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Leader-Team Complementarity: Exploring the Interactive Effects of Leader Personality Traits and Team Power Distance Values on Team Processes and Performance

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Abstract

Integrating the leader trait perspective with dominance complementarity theory, we propose team power distance as an important boundary condition for the indirect impact of leader extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness on team performance through a team's potency beliefs and through relational identification with the leader. Using time-lagged, three-source data from 71 teams, we found that leader extraversion had a positive indirect impact on team in-role and extra-role performance through relational identification, but only for high power distance teams; leader conscientiousness had a positive influence on team in-role performance through team potency, but only for high power distance teams; and leader agreeableness had a positive effect on team in-role and extra-role performance via relational identification and on team in-role performance via team potency, but only for low power distance teams. The findings address prior inconsistencies regarding the relationships between leader traits and team effectiveness, identify an important boundary condition and key team processes that bridge the links, and provide a deeper understanding of the role of leader traits in teams.

Keywords: leader traits; leadership; power distance values; team processes; team performance

Leader–Team Complementarity: Exploring the Interaction of Leader Traits and Team Power Distance Values on Team Processes and Performance

Work teams are commonly used to accomplish complex tasks in today's complex organizational environments (Hackman, 2002). In the past few decades, researchers and practitioners have considered leadership to be critical for team effectiveness (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008) and have tried to identify the leadership characteristics most essential for the best team outcomes. Past research has identified the Big Five personality traits of extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness as the most pertinent for overall leadership effectiveness; however, meta-analytic evidence also has shown leader traits to have a weak cumulative impact on team performance, with substantial unexplained variance ($R^2_{\text{unexplained}} = .86$, see DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Furthermore, prior research has discovered either null (DeRue et al., 2011) or negative (LePine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000; LePine, Hollenbeck, Ilgen, & Hedlund, 1997) effects of these traits on team outcomes, suggesting the potential for unexamined boundary conditions. Thus, extant leadership research provides limited insights to the questions of *when* and *how* leader traits enhance or harm team performance (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). In practice, organizations worldwide invest billions of dollars annually in leadership training programs (O'Leonard, 2014) with a heavy emphasis on the person side, largely ignoring the contextual factors that may drive the success and failures of the same leaders. Thus, exploring the contextual conditions under which a leader has positive values for team effectiveness is meaningful and critical for both research and practice.

Given the relational nature of leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006), a possible way to solve this puzzle is to consider whether a leader's traits are compatible with the needs of the team he or she

leads. Following this logic, we propose that whether leaders' extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness complement the teams' perceptions, expectations, and reactions regarding how leaders should behave, will determine their teams' overall performance and success. Dominance complementary theory is a useful theoretical lens (Carson, 1969) from which to explain the dependence of dyadic relationships on each party's position on the dominance continuum (Ansell, Kurtz, & Markey, 2008; Kiesler, 1983; Wiggins, 1979). Team members who believe they should submit to the leader's authority will respond best to dominant leaders who are highly extraverted, conscientious, and less agreeable, while teams that prefer having control will respond best to egalitarian or power-sharing leadership styles featuring high agreeableness, or low extraversion and conscientiousness. It is important to note that the work team as a whole, rather than individual members, is the second party in the dominance complementarity framework because relatively stable leader traits are displayed through consistent interactions with all team members (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1990) and are likely to drive the formation of shared leader-team relationships rather than differentiated relationships with individual members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Furthermore, the values and views underlying social norms and expectations between leaders and teams are most likely to determine a team's collective responses rather than the personality of a single member. We propose that a team's power distance values, or perceptions and acceptance of power and status differences, will determine the team's preferences for dominance or submission (Hofstede, 1980; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007).

We are not alone in applying dominance complementarity theory to explain the impact of leader traits on team performance. Grant, Gino, and Hofmann (2011) were the first to draw on this theory, illuminating the double-edged sword of extraversion where extraverted leaders of

passive teams formed complementary interpersonal relationships and achieved higher team performance, whereas extraverted leaders of proactive teams did not. We extend this pioneering research in three valuable ways. First, according to dominance complementarity theory, underlying values, motives, and expectations regarding dominance are relatively stable in interpersonal relationships (Carson, 1969) and are "an assumptive cornerstone of interpersonal theory" (Tracey, Ryan, & Jaschik-Herman, 2001, p. 789). Grant et al.'s (2011) work focused on team members' collective proactive behaviors as a response to leader extraversion, but this does not explicitly capture team members' underlying perceptions that influence their teamwork experiences and affective and behavioral team processes. Team power distance values, however, consider interpretations and expectations about proper leadership, and can present new, important insights to leader-team complementarity and its influence on team performance.

Second, dominance is an *agentic* fundamental motive to "influence, control, or gain mastery over the self, other people, and the environment" (Horowitz et al., 2006, p. 69). *Leader extraversion*, the propensity to be talkative and dominant in the social interactions, has both relational and agentic properties (Grant et al., 2011). Among the Big Five personality traits, also theoretically relevant to leaders' agentic motives, is *leader conscientiousness*, reflecting a desire to influence task outcomes (Strong et al., 1998), and *leader agreeableness*, reflecting the willingness to share power (Judge, Livingston, & Hurst, 2012). High leader conscientiousness and low leader agreeableness are considered as highly agentic whereas low leader conscientiousness and high leader agreeableness are low in agency. By considering all three Big Five agentic traits (leader extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness), we take a broader view of the important leader personality traits documented to affect team performance (DeRue et al., 2011) and introduce a more unified framework for understanding leader-team dynamics.

Third, much prior leader trait research explored leadership behaviors that link leader traits to leader and team outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011), while giving much less attention to the unique team mechanisms in relation to team performance outcomes. Dominance complementarity theory argues that interpersonal complementarity produces positive motivational and task-related, and relational and affect-based, outcomes (Horowitz et al. 2006; Tiedens & Jimenez, 2003). Beyond existing evidence of complementarity influences on either task coordination or social relationships (Tidens, Unzueta, & Young, 2007), we integrate both perspectives to show how leader–team complementarity can benefit team performance through two key team processes: a task driven / motivational process, *team potency* (team members' shared beliefs that the team can perform successfully; Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993), and an affect-laden process, *relational identification* (team members' feelings of psychological closeness with the team leader; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007).

We draw on dominance complementarity theory to develop a comprehensive framework that addresses three key leader traits related to dominance, their interactions with teams' underlying power and status values, and performance outcomes. We thus address prior inconsistencies regarding relationships between leader traits and team effectiveness, introduce an important boundary condition and two key team processes that bridge the links, and provide a rigorous test of a contingent process model of leader traits in teams. Figure 1 depicts the theoretical model.

Theory and Hypotheses

To explain the unique interplay of traits embedded in social interactions (in this case, between leader traits and team values), dominance complementarity theory argues that effective and continuing interpersonal relationships require complementary dominance and submission

values (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1996; Leary, 1957); that is, one party assumes a dominant and controlling role while the other party assumes a submissive, docile role, and both parties agree with such roles (Carson, 1969). The psychology literature has confirmed that dominance complementarity promotes satisfactory and productive relationships (Bluhm, Widiger, & Miele, 1990; Dryer & Horowitz, 1997; Estroff & Nowicki, 1992; Markey, Funder, & Ozer, 2003; Murray & Holmes, 1997; Thomas, Fletcher, & Lange, 1997; Tiedens et al., 2007; Tiedens & Jimenez, 2003; O'Connor & Dyce, 1997), whereas dominance incongruence causes power struggles and frustrations (Horowitz et al., 2006; Tracey et al., 2001).

Power and control motives centrally drive dominance behaviors in interpersonal relationships (Locke & Sadler, 2007; Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). Individuals who have power-related agentic motives desire to take control, master, be empowered, and influence others and the environment (Horowitz et al., 2006). From the leader's perspective, we believe that extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness are the most characteristically agentic among the Big Five personality traits. Typical agentic motives reflect extraverted characteristics of "influencing others" and conscientious characteristics of "displaying competence and knowledge" (Horowitz et al., 2006, p. 69). Specifically, extraverted leaders' desire to dominate socially and to be the focus of attention (Ashton, Lee, & Paunonen, 2002). Conscientious leaders accept responsibility for achievement and mastery, for themselves and others (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1990). Agreeableness, in contrast, is low in agency (Judge et al., 2012); it indicates sensitivity to others' needs, compliance with their demands, and avoidance of power and status (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009). The theoretical model omits openness to experience and neuroticism because those two remaining Big Five traits are not conceptually close to the agency motives inherent in dominance complementarity theory.

Some empirical evidence supports this theorizing. DeRue et al. (2011), in their meta-analytic review of leader trait studies (DeRue et al., 2011), found that conscientiousness accounted for the most (61.5%) of the total explained variance by leader traits in team performance, followed by agreeableness (22%). In terms of leadership effectiveness, these authors found that extraversion accounted for the most (35.1%) of the total explained variance, followed by conscientiousness (27%). Finally, they found that agreeableness explained a substantial amount (81%) of the total explained variance in satisfaction with leadership. In light of these findings, DeRue et al. (2011) concluded that "the traits of Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness are particularly important predictors of success in leadership positions" (p. 40). Similarly, a meta-analysis of traits and leadership found extraversion to be the strongest predictor of leadership effectiveness across various settings and evaluation criteria (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). In the teams literature, meta-analytic evidence (Bell, 2007) showed that agreeableness (ρ = .12), conscientiousness (ρ = .11), and extraversion (ρ = .09) were more strongly correlated with team performance than were the other two Big Five traits, openness (ρ = .04) and neuroticism (ρ = .05). Despite the theoretical relevance and empirical support for the importance of leader traits, they have limited combined predictive power: all five leader traits (in combination with intelligence) explain 14% of the total variance in team performance and findings are inconsistent regarding the impact of leader traits on team outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011). According to the complementarity principle, dominant leaders invite but do not guarantee submissive team responses (Horowitz et al., 2006). Thus, if we are to understand the effects of leader extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness in team contexts, we need to first examine whether the traits match the team's underlying power values.

