The effect of leadership behavior on meeting effectiveness

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ABSTRACT: Meetings are not always perceived as beneficial by employees. However, meetings are important for followers to execute their tasks because they provide a context in which information and other resources can be shared. This research examines whether meeting effectiveness can be explained by the leader behavior that is displayed. Leadership behaviors are studied because leaders often facilitate meetings and leaders can create the right meeting context, contributing to effective follower task execution. The results of this study show that there is a negative relationship between meeting effectiveness and the correcting type of leader behavior. Implications of this finding are being discussed at the end of the paper.

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Leadership, Meeting Effectiveness, Followers, Leadership Behavior, Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Video-based.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Every employee has come across meetings, some more than others. Supervisors tend to spend more time in pre-scheduled meetings than non-supervisors. Meetings consume on average six hours a week the time of employees. In larger organizations this is usually even more (Rogelberg, Leach, Warr, & Burnfield, 2006). However, people see meetings often as annoying (Myrsiades, 2000) or even as an interruption of their work (Rogelberg et al., 2006). Furthermore, unsuccessful meetings can be unproductive and wasteful when focusing on the resources which can be potentially lost in meetings. Resources such as time, effort and money can be lost if the outcome is unsuccessful. There are also hidden costs associated with unsuccessful meetings, such as time an employee needs to recover emotionally after a meeting that was frustrating for the employee due to the unsuccessful outcome (Romano & Nunamaker Jr, 2001). In addition, job productivity is generally decreased when the meetings are not successful and the managers and workers are dissatisfied with the process and the outcomes (Romano & Nunamaker Jr, 2001). However, most managers agree that meetings in an organization are important and necessary. Meetings are essential for individuals to accomplish tasks that cannot be completed by themselves (Romano & Nunamaker Jr, 2001). Furthermore, it is important for organizations to spend time on increasing meeting effectiveness because research showed that frequent bad meetings are likely to have lasting psychological effects on the employees (Nixon & Littlepage, 1992). Therefore it is important to have successful and effective meetings.

The behavior of leaders and situational factors are important. Yet, the main focus of current research has been on meeting and design characteristics such as keeping an agenda, starting ending on time and room facilities (Cohen, Rogelberg, Allen, & Luong, 2011; Leach, Rogelberg, Warr, & Burnfield, 2009; Nixon & Littlepage, 1992)

Meeting effectiveness can be improved in one way by the behavior of leaders. The behavior of leaders can increase meeting effectiveness, for example by behaving in a certain way that meetings are used effectively. As a result, the meetings improve the well-being of employees. Most behaviors can be learnt to leaders, through training (Cohen et al., 2011). Making meetings more effective can be done for example by the leader by making them more relevant for the employee (Leach et al., 2009; Nixon & Littlepage, 1992). Moreover, leaders can play a facilitator role in meetings, especially because they have a higher attendance in meetings than non-supervisors (Rogelberg et al., 2006). The facilitator role can be achieved by acting as a central person who determines and leads the discussions (Myrsiades, 2000).

Central to this research is the behavior of leaders in meetings, in relation to meeting effectiveness. The behaviors of leaders are divided between task oriented behaviors, relationship oriented behaviors and meeting mechanics. These categories are chosen because they capture two sides of leadership, not only effective transformative behavior of a leader is important but also the task oriented or more transactional-style behavior. Leadership can show both styles together (Bass, 1985). These styles will be further elaborated on in the next chapter of theory and hypotheses.

Next to leader behavior, meeting characteristics are also studied in relation to meeting effectiveness. The study of Cohen et al. (2011) identified specific relationships between several facility quality characteristics for meeting such as, lighting, temperature, meeting space and refreshments. The findings of their study suggest that effective meeting design has to take in all these aspects into consideration. Employees with power positions that facilitate the meetings find meetings of higher quality when the meetings meet the quality characteristics (Cohen et al., 2011). In that study they only studied meeting-design type of characteristics; they did not study the behavior of meeting facilitators, who are in this research the leaders. Therefore this research adds to the current research by looking at the specific behaviors of the leaders as meeting facilitators, and by focusing on task- oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors.

2. DEFINING MEETINGS AND THE IMPACT OF MEETINGS

2.1 Definition of a Meeting

In this part there will be explained what a meeting is in this research. Meetings can be defined as purposeful work-related interactions between at least two individuals. Their interaction has more structure than a normal chat but less structure than an informational lecture from a leader to a follower (Rogelberg et al., 2006).

There are many definitions of meetings in literature, and in this research the definition of Romano & Nunamaker Jr (2001) will be used. Romano & Nunamaker Jr (2001) did an extensive literature research to definitions of meeting and define a meeting as: "*a focused interaction of cognitive attention, planned or chance, where people agree to come together for a common purpose, whether at the same time and the same place, or at different times in different places.*" (p1).

2.2 Negative Impact of Meetings

As mentioned in the introduction, meetings are sometimes perceived as unproductive and wasteful when focusing on resources (Romano & Nunamaker Jr, 2001) or annoying (Myrsiades, 2000) or as an interruption (Rogelberg et al., 2006). It is seen as an interruption when it interrupts the workflow and therefore disrupts work processes. Due to this the well-being of employees may be negatively influenced and be driven down (Rogelberg et al., 2006). The theory of activity regulation is used in the research of Rogelberg et al., (2006) to explain this interruption. Due to the related thought processes that are related to meetings, meeting interruptions are seen as demanding. This is for example when an employee thinks of the task they still have to get done after the meeting or the task they just have left (Rogelberg et al., 2006). In addition, meetings can have a disruptive effect when they are more frequent for employees who work in a predominantly individual based organization. One of the main reasons is that meetings further drain resources from the primary tasks of the employees (Luong & Rogelberg, 2005). In the research of Allen et al., (2012) three times as many respondents indicated that more meetings make them feel worse, their largest complaint was time-related. To continue, some employees indicate meetings even as a source of job

dissatisfaction (Cohen et al., 2011). Research found consistency with the conservation of resources theory that most of the employees are not satisfied with meetings since meetings reduce their work-related resources. Which means that the meetings are constraining their time, have a lack of structure and are unproductive meetings (Allen et al., 2012). Due to meetings people can experience a threat of loss of resources for example when the meetings are run long (Allen et al., 2012).

