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Face in Teams: The Impact of Political Skill on Shared Leadership Density in Face Culture Teams

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The Impact of Political Skill on Shared Leadership Density in Face Culture Teams

by

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Abstract

Title: Face in Teams: The Impact of Political Skill on Shared Leadership Density in Face Culture Teams

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The need for organizations to effectively function in contexts that are global, interdependent, and team-oriented is increasing (Carson, 2005; Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Early & Gibson, 2002; Hoch et al., 2010; Pearce & Sims, 2000). Empirically, shared leadership has been repeatedly tied to higher performance. However, while shared leadership use has seldom been investigated in cultural contexts, shared leadership is theorized to be affected by culture. Face culture logic (in which self-worth is social worth) is another understudied construct that may have implications in global team performance. Though, face culture alone can provide conflicting speculations of shared leadership tendencies. So, to achieve more targeted insight, the inherently social individual difference of political skill is added to the model. In sum, this study investigates the impact of political skill on the relationship between face culture and shared leadership in teams. First the study replicates the positive relationship of shared leadership density and team performance. Second, the impact of team political skill (conceptualized as both maximums and means) on shared leadership density was not significant. Third, team political skill as a moderator on the relationship between team face culture and shared leadership density was significant and positive. Lastly, the moderated mediation model was not statistically significant.

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List of Keywords

Face culture

Shared leadership

Political skill

Team performance

Team composition

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate my thesis to my late father, Charles Robbins, my mother, Ginny Robbins, and my husband, Jacob Robbins-Roth. I feel that their support and encouragement have been instrumental in my success and in my continued passion for the lifelong pursuit of learning and achieving.

Chapter 1
Introduction

The organizational paradigm has shifted to globalization, which has brought about increasingly complex and highly interdependent work tasks and placed an emphasis on organizational leadership's role in organizational success (Carson, 2005; Early & Gibson, 2002; Hoch et al., 2010). Organizations' response to the need to effectively function in such complexity has been restructuring work to team-based structures (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Pearce & Sims, 2000). For tasks and situations that are complex, interdependent, ambiguous, and require creativity, a team-based approach using shared leadership is most effective to produce quick reactions (Pearce, 2004; Zhou, Zhang, & Shen, 2017). Teams with greater dispersion of leadership patterns (e.g., shared leadership) tend to be high-performing and highly committed (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce, 2004). As teams utilizing shared leadership are well-established in modern organizations and linked with success, understanding shared leadership in teams is relevant to increasing organizational success.

Moreover, teams in organizations tend to be composed of multiple cultures—not only has diversity in the workplace increased, but multinational teams have also increased (Early & Gibson, 2002; Roberson, Ryan, & Ragins, 2017), indicating a need for investigating the cultural composition of teams. Team composition of cultural systems has been theoretically linked to the display of shared leadership within groups (Pearce & Sims, 2000). Additionally, cultural values present significant effects on motivation, individual cognition, emotion, and relational understanding (Carson, 2005; Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Thus, to improve organizational success and performance, understanding the intersection of cultural values, leadership, and teams is also necessary (Carson, 2005).

While Hofstede's cultural dimensions (i.e., high versus low power distance, long-term versus short-term orientation, individualism versus collectivism, strong versus weak uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity) have seemed to be saturatedly studied, the cultural constructs of honor, dignity, and face (HDF) have been understudied

(Dong & Lee, 2007; Yao et al., 2017). HDF cultural logics are based on the self-worth motivational theory in social contexts—they are focused on social identity and whether self-worth is held internally, externally, or a combination (Aslani et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2017). Understanding the prototypical aspects of culture (e.g., values, norms, beliefs, behaviors) based on cultural demographics can provide some information, but understanding cultural logics and ideologies can provide even more information, especially when based in self-worth (Brett, 2018). Furthermore, to succeed in global business in the East Asian market (e.g., China, Japan, Korea) in which face culture is common, Western businesses may benefit from understanding face culture's complexity, uniqueness, and prevalence (and its influence on business communication)—examining this would not only display respect but would also establish and maintain business relationships (Brett, 2018; Dong & Lee, 2007). Given that face culture logic relies externally for worth placement, when face culture members have a stronger motivation to contribute and a stronger team identification, shared leadership may increase (Xu et al., 2019).

While cultural-level and individual-level differences are assumed to be consistent, they may not be (Leung, 1989; Schwartz, 2020). Therefore, there is benefit in examining an individual difference at the team level in relation to team culture. Political skill has been investigated at the individual level and relation to negotiation outcomes, team level investigation alone and in relation to team face culture and shared leadership (Ferris et al., 2005; Pely & Shimoni, 2019; Semrau, Steigenberger, & Wilhelm, 2017). Additionally, because political skill involves the ability to influence others which can affect leadership distribution, understanding political skill at the team level while considering cultural composition (i.e., face culture) is prevalent to both shared leadership and team performance (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Ferris et al., 2005; Leung & Cohen, 2011; Pearce and Sims, 2000 Xu et al., 2019). While face culture has been studied in negotiation and conflict resolution topic areas, it has not been studied in the context of political skill or shared leadership in teams (Pely & Shimoni, 2019).

Therefore, given the aforementioned gaps in the literature, the current study will examine the impact of political skill on shared leadership density in teams that are relatively high in face culture.

Chapter 2
Literature Review

Cultural Values

Culture in cross-cultural research has been conceptualized, modeled, and measured at various levels (Chiu et al., 2014; Erez & Gati, 2004; Ramthun & Matkin, 2012). Cultural practices and ideas can be shared at multiple levels such as supraindividual (i.e., public, tangible, and accessible representations), national (i.e., institutionalized practices), and individual (i.e., internalized preferences and values) (Chiu et al., 2014). Additionally, culture can be shared at the organizational and team levels (Erez & Gati, 2004).

Hofstede's research on cultural dimensions (i.e., individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity) initiated a focus on contrasting cultural values and their consequences in the workplace (Erez & Gati, 2004; Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) have provided major influence in defining culture at the national level and is frequent in culture literature (Smith et al., 2017).

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

Hofstede defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another," focusing on the nation-level (1980a, p. 25). Hofstede's framework was developed deductively from morale survey data from IBM employees, using a country-level factor analysis (Taras et al., 2010). The cultural dimensions, using the referent perspective of a country's people, are individualism/collectivism (i.e., preference to act as individuals or as group members), power distance (i.e., society's acceptance of unequal power distribution in organizations), uncertainty avoidance (i.e., the degree of threat felt and avoidance of uncertainty, resulting in increased formality and strictness), and masculinity/femininity (i.e., whether society's dominant values are more assertive versus relational) (Taras et al., 2010).

In fact, research has found more variability in the norms, beliefs, and values that are used to conceptualize nation-level cultural dimensions within nations than between nations (Fischer & Schwartz, 2011; Smith et al., 2017). This raises questions about the long-standing notion that an individual's behaviors are guided by an awareness (implicit or explicit) of the norms, beliefs, and values that are considered typical of their nation (Smith et al., 2017). For example, labeling Asian or Asian American cultures as collectivistic or interdependent proposes a logical flaw originating from cross-cultural psychology research and substantial dependence on Anglo-American and East Asian populations (Kim & Cohen, 2010). Asian or Asian American cultures do not define collectivism and interdependence; rather, Asian or Asian American cultures are types of collectivist and interdependent cultures (Kim & Cohen, 2010).

Hofstede's cultural dimensions differ from cultural logics (e.g., face culture) foundationally. Cultural logics look at not only the mind, but also behaviors, cultural patterns, and practices with the lens of self-worth (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Moreover, Hofstede investigated cultural dimensions to make sense from an outsider's perspective to outsiders, whereas cultural logics aim to make sense within the culture regardless of outsiders' understanding (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Additionally, the self-worth basis of cultural logics may provide more nuanced insight. Of the cultural logics, face culture is more theoretically aligned with other inherently social constructs (e.g., political skill and shared leadership).

Face Culture

Thus, we turn to cultural logics to "[weave] together various scripts, behaviors, practices, and cultural patterns" to give meaning and "logical consistency and coherence for the people of a culture" (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Cultural logics are aimed to describe the logic for the people within the culture whether consistency or coherence is perceived by those outside the culture or not (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Acceptance or rejection of the dominant culture theme is dependent on the individual. There are three specified cultural logics—honor, dignity, and face (HDF). HDF culture types are focused on social identity and whether self-worth is held internally, externally, or a combination (Aslani et al., 2016). While there are three cultural logics, face is the most relevant to our purposes of filling

research gaps of face culture in teams while investigating political skill and shared leadership because different cultures subscribe to differing logics and "individual differences mean something different in each" (Leung & Cohen, 2001). Thus, for purposes of interpretability, I will focus solely on face.

Kim and Cohen (2010) suggest that people, regardless of culture, find self-identity in both first- and third-person perspectives, and which perspective holds more weight depends on cultural influences. Kim and Cohen (2010) along with Leung and Cohen (2011) purport that the face cultural logic bases valuation of the self mostly external (i.e., personal worth is social worth), and belongs to the individual unless lost. Face culture typically functions within hierarchies that are settled and cooperative. "Face" as a term is abstract and focuses on the expected social extensions and reciprocations of respect and compliance rather than the individual (Song, 2017). While all people implicitly possess face, depending on hierarchical status, some have more than others; status lines within a hierarchy guide interactions and exchanges. In addition to the ability to lose face, an individual can gain face, and can give face. While these are possibilities, the focus within face cultures remains on not losing face (Hamamura, Meijer, Heine, Kamaya, & Hori, 2009)—in other words, saving face.

Moreover, face has a nature of mutuality (Lee & Dong, 2007)—the acts of gaining face, maintaining face, and avoiding losing face are referred to as facework, which is considered a "powerful social motive" (Song, 2017). Additionally, Zygaldo (2018) qualitatively assessed the need for the understanding that have a shared identity (i.e., being part of a larger group) is great, and "one's socially determined identity [is] also a means of communication with the surrounding other."

