Shared Leadership and Teams of Knowledge Workers: the Associative Relationship between Manager Attitude to Sport and their Team's Leadership Behaviors

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I Abstract

Today's business environment is getting faster and more complicated. To remain competitive and innovative more and more organizations use teams as the work unit to deliver results. In a knowledge-based economy, knowledge workers are key to competitive advantage, with firms increasingly looking to distribute responsibility to those at the edge where they are closest to the problems and opportunities so that can act upon them quickly. Taking responsibility and making choices is at the core of leadership, and shared leadership is positively related to outcomes such as performance, creativity, and innovation. However, while is it generally agreed that a formally appointed authority, or vertical leadership, plays an important role in the development of shared leadership, the phenomenon of how shared leadership emerges within teams is still not clearly understood. Deeper insight into how they can play a greater role in developing and fostering this phenomenon would be hugely valuable for line managers building high-performance teams.

Business often looks to the world of sport for lessons on leadership. Harvard Business School case studies, journal articles and best-selling books have been written about leadership by famed sports managers or coaches, like Sir Alex Ferguson (football), Joe Schmidt, and Sir Clive Woodward (rugby) for example. Leadership in every area of the pitch is what they valued. It is proposed that a manager's attitude towards sports influences the development of leadership capabilities within their teams, perhaps more than their own exhibited leadership behaviors.

This hypothesis was tested by conducting quantitative research on 57 managers. Three existing and reliable instruments were used to assess: each manager's transformational and transactional/passive leadership behaviors, their attributes towards sports, and the frequency of shared leadership behaviors displayed by their teams. Partial correlation was used measure the strength of the relationships between the team shared leadership behaviors and both the manager leadership behaviors and their attitude to sports, while controlling for the effects of each other separately. The data mostly supported existing literature but was surprising at the team level.

The major contribution of this study is that although the intercorrelations between vertical leadership behaviors matched the existing theory and literature as expected, the team level leadership behaviors did not. Furthermore, it was found that more team level leadership behaviors were significantly correlated to the managers' attitude to sport than their individual leadership

behaviors. In addition, it was established that managers have a significantly different attitude to sport than that in other cohorts, and no difference between genders was observed.

The empirical findings are reviewed in context of the literature and results and limitations of the research are further discussed. Finally, practical implications for how managers influence and foster leadership within their teams, organizational training needs, software development methodologies, and areas for future research are identified.

II Thesis Declaration

Submission of Thesis and Dissertation
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1.0 Introduction

The business environment is becoming more competitive and complex. Organizations are continually reassessing traditional command and control leadership practices to effectively build a highly educated and skilled labor force and to maximize their potential. As companies look to teams as the basic unit of work organization (Barley, 1990; Manz and Sims, 1995; Tannenbaum et al., 2012), the trend towards collaborative, autonomous, self-organizing teams is raising interest in shared leadership (Carson, Tesluk and Marrone, 2007; Hoch, 2013; Aime et al., 2014; Lord et al., 2017; Lacerenza et al., 2018; Sweeney, Clarke and Higgs, 2019; Wu, Cormican and Chen, 2020) and its ability to transform knowledge-based work (Pearce, 2004, Liang and Gu, 2016).

1.1 Benefits of Shared Leadership

Shared leadership is an emergent team phenomenon where leadership roles and influence are distributed throughout team members instead of through a single individual (Pearce and Conger, 2003, Zhu et al., 2018).

Accumulating studies suggest that shared leadership is positively associated with creativity (Liang and Gu, 2016;Ali, Wang and Johnson, 2020), innovation (Cox, Pearce and Perry, 2003; Hoch, 2013) and can improve team performance (Chiu, Owens and Tesluk, 2016; Wang et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2020) above and beyond vertical leadership (Ensley, Hmieleski and Pearce, 2006; Nicolaides et al., 2014). In software development teams, shared leadership had both a positive impact on innovation and optimally impacted team effectiveness as the depth and breadth of team member competences grew (Kakar, 2017). Moreover, in the context of the COVID-19 global pandemic which has forced many knowledge workers to operate remotely in virtual teams, shared leadership positively contributes to enhancing the performance of virtual R&D teams (Nordbäck and Espinosa, 2019; Castellano et al., 2021). In terms of conflict within teams, the research is mixed. According to Kakar (2017), formal leadership proved more efficient in terms of minimizing decision-making delays and disagreements, however Hu et al., (2017) found shared leadership reduced relationship conflicts while it increased highly beneficial cognitive conflict (openness to diverse opinions and disagreement).

1.2 Emergence Is Not Well Understood

One area of agreement among researchers is that shared leadership is not a replacement for formally appointed leadership and in fact, it's generally agreed that traditional vertical leadership is an important factor in fostering shared leadership (Cox, Pearce and Perry, 2003; Houghton, Neck and Manz, 2003; Ensley et al., 2006; Carson et al., 2007; Fausing et al., 2015; Wu, Cormican and Chen, 2020) and creating the necessary preconditions for team-level leadership to occur (Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004). However, to date, there is no unified understanding of how shared leadership is formed or emerges (Fransen et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018; Endres and Weibler, 2019).

There's some support to says it is internal team characteristics like team size, maturity, potency (Pearce and Sims, 2000; Bligh et al., 2006; Müller, Pintor and Wegge, 2018; Endres and Weibler, 2019). While others argue for external factors like task complexity, challenge, or the vertical leader's style of leadership (Seers, Keller and Wilkerson, 2003; Fausing et al., 2015). There is a lot of supporting evidence that leadership style is the key, but what that leadership style should be, is not so clear. There is evidence supporting high quality leader-member exchanges, or a coaching style, or a humble level-5 leadership approach, or an empowering, or servant leadership, or a transformational style, or a combination of two of these (Carson et al., 2007; Zhang, Waldman and Wang, 2012; Hoch, 2013; Chiu, Owens and Tesluk, 2016; Margolis and Ziegert, 2016; Sousa and Van Dierendonck, 2016; Wang et al. 2017; Fransen et al., 2018).

Because there is no clear or consistent understanding of how or why shared leadership emerges within teams (even though it is evident there are many positive benefits to shared leadership especially for knowledge-based teams), and that the only certainty is that the manager (or vertical leader) plays a key part, therefore, a deeper insight into how a vertical leader influences or approaches the fostering of shared leadership within their team, is an important research direction.

Interestingly though, several of these leadership aspects (external and internal conditions) and styles from the literature, mirror sports teams and their coach. In Katz's (2001) model of sport teams for workplace teams, high competition and high cooperation were the dual dimensions that drove successful teams. Sporting success is highly competitive and depends on continuously

outperforming the competition. The team crest and the uniform provide an obvious sign of commitment to a common purpose and identity. Shared purpose and a collectivize identify are conditions within a team for shared leadership (Carson, et al. 2007; Endres and Weibler, 2019). Identity is at the core of the work of Fransen et al., (2020) who build several leadership roles within the team on top of establishing the importance of the team's identify for team effectiveness. Burnes and O'Donnell (2011) note that sport coaches are always focused on team building, growing and developing their players, something that has many parallels to transformational leadership (Bass and Stogdill, 1990).

1.3 Sporting Influences on Leadership

Management literature has long asked what the world of business can learn from the works of sports (Katz, 2001; Burnes and O'Donnell, 2011; Harvard Business Review Press, 2018). Many sports are team oriented and line managers are akin to the coach – their role, skills and concerns are not unlike. Coaches are a formal, appointed leader who is primarily focused on continuously transforming players and improving the performance level of the team. Research on career-development shows that people who participated in competitive youth sports (even over 60 years ago) appear to show higher levels of leadership (Kniffin, Wansink and Shimizu, 2015). (Fransen et al. (2018) performed a longitudinal study to identify the emergence of shared leadership with sports teams and found that team members perceived as warm and competent gained greater influence over time, and then those teams where leadership became more distributed, went on to perform better. Identifying specific leadership roles within a team had positive results in both an organizational and sport team settings (Fransen et al., 2020).

Sir Clive Woodward is a former English rugby player and head coach who led England to victory in the 2003 Rugby World Cup. In an online newspaper article talking about a winning mindset, he stated "*I don't like 'co-captains' ... but what you do want is individual players taking charge of specific areas.*" (Woodward, 2018). Martin Johnson was the England captain of that World Cup winning side was obviously influenced by Woodward's leadership style. In his autobiography, there is chapter titled 'The Art of Captaincy'. In it, Johnson noted that England had a captain for every area of the game: for the scrum, for the lineout, and two for defense. Players could and did

take responsibility for decisions based on what they saw in front of them. Some of the team's best try (5 points) scoring moments came when they saw opportunity and ignored Johnson's pleas of "*No, no ... go for the three points*!" (Johnson, 2004, p.338). Sports people are all too aware of the consequences that "*lack of leadership on the pitch*", "*wait[ing] for instruction from the sideline*", and not taking of responsibility and making decisions leads to (O'Brien, 2017). So much so, that Van Dalfsen et al. (2021) just recently initiated one of the first studies to qualitatively capture the leadership philosophy of ten Dutch football coaches on developing shared leadership abilities in their youth players. A next level *totaalvoetbal* [1] if you will.

Sport and playing games are an activity almost everyone without exception can relate to. The research, and the anecdotal evidence, suggests that there might be valuable lessons from sport, in that there are antecedent attitudes and approaches formal leaders could bring to create and foster successful shared leadership within teams.

1.4 Research Question

Sharing of leadership roles is cited as one of the key factors for creating high-performance teams (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993a). Yet, the emergence of shared leadership within teams is not well understood (Fransen et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018; Endres and Weibler, 2019). It is imperative to better understand how to help managers learn how to nurture and grow shared leadership within their teams, as research shows this leadership style has many benefits in terms of greater innovation and improved team performance (Chiu, Owens and Tesluk, 2016; Wang et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2020).

Therefore, the aim of the research is to attempt to observe and measure how leader attitudes to sport, as opposed to leadership behaviors, may be associated with the emergence and prevalence of shared leadership behaviors within their teams.

[1] Totaalvoetbal (total football) is a system of football where any player can take on the role of any other player in a team. Adopting totaalvoetbal sent the Dutch national team of the 1970s to two World Cup finals during that decade.

The first objective is to understand if managers in the high-tech industry have a certain attitude to sport that might be conducive to participative and shared leadership. Flattening organizations is driving work to organizational team units (Tannenbaum et al., 2012) and according to House and colleagues (2002) organizational structures can have an influence on a manger's implicit leadership behaviors. In addition, popular agile software development methodologies advocate self-organizing teams (Sutherland, 2015) and it has been observed that given a choice of leadership styles, software development teams will prefer shared leadership (Kakar, 2017). Therefore, it is expected that leaders of these teams will be oriented in a distinct direction as scored along the sports participation model (Aicinena and Eldridge, 2006).

Hypothesis 1: Leaders of software development teams will tend towards and embody, encourage, and exhibit the behaviors nearing the 'Pleasure and Participation' end of the spectrum in the Sports Participation Model.

The associations between leader attitudes to sport and/or leadership behaviors, and the emergence and prevalence of shared leadership behaviors within their teams is represented by the conceptual model shown in figure 1.

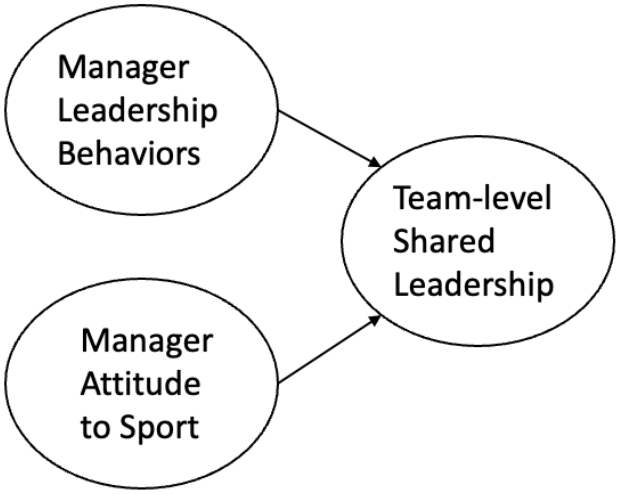

Figure 1. *Conceptual Model*

Although there seems to be some evidence to suggest there are lessons from sport in terms of antecedent attitudes and approaches managers might bring to create and foster successful shared leadership within teams, from the literature it is expected that team members should be influenced by the self-assessed leadership behaviors role modelled by their manger. The second objective is to evaluate the similarity of influence sources to team level leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 2 : The Leadership behaviors displayed by the Team will cascade from the Leaders self-assessed behaviors.

While it is expected to see a relationship between a managers role modelled self-assessed leadership behaviors, managers (per hypotheses 1) are also expected to have a participation orientation as scored on the Sports Participation model. Therefore, there is good reason to expect that there may be a relationship between the more passive transactional leadership behaviors and their attitude to sport. The third objective to evaluate how a change in leader attitude to sport would impact upon the frequency of shared leadership behaviors displayed by their team.

Hypothesis 3a : Leaders who are more on the 'Pleasure and Participation' will foster displays of more Transactional/Passive Leadership behaviors, except for Contingent Reward.

Related to this is the opposite proposition. The literature provides evidence that transformational leadership behaviors are negatively correlated to passive transactional leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 3b : Leaders who are more on the 'Power and Performance' side of the Sport Participation model will tend to foster more shared leadership displays of Transformational behaviors.

1.5 Outline of Dissertation

The remainder of this dissertation is structured as follows:

2.0 Literature Review –several key phases in the leadership literature are synthesized to outline the evolution from leadership as individual attribute to leadership as a relationship and role that can be shared. Finally, the Sports Participation model is described.

3.0 Methodology - outlines the why the approach to the research was taken, the methodologies considered and instruments selected. The subsequent research procedure is then detailed.

4.0 Findings - secondary data for each hypothesis is presented and analyzed compared to the finding of this research.

5.0 Discussion: The most interesting findings of the study are discussed in the context of a critical evaluation of the study in light of previous research, with limitations, practical implications and areas for future research identified.

6.0 Conclusion: details the conclusions as inferred from the results of the study. Recalling the research context, key takeaways for managers in organizations trying to foster shared leadership skills in their teams are presented.

7.0 References: Full references to all citations used throughout the dissertation.

8.0 Appendices: Additional supporting data used and obtained as part of the research.

2.0 Literature Review

Leadership theory and practices often evolve to match industrial, technological, and societal advances within the world we live in (Lord et al., 2017). While shared leadership is a relatively new leadership theory, it too has evolved to meet the demands of today's busy, complex working environment.

Aspects of personality can predict 'new' leadership styles, like Transformational (Judge and Bono, 2000). This style is just one complementary component of a full range of leadership model that includes transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Bass and Avolio, 1994, Avolio, 1999). The full range model can be used to measure shared leadership behaviors at the team level though the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass and Avolio 1996). The more we understand what leadership is, what its characteristics are and the effects it has, the better equipped we are to understand how it emerges. Even though some of shared leadership's core ideas are not entirely new (Follett, 1924), perhaps its time has come.

2.1 Steps to Shared Leadership

Controlling the division of labor into small fixed tasks, for which a supervisor held an employee accountable (Walton, 1985) and motivated them to greater performance with 'carrot and stick' approaches, are in the past (Pink, 2009). Leadership has moved on towards focusing on the top-down hierarchical influence relationship between a leader and their followers, to commit to action towards a common goal in their organization (Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Rost, 1993; Pearce and Congar, 2003; Yukl and Gardner, 2020).