2.3 Positive Impact of Meetings

However, meetings are also important for companies and employees. In a research done by Allen et al., (2012) the majority of the respondents, who felt better about having more meetings, said that meetings allow more information sharing. It can help them reach their goals and objectives and meetings allow for collaboration and problem solving and enabling communication. Furthermore, when important information is being shared and when the meetings have a clear objective, employees tend to like the meetings more (Allen et al., 2012). Additionally, to achieve the goals that are set, meetings are important for organizations and employees. This is because meetings are often used to integrate and coordinate the work activities of employees (Rogelberg et al., 2006).

3 THE IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR IN RELATION WITH MEETING EFFECTIVENESS

Leadership behavior is examined in relation to meeting effectiveness because it might have a positive influence on the perceived effectiveness by followers. A reason for this is that leadership takes place in meetings for example when the leader is facilitating and directing in meetings (Myrsiades, 2000). According to Yukl (2012) the essence of leadership in organization is to influence and facilitate collective and individual efforts in order to reach the common objectives. The performance of a team or organization can be improved by leaders. Leaders can influence the process related to the performance (Yukl, 2012). For example by organizing meetings which will eventually help to reach the common objectives, since meetings are resources for employees and managers can solve problems they cannot solve themselves (Allen et al., 2012; Rogelberg et al., 2006). The meeting can therefore contribute to the task performance of the followers if the leader shows the right behavior.

Furthermore, job satisfaction can be affected by meetings. Evidence is found that meeting satisfaction was unrelated to organization size, type and the participants' gender, job level, age, status and tenure. However, meeting satisfaction is related to job satisfaction (Rogelberg, Allen, Shanock, Scott, & Shuffler, 2010). Since the research found that meeting satisfaction is related to job satisfaction, the meeting effectiveness may play a role in increasing this. Since, it is not related to the before named characteristics such organization size and employee age, behavior may play a role. Especially, the behavior of the leader since transformational leadership is positively related to the job satisfaction of followers (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013). Transformational leadership occurs when the leaders and followers motivate each other to get a higher level of motivation and morality. Transformational leaders inspire followers by their personality and traits. The leader achieves change by being an example (Burns 1978). The concept of transformational leadership is extended by Bass (1985). It is extended by how it could be measured by the influence on the followers. Through charisma, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration the leader can transform and motivate the followers (Bass, 1985). This is different than the transactional approach which is based on a give and take relationship (Burns 1978). In transactional leadership an exchange model is used, rewards are given when there are positive outcomes or good work is delivered (Bass, 1985, 2008). When there are negative outcomes or poor work is delivered, leaders can give penalties or punishments until the problem is solved (Bass, 2008). Another part of transactional leadership is management-by-exception (MBE). Here, the focus is on task progress. This can be active or passive; the difference depends on when the intervention takes place. In active form, proactive corrective action is taken when necessary, and work and performance can be monitored throughout. In passive form, action of a leader takes place after a mistake or when critical problems arise (Howell & Avolio, 1993)

Although there are differences between the two leadership styles, leadership can display transformational and transactional leadership style simultaneously. Contingent reward has been found to co-vary with transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Therefore it is important to investigate both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors.

4 TASK ORIENTED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AS A POSSIBLE POSITIVE INFLUENCE ON MEETING EFFECTIVENESS

4.1 Explaining Task Oriented Leadership Behavior

In earlier research there has been found support for a hierarchical taxonomy from which task behavior and relations behavior of leaders (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002) will be used in this research. The main reason that task behavior of the leader might be positively related to meeting effectiveness is because research found that procedural and design characteristics of meetings such as open communication, focus on tasks, and an agenda are related to meeting effectiveness (Leach et al., 2009; Nixon & Littlepage, 1992) Transformational leadership inspires followers by the behavior of the leader. And the behavior of the leaders set as an example can make the followers for example feel more motivated on their tasks in order to grow to be just like the leader. Since, transformational leadership influences the work motivation of followers (Bono & Judge, 2003). Also if the leader is approachable due to the transformative leadership style, the followers might feel more encouraged to openly communicate.

In the hierarchical taxonomy of Yukl et al. (2002) the goal of task oriented behaviors is to work in an efficient and reliable way to reach targets. Examples of task behavior are planning short-term activities, clarifying task objectives and role expectations, and monitor operations and performance (Yukl et al., 2002). Furthermore, leader task oriented behavior can be of similar importance for meeting effectiveness because, groups

tend be more effective in solving problems when the problem is outlined as the group understands them. This means that the group is involved with the problem. Involving the group can be achieved by the facilitating behavior of the leader. The leader can achieve this facilitating type of behavior by collecting the various points of view on the problem, determining who owns the problem, determining if the problem is a problem of the group and if the group is able to solve the problem (Myrsiades, 2000). These leader behaviors fit with task-oriented behaviors such as structuring the conversation, directing, task monitoring and informing. Therefore, task oriented behavior will be measured by directing, task monitoring, structuring the conversation and informing behavior of the leader.