Furthermore, face culture members are particularistic—i.e., more attention is paid to relationship obligations (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998)—and function in strong norms of reciprocity. There exists an obligation for collaboration in effort to preserve one another's face. This obligation comes from the notion that it is inappropriate to cause someone else to lose face—this results in delicately observed formalities and avoided direct conflicts (Gelfand, Lim, & Raver, 2004; Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006; Gelfand et

al., 2001; Sanchez-Burks & Mor Barak, 2004). When someone violates the cultural norms, shame and loss of face are experienced. Disrupting the harmony and system order is cause for the superior or group to punish the wrongdoer—if the victim directly retaliates, this would be considered inappropriate and undesirable due to further disrupting the harmony (Leung & Cohen, 2001). However, punishment that is direct is typically considered disruptive (e.g., loudly disciplining at the perpetrator in front of the team), so face culture members tend to prefer to address conflict indirectly (Gelfand et al., 2001). Lastly, those within the face culture logic deem untrustworthy people as people who do not care about others' opinions or face (Leung & Cohen, 2011).

Studying face culture rather than Hofstede's dimensions relates to the benefit of looking at cultural logics to provide even more information rather than demographic prototypes (Brett, 2018). Furthermore, looking at face culture paves the way for understanding face culture's complexity, uniqueness, and prevalence to respect face culture, which has been requested by Asian researchers (Dong & Lee, 2007). Additionally, the cultural logics' self-worth basis may have stronger and more nuanced team and shared leadership implications than Hofstede's nationally-based dimensions/demographic prototypes.

Face Culture in Interpersonal Relationships

While research of face culture at the team level is scarce, there is literature surrounding face culture in relation to others. Because to face culture members self-worth is social-worth (Kim & Cohen, 2010), there is research reviewing face culture members' interpersonal dealings in social settings. For example, Kitayama, Snibbe, Markust, & Suzuki (2004) found participants who were Japanese displayed post-decision rationalization for private choices only when others' opinions were invoked. Additionally, Heine and Lehman (1997) and Hoshino-Browne et al. (2005) found that Asian participants did not display dissonance effects when making decisions for themselves—only when making decisions for friends. In sum, face culture participants are greater influenced by third-person perspectives versus first-person perspectives, which reflects the high concern for face preservation (Kim & Cohen, 2010).

Face culture has also been studied in relation to workplace conflict and conflict management. Brett (2018) defines workplace conflict as "incompatible activities—actions of one person that interfere, obstruct, or in some way get in the way of the actions of another person," and states that workplace conflict is present in social interdependent situations. Because of the differing views of self-worth in the HDF culture logics, different cultures working together may result in workplace conflict. In other words, actions in one cultural logic that improve on self-worth may be actions that negate self-worth in another cultural logic (e.g., direct confrontation in honor culture versus face culture). In the face cultural logic, self-worth is dependent on others' views—the degree of respectability. Those of the face culture logic tend to indirectly confront conflict (Gelfand et al., 2001), which may look like indirect signaling of the issue (expecting the target will "notice, take responsibility, and resolve") or turning to a third party for resolution. This indirect confrontation mitigates the risk of losing face in the case of their resolution request being denied. This approach also negates the target's risk of losing face from attention being called to their lack of social role fulfillment. In sum, the indirect confrontation approach reduces risk of losing face to both parties by avoiding disrupting the social harmony. Face culture members consider both their and the target's social role fulfillment in restoring social harmony. Furthermore, evidence suggests that "emotions are culturally constructed" (Brett, 2018; Mesquita et al., 2016). As previously mentioned, the common negative emotion in face culture is shame; however, it is likely to be suppressed (Brett, 2018). In the correct context, shaming others can be an act of fulfilling their social role by promoting others who are not fulfilling their role, to fulfill their role.

The face-negotiation theory is a framework that addresses face and facework differences and similarities in conflict (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). The framework's main assertions are (1) that in every communication situation, people of all cultures attempt to maintain face, (2) uncertainty situations result in uncertainty of face, (3) facework actions are influenced by culture, individual, and situational variables, and (4) this influences strategies used (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). Based on this framework and prior research, "face mediates the relationship between cultural- or individual-level variables and conflict styles" (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003). The face-negotiation theory delineates face concerns three ways—self-face ("concern for one's own image), other-face (concern for

another's image), and mutual-face (concern for both participants' images and/or the relationship's image) (Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998).

Additionally, though older, among the conflict and negotiation literature, there are conflicting results in how face culture members intervene (Brett et al., 2018). Wall et al. (1995) found that third party mediators tended to be elders with government authority to intervene or esteemed community members with no government authority to intervene. Thus, face culture members may defer to social superiors to intervene, and/or peers to intervene for fulfill their social role. However, Wall & Callister (1999) found both assertive and non-assertive interveners who took more forceful and cautious approaches, respectively. Those who were non-assertive took a cautious approach to prevent all parties from losing face, and to prevent protagonists from owing the intervener favors in the intervention was successful (Wall & Callister, 1999). Brett et al. (2007) found that found that superiors were more likely to act autocratically and make conservative decisions; third party peers were more likely to "reach decisions that integrated the parties' interests." These results are surprising because community mediation data would suggest less assertive approaches. Lastly, Tinsley and Brett (2001) found in a negotiation study that face culture managers were less likely to resolve all issues in order to favor the community's interests, not just the protagonist's interests. As conflicting, unexpected, and some expected results have been found (e.g., some studies looking at Chinese versus Japanese managers), I subscribe to Leung and Cohen's (2001) notion that though individuals may be within a cultural context, they are not necessarily of it. Thus, the amount of acceptance or rejection of a culture's values varies based on the individual. Although research has investigated the aforementioned dyadic relationships, face culture has yet to be examined in team settings.

As described above, face culture is more theoretically aligned with other inherently social constructs (e.g., political skill and shared leadership) because those in face culture place immense emphasis on self-worth as social worth. Political skill focuses on the management of social relationships, and shared leadership relies on sharing social influence (Ferris et al., 2005; Leung & Cohen, 2011; Pearce & Sims, 2000). All three concepts align as inherently social.

Political Skill

While culture aids in categorizing psychological situations and behavior clusters into meaningful logics, individual differences are also relevant because the amount of acceptance or rejection of a culture's values varies based on the individual (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Individuals can be in a cultural context but differ from the prototypical cultural context (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Political skill, an individual difference, is still inherently social—thus, political skill is likely to influence other social constructs such as shared leadership.

Political skill is defined at as "the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ahearn et al., 2004; Ferris et al., 2005). Political skill was initially associated with formal power; however, political skill can also be considered in an informal context (Perrewé et al., 2004). The four subdimensions of political skill are social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity.

Those high in social astuteness have an accurate grasp of the social context and the relating interpersonal interactions, including accurate interpretation of their own and others' behaviors (Ferris et al., 2005; Kimura, 2015). Interpersonal influence regards adapting behavior to social demands to elicit personally beneficial responses of others (Ferris et al., 2005), typically doing so in a "subtle and convincing manner" (Kimura, 2015). Moreover, those high in networking ability can cultivate and utilize strong and beneficial relationships and diverse networks, and are often highly skilled negotiators, deal makers, and conflict managers (Ferris et al., 2005; Kimura, 2015). Lastly, apparent sincerity synthesizes the dimensions, as attempts to influence others' behaviors may only be successful when the individual is perceived as sincere and authentic, not as manipulative (Ferris et al., 2005). This authenticity allows the high politically skilled individual to build trust in others (Ferris et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2019).

Distinctiveness of Political Skill

Political skill is a social effectiveness construct but is likely different from other social effectiveness constructs (Ferris et al., 2002c, Kimura, 2015; Treadway et al., 2005).

Political skill differs from other social effectiveness constructs such as self-efficacy, social intelligence, and emotional intelligence (Ferris et al., 2002c; Kimura, 2015; Semadar et al., 2006; Sunindijo, 2012; Treadway et al., 2005). For example, elf-efficacy is the "judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura et al. 1982, p. 122). Research displays modest positive correlations between self-efficacy and self-reported political skill, and no significant relationship with other-rated political skill (Jawahar et al. 2008; Perrewé et al. 2004; Semadar et al. 2006). The difference lies in relations to task and contextual performance—political skill is greater related to contextual performance whereas self-efficacy is greater related to task performance (Jawahar et al., 2008).

Social intelligence seems similar to political skill due to the shared ability to successfully deal with others (Kimura, 2015). However, political skill relates directly to work interactions whereas social intelligence more so relates to interactions that are general and social (Harris et al., 2007, Kimura, 2015). Moreover, political skill incorporates other subdimensions under the ability to successfully influence others (Ferris et al., 2007). Additionally, research has shown high positive correlations between political skill and emotional intelligence (Ferris et al., 2005b, Semadar et al., 2006, Sunindijo, 2012). Despite the overlap, researchers have purported their distinctness because emotional intelligence is more fundamental and general, and political skill is more goal-oriented (Kimura, 2015, Semadar et al., 2006). For example, political skill is deemed a "unification of knowledge and skill that go beyond knowledge," whereas emotional intelligence is deemed focused on interpersonal relations' emotion-centered aspects (Ferris et al., 2007; Kimura, 2015).

Antecedents and Outcomes of Political Skill

Ferris et al. (2007) synthesized research to delineate the dispositional and personal ability antecedents of political skill by dimension. Overall, the antecedents found were perceptiveness (i.e., self-monitoring, conscientiousness), control (i.e., locus of control, self-efficacy), affability (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, positive affectivity), active influence (i.e., proactive, action-state), and development experiences (i.e., role modeling, mentoring) (Ferris et al., 2007).

Political skill has been positively related to leader effectiveness when measured by unit and leader performance (Brouer et al., 2013, Douglas & Ammeter, 2004), follower effectiveness (Brouer et al., 2013), perceived organizational support (Treadway et al., 2004), and team performance (Ahearn et al., 2004). In fact, political skill was found to be the only social effectiveness construct that displayed significant predictive contribution (out of leadership self-efficacy, self-monitoring, and emotional intelligence) (Semadar et al., 2006). Research has also demonstrated positive relations to job satisfaction, self-efficacy, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, work productivity, career success, and personal reputation (Munyon et al., 2014). Political skill was not related to psychological strain but was found as an antidote to stressors (Kimura, 2015; Munyon et al., 2014).