2.1.1 Leadership is not the Leader

Initially the leadership focus was only on the leader and their natural abilities. The writings of Scottish philosopher Thomas Carlyle from 1840 (Spector, 2015) presented the 'great man' [person] theory. This theory is personified by people like Joan of Arc who played pivotal roles in the Anglo-French Hundred Years' War; Napoleon whose accomplishments defined the Napoleonic era; or Winston Churchill who galvanized and symbolized a nation during World War II. They seemed to possess innate leadership ability and a crisis often gives rise to a charismatic

leader (Conger and Kanungo, 1988a). However, even though natural abilities and personality traits may provide leadership potential, they are insufficient to explain leadership and leader effectiveness (Stogdill 1948, as cited in Zaccaro, 2007; Mann, 1959; Stadler and Dyer, 2013). Moreover, as research turned away from traits (Stogdill and Shartle, 1948) others have shown that effective leadership skills and behaviors can be developed (Kirkpatick and Locke, 1991).

While leadership will reside within a person, it's not *the* person. They will only attain leadership by means of their interactions with other people.

2.1.2 Leadership is the Behavior of the Leader

The 'made not born' argument is further supported by pioneering work from the University of Michigan on Behavioral theories. Their research showed that high performing teams had supervisors whose behavior was employee-centered versus those that were production-centered (Kahn and Katz, 1952; Likert, 1979). Nevertheless, this approach only viewed leadership on a single continuum – employees at one end and tasks at the other. Through this lens, leadership development is limited to movement along this line, gaining one capability meant losing the other. Stogdill and others at Ohio State University developed a similar lens (Schriesheim and Bird, 1979). But they advanced on the University of Michigan work by viewing leadership on a two-dimensional scale (as did Blake and Mouton (1981,1982) with their '9x9 Grid'), having aspects of being both people-oriented (consideration) and task oriented (initiating structure). Their studies showed that higher consideration efforts on behalf of a leader moderated the negative effects of increasing initiating structure (more management supervision). The behavioral work also highlighted the importance of trust and communication between supervisor and employee for flexible and adaptable teams (Fleishman and Harris, 1998).

As the world became more industrialized the nature of the work itself became more complex, thus the relationships with people needed to become more complex.

2.1.3 Leadership Behavior is not 'One Size Fits All'

Subsequently, several Contingency style theories gained a lot of interest. Fred Fiedler's (1965) Contingency Model is perhaps the best known, where the type of leadership tactics employed depends on the situation in terms of who the leader was interacting with and what they want to get done (Fiedler, 1972). House's (1971) Path-Goal theory uses the nature of the challenge, or goal,

for the leader to adapt and clarify the path forward for subordinates, remove obstacles if necessary, and provide support when necessary. And although Vroom and Jago (2007) and Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) produced useful contingency frameworks for adapting a leadership style or pattern to the situation in hand, they both have a narrow emphasis on decision making. A more general contingency approach is Hersey and Blanchard's Situational leadership model (Hersey, Blanchard and Natemeyer, 1979). This model calls on leaders to appreciate that different employees have different levels of maturity towards their assigned tasks, and depending on the situation, there needs to be a varying mix of both supportive and directive behaviours coming from their manager. Blanchard has operationalised this work into a sequence of steps: setting appropriate goals, praising employees so that they are motivated to do good work, and to administer reprimands when required (Blanchard, Zigarmi and Nelson, 1993; Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi, 2015).

Despite Blanchard's situational theory being extended with some of the more recent social exchange and contingent punishment behaviors, there are issues regarding the original contingent theory. Firstly, in studies, contingency theory could only account for relatively small variances in performance outcomes (Bryman, 1999). Secondly, several studies failed to replicate Fielder's work (Jago and Ragan, 1986). For example, a meta-analytic review of contingency theory research only found support in half of the studies analyzed (Peters, Hartke and Pohlmann, 1985). In addition, Bryman (2004) was also critical of the qualitative approaches which were not as distinctive as the more established qualitative approach (although he does promote an integrated approach).

Around this time, at the end of the last century and the beginning of this, leadership research began to take more of an interest in leadership that had an expanding focus beyond dyadic relations and effects (Lord et al., 2017). In addition, meta-analytic studies found specific facets and general constructs of the 5-factor model of personality (known as 'the Big 5' (Hough, 1992)) were correlated to Transformational leadership and predicted leadership style (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002).

2.2 New Style Leadership that is Transactional and Transformational

Recent research has turned its attention to transcending leadership that cuts across individualistic models to enhance team capabilities, positively affect connected social systems (through purpose and mission) and realize leadership development as an emergent state in teams.

2.2.1 Transformational and Transactional Theory

Burns (1978) introduced the concepts of transactional and transforming leadership. To achieve desired organizational goals, a transactional leader focuses on direct or indirect exchanges with team members. The exchanges can be contingent on positive reinforcement, providing something of value (renumeration, recognition, praise, feedback, or promotions) in exchange for creating outcomes the leader values like increased motivation, improved performance, or progress towards goals. Or, a leader can impose penalties, reprimands, or deliver negative feedback. An intervention by a manager can signal the need to stop and correct actions, change or modify behavior, or it may simply be an indication that that there is a need for more clarification or support on assigned tasks. Management-by-exception is when the aversive intervention only occurs when something goes wrong or an employee makes a mistake, or when agreed standards or metrics are not met (Bass, 1985; Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Gavan O'Shea et al., 2009).

Transforming leadership (originally theorized in a political context) intends to cause change in individuals and social systems. It is a process where leaders and followers help grow each other by readjusting perceptions and values, and resetting expectations and aspirations to greater levels. Far from a 'give and take' approach like transactional leadership, it uses the leader personality, skills and abilities to make changes by setting an example and articulating a vision and energising individuals towards common goals for the benefit of the community or organization. Burns proposed that transforming and transactional leadership were mutually exclusive styles (Burns,1978, Bass, 1985; Bass and Stogdill, 1990).

2.2.2 Transformational Leadership

Bass (1985) built upon the ideas of Burns to elevate the desires of followers towards achievement and self-development in addition to growing groups and the overall organization. This style of leadership, which Bass termed Transformational, looked to build self-confidence, and develop

concern for achievement, growth, and development within others. There are four basic components to transformational leadership:

> **Idealized Influence:** builds a vision and a sense of mission, gains trust respect and confidence who followers identify with, and obtains extra effort from people to achieve optimal performance and development levels. Often conflated with charisma in the sense that it is the energy and enthusiasm a leader brings that attracts and influences people
>
> **Individually Considerate:** focuses on understanding the needs and developing capabilities of each follower
>
> **Intellectually Stimulating:** fosters creativity, looks at old problems in new ways, reexamines the status quo, develops follower to tackle problems themselves using their own intuition and innovative analysis and solution strategies
>
> **Inspirational:** increases optimism, and boosts enthusiasm and excitement about the work or tasks to be done

Transformational leadership has high aspirations but is not without some difficulties. It lacks a clear and comprehensive conceptual definition, and the theory doesn't fully address how the four component dimensions combine, relate, or influence mediating processes that predict positive team individual, team and organizational outcomes (Yukl and Gardner, 2020). Some researchers have failed to reproduce the dimensional structure as specified by the theory and argue that there is not enough distinction between the model and its effects and other theories (Men and Stacks, 2013; van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013). Although there is evidence to show that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional (Judge and Bono, 2000), Bass and Avolio (1990) state that transformational leadership does not detract from transactional leadership, but builds upon it. However, some have not found support for the claim that the transformational model is additive (Alatawi, 2017).

Notwithstanding the above, there is evidence to support Bass and Avolio's claims (Hater and Bass, 1988), particularly in the case of augmenting contingent reward (Waldman, Bass and Yammarino, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Goodwin, Wofford and Whittington, 2001) and for the assertion that transformational leadership can lead to better business outcomes like employee satisfactions and organizational commitment across several different industries (Darcy et al., 2014; Avolio et al.,

2004; Emery and Barker, 2007). Indeed, Bass and his collaborators would argue (indirectly supported by (Judge and Bono, 2000)) that more effective leaders would use both transactional and transformation styles (Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999, Bass, 1985, Bass et al., 2003).

To measure this, they developed a questionnaire that captures the 'full range of leadership' behaviors, i.e. transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire.

2.3 Measuring the Full Range of Leadership

Bass and Avolio (1994) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to measure leadership behaviors across eight scales and is the most frequently used measurement tool for measuring transformational and transactional leadership (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013). The questionnaire covers:

- four components of transformational leadership behaviors, along with
- three transactional behaviors contingent reward, management-by-exception active (continuous monitoring to maintain existing conditions, only taking corrective action when necessary), and management-by-exception passive (waiting for problems to occur before acting, failing to intervene), and
- laissez-faire (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939) – often called non-leadership (avoiding responsibilities, absent when needed).

Their work proposed that there is an optimal leadership mix of these scales where leaders should draw on mostly on transformational, some contingent reward, and less, but not zero, transactional passive behavior like management-by-exception and laissez-faire (the reverse being the sub-optimal case). This is represented in figure 2 in terms of effective and ineffective leadership behaviors which tend to mirror their active and passive designations.

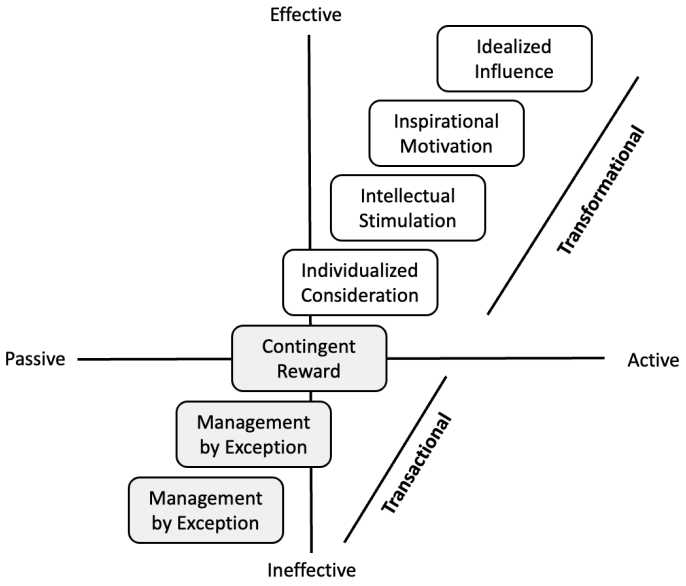

Figure 2. *Full Range of Leadership Model, adapted from (Robbins and Judge, 2007)*

The positioning by Bass (1988) of this optimal hierarchy of leadership styles is also supported by research to access the validity of the MLQ (Avolio, 1999; Hater and Bass, 1988; Wofford, Goodwin and Whittington, 1998). Bass (1985) argued that transformational behaviors augmented transactional behaviors which was verified by Hater and Bass (1988) however analysis by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) could find no such support.

There have also been several efforts to improve the reliability of the MLQ by expanding it to a 9-factor full range leadership model. This model is as per Avolio (1999), see figure 2, except management-by-exception is divided into two components: active, where a leader intervenes only to set controls to maintain standards, and passive, where a leader intervenes only when something goes wrong (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003). They found the MLQ to have a relative stable structure and classified management-by-exception (active) and contingent rewards to be transactional leadership behaviors.

Crucially, several researchers also found passive transactional behaviors (management-by-exception and laissez-faire) to be strongly correlated (0.70 - 0.83) with each other, and both were negatively correlated to contingent reward and the transformational behaviors (Antonakis et al., 2003; (Bycio et al., 1995; Tejeda et al., 2001; Wofford et al., 1998).

Avolio et al., 2003 extended the MLQ to develop and validate a Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to be used for assessing shared Leadership in teams.

2.4 Shared Leadership: Roles and Behaviors can Shift and be Shared

An increasing number of researchers have been investigating how leadership can be shared among team members, such that one team member with domain knowledge in one area can take on leadership responsibilities, while being content to play a follower role to other team members in other areas (Day, 2000; Pearce and Sims, 2002; Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004; Carson et al., 2007; Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009, Hoch, 2013; Aime et al., 2014; Lord et al., 2017; Lacerenza et al., 2018; Sweeney, Clarke and Higgs, 2019; Wu, Cormican and Chen, 2020) and its ability to transform knowledge-based work (Pearce, 2004, Liang and Gu, 2016)

Pearce and Conger (2003, p.1) define shared leadership as

> "*as a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both.... [L]eadership is broadly distributed among a set of individuals instead of centralized in [the] hands of a single individual who acts in the role of a superior*".

One thing that appears paradoxical, but for which there is general agreement, is that shared leadership is not a replacement for formally appointed leadership, and in fact it's generally agreed that traditional vertical leadership is an important factor in fostering shared leadership (Cox, Pearce and Perry, 2003; Houghton, Neck and Manz, 2003; Ensley et al., 2006; Carson et al., 2007; Fausing et al., 2015; Wu, Cormican and Chen, 2020) and creating the necessary preconditions for team-level leadership to occur (Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004). However, there is little agreement between researchers on what the antecedents are for shared leadership to emerge (Fransen et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018; Endres and Weibler, 2019).

Earlier works to determine antecedents to shared leadership captured a mix of team characteristics and other external factors like task complexity (Müller, Pintor and Wegge, 2018; Endres and Weibler, 2019). Pearce and Sims (2000) argued that it depended on team size, maturity, and familiarity, while Seers, Keller and Wilkerson (2003, p.78) proposed that shared leadership was

"*likely*" to happen based on certain conditions regarding group, task and environmental characteristics, and Bligh et al. (2006) suggest that, based on self-leadership research, it requires trust, team potency, commitment among team members to emerge. More recent work by Fausing et al., (2015), although it only examined a single organization, indicated that an empowering team leader and task interdependence were significant antecedents to the successful development of shared leadership.

Indeed, several other researchers attribute the emergence and success of shared leadership to the managers vertical leadership style. (Zhang, Waldman and Wang, 2012) observed that followers take on more informal leadership roles within the team when managers engaged their employees in more high-quality leader-member exchanges (LMX (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995)). Carson et al. (2007) determined that supportive coaching played a role while Chiu, Owens and Tesluk (2016) claim that by demonstrating humble behaviors (as encapsulated by Level 5 leadership (Collins, 2001, 2005) a manager can foster the conditions necessary to promote shared leadership towards building an effective team. But, both Margolis and Ziegert (2016), and Fransen et al. (2018) found that it was an empowering leadership style which encouraged shared leadership that led to positive outcomes. Furthermore, Sousa and Van Dierendonck (2016) cite empowerment and humility as key leadership style attributes, whereas Hoch (2013) showed that it was both empowering and transformational leadership styles that encouraged shared leadership and thus was positively related to innovation within teams. However, in their study, Wang et al. (2017) found that it was a servant leadership which accounted for the most variance in promoting shared leadership, even when controlling for the other leadership styles like empowering and transformational.

Today, the study of leadership not only focuses on the vertical relationship between a formally appointed authority and their subordinates (or followers), but also encompasses peers, supervisors, environments, organizational culture, and the complex social interactions between all these (Yukl and Gardner, 2020). However, despite all this, to date, there is no unified understanding of how shared leadership is formed or emerges within teams (Fransen et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018; Endres and Weibler, 2019). Perhaps there is something the management literature can learn from the world of sport.

