

Influence of leader and follower behavior on employee voice, team task responsibility, and team effectiveness

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This study investigates the effect of leader and follower behavior on employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness. This study distinguishes itself by including both leader and follower behavior as predictors of team effectiveness. In addition, employee voice and team task responsibility are tested as potential mediators of the relationship between task-oriented behaviors (informing, directing, verifying) and team effectiveness as well as the relationship between relation-oriented behaviors (positive feedback, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration) and team effectiveness. This cross-sectional exploratory study includes four methods: 1) inter-reliable coding of leader and follower behavior during staff meetings; 2) surveys of 57 leaders; 3) surveys of 643 followers; 4) survey of 56 lean coaches. Regression analyses showed that both leaders and followers display more task-oriented behaviors opposed to relation-oriented behaviors during staff meetings. Contrary to the hypotheses, none of the observed leader behaviors positively influences employee voice, team task responsibility or team effectiveness. However, all three task-oriented follower behaviors indirectly influence team effectiveness. The findings from this research illustrate that follower behaviors has more influence on team effectiveness compared to leader behavior. Practical implications, strengths and limitations of the research are discussed. Moreover, future research directions including the mediating role of culture and psychological safety are proposed as well.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Leadership has provided guidance and direction for teams through difficult times. Hence, the consensus view seems to be that leadership directly influences team effectiveness (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Piccolo et al., 2012). There is a growing body of literature that recognizes not only the importance of leaders, but also the influence of followers on team effectiveness (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013; Hollander, 1992). Several researchers have demonstrated a thin line between leader and follower behavior (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Howell & Mendez, 2008; Larsson & Lundholm, 2013). Leader and follower behavior are frequently considered as being very similar (Crossman & Crossman, 2011). In other words, followers and leaders display a similar behavioral repertoire. Consequently, this research assumes leaders and followers display similar behaviors.

There are several arguments to support the importance of leader and follower behavior. To begin with, leadership is associated with important organizational results such as team effectiveness and organizational performance (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Lin, 2009). Furthermore, leadership is considered to influence effective teamwork (Burke et al., 2006; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010; Van Dun & Wilderom, 2012; Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010). Specific leadership behavior can result in followers working effectively (Antonakis & House, 2014; Colbert & Witt, 2009). Favara Jr (2009) confirmed the relationship between follower behavior and job performance. Moreover, Crossman and Crossman (2011) state that besides leaders, followers are also able to influence team and organizational performance. Follower behavior can direct team members towards shared goals (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). In addition, follower behavior is also positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009; Lee & Jung, 2013).

The studies presented thus far provide evidence that leader and follower behavior are critical success factors in team effectiveness. Important antecedents of team effectiveness are employee voice (M. L. Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Perlow & Williams, 2003), and team task responsibility (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Yang & Choi, 2009). Employee voice is defined as the “discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, or opinions intended to improve organizational or unit functioning” (Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011, p. 183). Followers are likely to direct their voice to persons who are able to take appropriate actions aiming to improve or change (Morrison 2014). Hence, followers direct their voicing behavior to leaders because leaders usually have the authority and possibilities to introduce change (Takeuchi, Chen et al. 2012). Because leaders can communicate signals regarding the possible consequences (i.e. rewards and punishments) of expressing voice, both leadership style and leader behavior influence the amount of voice (Detert & Trevino, 2010). For example, when management shows little direction and

expression of own opinions, followers are less likely to express this behavior as well (i.e., mirroring). Interestingly, employee voice is also influenced by social dynamics of the organization and group-level voice beliefs (Morrison et al., 2011). Hence, because both leader and follower behavior can be seen as important determinants of employee voice, it is important to gain insight in the relation between specific leader and follower behavior and employee voice.

Team task responsibility has been referred to as goal directedness (Colbert & Witt, 2009; Williams et al., 2010). Bono and Judge (2004) use the term conscientiousness to describe hard working goal-oriented followers that have a strong sense of direction. Barrick et al. (2001) concluded that conscientiousness is the leading forecaster of job performance. However, when examining 85 self-managed teams and 84 traditional hierarchical teams, S. G. Cohen, Ledford, and Spreitzer (1996) found little evidence for the relationship between team task responsibility and team effectiveness. Despite the findings of S. G. Cohen et al. (1996), several researchers have found a relation between team task responsibility and team effectiveness (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998; Jeffrey A LePine, Hollenbeck, Ilgen, & Hedlund, 1997). Using a survey among 176 municipal government workers to assess the determinants of team performance, Yang and Choi (2009) concluded that both team responsibility and autonomy are expected to positively influence team performance. Moreover, effective workload sharing is especially present in self-managed teams in which followers encourage a sense of responsibility among team members (Erez, Lepine, & Elms, 2002). Hence, by allowing followers to be autonomous and enhancing team task responsibility, leaders can facilitate team performance.

Despite the growing interest in leader behavior (Chen et al., 2007; Colbert & Witt, 2009), the majority of leadership research focuses on a single leadership style which results in an inadequate evaluation of leadership (Piccolo et al., 2012). Notwithstanding the pervasiveness of literature including leadership influences on team effectiveness, Zaccaro, Rittman, and Marks (2002) claim that “we know surprisingly little about how leaders create and handle effective teams” (p. 452). Similarly, Unger-Aviram, Zwickael, and Restubog (2013) argue that the role of the team leader is to a large extent overlooked in contemporary team effectiveness literature. While it has been demonstrated that leaders and followers have a significant influence on teams and organizational effectiveness (Ahmed, Irshad, & Jamshaid, 2014; Barrick & Mount, 2005; Detert & Burris, 2007), the role of specific instances of leader and follower behavior has remained rather uninvestigated. Despite the prevalence of leader focused leadership theory, little attention has been paid to followers (Collinson, 2006). However, without followers, leaders cannot exist. While leaders contribute 20% to organizational success, Kelley (1992) argues that followers contribute 80% to organizational success and therefore it is important to gain insight in how followers influence team climate and team effectiveness.

There are several important areas where this study makes an original contribution. First, by using video-based

observations which is inter-reliably coded and linked to effectiveness data, this research distinguishes itself from the majority of leadership research in which quantitative survey measures are used (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Second, while leaders and followers are essential for employee voice (Conchie, Taylor, & Charlton, 2011; Detert & Burris, 2007), little is known about what particular leader and follower behavior enhances employee voice. According to Liu, Zhu, and Yang (2010), prevailing contemporary voice research is focused on identifying follower antecedents influencing voice behavior rather than the influence of both leader and follower behavior on employee voice. This indicates a need to understand the impact of certain leader and follower behavior on employee voice and subsequently team effectiveness. Third, although several studies have examined the influence of team task responsibility on team effectiveness (Barrick et al., 2001; Colbert & Witt, 2009; Yang & Choi, 2009), few studies have investigated the relation between leader and follower behavior and team task responsibility. Therefore, this paper analyses the relationship between particular leader/follower behavior and team task responsibility. Furthermore, this paper contributes to the existing practical leadership knowledge in three ways. First, insight in how team effectiveness can be explained with a fine-grained set of specific behaviors facilitates the development of more leadership development theories which are better utilizable in practice. Second, the results of this research can be used by HR professionals in performance appraisals, mobility, selection profiles and learning and developmental opportunities. The observations may have implications for the HR policy concerning the organization-wide employability of management and composition of teams. Third, effective leadership and team effectiveness is partly attributable to skills. Hence, learning and development opportunities, where leaders can practice these skills, can contribute to leadership.

In light of the above, it is important that we understand how specific leader and follower behaviors affect team effectiveness. Hence, this paper addresses the following research question (see figure 1):

“Which behavior can both facilitate employee voice and simultaneously enhance team task responsibility in order to enhance team effectiveness?”

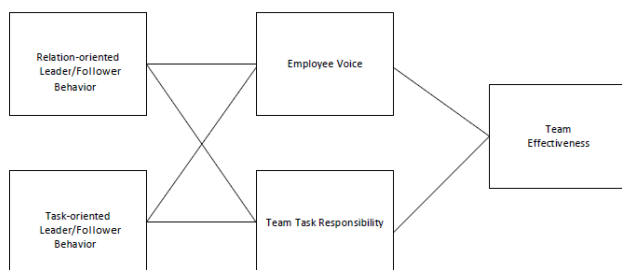


Figure 1. Visualization key variables used in this study

The paper is structured as follows. First, an overview of the voice literature as well as team task responsibility is given.

After that, specific leader and follower behaviors are discussed. Additionally, hypothesizes regarding specific leader/follower behavior and employee voice and task responsibility are formulated. Subsequently, the methodology used in this paper will be described. The result section is then followed by a discussion, linking the results of the statistical analysis to the aforementioned general theory and model. Furthermore, theoretical and practical implications will be suggested. Next, limitations of this research, as well as recommendations for future research will be given. Finally, a conclusion is made.

2. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1 Team effectiveness

The emergence of teams can be seen as an attempt to increase flexibility and responsiveness to environmental alterations (B.M. Bass, 1999; Salas, Cooke, & Rosen, 2008). According to Frazier and Bowler (2012) teams are complex and dynamic arrangements composed of multiple individuals sharing goals, designed to apply follower competencies and enhance work efficiency and consequently influence organizational adaptability. Teams are expected to provide several benefits such as enhanced creativity, productivity and adaptability (M Lance Frazier & Bowler, 2012; Salas et al., 2008). Next to the aforementioned benefits, teams are able to identify and solve complex problems by establishing comprehensive solutions (Salas et al., 2008). Both the rising complexity of organizational environments and growing task complexity contribute to an increasing number of organizations that become more team-based.

Zaccaro et al. (2002) define effective teams as “those that are able to maintain high levels of collective performance, even as team and environmental circumstances become decidedly adverse” (p. 457). Similarly, Chou, Lin, Chang, and Chuang (2013) defines team effectiveness as: “the degree to which the team meets expectations regarding the quality of the outcome” (p. 5). Team performance and team effectiveness are highly conceptually related and are often used interchangeable. However, team performance includes all the activities that are performed to execute a task, and team effectiveness can be defined as an appraisal of the results of team performance actions comparative to a collection of criteria (J. Hackman, 1987). J. R. Hackman (2002) emphasized five necessary factors to improve team effectiveness. First, team members should have a shared task, team boundaries should be explicit, authority should be clearly assigned and group membership should be stable. Second, the team requires a compelling direction. This involves a challenging and clear purpose. Third, the team should have clear task compositions, task designs and team norms that enable rather than hinder work. Fourth, the team’s social system should facilitate collective work by providing necessary resources and support. Fifth, the team leader should display coaching behavior.

2.2 Employee voice

Nowadays, due to organizational downsizing and increasing globalization and competition, followers are required to be more proactive and committed to their job (Crant, 2000; M

Lance Frazier & Bowler, 2012). Proactive behavior is a future-oriented action intended to change an external condition (e.g. improve processes) or to self-develop by for example asking for management feedback (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). An example of proactive follower behavior is voice, referred to as speaking up and contributing suggestions for change (Erez et al., 2002). Employee voice is also referred to as empowerment or engagement (Wilkinson & Fay, 2011). However, followers are often hesitant to speak up to their leader (Detert & Burris, 2007). A lack of employee voice may withhold an organization to access ideas and suggestion that nourish growth, improvement and learning. Detert and Burris (2007) go on to state that the display of voice stimulating behavior such as listening and responding to suggestions reduces resistance and encourages employee voice. Therefore, it is important for leaders and followers to express voice encouraging behavior. This can be done by creating a psychological safe environment and creating high quality leader-follower relations.