Hofstede (1980) originally conceived of power distance as a societal-level cultural value, but subsequent research has suggested that individuals may differ in their perceptions regarding the legitimacy of unequal power. A team's power distance value captures its members' overall attitudes toward power, control, dominance, and compliance, and includes an aggregation of individual members' values at the team level (Cole, Carter, & Zhang, 2013; Drach-Zahavy, 2004; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001; Schaubroeck et al., 2007). That is, team power distance reflects the extent to which most team members consider the leader/team status differences to be legitimate and acceptable (Earley, 1999). Teams with greater power distance place higher value on leader agency, expect leaders to give specific directions, and show more deference to authority (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). In contrast, teams with lower power distance show fewer agentic desires, prefer leaders to share power, want to share in decisions, and expect to have more control over tasks (Loi, Lai, & Lam, 2012; Yang, Mossholder, & Peng, 2007). Team power distance does not describe dominant or obedient behaviors per se; instead, it captures underlying perceptions of how leaders should behave and how subordinates should react (Cole et al., 2013; Kirkman et al., 2009; Schaubroeck et al., 2007). The underlying expectations and values appear to fundamentally shape affective experiences and behavioral responses (Carson, 1969, 1982). Team power distance determines attitudes regarding whether leaders are behaving appropriately and whether the team will accept and conform to the leader's expectations. The power and hierarchy literatures suggest that power is not just attributed to higher-ranking individuals, but also to those whose perspectives and opinions are more heavily relied on (Anderson & Brown, 2010). For example, when leaders have lower extraversion and conscientiousness or higher agreeableness, they are more likely to share power and give more weight to the teams' perspectives and decisions. However, whether the teams positively respond

to empowerment depends on whether team members expect and prefer power sharing (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Similarly, when leaders highly value agency and dominance, the teams' cooperation depends on how they interpret and accept the leaders' power.

Leader Extraversion and Team Power Distance Values

Extraverted individuals tend to be sociable, assertive, active, and energetic (Goldberg, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1992). In team settings, highly extraverted leaders tend to dominate and control power; less-extraverted leaders tend to be more reserved, low-key, and be more likely to share power with team members (Grant et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002). We propose that when most team members value high power distance, they will expect their leaders to be highly extraverted and interpersonally dominant (Waston & Clark, 1997). Leader extraversion will be complementary when team members are submissive and receptive to leaders' directions and decisions (Bochner & Hesketh, 1994; Drach-Zahavy, 2004). In contrast, when members desire leader/team status equality and power sharing, they may respond to extraverted leaders with frustrating and performance damaging power struggles (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Horowitz et al., 2006).

According to dominance complementarity theory, the success of interpersonal complementarity is realized through both task completion and social integration (Tidens et al., 2007). Dominance complementarity has been positively associated with task-related outcomes (Bluhm et al., 1990; Estroff & Nowicki, 1992; Markey et al., 2003; Nowicki & Manheim, 1991; Tiedens et al., 2007) and affect-based outcomes (LaPrelle, Hoyle, Insko, & Bernthal, 1990; Murray & Holmes, 1997; Nowicki & Manheim, 1991; O'Connor & Dyce, 1997; Thomas et al., 1997; Tiedens & Jimenez, 2003). Team effectiveness theory (Hackman, 1987) also stipulates that both task accomplishment and affective team experiences determine long-term work team

effectiveness. Individual team members must interact in order to realize unique synergistic gains beyond the simple aggregation of individual input (Chen & Kanfer, 2006). Thus, to evaluate leader/team dominance complementarity, we need to understand unique task-oriented and interpersonal mechanisms affecting leader traits and team power distance values. Although extraversion and agreeableness are relational traits, and conscientiousness is a task trait, team success requires member affiliation and interaction. Consequently, extraverted, agreeable leaders may positively influence team social interactions and coordination (e.g., Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006; Bendersky & Shah, 2013). Conscientious leaders may influence team member social connections, task allocation, and psychological experiences (LePine et al., 1997). Integrating dominance complementarity theory with the teams literature, we introduce two key team processes through which leader-team dominance complementarity links to team performance: team potency as a more task-focused process, and relational identification as a more affect-oriented team process.

First, dominance complementarity theory argues that complementarity would increase parties' motivation for performing tasks together and their care for the task component of the relationship (Tiedens et al., 2007). Team potency, shared confidence in a team's capability to succeed across various task situations (Campion et al., 1993), may be a particularly relevant task process emanated from leader-team complementarity, due to its critical impact on team members' work motivation (Bandura, 1986) and the overall team performance (Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi, & Beaubien, 2002). We propose that a complementarity between high power distance teams and highly extraverted leaders may increase team potency beliefs because team members attribute legitimacy to their leaders' directions (Grant et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2009). High power distance teams willingly follow, expect, accept, and trust leaders' dominant behavior

(Cole et al., 2013). Dominant leaders may be seen as authoritarian (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farh, 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000), but high power distance followers may prefer them for distributing tasks and directing team processes (Leary, 1957; Locke & Sadler, 2007; Magee & Galinsky, 2008), even if the leaders are abusive (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012). Thus, under extraverted leaders, teams valuing high power distance will have high potency beliefs.

In contrast, low power distance teams favor egalitarian approaches (Hofstede, 1984), expect to be empowered (Eylon & Au, 1999), voice their opinions, and challenge decisions regardless of status differences (Schwartz, 1994). Recall that highly extraverted leaders want to be the center of social attention (Ashton et al., 2002), rarely tolerate subordinate disagreement, and may view other voices as threatening their power (Grant et al., 2011). Consequently, under extraverted leaders, low power distance teams may experience obstacles, conflict, doubts, and distrust, which lower team potency beliefs (Lester, Meglino, & Korsgaard, 2002) and damage team performance (Gully et al., 2002). Under less-extraverted leaders, teams with low power distance may achieve complementarity and enhanced potency beliefs through shared power and control, less attention to status and power, and open opportunities to express opinions (Grant et al., 2011). Thus, we posit that extraversion will negatively impact team potency beliefs in teams of low power distance.

In addition to its impact on task motivation within the team, dominance complementarity theory suggests that complementarity leads to interpersonal liking and psychological closeness between the two parties (Horowitz et al., 2006). We propose that relational identification with the team leader, which directly measures team members' psychological closeness with their leaders, is an important relational process determined by leader-team dominance

complementarity. Relational identification captures the extent to which team members define themselves in terms of their relationships with the leader (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), focuses on the role relationship, and depends on a comparison to a role standard (Brickson, 2000). Thus, team members are likely to identify with leaders who match their expectations regarding a leader's role. Specifically, we contend that the complementarity between more extraverted leaders and higher power distance teams or between less extraverted leaders and lower power distance teams will result in high relational identification with the leader. That is, highly extraverted leaders are more likely to match expectations of teams who value high power distance, respect ambition and power inequity, and expect leader dominance (Altemeyer, 2004; Hofstede, 2001; Judge et al., 2009). As a result, teams with greater power distance will gradually identify with extraverted leaders. On the other hand, less extraverted leaders are in a desirable situation in lower power distance teams, in which their characteristics complement the team's needs to seek control and share power on an equal footing with their leader. As such, less extraverted leaders and lower power distance teams are also likely to demonstrate complementarity in their relationships and may produce smooth and effective work experiences together. Consequently, team members may see a shortened psychological distance with their leaders and develop higher levels of relational identification with the leaders.

Together, leader-team dyads that have high leader extraversion paired with teams which value high power distance, or low leader extraversion paired with teams that value low power distance, will have dominance complementarity, potency beliefs, and relational bonding. We further contend that team potency and relational identification, in turn, act to promote team performance, manifested both in-role performance and extra-role performance (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior, OCB). When teams have high potency, members are

strongly confident that the team will successfully complete its tasks (Schaubroeck et al., 2007). They unite to work toward common goals despite obstacles and difficulties (Bandura, 1997). Indeed, meta-analytic evidence has confirmed that team potency is positively linked to team performance (Gully et al., 2002; Stajkovic, Lee, & Nyberg, 2009). Shared potency beliefs are likely to raise members' awareness of overall team effectiveness and concern for the team, as well as to encourage more engagement in extra-role behaviors (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Hu & Liden, 2011). Leaders are representatives of the team and the organization (Hogg, 2001). When team members strongly identify with their leader, they willingly adopt the leader's goals, work to meet the leader's expectations (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), feel psychologically close to the team, are committed to team goals (Sluss & Ashforth, 2008), and are motivated to complete tasks (Gundlach, Zivnuska, & Stoner, 2006; Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005). Simultaneously, they will care more deeply about quality outputs and be willing to expend extra effort to help their leader and their fellow team members (Janssen & Huang, 2008; Van Der Vegt, Van De Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

In sum, we propose that leader extraversion complements high power distance teams, positively impacts team potency beliefs and relational identification, and thus promotes in-role and extra-role performance. In contrast, leader extraversion conflicts with low power distance teams and thus undermines team potency beliefs, relational identification, and team performance. To explicate this logical structure, we describe a moderated mediation model where the moderating effect of team power distance occurs at the first stage of the mediated effect of leader extraversion on team performance through team processes (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). That is, team power distance alters the relationships between leader extraversion and team potency and relational identification, such that the relationships are only positive when team power distance is

high but are negative when team power distance is low. Team potency and relational identification further relate to team performance outcomes.

> *Hypothesis 1*: Team power distance value moderates the indirect relationship between leader extraversion and team performance through (a) team potency and (b) relational identification with the team leader, such that the indirect relationship is positive when team power distance value is high and the indirect relationship is negative when team power distance value is low.

Leader Conscientiousness and Team Power Distance Values

Conscientiousness is another agentic trait germane to leader dominance. Highly conscientious leaders are purposeful, strong-willed, scrupulous, and have a strong desire to take charge of the environment while less conscientious leaders are less organized, disciplined, and less likely to assume responsibility for achieving team synergy (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Horowitz et al., 2006). Leader conscientiousness has been empirically shown to positively affect work teams (DeRue et al., 2011). However, sometimes high leader conscientiousness may relate to micro-managing and subsequently harm team performance (e.g., Carter et al., 2014; Le et al., 2011; Morgeson, 2005).

We propose that team power distance potentially moderates the effects of leader conscientiousness on team performance outcomes. The dominance complementarity perspective (Carson, 1969) indicates that high power distance teams, preferring dominant leaders (Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow, & Lawler, 2000), would be more compatible with highly conscientious leaders who tend to control team activities (Ng, Ng, & Chan, 2008). When working on team tasks, due to their strong commitment to plans (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1999), conscientious leaders tend to take charge of the team processes (Hogan &

Hogan, 2001), rules, and executive plans (Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Perry, Witt, Penney, & Atwater, 2010). Such a hands-on approach thus fits well with the high power distance preference for leadership direction. As a result, team members are more confident in their team's success, and are more likely to exert efforts together to achieve higher team performance. From the relational perspective, when guided by leaders who are willing and able to control activities at work, high power distance teams may feel that their underlying expectations of leaders are satisfied and as such are more likely to form favorable perceptions of the leaders, which generates a strong bond with their leaders and promotes high relational identification with the leaders (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005). Consequently, team members are more motivated to embrace leaders' goals and engage in activities that benefit their teams' in-role and extra-role performance (Ahearne et al., 2005; Schuh et al., 2012). In contrast, highly conscientious leaders tend to have strictly organized plans and inflexibility toward changes in work procedures and be reluctant to share their decision power with their teams (LePine et al., 2000), and thus will be incompatible with low power distance teams that desire ownership of their work and power sharing. Under low power distance teams, stress ensues when team members lack empowerment and the right to voice their ideas freely (Judge et al., 2009). This incompatibility may further reduce team members' confidence beliefs in their teamwork, and cause members to negatively evaluate their leaders and diminish relational identification. As a result, team performance is likely to suffer.