2.5 Sport Participation Model

Meta-analytic studies have found specific facets and general constructs of the 5-factor model of personality (known as 'the Big 5' (Hough, 1992)) were correlated to Transformational leadership and predicted leadership style (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002). Although this research is not concerned with leader personality per se, there is good reason to suspect that an attitude or philosophical approach to sport may provide some insight. So much so, that Van Dalfsen et al. (2021) just recently initiated one of the first studies to qualitatively capture the leadership philosophy of ten Dutch football coaches on developing shared leadership abilities in their youth players.

One of the earliest models of sports participation was Dubois' (1980) Process and Product models. Someone who is Process inclined sees participation as an end in itself, what is important is the quality of the performance, not winning or losing, and there is a respect between opponents to bring out the best of each other. On the other hand, someone who was Product inclined see winning as the end goal, feeling superior is primary, the competition is secondary, and opponents are viewed as obstacles to success. Coakley (2009) evolved these into the Pleasure and Participation, and Power and Performance models to which were then enhanced by Aicinena (2002). The characteristics of these two models are detailed in table 1.

The Pleasure and Participation model emphasizes involvement and inclusion, where both participant and opponent are valued. Satisfaction is gained from execution of skills, and decisions are made, and power shared in a cooperative manner. The Power and Performance model emphasizes demonstrating excellence through success based on strength, speed and power. Achievement, the only success criteria, is valued more if it entailed hard work, sacrifice, and dedication to achieve it, and leverages technology to make improvements. There is a clear hierarchy of authority and leaders are clearly in control. Opponents are the enemy, therefore only the best should play as weakening the team risks losing. A 70 item questionnaire covering 5 sub-dimensions (Coaches and Athletes; Success, Winning and Losing; Health, Injuries, and Performance; View of Opponents; and Science and Technology) with 35 contrasting questions each expressing one or other of the two models, was developed (Aicinena, 2002) and then validated by Aicinena and Edridge (2006). The Sport Participation Model questionnaire (SPMQ) proved

useful in providing a continuum of scores that would be applicable in general sense for assessing individual orientation to sport participation.

Pleasure and Participation	Power and Performance
• Participation, connections between people (altruism, helping co-workers) • Ease of Personal expression and enjoyment, growth (express freedom over obedience) • Mutual concern among all participants • Willing to put up with for the greater good (sportsmanship). • Personal empowerment through the pleasure of the self-improvement process • Inclusive processes through which participation encouraged • Democratic decision making, characterised by cooperation and power sharing (give and take) • Competing with others, not against. • Authenticity, self, expression, enjoyment • Humiliation, shame, belittlement are inconsistent with values.	• Strength, speed, and power • Achievement of success through competition • Demonstrating excellence through competition and pushing limits • Excellent and success equals status, in the eyes of who they want to impress • Dedication, hard work and sacrifice towards achieving success • Disciplined and Monitored (not to check if out of line, but to set the bar and raise it higher) • Willingness to risk well-being in pursuit of success • Exclusivity through setting elite standards for inclusion (relegated to lower-status groups) • Strict authority hierarchy and control over individuals • Competing against opposition, defining them as the enemy

Table 1. *Characteristics of the Sports Participation Model*

3.0 Methodology

The conduct of this basic business research effort was guided by Babin et al. (2019), from refinement of the initial idea, through setting objectives, literature review, and data collection selection, and on to data gathering, data analysis and final write-up.

3.1 Research Philosophy

The aim of the research is to attempt to observe and measure how leader attitudes to sport, as opposed to leadership behaviors, may be associated with the emergence and prevalence of shared leadership behaviors within their teams. Of specific interest is the phenomenon of emergent shared leadership and not why leaders may hold certain attitudes to sport, or why team members react in certain ways to these attitudes. As such, the research is developed from an ontological position within a theoretical framework of positivism (Babin et al., 2019; Tuli, 2011). In line with this, a quantitative study was required, and it was proposed to use a survey method with data collected using questionnaires based on reliable and validated instruments.

3.2 Independent, Dependent, and Control Variables

To determine if either of, or perhaps both, the manager's leadership behavior and the manager's attitude to sport would show an association with the frequency of shard leadership behaviors displayed by the teams, three instruments were required to measure the two independent variables (manager leadership behaviors and manager attitude to sport) and the one dependent variable (team-level shared leadership). As two independent variables are identifed, to isolate the effects of each one on the single dependent variable, the statistical approach using partial correlation will control for each of them.

While gender is often used as a control variable in studies (Bernerth and Aguinis, 2015), in addition to country to control for cultural factors, it was decided not to control for either of these. The descriptive statistics showed a small difference, but not enough to be significantly different based on a t-test: two sample assuming unequal variances, between mean composite scores for sport

participation attitude for male (M = 18.27, S = 9.74, N=37) and female (M = 14.55, S = 5.78, N=20) participants. And by country it was even smaller (and not significant) for the two countries with the most respondents: Ireland (M = 17.76, S = 9.71, N= 37) and the USA (M = 17.46, S = 6.73, N= 13), while the remaining countries were UK (M = 12.75, S = 4.19, N= 4) and Others (M = 10.67, S = 3.06, N = 3). This is not unexpected. Although corporate cultures around the world differ, western European and North American corporate cultures are very similar in many ways (Cheng and Groysberg, 2020).

3.3 Instrument Selection

As there is one widely used approach to measuring full range leadership behaviors and very limited options for assessing leader attitudes to sport, selection of the Multifactor Leader Questionnaire and the Sport Participation Model Questionnaire was assured. However, there are three approaches to measuring and modeling shared leadership (Gockel and Werth, 2010) and they all rely on a survey/questionnaire approach. These three approaches are discussed next.

3.3.1 Measuring Shared Leadership in Teams

There are three approaches to researching and measuring shared leadership with teams. These approaches use one of two methods: (a)methods that rate the overall team experience the member belongs to, or (b) methods where each member rates themselves and/or other members of the team in terms of leadership experiences.

Bass and Avolio's Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (1996) has been used successfully in other shared leadership research studies (Carson et al., 2007). It's provided a high-level team view and doesn't rely on team members having worked with others for an extended period of time, nor is dependent of team members moving in and out of the group. However, as it takes an overview of the team experience, it will not be able to provide more insight on individual team member behaviors and interactions.

The other two approaches, Social Network analysis (Mayo,Meindl and Pastor, 2003) and the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (Kenny, 1996), required team members to assess the leadership exchanges between each other and their own leader qualities. While these approaches

are time-consuming and really require each team member to be well known to each other to be effective, they do provide deeper insight into both the strength and symmetry of the relationships and provides deeper insight into complexities of the multi-level mutual interactions over and above the type of influences.

However, as this research is primarily concerned with managers and shared leadership as a group-level phenomenon, as opposed to understanding team member interdependencies, the team experience ratings from the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (TMLQ) will be appropriate for this study.

For practicality reasons, only the team leader was selected to be the TMLQ rater. While this avoids one of the downsides of the TMLQ, i.e., aggregation of scores, it does introduce the issue of common source bias and possible common method. To mitigate against these several procedural remedies (Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012) were applied to the construction of the survey questionnaire. Firstly, the instrument to assess the dependent variable (frequency of observed team shared leadership behaviors) was placed at the start of the questionnaire with the self-rated leadership behaviors instrument coming later. This was to avoid any potential influence coming from independent variable answers the rater might recall. Secondly, the other predictor, or independent variable, the Sport Participation Model Questionnaire instrument was placed in the middle of the two leadership questionnaires. The intention was to move the rater to a completely different set of scale properties, a two point agree/disagree scale versus a five point 'Not at all … Frequently or always' Likert scale, before attempting the leader assessment questionnaire. In addition, the team questionnaire was a 45 question, 9-factor instrument while the leader questionnaire was a 21 question, 5-factor instrument which provided differently worded questions providing further psychological separation.

3.4 Instrument Reliability

Although some researchers have questioned and raised concerns regarding the validity of aspects of the MLQ (van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013; Yukl and Gardner, 2020), since the introduction of the MLQ-1 (Bass, 1985) it has evolved (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass and Avolio, 1996) and the reliability and validity of the instrument been constantly evaluated with several assessments

which have generally found predictive and construct validity, highly intercorrelated items in support of convergent validity and appropriate negative correlations indicating support of discriminatory validity (Bycio et al, 1995; Hater and Bass, 1988; Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008; Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Lowe et al, 1996; Tejeda et al., 2001). Several studies found the scales stable in predicting positive organizational outcomes in a variety of settings (Lowe et al, 1996; Bass and Riggio, 2006) and it is the most widely used instrument for assessing a full range of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors (Tejeda et al., 2001, van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013).

3.4.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Self-Rater)

The shortened form of Bass and Avolio's (1994) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 6-S (Northouse, 2001), consisting of 21 questions was used to measure the self-rated frequency of transformational and transactional leaderships behaviors for each leader. For example: "I make others feel good to be around me" and is rated on a 5-point Likert scale: 0-Not at all, 1-Once in a while, 2-Sometimes, 3-Fairly often, and 4-Frequently, if not always. This instrument is the most researched and validated leadership instrument in the world according to Tejeda (2001) whose analysis found (except for management-by-exception-active. 0.69) that the consistency reliabilities (Chronbach alpha) were above the acceptable minimum of 0.70 as suggested by Nunnally (1978).

3.4.2 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Team)

Bass and Avolio (1996) extended the Leadership Multifactor Questionnaire to teams. This instrument was validated over three studies for use as a suitable method for accessing shared leadership at the team level (Avolio et al., 2003). The individual intercorrelations were found to be consistent with assessments of the transactional and transformational leadership scales at the leader level (Lowe et al., 1996). Scale reliabilities were evaluated using structural equation modeling according to Fornell and Larcker (1981) and all scales (except for management-by-exception (active) interestingly and at 0.66 marginally acceptable) were found to be at or above minimum standards (0.80) (Avolio et al., 2003). There are 45 questions to the rater of the form: "Members of my team instill pride in being associated with each other", for example and are rated on a 5-point Likert scale: 0-Not at all, 1-Once in. awhile, 2-Sometimes, 3-Fairly often, and 4-Frequently or always.

3.4.3 Sport Participation Model Questionnaire

The Sport Participation Model Questionnaire (SPMQ) is a 70 item agree/disagree instrument based on characteristics of the Power and Performance and Pleasure and Participation models of sport, with 35 questions corresponding to each of the 2 models. Respondents are asked if they agree or disagree with statements such as "Winning is not the most significant measure of success in the sport experience", for example. A score of 0 is assigned to answers that reflect Pleasure and Participation and 1 is assigned to answers that reflect Power and Performance. The answers are totaled to give a composite score. To validate the instrument a test-retest method was conducted which resulted in an intercorrelation of 0.9506 with an equal-length Spearman-Brown Coefficient of 0.7038. The individual items and composite score were found to have acceptable levels of reliability as set out by Ferguson and Takane (1989). The composite score is used as an independent variable in this study.

3.5 Statistical Approach

The following approach was used to gather and analyze the data. The data was analyzed using IBM SPSS version 27 with the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2021) for moderation analysis, and a number of graphs were generated using Microsoft Excel.

3.5.1 Participants and Procedure

The hypotheses were tested by conducting quantitative research on a convenience sample of 57 managers who were solicited via social media and email (Appendix D and E) and provided with a link to an anonymous online survey (Appendix F). The survey cover page explained the purpose of the survey and tried to pre-empt any concerns or questions participants may have. No extra effort was made to randomize the sample. Overall, the sample managers were from large high-tech multinational corporations based in California, USA, with significant European presence in Dublin, Ireland.

The online survey was open for two weeks with over two thirds of respondents (N=45) participating in the first week. A follow up email was sent at the start of the following week which

saw and additional (N=17) respondents. The survey was closed after two weeks to enable analysis of the data to proceed.

3.5.2 Measures and Method

The three existing and reliable instruments as described above were used to assess, each manager's transformational and transactional/passive leadership behaviors, their attributes towards sports, and the frequency of shared leadership behaviors displayed by their teams.

Similar to the approach taken by Felfe and Schyns (2004) to examine the similarity relationship of transformational leader styles between manager and their superiors, partial correlation was used measure the strength of the relationships between the team shared leadership behaviors and both the manager leadership behaviors and their attitude to sports, while controlling for the effects of each other separately. For this study the alpha level was set to 0.1 (lower significance levels will be indicated) due to the nature of the experiment and increased evidence (Dallal, 2020). The strengths of correlations categorized according to Dancey and Reidy (2007) as show in table 2.

Strength	Correlation Coefficient		
Perfect	+/- 1		
Strong	+/- 0.9	+/- 0.8	+/- 0.7
Moderate	+/- 0.6	+/- 0.5	+/- 0.4
Weak	+/- 0.3	+/- 0.2	+/- 0.1
None	0		

Table 2. Interpretation of Correlation Coefficients, adapted from Dancey and Reidy (2007)

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Prior to the commencement of this research study a full and complete ethical review of the research question and handling of potential data to be collected was undertaken. The survey method approach for the quantitative research was via an online questionnaire which is securely hosted by a contracted third-party company. Participated were advised that the survey could be voluntarily taken on-line and would be completely anonymous. Each were informed of the purpose of the research and the explicit use of the data with regards to this dissertation and that data would only be held as long as necessary per a data retention policy as it related to the college.

There are no medical or vulnerable groups involved in this study.

Participants were also advised that they could opt out of the survey at any time as per recommendation by Tyldum (2012). The survey was estimated to take between 15 and 19 minutes to complete (actual average time was 22 m 51s) which was thought to be onerous. In appreciation of potential participants commitment and time, an inducement was offered whereby they could leave an anonymous email address and a report of their self-assessed leadership behaviors would be prepared and sent directly to them. 40% of the responds took up this offer.

3.6 Descriptive Statistics

Six participants abandoned the survey mid-way through so their data was discarded. With the remaining participants (N = 57), there were no missing values.

The gender composition of the sample is strongly biased towards males (65% to 35% female) but is not surprising as females make up almost half the workforce but represent only 25% of the technology industry (White, 2020). As this was a convenience sample it was expected to see Ireland (65%) as the country representing most participants. Descriptive statistics are detailed in table 3 below.

Descriptive Statistics (N = 57)		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	37	65%
Female	20	35%
Position		
Senior Leader	4	7%
Manager of Managers	20	35%
First Line Manger	29	51%
Team Leader	3	5%
Project Manager	1	2%
Industry Experience (Years)		
1-5	17	30%
6-10	18	32%
11-15	8	14%
15+	14	25%
Tenure with Team (Years)		
0-1	8	14%
2-3	27	47%
3-5	14	25%
5-10	8	14%
10+	0	0%
Team Composition		
All Male	7	12%
Mostly Male	25	44%
Mixed	17	30%
Mostly Female	7	12%
All Female	1	2%
Country		
Ireland	37	65%
USA	13	23%
United Kingdom	4	7%
Sweden, New Zealand, Canada	3	5%

Table 3. *Descriptive Statistics (N = 57)*

4.0 Findings

Only the first hypothesis H1 held, however, the rejected hypotheses present far more interesting findings. As the rejection of hypothesis H2 provides the foundation and a possible rationalization for the rejection for hypotheses H3a and H3b, the findings start out with it, followed by H3a and H3b, then followed by H1. The final section is findings regarding gender analysis.