Political Skill as a Moderator and in Teams

While political skill has more often been studied as an input, several studies have investigated political skill as a moderator (Kimura, 2015). First, Brouer et al. (2011) found that political skill did not moderate the relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and work-related outcomes of manager-rated commitment, job performance, and job satisfaction (Kimura, 2015). However, this study's results contradict the findings of Gallagher and Laird (2008), Kacmar et al. (2013), and Rosen and Levy (2013) (Kimura, 2015). The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and commitment was found to be less when both leader-member exchange (LMX) quality and political skill were high (Kimura, 2013). Moreover, Brouer et al. (2009) found that political skill significantly moderated the LMX relationship quality when supervisor and subordinate dyads were racially dissimilar. This provides the implication that political skill can moderate the relationship between culturally diverse dyad members and leadership.

All the above-described studies have assessed political skill at the individual level of analysis. The closest political skill has been measured in a team setting include the individual-level political skill in relation to team outcomes. For example, leader political skill positively predicted team performance, political skill and common work experience positively predict team performance, and teams with high political skill and common work experience with low collective team commitment had lower team performance (Ahearn et

al., 2004; Semrau, Steigenberger, & Wilhelm, 2017). Additionally, political skill was positively related to team efficacy, team trust, and team performance (Lvina et al., 2017; Semrau et al., 2017). While political skill has not been adequately studied at the team level regarding team processes and behaviors, research results indicate political skill's ability to affect team-related outcomes.

Lastly, research has demonstrated that political skill is partially predicted by personal disposition, and political skill can be learned (Chaudry et al., 2012; Dhiman, 2012; Ferris et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2007; Randel and Wu 2011; Shi et al. 2011). Research has also shown that political skill development in early career stages significantly affects success in careers (Kimura, 2015)—thus, better understanding political skill in a multicultural team environment is practically beneficial to individuals, teams, and organizations.

Shared Leadership

Shared leadership in teams experienced an increase in empirical popularity due to theoretical links to group outcomes like effectiveness (Pearce & Sims, 2000) and empirical, positive relations to team performance—even when compared to typical team hierarchical leadership (Carson et al., 2007; D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Qu, Cormican, & Chen, 2020; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014). Shared leadership is defined as "an emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members" (Carson et al., 2007), and involves shared influence among and between individual members (Pearce & Sims, 2000). The degree of leadership centralization indicates the dispersion of shared leadership (i.e., leadership influence is focused on few or dispersed equally among all members) (DeRue, 2011). The proposed study will conceptualize shared leadership through density, a social network conceptualization, which is the "distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members" (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Sparrowe et al., 2001). Teams with greater dispersion of leadership patterns (i.e., shared leadership) tend to be high-performing and highly committed (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce, 2004).

Prior Research on Shared Leadership

Culture has been related to shared leadership both theoretically and empirically. Overall, using data from multiple meta-analyses, Taras et al. (2010) found that cultural dimensions and individual-level differences had similar predictive power of job performance, behavior, attitudes and perceptions, traits, and emotions. Thus, investigating both cultural and individual level variables may best predict the outcomes of shared leadership and job performance. Moreover, cultural systems in team composition have been theoretically linked to the display of shared leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2000; Ramthun & Matkin, 2012), and cultural values present significant effects on motivation, individual cognition, emotion, and relational understanding (Carson, 2005). Additionally, diversity in teams impacts team performance in relation to collectivism, preference for teamwork, and cohesion (Bell**,** 2007). Erkutlu (2012) looked at organizational culture's effect on shared leadership and team proactivity's relationship (i.e., increased levels of supportive organizational culture led to a stronger relationship of shared leadership with team proactivity). The relationship between team cultural diversity and shared leadership is theoretically linked yet empirically understudied (Ramthun & Matkin, 2012; Shuffler, Kramer, & Burke, 2016), which increases the importance and relevance of the current study.

Chapter 3
Hypothesis Development

Hypothesis Development

Below is the proposed model of this study (see Figure 1).

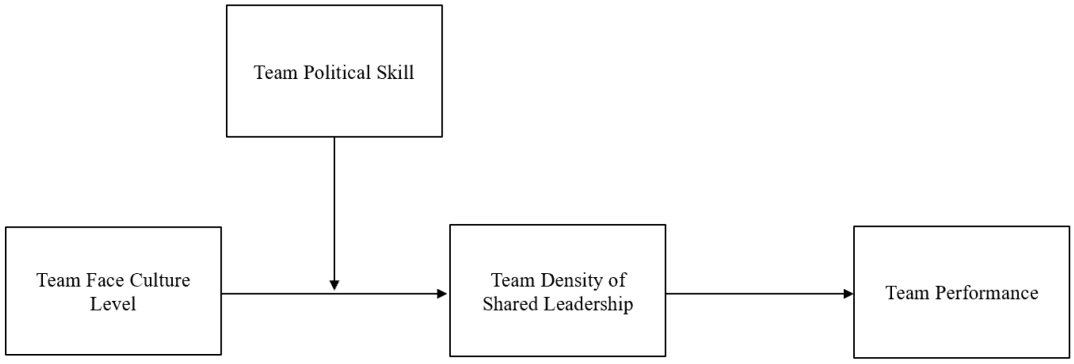

Figure 1: Proposed Model

Shared Leadership and Performance

Research on teams has focused on what predicts effective performance. Research has explored a number of predictors of effective performance (e.g., personality, culture, intelligence) (Wildman et al., 2011). However, one emerging stream of research has focused on shared leadership (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, & Kukenburger, 2016). Conceptually, higher levels of team functioning regarding trust and respect are fostered when team members are open to and receive others' influence—these team aspects have been linked to increased performance (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004; D'Innocenzo, et al., 2016; Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Additionally, research has found that shared leadership predicts team performance better than vertical leadership (Barnett & Weidenfeller, 2016; D'Innocenzo et al., 2016), and that shared leadership in general has a

positive relationship with team performance (Carson et al., 2007; Erez et al., 2002; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014; Wu, Cornican, & Chen, 2020). Not only has shared leadership been found to positively relate to team performance in cross-sectional studies, shared leadership has also been found to positively relate to team performance in longitudinal studies (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). These findings persist because in increasingly flatter organizations, teams engaging in shared leadership can be more satisfied due to increased involvement in decision-making, knowledge sharing, responsibility motivation, team cohesion, and efficiency (Wang et al., 2014). Moreover, team social capital (e.g., knowledge, abilities, skills) increases through team-focused learning, which can enhance team performance (Wang et al., 2014).

Furthermore, not only do I expect shared leadership network density to positively predict team performance based on conceptual meta-analytic results, I also expect this based on methodological meta-analytic results. The proposed study will conceptualize shared leadership through network density, which is the "distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members" (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). D'Innocenzo et al. (2016) and Wu et al. (2020) found that studies that use density to measure shared leadership showed significantly higher correlations when compared to holistic aggregation measurements of shared leadership. Thus, I propose a replication hypothesis that shared leadership network density will positively relate to team performance (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Qu et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2014).

Hypothesis 1. Shared leadership density positively predicts team performance.

Face Culture and Shared Leadership

Theoretically, team composition regarding member characteristics should predict shared leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2000). Pearce and Sims (2000) present a conceptual framework for shared leadership, displaying the interconnectivity of cultural systems and influence (i.e., environment characteristics and shared leadership). For example, if an attribute of a cultural system is "do not question authority," the implications on shared leadership exhibited would likely be different than within a cultural system in which "questioning authority" is well regarded (Pearce & Sims, 2000). This conceptualization indicates that

the cultural logic of face can function as an antecedent to the display of shared leadership, which implies some form of a relationship.

As previously defined, cultural logics "[weave] together various scripts, behaviors, practices, and cultural patterns" to give meaning and "logical consistency and coherence for the people of a culture" (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Face culture members tend to hold the valuation of self mostly external, possessing worth that can be lost (i.e., losing face) (Hamamura et al., 2009; Leung & Cohen, 2011). Along these lines, avoiding losing face and fulfilling social roles are prioritized (Brett, 2018; Leung & Cohen, 2011). Following the strong norms of reciprocity, avoiding disrupting the "omnipresent principal" of social harmony or the system order is prioritized because doing such would result in losing face (Adam, Shirako, & Maddux, 2010; Brett, 2018; Yao et al., 2017). If the social harmony is disrupted, theoretically, face culture members would address this disruption indirectly to avoid losing their own face and prevent others from losing their face (Brett, 2018; Gelfand et al., 2001).

In the instance that a team is following hierarchical leadership (aligning with face culture's predisposition to default to hierarchical contexts) (Brett, 2018; Leung & Cohen, 2001), role fulfillment may be reflected in not sharing leadership influence. This can be expected following most theoretical and empirical findings of face culture interactions literature (Brett, 2018; Gelfand et al., 2001; Leung & Cohen; Oetzel & Ting-Toomey, 2003; Wall et al., 1995; Wall & Callister, 1999; Yao et al., 2017). However, if the team-established expectations are to engage in shared leadership, face culture members may put preserving social harmony above hierarchical, cultural inclinations and engage in sharing leadership influence to fulfill those expected roles. In other words, it is not expected that face will have a clear main effect on shared leadership—whether face will increase or decrease shared leadership will depend on the initial context of the team. In summary, the direct effect of face culture on shared leadership can go either way because face culture suggests members will attempt to fulfill expected social roles but does not posit what members' tendencies for those roles will be. One key variable that may determine when face increases versus decreases shared leadership is the team's composition of political skill.

Political skill focuses heavily on interpersonal influence, so I propose that political skill will have a direct impact on shared leadership.

Impact of Political Skill

In the proposed study, those high in political skill are assumed to be high in each of the four subdimensions. I am proposing to conceptualize political skill at the team level by taking maximums and minimums, utilizing the strongest link argument (which still pertains to teams because the context is within a team) by which the strongest link is one member with high political skill. I will also measure political skill as a team average, representing multiple or all members as high in political skill.

Shared leadership has been found to be significantly related to the group outcome of networking behavior, which is closely related to political skill (Pearce & Sims, 2000). Pearce and Sims (2000) also note that research findings suggest that group behavior outcomes may also impact shared leadership. More broadly, individual differences have been found to relate to the emergence of leadership (Barnett & Weidenfeller, 2016). Thus, political skill may impact the density of shared leadership to some extent.