Thus, we predict that complementarity promotes team potency, relational identification, and subsequently team performance. Highly conscientious leaders, who desire to take charge of the team plans and processes (McCrae & Costa, 1990), conform to high power distance teams' preferences for leader power controlling and thus are beneficial for those teams' processes and

performance. Conversely, less conscientious leaders who are more flexible and more willing to share decision power with their teams may be a better fit with low power distance teams who expect to control their own work. Thus, power distance alters the impact of leader conscientiousness on team effectiveness: conscientious leaders are complementary for high power distance teams but anti-complementary for low power distance teams.

> *Hypothesis 2*: Team power distance value moderates the indirect relationship between leader conscientiousness and team performance through (a) team potency and (b) relational identification with the team leader, such that the indirect relationship is positive when team power distance value is high and the indirect relationship is negative when team power distance value is low.

Leader Agreeableness and Team Power Distance Values

While high levels of extraversion and conscientiousness indicate a leader's propensity to control and dominate, high agreeableness captures the opposite end of the control spectrum. Agreeable individuals are cooperative, trusting, forgiving, caring, and altruistic; in contrast, less agreeable individuals are manipulative, self-centered, suspicious, and aggressive (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1990). Highly agreeable leaders tend to share power with followers (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Neuman & Wright, 1999), involve followers in the decision making processes, and create a smooth and cooperative climate in the team (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996; Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, Johnson, 2009). Therefore, agreeable leaders may exert a positive influence on team performance (DeRue et al., 2011) where team success requires effective interpersonal coordination (Hackman, 2002). However, agreeable leaders may be less able to make tough decisions, a primary reason for management failures (Hogan et al.,

1994; Judge et al., 2009). The power hierarchy literature suggests that the sharing of power by leaders does not necessarily benefit collective performance (Anderson & Brown, 2010). Consequently, it is essential to explore the contextual factors that determine the effects of leader agreeableness. Team power distance may be one such boundary condition.

Those with lower power distance values favor egalitarian leadership (Sadri, Weber, & Gentry, 2011), in which leaders share information and consult with team members (Eylon & Au, 1999). Agreeable leaders are more likely to cooperate, care about others' feelings and contributions, and include members in decision making (Graziano et al., 1996). Dominance complementarity theory (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983; Leary, 1957) explains that agreeable leaders comply and compromise in negotiations (Judge et al., 2012), which is complementary with low power distance needs for empowerment and equality, but incongruent with high power distance expectations for dominant leadership. Thus agreeable leaders matched with low power distance teams will foster effective within-team communication and interactions (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005), increase team potency (Lester et al., 2002), and enhance team performance (Gully et al., 2002). Team members, perceiving that their leader meets their expectations, will experience belongingness and be more willing to take responsibility for leaders' successes and failures (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007), thereby forming relational identification (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007) and increasing performance efforts.

Conversely, high power distance teams assume that taking control and making decisions are leader responsibilities (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990; Mellahi, Budhwar, & Li, 2010). Team members may feel uncomfortable and even stressed when they are encouraged by agreeable leaders to voice and make decisions (Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999; Sadri et al., 2011). Consequently, they may lack confidence in their leaders or their teams, and may perform more

poorly. Furthermore, high team power distance is predicated upon an acceptance of power inequality and is built on the expectation that leaders should demonstrate strong power and make important, yet perhaps tough, decisions (Barsoux & Lawrence, 1990). Agreeable leaders may fail to meet these expectations by avoiding decisions and evaluations that may adversely affect others' feelings (Bernardin, Cooke, & Villanova, 2000; Judge & LePine, 2007; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). This failure may likely cause team members' disappointment and detachment in leaders, lower their feelings of identification with these leaders, and reduce their efforts to achieve higher team performance. In contrast, less agreeable leaders are unafraid of delivering negative feedback and making progressive and risky advances (Judge et al., 2009), which is a better match for high power distance teams desiring dominant leaders.

Altogether, more agreeable leaders who are cooperative and compliant are ideally suited for teams with lower power distance but may be a mismatch with teams with higher power distance. We propose that leader agreeableness promotes the performance of low power distance teams by enhancing their potency and strengthening relational identification with their leader, and reducing the performance of high power distance teams by discouraging potency and relational identification.

> *Hypothesis 3*: Team power distance value moderates the indirect relationships between leader agreeableness and team performance through (a) team potency and (b) relational identification with the team leader, such that the indirect relationship is positive when team power distance value is low and the indirect relationship is negative when team power distance value is high.

Method

Participants and Procedure

The sample for the current study was composed of technicians and engineers working in a large technology company in the mobile and wireless communication industry in China. In this manufacturing plant, technicians and engineers worked in different teams based on their expertise and experience. Before conducting the study, we first interviewed the company's human resource executive and talked to over ten managers and employees in the participating company, and came to know that team members are interdependent on each other as each team had a shared goal for which the role assignments of members were clearly defined, and members worked together to pursue team objectives under the guidance of a common leader (Hackman, 2002). For instance, a team's primary goal was to design a new SIM card and members in the team were assigned to work closely with each other on different roles: design the key structure components, develop and validate software tools, develop and validate the cryptographic operations of card designs, test the security of the new design, maintain quality control, and prepare documentation in patent research. We measured task interdependence (a four-item scale by Bishop & Scott, 2000, e.g., "Jobs performed by team members are related to one another," a= 74) in the sample and found that on average, the participating teams have high levels of task interdependence (M=3.93, SD =0.51, on a five-point Likert scale). Thus, work groups included in the current study satisfied the basic criteria of the definition of work teams. Furthermore, participating teams were all considered as traditional teams, with members of each team working in the same physical environment and interacting frequently in person on a daily basis. The data collection was approved by the Institutional Review Board (Protocol # 2011-0245) at University of Illinois at Chicago, which the first author was affiliated with during the data collection period.

At Time 1, surveys were distributed to 450 technicians and engineers (i.e., team members) representing 115 research and development teams, and to 115 leaders of the 115 participating teams. Team member surveys contained team power distance value measure, and demographic variables. Team leader surveys contained measures of extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, as well as measures of other personality variables including openness to experience and neuroticism, as control variables. From the original requests, 338 team members affiliated with 102 teams and 98 team leaders returned the surveys. Three months later, at Time 2, we distributed surveys to the team members who responded to the first survey with usable data, and to their upper-level managers. From these second requests, we received completed surveys from 301 team members affiliated with 80 teams. For team members, we asked them to provide ratings on team potency, relational identification with their team leader, and their demographic information. We asked 19 upper-level managers to rate the performance of the 102 teams we gathered data from at Time 1. The choice of upper-level managers instead of team leaders to rate team performance for the second survey was based on the consideration that team leaders may have potential rating biases due to social desirability (Cole et al., 2013; Hu & Liden, 2011). Each upper-level manager supervised three to eight teams. All of the 19 upper-level managers completed the surveys. We removed teams with no matching data across two time points and with less than a 60% team response rate (Timmerman, 2005). The final matched sample consisted of 268 team members representing 71 teams, 71 team leaders, and 19 upper-level managers, and yielded effective response rates of 60% for team members, 62% for team leaders, 100% for upper-level managers, and 62% for teams.

Among team members, 48% were female with an average age of 32.58 years; the average tenure with the organization and the team was 7.20 years and 4.53 years respectively. Most of

the team members (88.3%) had attained a college level education or above. Team size, excluding team leaders, ranged from two to eight members with a mean of four members. Among team leaders, the majority (87%) were men with an average age of 38.84 years. The average tenure within the organization, team, and leadership position was 13.34 years, 4.98 years, and 7.81 years, respectively. Almost all of the leaders (96%) had attained a college level education or above. Fifteen of the 19 upper-level managers were men.

Measures

Each measure had a response scale from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*, except where otherwise noted. Because the original surveys were written in English, we followed a translation – back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1986). The translated surveys were first sent to five human resource professionals who worked in teams at the participating company and small modifications were made based on their feedback.

Leader extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness. At Time 1, leaders provided ratings on their own extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness using John, Donahue, and Kentle's (1991) Big Five Inventory. Extraversion was measured with eight items (e.g., "I am someone who is talkative," a = .71), conscientiousness was assessed with nine items (e.g., "I am someone who does a thorough job," a = .72) and agreeableness was measured with nine items (e.g., "I am someone who is helpful and unselfish with others," a = .72).

Team power distance value. At Time 1, members offered their assessment of team power distance value using Lee, Pilutla, and Law's (2000) three-item measure. An example item included, "In order to have efficient work relationships, it is often necessary to bypass hierarchical lines" (reverse-coded; a = .70). Consistent with prior research (LePine, 2003; Schaubroeck et al., 2007), we consider power distance as a relatively stable personal value and

team power distance value as the aggregation of individual members' power distance values, which Chan (1998) referred to as an additive form of aggregation. Thus, individual members' ratings of team power distance value were aggregated to form a team-level power distance value.

Relational identification with the team leader. At Time 2, three months after Time 1, team members provided their ratings on relational identification with the team leader using three items from Becker, Billings, Eveleth, and Gilbert's (1996) five-item supervisory identification scale. Two of the items in the original scale were not included due to concerns of possible negative connotations in the Chinese translated version that may distort their original meanings. Moreover, wording was modified from "my supervisor" to "my team leader" to reflect the relevant referent shift (Chan, 1998). The three items used in the study are: "When someone criticizes my team leader, it feels like a personal insult," "When someone praises my team leader, it feels like a personal compliment," and "I feel a sense of "ownership" for my team leader" (a = .88). Because a team's relational identification reflects the shared perceptions of individual members' relational bonding with the team leader, we calculated the $r_{wg(j)}$ index to assess interrater agreement (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The mean $r_{wg(j)}$ value was .97, well above the conventional cut-off value of .70 (James et al., 1984). Interclass correlations (ICC1) and reliability of team means (ICC2) were used to test between-team variance and within-team agreement (Bliese, 2000). Based on one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) (F = 4.55, p <. 001), we obtained acceptable ICC values (ICC1=.47, ICC2=.78). Thus, the results provided support for aggregating the individual responses to the team level to represent each team's relational identification with its leader. To further validate the three-item scale, we collected supplementary data from 316 employees from various companies and industries and found that

the three included items were strongly, positively related to the other two excluded items (r =.84, p <.001).