4.1 Hypothesis H2: Team Leadership Influence Source

Previous literature indicates that the way people learn leadership skills is from observing and being are influenced by those who are in leadership positions. According to Posner (2021), after parents, the most important role model for people on how to lead is their immediate manager or supervisor. Since leadership is a not a person, nor a personality, but a behavior in building relationships, Burns (1978) postulates that if a leader was practicing transforming leadership behaviors or building a mutual relationship of encouragement and improvement, then that should, in theory, convert followers into leaders. He suggests that top-level leaders would be highly influential as role models as they could extend their influence as it trickled down and fanned out along each succeeding and expanding layer of followers below them. Although good leaders don't need charisma (Stadler and Dyer, 2013), highly visible charismatic leaders are more likely to serve as role models. Even so, people tend to replicate the behaviors of their own immediate manager who provide them with organizational, cultural, and supervisory cues and by perpetuating normative standards (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Similarly, in accordance with Social Learning theory, even though behaviors can be learned through reward and punishment techniques (not the ideal nor most effective course of action), it states that the behaviors exhibited by people are learned, either deliberately or inadvertently, by being influenced by people leaders setting an example. This practice is particularly suited to situations where complex relationships, like office politics for example, can be more adeptly passed on via social queues, as opposed to everyone having to learn as a result of their own experience with potentially disastrous consequences (Bandura, 1978). Bass et al., (1987) describes this cascading effect of learned leadership through role modeling as the 'falling dominos' effect. Their study of a government agency generally found support for subordinates of leaders who demonstrated transformational behaviors also adopting similar

transformational strategies. However, in terms of transactional behaviors, the results were mixed. They observed that contingent reward practices were also replicated but not management-by-exception.

Primary Data

In this study, when the Leader's Leadership Behaviors were correlated with the Team's Leadership Behaviors, while controlling for the Leaders Sport Participation Model Questionnaire composite score, the research found that only three of the nine team leadership behaviors correlated significantly. Inspirational Motivation was weakly correlated (r=0.352, p=0.008), Influence Attitude (-0.440, p=0.001) was negatively moderately correlated, and Intellectual Stimulation positively moderately correlated as shown in table 4.

	Team Leadership Behavior Correlations (Controlled for Leader Attitude to Sport)								
	Transformational					**Transactional/Passive**			
	TIA	**TIB**	**TIM**	**TIS**	**TIC**	**TCR**	**TMBEA**	**TMBEP**	**TLF**
LII	-.440 / .001 ***	-.049 / .718							
LIM			.352 / .008 **						
LIS				.473 / 0.001 ***					
LIC					-.222 / 0.1				
LCR						.202 / .136			
LMBE							.131 / .336	-.011 / .933	
LLF									-.134 / .325

Table 4. *Team Leadership Behavior Correlations (controlled for Leader Attitude to Sport) Format Correlation/Significance (2-tailed), (level: * <0.1, ** <0.05, *** <001), Legend next pg.*

Legend Team level: TIA=Idealized Attributes, TIB Idealized Behavior TIM= Inspirational Motivation TIS= Intellectual Stimulation TIC= Individualized Consideration, TCR= Contingent Reward, TMBEA=Management by Exception (Passive), TMBEP=Management by Exception (Passive), TLF=Laissez-Faire, Leader level : LII Idealized Influence (Attitude and Behavior), LIM= Inspirational Motivation LIS= Intellectual Stimulation LIC= Individualized Consideration, LCR= Contingent Reward, LMBE=Management by Exception (Active and Passive), LLF=Laissez-Faire

However, when the Leaders Sport Participation Model Questionnaire composite scores was correlated with the Team's Leadership Behaviors, while controlling for the Leader's Leadership Behaviors, seven of the nine Team Leadership Behaviors were significantly correlated. Influence attitude (r=0.333, p=0.018) and Individualized Consideration (r=0.272, p=0.002) were positively and weakly correlated, Inspirational Motivation (r=-0.276, p=0.053) and Intellectual Stimulation (r= -.390, p=0.005) were weakly and negatively correlated, and Contingent Reward (r=-0.419 , p=0.002) and Management by Exception Active (r=-0.428 , p=0.002) were moderately negative correlated, and Laisses-Faire (r=-0.269 , p=0.059) weakly negatively correlated, as shown below in table 5.

	Team Leadership Behavior Partial Correlations (Controlled for Leader Leadership Behaviors)								
	Transformational					**Transactional/Passive**			
	TIA	**TIB**	**TIM**	**TIS**	**TIC**	**TCR**	**TMBEA**	**TMBEP**	**TLF**
SPMQ	.333 / .018**	.065 / .655	-.276 / .053 *	-.390 / 0.005 **	.272 / .056 *	-.419 / .002 **	-.428 / .002 **	-218 / .129	-269 / .059 *

Table 5. *Team Leadership Behavior Partial Correlations (Controlled for Leader Leadership Behaviors) Format Correlation/Significance (2-tailed), (level: * <0.1, ** <0.05, *** <001)*

Legend Team level TIA=Influence Attitude TIB Influence Behavior TIM= Inspirational Motivation TIS= Intellectual Stimulation TIC= Individualized Consideration, TCR= Contingent Reward, TMBEA=Management by Exception (Passive), TMBEP=Management by Exception (Passive), TLF=Laissez-Faire, SPMQ = Sports Participation Model Questionnaire composite score.

Therefore, hypothesis H2 is not supported by the data, and is rejected.

Implication

This findings in this study contradict the existing literature. While half of the transformational leadership behaviors are modeled by the team, leader idealized influence is significantly negatively correlated with the idealized attribute influence behavior with the team. This inconsistency may be related to other research in which leaders who were judged to be high on charisma and influence, did not seek to require high charisma or influence from their own superiors (Conger and Kanungo, 1988a). Or perhaps a factor highlighted by Tichy and Ulrich, (1984) is at play. They argue that although while line managers may share a common vision with a charismatic influencing leader, there will be, by necessity, different approaches towards the practical implantation of influencing. There is not a single pattern of leadership in an organization, different levels have more immediate and practical concerns (Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Therefore, a manager who is thoughtfully and intentionally trying to develop their own transformational leadership skills, with the expectation that these behaviors will uniformly trickle down into their team to aid their shared leadership development, may be better learning two things from these findings: (a) their attitude to sport could have a broader influence on the development of the full range of leadership skills (beyond just transformational) for their team, and (b) all the transformational behaviors may not have the desired positive influence modeling outcome.

4.2 Hypothesis H3a: Transactional/Passive Behaviors and Contingent Rewards

Leadership scholars (e.g. Bass 1985; Podsakoff et al., 1990) categorize the three leadership behaviors of contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive) as Transactional leadership behaviors, and laissez-faire as Passive/non-leadership. Several researchers advocate that laissez-faire and management-by-exception (the passive aspect in particular) should be combined into a single factor (Den Hartog, Muijen and Koopman, 1997; Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008;) and accordingly, for this study they are grouped.

4.2.1 Transactional Leadership Parallels to Pleasure and Participation Model

It was hypothesized that teams would display more transactional leadership behaviors when their leaders' attitude to sport was more towards the Pleasure and Participation end of the scale. The Pleasure and Participation model emphasizes democratic participation with decision making represented by cooperation and sharing of power and the sharing of ideas and knowledge. Control is directed towards maintaining inclusivity over hierarchy and differentiation, and security is valued over risk. It's a safe place to learn as success is the process of self-improvement and doesn't require someone to lose (Aicinena, 2002; Aicinena and Eldridge, 2006; Coakley, 2009).

These values and attitudes align with many facets of transactional/passive leadership in terms of being hands-off, empowerment, participative decision making, social exchange, and learning.

4.2.2 Passive-Avoidant Behaviors Highly Correlated

Taking the Pleasure and Participation model to the extreme, could be considered akin to Laissez-faire leadership which is described as passive-avoidant or non-leadership (Yukl and Gardner, 2020). Although it is considered destructive in terms of role ambiguity and raising conflict (Skogstad et al., 2007), and ineffective as a leadership approach (Bass and Avolio, 1994), it still retains its position as an element of full range leadership behaviors (Avolio, 1999). While Yang (2015) argues there are some benefits to laissez-faire and has some support from others in terms of innovation, albeit weekly (Ryan and Tipu, 2013), and empowerment, as in not micromanaging (Chen et al., 2011), more than a little laissez-faire is not optimal (Avolio, 1999).

Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) found that laissez-faire and management-by-exception (passive) are highly correlated. Management-by-exception (both passive and active), i.e., correction and close supervision, does equate to bad leadership, since high-performance teams impose mutual accountability (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993a). Teams that compete with each other, versus against each other, need to leverage a range of options like coercive and aversive tactics, and social exchange, which are associated with transactional leadership (Tepper, 1993).

4.2.3 Learning Benefits of Social Exchange and Contingent Reward

Social exchange (Emerson, 1976) operationalized as contingent reward is the biggest element of transactional leadership and helps produce positive outcomes like better work relations, trust, and commitment (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Settoon, Bennett and Liden, 1996; Cropanzano and

Mitchell, 2005). Bass and colleagues viewed it as clarifying expectations ('if I do this, then will you do that', essentially a negotiation) and recognizing achievements between each other (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994). Gouldner (1960) maintained that in society and organizations reciprocity is a norm and that people feel compelled to help those who have helped them (the exchange does not have to be equivalent.) Helpfulness and reciprocity are crucial to positive and effective organizational behavior (Katz and Kahn, 1978), moreover, it helps sustain competitive advantage, ensuring knowledge is shared and stays withing the company (Porter, 1985).

4.2.4 Knowledge Sharing

And knowledge sharing (along with empowerment, complexity, and dependency) is important for shared leadership in team-based knowledge work (Fausing et al., 2015; Bligh, Pearce and Kohles, 2006). The Pleasure and Participation model's prioritization of sharing and the learning process over product is key to creating a psychologically safe (Edmondson, 1999) environment. Rozovsky's (2015) Aristotle project at Google investigating team effectiveness identified psychological safety as the most important factor. Furthermore, according to Day et. al., (2004), learning, team effectiveness and psychological safety are all core building blocks for developing leadership capacity in teams.

4.2.5 Empowerment Through Decision Making Control

Participation and democratic decision making are characteristics of the Pleasure and Participation model. Although managers acknowledge that developing subordinates and empowering them to do their work are important reasons for delegation, with delegation through control of decision making (Leana, 1986), many managers are reluctant to give up control over important decisions (Yukl and Fu, 1999). However, control of making decisions in return for fulfilling whatever is agreed is an expected contingent reward tactic of transactional leaders (Bass, 1985). Atwater and Bass (1994) propose that transactional leadership is appropriate for what they call routine and repetitive decisions which are formulaic and controlled with low risk and little uncertainty. Complex decision delegation, where the problems is novel and uncertain and requires prudent judgement and creativity, should be a tool for transformation leaders.

4.2.6 Empirical Studies

Transactional/passive leadership behaviors, like management-by-exception and laissez-faire, are strongly correlated with each other and negatively correlated to contingent reward and transformational behaviors. This is supported by several empirical studies which include contingent reward as a transactional behavior (Avolio et al., 1999; Hater and Bass, 1988; Antonakis et al., 2003). They found passive behaviors, like laissez-faire and management-by-exception to be highly correlated with each other, as did (Den Hartog et al., 1997), with contingent reward being a distinct factor. Moreover, others have found contingent reward to have a small negative correlation to the other transactional behaviours (Tejeda et al., 2001). In addition, several studies show that while transformational behaviors are positively related to desirable leader and organizational outcomes, transactional behaviors relate negatively (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bycio et al., 1995; Waldman et al., 1990; Hater and Bass, 1988; Bass et al., 2003). Wofford et al. (1998) also observed a strong correlation between contingent reward and the transformational behaviors, and that both were significantly and negatively correlated to transactional behavior. Dumdum et al., (2002), in a follow up to (Lowe et al., 1996) confirmed that contingent reward is strongly related to transformational leadership measures, but does not affect positive organizational outcomes as much (Goodwin et al., 2001; Piccolo et al., 2012)

Primary Data (Transactional/Passive)

Figures 3(a-d) illustrate the transactional correlations detailed in table 5 above. All the transactional leadership behaviors are negatively correlated to the managers Sports Participation Model Questionnaire score. As expected, laissez-faire and management-by exception are both similarly correlated, however, it was not expected to see Contingent Rewards correlated likewise. Therefore hypothesis H3a is rejected.

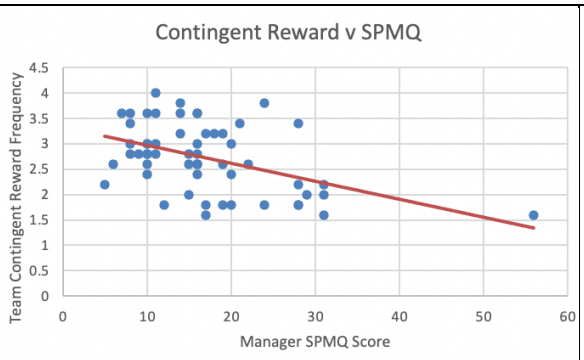

Figure 3(a). *Team Contingent Reward Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

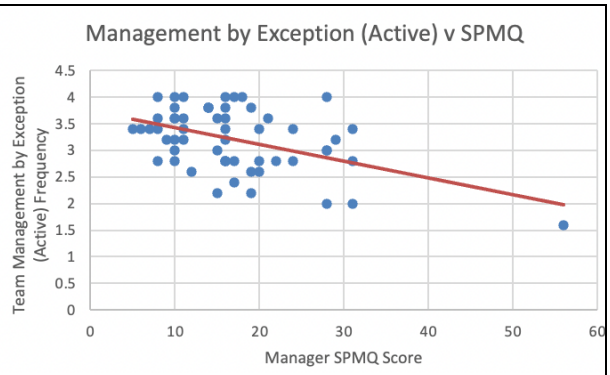

Figure 3(b). *Team Management by Exception (Active) Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

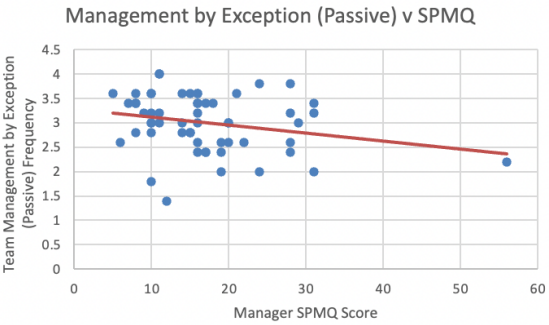

Figure 3(c). *Team Management by Exception (Active) Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

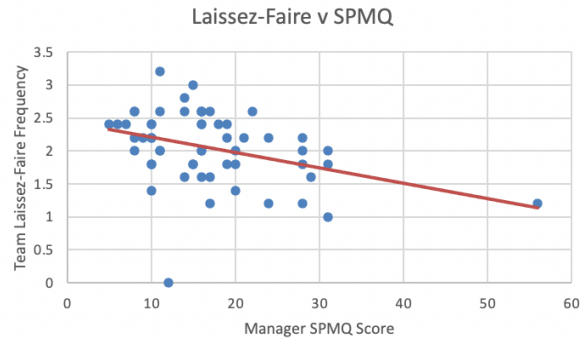

Figure 3(d). *Team Laissez-Faire Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

Implications

The findings, as indicated by figures 3(b-d) for laissez-faire, and management by exception, both active and passive, show that managers with an orientation strongly towards the pleasure and participation model end of the sports participation model questionnaire, appear to influence the increased usage of passive and non-leadership behaviors within their teams. While some is necessary and appropriate at times, overuse is unhelpful. As managers already tend to distinctly situate themselves towards the pleasure and participation end of the model (as will be shown in findings on hypothesis H1 further below), managers therefore would benefit from being aware of

how far along the scale their attitude to sport is as they may be instinctively using methods that are ineffective.