2.2.1 *Environment*

The amount of voice displayed within an organization depends on the voice safety beliefs, i.e. whether followers consider speaking up safe or risky (Morrison et al., 2011). Beliefs regarding safety of voice behavior are formed by previous experiences or organizational history such as a follower that was being punished for speaking up (Morrison et al., 2011). Moreover, safety beliefs are affected by followers' (dis)trust in management (Conchie et al., 2011). Because management and team members are able to communicate the consequences of voice, leader and followers are expected to influence the employee voice (Morrison et al., 2011). It can thus be assumed that the more leaders display voice stimulating behavior, the more followers will mirror this behavior. G. A. Yukl (1999a) argues that followers imitate leader behavior in an attempt to gain acceptance and approval of their leader. This mirroring effect explains why management has a large influence on employee voice and team effectiveness.

2.2.2 *Importance Employee Voice*

Voice is a proactive type of behavior, argued to determine job performance and organizational success (Crant, 2000). By expressing voice, followers take charge of situations, predict problems before they emerge and suggest improvements for work processes (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Williams et al., 2010). By voicing, suggestions and opinions can result in improved processes enabling organizations to stay competitive in turbulent environments (Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). This statement is in line with Erez et al., (2002) who argue that speaking up and suggesting improvements can enhance the competitive position of an organization in today's dynamic environment. Furthermore, voice can contribute to follower satisfaction (Erez et al., 2002), collective learning (Detert & Burris, 2007) and improved decision-making (Morrison et al., 2011). Together, these studies indicate that employee voice positively affects both team effectiveness and effective organizational functioning (Detert & Burris, 2007).

2.3 Team Task Responsibility

Team task responsibility is also referred to as accountability which is essential to ensure effective meetings (Rogelberg, Shanock, & Scott, 2012), and conscientiousness which refers to goal-oriented employees (Bono & Judge, 2004). Overall, individual employee task responsibility is the most suitable personality predictor of general job performance and can be defined as a characteristic that indicates motivation (Barrick et al., 2001). Team task responsibility is important to ensure that teams take charge and proactively propose to change circumstances (Williams et al., 2010). Self-managed teams are considered to have a high team task responsibility and can be defined as "interdependent groups of individuals who assume collective responsibility for the day to-day operations of the team" (Williams et al., 2010, p. 304). An example of a self-managed team is a lean team, i.e. autonomous teams empowered to take responsibility in decision-making, continuous improvement and establishing goals. A scrum team is another example of a self-managed team. Teams working with scrum have the authority and responsibility for many job features and the team is responsible for the end result (Moe & Dingsøyr, 2008). Overall, it is important for leaders and followers to encourage team task responsibility. This can be done by enhancing autonomy and ensure clear goal-setting.

2.3.1 *Goal-setting*

Self-managed teams require little control because of their autonomous characteristic, and independently decide on the way they want to achieve organizational goals established by management. Thus, the team is responsible for monitoring their performance and progress. To prevent distrustful managerial behavior, teams have to be transparent when reporting progress (Roper & Phillips, 2007). Furthermore, teams need to understand the motivation behind a goal. Leaders are responsible for communicating the organizational vision and its underlying rationale in order to ensure the team understands (Colbert & Witt, 2009). Followers can subsequently distribute this information among other team members. J. R. Hackman (2002) identified a compelling team direction as one of the factors necessary to improve team effectiveness. To achieve this team direction, Colbert and Witt (2009) explain that "when leaders clearly articulate organizational goals, followers are likely to develop high levels of person-organization goal congruence" (p. 790). Thus, goal clarification provides direction for teams which results in followers being able to direct their efforts towards organizational goals and show team task responsibility. High degrees of goal congruence facilitate followers to reach organizational goals and hence improve performance (Colbert & Witt, 2009). This statement is backed up by Supeli and Creed (2013), who explored the congruence between a follower's goals and organizational goals and concluded that goal congruence clarifies variability in organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to quit.

2.3.2 Importance Team Task Responsibility

Overall, several studies describe the importance of team task responsibility (Bono & Judge, 2004; Colbert & Witt, 2009; Erez et al., 2002; Morgeson et al., 2010). Conducting a survey among 176 municipal government workers, Yang and Choi (2009) investigate the determinants of team performance. They found that task responsibility is expected to influence team performance positively. The importance of team task responsibility is also emphasized in the Job Characteristic Theory (JCT), one of the most cited theories in organizational behavior literature concerning job satisfaction and it is still relevant today (DeVaro, Li, & Brookshire, 2007; J. R. Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Langton, Robbins, & Judge, 2010). According to Anand, Chhajed, and Delfin (2012), JCT is premised on the assumption that the autonomous job characteristic in daily work results in followers experiencing responsibility for achieving valuable organizational results. Autonomy and the task itself are essential to experience responsibility for work outcomes, which consequently result in work effectiveness because autonomous employees are free to decide how to do their work. Hence, by displaying behavior that stimulates team task responsibility, leaders and followers can enhance team effectiveness.

2.4 Leadership behavior

This paper makes a distinction between the two most used leadership behavior dichotomies: The Ohio State Model (Fleishman, 1953), and Transactional versus Transformational style (B. J. Avolio & Bass, 1995). The prevalence of these two dichotomies can be attributed to their insight providing feature and oversimplification of a complicated phenomenon (G. A. Yukl, 1999b). This paper assumes that the associated leader behavior of the dichotomies can also be displayed by followers. Several behaviors are included in this research: directing, verifying, informing, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration and providing positive feedback. Other observed behaviors are defending one's own position, showing disinterest, providing negative feedback, disagreeing, agreeing, visioning, structuring the conversation, interrupting, personal informing, and humor. Table A in the appendix reviews the explanation and examples of the above mentioned behaviour.

2.4.1 Transactional versus Transformational

More than 35 years ago, Burns (1978) introduced the distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. According to B.M. Bass (1999): "Whereas transformational leaders uplift the morale, motivation, and morals of their followers, transactional leaders cater to their followers' immediate self-interests" (p. 9). The concept of transformational leadership was further developed by B.M. Bass (1985), who proposed four elements of transformational leadership that are still relevant and used in contemporary research (Piccolo et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2010): inspirational behavior, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence behavior and individualized consideration. First, inspirational motivation behavior refers to leaders expressing an attractive and inspiring vision. Moreover,

leaders act as a role model in order to stimulate and encourage followers (B. M. Bass, 1995). Second, intellectual stimulation refers to challenging followers by asking their opinions or perceptions. These leaders stimulate followers to be creative and innovative. Third, idealized influence behavior refers to charismatic characteristic of leaders. Idealized influence includes attributes and behaviors. Idealized influence attributes refers to whether followers consider the leader to be charismatic and powerful, and the extent to which followers are proud to be associated with their leader (B.M. Bass, 1999). Idealized influence behavior refers to whether the leader specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose and talks about important values and beliefs (Antonakis et al., 2003). Fourth, individual consideration includes supporting and its core component: coaching (G. A. Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). Leaders displaying individual consideration show genuine interest for the development, needs and feelings of the followers (B. J. Avolio & Bass, 1995). Overall, transformational leadership encourages people to take responsibility for their actions, challenge themselves and discuss authority (B.M. Bass, 1999). Hence, transformational behaviors have follower achieve optimal performance and self-actualization. Burns (1978) considers transformational leadership as a reciprocal process implying a mutual responsibility of followers and leaders to transform each other. It can thus be argued that followers are able to engage in leader tasks and transformational leader behaviors (Hollander, 1992). Whereas transformational leaders help followers achieve performance via ideals and values, transactional leaders direct their followers towards goal achievement using rewards and punishments (B.M. Bass, 1985). Transactional leaders ensure follower responsibilities, goals and tasks are clear (G. A. Yukl, 1999b). Originally, B.M. Bass (1985) distinguished three transactional leadership dimensions: Contingent Reward (CR), Management-by-Exception-Active (MBE-Active) and Management-by-Exception-Passive (MBE-Passive). However, MBE-Passive appears to show great similarity to laissez-faire leadership (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 2000; Hartog, Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; J. G. Van Der Weide, 2007), which is applied by leaders who barely undertake action and fail to realize goals. This is different from MBE-Active in which "the leader monitors the follower's performance and takes corrective action if the follower fails to meet standards" (B.M. Bass, 1999, p. 11). Thus, timing determines the distinction between active and passive management-by-exception. Contingent reward (CR) refers to leader behavior aimed at the exchange of resources. According to Bono and Judge (2004): "leaders provide tangible or intangible support and resources to followers in exchange for their efforts and performance" (p. 902). The contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership has been confounded with transformational leadership (O'Shea, Foti, Hauenstein, & Bycio, 2009; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). Hence, CR could also be seen as transformational leadership instead of transactional leadership. Overall, Edwards, Schyns, Gill, and Higgs (2012) argue that CR and MBE-Active are the best determinants of transactional leadership style.

While transactional and transformational leadership are two much used models in the leadership literature, most studies only take the transformational part into account (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Ultimately, in order to understand the full spectrum, it is important to consider the full range of leadership theories and include both styles. Judge and Piccolo (2004) confirm that transformational leadership has a stronger relationship with leadership outcomes and group or organizational performance than transactional leadership. This statement is backed up by Özaralli (2003) who points out that the relationship between transactional leadership and outcomes such as effectiveness, quality improvement and performance is typically weaker compared to the relationships of transformational leadership and the aforementioned outcomes. Conversely, Burke et al. (2006) reported no significant relationship between transactional leadership and perceptions of team effectiveness. However, a positive relationship between transformational leadership and team effectiveness was found. Similarly, while Pearce and Sims Jr (2002) have shown a positive relation between transformational leadership and team effectiveness, support for the relationship between transactional leadership and team effectiveness was lacking. As shown above, there has been an inconclusive debate about whether transactional leadership is positively related to team effectiveness.

2.4.2 *Initiating structure and Consideration*

Several researchers have implied a conceptual overlap between the transactional-transformational leadership model and the Ohio State leadership model (Piccolo et al., 2012). The Ohio State leadership model implies that leaders demonstrate task-oriented (initiating structure) behavior and relation-oriented (consideration) behavior to stimulate the achievement of goals (Fleishman, 1953). Similarly, according to G. A. Yukl (1999b), the Ohio State leadership model focuses on the initiating structure-consideration dichotomy, implying a distinction between task-oriented behavior and relation-oriented behavior. Piccolo et al. (2012) define initiating structure as “the degree to which a leader defines and organizes his or her role and the roles of his or her followers” (p. 568). The initiating structure dimension demonstrates essential task-oriented behaviors such as informing, directing and structuring. According to Martin, Liao, and Campbell (2013), initiating structure is similar to directive leadership style in which leaders focus on monitoring performance and clearly specify what they expect of followers and how followers can accomplish objectives. This statement is backed up by Pearce et al. (2003), who argue that directive leader behaviors are placed within the domain of initiating structure behaviors. Examples of initiating structure are work scheduling and requesting compliance with certain standards and regulations. The consideration dimension refers to leaders that display interest in the well-being of followers (Fleishman, 1953). Consideration is characterized by G. A. Yukl (1999b) as relation-oriented. Examples of this type of behavior is treating every member of the team equally, developing relations and being approachable (Piccolo et al., 2012). Burke et al. (2006) demonstrated a positive relationship between initiating structure behavior and team

effectiveness ($r = .312, p < .001$), and also a positive relationship between consideration and team effectiveness ($r = .252, p < .005$). Nevertheless, Judge and Piccolo (2004) demonstrated a positive relation between the consideration dimension and follower’s job satisfaction, follower’s commitment and leader effectiveness. DeRue et al. (2011) showed that consideration positively influences follower’s satisfaction and initiating structure behavior positively influences group performance. Besides resulting in enhanced accountability, initiating structure involves a large amount of task direction and clarity and thus supports team performance (Dale & Fox, 2008).