Team potency. At Time 2, members also evaluated team potency using the three-item measure from Kirkman and Rosen (1999). An example item was "My team has confidence in itself" (a = .87). The $r_{wg(j)}$ value of .96 showed high interrater agreement among individual members, and the ICC values (ICC1 = .36, ICC2 = .69, F = 3.22, p < .001) further demonstrated sufficient between-team variance and within-team agreement, thus verifying the aggregation of the individual potency beliefs to the team level.

Team performance. At Time 2, upper-level managers were asked to rate the in-role and extra-role performance of each of their teams. Team in-role performance was rated by adapting Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell's (1993) four-item scale validated by Hu and Liden (2011). We modified the wording from "this subordinate" to "this team" to fit with the team context. An example item was "This team is superior (so far) to other teams that I've supervised" (a = .90). Team extra-role performance was measured by Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) seven-item helping measure, modified to reflect the team context. We changed the wording from "this particular coworker" to "In general, members of this team" to capture the overall general pattern of citizenship behaviors that members of a work team demonstrated. An example item was "In general, members of this team volunteer to do things for this work team" (a = .95).

Control variables. Given the positive association between agreeableness and other Big Five personality traits (Olson, 2005), we controlled for openness to experience and neuroticism to reduce potential spurious effects. At Time 1, leaders provided ratings on their own openness to experience with ten items from John and colleagues (1991) (e.g., "I am someone who is original, comes up with new ideas," a = .70) and neuroticism with three items from Judge, Erez, Bono,

and Thoresen (2003) (e.g., "Sometimes, I feel depressed," a = .63).[1] Several demographic variables were also considered as controls given their potential impact on the study relationships. For example, leader sex was controlled due to the potential stereotypes of male and female managers (Duehr & Bono, 2006). Team size was included in the analysis due to its potential influence on team performance (DeRue, Hollenbeck, Ilgen, Johnson, & Jundt, 2008). Dyadic tenure between the leader and the team also was controlled because the longer a leader worked with a team and became familiar with the members, the more likely that their leadership might become effective (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007).

Analyses

Because upper-level managers rated the in-role and extra-role performance of multiple teams (M=3.73), there may be dependence issues for the relationships with these variables (Bliese, 2002). We ran an ANOVA test and found that there was a significant mean difference in team task performance rated by different upper-level managers (F=1.83, $p < .05$) but no significant difference in the ratings of team OCB by different upper-level managers (F=1.45, $p > .05$). Accordingly, because Multilevel Structural Equation Modeling (MSEM) is able to capture the nested nature of multilevel data while simultaneously testing multiple mediation and moderation effects proposed in a theoretical model, we used MSEM via Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to test the overall model. In addition, as our primary relationships were all tested at the same level (team level) and we controlled the influence from the upper-level manager level only for rater effect, we centered all continuous predictors within cluster (i.e., upper-level managers) rather than centering at the grand mean (Enders & Tofighi, 2007). As Enders and Tofighi (2007) noted, in this case, cluster-mean centering is more appropriate because it is able to partial out cluster-level variance when testing the relationships at lower levels whereas grand-

mean centering is likely to confound the within- and between-cluster variation. Furthermore, the conditional indirect effects described in the hypotheses require calculation of non-normally distributed compound coefficients. Because bootstrapping is not available in multilevel MSEM in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2012), we followed the Monte Carlo method to provide additional assessment of the conditional indirect effects through 20,000 resamples in the program R (Selig & Preacher, 2008). This bootstrapping-based approach produced 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs) to accurately test the significance of the mediation effects at high and low levels of team power distance value.

Results

Hypotheses Testing

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among the study variables. Table 2 provides the summary of the MSEM results for testing all of the hypotheses simultaneously. Table 3 shows the indirect, direct, and total effects of leader traits on team performance through team potency and relational identification at high and low levels of team power distance values. In testing Hypothesis 1, as shown in Table 2, after controlling for leader sex, team size, dyadic tenure, and the other leadership traits, leader extraversion and team power distance values positively interacted with each other via relational identification with the team leader (B=4.12, $p < .05$), but not team potency (B=.70, *ns*). Relational identification with the team leader was in turn positively related to both team in-role performance (B=.21, $p < .05$) and team extra-role performance (B=.24, $p < .001$). These results provide support for Hypothesis 1b, but not Hypothesis 1a. Furthermore, as shown in Table 3, using the Monte Carlo approach via 20,000 iterations in R (Selig & Preacher, 2008), the indirect effect of leader extraversion on team in-role performance via relational identification with the leader was significantly positive

within teams with teams valuing high power distance (B=.67, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI =[.43, .96], excluding zero) but was insignificant within teams valuing low power distance (B=.06, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [-.35, .40], including zero). Similarly, the indirect effect on team extra-role performance was significantly positive under teams with high team power distance values (B=.76, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [.51, 1.04], excluding zero) but not significant under teams valuing low power distance (B=.03, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [-.34, .40], including zero). However, the indirect effects of leader extraversion on team in-role and extra-role performance via team potency were not significant regardless of the levels of team power distance values. We plotted the conditional indirect effects described in Hypothesis 1b in Figure 2: the indirect effect of leader extraversion on team in-role performance (Figure 2a) and team extra-role performance (Figure 2b) through relational identification with the leader was only positive for teams with high power distance values. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was not supported, but Hypothesis 1b was partially supported.

With respect to Hypothesis 2, results in Table 2 indicated that the interaction between leader conscientiousness and team power distance value was significantly positive for team potency (B=1.95, $p < .001$) but was not significant for relational identification with the team leader (B=.77, *ns*). Team potency was positively related to both in-role performance (B=.33, $p < .01$) and extra-role performance (B=.17, $p < .05$). The conditional indirect effect test further revealed that the indirect effect of leader conscientiousness on team in-role performance through team potency was significantly positive under teams with high team power distance values (B=.31, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [.01, .88], excluding zero), while was negative yet insignificant under teams with low team power distance values (B=-.17, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [-3.08, 3.04], including zero). Meanwhile, Table 3 show the indirect effects of leader

conscientiousness on team extra-role performance through team potency, and on both team in-role and extra-role performance through relational identification with the leader, were not significant regardless of the levels of team power distance values. Patterns of the moderated indirect effects were in line with the description in Hypothesis 2a (see Figure 3). Thus, Hypothesis 2a was partially supported, but Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Regarding Hypothesis 3, results (see Table 2) reveal that the interaction term between leader agreeableness and team power distance value was significantly negative for team potency (B = -1.90, $p < .01$) and for relational identification with the team leader (B = -3.36, $p < .05$). As reported above, team potency and relational identification were positively related to both in-role performance and extra-role performance. As depicted in Table 3, further evidence using the resampling technique indicated that the indirect effect of leader agreeableness on team in-role performance via team potency was significantly positive under teams with low team power distance values (B=.32, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI= [.04, 68], excluding zero) but negative yet insignificant under teams with high team power distance values (B=-.14, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI= [-2.15, 1.33], including zero). However, the indirect effects on team extra-role performance were not significant regardless of the levels of team power distance values. Furthermore, the indirect effects of leader agreeableness on team performance via relational identification with the leader were significantly positive at low levels of team power distance values (for team in-role performance as the outcome variable, B=.39, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [.08, .74], excluding zero; for team extra-role performance as the outcome, B=.43, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [.11, .78], excluding zero) and were negative yet insignificant at high levels of team power distance values (for team in-role performance as the outcome variable, B=-.14, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [-.37, .07], including zero; for team extra-

role performance as the outcome, B=-.15, bias-corrected bootstrap 95% CI = [-.40, .09], including zero). Figures 4, 5a, and 5b illustrate that the conditional indirect effects were consistent with our expectation. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a was partially supported and Hypothesis 3b also was partially supported.[2]

Taken together, the results for the effects of the three leader traits on team outcomes were: (1) leader extraversion had a positive relationship with team in-role and extra-role performance through relational identification with the team leader only when team power distance value was high; (2) leader conscientiousness was positively associated with team in-role performance through team potency only when team power distance value was high; and (3) leader agreeableness was positively related to team in-role performance through team potency only when team power distance value was low, and was positively related to both team in-role and extra-role performance through relational identification only when team power distance value was low.

Discussion

Using dominance complementarity theory (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983) as a basis to develop our own theoretical model, our study revealed how the effects of leader traits on teams depend on the values teams place on dominance and control. Specifically, teams will have more effective task and relational processes and perform better when leaders' extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness complement their power distance values. We next more specifically discuss how this theoretical model and the corresponding findings contribute theoretical insights and practical implications.

Theoretical Contributions

A key aim of the current study is to shed light on an important yet unresolved issue regarding the conditions under which leader traits affect team effectiveness. Extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness have been identified as essential to leader effectiveness, but the findings are contradictory and limited regarding the overall impact on team outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011). Dominance complementarity theory (Carson, 1969) provides a basis for studying the impact of complementarity between leaders' and teams' underlying dominance and control motives (Horowitz et al., 2006; Tracey et al., 2001). The theory explains that complementarity in the underlying traits and values of the parties is more fundamental and consistent than complementarity at the behavior interchange level as traits and values are relatively stable and can drive both affective and behavioral responses across different situations (Carson, 1969; Tracey et al., 2001). As such, we extend prior leadership and teams research (Grant et al., 2011) with a new perspective matching leader extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness with team power distance value. Our model predicted, and our results generally confirmed, that extraverted leaders who are interpersonally dominant, or conscientious leaders who control planning and focus on details, are more compatible with high power distance teams that expect leaders to be assertive, take control, and plan team actions. In contrast, agreeable leaders fit expectations and positively impact low power distance teams who expect their leaders to share power and consult with them when making decisions (Eylon & Au, 1999). Thus, we answer calls for more research on the conditional influences of leader traits on team outcomes (Judge et al., 2009; Sadri et al., 2011), and also advance our knowledge of conditions that allow control or sharing of power to work most effectively (Magee & Galinsky, 2008).

Contrary to expectations, we failed to find a significantly adverse effect of anti-complementarity on team performance (although some effects were in a negative direction). The

findings suggest that when leaders and teams have complementary traits and values – such as when high levels of leader extraversion and conscientiousness are coupled with high levels of team power distance values, or when high leader agreeableness matches with low team power distance values – they are more likely to perform better and have better relations. With anti-complementarity – such as high leader extraversion/conscientiousness in conjunction with low team power distance, or high leader agreeableness combined with high team power distance, however – teams may perform more poorly, but not significantly so. In such cases, other factors – such as capabilities, past experiences, task resources, and team autonomy – may offset most of the adverse effects of anti- complementarity. Thus if team members have ample resources, anti-complementarity may not significantly undermine productivity, though empirical confirmation is needed to substantiate this intuitively appealing supposition. The psychology literature has consistently indicated that dominance complementarity benefits relationship endurance and satisfaction (e.g., Dryer & Horowitz, 1997; Tracey et al., 2011), but the detrimental effects of anti-complementarity are largely unknown. Thus, we encourage future research to search for deeper understandings of dominance complementarity and anti-complementarity, especially in team settings.