The finding that contingent reward also correlates with the passive transactional behaviors contradicts existing literature. This seems to imply that there are other factors or dynamics regarding shared leadership in teams relating to the implicit behaviors a manager is modelling or implementing which are possibly influenced by their attitude to sport. This requires further discussion.

4.3 Hypothesis H3b: Power and Performance Linked to Transformational

It was hypothesized that teams would display more transformational leadership behaviors when their leaders' attitude to sport was more analogous to the Power and Performance end of the Sports Participation scale. This end of the scale emphasizes achievement, obedience to hierarchy, control, pushing past limits, driven self-efficacy towards a goal, willing to take risks, propelled by purpose and meaning, and differentiation from others. These attributes align with many qualities of transformational leadership (idealized influence, individual consideration, inspiration motivation, and intellectual stimulation) which are often typified as setting high expectations, driving vision and motivation, stimulating accomplishment of challenging problems and, personal attention and mentoring (Bass and Stogdill, 1990, Bass and Avolio, 1994; Robbins and Judge, 2007). Transformational leadership goes to the core an individual's motivation towards self-efficacy, purpose, and impact for the greater good.

From the existing theory literature, according to McClelland (1961) people are motived by three things: achievement, power, and affiliation. Affiliation fits with the Pleasure and Participation model but power, and in particular achievement orient to the Power and Performance end of the scale. This was exemplified in an experiment by French (1955) where three groups of motivated people were given a task challenge to repeat. Those set with a target stuck to the task longer just to get better and test their limits, as opposed to the group who had the same task but no target, or those who were incentivized extrinsically. Similar results on motivation have been found by

Herzberg (1968), Deci (1971) and Pink (2009). Although Tepper (1993), observed that transformational leaders tended to use legitimizing tactics (like authority versus exchanges) to gain team alignment, Bass (1985) reasons that, a leader who raises the level of awareness and understanding of the importance and value of an outcome and vision or purpose, enables the forgoing of self-interest for the sake of the team, not a transactional exchange. While there are extrinsic/transactional motivators like moving up the 'corporate ladder' as a reward for self-development (Lawler, 2003), intrinsic motivation creates a more powerful and virtuous cycle. For example, managers who are supportive towards employee needs enhance well-being (Deci and Ryan, 2000) and promote autonomy (through increased competence) which advances self-efficacy and thus drives the adoption of more intrinsic goals (Ryan and Deci, 2020).

Based on the existing research data, it is known that the benefits of considerate and supportive actions by managers toward building relationships with employees are well known from the Ohio State and Michigan University studies (Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Fleishman and Harris, 1998; Hersey, Blanchard and Natemeyer, 1979; House, 1971; Likert, 1979; Schriesheim and Bird, 1979). However, for a transformational leader, consideration is particularly individualized with regard to helping employees achieve their personal goals, to continuously improve, and to set themselves apart from others. Differentiation through individualized consideration, is personified by transformational leader and billionaire industrialist, J. Paul Getty. He was very considerate to anyone in need, worked closely with his managers by giving them as much responsibility they could take, however, he quickly fired the ones who struggled (Bass, 1985).

More recent research data indicates that individual transformational leadership behaviors are correlated and positively associated with effective leadership and organizational outcomes. Several studies consistently show that transformational leadership behaviors are positively and more strongly related to desired leadership and organizational outcomes than transactional behaviors (Hater and Bass, 1988; Lowe et al., 1996; Dumdum et al., 2002), particularly when they are aggregated (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Den Hartog, Muijen and Koopman, 1997). Bass's (1985) argument that transformational behaviors would augment transactional behaviors (but not vice versa) is also supported in several studies (Hater and Bass, 1988; Waldman et al., 1990, (Bycio et al., 1995).

Primary Data

Figures 4(a-e) illustrate the transformational correlations detailed in Table 5 above. The findings contradict what was expected. While the idealized influence (attributes figure 4(a) and behaviors figure 4(b)) and individual consideration (figure 4(c)) are similarly positively correlated, however, both intellectual stimulation (figure 4(d)) and inspirational motivation (figure 4(e)) are not. Moreover, to reiterate the point as discovered in the finding on the transactional behaviors, neither is contingent reward. As shown in figure 3(a) above, it is similarly correlated to the transformational behaviors. Therefore, hypothesis H3b is also rejected.

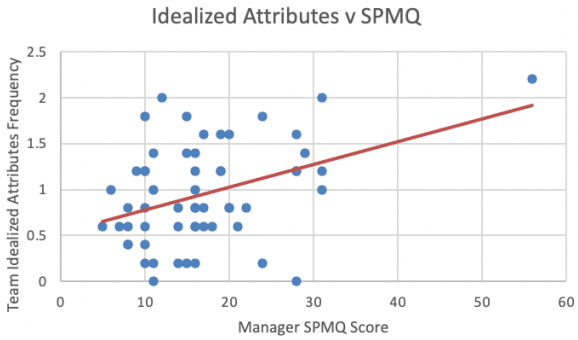

Figure 4(a). *Team Idealized Attributes Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

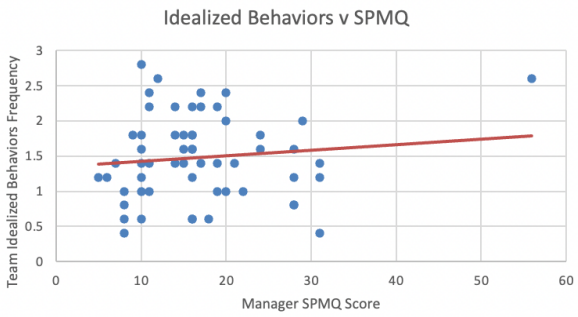

Figure 4(b). *Team Idealized Behaviors Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

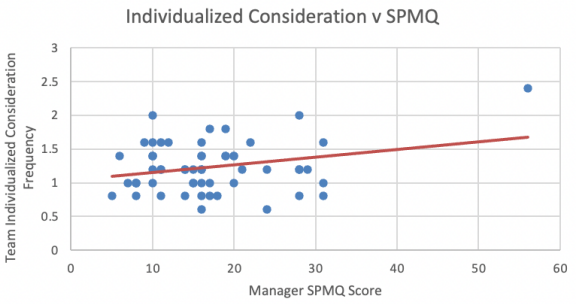

Figure 4(c). *Team Individualized Consideration Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

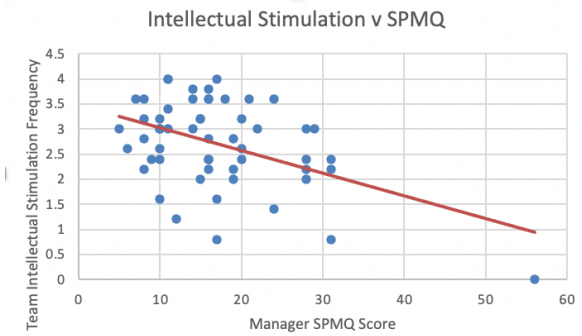

Figure 4(d). *Team Intellectual Stimulation Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

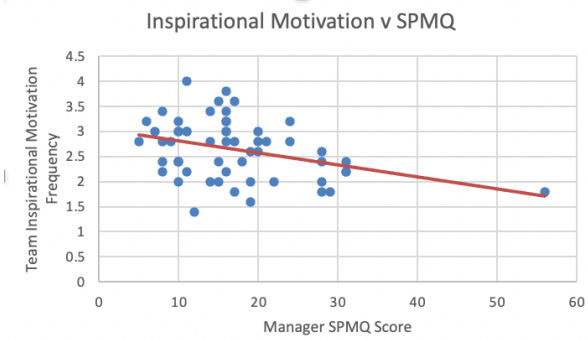

Figure 4(e). *Team Inspirational Motivation Frequency versus Manager SPMQ Score*

Implications

From the literature, it was expected that the transformational behaviors displayed by the team would all be similarly correlated, including contingent reward, and be positively correlated with the leader's attitude to sport as it oriented towards the power and performance model, as there are many similar characteristics and emphasis between it and transformational leadership. The combination of the findings in relation to the rejection of hypothesis H3a, and these findings for the rejection of hypothesis H3b, lead to the inference that the existing literature on individual leadership is not fully applicable to shared leadership in teams, and the scant research there is measuring shared leadership in teams with the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, is not reflective or fully supporting of commercial settings. There seems to be a dynamic to leadership within teams that is not fully captured by the instruments.

4.4 Hypothesis 1: The Shift Emergent Leadership in Teams.

From the literature, it is anticipated that several trends in the working environment that is expecting to influence and probably shape manager attitudes towards team structures, composition, and the development of affective and cognitive behaviors.

(Tannenbaum et al., 2012) draw attention to three important changes in the working environment that are affecting teams and how they are led: dynamic composition, technology and distance, and empowerment and delayering. Organizations are increasingly looking to flatten hierarchies and rely more and more on teams to be the unit of how complex and ambiguous work gets done (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993a, 1993b). Older team models like McGrath's (1984) Input-Process-Output model which is better suited to structured teams working on problems with clearly defined boundaries and set times for predetermined output or service, are no longer sufficient (Mathieu et al., 2008). Cause and effect models are limited for complex issues (Hackman, 2012) and not widely tested (Yukl and Gardner, 2020). Leaders are being influenced by Zaccaro, Rittman and Marks (2001) reciprocal proposition where the dynamic interactions of leaders and team members are shaped over time. Modern organizational designs, especially software development companies, are far more complex. Artifacts like team knowledge, abilities, leader skills and experience, influence, core processes, and how they all effect team performance is better reflected in Ilgen et al.'s (2005) input-mediator-output-input (IMOI) model, and leaders are embracing that complexity.

The complexity is driving leaders to be more cognizant of the need to adapt their team structures to support team types like virtual teams, software development teams, and teams with non-hierarchical leadership structures (Ensley, Hmieleski and Pearce, 2006). They must account for team competencies (Salas, Sims, and Burke, 2005), team processes (Marks, Mathieu and Zaccaro, 2001), and interpersonal processes (Shuffler, DiazGranados and Salas, 2011), and also provide the required supporting and coordinating mechanisms, which, depending on the stage of the team's life and the team's tasks, will have varying degrees of relevance. For team members to thrive inside these structures, leaders must evolve a variety of leadership capabilities and perspectives, such as intrapersonal and business skills (Hogan & Warrenfeltz, 2003)

Leaders are having to re-orient their traditional to-down leadership perceptions to the increasing use of self-managed teams across industries like military, health care, and technology (Ensley et al., 2006, Carson et al., 2007). This means that leadership is increasingly self-directed and shared across team members (Aime et al., 2014).

Primary Data

In an experiment by Aicinena and Eldridge (2006) a sample of coaches, parents, colleges students and youths took the Sport Participation Model Questionnaire. The mean composite score was 21.28 (M=21.28, S=8.47, N=263).

This research found that the mean score for the managers who participated was 16.96 (M=16.96, S=8.69, N=57), see table 6 below.

SPMQ Composite Score	
Mean	16.96491228
Standard Error	1.150886362
Median	16
Mode	16
Standard Deviation	8.689001489
Sample Variance	75.49874687
Kurtosis	5.974734
Skewness	1.834799859
Range	51
Minimum	5
Maximum	56
Sum	967
Count	57
Confidence Level(95.0%)	2.305502424

Table 6. *SPMQ Composite Score Descriptive Statistics*

To test if the means of the two sample populations could be the same, a one sample t-test was performed using this research data against the mean reported by Aicinena and Eldridge (2006). The null hypothesis is there is no difference between the means of the two populations, therefore, the alternate hypothesis that is tested is that there is a difference in means between the two populations. The t-test reported a significance p-value of (p=0.0004) which is less than the alpha (v=0.05) therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and it is claimed that there is enough evidence to infer that the means of the two populations are different.

Implication

The data supports hypothesis H1. While both samples are limited in size, taking what has been found, the implication is that managers are very much inclined towards being team oriented with its strong emphasis on sharing, democracy, and inclusivity. Members with a 'team value orientation' are generally agreed to be more productive when assigned to work on a team than those with a more 'individual orientation' (Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004; Driskell, Salas and Hughes, 2010; Mathieu et al., 2008; Salas, Sims and Burke, 2005)). They understand the need to share knowledge, and that as a team it is about competing with, not against each other. Moreover, as is typical of many multinational software development companies setting up in Dublin, Ireland, Workday, as one example, had over 30 different nationalities in a workforce of about 400 (O'Toole, 2015; Workday, 2015)). A pleasure and participation orientation is conducive to new approaches that de-emphasises differences in team members and debunks several assumption about team effectiveness (Feitosa, Grossman and Salazar, 2018).

4.5 Other Finding: No Gender differences at the Leader level

Gender is often used as a control variable in studies (Bernerth and Aguinis, 2015), but the research on gender and leadership behaviors is mixed. According to (Bass and Riggio, 2006) a common stereotype that pervades the literature is that males are task oriented, and being relation-oriented is regarded to be more feminine. This task-relation gender divide is supported by (Fowler and Rosenfeld, 1979) and other research indicating female leaders exhibit more enabling behaviours while males displayed more challenging (intellectual stimulation) behaviours (Brandt and Laiho, 2013) or that females were more participate (Jago and Vroom, 1982). Even where studies conclude that overall, there is no significant difference in leader effectiveness or performance, female leaders tend to emphasize or rate themselves higher on the interpersonal sub-dimensions like consideration (Day and Stogdill, 1972; Hackman et al., 1992; Carless, 1998).

Although a meta-analysis of work organizations showed no significant difference between male and female leaders (Eagly and Johnson, 1990), a more recent study by (Suranga-Silva and Mendis

(2017) of companies in the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) industry looked at the Full Range Leadership Model and found that female leaders displayed more transformational behaviors than males, and males tended to display more transactional and laissez-faire behaviors than females.

In the context of the sports participation attitude model, sports images in magazines have a clear gender divide. Pictures that conveyed a pleasure and participation setting mainly featured female athletes (Curry, Arriagada and Cornwell, 2002). Given this data, it was expected that there would be a gender divide on attitudes to sport with leaders also.

Primary Data

Analysis was performed to determine if there was any significant variance in the frequency of team leadership behaviors displayed moderated by the gender of the manager or leader. None of the overall models were statically significant, suggesting that gender has no effect on the emergence of shared leadership within teams with respect to the orientation of leader attitude to sport. However, there was a visible pattern in the data, see figure 5(a-c).