4.2 Directing Behavior

Directing behavior might increase meeting effectiveness because the leader has a facilitator role and directs the meeting. Directing behavior includes problem solving and facilitating (Feyerherm, 1994; Myrsiades, 2000). Also planning activities and clarifying task objectives and role expectations have been seen as directing behavior (Yukl et al., 2002). The leader shows directing behavior when he is dividing tasks among followers and determines the direction for the staff. This behavior might increase meeting effectiveness because the leader decides what is happening and gives clarity. This can for example speed up the process of the meeting by dividing the tasks instead of discussing who will do each task and correct followers before the discussion is going to escalate. Therefore the first hypothesis is:

H1: Directing behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

4.3. Task Monitoring Behavior

Task monitoring behavior can be seen as information gathering of work activities and checking on the progress of the work. This definition is drawn and similar as from monitoring operations and environment of Yukl (2002) due to the controlling nature of the behavior (Yukl et al., 2002). Bales (1950) emphasizes that asking for clarification and confirmation, here seen as task monitoring, is important for task oriented leader behavior. A leader is task monitoring by checking how the followers are planning their activities and how they execute their tasks (Bono & Judge, 2003). This behavior controls the followers (Bass, 1985) and gives focus on responsibilities, regulations or deadlines. This helps to preserve stability in the workplace (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Because task monitoring can give focus and stability by verifying the progress of the employee, the behavior might be related to an increased meeting effectiveness. Therefore if the leader shows this behavior, the meeting might be more effective. That brings the following hypothesis:

H2: Task monitoring behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

4.4 Structuring the Conversation Behavior

Structuring the conversation behavior of a leader might increase meeting effectiveness because the leader decides how the conversation in the meeting is proceeding. The leader is coordinating and providing context (Feyerherm, 1994). Nixon and Littlepage (1992) showed that keeping an agenda and starting and ending on time is related to meeting effectiveness. That research shows, when a meeting is structured by an agenda it is more effective. Therefore structuring the conversation might also have a positive relationship with meeting effectiveness, because it brings just as an agenda, structure in the meeting. That gives the following hypothesis:

H3: Structuring the conversation behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

4.5 Informing Behavior

Due to the central position of the leader and his network of contacts the leader has an informational role. The leader receives besides, the information of his followers, also external information, which makes the leader a powerful data base for information. Due to the external data the leaders knows more information than the followers and can therefore provide necessary information to the followers (Mintzberg, 1990). The followers need this information to accomplish their tasks; therefore the informing behavior of a leader is a valuable resource for the followers (Campbell, White, & Johnson, 2003; Spreitzer, 1995). Besides, transformational leadership causes trust in the leader and between followers (Deluga, 1995; Hoyt & Blascovich, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). And trust is seen as an important part for sharing information and knowledge (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; Riege, 2005). Furthermore, transformational leadership raises the motivation to share knowledge and information to reach the common goal of followers (Ryan & Deci, 2000), which leads to more positive outcomes. Transformational leadership raises the motivation by acting as a role model, sharing their knowledge and helping followers to make use of the incoming information (Nonaka, Von Krogh, & Voelpel, 2006; O'Neill & Adya, 2007; Rosen, Furst, & Blackburn, 2007). Since, autonomous motivation leads to more positive behavioral outcomes than controlled motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Examples of these positive behavioral outcomes are better performance on complex and creative tasks, active information seeking and goal attainment (Amabile, Goldfarb, & Brackfleld, 1990; Koestner & Losier, 2002; Sheldon & Elliot, 1998). If these positive outcomes are acquired during a meeting from a leader, the meeting might be perceived as effective. Based on this information it is expected that:

H4: Informing behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

5 RELATIONSHIP ORIENTED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AND MEETING EFFECTIVENESS

5.1 Explaining Relationship Oriented Leadership Behavior

At the opposite of the leader behavioral continuum in the hierarchical taxonomy of Yukl et al., (2002) is relations-oriented behavior. The main objective of relations behavior is to increase the human capital, which is the quality of human resources and relations. This behavior includes, the provision of support and

encouragement, recognition of the leader for employees achievements and contributions, member skill and confident development, the consulting role of leader when making decisions and empowering members in problem solving to take initiative (Yukl et al., 2002). Relationship oriented behavior is involved with human resources and relations, that is likewise for the parts individualized stimulation and individualized consideration of transformative leadership. For example, in intellectual stimulation leader empower members to take initiative and in individualized consideration leaders provide support and encouragement (Yukl et al., 2002).

5.2 Intellectual Stimulation Behavior as Positive Influence on Meeting Effectiveness

Avolio and Bass (1995) identified four different components of transformational leadership. These four components are idealized influence, inspirational, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration and they tend to contribute to the development of followers. The last two intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration might have a positive influence on meeting effectiveness during meetings. This is because intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders stimulate their followers' efforts by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching in a new way old situations. With this behavior they stimulate followers to be innovative and creative. During this there will be no criticism (public or ridicule) on mistakes of an individual member. From followers, new ideas and creative solutions are asked. By doing this the followers are involved in the process of finding solutions and addressing problems (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Bales, 1950; Feyerherm, 1994; Yukl et al., 2002). Due to this behavior followers can express their problems and solutions, and are involved by the leader for input, therefore the perceived meeting effectiveness maybe increased. This is because they feel more involved and not only listening. Therefore the next hypotheses will be tested:

H5: Intellectual stimulation behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

5.3 Individualized Consideration Behavior as Positive Influence on Meeting Effectiveness

The next behavior of leaders during a meeting based on Avioli & Bass (1995) transformational leadership is individualized consideration. Earlier research found that individual consideration is negatively related to leader and team effectiveness when it is displayed during a meeting (Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2014). This can come due the fact that factual information is needed for followers to accomplish their tasks, and this is given during meetings by a leader (Campbell et al., 2003; Mintzberg, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995). If a leader shows more individualized behavior, then the follower does not acquire this information of the leader (Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2014) Participative leadership theory also known as democratic leadership of Lewin, Lippitt & White (1939), which involves all members of a team to participate to identify the goals and strategies and where the leader has a more facilitator role, can be the reason for the negative relationship. In participating leadership, the leader is likely to show more individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, since it is asking the followers for ideas and encourage them to participate in the decision making process. This might be constraining and time consuming for meeting effectiveness due to the fact that the focus can be drawn away of more important work related issues. However, individualized consideration might be positive related to meeting effectiveness if the meeting is held for that purpose.