Our next valuable addition to the literature is the exploration of *how* leader traits affect team outcomes. Extant literature showed a rather distant relationship between leader traits and the team's actual performance (DeRue et al., 2011) and there may be a black box that would illuminate this relationship (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Lord & Brown, 2004). Indeed, prior research on leader traits has neglected the fact that a defining characteristic of teamwork is the interconnectivity among individual members in team processes (Hackman, 1987) and the finding that unique team processes are of particular importance to team performance outcomes (Mathieu

et al., 2008). Our theoretical development – based on the dominance complementarity perspective – suggests that leader–team effectiveness is revealed in both tasks and relations (Tidens et al., 2007). We considered team potency to be related to the task process, and relational identification with the team leader to determine the relational process, and found both to be mediators. Specifically, for teams with high power distance values, leader conscientiousness enhances team potency, and subsequently team in-role performance; leader extraversion enhances relational identification and both team in-role and extra-role performance. For teams with low power distance values, leader agreeableness enhances team potency and team in-role performance, and increases relational bonding with teams and promotes team in-role and extra-role performance. By including team potency and relational identification, we add a more comprehensive view of how task and relational team processes relate to team performance.

Interestingly, we found that for high power distance teams, leader extraversion positively influenced team performance through relational identification with the team leader, but not through team potency. Leader conscientiousness positively influenced team performance through team potency, but not through relational identification. It seems that leader extraversion and conscientiousness demonstrate different forms of control, with extraverted leaders as more interpersonally dominant and thus contributing to relational team processes, and conscientious leaders as more dominant with respect to task-related issues, thus contributing to more effective task processes. Both forms of dominance complement the submissive nature of high power distance teams. This may be consistent with prior theoretical consideration that extraversion is more of a relationship-focused trait that may be more directly aligned with relationship outcomes, whereas conscientiousness is a more task-oriented trait that links more closely with task outcomes (DeRue et al., 2011). We also found that for low power distance teams, leader

agreeableness positively influenced both relational identification and team potency, and subsequently team performance. Team effectiveness theory may explain the somewhat surprising result: overall teamwork experiences involve frequent interactions and communications among team members (Wageman, 1995). The tendency to cooperate and share, inherent in leaders with high agreeableness, is likely to not only influence the way team members work together to complete team tasks, but also their affective feelings resulting from shared work experiences. These separate influences align with meta-analytic evidence in which leader conscientiousness contributed most to task completion, and extraversion contributed most to the interpersonal attributes of leadership effectiveness (DeRue et al., 2011). Leader agreeableness was related closely to both team performance (as the second most important predictor after leader conscientiousness), and the relational dimension of leadership effectiveness (as the most important predictor of leadership satisfaction) (DeRue et al., 2011). A further interesting finding is that we discover different results for team in-role and extra-role performance: in the moderated mediation models, relational identification translates leader-team complementarity to both in-role and extra-role performance, but team potency only links leader-team complementarity to in-role performance. This suggests that team members' confidence beliefs in their team success matters more to the task aspect of team processes whereas their identification with the team leader influences both their task completion and engagement in citizenship behaviors. The lack of a link between team potency and team OCB could be explained by the possibility that team members do not necessarily link OCB contributions with their team's success (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). For team members to collectively exert extra efforts for the team, they may need more motivation from their relationships with the leader and the team (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). We encourage future research to replicate our findings in different settings and under different

conditions to enable a deeper understanding of how and when leader agency-related traits influence the task and relational processes and different aspects of team effectiveness.

Last, we join Grant and colleagues (2011) to add to the limited research evaluating dominance complementarity impacts on work relationships (Tiedens et al., 2007). We grounded our model firmly in the dominance complementarity perspective and comprehensively include all three agentic traits in the Big Five personality framework. Through that lens, we were able to show how complementarity in terms of leader traits and team cultural values impacts in-role and extra-role performance. From the vantage point of the teams literature, the focus on leader traits is important because we know much more about how leader traits are associated with leader behaviors and with leadership ratings than with key team processes (DeRue et al., 2011) or fundamental assessments of team performance (Judge et al., 2009; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010). Nevertheless, leadership is defined by how well leaders influence the actions and effectiveness of their groups, teams, or units (Kaiser et al., 2008), whereby leadership effectiveness is largely determined by team performance (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Judge et al., 2009; Kaiser et al., 2008). Our research helps address this concern. We call for more research to further study complementarity as it affects interpersonal relationships and leadership.

Practical Implications

Our findings have several important practical implications. First, organizations have invested heavily in leadership selection and training programs with an emphasis on the specific capabilities (as expressed in traits) and skills leaders bring to their role, but have mostly neglected the contextual factors that may well temper their effects in many situations. We challenge the notion that the "bright" leadership traits—extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness—always contribute to team performance, and instead suggest that leaders may

be selected to fit the power distance values of their teams. Specifically, when teams respect and desire unequal power, organizations would be well-advised to consider leaders who are interpersonally dominant, assertive, and talkative (i.e., are extraverted), or those who are able to make plans and control team activities (i.e., are conscientious). For teams favoring empowerment, organizations may select leaders who like to consult with individual members (i.e., leaders who are agreeable). Second, although traits are relatively stable, leaders may take steps to modify their behaviors (Grant et al., 2011). Team managers can make better decisions and build more effective teams by adapting their behaviors to complement their teams' power distance preferences. When highly extraverted or highly conscientious leaders work with low power distance teams, they may avoid taking full control and instead try to involve members in decision-making. Similarly, highly agreeable leaders of high power distance teams should avoid being viewed as weak or ineffectual. Third, our findings align with the team effectiveness literature (Mathieu et al., 2008) by endorsing the importance of team potency and relational identification, broadly expressed as task and relational processes. The results imply that team confidence and relational identification with leaders will benefit when leader characteristics are matched with team values.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

While our use of time-lagged, three-sourced data to test the overall model is rigorous and reduces common method variance, the study findings should be considered in light of several limitations which point to several promising future directions. First, power distance is originally defined as a cultural value at the societal level (Hofstede, 1980) and thus our sample from China may have relatively higher average power distance values than is generally the case in Western societies (Hofstede, 1980). It is worth considering to what extent our findings are culturally

specific. Power distance values, frequently examined at individual or team levels (e.g., Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000; Kirkman et al., 2009; Lian et al., 2012; Schaubroeck et al., 2007), vary among individual employees in different societies (Clugston et al., 2000; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006). Prior power distance studies using samples from China are largely consistent with theories originally developed in Western societies (e.g., Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007). Studies using samples from both China and the United States indicate that the power distance construct applies across societies (e.g., Kirkman et al., 2009; Schaubroeck et al., 2007). Thus, our findings, based on dominance complementary theory as originated in the United States, are likely to generalize to team settings in other cultures. Nevertheless, we encourage future research in various cross-cultural settings to provide an empirical assessment of the current model.

Second, an intriguing future research avenue is to consider characteristics of individual team members and team units. For instance, would leaders work well with similar team members? Perhaps highly extraverted leaders will work well with members or teams who are similarly extraverted, or they may conflict in their strivings for attention. Further exploration of team contexts may be needed, for example, to determine whether highly extraverted team members or leaders may interact less effectively where the culture is prone to more diverse ideas. Along this line of inquiry, it is also interesting to see how team characteristics interact with other leader traits that describe how leaders approach power and status. For example, leaders who have a high need for power are likely to be dominant and are likely to complement teams with members who have a low need for power. Continuing efforts to integrate trait- and situation-based leadership perspectives are needed to further unravel effects of leader characteristics.

Third, it remains unclear as to which leader traits matter most and what combinations are optimal in varying team contexts. As the Appendix shows, our supplementary analysis revealed

that dominant leader conscientiousness and submissive leader agreeableness contradicted each other and interacted negatively with team potency and team in-role performance. Our theoretical model and main theme of dominance complementarity theory were already sufficiently complex that we omitted those interactive effects. Future research should provide a better understanding of concurrent impact of leader traits.

Lastly, our sample came from traditional work teams where leaders are formally assigned and members work mainly face-to-face with one another, a team setting ideal for utilizing dominance complementarity theory to study leader/team interplay. However, as an anonymous reviewer suggested, the findings may fail to apply to self-managed teams where leadership is shared, as well as in virtual teams where leaders and teams have limited and infrequent communication. Shared leadership confounds the traditional leader–team dyad: individual members can be leaders or followers depending on tasks (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014). Will dominance complementarity theory apply under shared or distributed leadership? Finally, our relatively modest sample of 71 work teams is comparable with prior team-level work (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Gardner, Gino, & Staats, 2012; Grant et al., 2011; Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010), but future research should use a larger sample.

In conclusion, we integrate the teams literature with the leader traits perspective and apply dominance complementarity theory (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983; Leary, 1957) to show that team power distance value modifies the influence of leader extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness on optimal team processes and performance outcomes. Given the fruitful theoretical progress made here, we hope that our study encourages future researchers to integrate trait and contingency perspectives in exploring further antecedents of team leadership.

Notes

[1] Due to space concern, we used the shorter 3-item scale from Judge et al. (2003) rather than the 8-item scale from John et al. (1991) to measure neuroticism as a control variable. We validated this scale with an additional sample of 316 employees, administrating it alongside the 8-item scale from John et al., 1991, the 10-item IPIP scale, and the 10-item mini-marker scale of neuroticism. The results showed that the 3-item neuroticism scale we used was significantly and positively related to the John et al.'s (1991) scale (r=.69, p <.001), the IPIP scale (r=.59, p <.001), and the mini-marker scale (r=.50, p <.001). The data collection was approved by the Institutional Review Board (Protocol ID: 16-03-3022) at University of Notre Dame.

[2] Although our central focus is on the influences of complementarity between leaders and teams on team processes and performance, it would be interesting and relevant to see when considered together in one study, whether different combinations of the leader traits may have differentiated influences on team processes and performance outcomes. We have reported the supplementary analysis of the interactive effects of leader traits on team processes and performance in Appendix.