Team Management by Exception (Active)	**Team Inspirational Motivation**
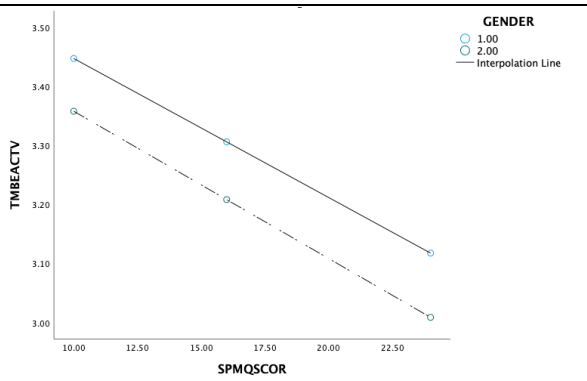	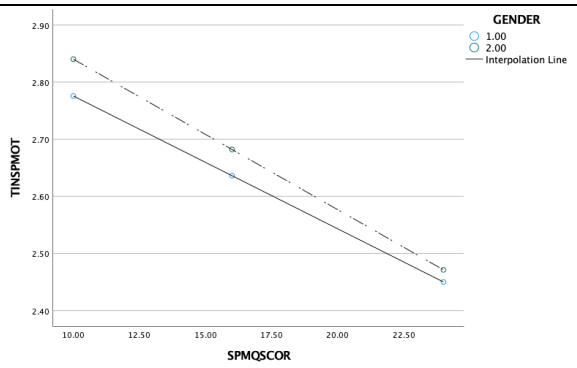
Figure 5(a). *Team Management by Exception (Active) versus Leader SPMQ Score moderated by Leader Gender*	**Figure 5(b).** *Team Inspirational Motivation versus Leader SPMQ Score moderated by Leader Gender*
Legend*: 1 = Female (solid line), 2 = Male (dashed line)*	

Team Idealized Attributes

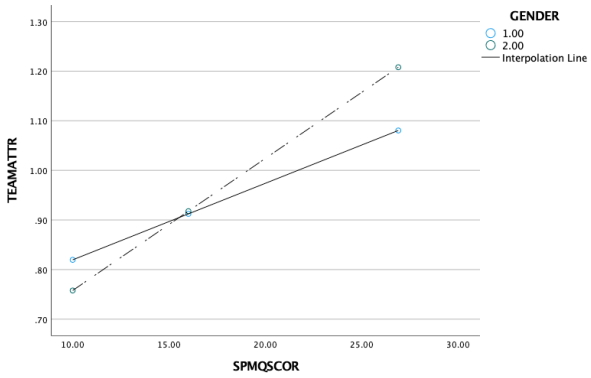

Figure 5(c). *Team Idealized Attributes versus Leader SPMQ Score moderated by Leader Gender*

Legend: *1 = Female (solid line), 2 = Male (dashed line)*

The patterns prompted further analysis of the data, this time to investigate if the gender mix of the teams had any moderating effect. As there was not enough data for teams with all females, the data was removed, hence there are only four type of team mix (all male, mostly male, mixed, and mostly female) in the analysis (N=56).

Four of the overall models were significant, in that a percentage of the variance in the model was due to the predictor variables of leaders SPMQ score, gender mix of the teams, and their interaction. For two of the four, only the overall model was significant, see figure 6(a) and see figure 6(b). For frequency of team displays of Contingent Reward ($F(7,48)=2.5389$, $p=0.0263$, $R^2 = 0.2702$) team mix accounted for about 27% of the overall variance, and for Idealized Attributes ($F(7,48)=2.3329$, $p=.0476$, $R^2 = 0.2456$), team mix accounted for about 25% variance.

Team Contingent Reward	Team Idealized Attributes
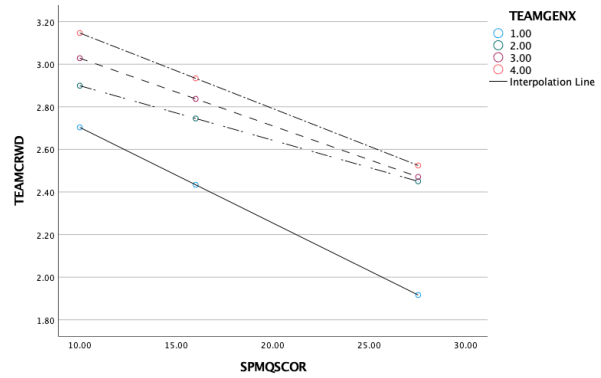	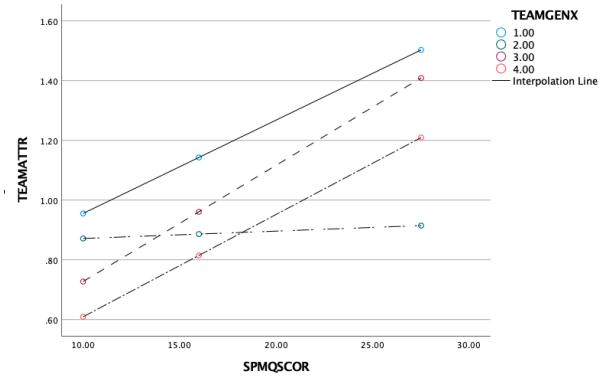
Figure 6(a). *Team Contingent Reward versus Leader SPMQ Score moderated by team gender mix*	**Figure 6(b).** *Team Idealized Attributes versus Leader SPMQ Score moderated by team gender mix*
Legend: All Male = 1 (solid-line), Mostly Male =2 (spaced dot-dash-dot broken line), Mixed = 3 (dash only broken line), Mostly Female = 4 (dot-hash-dot close broken line))	

The data patterns mirror the partial correlations derived previously, a shift towards Power and Performance reduced occurrence of Contingent Rewards, but increased occurrences of the idealized influence transformational behavior, for all team mixes.

For the other two significant overall models, some of the team mixes had a statistically significant effect on the level of observed behavior as predicted by the leaders SPMQ score.

In the case of Individual Consideration ($F(7,48)=3.0815$ $p=.0092$, $R^2 = 0.3100$) team mix accounted for about 31% of the overall variance, see figure 7(a). In addition, one of the interactions, between SPMQ Score and teams which were mostly female, was significant ($b=0.0418$, $t(48)=2.5976$, $p=0.0094$). This indicates that for every point increase (i.e. move towards Power and Performance) on a leaders SPMQ score, there was an increase of 0.0418 in frequency of observed individual consideration.

For the second model, figure 7(b) the independent variable is different. It's not one of the transactional/passive or transformational, but the frequency of Extra Effort made by teams as assessed by the manger. Extra effort is a positive outcome for the optimal application of the full

range of leadership behaviors. It demonstrates that team members push and motivate each other to do more and better than expected). Overall, for extra effort (F(7,48)=3.5882 p=.0.0035, R^2 = 0.3435) the model accounts for about 34% of the variance and, here, two of the team mixes are statistically significant.

Team Individual Consideration	Team Extra Effort
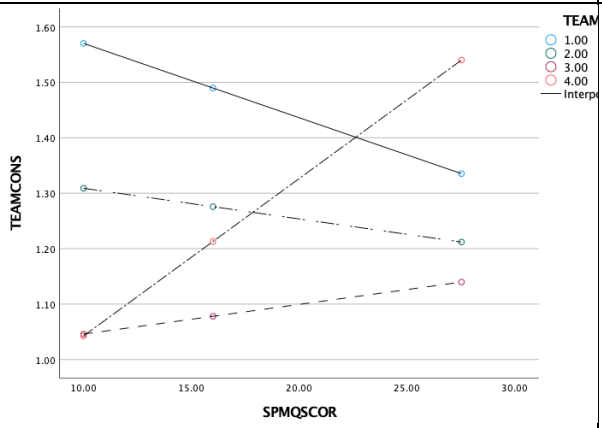	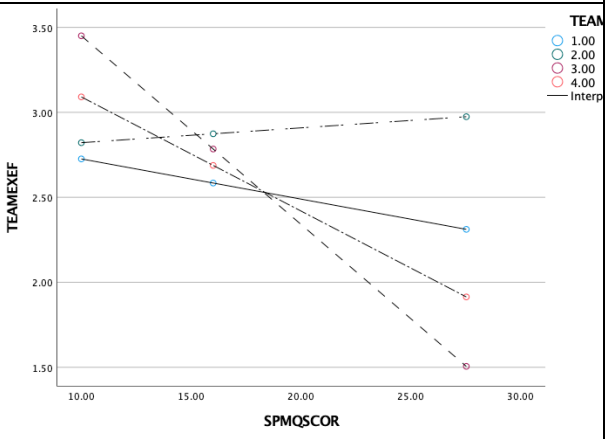
Figure 7(a). *Team Individual Consideration versus Leader SPMQ Score moderated by team gender mix*	**Figure 7(b).** *Team Extra Effort versus Leader SPMQ Score moderated by team gender mix*
Legend: All Male = 1 (solid-line), Mostly Male =2 (spaced dot-dash-dot broken line), Mixed = 3 (dash only broken line), Mostly Female = 4 (dot-hash-dot close broken line))	

For team mixed with both males and females (b=-0.1110, t(48)=-3.0259, p=0.0040), every point increase on a leaders SPMQ score, there was a decrease of 0.1110 in frequency of observed extra efforts. That equates to about a 3% decrease in extra effort by team members. For mostly female teams (b=-0.0672, t(48)=-3.3773, p=0.0015) that's a decrease of 0.0672, or just over 1.5%.

Implications

There was no surprise that leader gender showed no significant difference. Similar observations in relation to transformational leadership behavior were made in previous research by Darcy and colleagues (2014) in the context of impact on small retail outlets in Ireland. In addition, other research argues that leadership requires a little bit of both masculine and feminine stereotypical behaviors to be effective (Hackman et al., 1992; Kark, Waismel-Manor and Shamir, 2012; Weider-Hatfield, 1987).

However, the findings do have implications for managers, irrespective of gender, who lead team of mixed or mostly female team members. A manager orientation towards the power and performance model, which is characteristically more authoritative, emphasizes personal development solely for the accomplishment of goals, and pushing beyond limits, seems to have a negative effect on these teams. This seems to align with Vallerand, Deci and Ryan (1987) whose research in to motivation in sport found that females were more likely to perceive positive feedback, like praise, as controlling, which would decrease intrinsic motivation. Therefore, managers may need to vary their preferred leadership methods depending on the composition of the teams they lead.

5.0 Discussion

The aim of the research is to attempt to observe and measure how leader attitudes to sport, as opposed to leadership behaviors, may be associated with the emergence and prevalence of shared leadership behaviors within their teams. The Sports Participation Model Questionnaire was the main focus of this research as a technique to assist with determining if there was an association between manager orientation to sport participation and the emergence of shared leadership capability within their teams. As such, this represents a notable departure from past research that focused on traits or personality (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge et al., 2002) and or other antecedents like leadership style or team and environment characteristics (Fausing et al., 2015; Wu, Cormican and Chen, 2020). In addition, it adds to the dearth of research on team level leadership which so far has been primarily concentrated on individual leadership behaviors. (Shondrick, Dinh and Lord, 2010). Moreover, the findings have implication for the long-established individual leadership research which may not necessarily be fully applicable to the dynamics of team level peer to peer leadership.

With that in mind, the less impactful findings are covered quickly at the outset with greater discussion devoted to the more interesting findings.

5.1 Managers and Team Participation Orientation

The findings of this study support the first hypothesis H1. Managers will be more team and participation oriented in terms of an attitude to sport. The changing work environment brings trends like dynamic team structures, organizational delayering, task complexity and interdependencies, for example (Tannenbaum et al., 2012) and teams of knowledge-based workers are conducive to such orientations. Therefore, this is not surprising, but does place additional significance on the need for managers themselves to understand how their predisposition to sport and team dynamics can help or hinder enabling shared leadership within those teams.

5.2. The 'somehow' of Affective Leadership Patterns

The findings do not support hypothesis H2 possibly indicating that the more significant associations between the team shared leadership behaviors and the orientation of a manager's attitude to sport are more consequential than their self-rated leadership transactional and transformational behaviors. Burns (1978), and Bass (1998) when expanding his theory of transformational leadership to teams, argued that leadership behaviors would trickle down like a 'domino effect' to be shared among team members. Even though both were primarily concerned with transformational leadership, full range leadership encompasses complex relations and interactions which according to social learning theory (Bandura, 1978) would be more adeptly passed on through social cues. Most evidence seems to support leadership behavior modelling (Bass and Stogdill, 1990) but the data in this study does not add its support.

However, in Bass's (1999) own review of transformational leadership over two decades, he concluded that leadership patterns of leaders and subordinates were *somehow* inclined to match each other. He pointedly reflected that more research was needed to explain that 'somehow' (which may be due to organizational norms, the values and beliefs of the leaders, or other environment factors). Discovering this would be the key to emergent leadership and perhaps the leader's attitude to sport is one of those factors. The methodology used in this study for the full range of leadership was self-rated (not withstanding self-other agreement issues (Atwater and Yammarino, 1992)) and from the perspective of Fleming and Mills (1992) VARK Model of the different ways people learn (i.e. through, visual, audio, reading, and kinaesthetic means), it may be that how people think they lead and how people learn is the difference. This may be reflected in this study findings and suggest that the 'somehow' of how emergent leadership happens is the leader's attitude to sport in the way they build and grow teams.

The other hypotheses, which are not supported by the findings. are more interesting and discussed next.

5.3 Multi-dimensional Leader and Team Level Leadership Behaviors

Hypotheses 3a and 3b were also not supported and it is more useful to discuss them together. Previous studies have shown that transformational and transactional leadership behaviors are often highly correlated, with the more active transactional behaviors like contingent reward tending to be positively correlated and the more passive transactional behaviors, like management-by-exception and laissez-faire, being negatively correlated (Avolio et al., 1996; Podsakoff et al., 1990; (Yammarino and Dubinsky, 1994) (Piccolo et al., 2012). However, the data in this study shows that contingent reward was negatively correlated along with all the other transactional behavior to the sports attitude model. While the transformational behaviors also correlated to the sports participation model scale, Idealized Influence and Individual Consideration was positively correlated, but surprisingly, both Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation were negatively correlated (even though the leader transformational behaviors were all moderately and positively correlated with each the other, as was to be expected (Appendix A). In relation to the sports participation model, it appears that there are other transactional or transformational sub-dimensions having an effect.

The study attempts to align along two broad transformational and transactional/passive groupings. This is possibly insufficient. There are potentially two problems with the current literature regarding the emergence and assessing of shared leadership within teams – factor reduction and environment. First, the existing literature has continued to make further assessments of Bass's 1985 original conceptualizations of transactional and transformation leadership to align to the existing literature. While there is tenable support for a 2-factor model along active and passive lines (where contingent reward is considered as active), a number of studies support using a 3-factor higher-order grouping along the lines of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant to best represent full range leadership behaviors as captured by the MLQ (Den Hartog et. al, 1997; Avolio et al, 1999). Secondly, of the few studies that have explored shared leadership in teams (Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002; Avolio et al., 2003) the samples were based in educational or military settings and not commercial organizations, a similar sentiment was asserted by Sweeney et al. (2019).

The findings in this study seems to indicate that individual leadership theories do not uniformly transfer to leaders in teams, at least in an industry setting, and the findings do not entirely align to

either of the higher-order factor configurations outlined above. Moreover, where there seems to be elements of each factor appropriately assembled, they (i.e. Contingent Reward, and Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation) unexpectedly seem to be pulling in different directions.