2.4.3 *Empirical overlap between the leadership dichotomies*

According to G. A. Yukl et al. (2002), early leadership behavior literature has made a vast distinction between task-oriented and relation-oriented leadership behavior. Task-oriented leadership behavior applies to leaders who concentrate on executing tasks to ensure achievement of goals. Relation-oriented leadership behavior is characterized by a leader’s focus on satisfaction, mutual trust, cooperation and welfare of followers (G. A. Yukl, 2002). Thus far, existing research recognized the link between task-oriented behavior and transactional leadership style, and relation-oriented behavior and transformational leadership style (Burke et al., 2006; G. A. Yukl et al., 2002).

Both the transactional leadership style and initiating structure leadership style include essentially task-oriented leader behaviors (DeRue et al., 2011; G. A. Yukl, 1999b). Likewise, according to Burke et al. (2006), both initiating structure and transactional leadership can be labelled as task-oriented leadership. Moreover, Antonakis and House (2014) argue that leaders who initiate structure are task oriented and aim to design particular communication channels with followers (Antonakis & House, 2014). Both consideration and transformational leadership are classified as relation-oriented leadership (G. A. Yukl, 1999b). Because consideration is related to mutual trust and building relationships, it can be considered relation-oriented (Molero, Cuadrado, Navas, & Morales, 2007). Moreover, Dackert, Lööv, and Mårtensson (2004) argue that the considerate characteristic of transformational leadership corresponds with the relation-oriented leadership. Hence, transactional leadership and initiating structure can be considered task-oriented leadership, whereas transformational leadership and consideration can be considered relation-oriented leadership.

2.4.4 *Specific task-oriented leadership behaviors*

There are several task-oriented leader behaviors of which is expected they influence team effectiveness (Özaralli, 2003). This paper explores the effect of the following task-oriented leader and follower behaviors on team effectiveness: directing, informing, and verifying (G. A. Yukl, 1999b).

Direction. Giving direction is a form of initiating structure, task-oriented leader behavior in which the leader provides direction to followers (B.M. Bass, 1999; Burke et al., 2006). Directing also includes delegating, which is referred to as assigning responsibilities to followers (Borgatta, 1964).

B.M. Bass (1985) stresses the importance of delegation because it enables followers to get more responsibilities out of their work. When giving direction, leaders let followers know what is expected of them and why these expectations are essential to achieve organizational goals (Burke et al., 2006). Followers are also able to display directing behavior. Examples are explaining expectations to a (new) team member, indicating consequences of a particular vision for the organization, or delegating tasks among team members. Regularly communicating envisioned organizational goals and directions creates commitment which can result in increased empowerment and responsibility to contribute to the organizations aspirations (Detert & Burris, 2007). Likewise, Jacobs and Jaques (1986) argue that employee voice is influenced through strategic direction setting. Moreover, having a goal or purpose suffices as an opportunity for individual development and facilitates team responsibility (J. R. Hackman & Walton, 1986). Directing follower efforts towards achievement of organizational goals becomes challenging when leaders display a lack of direction (Hannah, Sumanth, Lester, & Cavarretta, 2014). As a result the relationship between team task responsibility and performance is weak (Colbert & Witt, 2009). Therefore, Colbert and Witt (2009) state that goal clarification and providing direction facilitate responsible followers. Furthermore, leaders displaying directing behavior make clear what actions and follower behavior will be rewarded. Drawing on the aforementioned approach of J. R. Hackman (2002) to improve team effectiveness, it can be assumed that the extent to which leaders and followers facilitates a compelling direction affects team task responsibility and team effectiveness. A compelling direction enables followers to concentrate on the accurate tasks and goals and it empowers and stimulates followers because the results are considered valuable and significant (J. R. Hackman, 2002). It can thus be argued that directing facilitates employee voice, team task responsibility and eventually results in team effectiveness.

H1a: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between leaders providing direction and team effectiveness.

H1b: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between leaders providing direction and team effectiveness.

H1c: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between followers providing direction and team effectiveness.

H1d: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between followers providing direction and team effectiveness.

Informing. Informing is an initiating structure, task-oriented leader behavior (Burke et al., 2006). Leaders who give factual information display the behavior informing (Borgatta, 1964). Similarly, informing can be defined as “the

leader's dissemination of company wide information such as mission and philosophy as well as other important information” (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000, p. 255). Dissemination of information among team members can also be done by followers as followers can gain information about the organization and its environment via external sources such as the internet (Cross & Parker, 2004). Followers are informing when they are “disseminating relevant information about decisions, plans, and activities to people who need the information to do their work” (G. Yukl & Lepsinger, 1990, p. 225). Followers may, for example, report about the progress of a project during a meeting or answer a question with objective information. Hence both leaders and followers can display informing behavior.

The existing literature on informing behavior points to two reasons why informing contributes to voice. First, informing results in awareness of organizational goals and practices which is linked to an increased understanding and commitment (Wilkinson & Fay, 2011). Second, informing contributes to followers' motivation to identify obstacles and inconsistencies and make suggestions to solve organizational problems (Gao, Janssen, & Shi, 2011). Furthermore, informing facilitates followers to develop an understanding of their functions and responsibilities and how they can support organizational goals (Arnold et al., 2000). Consequently, after informing behavior, followers feel more responsible for their work and are more committed to organizational progress (Gao et al., 2011). Informing is part of task-oriented transactional behavior and is according to Burke et al. (2006) positively related to team effectiveness. Moreover, ensuring that followers are well-informed about their work and responsibilities enhances task productivity (DeRue et al., 2011). Furthermore, informing is empowering behavior which has been positively associated with team effectiveness or performance (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). This statement is backed up by (J. R. Hackman, 2002), who proposed that a supporting social system includes the supply of necessary resources (e.g. money, knowledge, personnel) and enhances team effectiveness.

H2a: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying informing behavior and team effectiveness.

H2b: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying informing behavior and team effectiveness.

H2c: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying informing behavior and team effectiveness.

H2d: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying informing behavior and team effectiveness.

Verifying. Verifying behavior is part of the active management-by-exception element (i.e. monitor performance

and display corrective behavior when needed) of transactional, task-oriented leadership behavior (B.M. Bass, 1985; G. A. Yukl, 1999a). Verification is also known as task monitoring, displayed when leaders examine how followers carry out a task and plan their work (Bono & Judge, 2004). The purpose of verifying is to monitor operations and performance or to ask for clarification.

Verifying behavior can enable the efficient use of other behaviors such as planning which can improve follower performance (G. A. Yukl, 2010). Niehoff and Moorman (1993) demonstrated a positive relationship between monitoring behavior and follower's perceptions of fairness. Langfred (2004) provided evidence that "individual autonomy and monitoring will interact in such a way that teams with high individual autonomy and low monitoring will have lower performance than teams with high individual autonomy and high monitoring" (p. 388). Hence, it can thus be argued that when teams are autonomous, leaders should display much verifying behavior.

Despite the aforementioned positive effects of verifying behavior, several negative effects of verifying behavior have been demonstrated as well. Batool (2012) argues that verifying behavior negatively affects organizational citizenship behavior (i.e. "the level to which an individual's unpaid help and actions add to the company's achievement", p. 284). Likewise, verifying has a negative impact on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) which has been linked to organizational effectiveness (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Conscientiousness is an OCB dimension referring to a follower that is performing beyond the regular work requirements (Connell, Ferres, & Travaglione, 2003; Organ, 1989). It can thus be argued that verifying behavior negatively affects team task responsibility. B.M. Bass (1985) points out that verifying leader behavior can be perceived as controlling by followers. Followers usually dislike controlling behavior (J. Van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004). Additionally, followers can perceive monitoring behavior as a violation of trust which may result in a low-trust climate and can consequently discourage employee voice (Gao et al., 2011). Furthermore, Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers, and Stam (2010) argue that monitoring behavior negatively influences innovative follower behavior, possibly resulting in less suggestions and ideas aiming at organizational improvement. Hence, verifying behavior is likely to result in a low-trust climate and little innovative behavior which negatively influences employee voice. In view of all that has been mentioned so far, one can argue that verifying leader behavior negatively affects team effectiveness.

Besides leaders displaying verifying behavior, followers can display verifying behavior as well. An example of verifying follower behavior towards the leader is asking about the progress of a project or asking questions to learn more. An example of verifying follower behavior towards other followers is peer monitoring. Loughry and Tosi (2008) refer to the Agency theory when explaining that "peer monitoring should be associated with higher performance because it allows workers whose interests are aligned with those of the organization to encourage their peers to perform

well and deter inappropriate behavior by increasing the chances that it would be detected" (p. 876). Moreover, followers tend to show more effort when they work tasks can be evaluated by their team members (Price, Harrison, & Gavin, 2006). Peer monitoring is especially prevalent in self-managing teams because team members undertake several classical leadership tasks such as performance monitoring to take on responsibility (Loughry & Tosi, 2008). Because peer monitoring requires followers to assess the work of other team members, it can lead to different ways of executing team practices (Erez et al., 2002).

Assuming that some of these different viewpoints result in improvement ideas, it can be argued that monitoring done by followers encourages voice. Furthermore, accountability among team members increases when peer monitoring occurs (Erez et al., 2002). Hence, it can be assumed that team members want to be seen as a team player and therefore team task responsibility is stimulated by peer monitoring. In view of the aforementioned arguments, one can argue that verifying follower behavior positively affects team effectiveness.

H3a: Employee voice mediates the negative relationship between leaders displaying verifying behavior and team effectiveness.

H3b: Team task responsibility mediates the negative relationship between leaders displaying verifying behavior and team effectiveness.

H3c: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying verifying behavior and team effectiveness.

H3d: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying verifying behavior and team effectiveness.

2.4.5 *Specific relation-oriented leader behavior*

Contemporary literature on leader behavior abounds with examples of the relationship between transformational or relation-oriented leader behavior and team effectiveness (Burke et al., 2006; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Pearce & Sims Jr, 2002). This paper explores the effect of the following relation-oriented leadership behaviors on team effectiveness: intellectual stimulation, individual consideration and positive feedback. Bass (1985) distinguished transformational, relation-oriented leadership in the four aforementioned dimensions: inspirational behavior, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence behavior and individualized consideration.

Intellectual stimulation. Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, and Spangler (2004) have shown a positive influence of the transformational features intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration on results such as team commitment, a shared vision and an empowered team climate. Wu, Tsui, and Kinicki (2010) argue that "both individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation assume direct contact and close relationships between leaders and followers" (p. 9).

An indirect mechanism between intellectual stimulation and team effectiveness could be the amount of team task responsibility and employee voice. Intellectual stimulation fosters trust and increases psychological safety which is a prerequisite for employee voice. According to Huang, Kahai, and Jestice (2010), “a transformational leader also facilitates cooperative climate by creating an environment in which team members feel that it is safe to offer intellectual input with their unique perspectives” (p. 1101). It can be assumed that leaders displaying intellectual stimulation improve psychological safety. Hence, followers are stimulated to challenge existing assumptions, tackle problems or suggest improvements. Thus, leaders that challenge the status quo and make followers feel appreciated when they make suggestions can create norms that result in employee voice. Additionally, leaders showing intellectual stimulation strengthen followers’ responsibility for work tasks (Ghafoor, Qureshi, Khan, & Hijazi, 2011). J. R. Hackman (2002) argues that person-oriented behavior such as intellectual stimulation has a significant impact on the establishment of a compelling direction which contributes to team task responsibility.