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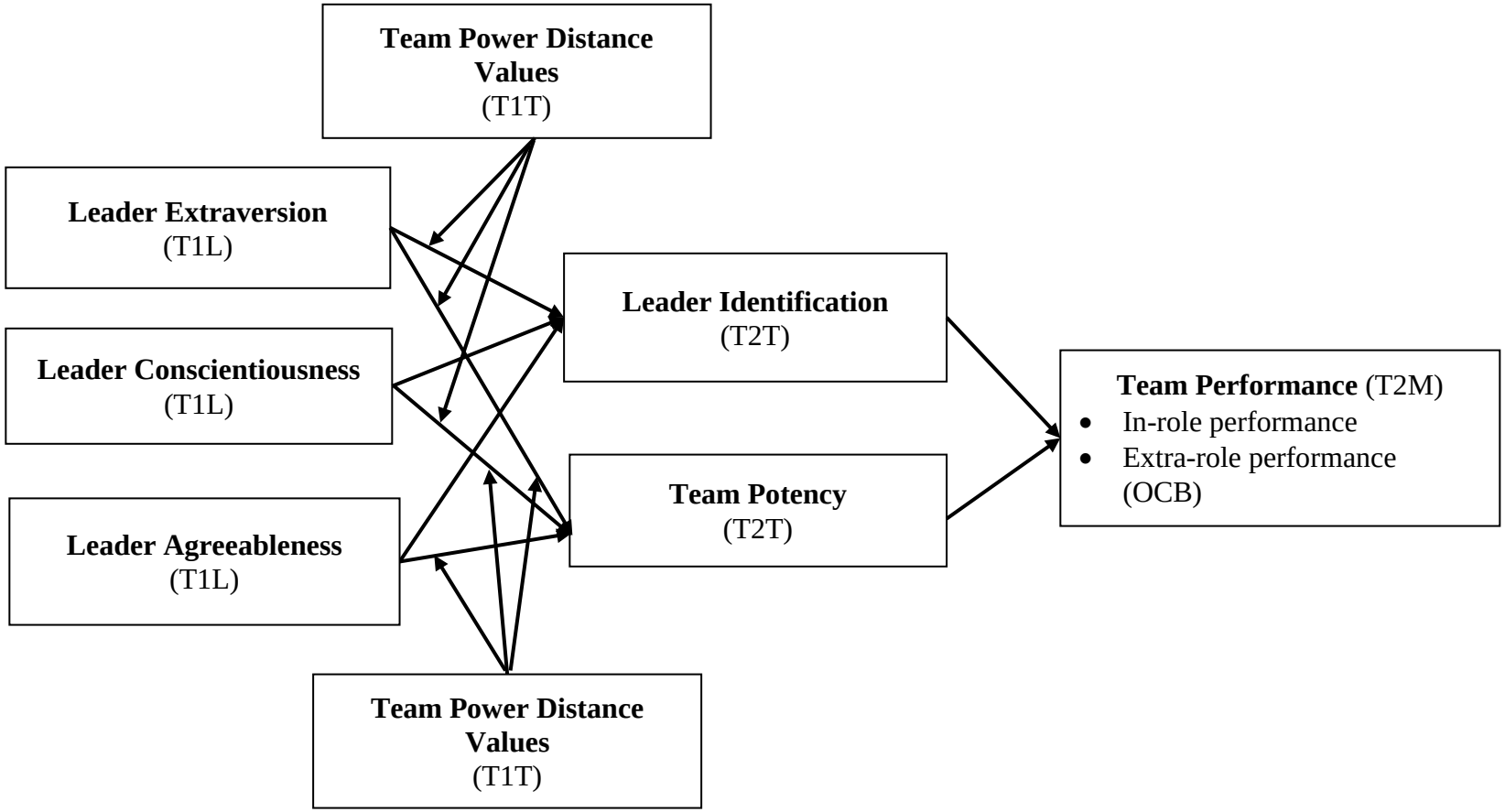

Figure 1. Theoretical model

Note. T1L= rated by team leaders at Time 1; T1T = rated by team members at Time 1; T2T = rated by team members at Time 2, three months after Time 1; T2M = rated by upper-level managers at Time 2, three months after Time 1. The two boxes of team power distance values refer to the same variable, positioned to more effectively illustrate their moderating effects on the trait-process relationships.

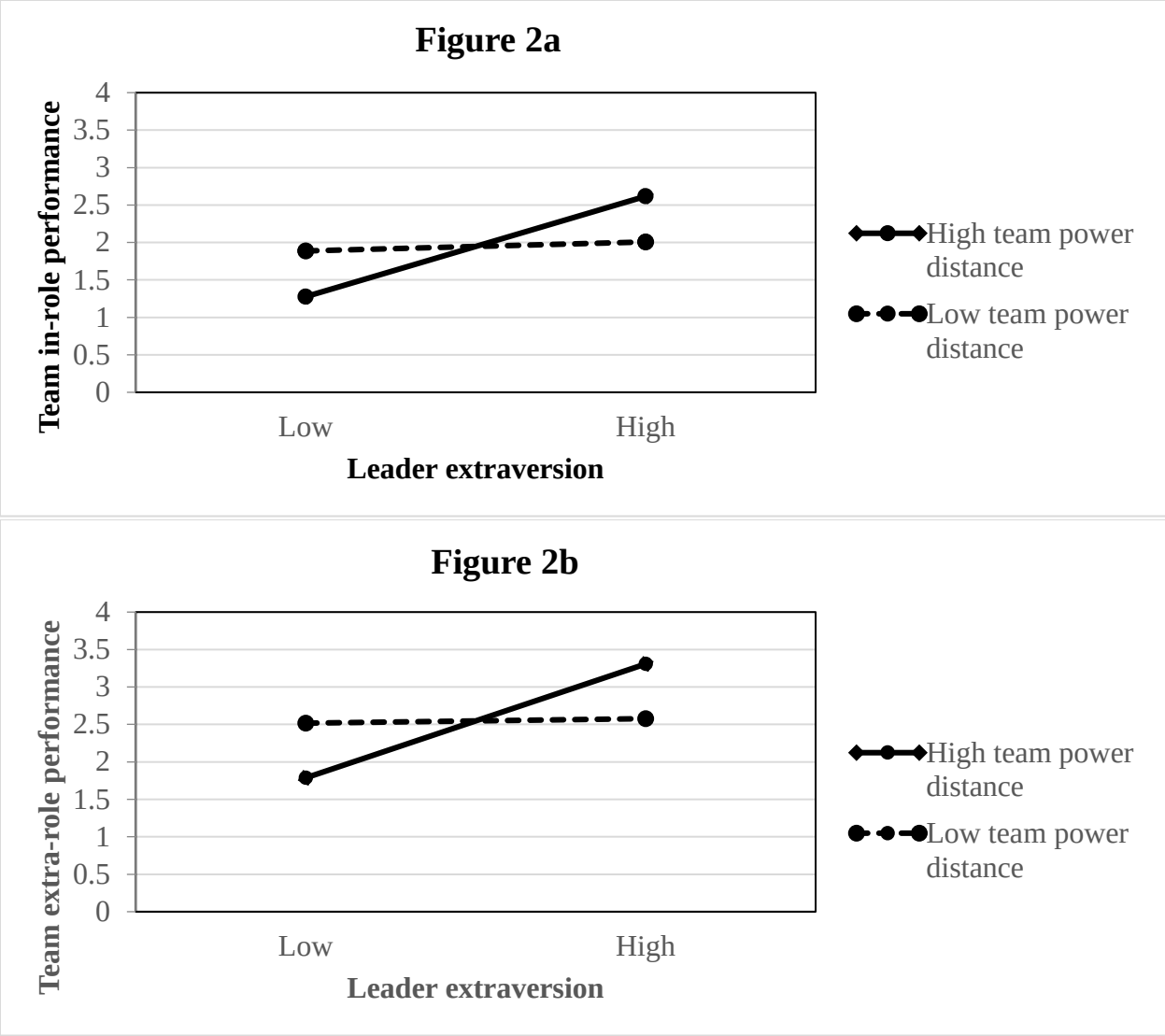

Figure 2. Interactive effect of leader extraversion and team power distance values on (a) team in-role performance and (b) team extra-role performance through relational identification with the leader.

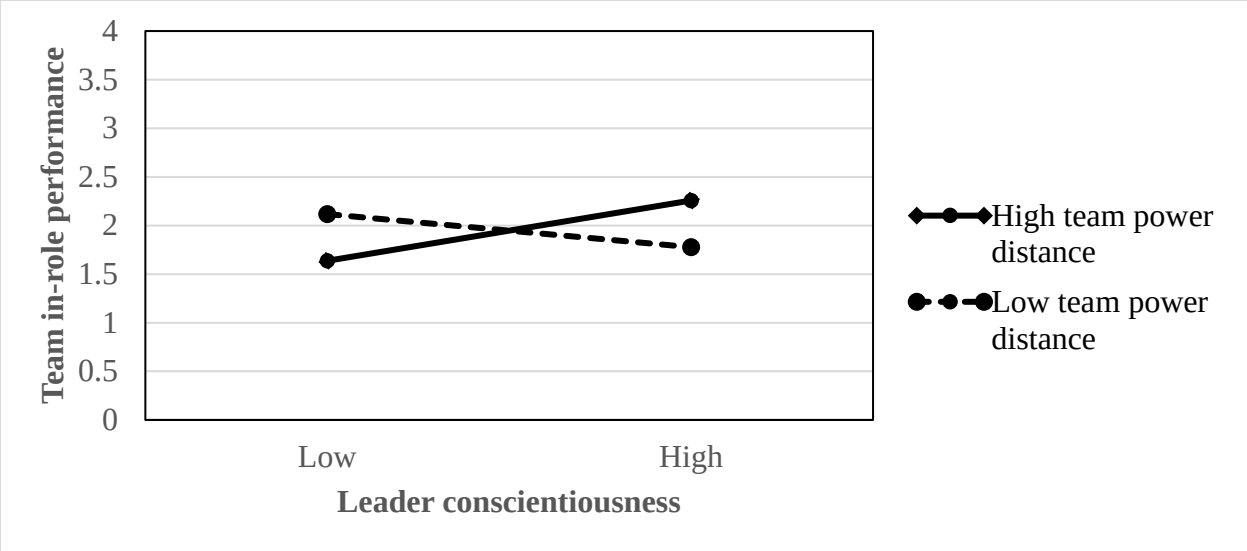

Figure 3. Interactive effect of leader conscientiousness and team power distance values on team in-role performance through team potency.