The dimensions of political can each provide some justification for why I believe political skill will impact shared leadership density. First, those high in social astuteness have an accurate grasp of the social context and the relating interpersonal interactions (Ferris et al., 2005)—an individual who can fulfill group needs are perceived as a leadership source (Xu et al., 2019). Second, those high in interpersonal influence adapt their behavior to social demands to elicit personally beneficial responses of others (Ferris et al., 2005). Third, those high in networking ability can cultivate strong and beneficial relationships and tend to be proficient negotiators, deal makers, and conflict managers (Ferris et al., 2005).

The last political skill dimension, apparent sincerity allows the previous dimensions to be effective because attempts to influence others tend to be more successful if the influential individual is perceived as sincere and not as manipulative (Ferris et al., 2005). This authenticity allows the high politically skilled individual to build group members' confidence in the politically skilled individual (Ferris et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2019).

Therefore, an individual high in political skill may possess the leadership attributes necessary in any leadership context (e.g., shared leadership) through: (1) understanding the social context and interpersonal interactions regarding the team's needs, (2) possessing the interpersonal influence to evoke advantageous, follower responses of team members, and (3) convincing members that the individual is sincere as a leader. Because political skill focuses on essential leadership attributes like interpersonal influence, I propose that political skill will have a direct impact on shared leadership.

When one team member is high in political skill (maximum), the individual will possess leadership attributes such as mastery at interpersonal interactions and influences to evoke follower responses of team members. With only one team member emerging as a leader, the team would follow a more hierarchical leadership structure (e.g., one politically skilled individual elicits follower responses of the remaining team members). Thus, I propose that when one member is high in political skill, the shared leadership density will be lower.

Hypothesis 2. Maximum political skill will be negatively related to shared leadership density.

D'Innocenzo et al. (2014) suggest that shared leadership density will be higher with team members are able to accept peer leadership. D'Innocenzo et al. (2014) further state that "density is the quantity of interactions or relationships in a group. The greater the number of influential relationships in a group, the more dense it is said to be." Thus, with all members high in political skill (i.e., high in social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity), members will be more open to giving and receiving influence—this would result in an increased amount of influential relationships in the team, likely increasing shared leadership density. In fact, research has shown that integrity (i.e., being trustworthy, fair and reliable; being trusting) are near necessary antecedents to the emergence of shared leadership (Barnett & Weidenfeller, 2016)—the political skill dimension of apparent sincerity (i.e., individual perceived as authentic and trustworthy) aligns with research as an antecedent to shared leadership.

Therefore, I propose that when all members are high in political skill, all members have the necessary interpersonal influence and thus a sole leader is less discernable. With all

members socially astute, interpersonally influential, capable of networking, and apparently sincere, the team would share the influence laterally and thus engage in more shared leadership.

Hypothesis 3. Team mean political skill will be positively related to shared leadership density.

Political Skill as Moderator

As team cultural systems have been linked to the display of shared leadership within groups and cultural values have presented significant effects on motivation, individual cognition, emotion, and relational understanding (Carson, 2005; Pearce & Sims, 2000), I expect culture to influence the density of shared leadership. As previously established, individual differences (e.g., political skill) influence the degree that an individual accepts their culture's values (Leung & Cohen, 2011). Thus, I expect team political skill to have an effect on self-worth identification and influence shared, which would affect this relationship's direction.

When considering face culture as an antecedent to the emergence of shared leadership, the thought arises of what instigates team members with high face culture to engage in shared leadership. Because face culture members do not act autonomously or in self-interest and find social satisfaction in fulfilling their roles (Aslani et al., 2016), I propose that political skill may determine when a team possessing high levels of face logic will engage in more, versus less, shared leadership.

The dimensions of political also provide some justification for why I believe political skill will also impact the relationship between face and shared leadership. First, those high in social astuteness would have an accurate grasp of the face culture social context (i.e., self-worth is social worth) and interpersonal interactions (i.e., prioritization of preservation of face and social harmony) (Ferris et al., 2005). Second, those high in interpersonal influence can adapt their behavior to the face culture social demands to prompt others to respond in such a way that would benefit the politically skilled individual (Ferris et al., 2005). Lastly, because those high in networking ability can cultivate solid and beneficial relationships

and apparent sincerity prompts others to perceive the individual as trustworthy (Ferris et al., 2005), politically skilled individuals can build group members' confidence in the politically skilled individuals (Ferris et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2019). Face culture types deem people unreliable if they are "without a concern for face, opinions of others," (Leung & Cohen, 2011); individuals with high political skill would more easily build rapport with face culture members, which may affect the social roles and use of shared leadership.

Individuals possessing face logic tend to want to fulfill social obligations and maintain harmony and therefore are more likely to adhere to one hierarchical leader if that leader is clearly emerging based on their political skill. I propose that when one team member is high in political skill (maximum), this individual would have more leading influence and the ability to elicit follower responses which enacts a more hierarchical leader-member structure. Thus, the face culture members may trust and follow the direction of the one influential person to fulfill their role in a situation that reflects face culture's more prototypical leadership structure. One individual with the skill needed to grasp the face culture context and interactions can influence the context so that a team member fulfilling their social role would be following the highly politically skilled individual as a leader. With a hierarchical leader-follower structure and thus the follower social role elicited, face culture members (who tend to default to maintaining social harmony by fulfilling their social role) would likely abide.

Hypothesis 4. Team political skill will moderate the relationship between team face culture and team shared leadership density, such that, when maximum political skill is high, team mean face will be negatively related to shared leadership density.

If all team members are both high in face and high in political skill, discerning a single leader to follow will become more difficult. Instead, because each member possesses both leading influence and perceived reliability while possessing the desire to maintain face, members would be fulfilling their social roles by engaging in collective action and dispersed leadership—shared leadership (van Zomeren & Louis, 2017). With all members high in political skill, social role fulfillment of such teams would be to share influence and leadership as opposed to one member high in political skill eliciting hierarchical

leadership. Because high face culture members strongly desire social harmony maintenance, I propose that when all members are high in political skill, they would be more likely to accept and engage in a shared leadership structure.

Hypothesis 5. Team political skill will moderate the relationship between team face culture and team shared leadership density, such that, when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will be positively related to shared leadership density.

Combining the above moderating hypotheses with the already well-established positive relationship between shared leadership and team performance (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Day et al., 2004; D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Erez et al., 2002; Marks et al., 2001), it is also expected that political skill will function as a moderator of the indirect relationship between face and team performance as mediated through shared leadership (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Qu et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2014).

Hypothesis 6. Team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through shared leadership such that when one member is high in political skill (maximum), team mean face will have an indirect negative effect on performance via decreasing shared leadership.

Hypothesis 7. Team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through shared leadership such that when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will have an indirect positive effect on performance via increasing shared leadership.

A list of all hypotheses is provided in Table 1 below.

Table 1. List of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1.	Shared leadership density positively predicts team performance. (replication)
Hypothesis 2.	Maximum political skill will be negatively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 3.	Team mean political skill will be positively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 4.	Team political skill will moderate the relationship between team face culture and team shared leadership density, such that, when maximum political skill is high, team mean face will be negatively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 5.	Team political skill will moderate the relationship between team face culture and team shared leadership density, such that, when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will be positively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 6.	Team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through shared leadership such that when one member is high political skill (maximum), team mean face will have an indirect negative effect on performance via decreasing shared leadership.
Hypothesis 7.	Team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through shared leadership such that when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will have an indirect positive effect on performance via increasing shared leadership.

Chapter 4
Methods

Study Details

Sample

The study utilizes archival data consisting of a sample of undergraduate student teams in General Psychology or Senior Engineering Design courses from a private, technical university. Teams typically consisted of three to five members. For Psychology course teams, the task was to complete a senior project at the end of the 16-week semester. For Engineering course teams, the task was to complete a senior project at the end of the year (two semesters). From 2018-2020, the maximum total is 102 teams (482 individuals). See Table 2 for maximum sample qualities by year.

Table 2. Maximum Sample Quantities by Year

	2018 – 2019	2019 – 2020
Timepoints:	6	6
Individuals:	239	243
Teams:	54	48

Lastly, in psychological literature, there is an overreliance on undergraduate student samples (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). However, undergraduate students are likely to become professionals, managers, and executives (Bergman & Jean, 2016). Furthermore, the archival data was gathered from teams not in lab settings, but in assigned project settings with a deliverable of weight, which offers a conservative setting for testing these variables (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). The weighted deliverable (i.e., academic weight of grade or pass/fail) assisted in the simulation of a team, work setting. While majority of undergraduate students are White (51%), there is a more significant portion of international students (22%) (Florida Institute of Technology, 2018).

Design

After attaining written permission from professors of the General Psychology and Senior Engineering Design courses, students enrolled in the courses became participants. The duration of the General Psychology courses was one undergraduate semester, and the duration of the Senior Engineering Design courses included both Fall and Spring undergraduate (two) semesters. All teams were instructed to produce a project deliverable at the conclusion of their classes. Teams were required to meet several times throughout the duration of the team to produce this deliverable.

Participants received the first survey that contained individual difference construct items at the beginning of the project, in which demographics, HDF culture logics, and individual political skill were included. The repeated process surveys were sent to the teams during team functioning (See Table 2 for complete timepoints by year) and included shared leadership and subjective team performance measures. At the beginning of the week for each timepoint, participants received the surveys via emails that contained they survey link. Because the Psychology teams were together for one semester, they received a total of three surveys. The Engineering teams were together for one year (i.e., two semesters), and received a total of six surveys.

For this study, I will be utilizing the first survey data (i.e., demographics, face culture, political skill) for both Psychology and Engineering teams. Small and Rentsch (2010) found that leadership structures differ throughout the team's existence. Shared leadership is a process that develops over time (Perry et al., 1999); in fact, Mathieu et al. (2015) showed that student team shared leadership density significantly increased over time, and additional authors found that shared leadership was lower at initial formation and higher in later stages of team development (Berdahl & Anderson, 2005; DeRue et al., 2015; Fransen et al., 2018). Thus, to assess a representation of average shared leadership of the teams, the middle timepoint for both (i.e., 2nd survey for Psychology, 4th survey for Engineering) will be used to assess shared leadership. The final timepoint for both (i.e., 3rd survey for Psychology, 6th survey for Engineering) will be used to assess subjective team performance at the completion of the team. Because the team duration differs between Psychology and

Engineering teams, I will conduct an independent samples *t*-test to determine if the variables differ significantly across the team types before combining the datasets.