Furthermore, according to G. A. Yukl (1999a), intellectual stimulation is an empowering transformational behavior which stimulates voice and responsibility among followers and results in effectiveness. Wageman (2001) also argues that leader behavior aimed at coaching, developing, and mentoring improves team effectiveness. Therefore, a positive relation between intellectual stimulation and employee voice and team task responsibility can be expected.

More specifically, leaders displaying intellectual stimulating behavior are expected to positively influence team effectiveness. B.M. Bass (1999) argues that transactional and transformational practices can also be used by team members so that members of transformational teams are able to intellectually stimulate each other (e.g. suggestions of a team member how another team in the near future intends to take action). Challenging ideas of leaders is a good illustration of followers engaging in intellectual stimulation (Lapierre, Naidoo, & Bonaccio, 2012).

H4a: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying intellectual stimulation and team effectiveness.

H4b: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying intellectual stimulation and team effectiveness.

H4c: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying intellectual stimulation and team effectiveness.

H4d: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying intellectual stimulation and team effectiveness.

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration is the extent to which management listens to followers and considers their needs, as well as being a mentor or coach (Arnold et al., 2000; Piccolo et al., 2012). Paying attention to followers perceptions and viewpoints is also part of individualized consideration (Huang et al., 2010). Likewise, individual consideration stimulates a mature leader-follower relation (Wu et al., 2010), which is likely to result in enhanced proactive behavior and hence effective teamwork (Kark & Shamir, 2013). Similar to leaders displaying individualized consideration, followers can express this type of behavior as well by for example by giving someone a compliment or by showing personal interest in another team member or leader.

B.M. Bass and Riggio (2006) argue that leaders displaying individualized consideration stimulate two-way communication and hence listen effectively. The dyadic relationship between follower and leader including continuous communication implies that followers are able to engage in individualized consideration behavior as well. Detert and Burris (2007) go on to state the individualized consideration should be considered a voice determinant. In addition, B.M. Bass and Avolio (1993) mentioned that transformational leaders and followers encourage task responsibility enhancement. By developing and coaching, followers can be stimulated to take on more responsibility over time (Bruce J. Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Khatri, 2005). Those who display individualized consideration demonstrate understanding and support towards team members. Consequently, experiencing individual consideration enables concentration on tasks instead of irrelevant concerns, resulting in increased perceived responsibility (Tatoglu, Demirbag, & Erkutlu, 2008). Furthermore, individualized consideration includes coaching, an empowering behavior related to team effectiveness and team performance (Srivastava et al., 2006). J. R. Hackman (2002) argued that when individualized consideration is demonstrated in combination with charisma, it can contribute to team performance and team effectiveness. Thus, it can be assumed that individualized consideration positively influences employee voice and team task responsibility and hence, has a positive relationship with team effectiveness.

H5a: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying individualized consideration and team effectiveness.

H5b: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying individualized consideration and team effectiveness.

H5c: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying individualized consideration and team effectiveness.

H5d: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying individualized consideration and team effectiveness.

Positive feedback. Besides intellectually stimulating followers and displaying individualized consideration, transformational leaders also give followers positive feedback (B.M. Bass, 1985). Positive feedback can be considered either transactional or transformational due to the overlap of CR with transformational behavior (Wang et al., 2011). While transactional leadership behavior includes negative feedback and discipline, transformational leadership involves positive feedback. Providing team feedback empowers the team to assess their past and future performance and if necessary adapt their ways of working (Morgeson et al., 2010). Positive feedback is likely to positively influence outcomes such as empowerment (Burke et al., 2006), meeting effectiveness (Rogelberg et al., 2012), and job performance (Whiting et al., 2008). Additionally, the feeling of empowerment promotes employee voice because followers believe their suggestions might improve organizational processes. The perception regarding psychological safety is created based on history (Morrison et al., 2011). Hence, when there is a lack of positive feedback from the leader on proposed ideas and suggestions, it can be expected that followers are hesitant to share ideas or improvements. Motivation theories such as the expectancy theory and the reinforcement theory demonstrate that positive feedback is more effective than negative feedback regarding reaching a goal. By giving positive feedback, leaders can enhance both the goal's outcome expectancy and follower confidence on performance (Fishbach, Eyal, & Finkelstein, 2010). Hence, positive feedback improves a follower's self-efficacy, leading to responsibility (Karl, O'Leary-Kelly, & Martocchio, 1993). Furthermore, J. R. Hackman and Oldham (1975) investigate the influence of feedback on followers' perceived responsibility, which results in work motivation and work effectiveness. Similarly, Morgeson et al. (2010) consider feedback a prerequisite for the accomplishment of organizational goals, stating: "feedback from team leaders facilitates certain task and interpersonal processes that enable teams to function more effectively" (p. 19). The experienced

degree of meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results positively influences followers' personal work outcomes (Langton et al., 2010). Leaders providing feedback to followers not only empower them but also make them feel they can contribute to organizational success.

Not only leaders can give positive feedback to followers. Followers can also provide feedback to one another or to their leader. Erez et al. (2002) explain that feedback in the form of peer evaluation is positively associated with the degree of voice within the team, the level of cooperation, team performance and follower satisfaction. This statement is backed up by Dominick, Reilly, and Mcgourty (1997) who argue that peer feedback positively affects a follower's interpersonal effectiveness and effective team behavior. Extending the aforementioned point to the broader construct of behaviors, this paper predicts:

H6a: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying positive feedback and team effectiveness.

H6b: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between leaders displaying positive feedback and team effectiveness.

H6c: Employee voice mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying positive feedback and team effectiveness.

H6d: Team task responsibility mediates the positive relationship between followers displaying positive feedback and team effectiveness.

Table 1. Leader behavior in academic literature

Behavior	Leadership style	Definition	Academic literature
<i>Directing</i>	Task-oriented Initiating structure	Dividing tasks among followers (without enforcing them); Determining the direction for the staff	'dividing responsibility' (Borgatta, 1964), 'delegating' (B.M. Bass, 1985), 'articulation of ideological goals' (Pearce et al., 2003), 'provide compelling direction' (Burke et al., 2006), 'communicate goals and directions' (Detert & Burris, 2007), 'clarify roles and objectives' (G. A. Yukl, 2010)
<i>Informing</i>	Task-oriented Initiating structure Transactional	Giving factual information to followers.	'give factual information' (Bales, 1950; Borgatta, 1964), 'explain company decisions; explain company goals' (Arnold et al., 2000), 'dissemination of information' (Gao et al., 2011)
<i>Verifying</i>	Task-oriented Transactional	Checking on the current situation; Coming back on previously made agreements	'ask for information clarification' (Bales, 1950; Borgatta, 1964), 'monitor performance' (B.M. Bass, 1985), 'controlling' (G. A. Yukl, 1999a), 'management-by-exception active' (Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 2000), 'task monitoring' (Bono & Judge, 2004)

<i>Intellectual stimulation</i>	Relation-oriented Transformational	Positively stimulating the behavior of followers; Challenging professionally	‘ask for opinions’ (Bales, 1950; Borgatta, 1964), ‘intellectual stimulation’ (B.M. Bass, 1985), ‘consulting’ (G. A. Yukl, 1999b), ‘encouraging followers to challenge assumptions, take risks, and be innovative and creative’ (Huang et al., 2010), ‘challenge assumptions, take risks, solicit followers’ ideas’ (Piccolo et al., 2012)
<i>Individualized consideration</i>	Relation-oriented Transformational	Showing interest for the follower's feelings or situation; Showing empathy; Creating a friendly environment	‘individualized consideration’ (B.M. Bass, 1985; Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 2000), ‘recognizing, consulting, and developing’ (G. A. Yukl, 1999b), ‘charisma’ (J. R. Hackman, 2002), ‘coaching’ (G. A. Yukl et al., 2002), ‘two-way communication’ (B.M. Bass & Riggio, 2006), ‘coaching and mentoring; paying attention to follower’s needs for achievement and growth’ (Huang et al., 2010),
<i>Positive feedback</i>	Relation-oriented Transformational Contingent Reward	Assess and reward (the behavior of) followers, give compliments	‘raising other’s status’ (Bales, 1950), ‘contingent reward’ (B.M. Bass, 1985; Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 2000), ‘recognizing’ (G. A. Yukl, 1999b), ‘contingent reward’ (Burke et al., 2006)

3. METHODS

In this cross-sectional exploratory study design, four different data sources are used. First, reliable video-coded monitoring leader and follower behavior during meetings. Second, a survey measuring follower’s perceptions about employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness. Third, a survey measuring leader’s perception about employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness. Fourth, a survey measuring lean coaches’ perceptions of leadership behavior its contribution to employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness. By using this variety of methods and sources, bias is reduced in this study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

3.1 Methods: Study 1

In Study 1 includes the reliable video-coded monitoring of leader and follower behavior during meetings, as well as the surveys measuring both followers’ and leaders’ perception regarding employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness (Table E in Appendix). These perceptions were obtained using a behavioral rating scale.

3.1.1 Sampling

The leader sample included 58 teams with 57 leaders working at a large Dutch public service organization. These leaders operated at M1 or M2 management level within the organization and supervised a minimum of 4 and a maximum of 24 followers. The leader sample consisted of 39 (68.4%) male leaders and 18 (31.6%) female leaders. On average, the leaders were 49.8 year old (ranging from 27 to 61; s.d. = 7.4), with an average job tenure of 22.2 years (ranging from 6 months to 43 year; s.d. = 12.6). As soon as the meeting had finished, followers were asked to fill in a questionnaire concerning team effectiveness and follower’s perceived leader’s behavior (see appendix F). The follower sample included 643 followers working at the same large Dutch

public service organization. Out of the 643 followers, 625 (97.2%) followers filled in the demographic questions of questionnaire. The follower sample included 404 (64%) male followers and 227 (36%) female followers. On average, the followers were 48.7 year old (ranging from 19 to 65; s.d. = 10.3), with an average team tenure of 23.6 years (ranging from less than 1 year to 53; s.d. = 13.4).

3.1.2 Measures

Team effectiveness. Follower’s perception of team effectiveness was measured using a four-item scale developed by Gibson, Cooper, and Conger (2009). A sample item of team effectiveness is: “Our team is consistently a high performing team” ($\alpha = .77$). Response options ranged from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*) on a 7 point Likert scale. To examine the homogeneity among individual followers in the team, R_{wg} is evaluated (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The conventional threshold for R_{wg} is .70, implying that it is justified to aggregate the data to team level of analysis when R_{wg} surpasses the traditional cut point of .70 (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006). Moreover, to examine the extent of variance derivable to team membership and reliability across team members, the ICC1 and ICC2 are evaluated (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). According to Bliese (2000), when ICC1 is exceeding .05 and ICC2 is exceeding .70, data aggregation is justified. The ICC1 is .19 ($p < .05$) and the ICC2 is .95 ($p < .05$). This indicates that agreement among team effectiveness raters was high. The average R_{wg} is .89 (ranging .32 to .98) and Cronbach’s alpha is .88.

