Team Leader and Follower Proactivity, Related Team-Meeting Behaviors and Team Effectiveness

Wiebke Strelow
University of Twente
P.O. Box 217, 7500AE Enschede
The Netherlands
w.strelow@student.utwente.nl

The following paper examines the link between proactivity, the corresponding leader and follower behavior, and the effect on team effectiveness. The findings are based on video-observed leader and follower behavior at a Dutch large public sector organization, as well as surveys filled in by the video-recorded 14 leaders and 172 followers. The data was analyzed with the software-program SPSS. The results indicate that there are no general behavioral patterns (i.e., aggregates of steering, supporting, or self-defending behavior) correlated with proactivity or team effectiveness. However, more specifically, results indicated that highly proactive leaders informed significantly less than their less proactive counterparts, while they showed more individualized consideration and structuring the conversation. Less proactive followers defend their own position more, disagree more and intellectually stimulate more, while they showed less agreeing and informing. Besides, follower proactivity is significantly positively related to team effectiveness. The added value of this study is that it shows that in practice no conclusions can be drawn from leader and follower proactivity to patterns of team member behaviors or from the behavioral patterns to the effectiveness of a team during team meetings.

Supervisors:
Drs. Marcella (A.M.G.) Hoogeboom
Prof. Dr. Celeste (P.M.) Wilderom

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1. INTRODUCTION

Leadership is an important factor for the success in every organization. Although not all leaders act equally, several behavioral patterns can be detected and may lead to or prohibit team effectiveness (Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004). Nowadays, as organizations go through fast changes and environments are uncertain, proactive behavior is crucial in order to prevent negative surprises such as an economic crisis and to compete in times of fast innovations (Strauss, Griffin, & Rafferty, 2009). Moreover, organizations have to remain competitive to not fall behind others which inevitably necessitates effectiveness. Therefore, organizations increasingly use teams to accomplish their goals and in order to remain competitive, it is important that teams within the organization function well. Due to the fact that, for an organization to be effective, all departments and sub-units have to be effective as well, team effectiveness is another vital factor next to proactivity.

One might expect a positive correlation between proactivity and team effectiveness although it might be that a higher degree of proactivity is not necessarily better. Being proactive is generally perceived to be good because it means acting in advance instead of only reacting (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Hence, if not being proactive, a team might miss out opportunities and fall behind competitors if they, for instance, do not innovate to create demand, but only react to existing demand (Crant, 2000). Acting proactively could even give an organization a competitive advantage if its team members act with the right degree of proactivity (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). This implies that if proactivity makes people seize opportunities and act before changes or problems occur, the team will be more effective, thus doing the right things. Therefore, it is expected that the more proactive leaders and followers in a team, the more effective the team will be.

Existing literature on proactivity as well as on team effectiveness can be found, nevertheless only very few scientific articles distinguish between leader and follower proactivity. Moreover, there is hardly any literature linking the two variables of proactivity to team effectiveness which constitutes a gap in existing literature. A related gap is the fact that even though proactivity has been assessed with surveys, to the best of our knowledge, little is known of the actual patterns of field behaviors of team leaders and followers that is indicative of proactive team-leader and follower behaviors and that may lead to team effectiveness.

Therefore, the research goal of the paper will be to identify the influences of proactive behavior of leaders and followers shown in staff meetings on team effectiveness and the following research question will be answered in the paper: W*hich specific behavioral patterns are shown in staff meetings by proactive leaders and followers and to what extent does proactive leader and follower behavior influence team effectiveness?*

The paper will be structured as follows. At first, existing literature will be reviewed about leader and follower behavior as well as on team effectiveness and proactivity after which hypotheses are formulated, including the assumed causal models and followed by the methodology of the present study. Subsequently, results are discussed and theoretical as well as practical implications are given. The limitations of this study are explained and recommendations for future research are made. Finally, a conclusion is drawn.

2. THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 Leader and Follower Behaviors

Leaders and followers in a team can take different positions and show different behaviors during team meetings that can be divided into three categories or patterns of mutually exclusive behavior, namely self-defending, steering and supporting behavior (Gupta, Wilderom, & Van Hillegersberg, 2009; Nijhuis, Hulsman, Wilderom, & Van den Berg, 2009; Van der Weide, 2007).

The self-defending category includes the following behaviors:

(1) Showing disinterest refers to ignoring problems and not actively listening to team members. Disinterested people do not take others' problems seriously and do not want deal with criticism or serious issues.
(2) Defending one's own position means protecting the own point of view or manner of doing things, blaming others and emphasizing the own importance or position.
(3) Providing negative feedback includes negatively assessing a team member's behavior and criticizing him or her.

Steering behavior involves the below mentioned behaviors:

(4) Disagreeing is about saying that somebody is wrong and opposing his or her opinion or ideas.
(5) Agreeing is the opposite of disagreeing, thus coming to an agreement and liking the idea of a team member.
(6) Directing involves delegating and imposing tasks and telling people what to do and what not to do. It also includes interrupting the person who has the speaking term with something about another topic.
(7) Verifying is also called task-monitoring and is defined as returning to an agreement, arrangement, vision or norm that has been made or agreed upon before.
(8) Structuring the conversation refers to organizing the meeting and for example telling the members when it will end.
(9) Informing only involves factual and neutral information, for example about results and data.
(10) Visioning is split into giving the own opinion and long-term visions. Giving the own opinion is about what the expected results of team members are or about deadlines while long-term includes organizational missions for the following years.

Supporting behaviors embrace the behaviors listed hereafter:

(11) Intellectual stimulation refers to asking team members for ideas, stimulating them to think along and come up with ideas or encouraging discussions.
(12) Individualized consideration involves giving positive attention, for example by positively rewarding, giving personal feedback, showing personal interest or encouraging team members.
(13) Humor is about being amusing, making jokes or generally making others laugh.
(14) Positive feedback is complimenting a person for something (s)he has done or said or laughing as a reaction to a joke.
(15) Personally informing is, in contrast to informing, about private information such as family situations and not about facts.

2.2 Team Effectiveness

A team is defined as a group which is restricted in size and works together interdependently based on common overarching objectives in order to achieve its common goal (Cameron &

Green, 2012). Usually, the different members of the teams are mutually dependent on each other (Spencer, 1993).

In order to define team effectiveness, Cohen and Bailey (1997) refer to three dimensions of effectiveness. The first dimension is based on the team's impact on the effectiveness of performance which is evaluated through output quantity and quality, such as efficiency, quality, productivity or innovation. Secondly, effectiveness can be assessed by the attitudes of team members, for example team commitment or employee satisfaction. Finally, the third dimension is based on behavioral outcomes, for instance employee turnover, safety or times absent.

Moreover, Cohen and Bailey (1997) developed a model of group effectiveness which links the factors that have an influence to effectiveness. According to this model, environmental factors, such as characteristics of the industry in which an organization operates, influence task design, group composition and organizational context. These in turn influence effectiveness directly, but also influence internal and external processes (e.g. communication and conflict) and group psychological traits such as norms. Internal and external processes and group psychological traits have a mutual influence on each other. Moreover, they both have a direct influence on effectiveness as well. Effectiveness includes performance (e.g. effectiveness or quality), attitudinal (e.g. job satisfaction) and behavioral outcomes (e.g. turnover).

In line with these findings, Waller, Gupta and Giambatista (2004) suggest that specific interaction patterns between members of a team can enhance team effectiveness. Other factors leading to team effectiveness are the specific behaviors of the team in team meetings (as cited in Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2012), the process of social interaction (Bales, 1950; Borgatta, 1964) and the cognitive diversity of the team (as cited in Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2012). Team effectiveness is further influenced by different factors, such as the formation of the team (Earley & Mosakowski, 2000), the characteristics of the team members (Jordan, Lawrence, & Troth, 2006), the structure of the team (Sy, Tram, & O'Hara, 2006) and leadership (Kahai, Sosik, & Avolio, 1997), of which the latter one is the most important factor (Tarricone & Luca, 2002).