Measures

Table 3 indicates the variable measures, timepoint(s), total items, and rating scale. Appendix A contains the items of each measure.

Table 3. Measures

Variable	Timepoint	Measure	Item Number	Likert Rating Scale
Face Culture	1	Smith et al. (2017)	6	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree)
Political Skill	1	Ferris et al. (2005)	17	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree)
Shared Leadership Density	All	Carson et al. (2007).	10	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree)
Subjective Team Performance	All	Gibson et al. (2003)	12	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree)

Face Culture

Face culture was assessed along with honor and dignity culture logics using Smith et al.'s (2017) measure, with ratings on a Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Of the logics, 6 items assessed face culture. A sample item is, "It is important to maintain harmony within one's group." Face culture will be aggregated to the team level by using individual team member face culture scores to calculate the mean face culture of team.

Political Skill

Political skill was assessed using Ferris et al.'s (2005) political skill measure of 17 items rated on a Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). A sample item is, "When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do." Political skill will be aggregated to the team level by calculating the team mean (average of all individual

member scores) and by the minimum or maximum skill (e.g., teams with one highly politically skilled member).

Shared Leadership Density

Shared leadership density was measured using a similar version of Carson et al.'s (2007), "To what degree does your team rely on this individual for leadership?" with a Likert scale of 1 (Not at all) to 5 (To a very great extent). The study used, "I have relied on NAME's leadership on the project since the last survey" with a Likert scale of 1 (Strongly Agree) to 5 (Strongly Disagree). Each team member rated their agreement on the item for every team member.

Sparrowe et al. (2001) describe density as "the mean number of [relationships] group member," and purports that "the more ties each group member enjoys with the other group members, the greater the density of the network." To calculate shared leadership density, all member ratings are summed then divided by the total possible sum of relationships among team members, creating a network density of shared leadership ratio (proportion of total actual relationships to total potential relationships).

$$Potential\ Connections\ = \frac{n * (n-1)}{2}$$

$$Network\ Density\ = \frac{Actual\ Connections}{Potential\ Connections}$$

Carson et al.'s (2007) visualization of the density measure with shared leadership sociograms is provided as an example in Figure 2 (circles/nodes represent team members, arrows represent leadership ties/relations). For example, if member A has an arrow pointing to member B, member A perceives member B as a source of leadership. Two-way arrows are both members perceiving each other as a leadership source (Carson et al., 2007).

This study examines shared leadership density both as the strength of the connections (weighted) and as a traditional network index as proportion of connections (unweighted).

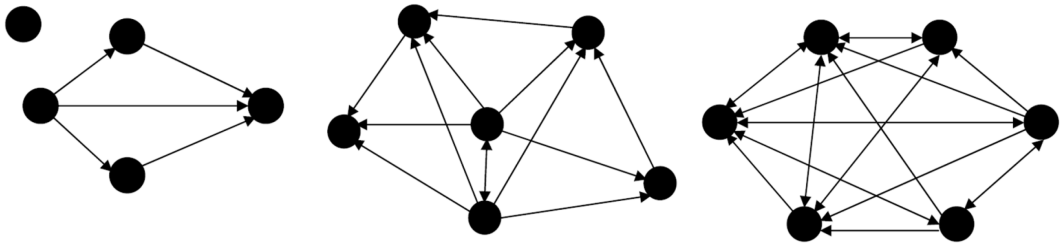

Figure 2. Example of Shared Leadership Sociograms (Carson et al., 2007)

Subjective Team Performance

Subjective team performance was assessed with 12 items from Gibson et al. (2003) on a Likert scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). A sample item is, "This team meets its deadlines." The mean of team ratings will be calculated.

Analysis

Descriptive statistics (e.g., score distribution, means, standard deviations) will be calculated for all study variables. To examine the relationships, variance, and within-group agreement of the team-level variables and justify aggregation of shared constructs to the team level, I conducted an intraclass correlation (ICC) (Bliese, 2000).

I used linear regressions to investigate the impact of shared leadership on team performance, and the impact of political skill on shared leadership. I used Hayes' (2012) PROCESS macro moderated mediation analysis Model 1 to examine the moderation—this will illuminate any main and/or interaction effects with face culture as the predictor, the outcome of shared leadership, and the moderator of political skill. Further, I used Hayes' (2012) PROCESS macro Model 7 to examine the moderated mediation. PROCESS macro uses bootstrapping methodology and mean centering to provide more statistical power (Hayes, 2012). A list of this study's proposed hypotheses and corresponded proposed analyses are provided in Table 4.

Table 4. List of Analyses by Hypothesis

Hypothesis 1.	Linear Regression	Shared leadership density positively predicts team performance. (replication)
Hypothesis 2.	Linear Regression	Maximum political skill will be negatively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 3.	Linear Regression	Team mean political skill will be positively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 4.	PROCESS Macro Model 1 (Moderation)	Team political skill will moderate the relationship between team face culture and team shared leadership density, such that, when maximum political skill is high, team mean face will be negatively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 5.	PROCESS Macro Model 1 (Moderation)	Team political skill will moderate the relationship between team face culture and team shared leadership density, such that, when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will be positively related to shared leadership density.
Hypothesis 6.	PROCESS Macro Model 7 (Moderated Mediation)	Team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through shared leadership such that when one member is high political skill (maximum), team mean face will have an indirect negative effect on performance via decreasing shared leadership.
Hypothesis 7.	PROCESS Macro Model 7 (Moderated Mediation)	Team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through shared leadership such that when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will have an indirect positive effect on performance via increasing shared leadership.

Moreover, I controlled for collectivism when investigating face culture impact because collectivism is the country's people's preference to act as individuals or as group members, and more conceptually related to face (Taras et al., 2010). I have chosen to not control for power distance because the argument can be made that face culture and power distance are more theoretically distant—that is, power distance is society's acceptance of unequal power distribution in organizations whereas face culture reflects the individual's subscription to society's norms (Leung & Cohen, 2011; Taras et al., 2010) and control for

team size because team size may influence resource distribution and workload, which can influence team performance (Carson et al., 2007).

Chapter 5
Results

Missing Data

Not all teams and/or team members completed all timepoints or surveys, and thus there was a decrease in sample size after cleaning. Of the combined sample, the minimum included were 31 teams (when collectivism was controlled for) and maximum was 56 teams (without collectivism as a control).

In a search for consensus of aggregation statistics, Maloney et al. (2010) found that of the 62 articles that were included, 75% of the studies did not report within-group response, and of those studies, 22 only stated a lower end inclusion cutoff. In 29 studies, a percentage response rate was used to determine inclusion; only 8 provided those percentages (Maloney et al., 2010). Thus, it is common in the aggregation literature to not report details of missing data treatments. Of those that did, it is more common to report a listwise deletion cutoff. For my thesis, I used a 50% response rate of the study variables as the lower bound inclusion. The count varied based on team size—for example, a team of 6 would need 3 members responding and a team of 8 would need 4 members responding.

Assumption Testing

Z-scores were computed for shared leadership (SL) and subjective team performance to check for outliers. If data exceeded the minimum and maximum values of -3 and 3, the outlier was removed. After this treatment, z-scores were examined again and it was concluded that there were no outliers—both were normally distributed. Levene's test suggested that variances in SL density, $F(224) = 2.56$, $p = .20$, and subjective team performance, $F(208) = 5.41$, $p = .57$, were statistically equivalent.

Next, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of SL and subjective team performance scores of both Psychology ($N = 280$) and Engineering ($N = 123$) groups to justify combining the mid- and end-points into one variable for both groups. Results showed that Psychology teams ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 0.57$) were not significantly

different from Engineering teams (M = 3.39, SD = 0.73) on their reliance ratings, $t(224)$ = -1.27, p = .21, with the nondifference having a 95% confidence interval (CI) [-.37, .08]. Results showed that Psychology teams (M = 3.60, SD = 0.29) were not significantly different from Engineering teams (M = 3.57, SD = 0.41) on their team effectiveness ratings, $t(208)$ = .57, p = .57, with the nondifference having a 95% CI [-.08, .14].

Because subjective team performance is a theoretically shared variable, I ran an intraclass correlation (ICC) to justify using the mean as a reflection of reality. This index is used to assess the degree of within-group agreement, which describes how interchangeable ratings are at the individual level (Bliese, 2000, p. 355). ICC(1) "represents a form of proportional consistency" and within-group situations (Bliese, 2000, p. 355). ICC(2) gives "an estimate of the reliability of the group means" (Bliese, 2000, p. 356). These indices are related to each other via group size (Bliese, 2000). Theoretically, a small ICC(1) suggests that to get reliable group mean estimates, multiple ratings are essential versus one individual's rating as a group mean estimation (Bliese, 2000). ICC(2) refers to the between-group variability. Using the consensus model, a higher agreement level suggests that averaging individual responses represents the team-level response due to implied shared perception (Newman & Sin, 2007).

Measurements of subjective team performance were independent in groups, ICC(1) = -.01, $F(66,147)$ = .96, p = .96. Groups were not easily distinguishable by their average level of subjective team performance, ICC(2) = -.05. These results suggest that aggregation may not be justified because members within their teams may not be rating performance similarly. However, there may be several explanations for these results.

There are no established nor agreed upon ICC cutoffs in the literature (Maloney et al., 2010; Woehr et al., 2015). Woehr et al. (2015) found that 22% of 416 articles looked at reported ICC(1) group values of 0.00 to 0.10, 29% reported 0.11 to .20, and 41% combined of 0.21 to 0.40. The majority of ICC(2) values of 372 articles were distributed among 10% to 14% across 0.41 to 1.00, with a spike of 33% at 0.71-0.80 (Woehr et al., 2015). Only 39% of the 500 articles reported statistics that justified aggregation (Woehr et al., 2015). More common cutoffs for ICC(1) values are median .12 with a range of .00 to .5 as

reported by James (1982), or Bliese's (2000) .05 to .20. However, both are subject to problems with contexts that are too specific to generalize (Woehr et al., 2015).