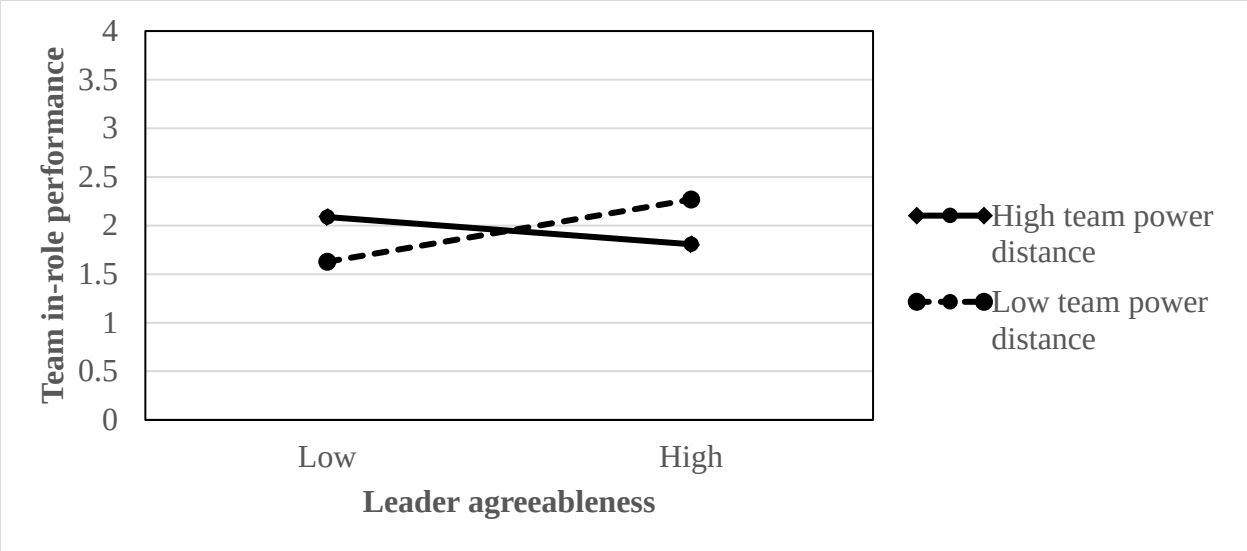

Figure 4. Interactive effect of leader agreeableness and team power distance values on team in-role performance through team potency.

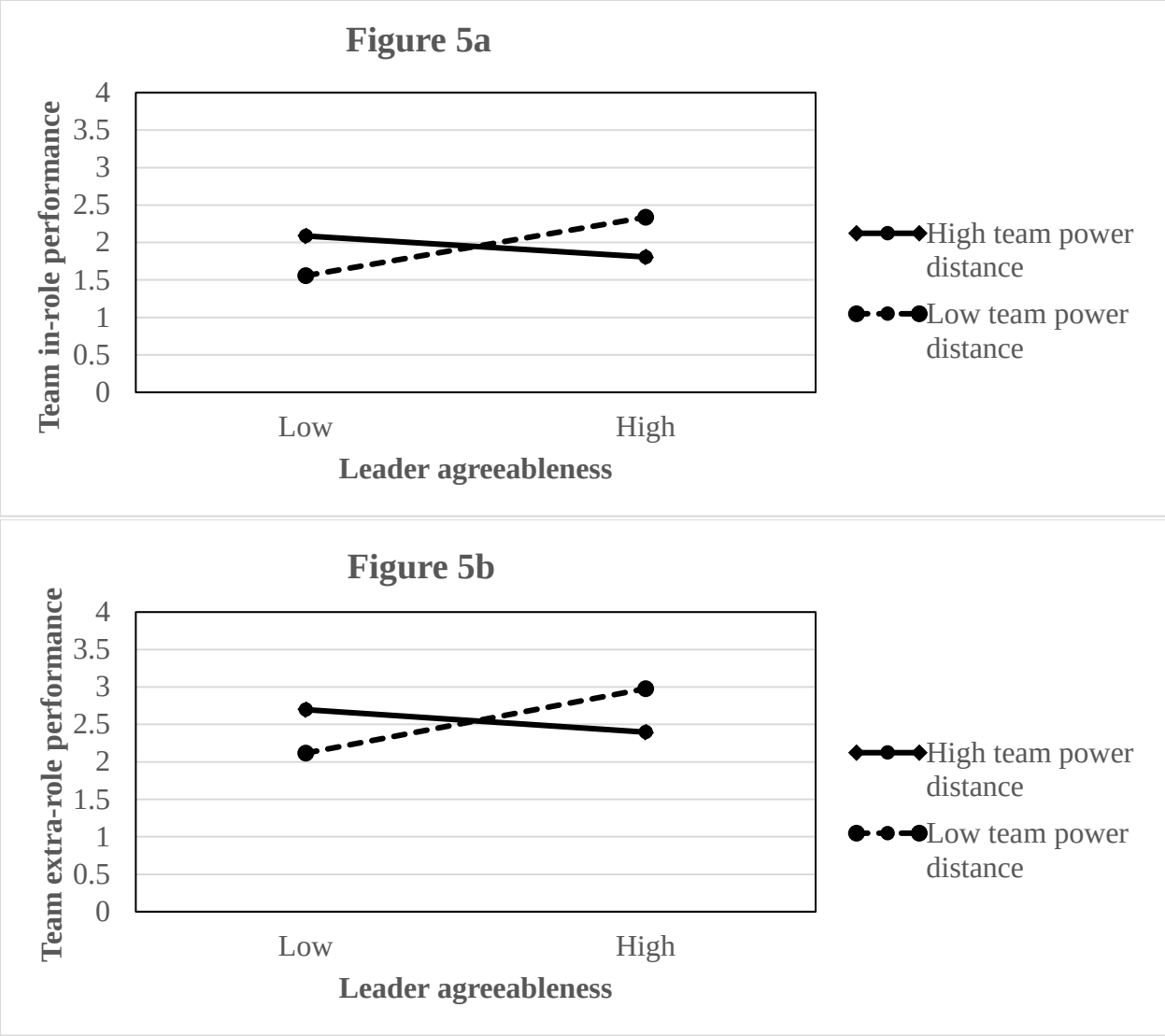

Figure 5. Interactive effect of leader agreeableness and team power distance values on (a) team in-role performance and (b) team extra-role performance through relational identification with the leader.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Leader sex	1.87	.39	--												
2 Team size	3.77	1.45	.01	--											
3 Dyadic tenure	4.98	4.92	-.09	-.07	--										
4 Leader openness	3.54	.39	.02	.03	.12	(.70)									
5 Leader neuroticism	2.88	.73	.02	-.04	-.14	-.07	(.63)								
6 Leader extraversion	3.36	.30	.20	.07	.22	.42**	-.01	(.71)							
7 Leader agreeableness	3.90	.45	-.07	.16	.19	.38**	-.04	.44**	(.72)						
8 Leader conscientiousness	3.78	.45	-.02	-.01	.11	.50**	-.27*	.59**	.68**	(.72)					
9 Team power distance values	2.34	.43	-.03	.11	.19	.01	-.46**	-.01	.09	.19	(.70)				
10 Team potency	4.14	.51	-.02	-.08	-.11	.14	.25*	.16	.13	.06	-.25*	(.87)			
11 Relational identification	3.70	.93	.02	.11	-.01	.04	-.14	.15	.15	.20	.22	.08	(.88)		
12 Team in-role performance	4.06	.60	-.23	.11	.25*	.34**	.02	.34**	.54**	.39**	.17	.33**	.39**	(.90)	
13 Team extra-role performance	4.17	.56	-.16	-.10	.11	.39**	.06	.36**	.39**	.39**	.09	.40**	.10	.69**	(.95)

Note. N=71 teams. M = Mean. SD = Standard Deviation. Reliabilities are in parentheses on the diagonal. For leader sex, 1= female, 2 = male. Leader openness = Leader openness to experience. Relational identification = Relational identification with the team leader.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 2
MSEM Results for Testing Hypotheses Simultaneously

	Team Processes Mediators as DVs							
	Team Potency				Relational Identification			
	β	s.e.	B	s.e.	β	s.e.	B	s.e.
Control variables								
Leader sex	-.07	.10	-.09	.13	-.04	.11	-.10	.27
Team size	-.18	.16	-.08	.06	-.04	.10	-.04	.08
Dyadic tenure	-.10	.12	-.01	.01	.04	.11	.01	.03
Leader openness	-.04	.11	-.07	.18	-.15	.08	-.46	.25
Leader neuroticism	-.10	.08	-.08	.06	-.29**	.09	-.43**	.15
Independent variables								
Leader extraversion	.22	.16	.45	.31	.45***	.12	1.68***	.38
Leader agreeableness	.16	.13	.26	.19	.20	.11	.59*	.33
Leader conscientiousness	.16	.27	.22	.35	-.49***	.15	-1.24***	.34
Moderator								
Team power distance values (TPD)	-.38*	.16	-.55*	.28	-.01	.14	-.04	.38
Interaction terms								
Leader extraversion * TPD	.10	.13	.70	.94	.31*	.12	4.12*	1.71
Leader conscientiousness * TPD	.51***	.16	1.95***	.57	.11	.24	.77	1.68
Leader agreeableness * TPD	-.46*	.19	-1.90**	.64	-.44*	.20	-3.36*	1.44
Mediators								
Team potency								
Relational identification								
R^2	.29*	.12			.36***	.11		

Note. N=71 teams. DV=Dependent variables. β=standardized coefficients and B=unstandardized coefficients. s.e. = Standard error. Leader openness=Leader openness to experience. Relational identification = Relational identification with the team leader. All continuous predictors were centered within clusters (i.e., upper-level managers).
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Two-tailed tests.

Table 2 (continued)
MSEM Results for Testing Hypotheses Simultaneously

	Team Performance as DVs							
	Team In-role Performance				Team Extra-role Performance			
	β	s.e.	B	s.e.	β	s.e.	B	s.e.
Control variables								
Leader sex	-.01	.07	-.01	.11	.03	.08	.04	.12
Team size	.07	.12	.03	.06	-.04	.12	-.02	.06
Dyadic tenure	.12	.07	.02	.01	.00	.05	.00	.01
Leader openness	.23**	.08	.44**	.15	.16	.09	.30	.16
Leader neuroticism	.48***	.09	.45***	.09	.34*	.17	.30*	.15
Independent variables								
Leader extraversion	-.27	.16	-.64	.39	-.32*	.14	-.71*	.31
Leader agreeableness	.09	.10	.16	.18	.02	.12	.04	.22
Leader conscientiousness	.46**	.16	.73**	.26	.57***	.14	.85***	.21
Moderator								
Team power distance values (TPD)	.22	.13	.38	.21	.16	.13	.27	.19
Interaction terms								
Leader extraversion * TPD	.00	.10	-.00	.85	.09	.10	.68	.85
Leader conscientiousness * TPD	-.11	.11	-.52	.50	-.08	.16	-.34	.69
Leader agreeableness * TPD	.01	.12	.05	.57	.01	.16	-.03	.74
Mediators								
Team potency	.28***	.09	.33**	.11	.16*	.07	.17*	.08
Relational identification	.33*	.13	.21*	.08	.40***	.09	.24***	.06
R^2	.48***	.08			.44***	.09		

Note. N=71 teams. DV=Dependent variables. β=standardized coefficients and B=unstandardized coefficients. s.e. = Standard error. Leader openness=Leader openness to experience. Relational identification = Relational identification with the team leader. All continuous predictors were centered within clusters (i.e., upper-level managers).
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Two-tailed tests.