Teams are highly important because sometimes a group can achieve a considerably higher performance compared to an individual and often problems or bigger projects cannot be solved or led by the non-managerial individuals themselves (Gibson, Zellmer-Bruhn, & Schwab, 2003; Jung & Avolio, 1999). As all individual behaviors and personalities influence the team and its effectiveness, in order to reach team effectiveness, the leader has to be effective as well. As of yet, there are no universal behaviors that are known to be effective and they are likely to differ based on the manager's position in the hierarchy (Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004) or based on the culture of the country in which an organization operates (Jung & Avolio, 1999).

In terms of the more global behavioral categories or patterns, steering and supporting behaviors are considered to be most effective for leaders, followed by self-defending behavior. As can be read in scientific literature, steering behaviors very often involve providing direction, informing and verifying. Supporting behaviors are for instance providing regular (positive) feedback or intellectual stimulation. Protecting one's own position and sticking to own plans can be classified as self-defending behavior. Literature also says that leaders should not be afraid of listening to and following ideas or advice of followers, but also communicate their own goals and show how they act in line with these. (Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004)

After having reviewed literature on team effectiveness, some hypotheses are formulated in the following paragraphs.

In order for a team to be effective, various ideas and opinions have to be taken into account and teams have to be open to change (Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004). Showing disinterest, defending one's own position and giving negative feedback often imply that a person is not open for change or ideas from other team members. Therefore, self-defending behaviors are expected to have a negative influence on team effectiveness and the following hypothesis can be made:
Hypothesis 1a: Self-defending behavior has a negative effect on team effectiveness.

According to van der Weide and Wilderom (2004) steering behavior is considered to be effective for leaders as for example directing, structuring the conversation, informing and visioning are helpful for a team to make progress and will probably contribute to a higher team effectiveness. Hence, the following is hypothesized:
Hypothesis 1b: Steering behavior has a positive effect on team effectiveness.

Van der Weide and Wilderom (2004) also state that supporting behavior is effective for leaders. Through intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and listening, attention is paid to other team members who thereby are expected to feel more committed to the team and do their best. This, in turn, is likely to increase team effectiveness. As a result, the following hypothesis emerges:
Hypothesis 1c: Supporting behavior has a positive effect on team effectiveness.

In the following, the concept of team effectiveness will be linked to proactivity because the latter is an essential element, especially in nowadays organizations. Proactivity has been chosen as an explaining factor of team effectiveness as there has not been much research done on the link between the two yet. Moreover, it is crucial to examine which specific behaviors are shown by proactive members of a team as the proactivity of the individuals makes up the proactivity of a team. According to Crant (2000), proactivity is associated with team effectiveness which makes it interesting to find out which behaviors are associated with proactivity and how proactivity is related to team effectiveness in the field.

2.3 Proactivity

In general, when the work within an organization is more decentralized and dynamic, proactivity is crucial and critical to determine organizational success (Crant, 2000).

Proactive behavior is defined as taking initiative in form of self-motivated actions of individuals with the objective of anticipating and initializing change within an organization rather than only adapting to current circumstances. This involves actively looking for opportunities and creating change instead of only waiting for it. The opposite of proactive behavior is reactive behavior, meaning that individuals passively wait for information and opportunities before taking any action. (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Strauss et al., 2009)

Grant and Ashford (2008) state that proactive behavior is more about taking action in advance while considering the desired impact one wants to make, thus a clear distinction towards general motivated behavior and towards reactive behavior has to be made as these three terms may not be confused.

The origin of proactive behavior can reside in individual motivation or affective commitment through an emotional bond to the team or organization (Straus et al., 2009) and is therefore not only determined by personal factors, but also by situational factors (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). Crant (2000) provides antecedents of proactive behaviors which can be divided into individual differences and contextual factors. Firstly, individual differences are made up of proactive behavior constructs on the one hand, such as a proactive personality, personal initiative, role breadth self-efficacy and taking charge, and on the other hand there are other individual differences such as job involvement, goal orientation or the desire for feedback. Secondly, the contextual factors comprise for instance the organizational culture and norms or management support. Concerning the team, empowerment, which is described as "the team's collective feelings of meaning and control" (Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010, p. 303), is another crucial determinant of team proactivity (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999).

Bateman and Crant (1999) claim that among proactive individuals certain behavioral patterns can be detected. They explain that proactivity is often expressed by scanning for opportunities, setting effective and change-oriented goals, anticipating and preventing problems, doing different things or doing things differently, taking action, persevering and achieving results. Moreover, proactive behavior can be expressed in different manners which can be classified as either general actions or context-specific behaviors (Crant, 2000). General actions are for example regularly innovating and adapting to new circumstances, challenging the status quo or identifying opportunities, while examples for context-specific behaviors are actively seeking for feedback, revising tasks, socializing and building social networks, actively pursuing personal as well as organizational goals and generally taking charge and acting in advance to influence others. (Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008)

Two different forms of proactive behavior can be distinguished. Williams et al. (2010) make the distinction between the individual and the team level of proactive behavior. The individual-level proactivity relates to the self-motivated actions of one individual aimed at changing an external situation like work performance or work methods. In contrast, team proactive performance refers to the extent to which a whole team takes self-motivated actions targeted at changing the team itself or an external situation. This paper mainly focuses on individual proactivity instead of team proactivity because the leader is one of the individual team members as well. Only by considering leaders' and followers' proactivity separately one can examine the effects they have on each other. Besides, the individual proactive personalities contribute to and shape team proactivity (Crant, 2000).

To sum up, proactivity can be described by several dimensions such as form (type/category of the respective behavior), intended target of impact (whom/what the behavior is intended to change), frequency (the likelihood of the proactive behavior), timing (the degree to which the behavior occurs at specific occasions or moments) and tactics (behavioral strategies that individuals use to carry it out) (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Consequences of proactive behavior could be job performance, career success, feelings of personal control or clarity of roles (Crant, 2000). Moreover, proactive behavior is crucial as it contributes to overall organizational effectiveness (Strauss et al., 2009).

2.3.1 Leader Proactivity

Williams et al. (2010) found that the more proactive individuals are, the more proactive the team as a whole is. This leads to the assumption that a leader's proactive behavior can trigger proactive follower behaviors and can thereby lead to a highly proactive behavior of the entire team. Strauss et al. (2009) suggest that if leaders pursue a transformational leadership style, the individuals' commitment to the team increases and as a consequence the team members become more proactive. Due to the fact that leaders encourage proactive behavior in employees because a main focus lays on spotting and seizing chances for continuous improvement, the employees become more confident about change and thus more proactive as well (Strauss et al., 2009). Furthermore, Crant (2000) makes a connection between proactive behaviors and leadership effectiveness, stating that there is a positive correlation.

In conclusion, it can be assumed that leaders play a very crucial role as their proactive behavior projects onto followers whereby the whole team becomes proactive which in turn has a positive influence on team effectiveness (Strauss et al., 2009).

As Strauss et al. (2009) stated, a high degree of proactivity is associated with changes and therefore leaders should be open for new ideas and opinions. Hence, it can be assumed that proactive leaders do not show much self-defending behaviors because this would be less receptive to changes. From this, the following hypothesis can be made:
Hypothesis 2a: Leaders who score high on proactivity show less self-defending behavior than non-proactive leaders.

Moreover, it can be expected that proactive leaders show much steering behaviors which for example includes directing, verifying, structuring the conversation, informing or visioning. This is due to the fact that proactive leaders do not wait for information or opportunities to arise, but take action themselves in order to make change happen. Hence, the following hypothesis arises:
Hypothesis 2b: Leaders who score high on proactivity show more steering behavior than non-proactive leaders.

Supporting behaviors, such as intellectually stimulating, individualized consideration or positive feedback are likely to be found among proactive leaders because these behaviors are required to come to new ideas, getting to know what other team members propose and thus creating and seizing opportunities proactively. Therefore, the following can be hypothesized:
Hypothesis 2c: Leaders who score high on proactivity show more supporting behavior than non-proactive leaders.