According to Avioli and Bass (1995) individualized consideration is when leaders pay attention to the needs of each individual. If the leader acts as a coach or mentor the needs for achievement and growth can be reached. The individual differences of the followers in term of needs and desires are recognized by the leader. Furthermore, in a supportive climate new learning opportunities are created. The followers can develop to successively higher levels of potential (Avolio & Bass, 1995). The leader is supporting and encouraging and shows solidarity towards the follower ((Bales, 1950; Feyerherm, 1994; Yukl et al., 2002). When a leader displays this behavior during a meeting the meeting effectiveness might be perceived by followers in higher rate due to the attention that is paid to them. Therefore the next hypothesis is:

H6: Individualized consideration of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

6. MEETING MECHANICS: THE IMPORTANCE OF STARTING AND ENDING ON TIME AND THE VALUE OF MEETINGS IN MEETING EFFECTIVENESS.

6.1 Starting and Ending on Time

Nixon & Littlepage (1992) found that beginning and ending meetings time is correlated with effectiveness. Also Leach et al., (2009) found that meeting punctuality is related to meeting effectiveness. Furthermore, research found that general meeting effectiveness is also influenced by time demands (Rogelberg et al., 2006). Sometimes, individuals feel worse about the work experience because in some cases meetings can disrupt the achievement of work goals. Research found that perceived meeting effectiveness is related to time demands and job-attitudes and well-being. Time demand has a negative impact on employees attitudes and well-being when meeting effectiveness is low (Rogelberg et al., 2006). A study found that meetings who start and end on time are more favorable and viewed less disruptive than those who don't start and end on time (Cohen et al., 2011; Luong & Rogelberg, 2005). Length and break time did not influence this (Cohen et al., 2011). In a study done by Allen et al., (2012) they found that meetings are perceived more dreadful when a meeting starts late. And that an employee looks more forward to a meeting when they are punctual, in other word, starting on time and ending on time (Allen et al., 2012; Leach et al., 2009). Therefore starting on time and ending on time could be related to meeting effectiveness. That brings to the next two hypotheses:

H7: Starting a meeting on time is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

H8: Ending a meeting on time is positively related to meeting effectiveness.

6.1 Valuable Meeting

As mentioned before, meetings are perceived as unproductive, wasteful, annoying or interruptive by employees (Myrsiades, 2000; Rogelberg et al., 2006; Romano & Nunamaker Jr, 2001). These perceptions of meetings can drive down the perceived meeting effectiveness. Therefore, it is assumed that when a meeting is perceived as valuable, this influences the meeting effectiveness on a positive way. Therefore the hypothesis is:

H9: If a meeting is valuable for the followers it has a positive relation with meeting effectiveness.

In figure 1.1 the independent variables and the dependent variable are visualized.

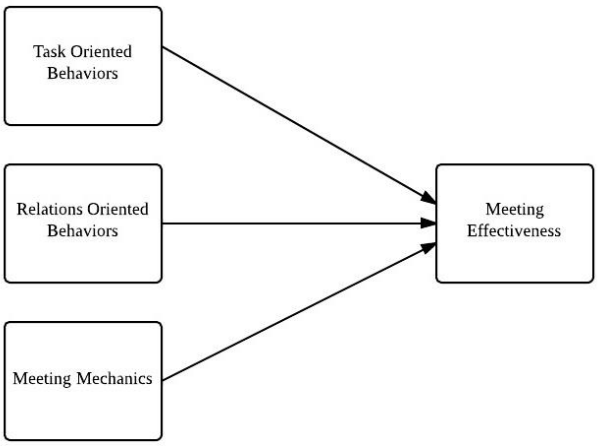

Figure 1.1 Visualization of the key variables in this research

7. METHODS

7.1 Design of the Study

In this cross-sectional study design two different data sources are used: (1) a survey measured followers' work values, (2) reliably video-coded monitoring followers' and leader behavior during staff meetings. Furthermore, a survey measured the perception of followers about leader effectiveness. By systematic video-coding, various behaviors of the leaders and followers have been observed. By using this variety of methods and sources, common source bias is reduced in this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

7.2 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 and the leaders were on average 52.5 years of old, ranging from 46 to 61 (SD=4.6). The average job tenure of the leader sample is 27.2 years, ranging from 3 to 43 (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 (29.1%) female followers and from 10 (5,8%) the sex is unknown. These followers were on average 49.4 years old, ranging from 22 to 64 (SD=10.31). The followers have an average job tenure of 24.7 years (SD=13.43), ranging from 6 months to 44 years. The leaders and followers were asked, directly after the video recorded staff meeting, to fill out a survey in which they were asked about meeting effectiveness. In total, 14 leaders and 172 followers filled in the survey, which results in a response rate of 100% for the leaders and 100% for the followers.

7.3 Measures

The effect of leadership behavior on meeting effectiveness was measured by the behaviors of the leaders. These behaviors are task oriented behaviors such as task monitoring, directing, structuring the conversation and informing. Relationship oriented behaviors are individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. These behaviors were coded by the observers by using a predefined coding scheme based on literature from Bales (1950), Borgatta (1964), Feyerherm (1994) and Yukl (2002): see Appendix table 1. Meeting mechanics was measured by starting and ending on time. These are calculated by the time when the meeting supposed to start and when it actually started. And when the meeting supposed to end and actually ended. If the meetings were valuable to followers, was measured through the survey with questions as: "The meetings are a more satisfying experience than a frustrating one" (Nixon & Littlepage, 1992), "Overall, our meetings are productive" (Engleberg & Wynn, 2007), and "The meetings I attend are worth my time (Baran et al., 2012). Meeting effectiveness was measured by the survey that the followers filled in after the meeting ended. Questions about meeting effectiveness with answers scaled in seven answers ranging from completely disagree till completely agree. Questions asked about meeting effectiveness were:

"The meeting helps in achieving your own goal's (or own tasks)," (Rogelberg et al. 2006) "The meeting helps in achieving the team goal's (or team's tasks)" (Rogelberg et al. 2006), "Providing you with an opportunity to acquire useful information" (Rogelberg et al. 2006), "Providing you with an opportunity to meet, socialize, or network with people" (Rogelberg et al. 2006), "The meeting helps in achieving the unit's goal's (or unit's tasks)" (Rogelberg et al. 2006), "Promoting commitment to what was said and done in the meeting" (Rogelberg et al. 2006).

