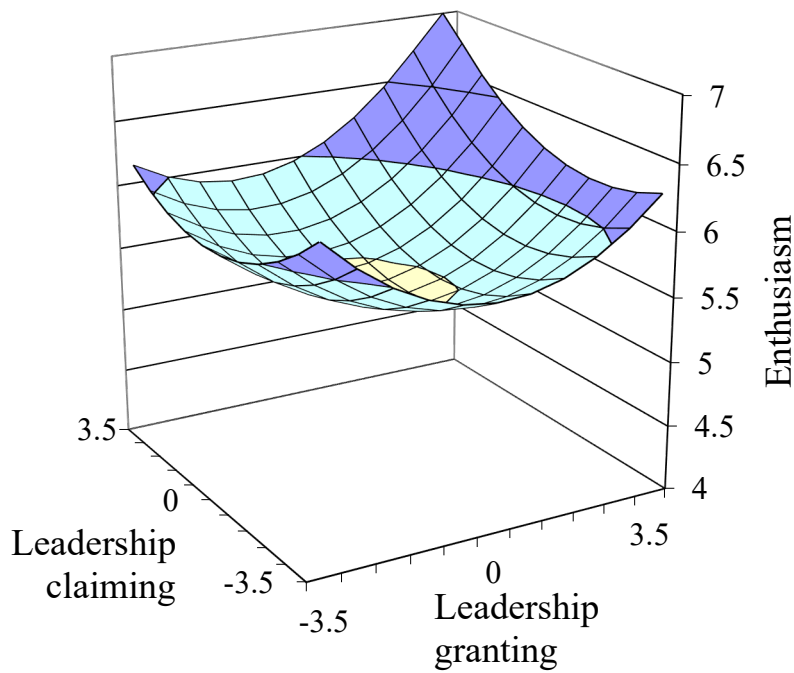
Figure 5b. Response surface when prosocial motivation is low.

**Figure 6. Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Anger
at High and Low Levels of Prosocial Motivation**
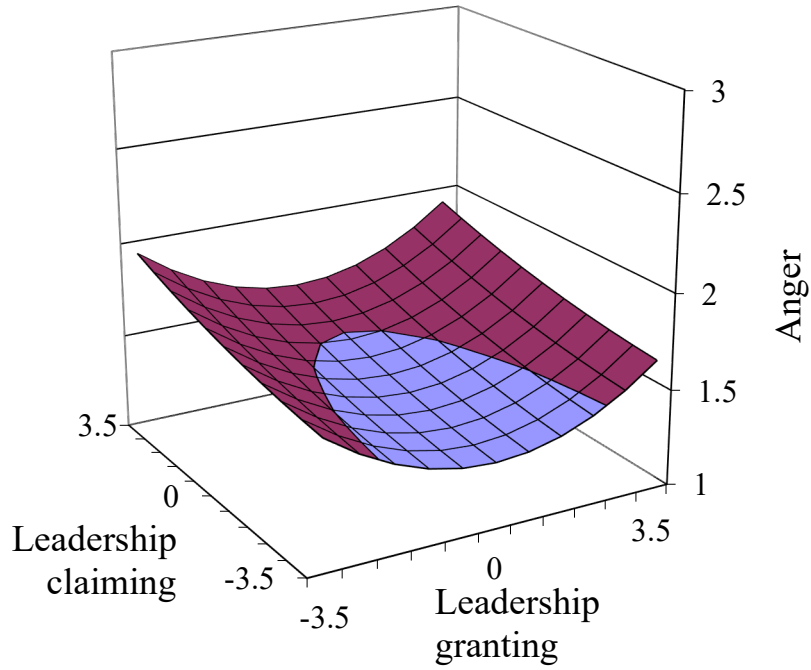
Figure 6a. Response surface when prosocial motivation is high.
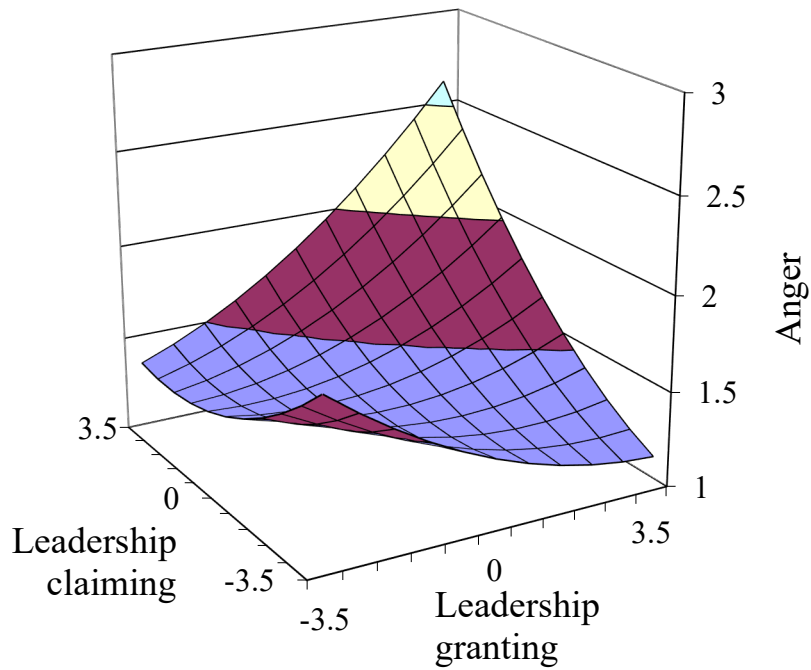
Figure 6b. Response surface when prosocial motivation is low.