2.3.2 Follower Proactivity

The proactive work behavior of employees is very important for the success of an organization when the environment is dynamic and conditions are uncertain which means that an anticipation of most effective behaviors is impossible or at least complicated (Straus et al., 2009). Wilderom and van Dun (2014) found that followers of teams that are effective showed a higher degree of information sharing compared to followers of teams that are less effective. Information sharing often belongs to setting goals, preventing problems and taking action, so it can be assumed that it

is a proactive behavior as well. As the team proactivity depends on the proactivity of the individuals, it is important that individuals are as proactive as possible. Hence, not only leaders, but also followers have to be proactive to ensure team effectiveness.

Resulting from academic literature, it is very likely that proactive followers do not engage in self-defending behavior which includes showing disinterest, the defending of their own position and giving negative feedback, because this would lock up the chance of for instance scanning for opportunities and doing things differently or doing different things. If followers would show self-defending behavior, they could not be highly proactive. From this, the following hypothesis is made:
Hypothesis 3a: Followers who score high on proactivity show less self-defending behavior than non-proactive followers.

Furthermore, proactive followers are expected to show steering behaviors because directing, verifying, informing and visioning can all be considered proactive and effective behaviors like anticipating problems and achieving results (Bateman & Crant, 1999).
Hypothesis 3b: Followers who score high on proactivity show more steering behavior than non-proactive followers.

Besides, proactive followers are expected to show much supporting behavior, such as individualized consideration or listening. The reason for this is that they want to obviate problems and achieve results. This can best be done by making other team members feel that they are important so that they feel motivated and committed to the team whereby the team can be more effective.
Hypothesis 3c: Followers who score high on proactivity show more supporting behavior than non-proactive followers.

2.4 The Effect of Proactivity on Team Effectiveness

Crant (2000) found a strong correlation between proactive behavior and the productivity of teams. Therefore he states that proactive teams can be expected to have higher levels of effectiveness than teams that are more reactive than proactive. Proactivity actually creates a win-win situation because proactive employees feel more committed to the organization and the team and are thus more satisfied with their jobs (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Crant, 2000). Hence, they actively engage in changing the organization and spotting opportunities so that the work environment better fits to their abilities and team performance and effectiveness increase (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001).

Moreover, there is also a positive correlation between team proactivity and team empowerment (Crant, 2000) and Kirkman and Rosen (1999) explain that teams with a higher degree of empowerment were associated with higher levels of productivity and proactivity, more precisely said: the more empowerment, the more proactivity within a team. Team empowerment enhances team effectiveness by improving performance through productivity, proactivity and customer service, and also enhances attitudinal outcomes through job satisfaction and organizational and team commitment (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). In Williams et al.'s (2010) research, the most proactive teams were those which were highly self-managed and of which the team leaders were transformational. Strauss et al. (2009) support this by saying that a transformational leadership style increases team commitment which in turn increases proactive behaviors and the followers' commitment to the team.

Concluding, proactive behavior is very important in teams as it has a positive influence on the productivity and effectiveness of the team (Crant, 2000). However, it has to be kept in mind that there are also risks associated with proactivity, for instance high costs might occur if the proactively introduced innovation does not meet customer needs, and this would be counterproductive (Bateman & Crant, 1999).

As explained in the hypotheses above, self-defending behavior is expected to have a negative effect while steering and supporting behaviors are expected to have positive effects on team effectiveness and a proactive leader is expected to show little self-defending but much steering and supporting behavior. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that a high degree of proactivity of leaders will lead to a high degree of team effectiveness.
Hypothesis 4a: Leader proactivity is positively related to team effectiveness.

As said above, self-defending behavior is estimated to have a negative and steering and supporting behavior are estimated to have positive effects on team effectiveness. Given the fact that a proactive follower is likely to show little self-defending but much steering and supporting behavior, it can be assumed that a highly proactive follower will contribute to a high level of team effectiveness.
Hypothesis 4b: Follower proactivity is positively related to team effectiveness.

2.5 The Model

Figure 1 and 2 summarize the hypothesized relationships between leader proactivity or follower proactivity, respectively, and team member behaviors and team effectiveness.

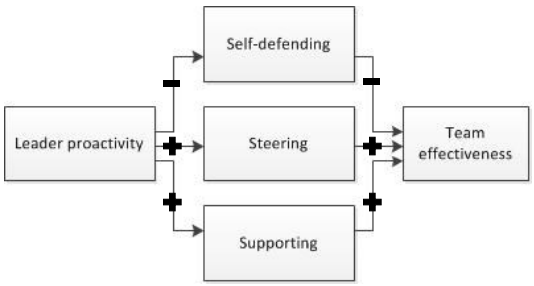

Figure 1. The effect of leader proactivity on team member behavior and its effect on team effectiveness

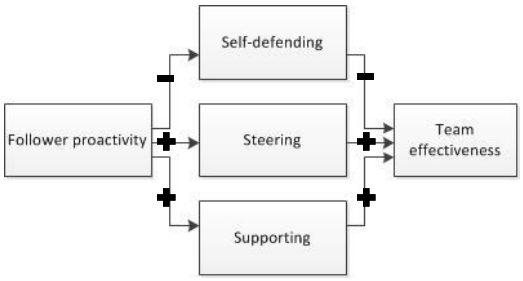

Figure 2. The effect of follower proactivity on team member behavior and its effect on team effectiveness

3. METHODS

3.1 Research Design

In this cross-sectional study design three different data sources are used: (1) a questionnaire for followers, (2) a questionnaire for leaders and (3) a reliable video-coding method that monitored followers' and leaders' behavior during staff meetings. By systematic video-coding, various specific mutually exclusive behaviors of both the leaders and followers have become analyzable. By using this variety of methods and sources, common source bias is reduced in this study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

3.2 Sampling

The leader sample consisted of 14 leaders employed in a large Dutch public sector organization. Those leaders were either from M1 level of management or M2 level of management within this public organization. The sample was comprised of 9 male (64.3%) and 5 female (35.7%) leaders with an average age of 52.5 years, ranging from 46 to 61 (the standard deviation ("SD") was 4.6). The average job tenure of the leader sample is 27.2 years, ranging from 3 to 43 years (SD=13.92). Next to the leader sample, the sample of the followers consisted of 172 employees employed in the same large Dutch public sector organization as the leaders. The sample was comprised of 112 male (65.1%) and 50 female (29.1%) followers while 10 participants did not answer the question. These followers were on average 49.4 years old, ranging from 22 to 64 years (SD=10.31). The followers have an average job tenure of 24.7 years (SD=13.43), ranging from 6 months to 44 years.

Immediately after the video recorded staff meeting, both the leaders and the followers were asked to fill in a questionnaire which included questions about the team meeting. In total, 14 leaders and 170 followers filled in the survey, which results in a response rate of 100% for the leaders and 98.8% for the followers.

3.3 Measures

3.3.1 Team Effectiveness

In the first part of the correlation analysis which includes the correlations with leader proactivity, team effectiveness was measured by the leader scores given in the questionnaire. In the second part of the correlation analysis on follower proactivity, team effectiveness was covered by follower scores.

The scores given in the questionnaire by leaders and followers indicated how they perceived team effectiveness on a four-item scale which has been developed by Gibson, Cooper and Conger (2009). The scale consisted of the items "The team is effective", "The team makes few mistakes", "The team continuously delivers excellent results" and "The team cares for work with a high quality". The responses to these statements were given on a 7-point-Likert scale in which the answering categories ranged from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree). (see appendix, p.15)

3.3.2 Leader and Follower Proactivity

Leader proactivity was measured by the leader questionnaire in which they rated themselves about ten items. These were for example "I often try to adopt improved procedure for doing my job" or "I often bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department". Again, the responses were given on a 7-point-Likert scale. Follower proactivity was measured in the same way as leader proactivity; the only difference is that it was based on the follower questionnaires. The same items and also the 7-point-Likert scale were used. (see appendix, p.15)

3.4 Data Collection

3.4.1 Video Observation Method

During randomly selected staff meetings in the ordinary course of business, the leaders and followers were videotaped. A total of 108,000 seconds have been recorded while each meeting took 8,308 seconds on average. Through the behavioral software program "The Observer XT" which has been developed for the analysis, management and presentation of observational data (Noldus, Trienes, Hendriksen, Jansen, & Jansen, 2000), the videos were precisely coded and analyzed. The observers were six third year Bachelor students of International Business Administration and three master students of the University of Twente who all received training about "The Observer XT". Additionally, they learnt how to apply the 15-pages behavioral coding scheme within the software (Van der Weide, 2007). These trainings and clear instructions helped to enhance the accuracy of the coding of different behaviors.