7.4 Video Observation Method

During randomly selected staff meetings in the ordinary course of business the 14 leaders and 172 followers were videotaped. A total of 1800 minutes have been recorded while each meeting took 138.5 minutes on average. Through the behavioral software program "The Observer XT" which has been developed for the analysis, management and presentation of observational data (Noldus et al., 2000), the videos were precisely coded and analyzed.

The observers were six third year 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, two observers coded each video independently 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%. Each team meeting was recorded by three video cameras installed beforehand in the meeting rooms so that actual leader and follower behaviors could be ensured. According to Erickson (1992) and Kent and Foster (1997), 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.

7.5 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, a table is added which contains different leadership behaviors which are coded in this current study. After each behavior, there has been given a short description about the behavior and a couple of examples to understand the different behaviors more in detail. A solid base for this video coding scheme has been developed by Bales (1950) and Borgatta (1964). Bales (1950) and Borgatta (1964) observed in their early studies the interaction processes between the leaders and their followers. The observation of the interaction processes is done without any use of tape-recording device. In their exploratory work they made 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 coding of a range of leadership behaviors (Yukl, 2002). Feyerherm (1994) extended the work of Bales and Borgatta; he used an experimental approach towards measuring the leadership behaviors and added some task-oriented and social-oriented behaviors to the work of Bales and Borgatta. The three coding schemes, (Bales, 1950; Borgatta, 1964; Feyerherm, 1994), have two important commonalities. First, all of the three schemes assess the directly observable behavior. Second, the three studies use behavioral schemes to code leader behavior in a group context (e.g., Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Pearce et al., 2003; Yukl et al., 2002). The behavioral taxonomy of Yukl et al. (2002) is also used in the development of the behavioral coding scheme. It is more accurately to describe the behaviors of the leaders more in detail, the observable behaviors, than in one or two meta-constructs such as transactional or transformational leadership. Examples of behavior coded as directing behavior are; "I want you to have the work done next week", "You handle this one", and "Do you want to figure this out for me?"

8. RESULTS

8.1 Leader Behaviors at Meetings

8.1.1 The Most Common Behaviors

In total the top three most displayed behaviors of leaders during regular staff meetings are informing (41.9%) visioning; giving one's own opinion (17.3%) and structuring the conversation (9.9%) (duration). In terms of frequency, the most displayed behaviors are informing (27%), visioning; giving one's own opinion (15.6%) and task monitoring (9.5%) (frequency). The behaviors differ in structuring the conversation (duration) and task monitoring (frequency). An overview of all percentages can be found in table 2 (see in the Appendix).

8.1.2 Most Effective Meetings

Tables 3 and 4 (see in the Appendix) show the behaviors of the three leaders in the most effective meetings and in the least effective meetings in terms of effectiveness. In the most effective meetings, informing (43.7%), visioning; giving one's own opinion (8.6%) and task monitoring (7.3%) are the behaviors that score the highest for duration. For frequency it is similar: informing (23.4%), visioning; giving one's own opinion (8.7%), task monitoring (15.4%) are the most frequently showed behaviors.

8.1.3 Least Effective Meetings

In the three least effective meetings, the behaviors that are most displayed are informing (45.4%), visioning; giving one's own opinion (18.2%) and structuring the conversation (9%) (duration). The most frequently showed behaviors are informing (30.9%), visioning; giving one's own opinion (13.5%), and structuring the conversation (10.7%). Both frequency and duration display the same behaviors. The difference between the most effective meetings and least effective meetings of most displayed behaviors lies in the leader's behavior of structuring the conversation (frequency).

8.2 Test results

8.2.1 Reliability Test

The reliability analysis showed that the perceived meeting effectiveness of followers attained by the survey has a Cronbach alpha of 0.91. This means that the questions that were asked about meeting effectiveness to the followers (see measurements) are reliable. Another reliability analysis has been performed for the leader behavior measurements; this resulted in a Cronbach alpha of 0.86. This also means that the way the behaviors were measured is reliable. The last reliability analysis that has been performed was for meeting mechanics; meeting is valuable. This resulted in a Cronbach alpha of 0.77. This also means that the questions asked in the survey about this topic to the followers are reliable. With this knowledge the data can be seen as sufficiently reliable to continue testing. Since the data is not normal distributed a Mann-Whitney test is used for comparing the behaviors of the least and most effective meetings. These

results are shown in table 5 for duration and table 6 for frequency (see in the Appendix). It shows that there are significant differences in the distribution of behaviors between most effective meetings and the least effective meetings for duration in directing/correcting behavior and structuring the conversation behavior. In most effective meetings leaders display less correcting behavior, and also less structuring the conversation behavior. The leaders of most effective meetings show also less correcting behavior and less structuring the conversation behavior in frequency. For frequency there is a significant difference between the distribution of behaviors between most effective meetings and least effective meetings for directing/correcting behavior.

A bivariate correlation test is used in order to test the hypotheses mentioned earlier. The outcome of the two-tailed Spearman-test can be found in table 7 for duration and table 8 for frequency (see in the Appendix).