Employee voice. To measure employee voice, data from individual followers was collected and aggregated to the team level. Followers were asked to present their perceptions of the team’s beliefs rather than their individual beliefs of voice efficacy. Employee voice was measured using a six-item scale developed by Morrison et al. (2011) which is based on the six voice behaviors proposed by J. A. LePine and Van

Dyne (1998). A sample item is: "To what extent do team members believe they can effectively develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the team" ($\alpha = .72$). The follower's answers to the four factors were scored on a 7 point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). Overall, a Cronbach's alpha of .90 is acquired. The ICC1 of employee voice is .19 ($p < .05$) and the ICC2 is .98 ($p < .05$); the average R_{wg} is .94 (ranging .93 to .99).

Team task responsibility. Team task responsibility was measured using a 5-item scale developed by Erez et al. (2002). A sample item of team task responsibility is: "Took responsibilities for team work even though he or she could have avoided it" ($\alpha = .83$). The answers were given on a 7 point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). Team level coefficient alpha (using item means) is .92. The ICC1 of team task responsibility is .20 ($p < .05$) and the ICC2 is .98 ($p < .05$); the average R_{wg} is .90 (ranging .41 to .98). This implies a strong agreement among the followers within each team, and so the team task responsibility data is aggregated to the team level.

The 57 leaders participating in this study were video recorded during randomly selected meetings (Perkins, 2009). A behavioral coding scheme (discussed in the following section) is used to systematically code leader initiating structure behavior: directing, informing and structuring the conversation, as well as leader consideration behavior. The behaviors were coded as frequencies, that is how frequently the specific (directing, informing and structuring the conversation) behavior took place. Overall, directing leader behavior is coded 657 times; leader informing behavior is coded 3431 times; leader verifying behavior is coded 1666 times; leader individual consideration is coded 476 times; leader intellectual stimulation is coded 627 times; and a leader providing positive feedback is coded 297 times. Regarding follower behavior, follower directing behavior is coded 854 times; follower informing behavior is coded 5160 times; follower verifying behavior is coded 2300 times; follower individual consideration is coded 316 times; follower intellectual stimulation is coded 298 times; and a follower providing positive feedback is coded 170 times.

Control variables. Because other variable which are not within the scope of this paper can influence team effectiveness, control variables at two different levels are included in this research. At the leader level, one-item demographic variables regarding leader job tenure and leader age were included as control variables because previous research has shown their impact on team effectiveness (Joshi & Roh, 2009; Kang, Yang, & Rowley, 2006; Keller, 2001; Kirkman, Tesluk, & Rosen, 2004). At the follower level, one-item demographic variables concerning follower job tenure and follower age are included in the analysis as well. Job tenure and age are included as a control variable because it can be assumed that more experienced or older leaders and followers possess more knowledge and skills to encourage proactive behaviors such as voice, team task responsibility and hence team effectiveness (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

3.1.3 Data Collection

Video Observation Methods. During 58 randomly selected staff meetings in the ordinary course of business 57 leaders and 643 followers were videotaped. The videos were precisely coded and analyzed 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 observers were specially trained and selected 6 third-year students of International Business Administration and 6 master students of the University of Twente. Additionally, they learnt how to apply the 15-page behavioral coding scheme within the software (J. G. Van Der Weide, 2007). Their training helped to enhance the accuracy of the coding of different behaviors. Based on the pre-set 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; if significant differences or disagreements occurred, the observers reviewed, discussed and re-coded the affected fragment. In this study, the obtained average inter-reliability rate was 95.4%.

Each staff meeting was recorded by three small IP-video cameras installed beforehand in the meeting rooms in order to reduce the obtrusiveness. Reactivity assumptions were investigated by asking followers questions concerning the behavior of their leader, e.g. "To what extent do you believe the behavior of your leader during the filmed meeting was different compared with his/her behavior during non-filmed meetings?" and "To what extent was the filmed meeting representative of this type of meetings?". Followers could rate their response ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). The average score of this study was 5.2 (s.d. = 1.4), suggesting that the behaviors of leaders were representative. 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 observers sitting in the same room taking notes. Herewith aiming to minimize observer bias.

Behavioral Coding Scheme. A behavioral coding scheme (Appendix A) has been developed in order to capture specific leadership behaviors during the daily work practices (Gupta, Wilderom, & Hillegersberg, 2009; Hoozeboom & Wilderom, 2012; Nijhuis, Hulsman, Wilderom, & Van Den Berg, 2009; J. G. Van Der Weide, 2007). After each behavior, a short description about the behavior is given 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) who both observed in their early studies the interaction processes between the leaders and their followers. G. A. Yukl et al. (2002) as well as B.M. Bass (1985) contributed to this behavioral coding

scheme by means of their proposed dichotomies. The observation of the interaction processes is done without any use of tape-recording device. 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. The work of Bales (1950) and Borgatta (1964) provided a practical scheme for coding of a range of leadership behaviors (G. A. 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 aforementioned 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 (Bruce J Avolio, Howell, & Sosik, 1999; Bernard M Bass & Avolio, 1997; Pearce et al., 2003; G. A. Yukl et al., 2002). The behavioral taxonomy of G. A. Yukl et al. (2002) was used as well in the development of the behavioral coding scheme. It is more accurately to describe the behaviors of the leaders 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?"

3.2 METHODS: STUDY 2

Aiming to gain insight whether the opinion of lean coaches working at the Dutch tax authority complies with the results derived from the aforementioned hypotheses, a questionnaire was sent to 133 lean coaches. Lean coaches regularly observe teams and provide feedback to team leaders regarding the team climate if desired. Therefore, it is valuable to know whether these lean coaches value the same leadership behavior as proposed in this paper.

3.2.1 Sampling

The lean coaches' sample included 56 Lean coaches. Out of the distributed 133 questionnaires, 56 (42.1%) lean coaches completely filled in the questionnaire. The job tenure of lean coaches varies from less than 1 year (30.4%), to 1-2 year (19.6%), 2-3 year (17.9%), 3-4 year (17.9%), 4-5 year (5.4 %), and more than 5 years (8.9%).

3.2.2 Measures

During the development of the questionnaire (Appendix B), counterbalancing the question order was taken into consideration in to diminish common-method bias concerns (Conway & Lance, 2010). According to Allen and Rogelberg (2013), "By rearranging the order of the measures on survey one, we were able to better control for item-context-induced mood states, priming effects, and other biases related to question context or item location on the survey" (p. 551). Questionnaires were distributed via e-mail using an online tool (thesis tools). Participants were asked to indicate to what extent a particular behavior results in employee voice, team task responsibility and effectiveness. The relation between the

types of behavior expected to influence effectiveness was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale developed by Likert (1932) ranging from 1 (*disagree*) to 5 (*agree*). For each question lean coaches could also respond 3 (undecided/neutral). This neutral point decreases the change of response bias because respondents are not required to have an opinion if they do not have one (Randall & Fernandes, 1991). A definition and an example are given of each leadership behavior included in the survey to ensure that all respondents have equal perceptions of the variables. Moreover, a definition of the variables team effectiveness, employee voice and team task responsibility are given as well. A sample item is "Leaders who intellectually stimulate their followers positively influence employee voice" ($\alpha = .88$).

3.2.3 Data analysis

Use is made of Cronbach Alpha to determine the internal consistency reliability of a Likert-type scale (Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004; Santos, 1999). The data analysis is done using subscales instead of individual items as Cronbach's alpha is not an appropriate reliability measurement for single items (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The overall Cronbach's Alpha is .87, indicating a good internal consistency (Darren & Mallery, 2003). An overview of the lean coaches' responses can be found in part C of the appendix.

3.3 Analytical Procedures

To guarantee sufficient data reliability, usability and validity, data screening was conducted. Unengaged responses (i.e. respondents answered with equal values such as 3333 or 1234) are checked using MS Excel. A threshold of $SD > 0.5$ is used and respondents with a SD below 0.5 are excluded from further analyses because variance in the responses is lacking. Data screening of missing rows and unengaged responses resulted in the deletion of 119 cases, providing a final sample of 701 complete survey responses. Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows release 22.0 (IBM Corp, 2013). Several test of the normality of data were performed; non-linear relationships, deviations from normality, outliers and multicollinearity were not present in this dataset. Before testing the hypotheses, a principle component analysis was conducted on the 24 items with oblique rotation (promax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, $KMO = .91$, and all KMO values for individual items were $> .87$. According to Kaiser (1974), KMO needs to be at least 0.5 and Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) back this statement up by arguing that a KMO larger than 0.9 can be considered excellent. Moreover, for these data, Bartlett's test of sphericity is highly significant ($X^2_{(210)} = 9287.88, p < .000$). There is a very clean factor structure in which convergent and discriminant validity are apparent by the high loadings within factors (all above .56), and no cross loadings between factors. Four components had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 70.7% of the variance. Given the large sample size, the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser's criterion on four components, this is the number of components that were retained in the final analysis. Table C (appendix) shows the summary of the exploratory factor analysis results. The items that cluster on the same component suggest that component 1 represents voice, component 2 represents behavior,

component 3 represents team task responsibility and component 4 represent team effectiveness.

A confirmatory factor analysis is performed using Amos 22.0 (Arbuckle, 2013) to analyze the factor structure and the distinctiveness of the variables included in this study. Results show that the six employee voice, five team task responsibility, four team effectiveness factors and the six behaviors loaded on their respective factors. This 4-factor model has an acceptable fit ($\chi^2(180) = 484.36, p = .00, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = 0.05$). The p value indicates a poor fit, but because this study includes a large sample size it is nearly impossible to obtain a significant p value. In order to demonstrate a good model fit, Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, and King (2006) propose a CFI value above .95, though Hu and Bentler (1999) advocate a CFI of more than .96 in combination with a SRMR less than .09. Moreover, a RMSEA less than 0.06 in combination with a SRMS of 0.09 or lower indicates a good fit as well (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Based on the results, it can be assumed the model has an acceptable fit.

Mediators were analyzed by computing bias-corrected 95% CIs using bootstrapping with 5000 resamples via model 4 of the SPSS macro Process v2.13 (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; A.F. Hayes, 2013; Hoyt, Price, & Poatsy, 2013; Sharif & Scandura, 2014). It is argued that bootstrapping is the most acceptable and powerful procedure to acquire confidence limits for certain indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Behaviors are entered as the independent variable (X) and team effectiveness is entered as the outcome variable (Y). Employee voice and team task responsibility are tested as potential mediators (M) of the relationship between leader and follower behavior (informing, directing, verifying, positive feedback, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration) and team effectiveness. Both employee voice and team task responsibility will only function as a mediator for the relationship between leader behavior and team effectiveness if the effect of path a and b have the identical numerical sign (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). An example would be the positive significant influence of verifying behavior on employee voice (path a) in combination with a significant positive relation between employee voice and team effectiveness exist (path b). The process analysis is based on the causal steps regression approach of Baron and Kenny (1986). While the causal steps approach is well known and commonly used by many researchers, the approach has received a substantial amount of criticism over the years (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; Andrew F Hayes, 2009). First, the causal steps approach does not attempt to test the intervening or indirect effect (Andrew F Hayes, 2009). Second, the causal steps approach starts with testing the effect of X on Y (path c) which ends mediation testing if this effect is not significant. Therefore, Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, and Petty (2011) are opposed the necessity to demonstrate the significant effect of X on Y before testing for mediation. Similarly, Andrew F Hayes (2009) states that contemporary research does not depend on statistical significance criteria for singular paths in a mediation model to determine if M acts as a mediator. Third, the causal steps approach is questioned because it is among the lowest in power (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). Likewise, A.F. Hayes (2013) argues that “as a result of its reliance on so

many hypotheses tests, the causal steps approach is one of the least powerful approaches to testing mediation” (p. 168). To examine the aforementioned possible multicollinearity, Variance Inflation Factors and Tolerance is checked. VIFs greater than 10 with a tolerance level of .10 or even VIFs as low as 4 with tolerance level of .25 require additional examination and possibly correction (O’Brien, 2007). No multicollinearity was present in this study.