On basis of the behavioral coding scheme, the pre-defined sets of behaviors were coded very precisely for each leader and each follower to ensure valid and reliable results. In order to avoid subjectivity bias, each video was coded independently by two observers and subsequently the results were compared through the so-called confusion error matrix by "The Observer XT" to determine inter-reliability. This inter-reliability was defined as the percentage of agreement of a specific code within a time range of two seconds and if significant differences or disagreements occurred, the observers re-viewed, discussed and re-coded the affected fragment. In this study, the obtained average inter-reliability rate was 95% with each single rate being higher than the threshold of 85%.

Each team meeting was recorded by three video cameras installed in the meeting rooms beforehand, so that actual leader and follower behaviors could be ensured. According to Erickson (1992) and Kent and Foster (1977), shortly after entering the meeting room, the presence of the camera is forgotten and leaders and followers behave naturally whereas observers who attend meetings often cause more obtrusive and abnormal behaviors of leaders and followers. This is why video cameras are used instead of outside people sitting in the same room who observe the meeting and take notes. Hence, observer bias is prevented and the meeting takes place without any interferences. In addition, a video-recording has the advantage that scenes can be watched several times whereby nothing is missed out.

3.4.2 Behavioral Coding Scheme

A behavioral coding scheme has been developed in order to capture specific leadership behaviors during the daily work practices (Gupta et al., 2009; Nijhuis et al., 2009; Van der Weide, 2007). In the appendix (p.14), a table is added which contains different leadership behaviors which are coded in this current study. After each behavior, a short description about the behavior is given and a couple of examples are presented to understand the different behaviors in more detail.

A solid base for this video coding scheme was developed by Bales (1950) and Borgatta (1964). The authors both observed in their early studies the interaction processes between the leaders and their followers. The observation of the interaction processes was done without any use of tape-recording devices. In their

exploratory work they made a distinction between three broadly defined behaviors; neutral task-oriented behavior, positive-social emotional behavior and the remaining socio-emotional behavior. Bales' (1950) and Borgatta´s (1964) work provided a practical scheme for the coding of a range of leadership behaviors (Yukl, 2002). Feyerherm (1994) extended the work of Bales and Borgatta by using an experimental approach towards measuring the leadership behaviors and added some task-oriented and social-oriented behaviors.

The three coding schemes (Bales, 1950; Borgatta, 1964; Feyerherm, 1994) have two important commonalities. Firstly, all of the three schemes assess the directly observable behavior. Secondly, the three studies use behavioral schemes to code leader behavior in a group context (Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). The behavioral taxonomy of Yukl et al. (2002) was used in the development of the behavioral coding scheme as well.

3.5 Data Analysis

First of all, the results of the video-coding have been exported into a Microsoft Excel document. This document contained all the behaviors of each team member, including the duration and frequency with which they occurred. Based on this file, a new Excel document has been created by putting the frequencies and durations of all leaders of the respective behaviors together. The total sum of all frequencies and durations the leaders showed have been calculated and the percentage with which each behavior occurred was determined. These values form the basis of the descriptive table 1. For all the tables in the data analysis part, the behaviors listening and zero behavior have been left out as they have not been coded in the video-based analysis.

Next, a file in SPSS, a software for statistical analyses, including the data from the leader and the follower questionnaires and the results from the video-coding was created. At first, the Cronbach's Alpha, a measure of internal consistency was calculated for the behaviors via SPSS. The result was 0.939 for the followers' and 0.820 for the leaders' proactivity which implies that the questions asked in the questionnaire have been well-suited for the items to be measured as they are higher than 0.7. (SPSS Wizard, 2012) Via this software, the mean proactivity was calculated for each team whereby the three leaders with the highest and the three leaders with the lowest as well as the ten followers with the highest and the ten followers with the lowest scores on these items were detected. These "highest" and "lowest" proactivity leaders and followers, respectively, were grouped together and a new data set was created. The durations and frequencies of the behaviors of the leaders and followers of the respective teams were copied into a new Excel file, sorted by the categories "highest" and "lowest" for proactivity. Afterwards, the percentages of the frequencies and durations per behavior per category have been calculated (see table 2).

Afterwards, the data had to be checked for normality distribution to find out whether a t-test (non-parametric) or a Mann-Whitney U test (parametric) and whether Spearman or Pearson correlation had to be conducted. From the output, it resulted that the data is not normally distributed which means that a one-tailed Mann-Whitney U test needs to be run. (Field, 2009) The results are summarized in table 2 as well.

The next step is a correlation analysis based on a one-tailed Spearman's Rho because the data is not normally distributed. (Field, 2009) For this, the variables that have been analyzed are mean proactivity, mean team effectiveness, self-defending, steering and supporting behavior, each for leaders and followers, respectively. The tables 3a to 3d in the appendix (p.16-17) display the results of the correlation analysis.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Descriptives

Table 1. Frequency and duration of the leaders' and followers' behaviors observed in the video-recorded team meetings

Displayed behaviors				
	Leaders		Followers	
Behavior	Frequency	Duration	Frequency	Duration
Self-defending				
Showing disinterest	0.16%	0.02%	0.12%	0.39%
Defending one's own position	3.54%	3.79%	4.14%	5.60%
Providing negative feedback	1.37%	1.40%	6.17%	10.30%
Total	**5.07%**	**5.20%**	**10.43%**	**16.29%**
Steering				
Disagreeing	2.01%	0.48%	3.45%	1.66%
Agreeing	6.88%	1.91%	9.47%	3.39%
Directing	8.15%	3.86%	11.35%	2.91%
Verifying	9.49%	3.72%	9.08%	5.71%
Structuring the conversation	7.35%	9.91%	2.01%	1.24%
Informing	27.03%	41.89%	23.67%	34.41%
Visioning	18.47%	22.72%	14.95%	24.03%
Total	**79.37%**	**84.50%**	**73.98%**	**73.35%**
Supporting				
Intellectual stimulation	4.64%	3.61%	2.07%	2.63%
Individualized consideration	4.90%	2.24%	6.60%	2.13%
Humor	3.20%	1.48%	4.32%	2.37%
Positive feedback	1.75%	1.36%	0.92%	1.13%
Personally informing	1.06%	1.61%	1.68%	2.10%
Total	**15.56%**	**10.30%**	**15.59%**	**10.36%**
Total	**100.00%**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**	**100.00%**

Resulting from the video-based analysis and as shown in table 1, it can be said that leaders at the observed Dutch public sector organization showed several behaviors more than other behaviors. For leaders, the behaviors from the self-defending category took around 5% of the conversation while the majority was taken in by the steering category with around 80%, followed by supporting category with around 15%.

When going into detail about the individual behaviors within the categories, informing was the most occurring behavior, occupying more than one fourth of the all behaviors observed. Concerning duration, informing took almost 42% of the leaders' speaking term. Besides, visioning was shown with a frequency of around 18.5% among the leaders and took almost 23% of their time. Another noticeable result is that around one tenth of the behaviors occurring was verifying, however it only took up less than 4% of the speaking terms. For structuring the conversation, the opposite is the case as although taking up around 10% of the speaking term, the behavior only occurred with a frequency of around 7%. Furthermore, it can be said that showing disinterest only occurred with a frequency of 0.16% and took up 0.02% of the leaders' speaking terms, thus they hardly showed any disinterest. Individualized consideration was shown in almost 5% of all behaviors and occupied 2.24% of the time the leaders had the say. Moreover, the leaders provided negative feedback with a

frequency of 1.4% which lasted the same percentage of their time. Disagreeing was shown with a frequency of 2%, but only took up 0.5% of the leaders' time.

All in all, the most often occurring and time-consuming behaviors among leaders of the observed organization were informing, visioning, verifying and structuring the conversation. On the opposite, showing disinterest, individualized consideration, providing negative feedback and disagreeing were the least often occurring and the least time consuming behaviors.