8.2.2 Directing Behavior

For the first hypothesis (Directing behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness) no significant support was established. Directing behavior has been measured by directing/correcting behavior and directing/delegating behavior. The duration and frequency of directing/correcting behavior is only for frequency negatively associated with meeting effectiveness (respectively, r=-0.38, n.s. and r= -0.49, p= 0.037). The duration and frequency of directing/delegating behavior is not significantly associated with meeting effectiveness (respectively, r=-0.11, n.s. and r=-0.06, n.s.).

8.2.3 Task Monitoring Behavior

The second hypothesis (Task monitoring behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness) is not supported by the evidence. The duration and frequency of task monitoring behavior is not significantly associated with meeting effectiveness (respectively, r= -0.01, n.s. and r=0.27, n.s.).

8.2.4 Structuring the Conversation Behavior

For the next hypothesis (H3: Structuring the conversation behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness) no significant support has been obtained. The duration and frequency of structuring the conversation behavior is not significantly associated with meeting effectiveness (respectively, r= -0.44 p=0.056 and r= -0.15, n.s.).

8.2.5 Informing Behavior

For the fourth hypothesis (Informing behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness.) no significant support has been found. The duration and frequency of informing behavior is not significantly associated with meeting effectiveness (respectively, r = 0.08, n.s. and r = -0.39, n.s).

8.2.6 Intellectual Stimulation

For the next hypothesis (Intellectual stimulation behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness) no significant evidence found. The duration and frequency of intellectual stimulation is not significantly associated with meeting effectiveness (respectively, r=-0.19, n.s. and r= 0.01, n.s).

8.2.7 Individualized Consideration

For the fifth hypothesis (Intellectual stimulation behavior of a leader during a meeting is positively related to meeting effectiveness) it is similar, there is no significant evidence found. The duration and frequency of individualized consideration is not significantly associated with meeting effectiveness (respectively, r=-0.08, n.s. and r= 0.11, n.s).

8.2.8 Starting and Ending on Time

For the hypothesis (H7: Starting a meeting on time is positively related to meeting effectiveness) no significant association has been found (r=0.36, n.s.)

8.2.9 Ending on Time

For this hypothesis (H8: Ending a meeting on time is positively related to meeting effectiveness) no significant association has been found (r=0.254, n.s.)

8.2.10 Valuable Meeting

For the last hypothesis (H9: If a meeting is valuable for the followers it has a positive relation with meeting effectiveness) a significant association has been found (r=0.77, p=0.001). This means that a meeting that is perceived by the followers as valuable, it is significantly related to meeting effectiveness, as perceived by the followers.

9. DISCUSSION

This research contributes to the extant leadership and meeting theory, by obtaining significant evidence for the negative relationship between the frequency of directing/correcting behaviors of a leader and the followers' perceived meeting effectiveness. Hence, the study shows that leader behavior might influence the perception of meeting effectiveness.

This directing/correcting type of behavior may be associated with negativity such as, interrupting and constraining events. For example, long monologues and redundant explanations by individual participants are found constraining by team members (Okhuysen & Eisenhardt, 2002). And side-conversations, which demonstrate disinterest in team interaction (Swaab, Philips, Diermeier, & Medvex, 2008) can be a negative influence on the meeting effectiveness. These events are negative events for the followers and corrective action has to be taken by a leader; the frequency of a leader's correcting behavior can indicate that these negative events occurred regularly, and as a result, decrease the perceived meeting effectiveness of followers.

A leader's duration of structuring the conversation has been found significantly affecting the relative effectiveness of meetings: In table 4 (see in the Appendix) it can be found that in the least effective meetings leaders show this behavior 9% of the time while in the most effective meetings leader only shows 4,9% of this behavior. This means that a leader who spends much valuable staff-meeting time on structuring the conversation does not benefit the perceived meeting effectiveness of followers. It does not benefit because if team members are engaged in proactive communication, the group mood is more positive (Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meyers, Kauffeld, Neininger, & Henschel, 2011). Positive group mood is associated with positive emotions, which in turn lead to higher effectiveness of the meeting participants (Fredrickson, 2003).

Therefore, pro-active engagement of followers leads to higher meeting effectiveness. Structuring the conversation done by the leader does not stimulate this proactive behavior of followers but constrains it by having the communication coming and structured from only the leader.

Furthermore, the correlation table showed almost a significant negative correlation of structuring the conversation and meeting effectiveness. The difference between the alpha 0.05 and the p-value 0.056 is so small that it is likely to be significant when there is a larger sample size. Therefore this research demonstrates that not all expected behaviors are positively related to meeting effectiveness instead of the original intention of showing positive related behaviors.

Furthermore, this study contributes by showing that if meetings are more valuable for followers their perceived meeting effectiveness increases. This demonstrates that a meeting has to be valuable for the followers in order to be found effective. A meeting might be valuable for the follower when the goals of the follower are met. These goals are for example, receiving more information, problem solving and integration and coordination of the work activities. Meetings are often held for followers to reach these goals (Allen etal., 2012; Rogelberg et al., 2006).

Also, if a meeting starts on time it is likely that the meeting is perceived more valuable by the followers. This may come due to the fact that punctuality is highly favorable in a meeting (Allen et al., 2012; Leach et al., 2009). No significant evidence has been found for starting and ending on time, this may come due to the fact that there was a small sample size. However, close to significant evidence has been found between a valuable meeting and starting on time (see Appendix, table 9).