**Figure 7. Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Respect
at High and Low Levels of Prosocial Motivation**
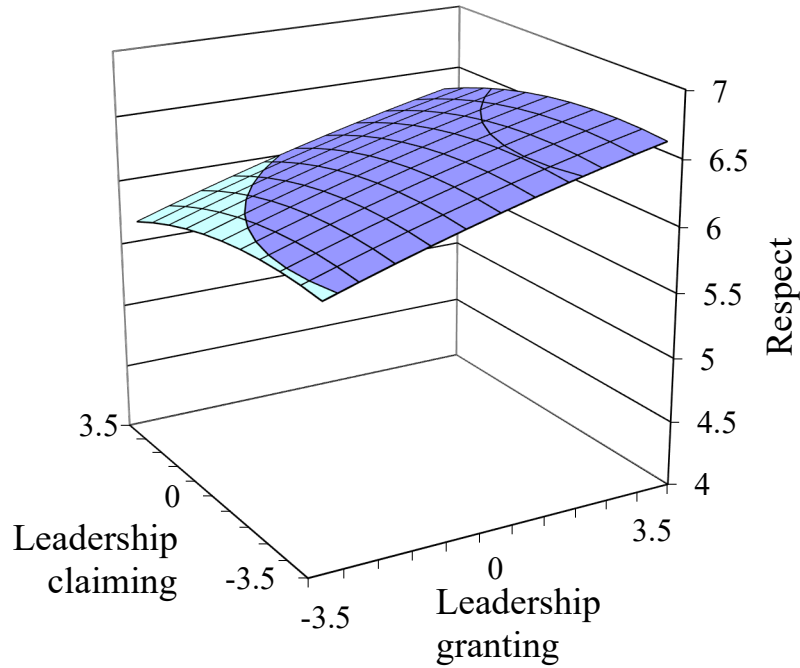
Figure 7a. Response surface when prosocial motivation is high.
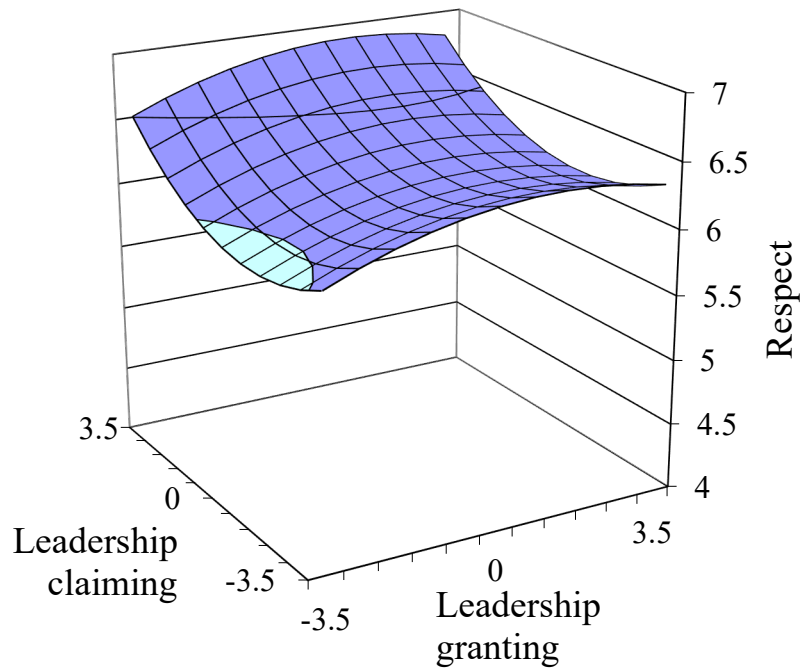
Figure 7b. Response surface when prosocial motivation is low.