For the followers of the analyzed organization, self-defending behavior was seen around 10%, steering behavior had the majority as well with 74% and supporting behavior occurred around 16%. The behavior which took the majority of the time was informing as well with a frequency of around 24% and a duration of 34%. The second most occurring behavior was visioning, with a frequency of 15% and taking up 24% of the time the followers had the speaking term. Besides, around 10% of the behaviors were directing and 10% agreeing, lasting for each around 3% of the speaking term. The least occurring behavior of the followers was showing disinterest with only 0.12% frequency and 0.39% duration. Moreover, positive feedback took around 1% of the speaking term and probability. Structuring the conversation took up 2% of the followers' behaviors in the meetings and lasted circa 1% of the speaking term.

To sum up, the most often occurring and time-consuming behaviors of followers are informing, directing and agreeing. In contrast, the least often occurring and time-consuming were showing disinterest, providing positive feedback and structuring the conversation.

4.2 Differences Between Highly and Moderately Proactive Leaders and Followers

Table 2 depicts the frequencies and durations of the behaviors of highly and moderately proactive leaders and followers. For leaders, the biggest differences between very proactive and less proactive can be found for the duration of structuring the conversation where less proactive leaders structured 9.03 percentage points more. However, the corresponding Mann-Whitney U (in the following abbreviated by "U") for this behavior is 0.5, so the difference is not significant. Furthermore, highly proactive and less proactive leaders differ regarding their informing behavior as the less proactive informed 5.73 percentage points more. With a Man-Whitney U of 0.05, the difference between the two groups is significant.

Moreover, the right side of table 2 presents the two groups of highly proactive and less proactive followers. Concerning the behavior categories, the only significant difference exists for self-defending behavior with a difference of 6.77 percentage points and a Mann-Whitney U value of 0.033.Regarding the individual behaviors, the biggest differences exist for informing because more proactive followers informed 13.13 percentage points more often and 14.66 percentage points longer. Nevertheless, the difference between the groups is not significant. Highly proactive followers also agreed 9.38 percentage points more often, but the difference is not significant either. Significant differences which are, measured in percentage points, not considerably big, can be detected for the frequency and duration of defending one's own position (U=0.027 and U=0.040) for the frequency and duration of disagreeing (U=0.022 and U=0.027) and for the duration of intellectual stimulation the difference is almost significant with a Mann-Whitney U of 0.057.

As a conclusion, proactive and less proactive leaders significantly differ in their informing behavior while proactive and less proactive followers reveal significant differences in self-defending behavior, defending their own position, disagreeing and intellectual stimulation.

4.3 Correlation Analysis

The correlation between different variables is given in table 3

Table 2. Frequency and duration for the three highest and the three lowest proactive leaders and followers and the corresponding Mann-Whitney U

Proactivity	Proactive leaders						Proactive followers					
	Frequency			Duration			Frequency			Duration		
	highest	lowest	Mann-Whitney U	highest	lowest	Mann-Whitney U	highest	lowest	Mann-Whitney U	highest	lowest	Mann-Whitney U
Displayed behavior	n=3	n=3		n=3	n=3		n=10	n=10		n=10	n=10	
Self-defending												
Showing disinterest	0.23%	0.00%	0.350	0.06%	0.00%	0.350	0.07%	2.55%	0.078	1.28%	2.55%	0.139
Defending one's own position	3.31%	6.60%	0.500	3.58%	5.45%	0.500	1.19%	5.29%	0.027	1.64%	4.90%	0.040
Providing negative feedback	1.26%	1.00%	0.500	2.80%	0.66%	0.350	6.74%	6.92%	0.158	12.19%	8.98%	0.178
Total	4.79%	7.60%	0.500	6.44%	6.11%	0.500	8.00%	14.77%	0.033	15.11%	16.43%	0.178
Steering												
Disagreeing	0.68%	1.25%	0.350	0.25%	0.24%	0.350	2.85%	7.08%	0.022	1.02%	4.01%	0.027
Agreeing	6.51%	8.09%	0.200	1.69%	1.85%	0.350	16.11%	6.73%	0.078	10.20%	5.50%	0.275
Directing	9.02%	4.92%	0.500	3.86%	2.31%	0.500	4.12%	9.92%	0.200	1.25%	5.53%	0.091
Verifying	11.36%	9.03%	0.500	4.69%	2.95%	0.350	5.19%	6.54%	0.484	3.75%	7.07%	0.421
Structuring the conversation	8.79%	5.67%	0.100	5.35%	14.38%	0.500	0.54%	4.82%	0.067	0.13%	3.41%	0.067
Informing	22.66%	28.39%	0.050	39.92%	40.71%	0.100	32.13%	19.80%	0.275	40.16%	25.50%	0.249
Visioning	10.39%	15.32%	0.350	13.85%	18.70%	0.100	16.39%	13.73%	0.421	19.07%	13.45%	0.500
Total	69.41%	72.67%	0.500	69.60%	81.14%	0.350	77.34%	68.61%	0.178	75.58%	64.47%	0.122
Supporting												
Intellectual stimulation	2.85%	5.67%	0.350	2.28%	4.21%	0.200	2.05%	3.49%	0.078	0.89%	3.63%	0.057
Individualized consideration	6.91%	4.42%	0.500	4.32%	1.55%	0.350	3.72%	3.42%	0.158	1.02%	2.86%	0.106
Humor	3.54%	3.24%	0.350	1.58%	1.33%	0.350	6.95%	3.29%	0.421	5.81%	3.38%	0.421
Positive feedback	2.51%	1.56%	0.350	2.72%	1.13%	0.350	0.71%	2.71%	0.091	0.50%	2.69%	0.091
Personally informing	2.17%	0.87%	0.500	2.59%	0.75%	0.500	1.37%	3.71%	0.078	1.08%	3.98%	0.067
Total	17.98%	15.75%	0.500	13.49%	8.97%	0.500	14.80%	16.62%	0.224	9.31%	16.54%	0.200
Total	100.00%	100.00%		100.00%	100.00%		100.00%	100.00%		100.00%	100.00%	

(p.16-17) in the appendix. According to DeVeaux, Velleman and Bock (2012), there is no agreement on how high a correlation coefficient (in the following abbreviated by "r") has to be in order to call the correlation "strong". In this paper, it will be assumed that a value of around 0.1 presents a small effect, around 0.3 a medium effect and around 0.5 a large effect, as Field (2009) used these values for the Pearson correlation coefficient. A correlation is labeled "significant" if the significance value is below the significance level of 5% (De Veaux et al., 2012).

From tables 3a to 3d, it can be seen that none of the three behavioral categories or patterns is significantly correlated with team effectiveness. As the hypotheses 1a to 1c said that correlations are expected between the two factors, they all have to be rejected. Nonetheless, 1b and 1c found partial support because within the steering category, the duration of leaders' agreeing was positively (r=0.500), and the duration and frequency of followers' visioning were significantly negatively correlated (r=-0.180 and r=-0.174) with team effectiveness. Plus, within the supporting category the duration of individualized consideration followers showed was significantly positively correlated with team effectiveness (r=0.139). The rejection of the hypotheses 1a to 1c means that team effectiveness is not linked to specific types of behaviors and can thus not be predicted through behavioral patterns. After all, the more effective a team, the less likely a follower is to show visioning behavior and the more likely (s)he is to give individualized consideration, and vice versa.

The tables 3a and 3b reveal the correlations for leaders and depict that leader proactivity is not related to any of the behavioral patterns, thus hypotheses 2a to 2c all have to be rejected. However, the hypotheses 2b and 2c find partial support because leader proactivity is negatively correlated with the duration of leaders' showing disinterest (r=-0.463) which belongs to the self-defending category. This implies a moderate negative correlation, thus the more proactivity, the less leaders show disinterest. Additionally, within the steering category, leader proactivity shows significant correlations with the duration and frequency of informing (r=0.663 and r=0.610) which means that a high positive correlation exists and the more proactivity, the more a leader will inform. As a consequence, a high degree of proactivity of leaders is associated with less disinterest showing of leaders, but is not correlated to the self-defending, steering or supporting behavior category.