Table 4 presents the mediation analysis including the indirect effect of leader and follower behavior on team effectiveness through employee voice and team task responsibility.

4. RESULTS

Table 2 and table 3 demonstrate an overview of the frequency and duration of the coded task-oriented and relation-oriented behaviors that are included in this study. Additionally, other observed behaviors that are not subject in this study are shown as well. Interestingly, leaders display more task-oriented behavior (41.0%) opposed to relation-oriented behavior (12.2%) during staff meetings. Though followers also display more task-oriented behavior during staff meetings, only a quarter (25.6%) of their behavior is task oriented. Comparing relation-oriented behavior of leaders and followers, it appears followers (16.3%) display relation-oriented behavior more frequently than leaders (12.2%). Table 2 shows that leaders (24.8%) most frequently display informing behavior, followed by visioning behavior (18.5%) and verifying behavior (12.3%). Remarkably, informing is the most long lasting displayed behavior among leaders and followers. Followers display visioning behavior most frequently (13.7%), followed by directing behavior (10.5%) and informing behavior (8.4%).

Table 2. Frequency and duration of leaders’ observed behavior (n = 57)

Behavior	Leaders	
	Frequency	Duration
<i>Task-oriented behavior</i>		
Directing	3.9%	2.3%
Verifying/Monitoring	12.3%	5.5%
Informing	24.8%	43.2%
<i>Total</i>	<i>41.0%</i>	<i>51.0%</i>
<i>Relation-oriented behavior</i>		
Intellectual stimulation	5.0%	4.0%
Individual Consideration	5.2%	2.6%
Providing positive feedback	2.0%	1.1%
<i>Total</i>	<i>12.2%</i>	<i>7.7%</i>
<i>Other observed behaviors</i>		
Defending one’s own position	1.9%	1.7%
Showing disinterest	0.1%	0.1%
Providing negative feedback	0.7%	0.6%
Disagreeing	1.2%	0.4%
Agreeing	6.5%	2.1%
Visioning	18.5%	23.6%
Structuring the conversation	11.5%	10.0%
Interrupting	2.0%	0.4%
Informing personal	1.0%	0.8%
Humor	3.4%	1.7%
	<i>100%</i>	<i>100%</i>

Table 3. Frequency and duration of followers' observed behavior (n = 643)

Behavior	Followers	
	Frequency	Duration
<i>Task-oriented behavior</i>		
Directing	10.5%	1.1%
Verifying/Monitoring	6.7%	6.1%
Informing	8.4%	38.1%
Total	25.6%	45.3%
<i>Relation-oriented behavior</i>		
Intellectual stimulation	5.2%	1.4%
Individual Consideration	5.5%	1.6%
Providing positive feedback	5.6%	0.6%
Total	16.3%	3.6%
<i>Other observed behaviors</i>		
Defending one's own position	5.3%	2.4%
Showing disinterest	5.3%	1.9%
Providing negative feedback	5.5%	4.0%
Disagreeing	5.4%	1.2%
Agreeing	6.1%	3.3%
Visioning	13.7%	31.2%
Structuring the conversation	5.4%	1.9%
Interrupting	0.6%	1.1%
Informing personal	5.2%	1.1%
Humor	5.9%	3.3%
	100%	100%

4.1 Results: Study 1

In order to provide an initial view on the hypotheses, table D in the appendix presents all means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations of the variables included in this research. According to J. Cohen (1992), r between .20 and .50 refers to a small correlation, r between .50 and .80 indicates a medium or moderate correlation, and r larger than .80 indicates a strong correlation. The correlations show that voice and team task responsibility are statistically related to team effectiveness ($r = .53, p < .05$ and $r = .74, p < .05$). Furthermore, team task responsibility is positively related to voice ($r = .61, p < .05$).

Leader behavior. Directing leader behavior is negatively related to voice ($r = -.35, p < .05$) and team task responsibility ($r = -.30, p < .01$). Leaders displaying verifying, informing, positive feedback, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration are not significantly related to the three outcome variables.

Follower Behavior. Directing follower behavior is negatively related to employee voice ($r = -.27, p < .01$). Moreover, verifying follower behavior is found to be significantly positively related to employee voice and team task responsibility ($r = .43, p < .05$ and $r = .29, p < .01$). Follower individual consideration is positively related to team effectiveness as well as team task responsibility ($r = .30, p < .01$ and $r = .28, p < .01$).

Several related independent variables might imply multicollinearity which is further examined when hypotheses are tested. Both leader intellectual stimulation and leader individual consideration are significantly negatively related to informing leader behavior ($r = -.31, p < .01$ and $r = -.28, p < .01$). Directing follower behavior is positively related to leader directing behavior ($r = .35, p < .05$). Other significant positive relationships are found between follower informing behavior

and follower verifying behavior ($r = .48, p < .05$), as well as follower positive feedback and directing follower behavior ($r = .32, p < .01$). Follower individual consideration is positively related to both leader individual consideration and follower intellectual stimulation ($r = .37, p < .05$ and $r = .46, p < .05$).

Several control variables are also found to be correlated with other independent variables and control variables. Leader age is negatively related to team task responsibility ($r = -.33, p < .01$) and positively related to directing leader behavior ($r = .33, p < .01$) which might imply that older leaders display more directing behavior compared to younger leaders. Moreover, follower age is negatively related to follower positive feedback ($r = -.34, p < .05$), possibly implying that an increase in a follower's age results in a decrease of positive feedback. Follower job tenure is positively related to follower individual consideration ($r = .28, p < .01$), suggesting that the longer a follower works the more individual consideration he/she displayed. In addition, follower job tenure is positively related to leader job tenure and $r = .72, p < .05$ and follower age is positively related to leader age ($r = .58, p < .05$). This can be logically explained by the assumption that the older a person gets, his/her job tenure increases.

Directing. Hypothesis 1a posits the mediating role of employee voice on the relationship between directing leader behavior and team effectiveness. A significant negative relationship was found between directing leader behavior and employee voice, $F(1,56) = 12.30, p < .001$, with an R^2 of .18. While no direct relationship between directing leader behavior and team effectiveness was found, a significant negative indirect effect of directing leader behavior on team effectiveness through employee voice was found, $ab = -.30$, BCa CI [-.069, -.008]. Hypothesis 1a proposes employee voice mediates the positive relationship between leader directing behavior and team effectiveness. Although employee voice is a mediator for the relationship between leader directing behavior and team effectiveness, evidence is found for a negative relationship instead of the positive hypothesized relationship, therefore rejecting H1a. Hypothesis 1b proposed the mediating role of team task responsibility on the positive relationship between directing leader behavior and team effectiveness. A significant indirect effect of leader directing behavior on team effectiveness through team task responsibility was not found, rejecting H1b. Furthermore, follower directing behavior significantly influences employee voice, $F(1,56) = 19.05, p < .000$, with an R^2 of .25. No significant effect of directing follower behavior on team effectiveness was found. Hypothesis 1c, which stated that the relationship between follower directing behavior and team effectiveness is mediated by employee voice, is supported: $ab = -.038$, BCa CI [-.692, -.163]. However, hypothesis 1d, which stated that the relationship between follower directing behavior and team effectiveness is mediated by team task responsibility, is rejected due to lack of evidence.

Informing. No significant relationship between informing leader behavior and the mediators team task responsibility and employee voice was found. Moreover, no evidence was found to support a direct relationship or an indirect relationship between informing leader behavior and team effectiveness. Based on these results, no evidence for the

mediating role of employee voice and team task responsibility in the relationship between informing leader behavior and team effectiveness was found and therefore hypotheses 2a and 2b are rejected. No significant influence of follower informing behavior on team effectiveness was found. While evidence to support the relationship between follower informing behavior and team task responsibility is lacking, evidence is found to support the positive relationship between informing follower behavior and employee voice, $F(1,56) = 4.05, p < .05$, with an R^2 of .07. Additionally, Hypothesis 2c, which states that employee voice mediates the relationship between informing follower behavior and team effectiveness is confirmed $ab = .038$, BCa CI [.007, .090]. Hypothesis 2d, which states that team task responsibility mediated the relationship between informing follower behavior and team effectiveness is supported as well, $ab = .050$, BCa CI [.011, .129].

Verifying. The results showed no significant direct and indirect relation between verifying leader behavior and team effectiveness. Similarly, verifying leader behavior did not significantly influence employee voice. All CIs of the indirect effects of the verifying leader behavior on team effectiveness (mediated by employee voice and team task responsibility) include zero. Based on these results, no evidence for the mediating role of employee voice and team task responsibility in the relationship between verifying leader behavior and team effectiveness was found and therefore hypotheses 3a and 3b are rejected. While no significant direct effect of verifying follower behavior on team effectiveness was apparent, a significant positive effect of verifying follower behavior on employee voice was found, $F(1,56) = 9.03, p < .005$, with an R^2 of .14. Moreover, verifying follower behavior positively affects team task responsibility, $F(1,56) = 5.03, p < .05$, with an R^2 of .08. Furthermore, an indirect positive relationship was found indicating that employee voice mediated the relationship between verifying follower behavior and team effectiveness, $ab = .128$, BCa CI [.038, .286], thus confirming H3c. Hypothesis 3d, which posits the relationship between verifying follower behavior and team effectiveness is mediated by team task responsibility is confirmed as well, $ab = .134$, BCa CI [.048, .352].

Positive Feedback. No significant relation is found between leaders providing positive feedback and team effectiveness, employee voice and team task responsibility. Hypothesis 4a, which states that employee voice mediates the relationship between leaders providing positive feedback and team effectiveness, is rejected due to lack of evidence. Similarly, no evidence was found to support hypothesis 4b, which states that team task responsibility mediates the relationship between leaders providing positive feedback and

team effectiveness. Hypothesis 4c which states that employee voice mediates the relationship between followers providing positive feedback and team effectiveness is rejected as well because no significant indirect effect could be found. Hypothesis 4d posited that team task responsibility mediates the relationship between followers providing positive feedback and team effectiveness; the results do not support the hypothesis as no significant indirect effect was found.

Intellectual Stimulation. No significant effect of leaders who intellectually stimulate and team effectiveness, employee voice and team task responsibility was found. Hypothesis 5a, which states that employee voice mediates the relationship between leaders who intellectually stimulate and team effectiveness, can be abandoned because no indirect effect could be found. Likewise, no evidence was found to support hypothesis 5b, which states that team task responsibility mediates the relationship between leaders who intellectually stimulate and team effectiveness. Hypothesis 5c which states that employee voice mediates the relationship between followers who intellectually stimulate and team effectiveness is abandoned as well because no significant indirect effect could be found. Hypothesis 5d assumed that team task responsibility mediates the relationship between followers who intellectually stimulate and team effectiveness; the results do not support the hypothesis as outcomes were nonsignificant.

Individual Consideration. Hypothesis 6a, which states that employee voice mediates the relationship between leaders displaying individual consideration and team effectiveness, should be rejected due to nonsignificant outcomes. Hypotheses 6b, which posits that team task responsibility mediates the relationship between leaders displaying individual consideration and team effectiveness, is rejected as well due to lack of evidence. Additionally, no evidence was found to support the direct relation between leaders displaying individual consideration and employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness. No significant indirect effect could be found to support the mediating role of employee voice on the relationship between followers displaying individual consideration and team effectiveness, resulting in the rejection of hypothesis 6c. Moreover, hypothesis 6d, which states that the relationship between followers displaying individual consideration and team effectiveness is mediated by team task responsibility, is abandoned as well due to lack of evidence. Also, all direct effects of followers displaying individual consideration on employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness were nonsignificant.