Figure 8. Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting on Revenge Cognitions at High and Low Levels of Prosocial Motivation
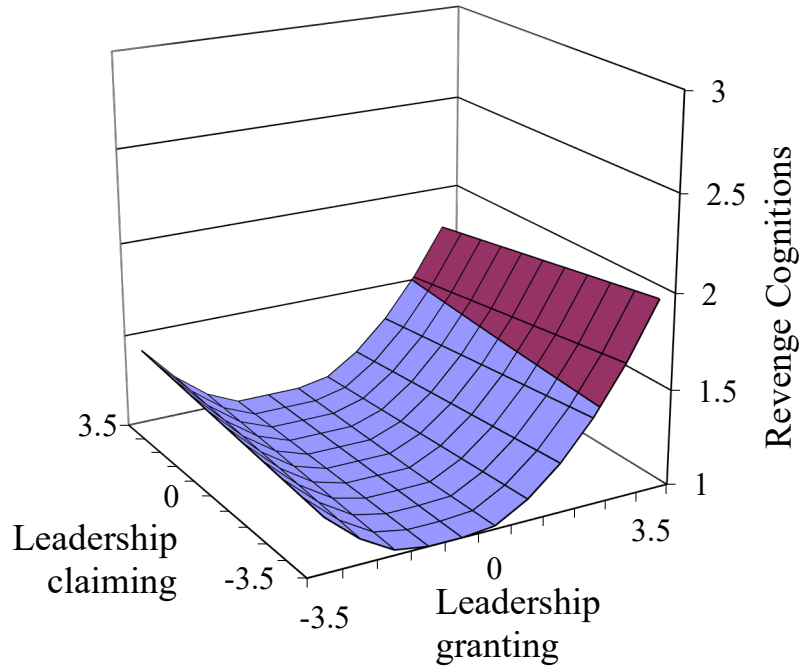
Figure 8a. Response surface when prosocial motivation is high.
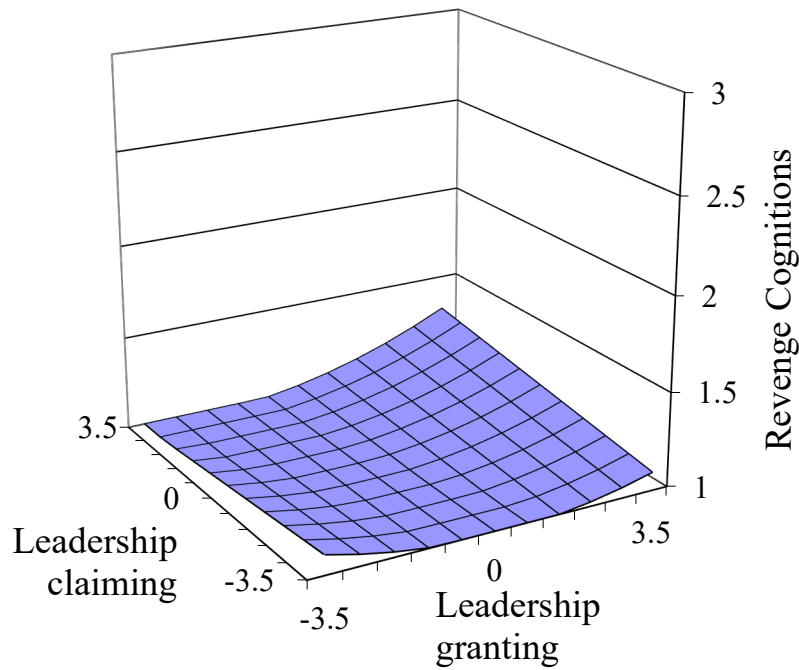
Figure 8b. Response surface when prosocial motivation is low.