The results of the Mann-Whitney test show that there is a difference between the distribution of highest and lowest scoring meetings for directing/correcting frequency. In table 3 (see in the Appendix) it can be found that for frequency, least effective meeting leaders display more directing/correcting behavior (10%) than the most effective meeting leaders (4.7%). And for individualized consideration least effective meeting leaders show less of this behavior (1%) than most effective meeting leaders (4%). The Mann-Whitney test shows that these differences in distribution are significant. The correlation test showed a negative direction for directing/correcting in both duration and frequency and a positive direction for individualized consideration in frequency, although not significant. However, it can be stated that showing more directing/correcting behavior can lead to less meeting effectiveness since the lowest scoring leaders showed more of this behavior than the highest scoring leaders, whereby the Mann-Whitney test showed this as a significant difference. The same applies for individualized consideration/humor; this shows a positive correlation (although not significant) but the highest scoring leaders showed more of this behavior than the lowest scoring leaders. This means that leaders who show more individualized consideration/humor could lead to a higher meeting effectiveness. This could potentially mean that atmosphere of a meeting contributes to the meeting effectiveness. A more positive atmosphere consisting of more individualized consideration such as humor is likely to lead to higher meeting effectiveness due to the positive emotions that come along. Positive emotions tend to increase the likelihood that people will function well and feel good in the future (Fredrickson, 2003). Research findings suggest that positive emotions make employees and managers more effective in the moment and in the long term more successful (Fredrickson, 2003; Staw & Barsade, 1993). So, when positive emotions are displayed during a meeting, the followers and leaders become more effective. Therefore it might be assumed that the perceived meeting effectiveness increases. However, no significant support is found for this hypothesis. The correlation test was supposed to show that some of the behaviors are positively related to meeting effectiveness. However, they were not found, most likely due to the fact that it was a small sample (with $n = 14$); the moderate correlations may be misleading and not reach significance. A larger sample might change this outcome. The outcome of this small-sample set of correlations also showed that there might be some positive links between the behaviors and meeting effectiveness. The positive links might be between meeting effectiveness and individualized consideration/humor (duration) and individualized consideration/positive feedback (duration). Furthermore, these links may also be positively for task monitoring (frequency) and intellectual stimulation (frequency). The results showed also that the frequency of a leader's disagreeing in such meetings is negatively correlated to meeting effectiveness (r= -436 p = 0.059, 1-tailed). This was not hypothesized in advance of this research; however, it might impact meeting effectiveness due to the fact that frequent disagreeing behavior of a leader can lead to irritation or anger by followers which are negative emotions. Negative emotions do not, like positive emotions, make people more effective (Fredrickson, 2003). This can lead, as a result, that the followers might perceive the meeting therefore as less effective.

10. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

Although this research did not find significant evidence with which we were able to support all the hypotheses, the significant correlations do show some direction in the relationships between behaviors and meeting effectiveness; these correlations might be significant when a larger sample size is being used. This research therefore selects the behaviors that can be further studied. Such as task monitoring, structuring the conversation, informing, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration for frequency and individualized consideration for duration in the positive direction. For negative direction the behaviors of directing, structuring the conversation, informing, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration for duration could be further studied. And for frequency, directing, structuring the conversation and informing, can be further studied. For future research it might be also interesting to do a similar research in a global setting, i.e. with leaders from different nationalities and countries. This would be interesting because of the cultural differences or the similarities that might be present. Furthermore, it might also be interesting to investigate the range of follower behaviors instead of focusing only on leader behaviors, since followers represent a large part of participants in meetings. In addition, organizations empower their teams more. Tasks once performed by managers, for example directing and controlling the work, are now also performed by the empowered teams (Drucker, 1983; Manz and Sims 1987; Lawler 1992). This means that followers do not have one leader and take over the role of the leader together.

Therefore it is important to investigate also the behaviors of the followers.

The largest limitations of this research is the sample size; only 14 leaders where examined. A larger number might give different results. Also in this research not all behaviors of a leader are included into the relation to meeting effectiveness; others may also play a role. Examples of these behaviors are disagreeing, agreeing and giving positive feedback. The meeting purpose was also missing in the data, which could have an effect on meeting effectiveness. For example, if the meeting was held for work related or project related purpose and there was a lot of personal conversation, it might be seen by a follower as less effective due to the fact that the wrong subjects where addressed. With an average mean of 4,99 (see table 11 in the Appendix for all means) from the studied team meetings it might not be surprisingly that the hypotheses where not supported. These meetings score actually not as sufficient for meeting effectiveness when using the Dutch schooling system, whereby marks above 5.5 are seen as "sufficient" and preferred are marks above 7.5 since those are considered as "good" scores. For further research only meetings with a score higher than 7.5 might be studied to investigate these behaviors in relation to meeting effectiveness. In this way, the behaviors are studied from competent leaders which already have developed the right pattern behaviors.

11. CONCLUSION

In this study the behavior of leaders has been examined in relation to meeting effectiveness. If a meeting is perceived as valuable, the meeting is more effective. And starting on time influences positively the perceived value of a meeting in the eyes of the followers. Furthermore, the results show that the directing type of behavior of a leader has a negatively influence on meeting effectiveness. In addition, a leader's structuring the conversation type of behavior seems to make a significant difference in how a meeting is evaluated; at least, this correlation was almost significant. This means that not all leadership behaviors positively influence the meeting effectiveness. In order to find out what kind of positive leader and follower behavior is positively related to meeting effectiveness it is highly recommended to do more extensive research on meetings that are perceived as highly effective in which follower behaviors are included; after all, they represent the main purpose of such staff meetings.

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APPENDIX.

Table 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…"
	4	Disagreeing	Contradicting ideas, opposing team members	"That is not correct" "I do not agree with you"
Steering	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…"

Table 2.

Total distribution of the displayed leader behaviors in the video-taped and –coded meetings (n=14)

Displayed leader behaviors	Frequency	Duration
Showing disinterest	0,2%	0,0%
Defending one's own position	3,5%	3,8%
Providing negative feedback	1,4%	1,4%
Disagreeing	2,0%	0,5%
Agreeing	6,9%	1,9%
Directing/Correcting	5,2%	1,2%
Directing/Delegating	3,0%	2,7%
Verifying	9,5%	3,7%
Structuring the conversation	7,3%	9,9%
Informing	27,0%	41,9%
Visioning; one's own opinion	15,6%	17,3%
Visioning; long term	2,9%	5,4%
Intellectual stimulation	4,6%	3,6%
Positive attention	4,0%	1,9%
Humor	3,2%	1,5%
Positive feedback	1,8%	1,4%
Personal informing	1,1%	1,6%
Individualized consideration	0,9%	0,4%
Total	100,00%	100,00%

Table 3.