5.3.1 Contingent Reward is not Unidimensional

Previous research has seen similar incidents like this. Although several investigations found contingent reward strongly associated with transformational leadership behaviors (Bycio et al., 1995, Wofford et al., 1998), when Goodwin and her colleagues (2001) were researching the relationship of contingent reward to transactional and transformational leadership, upon close inspection underlying dimensions of contingent reward emerged. Similar results were confirmed in later analyses (Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008; Yukl and Gardner, 2020).

Contingent reward was found to have dual sub-dimensions. These were labelled explicit psychological contracts (EPC) and implicit psychological contracts (IPC). EPC is a clear exchange and negotiation – 'if you do this then I will do…' whereas IPC is related to expected follow through for good performance, generally positive outcomes like renumeration, or praise and recognition.

Naturally, the existing literature only looks at leader-subordinate dyads, but these sub-dimensions cannot be the same for peers as they are for leaders, for two reasons. Firstly, negotiating and rewarding are influencing tactics, and influence is power. However, peers in a team have very different power levels than a leader of a team. According to French and Raven (1959) a manager will have five bases of power (reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert) with control over valuable rewards such as salary, bonus or assignment of interesting work. Peers in a team have less powers, typically just expert, and referent, mostly relying on persuasion to get others to commit to a task (Yukl and Falbe, 1991; Yukl and Tracey, 1992). And secondly, a psychological contract denotes individual beliefs, expectations, and obligations regarding the conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between the individual and others (Rousseau, 1989). Reciprocity can build trust between peers, but it is unwritten and created on a unilateral basis. A subordinate may not only expect praise and recognition from a leader, but also the expectation of renumeration, training opportunities, and career progression for a job well done. Whereas a peer can only expect limited reciprocal recognition and praise, and a failure to meet those terms between peers is not just unmet expectations, it is also a damaged relationship and the ensuing loss of trust which can be hard to restore Guest (2004).

The study findings show that as leaders tend towards a sport participation model attitude that is power and performance oriented, the frequency of contingent reward behavior falls. This might be explained by what Shields and Bredemeier (2009) call 'decompetition'. Team members influenced by the intensifying power and performance attitude of their leader move from being in competition *with* each other to being in competition *against* each other. Less sportsmanship behaviors are engendered as more self-focus comes from the leader who is inclined to build self-efficacy and differentiate among peers – a leader who doesn't care if you had to work late or weekends, as long as the delivery was achieved. Therefore, as might be expected, peers become are less willing to praise and recognize each other.

5.3.2 Empowerment is Multidimensional

The other unexpected departure from the literature was that not all the transformational leadership behaviors were covariate as expected (Waldman et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Goodwin et al., 2001). This study found that as leaders tended towards power and performance, the frequency of intellectual stimulation (questioning and thinking for themselves) and inspirational motivation (shared excitement about the work) leadership practices displayed within the team, decreased, whereas individual consideration and influencing increased.

Empowerment can happen on multiple levels and have very different meanings, i.e. creating personal competence or granting of control, which may be consequential depending on where on the range of sport attitudes (from participation to power) a leader is positioned. In Aicinena and Eldridge's (2006) Sports Participation model, creating personal competence is very much towards power and performance end, while granting control is towards the pleasure and participation end.

Although Men and Stacks (2013) also found that transformational leadership only encouraged control (not competence), according to Bass (1985) both views of empowerment are transformational leadership actions, and granting of control can also be an exchange, therefore a transactional action. The findings in this study indicate that leader attitude to sport participation may influence how they view empowerment and thus positively or negatively impact the transformational or transactional experience of their followers. As a leader moves to Power and Performance they tend to coach more, but it becomes individual focused and the actions towards empowerment have more emphasis on competence, or psychological empowerment (Conger and Kanungo, 1988b), versus sharing control. This is in line with Wei, Yuan and Di (2010) who found

that psychological empowerment fostered creative competence, but that without an empowering climate, e.g. autonomy that also gave control to team members, the creative benefits would be negated.

In management literature, power and empowerment are often treated as one and the same (Conger and Kanungo, 1988b). From this point of view, power is control or authority over resources which can be shared to empower employees through delegation or participation. Kanter (1979) saw empowerment as not only giving others control over resources, but access to connections with others, and flexibility and control over the work environment and tasks. This view is also echoed by Yukl and Becker (2006) who noted that, to be effective, control must also come with access to information and knowledge. While managers can be reluctant to give up that kind of power (Yukl and Fu, 1999), leaders see empowerment, including sharing leadership, as very effective ways to increase their own power (Kanter, 1981). Empowerment can be operationalized via delegation through control of decision making (Leana, 1986) which can range from authoritative to participative (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973). While a leader who is inclined towards Pleasure and Participation may easily empower via delegating control of decision making, a leader who has a tendency to avoid conflict, will be far more autocratic (Vroom and Jago, 2007). Or if they are inclined towards power and performance they will be more individually focused and may feel like building belief and self-confidence through high expectations is the best way to empower.

Others view power and empowerment in terms of personal self-efficacy or a motivational need to influence and control people to competently deal with events and situations or other people, or a belief in personal self-efficacy and the self-confidence that goes with it (McClelland, 1975; Bandura, 1994; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Coaching is experienced by followers of transformational leaders (Bass and Avolio, 1990) and this transformational leadership style is linked to gaining organizational commitment, particularly when the source of power in the relationship is expert, referent, or legitimate (Pierro et al., 2013). Sir Alex Ferguson was a great coach and transformational leader and the subject of Harvard case studies and articles (Elberse, 2018; Elberse and Dye, 2012). However, in his own book on leadership he describes himself as authoritarian (Ferguson and Moritz, 2016). The negative impact is that teams with strong vertical leaders tend to have low levels of discretion (Ensley et al., 2006; Pearce and Manz, 2005). However, even if

employees have minimal impact on the decisions made, the fact that their opinions were sought, fosters a sense of fairness and engagement (Purcell, 2014).

This inclination towards separate empowerment options appears to be reflected in the study data and could explain why the findings do not align with existing literatures. Leaders who are positioned towards the Pleasure and Participation model, see higher levels of intellectual stimulation by the challenge of independent problem solving and inspirational work. But as the leader, perhaps becoming more controlling, expecting obedience to authority and only empowering through building individual skills and competencies, they stifle their subordinates attempts and aspiration for autonomy. Empowerment works along two dimensions, competence, and control, and for teams to be effective they must have both to be truly empowered to develop shared leadership. Leading others to lead themselves requires an advanced level of empowerment (Manz and Sims, 1987; 2001).

5.3.3 Multi-dimensional Summary

There may be signals getting lost in previous research efforts to simplify and consolidate various dimensions of leadership behaviors (Den Hartog et. al, 1997; Avolio et al, 1999). Other leadership studies, like the ones on gender, have called attention to the fact that although they conclude that overall there is no significant differences in effectiveness or performance, there are noteworthy differences on the sub-dimensions (Day and Stogdill, 1972; Hackman et al., 1992; Carless, 1998). Goodwin *et al.* (2001), as confirmed by Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) who found evidence that continent reward is multi-dimensional. In addition, two different types of empowerment, competence (Conger and Kanungo, 1988b), and control (Kanter, 1979), which are articulated in the literature with respect to their differing application and effects on leadership. Competence, or psychological empowerment, is a fundamental part of transformational leadership, and power in this case is with respect to the building of self-confidence and self-efficacy to surpass expectations, which aligns with the power and performance model characteristics of achievement and improvement to reach a goal. From the other point of view on empowerment, power is control or authority over resources which can be shared and exchanged to empower employees through delegation or participation. Sharing and democracy is indicative of passive transactional leadership and aligns more closely with the pleasure and participation model.

Mangers should understand that their attitude to sport can be simultaneously be congruous and contradictory concerning leadership behaviour sub-dimensions. Zaleznik (1977) made the distinction between managers and leaders, roles that he described and presented as polar opposites, yet are fulfilled by the same person. The literature shows passive transactional and transformational leadership is negatively correlated, but both sets of leadership styles are needed, albeit in different amounts and intensities (Bass and Roggio, 2006). Sometimes being directive is necessary, particularly when a team is inexperienced, but if the team is experienced then empowering them is more effective and provides other learning opportunities (Yun, Faraj and Sims, 2005). In accordance with Quinn's (1988) competing values model, understanding the association between their attitude to sport and the frequency of leadership behaviors displayed by their team, leaders need to incorporate that into the behavioral complexity as they perform competing leadership roles simultaneously (Denison, Hooijberg and Quinn, 1995)

5.4 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Several limitations of this research deserve mention.

5.4.1 Sample Selection and Size

The first limitation is that this research used a convenience sample mainly selected from multinational software companies with a base in Ireland and a larger, more random sample might achieve different results. However, these study results will be of particular interest to the demographic surveyed. A further limitation of the sample was its relatively low sample size. Comfort may be found however, in the fact that all scales used were reliable and similar patterns had been observed before (correlated passive transactional practices, the individual leadership behavior intercorrelations, and the moderate, but not significant, gender patterns, for example) in earlier research.

5.4.2 Same Source and Self-Other Bias

For practical reasons, the team manager or leader was the sole source of data. This can lead to two problems, self-other: a discrepancy between how people might rate themselves and how others would rate them (Fleenor, McCauley and Brutus, 1996), and same source bias. The potential for same source bias manifests itself in two ways; the leader rated themselves and a similar instrument was used to assess the leader and the team behaviors. As noted in the methodology section, several procedural steps were taken to try mitigating this as much as possible. The ideal scenario would have been to be able to survey the individual team members in addition to the leader. This also might have influenced the survey instrument selection, but was not possible or practical. Adding an individual team member level survey would give greater confidence and there are some recommendations on follower leadership ratings that could be used (Hansbrough, Lord and Schyns, 2015).

5.4.3 Significance Level

For several of the partial correlations, although the relationships identified were significant, they were weak to moderate. In addition, it was thought appropriate to change the alpha level to 0.1 for accepting significant correlations due to the nature of the research and the potential impact of larger margins of error due to the small sample size. However raising the alpha level increases the risk of introducing type I and type II errors, but as this alpha level was not applied to just a single

measure, but was impactful across nearly all the measures, it is felt there is sufficient evidence that this was an appropriate action. However, further research on a larger and random sample size would help address this situation.

Despite these limitations, it is believed that this study contributes valuable knowledge and new insight and understanding of the association between leader attitude to sport and the emergence of shared leadership in their teams.

5.5 Practical Implications

The strongest implication that may be drawn from this study is that this research lends additional weight with supporting evidence to the argument that, despite the mounting support for shared leadership as an effective style for the industry trend of working in teams, the existing management literature with its focus on individual leadership does not address, or is fully applicable to, team level shared leadership (Shondrick *et al.*, 2010). There are a great number of important consequences to that, but just a couple are detailed next.

First, as the trend to remote working continues, and understandably accelerated in recent times, and since shared leadership is an effective style for distributed teams, knowing more and understanding what influences it and how its development of the right behaviors occur is critical. Notwithstanding the COVID-19 global pandemic, teams have been moving to be more virtual and remote (Tannenbaum et al., 2012). To improve team performance, distributed or shared leadership becomes more important as the work environment becomes increasingly distributed (Kakar, 2017). While the trend is inevitable, there is huge risk in this for team dynamics as face-to-face managers are often the embodiment of trust for many individuals (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Lord et al., 2017). However, particularly in the case of global software companies, shared leadership enables team effectiveness when it was coordinated both implicitly and behaviourally (who exactly is being empowered and how is competence or control being enabled, distributed and coordinated). This is important as different national cultures in the team are less likely to have the same expectations of leadership (Nordbäck and Espinosa, 2019). This research is helpful for leaders to know how they may unintendedly be over or under utilizing leadership behaviour, like contingent reward, or empowerment, to build an effective team.

Secondly, as highlighted by Moe, Dingsøyr and Røyrvik (2009) shared leadership is a key element of agile self-organizing teams. Agile software development methodologies are hugely popular and highly effective in the IT industry, and in particular Scrum (Sutherland, 2015). However, companies really struggle to implement agile methodologies within their teams, as, not unlike shared leadership, many of the agile principles run counter to the orthodox individual traditional, vertical leadership principles and practices, and appear not to be intuitive (Rigby, Sutherland and Takeuchi, 2017). This research provides a useful tool to assist leaders at multiple levels, and organization development departments who create leader and organizational effectiveness training, to learn the competing values and the drivers behind the behavioral complexity which can be seen with the association between leader attitude to sport and the shared leadership behaviors observed (or not) in their teams. In building leadership capacity in teams, learning is often a precursor to adaptation (Day, 2000), and this study may help that flow.

This is summarized nicely by Hooker and Csikszentmihalyi (2003, p. 218) when they state:

> "*The implications for the future seem clear. As more work becomes knowledge work, work within organizations will likely become more flexible and varied. This in turn will require teamwork of a new kind, one that is conducive to the expression of creativity and innovation. Decentralized forms of leadership will become more necessary and so will shared forms of leadership."*

6.0 Conclusion

It is clear the working environment of the knowledge economy is getting faster and more complex. Hierarchies are flattening and teams are increasingly used as the basic unit of work organization, therefore businesses need workers at the edge, those with the most knowledge who are closest to the problems, to take on leadership and make the necessary decisions and take immediate action (Barley, 1990; Day et al., 2004; Manz and Sims, 1995; Tannenbaum et al., 2012). A lot already is known and understood about what makes a great team, how they share responsibilities and work together effectively (Aime et al., 2014; Ali, Chen et al., 2011; Wang and Johnson, 2020) and sharing of leadership roles is cited as one of the key factors for creating high-performance teams (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993a). Accumulating evidence indicates that shared leadership enhances creativity and innovation, and improves team performance (Chen et al., 2020; Hoch, 2013; Wang and Johnson, 2020) above and beyond that of vertical leadership (Nicolaides et al., 2014). But shared leadership is not a replacement for formally appointed leadership. It is generally agreed that traditional vertical leadership is an important factor in fostering shared leadership (Fausing et al., 2015; Wu et al. 2020). However, to date there is no unified understanding of how shared leadership is formed or emerges (Fransen et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018; Endres and Weibler, 2019).

This study set out to attempt to observe and measure whether leader attitude to sport, as opposed to leadership behavior, may be associated with the emergence and prevalence of shared leadership behaviors within their teams. The results of this study show that there are lessons to be learned by managers concerning how their attitude to sport can purposefully foster, or unintentionally suppress, the emergence of shared leadership within their teams of knowledge workers.

The research shows that people who elect to take on leadership roles have an attitude towards sport participation that corresponds more with elevating shared leadership behaviors in teams than their own perceived leadership style, and that it is oriented further to the Pleasure and Participation end of the Sport Participation model. This is both good and bad. Those managers who are demonstrably predisposed to cooperative and inclusive behaviors lead teams that present more active and effective transformational leadership behaviors like intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and contingent reward. But sharing and democracy can go too far. The results also show that those same managers are also inclined to evoke from their teams more passive transactional behaviors like management-by-exception and laissez-faire. While less

efficient in compared to transformational leadership behaviors, both sets of behaviors are needed for good leadership, but at different intensities (Bass and Roggio, 2006). Beyond, more of one and less than the other, there is very little guidance in extant literature for what that should be. Therefore knowing where a managers attitude to sport lies is a useful tool to learning if there is an inclination to approach team building one way or the other so appropriate interventions can be chosen or balanced out.