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Figure 9. Supplemental Analysis 1: Effect of Task-oriented Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-up Behavior
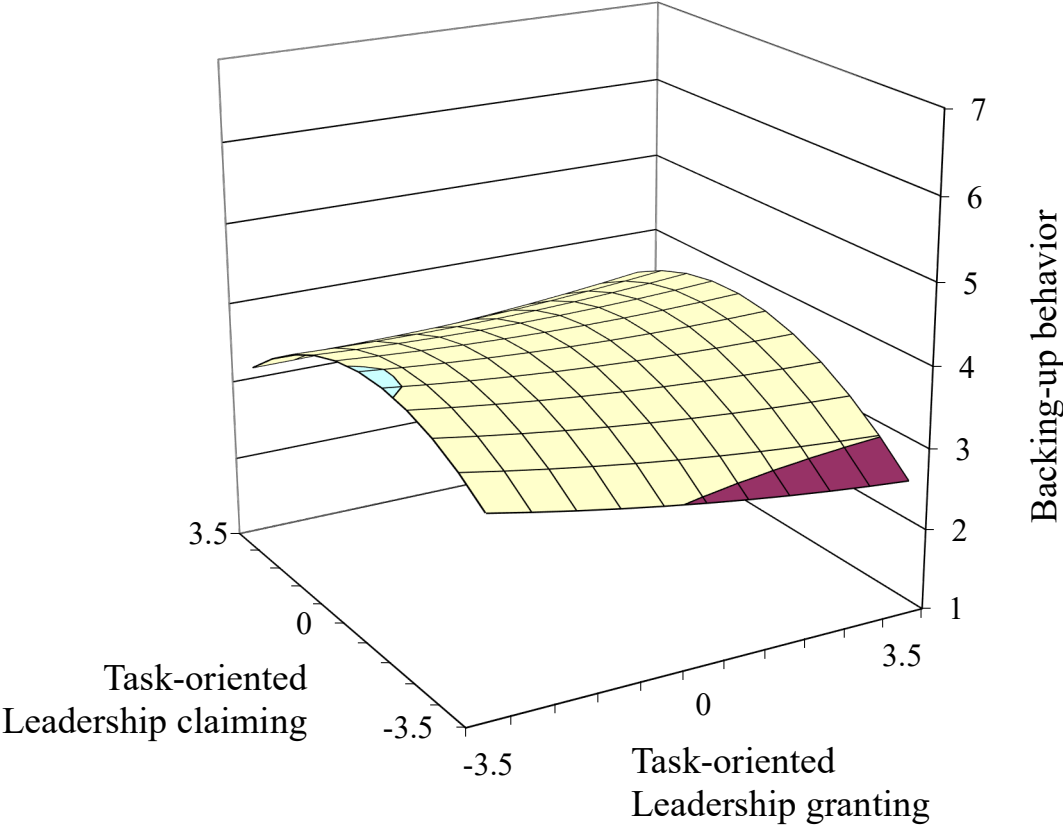
Figure 10. Supplemental Analysis 1: Effect of Social-oriented Leadership Claiming and Granting on Backing-up Behavior
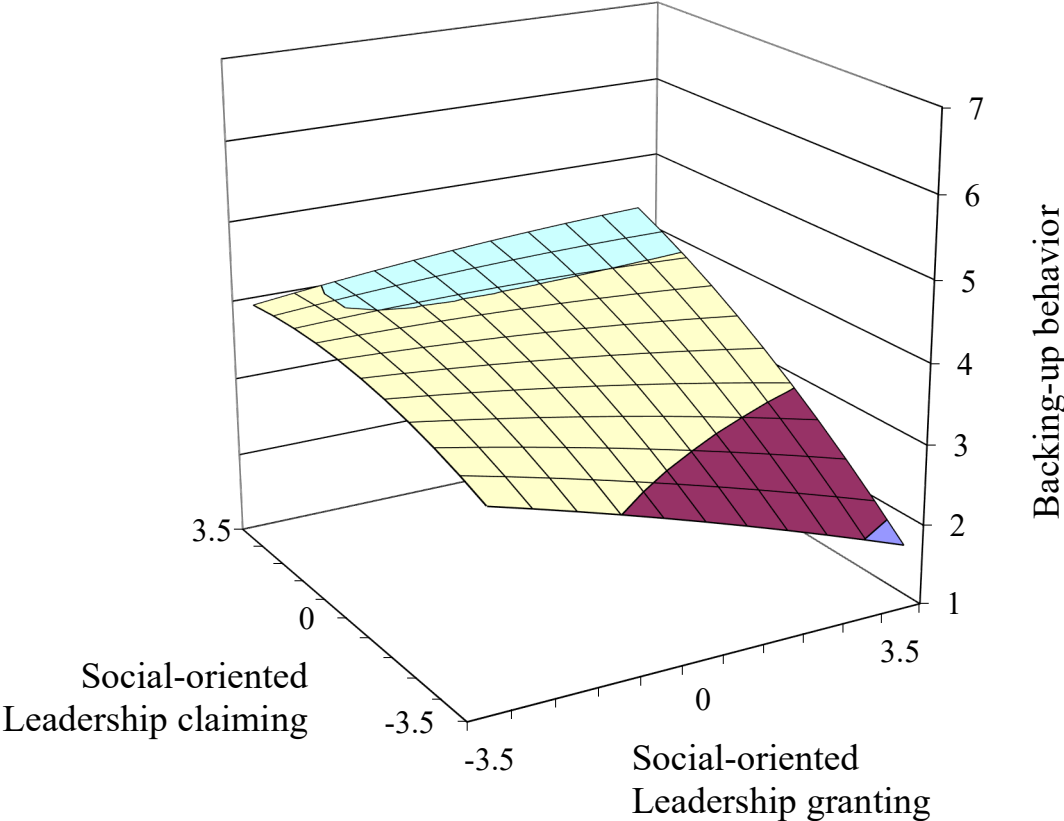
Figure 11. Supplemental Analysis 2: Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting at Time 2 on Anger
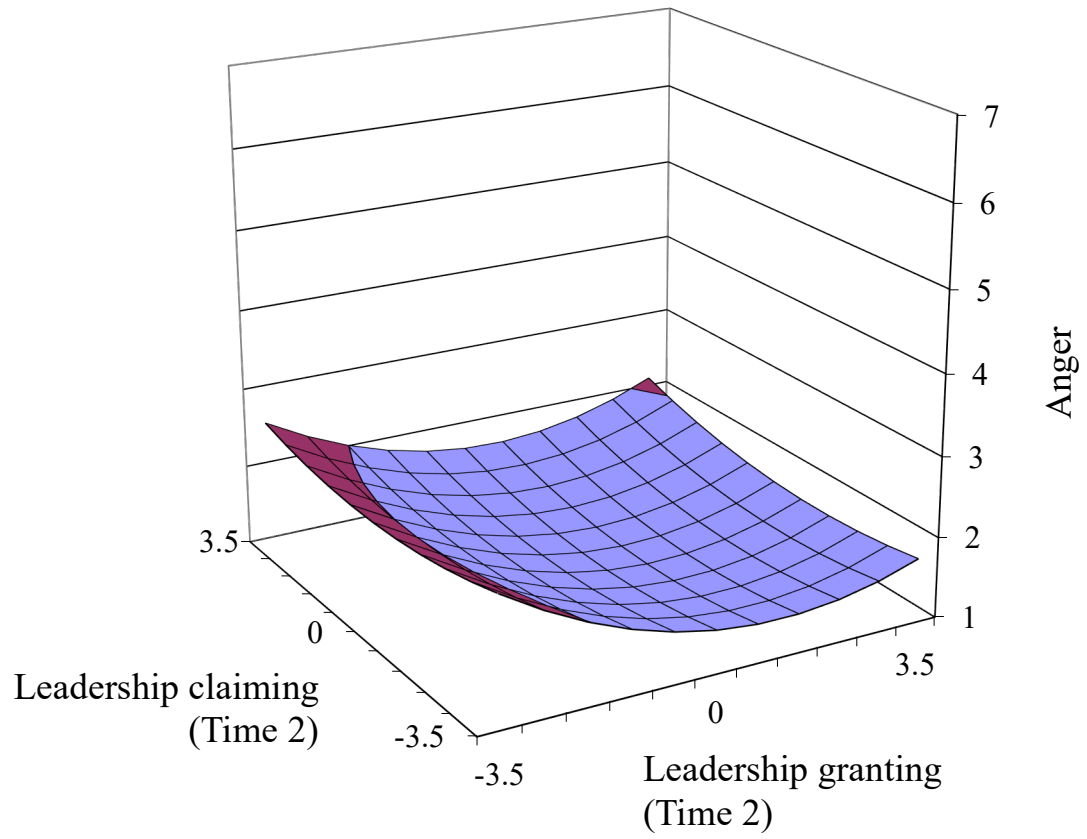
Figure 12. Supplemental Analysis 2: Effect of Leadership Claiming and Granting at Time 2 on Respect
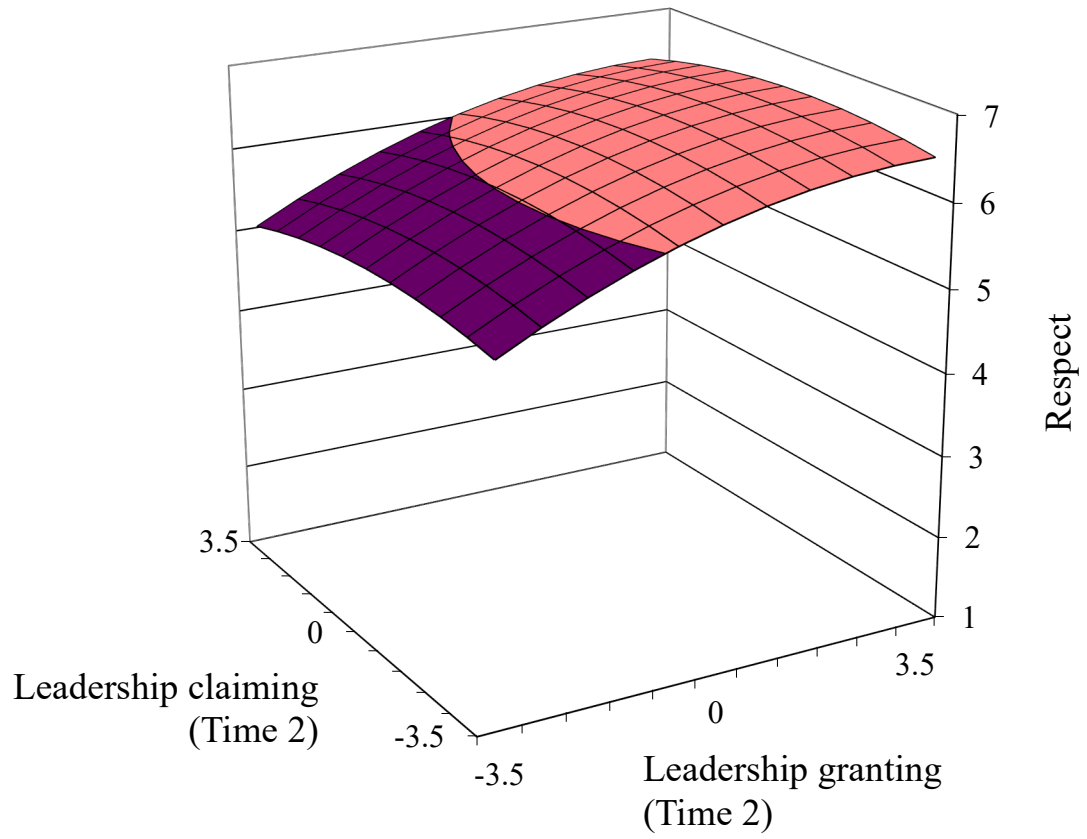
APPENDIX A