I conducted the ICC on the uncleaned data, which can result in biased ICC(1) and ICC(2) due to the missing data (Maloney et al., 2010; Newman & Sin, 2007). However, the nature of this bias is not well studied, and can thus result in incorrect inferences about aggregation justification. If the data is missing not-at-random (MNAR), the data is more likely to be biased (e.g., team members that are not satisfied with team performance would be less likely to respond to subjective team performance measures) (Newman & Sin, 2007; Newman, 2014). Furthermore, the bias ICC(1) and ICC(2) are likely to face is that of underestimation or reduction. When the data is NMAR, the common practice of using a cutoff response rate will lead to underestimation of ICC(1) (Newman & Sin, 2007). Maloney et al. (2010) recommend running reliability analyses before removing missing data, as Maloney et al. (2010) found that even using the lowest cutoff rule (i.e., one team member response) increases the likelihood of statistical significance of the relationship due to the increased sample size, despite this not being common practice. Additionally, Maloney et al. (2010) cites Newman (2009), who recommends using all data that is available.

Bivariate Correlations

For descriptive statistics and correlations at the individual level, see Table 5. For descriptive statistics and intercorrelations at the team, see Table 6.

Table 5. Individual Level Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Variable	*N*	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. Collectivism	136	3.48	.49	–				
2. Face	264	3.74	.54	.22*	–			
3. Political Skill	277	3.74	.53	.32**	.05	–		
4. Reliance Mean	206	3.70	.71	.25**	-.02	-.09	–	
5. Team Effectiveness	214	3.57	.42	.27**	.15**	.09	.20**	–

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$. Reliance = shared leadership, Team Effectiveness = subjective team performance.

Table 6. Team Level Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

Variable	*M*	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Collectivism Mean	34	3.50	.27	–							
2. Face Mean	56	3.76	.31	-.38*	–						
3. Political Skill Mean	56	3.73	.29	-.04	-.19	–					
4. Political Skill Max	56	4.21	.44	-.04	-.19	.72**	–				
5. Political Skill Min	56	3.21	.43	.03	-.04	.70**	.15	–			
6. Reliance Weighted	56	3.46	.54	.21	.39**	-.18	-.18	.03	–		
7. Reliance Unweighted	56	.75	.15	.16	.25	-.18	-.81	-.02	.57**	–	
8. Team Effectiveness	51	3.55	.25	-.27	.20	.18	.24	.02	.29*	.18	–

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$. Reliance = shared leadership, Team Effectiveness = subjective team performance.

The team-level intercorrelations demonstrate that team mean face was negatively correlated with the team mean collectivism ($r = -.38$, $p < .05$). Weighted team SL density positively correlated with team mean face ($r = .39$, $p < .01$). Additionally, both maximum political skill ($r = .72$) and minimum political skill ($r = .70$) were strongly correlated with mean political skill at $p < .01$. Unweighted SL density positively correlated with weighted SL density ($r = .57$, $p < .01$). Lastly, subjective team performance positively correlated with weighted SL density ($r = .29$, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that SL density would be positively related to subjective team performance.

Weighted

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use weighted SL density to predict the subjective team performance while controlling for collectivism and team size. In step 1, collectivism ($M = 3.50$, $SD = .29$) and team size were control variables, and did not explain a significant amount of variance in subjective team performance ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .29$; $R^2 = .33$, $F(2,31) = 1.83$, $p = .18$). In step 2, weighted SL density ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .53$) was added to the model, and significantly explained 21.7% of the variance in subjective team performance ($\Delta R^2 = .22$, $\Delta F(1,30) = 9.64$, $p = .00$), supporting hypothesis 1. In the final model with controls and predictor, they together explained a significant amount of the

variance in subjective team performance (R^2 = .26, F(3,30) = 4.78, p = .00). Team size (b = .03, p = .17) was not a significant predictor. Collectivism (b = -.37, p = .02) and weighted SL density (b = .26, p = .00) were significant predictors. See Table 7 for the summary of the analysis results.

Because collectivism limited the analyzable data to N = 34, the model was run without collectivism to increase the sample to N = 51. A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use weighted SL density to predict the subjective team performance while controlling for team size (M = 5.65, SD = 2.70). In step 1, team size was the control variable, and did not explain a significant amount of variance in subjective team performance (M = 3.55, SD = .25; R^2 = .17, F(1,49) = 1.51, p = .23). In step 2, weighted SL density (M = 3.50, SD = .51) was added to the model, and significantly explained 9.5% of the variance in subjective team performance (ΔR^2 = .09, ΔF(1,48) = 5.21, p = .03), supporting hypothesis 1. In the final model with the control and predictor, they together explained a significant amount of the variance in subjective team performance (R^2 = .09, F(2,48) = 3.42, p = .04). Team size (b = .02, p = .13) was not a significant predictor. Weighted SL density (b = .15, p = .03) was a significant predictor.

Unweighted

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use unweighted SL density to predict the subjective team performance while controlling for collectivism and team size. In step 1, collectivism and team size were control variables, and did not explain a significant amount of variance in subjective team performance (R^2 = .33, F(2,31) = 1.83, p = .18). In step 2, unweighted SL density (M = .78, SD = .13) was added to the model, and significantly explained 14.5% of the variance in subjective team performance (ΔR^2 = .15, ΔF (1,30) = 5.79, p = .022), also supporting hypothesis 1. In the final model with controls and predictor, they together explained a significant amount of the variance in subjective team performance (R^2 = .176, F(3,30) = 3.34, p = .03). Team size (b = .03, p = .09) was not a significant predictor. Collectivism (b = -.33, p = .05) and unweighted SL density (b = .89, p = .02) were significant predictors.

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use unweighted SL density to predict the subjective team performance while controlling for team size—collectivism was removed to increase sample size. However, nothing was significant.

Table 7. Summary of H1 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

	B	*SE B*	*β*
Model 1 (controls)			
Collectivism	-.26	.17	-.27
Team Size	.02	.02	.19
Model 2 (predictor)			
Collectivism	-.37	.15	-.37*
Team Size	.03	.02	.21
Weighted SL Density	.26	.08	.48*

Note. $R^2 = .33$, ($p < .05$)

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated that maximum political skill would be negatively related to SL density.

Weighted

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use maximum political skill ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .38$) to predict the weighted SL density while controlling for collectivism and team size. In step 1, collectivism and team size were control variables, and did not explain a significant amount of variance in subjective team performance ($R^2 = .047$, $F(2,31) = .76$, $p = .48$). In step 2, maximum political skill was added to the model, and did not explain a significant amount of variance ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(1,30) = .55$, $p = .65$), not supporting hypothesis 2. In the final model with controls and predictor, they together did not explain a significant amount of the variance in weighted SL density ($R^2 = .05$, $\Delta F(3,30) = .55$, $p = .65$). Team size ($b = -.01$, $p = .77$), collectivism ($b = .39$, $p = .24$), and maximum political skill ($b = .11$, $p = .67$) were not significant predictors.

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use maximum political skill ($M = 4.21$, $SD = .44$) to predict the weighted SL density while controlling for team size and mean

political skill, removing collectivism to increase sample size. However, nothing was significant.

Unweighted

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use maximum political skill to predict the unweighted SL density while controlling for collectivism and team size. In step 1, collectivism and team size were control variables, and did not explain a significant amount of variance in subjective team performance (R^2 = .07, $F(2,31) = 1.23$, p = .31). In step 2, maximum political skill was added to the model, and did not explain a significant amount of variance (ΔR^2 = .01, $\Delta F(1,30) = .36$, p = .55), not supporting hypothesis 2. In the final model with controls and predictor, they together did not explain a significant amount of the variance in unweighted SL density (R^2 = .09, $\Delta F(3,30) = .93$, p = .44). Team size (b = -.01, p = .23), collectivism (b = .07, p = .38), and maximum political skill (b = -.04, p = .55) were not significant predictors.

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use maximum political skill to predict the unweighted SL density while controlling for team size and mean political skill, removing collectivism to increase sample size. However, nothing was significant.

Table 8. Summary of H2 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

	B	*SE B*	*β*
Model 1 (controls)			
Collectivism	.39	.33	.21
Team Size	-.01	.04	-.05
Model 2 (predictor)			
Collectivism	.39	.33	.21
Team Size	-.01	.04	-.05
Maximum PS	.11	.25	.08

Note. R^2 = .05, ($p < .05$)

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 proposed that team mean political skill would be positively related to SL density.

Weighted

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use mean political skill (M = 3.66, SD = .28) to predict the weighted SL density while controlling for collectivism and team size. In step 1, collectivism and team size were control variables, and did not explain a significant amount of variance in subjective team performance (R^2 = .05, F(2,31) = .76, p = .48). In step 2, mean political skill was added to the model, and did not explain a significant amount of variance (ΔR^2 = .00, ΔF(1,30) = .00, p = .96), not supporting hypothesis 3. In the final model with controls and predictor, they together did not explain a significant amount of the variance in weighted SL density (R^2 = .22, ΔF (3,30) = .49, p = .69). Team size (b = -.01, p = .79), collectivism (b = .39, p = .25), and mean political skill (b = -.02, p = .96) were not significant predictors.

A hierarchical linear regression (N = 56) was conducted to use mean political skill to predict the weighted SL density while controlling for team size and maximum political skill and removing collectivism to increase sample size. However, nothing was significant.

Unweighted

A hierarchical linear regression was conducted to use mean political skill to predict the unweighted SL density while controlling for collectivism and team size. In step 1, collectivism and team size were control variables, and did not explain a significant amount of variance in subjective team performance (R^2 = .07, F(2,31) = 1.23, p = .31). In step 2, mean political skill was added to the model, and did not explain a significant amount of variance (ΔR^2 = .09, ΔF (1,30) = .48, p = .42), not supporting hypothesis 3. In the final model with controls and predictor, they together did not explain a significant amount of the variance in unweighted SL density (R^2 = .09, ΔF (3,30) = .97, p = .42). Team size (b = -.01, p = .19), collectivism (b = .07, p = .38), and mean political skill (b = -.06, p = .49) were not significant predictors.

A hierarchical linear regression using mean political skill to predict the unweighted SL density while controlling for team size and maximum political skill, removing collectivism to increase sample size. However, nothing was significant.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 posits that team political skill would moderate the relationship between team face culture and team SL density, such that, when maximum political skill is high, team mean face will be negatively related to SL density.