Tables 3c and 3d illustrate the correlations between follower proactivity and behavioral patterns shown by followers. Due to the fact that none of the three behavioral categories shows a significant correlation with follower proactivity, hypotheses 3a to 3c do not find support and have to be rejected. Nevertheless, the hypothesis 3b finds partial support. Regarding duration, follower proactivity is significantly correlated negatively with directing (r=-0.162) and positively with visioning (r=0.133) and for the frequency of the behaviors, significant positive correlations exist with agreeing (r=0.194) and verifying (r=0.154). Although significant, these correlations are all relatively weak. Hence, the proactivity of followers is correlated to some behaviors of the steering category, but no correlation exists to the categories self-defending or supporting.

On top of that, the hypotheses 4a and 4b dealt with the correlation of leader and follower proactivity with team effectiveness. Hypothesis 4a does not find any support because leader proactivity and team effectiveness are not significantly correlated, implying that the degree to which a leader is proactive neither significantly improves nor deteriorates the effectiveness of a team. Finally, hypothesis 4b can be accepted because the results of the correlation analysis revealed that follower proactivity and team effectiveness as rated by followers are significantly correlated. The respective correlation coefficient is 0.174 for the duration as well as for the frequency of the behaviors shown, thus the relation is weak but positive, meaning that the more proactive a follower is the more effective a team will be.

All in all, only one of the expected relations described by the hypotheses and as shown by the models was found in empirical practice.

5. DISCUSSION

The research reported in this paper shows that although the general behavioral components of self-defending, steering and supporting are not significantly correlated with leader and follower proactivity or with team effectiveness, the proactive leaders and followers do show certain specific behaviors more or less.

First, the data from this research show that team effectiveness is significantly positively correlated with leaders' agreeing and followers' individualized consideration and negatively with followers' visioning behavior. In contrast, the majority of authors claim that specific behaviors shown by individuals in team meetings can improve team effectiveness (Gibson, Cooper, & Conger, 2009; Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2012; Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2006). The positive correlation between leaders' agreeing and team effectiveness might be explained by the fact that teams may be more effective if the leader does not only tell the followers what they have to do, but also scans for new ideas by listening to, agreeing to, and acting upon ideas of followers (Bateman & Crant, 1999). Individualized consideration done by leaders might be associated with a higher degree of team effectiveness because if followers get personal attention and feedback from leaders, they feel more committed to the team and give their best for excellent team results (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004). The negative correlation of the followers' visioning behavior to team effectiveness could be explained by the fact that leadership is the most important factor to explain team effectiveness, thus, especially given their hierarchical role in the team, leaders should show more visioning than followers (Ahmed, Irshad, & Jamshaid, 2014).Visioning behavior by followers does not contribute to team effectiveness because leader visioning is more crucial and has a bigger impact on the team as a whole. Moreover, usually leaders' behavior projects onto followers who might thereby show more visioning behavior themselves which increases team proactivity and this, in turn, contributes to the effectiveness of the team (Strauss et al., 2009). In addition, it was stated in literature that especially leadership has an important effect on the effectiveness of a team (Kahai et al., 1997; Tarricone & Luca, 2002) which is not proven in this paper either because more follower than leader behaviors were found to be significantly correlated with team effectiveness. Thus, especially the follower behavior in this study seemed to explain team effectiveness, which might be due to the small leader sample.

Second, leader proactivity is positively correlated to informing and negatively correlated to showing disinterest. This implies that a proactive leader informs much and rarely shows disinterest. The positive correlation to informing could be explained by the fact that proactive individuals do not passively wait for information to

arise, but take action themselves and openly inform followers about the current situation, opinion and plans (Bateman & Crant, 1999; Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Crant, 2000; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Strauss et al., 2009). In addition, it is important to examine whether leaders scoring high on proactivity display other behaviors than individuals scoring low on proactivity. The results showed that highly proactive and less proactive leaders reveal significant differences in their informing behavior. Surprisingly, less proactive leaders inform more than highly proactive leaders. An explanation for these findings might be that proactive leaders give voice to the followers and listen to what they have to say whereas less proactive leaders take the initiative and do all the informing themselves. As self-defending behavior implies that a leader is not open for change which is crucial for proactive behavior, the negative correlation between leader proactivity and showing disinterest seems plausible (Strauss et al., 2009). Proactive leaders have to be open for change and new ideas which makes self-defending behavior perturbing. Hence, the negative correlation with showing disinterest which belongs to the self-defending category was expected and does not foster proactivity. Proactive behavior of leaders is especially important because their behavior transfers onto followers, which makes the team as a whole more proactive and which in turn can increase team effectiveness (Strauss et al., 2009). This might be explained by the fact that proactivity is related to openness to change so that defending the own position, disagreeing and stimulating would be associated with a low degree of proactivity (Strauss et al., 2009; Wilderom & Van Dun, 2014). Moreover, proactive followers show less intellectual stimulation behavior as it might be assumed that they are proactive themselves and do not need to invite others to give their ideas or opinions.

Next, follower proactivity is found to be positively correlated with agreeing, verifying, and visioning, and negatively correlated with directing. These all fall under the category steering behavior and according to Bateman and Crant, proactive followers are expected to show steering behaviors (1999). These behavioral patterns are important because proactive individuals take action before problems arise, they "steer" the meeting, thus agree with others instead of only defending their own positions, verify in order to prevent misunderstandings, vision so that other team members know about their plans, but do not direct much because this would prohibit change (Strauss et al., 2009; Wilderom & Van Dun, 2014). Moreover, certain behavioral patterns of individuals, such as scanning for opportunities or taking action exist which also relate to a higher degree of proactivity (Bateman & Crant, 1999). As found out in this research, the behaviors that are related to proactivity are visioning, agreeing and verifying.

Finally, while proactive follower behavior positively influences team effectiveness, leader proactivity is not significantly correlated to team effectiveness. These findings also contrast the academic literature as for example Crant (2000) suggests that proactive behavior is assumed to positively influence team effectiveness. As the team proactivity depends on the proactivity of the individuals, it is important that individuals are as proactive as possible. It is surprising that in this study follower proactivity seems to contribute more to team effectiveness than leader proactivity. However, we cannot claim this result due to the small leader sample size; with regard of the follower proactivity we found that this positively influenced team effectiveness.

The fact that follower proactivity significantly correlates with other behaviors than leader proactivity might be explained by the different roles they are taking within a team. Proactive followers, for instance, often hold the view that the relationship between them and leaders has to be one of mutual interaction and influence, implying that there is a low degree of control and authority (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). This explains the degree to which team members show different behaviors, more precisely proactive leaders inform less and structure the conversation less while proactive followers inform more and agree more than their less proactive counterparts. Additionally, the correlation analysis revealed that leader proactivity is significantly positively correlated with informing and negatively with showing disinterest while for follower proactivity, significant positive correlations exist for agreeing, verifying and visioning and negative correlations were found for directing.

5.1 Theoretical and Practical Implications

This paper has several practical and theoretical implications. Practically, it gives real-life business insights due to the fact that the underlying data comes from objectively recorded and inter-reliably coded videos. This provides organizations with knowledge they can use to concentrate on specific behavioral patterns that are proactive in order to increase team effectiveness and thereby organizational performance. Plus, it can be seen as a guideline for managers to learn more about the influence of proactive behavior on team effectiveness. In team development programs and trainings more attention can be paid to the important role of proactivity. Theoretically, the paper adds to already existing literature because most authors to date found out that relationships between proactivity and team effectiveness exist and that these two factors are linked to specific behavioral patterns. Nevertheless, no link was made between proactivity and video-observed behavior and especially not in detail with the behavioral categories self-defending, steering and supporting behavior that were used in this research.

This study revealed that only follower proactivity is correlated to team effectiveness while leader proactivity did not show a significant correlation and self-defending, steering or supporting behavior are not correlated to team effectiveness or proactivity either.