PILOT STUDY 1 SURVEY ITEMS

Participant Survey

Leadership claiming and granting

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Original item (Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010	Adapted item Leadership claiming		Adapted item Leadership granting			
Defines and structures own work and the work of the team.	1. I defined and structured the work for [team member].		1. I asked [team member] to define and structure my work.			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
			2. I relied on [team member] to define and structure my work.			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
			3. I acknowledged that [team member] defines and structures my work.			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Identifies when key aspects of the work need to be completed.	2. I identified key aspects of the work that [team member] has to complete.		4. I turned to [team member] to learn about key aspects of the work that I need to complete.			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
			5. I counted on [team member] to identify key aspects of the work that I need to complete.			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Works with the team to develop the best possible approach to its work.						
Develops or helps develop standard operating procedures and standardized processes.						
Clarifies task performance strategies.	3. I clarified task performance strategies for [team member].		6. I approached [team member] about task performance strategies.			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
			7. I followed [team member]'s task performance strategies			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
			8. I used task performance strategies provided to me by [team member].			1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Makes sure team members have clear roles.	4. I made sure that [team member] has a clear role.		9. I asked [team member] to clarify my role.			1 2 3 4 5 6 7

		10. I relied on [team member] to clarify my role.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Responds promptly to team member needs or concerns.	5. I responded to [team member]'s needs or concerns.	11. I reached out to [team member] regarding my needs or concerns.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		12. I turned to [team member] regarding my needs or concerns.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		13. I counted on [team member] to respond to my needs and concerns.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Engages in actions that demonstrate respect and concern for team members.			
Goes beyond own interests for the good of the team.			
Does things to make it pleasant to be a team member.	6. I did things to make it pleasant for [team member] to be a team member.	14. I asked [team member] to make it pleasant for me to be a team member.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		15. I relied on [team member] to make it pleasant for me to be a team member.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		16. I wanted [team member] to make it pleasant for me to be a team member.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Looks out for the personal well-being of team members	7. I looked out for the personal well-being of [team member].	17. I brought up issues about my personal well-being to [team member].	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		18. I acknowledged that [team member] looks out for my personal well-being.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
	8. I ensured the personal welfare of [team member].	19. I asked [team member] to ensure my personal welfare.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		20. I accepted that [team member] ensures my personal welfare.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		21. I relied on [team member] to ensure my personal welfare.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		22. I considered [team member] to ensure my personal welfare.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Reconsiders key assumptions in order to determine the appropriate course of action			