Table 4. Mediation Analysis: Indirect Effect of Independent Variables on Team Effectiveness Through Employee Voice and Team Task Responsibility

	Products of Coefficients			Bootstrapping					
	β	se	Z	Percentile 95% CI		BC 95% CI		BCa 95% CI	
				Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
<i>Leader behavior</i>									
V → EV → TE	.009	.007	1.36	-.001	.022	-.002	.023	-.002	.023
V → TTR → TE	.011	.009	1.26	-.002	.025	-.001	.025	-.002	.024
I → EV → TE	.001	.005	.014	-.009	.009	-.011	.011	-.011	.010
I → TTR → TE	-.0003	.007	-.041	-.017	.009	-.014	.013	-.014	.013
D → EV → TE	-.038*	.014	-2.84	-.069	-.008	-.066	-.009	-.065	-.008
D → TTR → TE	-.025	.015	-1.62	-.060	.022	-.063	.022	-.058	.028
PF → EV → TE	-.008	.023	-.354	-.064	.026	-.049	.032	-.049	.032
PF → TTR → TE	-.048	.032	-1.54	-.107	.014	-.113	.007	-.116	.004
IS → EV → TE	-.019	.012	-1.59	-.044	.002	-.042	.001	-.042	.002
IS → TTR → TE	-.012	.016	-.76	-.045	.021	-.043	.022	-.044	.020
IC → EV → TE	.003	.009	.312	-.021	0.16	-.020	.019	-.019	0.19
IC → TTR → TE	.004	.013	.294	-.026	.021	-.027	.020	-.028	.020
<i>Follower behavior</i>									
V → EV → TE	.128*	.051	2.53	.038	.286	.040	.289	.030	.267
V → TTR → TE	.134*	.061	2.18	.048	.352	.052	.359	.036	.339
I → EV → TE	.038*	.021	1.86	.007	.090	.009	.093	.008	.092
I → TTR → TE	.050*	.027	1.83	.011	.129	.015	.133	.015	.133
D → EV → TE	-.420*	.118	-3.56	-.692	-.163	-.657	-.169	-.672	-.176
D → TTR → TE	-.119	.114	-1.04	-.382	.274	-.384	.254	-.358	.284
PF → EV → TE	.092	.396	.233	-1.291	.488	-1.04	.489	-.914	.554
PF → TTR → TE	.047	.546	.087	-.903	1.294	-.962	1.348	-1.157	1.237
IS → EV → TE	.038	.250	.153	-.607	.419	-.642	.404	-.659	.393
IS → TTR → TE	-.055	.344	-.161	-.715	.695	-.736	.743	-.725	.761
IC → EV → TE	.060	.077	.771	-.048	.232	-.050	.242	-.064	.213
IC → TTR → TE	.066	.107	.619	-.088	.525	-.089	.649	-.120	.511

Note. V = verifying; I = informing; D = directing; PF = positive feedback; IS = intellectual stimulation; IC = individual consideration; EV = employee voice; TTR = team task responsibility; TE = team effectiveness; CI = confidence interval; BC = bias corrected; BCa = bias corrected and accelerated; 5000 bootstrap samples.

* $p < .05$

4.2 Results: Study 2

While evidence was found to confirm the negative relation between directing leader behavior and voice and team task responsibility, 14.0% of the lean coaches argued that directing behavior does not contribute to voice and team task responsibility while 67.8% believe that leaders displaying directing behavior contribute to both voice and team task responsibility (see C in appendix). Moreover, while the above mentioned results do not support a relationship between leader informing behavior and employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness, lean coaches believe that informing behavior contributes to employee voice and team task responsibility (73.2%) as well as team effectiveness (82.2%). In addition, 80.3% of the lean coaches argue that verifying results in employee voice and team task

responsibility and 80.4% argues that directing leads to team effectiveness. This is in contrast to the results which indicate that verifying leader behavior has no influence on employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness. Similarly, lean coaches assume positive feedback leads to employee voice and team task responsibility (92.9%) as well as to team effectiveness (91.1%), also in contrast to the aforementioned results. Moreover, lean coaches argue that intellectual stimulation results in employee voice and team task responsibility (78.6%) and eventually leads to team effectiveness (91.1%), which is not supported in the results. Also, lean coaches indicated that individual consideration leads to voice and team task responsibility (82.1%) and team effectiveness (83.9%).

Table 5. Responses lean coaches

Behavior (IV)	Behavior → Voice and TTR			Behavior → Team Effectiveness		
	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree
Verifying	1.8%	17.9%	80.3%	5.4%	17.9%	76.8%
Informing	3.6%	23.2%	73.2%	1.8%	14.3%	55.4%
Directing	14.3%	17.9%	67.8%	8.9%	10.7%	80.4%
Positive Feedback	0%	7.1%	92.9%	0%	8.9%	91.1%
Intellectual Stimulation	1.8%	19.6%	78.6%	0%	8.9%	91.1%
Individual Consideration	1.8%	16.1%	82.1%	0%	16.1%	83.9%

5. DISCUSSION

In an effort to examine which leader and follower behavior can both facilitate employee voice and simultaneously enhance team task responsibility in order to enhance team effectiveness, a multi-method approach including four different data sources is conducted: reliable video-coded monitoring, follower survey, leader survey, and lean coaches survey. A total of 57 leaders were recorded in which leaders' and followers' verifying, informing, directing, positive feedback, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration behavior was inter-reliably coded.

Both employee voice and team task responsibility are found to be positively correlated with team effectiveness, confirming prevalent contemporary research (M. L. Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Yang & Choi, 2009). Besides employee voice and team task responsibility, solely follower individual consideration positively contributes to team effectiveness, confirming the research of Srivastava et al. (2006). Moreover, evidence was found that only follower verifying behavior positively influences employee voice, which contradicts Gao et al. (2011) who argue that verifying behavior discourages employee voice and B.M. Bass (1985) who states that verifying leader behavior can be considered controlling by followers. Follower verifying behavior is also positively related to team task responsibility. A possible explanation for the positive effect of verifying follower behavior instead of a negative effect can be the way in which verifying behavior is performed. In order to prevent team members' perceptions of feeling controlled, followers should verify brief and frequent instead of long. This way, follower verifying is perceived as encouraging rather than controlling. Besides verifying follower behavior, follower individual consideration positively affects team task responsibility as well, supporting research of Tatoglu et al. (2008). Though, both leaders and followers display more task-oriented behavior opposed to relation-oriented behavior during staff meetings, followers display more relation-oriented behavior and less task-oriented behavior compared to leaders. The findings show a correlation between two relation-oriented leader behavior (intellectual stimulation and individual consideration) and task-oriented leader behavior such as informing. Leaders who display more intellectual stimulation or more individual consideration consequently display less informing behavior. A possible explanation is that leaders who encourage followers to contribute suggestions and share perceptions as a part of

individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, ask followers to think for themselves instead of simply giving them the information (Huang et al., 2010). Rather than providing information, leaders initiate two-way communication (B.M. Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Other findings demonstrate that followers mirror leader behavior. When a leader displays more directing behavior, followers display more directing behavior as well. Likewise, when leaders display more individual consideration, followers also increase their display of individual consideration. Follower individual consideration is found to be positively influencing team task responsibility and team effectiveness. So when leaders display more individual consideration, this will positively affect follower individual consideration and subsequently result in enhanced team task responsibility and team effectiveness. Hence, leaders are able to influence team effectiveness using the mirroring effect (G. A. Yukl, 1999a).

None of the observed leader behaviors positively influence employee voice, team task responsibility or team effectiveness. Though interestingly, while leader directing behavior is found to be negatively affecting employee voice and team task responsibility, directing leader behavior does negatively impact team effectiveness through employee voice. Notably, all three task-oriented follower behaviors (directing, informing, verifying) have an indirect effect on team effectiveness, either through employee voice, team task responsibility or both. Because follower behavior has more influence on team effectiveness compared to leader behavior, the question can be raised whether team effectiveness can be determined by follower behavior exclusively. Though contemporary research has investigated the effect of leader characteristics and behavior on employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness, this paper has made a distinction between concrete leader behavior and follower behavior. It can be concluded that task-oriented follower behavior plays an important role in the establishment of employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness.

Practical implications. A large part of the public organization in which this research is conducted is actively working with the 5R analysis model or a variant thereof (van der Stoep, 2014). The 5R model builds on the 4R-model developed by Schnabel (2001), by adding the principle relationship to the already existing principles direction,

responsibility, results and professional space. While this research assumes that leaders (management level 1 or 2) influence followers, the 5R model makes a clear distinction between management and leadership. Leadership is related to management because management is responsible for motivating and influencing followers in order to achieve shared organizational goals (Zaleznik, 1977). The core of the 5R analysis is a mature relationship between leaders and followers in which managers provide direction and professional space, and the follower delivers results for which he/she is responsible. Though the 5R model believes leadership is possible throughout all layers of the organization, little is known about which follower behavior or actions are able to positively influence the 5 principles. Achieving team effectiveness has long been viewed as something especially leaders can influence. The results of this study suggest that followers are even more able to influence employee voice, team task responsibility and team effectiveness. A more in-depth assessment of follower behavior is therefore essential to enhance team effectiveness and improve leader development programs. Furthermore, insight in leader and follower behavior can be used by HR in follower and leader performance appraisals and selection profiles.

Strengths, limitations, and future research. The use of a video-observation method to examine leader and follower behavior can be considered an important strength of this study. Another strength which reduces common method bias is the use of a multi-method approach including follower surveys, leader surveys, and lean coaches surveys in addition to the aforementioned video-coding. Notwithstanding the strengths of this study, it is limited through several limitations. First, generalization of the findings can be considered a limitation of this research. The observed leaders and followers are employed in the same Dutch public organization. Consequently, generalization of the results among other industries is not appropriate. Likewise, because the study is conducted in a Dutch organization based on Dutch samples, generalization of results among other countries is not possible as well. Second, every team was observed once and staff meetings were recorded at only one point of time. Hence, it is complicated to determine causal relationships between the variables, in addition to reverse causality. Consequently, it is advisable to conduct a longitudinal time-lagged research in the future to determine whether the results found in this study are similar. Another future research direction related to the research design is to completely analyze the data using AMOS instead of using both AMOS and SPSS macro Process v2.13 which was done in this paper. Future research should concentrate on the mediating role of culture in the relationship between leader behavior and team effectiveness. Dutch leaders are individualists rather than collectivists. Individualists often value autonomy and favor individual goals over team goals. In contrast, collectivists are likely to experience shared responsibility on team tasks and favor team goals over individual gains. Therefore, additional research is necessary to examine the influence of collectivism and individualism on leader behavior in relation to employee

voice, team task responsibility and eventually team effectiveness. An additional future research direction is psychological safety. Psychological safety is “the belief that engaging in risky behaviors like voice will not lead to personal harm” (Detert & Burris, 2007, p. 871). Psychological safety is a possible determinant of the relationship between leader/follower behavior and employee voice because it can be assumed that followers are more likely to express voice when they perceive voice as safe and effective.