5.2 Strengths, Limitations and Future Research

The strength of the paper at hand is that different data sources have been used, namely questionnaires and video-based coding of leaders and followers. Besides, the research conducted is new because it does not only link follower but also leader behaviors in meetings to their degree of proactivity and team effectiveness.

However, limitations do exist, for example that the sample size is relatively small as it only consists of 14 leaders and 172 followers who together made up 13 teams. Moreover, the sample was limited to only one company in one industry in the Netherlands which implies that the results might not be generalizable to other countries as according to Hofstede (1994) national and even organizational cultures differ with regard to five cultural dimensions. In line with this, Jung and Avolio (1999) claim that different behaviors are effective in different cultures. Besides, the data only came from one large company that operates in the public sector. Hence, the results might also not be generalizable to small companies or to companies from the private sector.

The observed leaders and followers filled in a questionnaire after the recorded team meeting about the level of reactivity which compares the filmed with the non-recorded meetings, which showed that there was no social desirability bias in the displayed behaviors (Smith, McPhail, & Pickens, 1975). Another limitation is that there might be a common source bias because proactivity and team effectiveness were measured by the same source, so that e.g. follower proactivity and team effectiveness were both measured by followers in the correlation analysis. However, proactivity was requested as self-report whereas the effectiveness of the team was the perception of a follower.

Future research should also focus on the influence of both national and organizational culture on leader and follower proactivity and subsequently team effectiveness. This could be done by investigating various organizations, also in other countries than the Netherlands. Furthermore, future research can investigate other levels of management, other types of teams, e.g. virtual teams, and can also focus on small or private sector organizations.

Also, it is important to study specific leader and follower behaviors, because the aggregates of steering, supporting and self-defending, do not seem to capture the distinctiveness of the behaviors.

Finally, further research might also make use of the relatively new but reliable video-observation method and might additionally use expert scores to measure for example the effectiveness of a team.

6. CONCLUSION

In this field study, the effects of leader and follower proactivity on team effectiveness and the associated behaviors have been investigated. The results indicate that some specific field behaviors reveal a significant correlation with leader or follower proactivity. However, none of the overarching behavioral categories did show significant correlations with team effectiveness or leader or follower proactivity.

Moreover, although leader proactivity does not have an effect on team effectiveness, follower proactivity was found to have a positive influence on the effectiveness of a team. Hence, only one out of eleven hypotheses has been accepted. Thus, a gap between theory and empirical practice has been detected in this paper because what the hypotheses and the model suggested was not yet proven in empirical practice.

Therefore, the research question can be answered in the following way: Proactive follower behavior positively influences team effectiveness; follower proactivity is found to be positively correlated with agreeing, verifying, and visioning, and negatively correlated with directing. Leader proactivity is found positively correlated to informing and negatively correlated to showing disinterest.

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9. APPENDIX

9.1 Behavioral Coding Scheme

Behavior category	Behavior		Definition	Examples
Self-defending	1	Showing disinterest	Not showing any interest, not taking problems seriously, wanting to get rid problems and conflicts	Not actively listening, talking to others while somebody has the speaking term, looking away
	2	Defending one's own position	Protecting the own opinion or ideas, emphasizing the own importance	"We are going to do it in my way." Blaming other people
	3	Providing negative feedback	Criticizing	"I do not like that…" "But we came to the agreement that…"
Steering	4	Disagreeing	Contradicting ideas, opposing team members	"That is not correct" "I do not agree with you"
	5	Agreeing	Saying that someone is right, liking an idea	"That is a good idea" "You are right"
	6	Directing	Telling others what (not) to do, dividing tasks	"I want that" "Kees, I want you to" Interrupting
	7	Verifying	Getting back to previously made agreements/ visions/ norms	"We came to the agreement that…"
	8	Structuring the conversation	Giving structure by telling the agenda, start/end time etc.	"The meeting will end at…" "We are going to have a break now"
	9	Informing	Giving factual information	"The final result is …"
	10	Visioning	Giving the own opinion Giving long-term visions	"I think that…" "Within the next years, we want to…"
Supporting	11	Intellectual stimulation	Asking for ideas, inviting people to think along or come up with own ideas, brainstorming	"What do you think is the best way to…?" "What is your opinion about…?"
	12	Individualized consideration	Rewarding, complimenting, encouraging, being friendly, showing empathy	"Good idea, thank you" "You did a great job" "Welcome" "How are you?"
	13	Humor	Making people laugh, saying something with a funny meaning	Laughing, making jokes
	14	Positive feedback	Rewarding, complimenting	"Well done"
	15	Personally informing	Giving non-factual, but private information	"Last weekend, my wife…"

9.2 Questionnaire

Hereafter, only the questions about the variables that have been used in this study are listed in Dutch in order to ensure that the original meaning is kept.

Geef aan in hoeverre u de onderstaande activiteiten uitoefent	Oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Neutraal	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Geheel mee eens
1. In mijn werk probeer ik verbeterde procedures uit	O	O	O	O	O	O
2. Ik probeer hoe ik mijn werk uitvoer te veranderen om effectiever te worden	O	O	O	O	O	O
3. Ik probeer verbeterde procedures te introduceren	O	O	O	O	O	O
4. Ik probeer nieuwe werkmethoden uit die effectiever zijn	O	O	O	O	O	O
5. Ik probeer ineffectieve procedures te veranderen	O	O	O	O	O	O
6. Ik maak constructieve suggesties voor verbeteringen	O	O	O	O	O	O
7. Ik probeer een onjuiste procedure/werkwijze te corrigeren	O	O	O	O	O	O
8. Ik probeer onnodige procedures te verwijderen	O	O	O	O	O	O
9. Ik probeer om oplossingen te realiseren voor dringende problemen	O	O	O	O	O	O
10. Ik probeer nieuwe structuren, technologieën of aanpakken te introduceren om de effectiviteit mee te verbeteren	O	O	O	O	O	O

Geef aan in hoeverre u de onderstaande activiteiten uitoefent	Geheel mee oneens	Oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Neutraal	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Geheel mee eens
1. Mijn team is effectief	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
2. Mijn team maakt weinig fouten	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
3. Mijn team levert continue hoge prestaties	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
4. Mijn team zorgt voor werk met een hoge kwaliteit	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

9.3 Tables

Table 3. Correlation analysis

3a. Correlation for duration of leader behavior

Leader behavior	1	2	3	3.1	3.2	3.3	4	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	5	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5
1. Proactivity																				
2. Team effectiveness (measured by leader scores in the questionnaire)	.157																			
3. Self-defending	.222	.174																		
3.1 Showing disinterest	-.463*	.247	.087																	
3.2 Protecting one's own position	.231	.023	.895**	-.123																
3.3 Providing negative feedback	-.090	.154	.622**	.227	.301															
4. Steering	-.148	-.435	-.675**	-.469*	-.459*	-.560*														
4.1 Disagreeing	-.143	0.000	-.604*	.105	-.596*	-.420	.204													
4.2 Agreeing	-.059	.093	-.086	.018	-.068	.143	-.068	.086												
4.3 Directing	-.009	-.226	.433	.018	.534*	.152	-.301	.029	.279											
4.4 Verifying	0.000	.174	.516*	.126	.218	.785**	-.407	-.244	.108	.231										
4.5 Structuring the conversation	-.018	.220	.218	.386	.086	.130	-.512*	.116	-.393	.257	.319									
4.6 Informing	.663**	.066	.398	-.494*	.411	.323	-.108	-.481*	.073	.081	.275	-.279								
4.7 Visioning	-.405	-.450	-.385	-.191	-.204	-.310	.732**	.055	-.081	-.244	-.451	-.736**	-.086							
5. Supporting	-.170	.263	-.108	.609*	-.292	-.029	-.393	.152	-.103	-.473*	-.160	.253	-.407	-.213						
5.1 Intellectually stimulating	.007	-.079	-.437	.022	-.569*	-.073	-.086	.407	.138	-.253	.152	.305	-.305	-.411	.393					
5.2 Individualized consideration	-.310	.286	-.167	.321	-.374	.128	-.392	.537*	.108	-.101	.088	.299	-.427	-.266	.634**	.546*				
5.3 Humor	.110	.376	.182	.159	.284	.033	-.262	-.125	.358	.262	-.292	-.323	.279	.086	-.156	-.578*	-.178			
5.4 Positive feedback	.137	.018	.740**	.424	.682**	.333	-.691**	-.479*	.011	.506*	.188	.188	.214	-.289	.139	-.364	-.122	.408		
5.5 Personally informing	-.136	.089	.331	.651**	.251	.082	-.636**	.016	-.035	.214	-.204	.383	-.462*	-.340	.575*	-.026	.317	.223	.592*	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