Emphasizes the importance and value of questioning team members			
Challenges the status quo	9. I challenged the status quo of [team member]'s work.	23. I turned to [team member] to challenge the status quo of my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		24. I accepted it when [team member] challenges the status quo of my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		25. I considered it when [team member] challenges the status quo of my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete work	10. I suggested to [team member] new ways of looking at how to complete his/her work.	26. I turned to [team member] for new ways of looking at how to complete my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		27. I considered suggestions by [team member] how to complete my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		28. I accepted suggestions by [team member] how to complete my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Contributes ideas to improve how the team performs its work	11. I contributed ideas to [team member] to improve how [team member] performs his/her work.	I asked [team member] to contribute ideas to improve how I perform my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
		I attended to [team member]'s ideas to improve how I perform my work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Leader emergence

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about [team member] in general.						
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. [Team member] exhibits leadership.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I am willing to choose [team member] as a formal leader.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. [Team member] is typical as a leader.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. [Team member] engages in leadership behaviors.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. [Team member] fits my image of an ideal leader.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Interpersonal role conflict

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about [team member]'s behavior in the past two weeks.						
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Somewhat agree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
Overall, given [team member]'s position within the team, his/her actions …						
1. Were reasonable.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Were appropriate.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Made sense.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Identification with being a leader

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about [team member].						
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Somewhat agree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I see myself as a leader of [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I would be pleased to be a leader of [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Being a leader of [team member] is important to me.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Motivation to lead

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about yourself.						
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Somewhat agree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members of my group or team.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. I do not consider "what is in it for me" when agreeing to lead others.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Sense of power

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about yourself.						
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Somewhat agree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I can get others to listen to what I say.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. My wishes do not carry much weight.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I can get others to do what I want.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Even if I voice them, my views have little sway.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I think I have a great deal of power.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. My ideas and opinions are often ignored.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. Even when I try, I am not able to get my way.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. If I want to, I get to make the decisions.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Desire of control

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about yourself.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. I like to give the orders in interpersonal situations.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I enjoy having control over other people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I enjoy being able to control the situation.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Personality

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about yourself.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. I am the life of the party.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I sympathize with others' feelings.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I get chores done right away.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I have frequent mood swings.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I have a vivid imagination.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I do not talk a lot.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I am not interested in other people's problems.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I often forget to put things back in their proper place.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. I am relaxed most of the time.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I am not interested in abstract ideas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I talk to a lot of different people at parties.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I feel others' emotions.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. I like order.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I get upset easily.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I keep in the background.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. I am not really interested in others.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I make a mess of things.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. I seldom feel blue.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. I do not have a good imagination.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Proactive personality

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about yourself.						
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Somewhat agree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*

1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I excel at identifying opportunities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Demographics

Please also provide the following demographic information:	
What is your age?	
What is your gender?	Female Male Other, please specify Prefer not to specify
What is your highest level of education?	High School Some College College Graduate Graduate Degree
What race or ethnicity do you consider yourself to be? *Please select all that apply.*	White/Caucasian Asian Indian (Indian subcontinent) Black/African American Native American or Alaskan Native Hispanic or Latino Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander Other, please specify
How many years have you been in your current work role?	
How many years have you been with your current organization?	
How many years have you been with your current team?	
How many years of work experience do you have?	
How many years have you worked together with [team member]?	

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APPENDIX B

PILOT STUDY 2 SURVEY ITEMS

Participant Survey

Dyadic task interdependence

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your work with [team member] in general.						
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Somewhat disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Somewhat agree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I need information from [team member] to perform my job well.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. It is not necessary for me to coordinate or cooperate with [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I need to collaborate with [team member] to perform my job well.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I regularly have to communicate with [team member] about work-related issues.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Respect

Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I respect [team member]'s values.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. [Team member] has a good reputation.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I react well to [team member] and what [team member] says and does.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. [Team member] makes a good impression on me.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I am impressed by what [team member] accomplishes at work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I respect [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Revenge cognitions

Thinking of your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you thought each of the following?						
Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I will make [team member] pay.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I wish that something bad would happen to [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I want [team member] to get what he/she deserves.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I am going to get even with [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I want to see [team member] miserable.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Backing-up behavior

Thinking of your work with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time did [team member] do each of the following to you?						
Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. [Team member] assisted me with difficult assignments, even when I did not directly request [team member's] assistance.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. [Team member] helped me when I was running behind in my work activities.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. [Team member] went out of his/her way to help me with work-related problems.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. [Team member] took on extra responsibilities in order to help me when things got demanding.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. [Team member] helped me with work when I had been absent.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Social undermining

Thinking of your work with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time did [team member] do each of the following to you?						
Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. [Team member] insulted me.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. [Team member] gave me the silent treatment.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. [Team member] spread rumors about me.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. [Team member] delayed work to make me look bad or slow me down.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. [Team member] belittled me or my ideas.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. [Team member] hurt my feelings.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. [Team member] talked bad about me behind my back.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. [Team member] criticized the way I handled things on the job in a way that was not helpful.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. [Team member] did not give me as much help as promised.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. [Team member] gave me incorrect or misleading information about the job.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. [Team member] competed with me for status and recognition.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. [Team member] let me know that he/she did not like me or something about me.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. [Team member] did not defend me when people spoke poorly of me.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Demographics

Please also provide the following demographic information:	
What is your age?	
What is your gender?	Female Male Other, please specify Prefer not to specify
What is your highest level of education?	High School Some College College Graduate Graduate Degree
What race or ethnicity do you consider yourself to be? *Please select all that apply*.	White/Caucasian Asian Indian (Indian subcontinent) Black/African American Native American or Alaskan Native Hispanic or Latino Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander Other, please specify
How many years have you been in your current work role?	
How many years have you been with your current organization?	