Weighted & Unweighted

For the following moderation and moderated mediation analyses, variables were mean-centered. A simple moderator analysis was performed using PROCESS macro model 1. The outcome variable was weighted SL density, the predictor variable was team mean face, and the moderator was maximum political skill. Maximum political skill did not statistically significantly moderate the relationship between mean face and weighted SL density (B = .63, 95% CI[-.19,1.46], p = .13) and was thus not supportive of hypothesis 4. A simple moderator analysis was performed with unweighted SL density, and results demonstrated a positive and significant moderating impact of max political skill on the relationship between mean face and unweighted SL density (B = .25, 95% CI[.02,.48], p = .03). However, this means that when maximum political skill is high, team mean face is positively related to SL density, which does not support hypothesis 4. See Figure 3 for the simple slopes interaction graph. Another moderation analysis was performed with mean political skill as a control for the moderation, and the model was not significant. An additional moderation analysis was conducted with the same variables for unweighted SL density, and the model was significant (B = .25, 95% CI[.02,.49], p = .03).

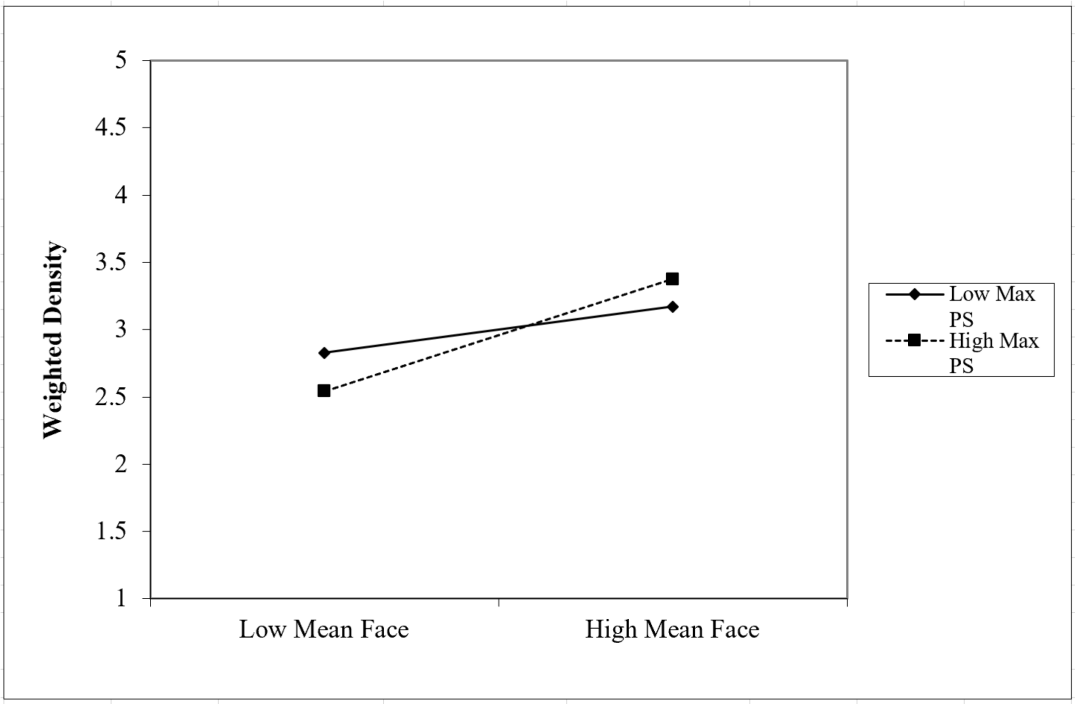

Figure 3. H4 Interaction Graph

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 states that team political skill will moderate the relationship between team face culture and team SL density, such that, when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will be positively related to SL density.

Weighted

A simple moderator analysis was performed using PROCESS macro model 1. The outcome variable was weighted SL density, the predictor variable was team mean face, and the moderator was team mean political skill. Mean political skill significantly and positively moderated the relationship between mean face and weighted SL density (B = 1.66, 95% CI[.26,3.05], p = .02), which supports hypothesis 5. As mean political skill increases, its effect on the relationship increases. An additional moderator analysis was

performed using maximum political skill as a control. This model was also significant (B = 1.70, 95% CI[.27,3.14], p = .02).

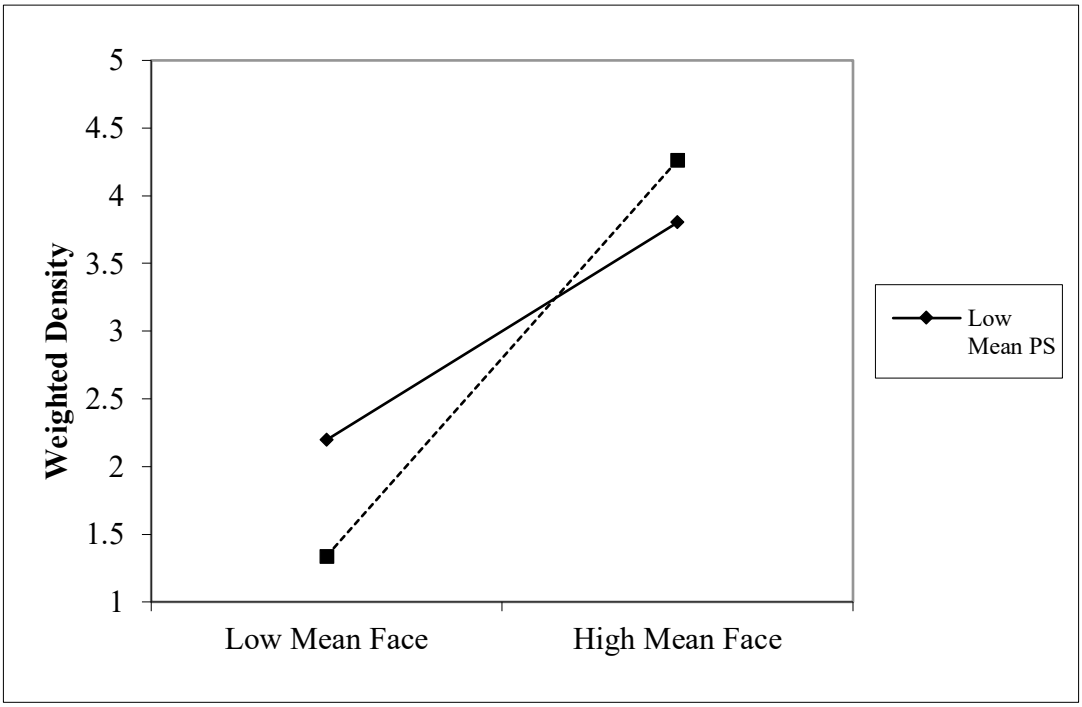

Figure 4. H5.1 Interaction Graph

Unweighted

A simple moderator analysis was performed with unweighted SL density, and results again demonstrated a positive and significant moderating impact of mean political skill on the relationship between mean face and unweighted SL density (B = .49, 95% CI[.11,.89], p = .01). Because this means that when team political skill is high, team mean face is positively related to unweighted SL density, hypothesis 5 is supported. An additional moderator analysis was performed using maximum political skill as a control, and was also significant (B = .51, 95% CI[.11,.91], p = .01).

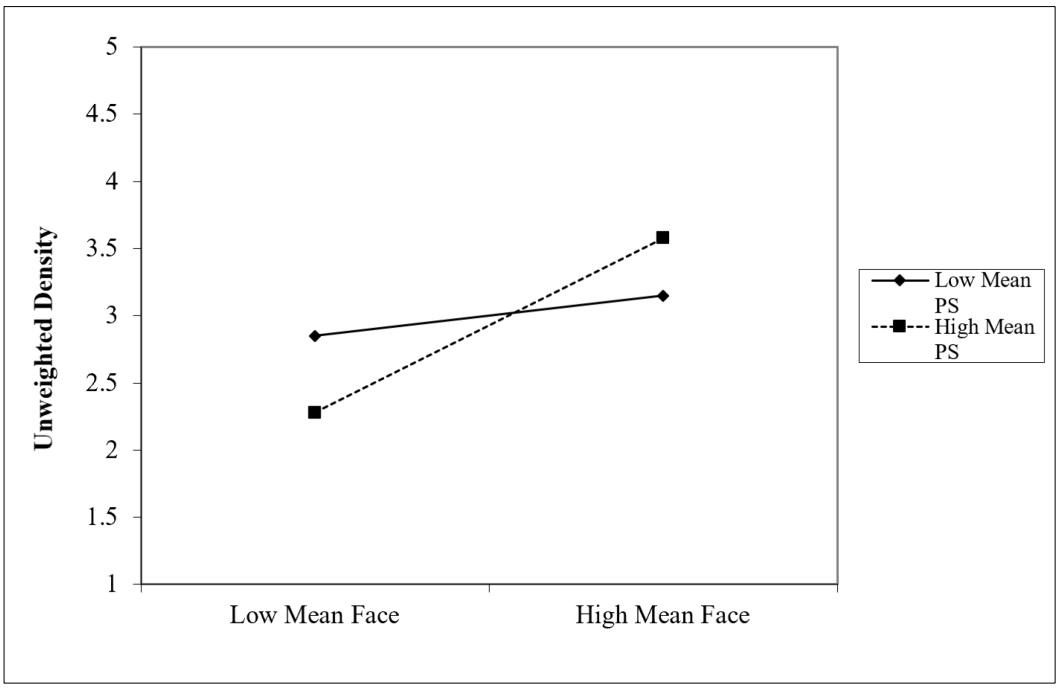

Figure 5. H5.2 Interaction Graph

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 proposes that team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through SL such that when one member is high political skill (maximum), team mean face will have an indirect negative effect on performance via decreasing SL.

Weighted

Hypothesis 6 was tested using PROCESS macro model 7. Maximum political skill was not found to moderate the effect of mean face on weighted SL density (*B* = .43, 95% CI[-.39,1.25], *p* = .29). Weighted SL density was not associated with team effectiveness (*B* = .12, 95% CI[-.03,.27], *p* = .10). The overall moderated mediation model was not supported with the index of moderated mediation = .05 (95% CI[-.04,.23]; thus, hypothesis 6 was not supported. An additional moderated mediation analysis was performed controlling for mean political skill. Maximum political skill did not significantly moderate, weighted SL

density was associated with team effectiveness (B = .15, 95% CI[.01,.29], p = .04), and the overall moderated mediation model was not supported.