6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, research and theory continuously discuss the influence of leadership style on team effectiveness, rarely considering the influence of multiple leadership styles or follower behavior on team effectiveness. The consensus believe seems to be that leader behavior directly influences team effectiveness. However, the majority of researchers concentrate on a single leadership style which leads to an insufficient evaluation of leadership. This paper includes two types of the most prevalent leadership behavior dichotomies, the Ohio State Model and transactional versus transformational behavior. Transactional leadership and initiating structure can be considered task-oriented leadership, whereas transformational leadership and consideration can be considered relation-oriented leadership. Directing, informing and verifying are included as task-oriented leader and follower behaviors in this study. Positive feedback, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration are included as relation-oriented follower and leader behaviors in this study.

Furthermore, the previously examined positive influence of both employee voice and team task responsibility on team effectiveness is confirmed in this study. Additionally, the overall accepted view that leader behavior has an impact on team effectiveness is extended in this research by including follower behavior. This research distinguishes itself by presenting employee voice and team task responsibility as a mediator in the relationship between leader/follower behavior and team effectiveness.

To investigate the relationship between the aforementioned leader/follower behaviors and team effectiveness with employee voice and team task responsibility as mediators, a cross-sectional study with multiple data sources was conducted. The results have shown that none of the relation-oriented leader and follower behaviors are found to directly or indirectly influence team effectiveness. These findings are contrary to lean coaches' believes in which all leader behaviors positively affect team effectiveness. In contrast, all task-oriented follower behaviors (directing, informing, verifying) indirectly affect team effectiveness. However, follower directing behavior only influences team effectiveness through employee voice, rejecting team task responsibility as its mediator. Interestingly, directing is the only leader behavior that has an indirect effect on team effectiveness through employee voice. Despite the lack of evidence to support the relationship between leader behavior and team effectiveness (with directing leader behavior as the exception), leaders are able to

influence followers with their behavior, as explained by the aforementioned mirror effect.

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8. APPENDIX

A. Behavioral Coding Scheme

Behavior	Definition	Example
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
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
Providing negative feedback	Criticizing	"I do not like that..." "But we came to the agreement that..."
Disagreeing	Contradicting ideas, opposing team members	"That is not correct" "I do not agree with you"
Agreeing	Saying that someone is right, liking an idea	"That is a good idea" "You are right"
Directing	Telling others what (not) to do, dividing tasks	"I want that" "Kees, I want you to"
Verifying	Getting back to previously made agreements/visions/ norms	"We came to the agreement that..."
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"
Informing	Giving factual information	"The final result is ..."
Visioning	Giving the own opinion Giving long-term visions	"I think that..." "Within the next years, we want to..."
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...?"
Individualized consideration	Rewarding, complimenting, encouraging, being friendly, showing empathy	"Good idea, thank you" "You did a great job" "Welcome" "How are you?"
Humor	Making people laugh, saying something with a funny meaning	Laughing, making jokes
Positive feedback	Rewarding, complimenting	"Well done"
Personally informing	Giving non-factual, but private information	"Last weekend, my wife..."
Interrupting	Interrupting the conversation while someone is talking	"However..." "Wait, before you continue speaking. Regarding..."

B. Survey lean coaches

	< 1 year	1-2 year	2-3 year	3-4 year	4-5 year	> 5 year
Years of experience as lean coach	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
Leaders displaying verifying behavior contribute to team effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaders displaying informing behavior contribute to team effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaders displaying directing behavior contribute to team effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaders providing positive feedback contribute to team effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaders displaying intellectual stimulation contribute to team effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaders displaying individual consideration contribute to team effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5
Verifying behavior (by leaders) result in Employee Voice and Team Task Responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
Informing behavior (by leaders) result in Employee Voice and Team Task Responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
Directing behavior (by leaders) result in Employee Voice and Team Task Responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing positive feedback (by leaders) results in Employee Voice and Team Task Responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
Intellectual stimulation (by leaders) results in Employee Voice and Team Task Responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5
Individual consideration (by leaders) results in Employee Voice and Team Task Responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5

C. Summary of exploratory factor analysis results for the SPSS team effectiveness questionnaire (N = 701)

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor			
	Voice	Behavior	TTR	TeamEff
Speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures	,839			
This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect the team	,804			
Keep well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group	,793			
Get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group	,782			
This employee speaks up with ideas for new projects or changes in procedure	,772			
Communicate opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him / her	,677			
Informing		,866		
Verifying		,834		
Intellectual Stimulation		,760		
Individual Consideration		,728		
Positive Feedback		,728		
Directing		,700		
Did not purposely avoid working hard on the team's task			,923	
Did his of her fair share of the work on the team's task			,855	
Took responsibilities for team work even though he or she could have avoided it			,837	
Was faire in doing his or her fair share of the less pleasant team tasks			,817	
Adequately completed his or her responsibilities here in this team			,557	
Zorgt voor werk met een hoge kwaliteit				,901
Levert continue hoge prestaties				,832
Maakt weinig fouten				,761
Is effectief				,671

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

D. Means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations

Variables	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1 Team Effectiveness ¹	5,02	,54																			
2 Employee Voice ¹	5,41	,36	,53**																		
3 Team Task Responsibility ¹	4,79	,59	,74**	,61**																	
4 Leader Directing ²	3,91	3,52	-0,19	-,35**	-,30*																
5 Leader Verifying ²	12,31	6,11	-0,08	0,2	0,23	0,09															
6 Leader Informing ²	24,75	7,78	0,08	0,08	-0,01	0,01	-0,21														
7 Leader Positive Feedback ²	1,97	1,69	-0,12	0,03	-0,17	0,19	-0,09	-0,21													
8 Leader Intellectual Stimulation ²	4,98	3,39	-0,12	-0,19	-0,06	-0,25	0,08	-,31*	-0,24												
9 Leader Individual Consideration ²	5,17	4,11	0,03	0,07	0,07	-0,15	-0,13	-,28*	0,05	0,20											
10 Follower Directing ³	0,26	,47	0,18	-,27*	-0,02	,35**	-0,13	0,20	-0,03	-0,10	-0,01										
11 Follower Verifying ³	1,17	,87	0,19	,43**	,29*	-0,11	0,14	0,11	0,01	-0,07	-0,15	-0,11									
12 Follower Informing ³	2,61	1,96	0,22	0,21	0,20	0,03	-0,15	0,20	0	-0,20	-0,18	0,24	,48**								
13 Follower Positive Feedback ³	0,07	,10	0,19	0,01	0,06	-0,06	-0,20	0,14	0,08	-0,01	0,00	,32*	0,11	0,24							
14 Follower Intellectual Stimulation ³	0,11	,15	0,10	0,10	0,09	-0,00	0,09	-0,06	-0,15	0,02	0,21	0,13	-0,07	-0,08	0,03						
15 Follower Individual Consideration ³	0,30	,49	,30*	0,25	,27*	-0,06	-0,07	-0,01	-0,08	-0,17	,37**	0,12	0,01	0,04	0,18	,46**					
16 LeaderAge	49,75	7,30	-0,17	-0,22	-,32*	,33*	-0,17	-0,03	0,03	-0,19	-0,22	0,04	-0,01	-0,02	-0,22	-0,15	0,01				
17 Follower Age	22,22	12,38	0,00	-0,14	-0,06	0,14	-0,09	-0,01	-0,16	-0,12	0,07	0,10	-0,10	0,00	-,34**	-0,13	0,06	,58**			
18 Leader Job Tenure	48,51	4,84	0,10	0,06	0,16	0,04	-0,03	0,02	-0,01	-0,08	0,00	-0,14	-0,13	-0,02	-0,08	-0,07	0,07	0,11	0,18		
19 Follower Job Tenure	23,15	6,33	0,23	0,23	0,23	-0,07	-0,06	0,02	0,03	-0,18	0,15	-0,07	-0,13	-0,14	-0,05	0,04	,27*	0,05	0,22	,72**	

** p < .05, two tailed. * p < .01, two-tailed.

¹ Variable measured through surveys filled in by followers of the participating leaders and leaders themselves (n = 701)

² Variable measured through systematic and video-based coding of the leaders (n = 57)

³ Variable measured through systematic and video-based coding of the followers (n = 643)

E. Leader and follower survey

VRAGENLIJST

LEIDERSCHAPSONDERZOEK UNIVERSITEIT TWENTE

Kruis per stelling elke keer **één** antwoord aan (●): wij garanderen vertrouwelijkheid van uw antwoorden.

		Helemaal anders	Wel anders	Enigszins anders	Neutraal	Enigszins gelijk	Niet anders	Helemaal niet anders
1.	Hoe anders was de gefilmde vergadering in vergelijking met niet-gefilmde vergaderingen?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2.	Hoe anders dan normaal was uw gedrag tijdens de gefilmde vergadering?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3.	Hoe anders dan normaal was het gedrag van uw leidinggevende tijdens de gefilmde vergadering (ten opzichte van niet-gefilmde vergaderingen)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
		Geheel mee oneens	Oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Neutraal	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Geheel mee eens
4.	Tijdens deze gefilmde vergadering kwamen er gevoelige onderwerpen aan bod	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5.	Deze gefilmde vergadering was effectief	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6.	Ik voelde me betrokken tijdens deze gefilmde vergadering	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

De rest van de vragen gaan over uw ervaringen in het algemeen bij de Belastingdienst in uw huidige functie.

Persoonlijke gegevens

1	Geslacht	Omcirkel: M / V
2	Leeftijd jaar
3a	Hoeveel jaar bent u werkzaam binnen de Belastingdienst? jaar
3b	Hoeveel jaar bent u werkzaam binnen dit dienstonderdeel? jaar
3c	Hoeveel jaar bent u werkzaam binnen dit team? jaar
4	Wat is uw hoogst voltooide opleiding?	Omcirkel: LBO MBO HBO BSc MSc PhD
5	Op welk niveau bevindt zich uw vakinhoudelijke (Fiscale en/of Douane) kennis?	Omcirkel: LBO MBO HBO BSc MSc PhD

Teameffectiviteit

Mijn team...	Geheel mee oneens	Oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Neutraal	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Geheel mee eens
1. is effectief	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. maakt weinig fouten	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. levert continu hoge prestaties	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. zorgt voor werk met een hoge kwaliteit	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Verantwoordelijkheid

Mijn teamleden...		Geheel mee oneens	Oneens	Enigszins mee oneens	Neutraal	Enigszins mee eens	Mee eens	Geheel mee eens
1.	volbrengen adequaat hun taken en verantwoordelijkheden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2.	participeren allemaal evenredig in het volbrengen van de teamtaken	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3.	nemen hun verantwoordelijkheid voor teamtaken, zelfs als ze er onderuit zouden kunnen komen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4.	werken allemaal even hard aan de teamtaken	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5.	verdelen de minder leuke taken gelijk over het team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Werkomgeving

Geef aan in hoeverre er binnen uw team voldoende ruimte is om de volgende activiteiten effectief te kunnen doen:		Zeer zeker niet	Zeker niet	Waar- schijnlijk niet	Mis- schien	Waar- schijnlijk wel	Zeker wel	Zeer zeker wel
1.	Het bedenken en inbrengen van verbeterpunten over zaken die het team aangaan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2.	Het delen van teamaangelegenheden en het aanmoedigen van teamleden om betrokken te raken bij zaken die spelen binnen het team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3.	Het uiten van meningen over werk-gerelateerde kwesties: ook als andere teamleden een andere mening hebben	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4.	Het op de hoogte blijven van zaken waar je mening van belang kan zijn voor het team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5.	Het betrokken raken bij zaken die invloed hebben op de kwaliteit van de werkomgeving in het team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6.	Het komen met ideeën over nieuwe projecten of veranderingen in procedures	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>