Displayed frequency of leader behaviors in the most and least effective type of meetings (N=6)

	Most Effective Meetings (*n*=3)	Least Effective Meetings (*n*=3)	Mann Withney
Displayed behaviors	**Frequency**	**Frequency**	**Sig.**
Showing disinterest	0,20%	0,20%	0,35
Defending one's own position	5,40%	2,80%	0,2
Providing negative feedback	2,10%	1,80%	0,35
Disagreeing	0,50%	1,60%	0,05*
Agreeing	6,90%	3,50%	0,35
Directing/Correcting	4,70%	10,00%	0,05*
Directing/Delegating	3,00%	3,80%	0,5
Task Monitoring	15,40%	9,30%	0,2
Structuring the conversation	7,10%	10,70%	0,2
Informing	23,40%	30,90%	0,35
Visioning; one's own opinion	8,70%	13,50%	0,2
Visioning; long term	3,00%	1,80%	0,5
Intellectual stimulation	3,30%	4,90%	0,35
Positive attention	4,80%	3,50%	0,35
Humor	4,00%	0,80%	0,2
Positive feedback	2,60%	1,00%	0,35
Personal informing	2,00%	0,00%	0,35
Individualized consideration	2,90%	0,10%	0,35
Total	100%	100%	

* P < .05 1- tailed

Table 4.

Displayed Leader Behaviors (in percentages for duration) In Most vs. Least Effective Meetings

	Most Effective Meetings (*n*=3)	**Least Effective Meetings (*n*=3)**	**Mann Withney**
Displayed behaviors	**Duration**	**Duration**	Sig.
Showing disinterest	0,00%	0,00%	0,35
Defending one's own position	5,70%	2,80%	0,2
Providing negative feedback	3,70%	1,20%	0,5
Disagreeing	0,20%	0,50%	0,05*
Agreeing	2,20%	0,70%	0,35
Directing/Correcting	1,00%	1,80%	0,05*
Directing/Delegating	2,50%	3,90%	0,5
Task monitoring	7,30%	4,80%	0,35
Structuring the conversation	4,80%	9,00%	0,05*
Informing	43,70%	45,40%	0,35
Visioning; one's own opinion	8,60%	18,20%	0,35
Visioning; long term	6,30%	4,20%	0,5
Intellectual stimulation	2,80%	4,50%	0,5
Positive attention	2,80%	1,70%	0,2
Humor	1,80%	0,50%	0,5
Positive feedback	3,20%	0,70%	0,35
Personal informing	2,40%	0,00%	0,35
Individualized consideration	0,90%	0,00%	0,2
Total	100%	100%	

* P < .05 1- tailed

Table 5.

Independent Mann-Whitney U Test Results between the Behaviors (Duration) of the Highest and Lowest Scoring Leaders on Meeting Effectiveness

Behavior	Sig.
1. Directing/Correcting	0,05*
2. Directing/Delegating	0,5
3. Task monitoring	0,35
4. Structuring the conversation	0,05*
5. Informing	0,35
6. Intellectual stimulation	0,5
7. Individualized consideration	0,2

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is 0,05.

* P < .05. 1-tailed.

Table 6.

Independent Mann-Whitney U Test Results between the Behaviors of the Highest and Lowest scoring Leaders (Frequencies) on Meeting Effectiveness

Behavior	Sig.
1. Directing/Correcting	0,05*
2. Directing/Delegating	0,5
3. Task monitoring	0,2
4. Structuring the conversation	0,2
5. Informing	0,35
6. Intellectual stimulation	0,35
7. Individualized consideration	0,35

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is 0,05.

* P < .05. 1-tailed.

Table 7.

Correlations (Duration) between Meeting Effectiveness and the Independent Variables of the Study (*n*=14*)*

Behavior	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.2- tailed
1. Directing/Correcting	-0,38	0,18
2. Directing/Delegating	-0,11	0,71
3. Task monitoring	-0,01	0,98
4. Structuring the conversation	-0,44	0,11
5. Informing	0,08	0,79
6. Intellectual stimulation	-0,19	0,51
7. Individualized consideration	-0,08	0,79

Table 8.

Correlations (Frequency) between Meeting Effectiveness and the Independent Variables of the Study (*n*=14)

Behavior	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.2- tailed
1. Directing/Correcting	-0,49	0,074*
2. Directing/Delegating	-0,06	0,83
3. Task monitoring	0,27	0,36
4. Structuring the conversation	-0,15	0,60
5. Informing	-0,39	0,17
6. Intellectual stimulation	0,01	0,97
7. Individualized consideration	0,11	0,71

*Significant if 1-tailed.

Table. 9

Meeting Mechanics and Meeting Effectiveness Correlations (*n*=14)

	Meeting Effectiveness		Meeting is Valuable	
Meeting Mechanics	**Correlation Coefficient**	**Sig.2-tailed**	**Correlation Coefficient**	**Sig. 2-tailed**
Meeting is Valuable	0,770**	0,001		
Meeting Starts on Time	0,36	0,207	0,43	0,125
Meeting Ending on Time	0,254	0,38	0,354	0,214

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 alpha level (2-tailed).

Table. 10

	Meeting Mechanics	Sig.
1	Valuable Meeting	0,05*
2	Start on Time	0,1
3	End on Time	0,35

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is 0,05.

* P < .05. 1-tailed.

Table 11.

Meeting effectiveness mean per team

Team Number	Mean
1	5,25
2	4,62
3	4,05
4	5,06
5	5,99
6	4,61
7	5,06
8	5,04
9	5,27
10	4,88
11	5,17
12	5,21
13	4,65
Total	64,86
Average	4,99