Unweighted

Hypothesis 6 was tested using PROCESS macro model 7. Maximum political skill was found to moderate the effect of mean face on unweighted SL density (B = .23, 95% CI[-.01,.46], p = .05). Unweighted SL density was associated with team effectiveness (B = .24, 95% CI[-.26,.75], p = .34). The overall moderated mediation model was not supported with the index of moderated mediation = .06 (95% CI[-.05,28]; thus, hypothesis 6 was not supported. An additional moderated mediation analysis was performed controlling for mean political skill, and maximum political skill did significantly moderate unweighted SL density (B = .24, 95% CI[.00,.47], p = .05), unweighted SL density was not associated with team effectiveness, and the overall moderated mediation model was not supported.

Hypothesis 7

Lastly, hypothesis 7 states that team political skill will moderate the indirect effect of face on team performance through SL such that when mean team political skill is high, team mean face will have an indirect positive effect on performance via increasing SL.

Weighted

Hypothesis 7 was also tested using PROCESS macro model 7. Mean political skill was not found to moderate the effect of mean face on weighted SL density (B = 1.21, 95% CI[-.22,2.63], p = .09). Weighted SL density was not associated with team effectiveness (B = .12, 95% CI[-.03,.27], p = .10). The overall moderated mediation model was not supported with the index of moderated mediation = .15 (95% CI[-.09,.57]; thus, hypothesis 7 was not supported. An additional moderated mediation analysis was performed controlling for maximum political skill, and mean political skill did not significantly moderate, weighted SL density was associated with team effectiveness (B = .15, 95% CI[.01,.29], p = .04), and the overall moderated mediation model was not supported.

Unweighted

Mean political skill was found to moderate the effect of mean face on unweighted SL density (B = .53, 95% CI[.13,.93], p = .01). Unweighted SL density was associated with team effectiveness (B = .24, 95% CI[-.26,.75], p = .34). The overall moderated mediation model was not supported with the index of moderated mediation = .12 (95% CI[-.12,.58]; thus, hypothesis 7 was not supported. An additional moderated mediation analysis was performed controlling for maximum political skill, and mean political skill did significantly moderate (B = .52, 95% CI[.11,.93], p = .01), unweighted SL density was not associated with team effectiveness, and the overall moderated mediation model was not supported.

Chapter 6
Discussion

The objective of this study was to investigate the influence of political skill on the relationship between face culture and shared leadership and how those interactions influence subjective team performance. I investigated the replication of the relationship between shared leadership density and team performance (H1), how both maximum and mean political skill relate to both weighted and unweighted shared leadership density (H2 &H3), and the previously mentioned moderation and moderated mediation models (H4-H7).

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The results of this thesis will contribute empirically by adding research on the team profile model approach with variables at the team level. This thesis aids in satisfying Asian researchers' requests at investigating face culture's complexity (Dong & Lee, 2007; Kim & Cohen, 2010).

The significant results of hypothesis 1 (i.e., weighted SL density predicts subjective team performance) add and reinforce the literature (Carson et al., 2007; Erez et al., 2002; Pearce, 2004; Wang et al., 2014; Wu, Cornican, & Chen, 2020). Interestingly, unweighted SL density still predicted performance, but accounted for 12.2% less variance than weighted SL density. Perhaps these results can be explained by shared leadership being related to team performance, but displaying a stronger relationship because weighted SL density captures the strength of the relationships whereas the unweighted proportions would not consistently and intentionally capture the strength of the relationships. Shared leadership significantly predicting team performance provides the practical significance of better understanding this popular and often necessary approach to team leadership in the interdependent, complex, and ambiguous environment (Pearce, 2004; Pearce & Sims, 2000; Zhou et al., 2017). With understanding shared leadership's effect on performance, organizations can more comfortably restructure team leadership patterns to fit their goals (e.g., shared leadership for high performance).

Neither maximum nor mean political skill was related to SL density. The lack of significant findings still provides information on the effect of individual differences on shared leadership density. In other words, these findings indicate that neither maximum nor mean political skill has a direct effect on shared leadership. My later findings support that the nonsignificant findings may be explained by an incomplete model (i.e., other variables not represented affect the relationship). Practitioners can also use this information to select and develop individuals on more than just political skill in the context of shared leadership.

The moderation model with maximum political skill was significant for unweighted SL density and demonstrated a positive moderating impact—contrary to my hypothesis. In other words, when maximum political skill is high, team mean face is positively related to weighted SL density. This provides some theoretically interesting inferences on the seemingly strong influence of one high politically skilled individual's direction. Another explanation could be that an individual high in political skill provides the social means for achieving shared leadership. As previously discussed, a high face culture team can theoretically be positively or negatively related to shared leadership density. Perhaps the politically skilled individual serves as a facilitator for face culture group-orientation logic to be displayed. Though this requires further exploration, organizations with face culture teams (national or international) can infer that for crafting a team with high proportions of leadership relationship (i.e., unweighted SL density), at least one individual high in political skill is needed versus.

The team mean political skill moderation model was also significant such that team mean face positively moderates the relationship between mean face and both weighted and unweighted SL density. This supports the proposed explanation regarding maximum political skill above. Particularly, this emphasizes that at least one individual needs to be high on political skill, but the results are stronger the higher the team average of face. That is, the results suggest that the more members who are politically skilled, the more political skill translates face into shared leadership. Additionally, the results indicate that if political skill is not present in the team, face culture does not translate into shared leadership.

In both multinational and national organizations, teams are composed of multiple cultures (Early & Gibson, 2002; Roberson et al., 2017). Team composition of cultural systems has been theoretically linked to the display of shared leadership within groups, but is understudied (Pearce & Sims, 2000). Specifically, face culture has not yet been studied in relation to shared leadership. This also adds to the literature of face cultural logic to better understand how face cultural logic functions in a team setting in the U.S., and if the political skill of the team or an individual impacts this relationship. Optimization of teams for performance also relies on understanding the intersection of culture, individual differences, and leadership at the team level (Carson, 2005). These findings provide practical significance through a greater understanding of the aforementioned intersection. For example, if an organization organizes a team with high face culture on average, the organization should place at least one politically skilled individual on the team if shared leadership is desired.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study presents several limitations. Face culture, political skill, and subjective team performance were assessed with self-reports. This can result in common method bias, which can inflate relationships. However, common method bias would not be as likely due to the time separation. Though there was justification for combining time points, there was not justification for aggregating data, according to the common, yet arbitrary, ICC cutoffs.

Additionally, the generalizability of these findings may be limited. Despite a more similar context to work than lab settings, the university project setting may result in findings that are not generalizable to the work setting. Moreover, the majority of the participants were Caucasian, which could limit the representativeness of other populations. Future research can investigate this model or these variables in field settings and with a higher diversity of participants.

While the archival data is from a longitudinally designed study, the variables are treated as cross-sectional. Thus, the data may not capture the process of leadership influence. Future research can analyze this data longitudinally.

Moreover, this model and, more broadly, the variables in the model should be studied with virtual national and international teams to further the literature. The model can also be shifted to investigate face culture as a moderator to the relationship of an established antecedent of shared leadership to gain more information about how face culture interacts with team-level constructs.

Additionally, the sample size was limited. The moderated mediation models using both maximum and mean political skill were insignificant with both weighted and unweighted SL density, and this may be explained by lack of power.

Conclusion

This study investigated the influence of political skill on the relationship of face culture and shared leadership and how those interactions influence subjective team performance. Several findings were significant. Overall, this study furthered the literature and practice in the ways described above. The implications of the results, additional future directions, and potential limitations were discussed. Ideally, researchers will follow suit and explore face culture in general and at the team levels.

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Appendix A:
Measures

Face Culture

Smith, P. B., Easterbrook, M. J., Blount, J., Koc, Y., Harb, C., Torres, C., Ahmad, A. H., Ping, H., Celikkol, G. C., Loving R. D., & Rizwan, M. (2017). Culture as perceived context: An exploration of the distinction between dignity, face and honor cultures. *Acta de Investigación Psicológica, 7*(1), 2568–2576. doi:10.1016/j.aipprr.2017.03.001

For the following statements, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree.

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

Items

1. People should minimize conflict in social relationships at all costs.
2. It is important to maintain harmony within one's group.
3. People should be very humble to maintain good relationships.
4. People should control their behavior in front of others.
5. People should be extremely careful not to embarrass other people.
6. People should never criticize others in public.

Political Skill

Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., Douglas, C., & Frink, D. D. (2005). Development and validity of the political skills inventory. *Journal of Management, 31*(1), 126-152.

For the following statements, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree.

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

Items

1. I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others.
2. I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me.
3. I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.
4. It is easy for me to develop good relationships with most people.
5. I understand people very well.
6. I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.
7. I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.
8. When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do.
9. At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected.
10. I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others.
11. I am good at getting people to like me.
12. It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do.
13. I try to show a genuine interest in other people.
14. I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work.
15. I have good intuition about how to present myself to others.
16. I always seem to instinctively know the right things to say or do to influence others.
17. I pay close attention to people's facial expressions.

Shared Leadership

Based on Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(5), 1217-1234. doi:http://dx.doi.org.portal.lib.fit.edu/10.2307/20159921

For the following statement, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree.

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

Items

1. I have relied on NAME's leadership on the project since the last survey.

Subjective Team Performance

Derived from Gibson, C. B., Zellmer-Bruhn, M. E., & Schwab, D. P. (2003). Team effectiveness in multinational organizations: Evaluation across contexts. *Group & Organization Management, 28*(4), 444-474. doi: 10.1177/1059601103251685

For the following statements, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree.

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly Agree

Items

1. This team meets its deadlines.
2. This team wastes time. (R)
3. The team provides deliverables (e.g., products or services) on time.
4. This team is slow. (R)
5. This team adheres to its schedule.
6. This team finishes its work in a reasonable about of time.
7. This team has a low error rate.
8. This team does high-quality work.
9. This team consistently provides high-quality output.
10. This team is consistently error-free.
11. This team needs to improve its quality of work. (R)
12. This team will get a great grade on our final project.