3b. Correlation for frequency of leader behavior

Leader behavior	1	2	3	3.1	3.2	3.3	4	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	5	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5
1. Proactivity																				
2. Team effectiveness (measured by leader scores in the questionnaire)	.157																			
3. Self-defending	.346	-.009																		
3.1 Showing disinterest	-.448	.221	-.058																	
3.2 Protecting one's own position	.355	.127	.881**	-.011																
3.3 Providing negative feedback	.040	-.061	.393	.112	.011															
4. Steering	.031	-.385	-.499*	-.548*	-.301	-.508*														
4.1 Disagreeing	-.108	-.034	-.581*	.018	-.579*	-.319	.073													
4.2 Agreeing	.156	.500*	-.402	.004	-.156	-.587*	.253	.383												
4.3 Directing	.015	-.032	.345	-.267	.055	.578*	-.160	-.136	-.393											
4.4 Verifying	-.163	.161	.011	.501*	.073	.130	-.143	-.372	-.226	.024										
4.5 Structuring the conversation	-.216	-.244	.446	.400	.134	.459*	-.653**	-.059	-.569*	.323	.121									
4.6 Informing	.610*	.143	.429	-.602*	.534*	-.209	.284	-.158	.182	.354	-.196	-.279								
4.7 Visioning	-.352	-.367	-.552*	-.130	-.411	-.323	.662**	.139	.125	-.415	-.358	-.349	-.213							
5. Supporting	-.170	.263	-.231	.602*	-.213	-.130	-.508*	.185	.121	-.596*	.196	.257	-.666**	-.143						
5.1 Intellectually stimulating	.026	-.186	-.521*	.133	-.534*	-.099	.121	.387	-.024	-.473*	.262	-.095	-.437	.103	.455					
5.2 Individualized consideration	-.156	.430	-.385	.440	-.402	-.068	-.499*	.398	.182	-.327	.055	.095	-.587*	-.248	.846**	.433				
5.3 Humor	.302	.312	.297	-.079	.464*	-.178	-.046	-.271	.433	-.174	-.336	-.244	.253	.002	-.029	-.670**	-.138			
5.4 Positive feedback	.210	-.070	.797**	.293	.717**	.210	-.545*	-.484*	-.174	-.029	.024	.554*	.064	-.413	.192	-.400	-.130	.457		
5.5 Personally informing	-.125	.135	.359	.643**	.392	.054	-.706**	.035	.035	-.331	.077	.364	-.364	-.378	.589*	-.082	.397	.326	.644**	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

3c. Correlation for duration of follower behavior

Leader behavior	1	2	3	3.1	3.2	3.3	4	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	5	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5
1. Proactivity																				
2. Team effectiveness (measured by follower scores in the questionnaire)	.174*																			
3. Self-defending	.011	-.056																		
3.1 Showing disinterest	-.118	.018	.292**																	
3.2 Protecting one's own position	.070	-.045	.552**	.267**																
3.3 Providing negative feedback	-.043	-.074	.709**	.151*	.124*															
4. Steering	.089	-.042	-.459**	-.279**	-.172**	-.335**														
4.1 Disagreeing	-.022	-.037	.360**	.412**	.357**	.336**	-.186**													
4.2 Agreeing	.104	-.009	.233**	.229**	.289**	.187**	.049	.309**												
4.3 Directing	-.162*	-.013	.240**	.230**	.226**	.263**	.064	.233**	.166*											
4.4 Verifying	.109	-.054	.215**	.144*	.346**	.122*	.132*	.222**	.239**	.284**										
4.5 Structuring the conversation	-.059	.040	.152*	.470**	.327**	.149*	-.048	.272**	.128*	.386**	.293**									
4.6 Informing	.126	.003	-.027	-.254**	.066	.054	.499**	-.054	.114	.048	.084	-.058								
4.7 Visioning	.133*	-.180*	-.094	-.172**	-.014	.050	.447**	.064	-.001	.135*	.145*	-.050	.035							
5. Supporting	-.010	.072	.153*	.364**	.132*	.217**	-.455**	.291**	.154*	.146*	.129*	.226**	-.162*	.004						
5.1 Intellectually stimulating	-.051	-.004	.189**	.459**	.162*	.248**	-.290**	.367**	.276**	.120*	.017	.260**	-.061	.032	.595**					
5.2 Individualized consideration	-.040	.139*	.214**	.385**	.039	.283**	-.355**	.320**	.242**	.126*	.068	.103	-.165*	.058	.674**	.526**				
5.3 Humor	.002	.021	.183**	.295**	.199**	.243**	-.232**	.254**	.164*	.299**	.243**	.350**	-.037	.053	.664**	.316**	.335**			
5.4 Positive feedback	.028	-.018	.217**	.383**	.382**	.278**	-.193**	.465**	.309**	.208**	.237**	.344**	.002	.084	.458**	.340**	.270**	.339**		
5.5 Personally informing	-.027	.090	.166*	.421**	.260**	.245**	-.306**	.385**	.263**	.176**	.132*	.344**	-.054	-.068	.560**	.514**	.439**	.370**	.500**	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

3d. Correlation for frequency of follower behavior

Leader behavior	1	2	3	3.1	3.2	3.3	4	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	5	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.5
1. Proactivity																				
2. Team effectiveness (measured by follower scores in the questionnaire)	.174*																			
3. Self-defending	-.028	.012																		
3.1 Showing disinterest	-.097	.020	.405**																	
3.2 Protecting one's own position	.042	.006	.693**	.323**																
3.3 Providing negative feedback	-.073	-.074	.736**	.278**	.230**															
4. Steering	.058	-.053	-.273**	-.275**	-.126*	-.234**														
4.1 Disagreeing	-.025	-.072	.444**	.399**	.334**	.407**	-.121*													
4.2 Agreeing	.194**	-.035	.190**	.070	.204**	.105	.251**	.173**												
4.3 Directing	-.108	-.015	.150*	.101	.001	.238**	.220**	-.013	-.101											
4.4 Verifying	.154*	-.064	.276**	.040	.303**	.201**	.177**	.176**	.165*	.043										
4.5 Structuring the conversation	-.068	.034	.282**	.557**	.361**	.169**	-.022	.227**	-.098	.111	.189**									
4.6 Informing	.130	.008	-.022	-.251**	.069	.031	.561**	-.059	.173**	.168*	.148*	.001								
4.7 Visioning	.052	-.174*	-.058	-.024	-.023	.033	.332**	.111	.060	.136*	.141*	-.022	.035							
5. Supporting	.008	.052	.046	.264**	-.035	.159*	-.663**	.134*	-.113	-.042	-.026	.065	-.286**	.002						
5.1 Intellectually stimulating	-.065	-.033	.213**	.474**	.157*	.247**	-.263**	.364**	.172**	-.056	-.007	.262**	-.065	.120*	.452**					
5.2 Individualized consideration	-.003	.079	.073	.147*	-.123*	.210**	-.520**	.119	.001	.017	-.009	-.104	-.252**	.036	.752**	.321**				
5.3 Humor	.045	-.012	.186**	.227**	.144*	.258**	-.349**	.150*	-.103	.115	.155*	.227**	-.041	.008	.572**	.255**	.187**			
5.4 Positive feedback	.010	.018	.325**	.547**	.382**	.309**	-.226**	.431**	.154*	.039	.152*	.379**	-.074	.076	.307**	.369**	.165*	.287**		
5.5 Personally informing	-.029	.074	.250**	.500**	.299**	.250**	-.317**	.345**	.117	-.067	.053	.349**	-.038	-.050	.430**	.508**	.213**	.312**	.538**	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).