How many years have you been with your current team?
How many years of work experience do you have?

APPENDIX C

MAIN STUDY SURVEY ITEMS

Team Member Survey Time 1

Leadership claiming

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about [team member]'s behavior in the past two weeks.						
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I defined and structured the work for [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I identified key aspects of the work that [team member] has to complete.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I looked out for the personal well-being of [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I ensured the personal welfare of [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. I suggested to [team member] new ways of looking at how to complete his/her work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I contributed ideas to [team member] to improve how [team member] performs his/her work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Leadership granting

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about [team member]'s behavior in the past two weeks.						
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I relied on [team member] to define and structure my work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I counted on [team member] to identify key aspects of the work that I need to complete.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I acknowledged that [team member] looks out for my personal well-being.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. I considered [team member] to ensure my personal welfare.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. I accepted suggestions by [team member] how to complete my work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30. I attended to [team member]'s ideas to improve how I perform my work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Prosocial motivation

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.						
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I care about benefiting others through my work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I want to help others through my work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I want to have a positive impact on others.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. It is important to me to do good for others through my work.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Peer liking

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about [team member] _in general_.						
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[Team member] is the kind of people one would like to have as a friend.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Dyadic task interdependence

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements about your work with [team member] _in general_.						
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I need information from [team member] to perform my job well.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I need to collaborate with [team member] to perform my job well.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I regularly have to communicate with [team member] about work-related issues.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Team Member Survey Time 2

Enthusiasm

Thinking of your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you felt each of the following...						
Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Cheerful						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Enthusiastic						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Optimistic						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Anger

Thinking of your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you felt each of the following...						
Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Angry						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Irritated						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Annoyed						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Respect

Thinking of your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you thought each of the following?						
Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I respect [team member]'s values.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. [Team member] makes a good impression on me.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I respect [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Revenge cognitions

Thinking of your interactions with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time have you thought each of the following?						
Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. I will make [team member] pay.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I wish that something bad would happen to [team member].						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I want to see [team member] miserable.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Virtual working

Please indicate how you worked with each team member in the past two weeks, whether in-person (e.g., face-to-face in the office) virtually (e.g., through email, video conferencing), or half in-person, half virtually.	
[Team member]	In-person Virtually Half in-person, half virtually

Team Member Survey Time 3

Backing-up behavior

Thinking of your work with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time did [team member] do each of the following to you?						
Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*
1. [Team member] assisted me with difficult assignments, even when I did not directly request [team member's] assistance.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. [Team member] helped me when I was running behind in my work activities.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. [Team member] took on extra responsibilities in order to help me when things got demanding.						1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Social undermining

Thinking of your work with [team member] in the past two weeks, how much of the time did [team member] do each of the following to you?						
Never	*Rarely*	*Occasionally*	*Sometimes*	*Frequently*	*Usually*	*Always*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*

4. [Team member] delayed work to make me look bad or slow me down.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. [Team member] criticized the way I handled things on the job in a way that was not helpful.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. [Team member] gave me incorrect or misleading information about the job.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Demographics

Please also provide the following demographic information:	
What is your age?	
What is your gender?	Female Male Other, please specify Prefer not to specify
What is your GMAT/GRE score?	
What race or ethnicity do you consider yourself to be? *Please select all that apply.*	White/Caucasian Asian Indian (Indian subcontinent) Black/African American Native American or Alaskan Native Hispanic or Latino Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander Other, please specify

Class Instructor Survey Time 3

Team performance

Please compare the effectiveness of this work group to the average of other work groups on the following dimensions …						
Far below average			*Average*			*Far above average*
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*

1. Efficiency	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Quality	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Productivity	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Mission fulfillment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Overall achievement	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX D

OTHER VARIABLES MEASURED IN THE MAIN STUDY

The following constructs were assessed in the Main Study to examine hypotheses that were not the focus of this dissertation.

Construct	Measure	Survey
Perceived leadership granting by other team members	ad hoc	Time 1
Perceived fit in leadership claiming and granting	ad hoc	Time 1
Enthusiasm	ad hoc	Time 1
Anger	ad hoc	Time 1
Respect	ad hoc	Time 1
Revenge cognitions	ad hoc	Time 1
Team structure	Bunderson & Boumgarden (2010)	Time 1
Role conflict	Jehn (1995)	Time 1
Need for leadership	Wellman et al. (2019)	Time 1 and 2
Virtual work	ad hoc	Time 1 and 3
Informal leadership emergence	Cronshaw & Lord (1987)	Time 1, 2, and 3
Leadership claiming and granting	Developed in Pilot Study 1	Time 3
Personality	Donnellan et al. (2006)	Time 3
Leader effectiveness	Lanaj & Hollenbeck (2015)	Time 3
Status conferral	Bai, Ho, & Liu (2020)	Time 3

APPENDIX E

IRB APPROVAL DOCUMENTS

Arizona State University

EXEMPTION GRANTED

Jeffery LePine
WPC: Management and Entrepreneurship
480/965-8652
Jeff.LePine@asu.edu