Table 3

Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of Leader Traits on Team Performance at Low and High Levels of Team Power Distance Values

Effect		Direct	Total	Indirect	95% CI for Indirect Effect
Leader extraversion as the IV, team potency as the mediator					
Team in-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.00	.03	.03	[-1.45,1.12]
	High TPD	.00	.23	.23	[-2.49,3.08]
Team extra-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	-.25	-.21	.04	[-.48,.54]
	High TPD	.25	.37	.12	[-1.01,1.22]
Leader extraversion as the IV, relational identification as the mediator					
Team in-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.00	.06	.06	[-.35,.40]
	High TPD	.00	.67*	.67*	**[.43,.96]**
Team extra-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	-.25	-.22	.03	[-.34,.40]
	High TPD	.25	1.01**	.76***	**[.51,1.04]**
Leader conscientiousness as the IV, team potency as the mediator					
Team in-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.19	.03	-.17	[-3.08, 3.04]
	High TPD	-.19	.12	.31*	**[.01, .88]**
Team extra-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.13	.04	-.09	[-1.57,.92]
	High TPD	-.13	.03	.16	[-.75,.88]
Leader conscientiousness as the IV, relational identification as the mediator					
Team in-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.19	-.13	-.32	[-.71,.05]
	High TPD	-.19	-.39	-.20	[-.41,.01]
Team extra-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.13	-.24	-.37	[-.78,.06]
	High TPD	-.13	-.36	-.23	[-.46,.01]
Leader agreeableness as the IV, team potency as the mediator					
Team in-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	-.02	.30	.32*	**[.04,.68]**
	High TPD	.02	-.13	-.14	[-2.15, 1.33]
Team extra-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.01	.16	.17	[-.97,1.31]
	High TPD	-.01	-.07	-.08	[-.67,.68]
Leader agreeableness as the IV, relational identification as the mediator					
Team in-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	-.02	.37	.39*	**[.08,.74]**
	High TPD	.02	-.12	-.14	[-.37,.07]
Team extra-role performance as the DV	Low TPD	.01	.42	.43*	**[.11,.78]**
	High TPD	-.01	-.14	-.15	[-.40,.09]

Note. The coefficients of effects were unstandardized as Mplus only provides output of unstandardized indirect effects. Bias-corrected 95% CI for indirect effect was based on 20,000 resamples via R program (Selig & Preacher, 2008). TPD= Team power distance. IV=Independent variable. DV=Dependent variable. All continuous predictors were cluster-mean centered. High team power distance refers to teams with power distance values one standard deviation (SD) above the mean after cluster centering: +1SD=.37; low team power distance refers to teams with power distance values one SD below the mean after cluster-centering: -1SD=-.37.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Two-tailed tests.

Appendix: Supplementary Analysis Results

Although our central focus is on the influences of complementarity between leaders and teams on team processes and performance, it would be interesting and relevant to see when considered together in one study, whether different combinations of the leader traits may have differentiated influences on team processes and performance outcomes. That is, it remains unclear in the literature as to what interactive effects leader extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness have on work teams. Thus, we tested an additional MSEM model adding the two-way interaction terms between leader extraversion, leader conscientiousness, and leader agreeableness, the three-way interaction term among the three leader traits, and their relationships with the team process variables (team potency, and relational identification), and the team performance outcomes (team task performance and extra-role performance). As shown in the Appendix Table of the MSEM results, among all the additional relationships included, leader conscientiousness had a significantly negative interactive effect with leader agreeableness (B=-.97, p <.01) on team potency, which in turn was positively and significantly related to team task performance (B=.30, p<.01) and team OCB (B=.18, p < .01). Furthermore, the indirect effect tests with 2,000 resamples discovered that the indirect effect of leader conscientiousness on team in-role performance via team potency was significantly positive only for leaders with low agreeableness (B=.11, bias-corrected 95% = [.01, .33], excluding zero) but not significant among leaders with high agreeableness (B=-.08, bias-corrected 95% = [-.28, .13], including zero). However, the indirect effects of leader conscientiousness on team extra-role performance via team potency were not significant at different levels of leader agreeableness (high leader agreeableness condition: B=-.05, bias-corrected 95% = [-.17, .08], including zero; low leader agreeableness condition: B=.07, bias-corrected 95% = [-.06, .20], including zero). Figures 6 described the nature of the interaction patterns: leader conscientiousness only had a positive influence on team in-role performance through team potency when leader agreeableness was low. The implications of the supplementary results were important: leaders' dominant motive by leader conscientiousness and their submissive motive by leader agreeableness offset each other and interacted negatively in predicting team task-oriented process (team potency) and team in-role performance.

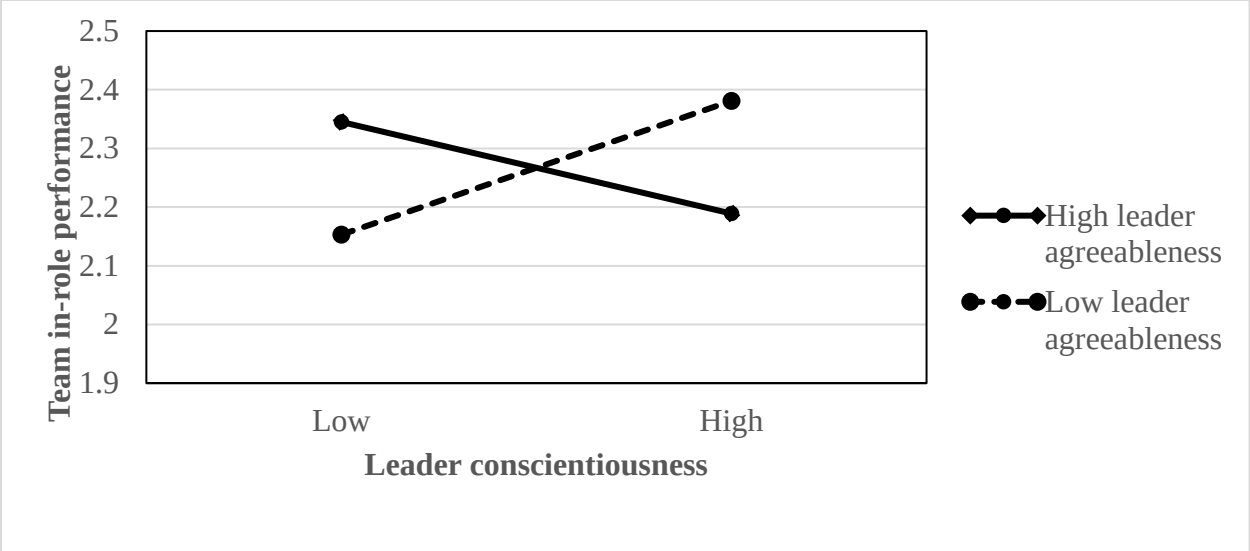

Figure 6. Supplementary analysis results of the interactive effect of leader conscientiousness and leader agreeableness on team in-role performance through team potency.

Appendix Table

MSEM Results of the Interactive Effects of Leader Traits on Team Processes and Team Performance

	Team Potency				Relational Identification				Team In-Role Performance				Team Extra-Role Performance			
	β	s.e.	B	s.e.	β	s.e.	B	s.e.	β	s.e.	B	s.e.	β	s.e.	B	s.e.
Control variables																
Leader sex	-.10	.09	-.13	.12	-.02	.11	-.04	.29	-.02	.05	-.04	.08	.02	.09	.03	.13
Team size	-.07	.19	-.03	.08	.07	.11	.06	.09	.04	.13	.02	.06	-.03	.12	-.01	.06
Dyadic tenure	-.12	.13	-.01	.02	.02	.09	.00	.02	.13	.07	.02	.01	-.00	.05	.00	.01
Leader O	-.05	.08	-.08	.14	-.10	.10	-.32	.32	.23*	.10	.45*	.18	.19	.11	.36	.19
Leader N	.01	.08	.00	.06	-.26**	.10	-.40*	.20	.41***	.11	.37***	.10	.32	.19	.28	.17
TPD	-.35	.19	-.51	.32	.03	.17	.08	.48	.17	.13	.30	.22	.16	.12	.26	.19
Main variables																
Leader E	.02	.14	.05	.29	.42***	.09	1.65**	.56	-.13	.18	-.31	.43	-.29	.18	-.66	.42
Leader A	.10	.15	.16	.23	.33**	.12	1.03*	.49	.21*	.09	.40*	.17	.07	.13	.12	.23
Leader C	.05	.25	.06	.34	.37**	.12	.97**	.38	.29	.16	.45	.26	.56**	.19	.84**	.31
Interaction terms																
Leader E*A	.16	.14	.89	.84	.14	.20	1.51	2.02	.13	.09	.86	.58	-.02	.08	-.13	.52
Leader E*C	.02	.17	.11	.72	.30	.17	2.54	1.76	.02	.09	.08	.45	.12	.09	.57	.44
Leader C*A	-.30**	.10	-.97**	.32	-.33	.23	-2.07	1.31	-.24	.13	-.90*	.46	-.14	.11	-.49	.40
Leader E*C*A	.19	.15	1.65	1.30	-.24	.22	-4.07	4.27	-.10	.10	-1.02	1.02	-.07	.13	-.69	1.29
Mediators																
Team potency									.26**	.09	.30**	.11	.16**	.06	.18**	.07
Relational identification									.29*	.14	.17*	.08	.39***	.12	.22***	.06
R^2	.24	.15			.39	.26			.50***	.07			.45***	.08		

Note. N=71 teams. All continuous predictors were centered within clusters (i.e., upper-level managers). β=standardized coefficients and B=unstandardized coefficients. s.e. = Standard error. Leader O=Leader openness to experience; Leader N=Leader neuroticism; TPD=Team power distance; Leader E=Leader extraversion; Leader A=Leader agreeableness; Leader C=Leader conscientiousness; Leader E*A= Leader extraversion * Leader agreeableness; Leader E*C=Leader extraversion * Leader conscientiousness; Leader C*A=Leader conscientiousness * Leader agreeableness; Leader E*C*A=Leader extraversion * Leader conscientiousness * Leader agreeableness. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$. Two-tailed tests.