Dear Jeffery LePine:

On 7/13/2020 the ASU IRB reviewed the following protocol:

Type of Review:	Initial Study
Title:	Informal Leadership Emergence Study
Investigator:	Jeffery LePine
IRB ID:	STUDY00012137
Funding:	None
Grant Title:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	• Consent MBA Instructors, Category: Consent Form; • Consent MBA Students, Category: Consent Form; • Consent Prolific 10min, Category: Consent Form; • Consent Prolific 20min, Category: Consent Form; • Consent Prolific 30min, Category: Consent Form; • Draft Survey MBA Instructors, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Draft Survey MBA Students, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Draft Survey Prolific, Category: Measures (Survey questions/Interview questions /interview guides/focus group questions); • Protocol, Category: IRB Protocol; • Recruitment MBA Instructors, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Recruitment MBA Students, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Recruitment Prolific 10min, Category: Recruitment

	Materials; • Recruitment Prolific 20min, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Recruitment Prolific 30min, Category: Recruitment Materials;

The IRB determined that the protocol is considered exempt pursuant to Federal Regulations 45CFR46 on 7/13/2020.

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

If any changes are made to the study, the IRB must be notified at research.integrity@asu.edu to determine if additional reviews/approvals are required. Changes may include but not limited to revisions to data collection, survey and/or interview questions, and vulnerable populations, etc.

Sincerely,

IRB Administrator

cc: Manuel Vaulont
        Manuel Vaulont
        Jeffery LePine

Southern Methodist University

Human Subjects Research Submission Approval Letter

Date: 8/4/2020

From: IRB Committee

To: Zhen Zhang

The IRB Committee, or a designee thereof, completed review of your below-referenced submission and granted approval. You are therefore authorized to begin or continue the research immediately.

Study ID:	H20-120-ZHAZ
Study Title:	Informal Leadership Emergence Study
Level of Review:	Exempt
Date of Submission:	7/22/2020
Type of Submission:	New Protocol
Approval Date:	8/3/2020
Continuing Review Due:	N/A

Please be advised of the following:

1. If a Continuing Review Date is shown above, a Continuing Review Report must be submitted to the IRB prior to that date in order to continue the research.

2. Any proposed changes to the protocol must be submitted to the IRB via an Amendment Form prior to implementation. Approval of an amendment does NOT change Continuing Review due dates.

3. Unanticipated Problems and Adverse Events must be reported to the IRB via an Unanticipated Problem / Adverse Event Form within 24 hours of the occurrence or upon acknowledgement of the occurrence.

4. All investigators and key personnel identified in the protocol must have documented Human Subjects Research training on file with this office. Certificates are valid for 3 years from completion date.

5. This study may be selected for a random audit under the Research Compliance Audit Program. These compliance audits maintain a comprehensive compliance program for the SMU research community and provide assurance that research is being conducted ethically, safely, and in accordance with an approved protocol.

Thank you,

IRB Committee

Office of Research and Graduate Studies
ResearchCompliance@smu.edu
214-768-2033 | smu.edu/research

APPENDIX F

PERMISSION TO USE COPYRIGHTED WORK

Subject: AW: Request for permission to use copyrighted work

Date: Thursday, April 29, 2021 at 12:14:57 AM Mountain Standard Time

From: Schmidt, Sonja

To: Manuel Vaulont (Student)

Dear Manuel Vaulont,

thanks for your inquiry.
We hereby grant the permission to use the poem "was man so braucht" in your dissertation named below.
With kind regards from Munich,

Sonja Schmidt
Lizenzen & Verträge / Rights Manager

New Rights Guides available here

Tel.: ++49-89-38 167 128
Fax: ++49-89-38 167 328
e-mail: schmidt.sonja@dtv.de
Internet: www.dtv.de/rights

dtv Verlagsgesellschaft mbH & Co. KG
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Kommanditgesellschaft, Sitz München, Registergericht München HRA 16311
persönlich haftende Gesellschafterin: dtv Geschäftsführungs-GmbH, Sitz München, Registergericht München HRB 5188
Geschäftsführung: Barbara Laugwitz & Stephan D. Joß

Sonja Schmidt

Von: Manuel Vaulont (Student) <Manuel.Vaulont@asu.edu>
Gesendet: Mittwoch, 28. April 2021 23:07
An: Schmidt, Sonja <Schmidt.Sonja@dtv.de>
Betreff: Request for permission to use copyrighted work

Dear Ms. Schmidt,

I would kindly ask for permission to include the poem "Was man so braucht..." by Mascha Kaléko in the dedication of my dissertation with the title "Examining Forms of Informal Leadership (Non)Emergence and Their Differential Consequences." This dissertation was written in the field of Management at Arizona State University and will be published by ProQuest. I would include the poem and the copyright note in the following way:

Man braucht nur eine Insel
allein im weiten Meer.
Man braucht nur einen Menschen,
den aber braucht man sehr.

The poem "Was man so braucht..." from: Mascha Kaléko: In meinen Träumen läutet es Sturm.
© 1977 dtv Verlagsgesellschaft mbH & Co. KG, Munich, Germany

I look forward to hearing from you.

Best wishes and thank you very much,

Manuel Vaulont

Manuel Vaulont
Arizona State University | W. P. Carey School of Business
Research Associate and Doctoral Candidate
Department of Management and Entrepreneurship
manuel.vaulont@asu.edu | wpcarey.asu.edu | 480-965-3431