The study also provides another valuable lesson in highlighting an additional problem with extant literature which indicates that contingent reward and the transformational leadership behaviors are covariate. This is not supported by the present study. Teams displayed certain transformational leadership behaviors, like influence and individual consideration, more frequently when the manager's attitude towards sport participation moved away from Pleasure and Participation and more towards the Power and Performance end of the Sport Participation model. However, the other active behaviors, like intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation, and contingent reward, became less visible. The inference is made that existing literature for individual managers is not completely applicable to developing emergent shared leadership within teams, and that sub-dimensions on measured behaviors like (implicit and implicit psychological contracts for contingent reward, and competence and control empowerment for individual consideration and intellectual stimulation) are elements, whose pervasiveness it is argued, are influenced by a manager's attitude to sport participation. There is agreement with Lord and his colleagues who noted that much of the existing leadership research has focused on orthodox individual leadership but that there are several complications for interactions that shared leadership can create (Shondrick, Dinh and Lord, 2010).

For managers in organizations trying to foster leadership skills, this research is a valuable aid to untangling and aligning their own implicit leadership (Lord and Emrich, 2000) behaviors, and consequently learning how their attitude to sport influences the nurturing, development, and emergence of shared leadership within their teams.

Afterall, as Howard Schultz, former CEO of Starbucks Coffee Company and owner of the Seattle Supersonics professional basketball team, once said, "*business is a team sport*" (Business Catalyst, 2017).

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Appendix A Zero-order Pearson Correlations

Correlations

		SPMQSCOR	TEXTEFFO	TINDATTR	TINDBEHV	TINSPMOT	TINTSTIM	TINDCONS	TCONREWD	TMBEACTV	TMBEPASS	TLASFAIR	LEADINFL	LEADINSP	LEADSTIM	LEADCONS	LEADCR	LEADMBE	LEADLF
SPMQSCOR	Pearson Correlation	1	-.421**	.398**	.113	-.355**	-.462**	.270*	-.462**	-.469**	-.249	-.368**	-.083	-.216	-.336*	.141	-.012	.095	.046
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.002	.404	.007	.000	.042	.000	.000	.062	.005	.538	.106	.011	.295	.927	.481	.737
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TEXTEFFO	Pearson Correlation	-.421**	1	-.704**	-.389**	.447**	.855**	-.533**	.746**	.777**	.715**	.643**	.403**	.548**	.455**	.115	.102	-.114	-.086
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.393	.451	.398	.525
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TINDATTR	Pearson Correlation	.398**	-.704**	1	.352**	-.533**	-.687**	.580**	-.710**	-.721**	-.765**	-.703**	-.435**	-.488**	-.481**	-.274*	-.011	.108	.203
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000		.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.039	.933	.426	.130
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TINDBEHV	Pearson Correlation	.113	-.389**	.352**	1	.035	-.232	.332*	-.130	-.248	-.267*	-.210	-.058	-.207	-.017	.060	.136	.121	.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.404	.003	.007		.796	.082	.012	.336	.063	.044	.116	.667	.122	.902	.659	.313	.372	.577
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TINSPMOT	Pearson Correlation	-.355**	.447**	-.533**	.035	1	.614**	-.426**	.641**	.543**	.476**	.601**	.327*	.398**	.501**	.257	.248	.214	-.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.000	.000	.796		.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.013	.002	.000	.053	.062	.110	.933
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TINTSTIM	Pearson Correlation	-.462**	.855**	-.687**	-.232	.614**	1	-.539**	.832**	.747**	.706**	.745**	.511**	.681**	.550**	.240	.250	-.051	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.082	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.072	.061	.704	.947
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TINDCONS	Pearson Correlation	.270*	-.533**	.580**	.332*	-.426**	-.539**	1	-.369**	-.597**	-.617**	-.428**	-.255	-.232	-.180	-.173	-.056	.074	-.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.042	.000	.000	.012	.001	.000		.005	.000	.000	.001	.056	.082	.180	.197	.681	.586	.377
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TCONREWD	Pearson Correlation	-.462**	.746**	-.710**	-.130	.641**	.832**	-.369**	1	.773**	.630**	.728**	.536**	.640**	.593**	.319*	.185	.061	-.054
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.336	.000	.000	.005		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.016	.169	.653	.688
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TMBEACTV	Pearson Correlation	-.469**	.777**	-.721**	-.248	.543**	.747**	-.597**	.773**	1	.652**	.654**	.394**	.447**	.379**	.180	.170	.071	.030
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.063	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.002	.000	.004	.180	.206	.602	.826
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TMBEPASS	Pearson Correlation	-.249	.715**	-.765**	-.267*	.476**	.706**	-.617**	.630**	.652**	1	.677**	.463**	.475**	.387**	.375**	.082	-.035	-.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.062	.000	.000	.044	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.003	.004	.543	.798	.870
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
TLASFAIR	Pearson Correlation	-.368**	.643**	-.703**	-.210	.601**	.745**	-.428**	.728**	.654**	.677**	1	.322*	.503**	.495**	.250	-.033	.001	-.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.000	.116	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000		.015	.000	.000	.061	.808	.993	.295
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
LEADINFL	Pearson Correlation	-.083	.403**	-.435**	-.058	.327*	.511**	-.255	.536**	.394**	.463**	.322*	1	.686**	.481**	.472**	.239	-.012	.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.538	.002	.001	.667	.013	.000	.056	.000	.002	.000	.015		.000	.000	.000	.074	.930	.444
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
LEADINSP	Pearson Correlation	-.216	.548**	-.488**	-.207	.398**	.681**	-.232	.640**	.447**	.475**	.503**	.686**	1	.564**	.368**	.193	.133	.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.106	.000	.000	.122	.002	.000	.082	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.005	.151	.325	.266
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
LEADSTIM	Pearson Correlation	-.336*	.455**	-.481**	-.017	.501**	.550**	-.180	.593**	.379**	.387**	.495**	.481**	.564**	1	.363**	.085	.063	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.000	.000	.902	.000	.000	.180	.000	.004	.003	.000	.000	.000		.005	.529	.643	.622
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
LEADCONS	Pearson Correlation	.141	.115	-.274*	.060	.257	.240	-.173	.319*	.180	.375**	.250	.472**	.368**	.363**	1	.179	.232	.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.295	.393	.039	.659	.053	.072	.197	.016	.180	.004	.061	.000	.005	.005		.184	.083	.411
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
LEADCR	Pearson Correlation	-.012	.102	-.011	.136	.248	.250	-.056	.185	.170	.082	-.033	.239	.193	.085	.179	1	.382**	.162
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.927	.451	.933	.313	.062	.061	.681	.169	.206	.543	.808	.074	.151	.529	.184		.003	.229
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
LEADMBE	Pearson Correlation	.095	-.114	.108	.121	.214	-.051	.074	.061	.071	-.035	.001	-.012	.133	.063	.232	.382**	1	.423**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.481	.398	.426	.372	.110	.704	.586	.653	.602	.798	.993	.930	.325	.643	.083	.003		.001
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57
LEADLF	Pearson Correlation	.046	-.086	.203	.075	-.011	.009	-.119	-.054	.030	-.022	-.141	.103	.150	.067	.111	.162	.423**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.737	.525	.130	.577	.933	.947	.377	.688	.826	.870	.295	.444	.266	.622	.411	.229	.001	
	N	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	57

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix B Partial Order Correlations controlling for Leader Attitude to Sport Score

Correlations

Control Variables			TINDATTR	TINDBEHV	TINSPMOT	TINTSTIM	TINDCONS	TCONREWD	TMBEACTV	TMBEPASS	TLASFAIR	LEADINFL	LEADINSP	LEADSTIM	LEADCONS	LEADCR	LEADMBE	LEADLF
SPMQSCOR	TINDATTR	Correlation	1.000	.337	-.457	-.619	.535	-.647	-.659	-.749	-.653	-.440	-.449	-.402	-.363	-.007	.076	.202
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.011	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.001	.002	.006	.959	.577	.136
		df	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TINDBEHV	Correlation	.337	1.000	.081	-.204	.316	-.088	-.223	-.249	-.183	-.049	-.188	.023	.045	.138	.111	.071
		Significance (2-tailed)	.011	.	.554	.131	.018	.518	.099	.065	.177	.718	.165	.868	.745	.310	.415	.604
		df	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TINSPMOT	Correlation	-.457	.081	1.000	.543	-.367	.575	.456	.428	.541	.319	.352	.434	.332	.261	.266	.005
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.554	.	.000	.005	.000	.000	.001	.000	.017	.008	.001	.012	.052	.047	.971
		df	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TINTSTIM	Correlation	-.619	-.204	.543	1.000	-.485	.786	.677	.688	.698	.535	.671	.473	.348	.276	-.008	.034
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.131	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.009	.040	.950	.804
		df	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TINDCONS	Correlation	.535	.316	-.367	-.485	1.000	-.287	-.553	-.589	-.367	-.242	-.185	-.099	-.222	-.054	.050	-.137
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.018	.005	.000	.	.032	.000	.000	.005	.072	.173	.470	.100	.691	.714	.315
		df	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TCONREWD	Correlation	-.647	-.088	.575	.786	-.287	1.000	.710	.599	.676	.563	.624	.524	.438	.202	.119	-.038
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.518	.000	.000	.032	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.136	.384	.783
		df	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TMBEACTV	Correlation	-.659	-.223	.456	.677	-.553	.710	1.000	.626	.586	.403	.400	.266	.282	.186	.131	.058
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.099	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.002	.002	.047	.035	.170	.336	.672
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TMBEPASS	Correlation	-.749	-.249	.428	.688	-.589	.599	.626	1.000	.650	.458	.445	.332	.428	.082	-.011	-.011
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.065	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.001	.012	.001	.549	.933	.934
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	TLASFAIR	Correlation	-.653	-.183	.541	.698	-.367	.676	.586	.650	1.000	.315	.467	.424	.328	-.040	.039	-.134
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.177	.000	.000	.005	.000	.000	.000	.	.018	.000	.001	.014	.768	.774	.325
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
	LEADINFL	Correlation	-.440	-.049	.319	.535	-.242	.563	.403	.458	.315	1.000	.686	.483	.490	.238	-.004	.108
		Significance (2-tailed)	.001	.718	.017	.000	.072	.000	.002	.000	.018	.	.000	.000	.000	.077	.976	.430
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54	54
	LEADINSP	Correlation	-.449	-.188	.352	.671	-.185	.624	.400	.445	.467	.686	1.000	.535	.412	.195	.158	.164
		Significance (2-tailed)	.001	.165	.008	.000	.173	.000	.002	.001	.000	.000	.	.000	.002	.151	.245	.228
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54	54
	LEADSTIM	Correlation	-.402	.023	.434	.473	-.099	.524	.266	.332	.424	.483	.535	1.000	.440	.086	.101	.087
		Significance (2-tailed)	.002	.868	.001	.000	.470	.000	.047	.012	.001	.000	.000	.	.001	.529	.459	.523
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54	54
	LEADCONS	Correlation	-.363	.045	.332	.348	-.222	.438	.282	.428	.328	.490	.412	.440	1.000	.182	.221	.106
		Significance (2-tailed)	.006	.745	.012	.009	.100	.001	.035	.001	.014	.000	.002	.001	.	.179	.101	.438
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54	54
	LEADCR	Correlation	-.007	.138	.261	.276	-.054	.202	.186	.082	-.040	.238	.195	.086	.182	1.000	.385	.163
		Significance (2-tailed)	.959	.310	.052	.040	.691	.136	.170	.549	.768	.077	.151	.529	.179	.	.003	.231
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54	54
	LEADMBE	Correlation	.076	.111	.266	-.008	.050	.119	.131	-.011	.039	-.004	.158	.101	.221	.385	1.000	.421
		Significance (2-tailed)	.577	.415	.047	.950	.714	.384	.336	.933	.774	.976	.245	.459	.101	.003	.	.001
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0	54
	LEADLF	Correlation	.202	.071	.005	.034	-.137	-.038	.058	-.011	-.134	.108	.164	.087	.106	.163	.421	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.136	.604	.971	.804	.315	.783	.672	.934	.325	.430	.228	.523	.438	.231	.001	.
		df	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	0

Appendix C Partial Order Correlations controlling for Leader MLQ Behaviors

Correlations

Control Variables			SPMQSCOR	TINDATTR	TINDBEHV	TINSPMOT	TINTSTIM	TINDCONS	TCONREWD	TMBEACTV	TMBEPASS	TLASFAIR
LEADINFL & LEADINSP & LEADSTIM & LEADCONS & LEADCR & LEADMBE & LEADLF	SPMQSCOR	Correlation	1.000	.333	.065	-.276	-.390	.272	-.419	-.428	-.218	-.269
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.018	.655	.053	.005	.056	.002	.002	.129	.059
		df	0	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	TINDATTR	Correlation	.333	1.000	.346	-.396	-.546	.616	-.528	-.669	-.687	-.549
		Significance (2-tailed)	.018	.	.014	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		df	48	0	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	TINDBEHV	Correlation	.065	.346	1.000	.051	-.184	.342	-.060	-.233	-.253	-.136
		Significance (2-tailed)	.655	.014	.	.727	.201	.015	.678	.103	.076	.345
		df	48	48	0	48	48	48	48	48	48	48
	TINSPMOT	Correlation	-.276	-.396	.051	1.000	.503	-.445	.465	.410	.354	.487
		Significance (2-tailed)	.053	.004	.727	.	.000	.001	.001	.003	.012	.000
		df	48	48	48	0	48	48	48	48	48	48
	TINTSTIM	Correlation	-.390	-.546	-.184	.503	1.000	-.566	.700	.689	.623	.687
		Significance (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.201	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		df	48	48	48	48	0	48	48	48	48	48
	TINDCONS	Correlation	.272	.616	.342	-.445	-.566	1.000	-.324	-.588	-.595	-.437
		Significance (2-tailed)	.056	.000	.015	.001	.000	.	.022	.000	.000	.001
		df	48	48	48	48	48	0	48	48	48	48
	TCONREWD	Correlation	-.419	-.528	-.060	.465	.700	-.324	1.000	.706	.453	.580
		Significance (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.678	.001	.000	.022	.	.000	.001	.000
		df	48	48	48	48	48	48	0	48	48	48
	TMBEACTV	Correlation	-.428	-.669	-.233	.410	.689	-.588	.706	1.000	.568	.583
		Significance (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.103	.003	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
		df	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	0	48	48
	TMBEPASS	Correlation	-.218	-.687	-.253	.354	.623	-.595	.453	.568	1.000	.591
		Significance (2-tailed)	.129	.000	.076	.012	.000	.000	.001	.000	.	.000
		df	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	0	48
	TLASFAIR	Correlation	-.269	-.549	-.136	.487	.687	-.437	.580	.583	.591	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.059	.000	.345	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.
		df	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	48	0

Appendix D Request for Survey Participation via Social Media

Hi LinkedIn connections, I am graciously requesting your help to take a survey for me to complete my MBA dissertation at the National College of Ireland, I am researching sports participation attitudes and leader influence on shared leadership in teams (if you are a Director, Manager, Team Lead, or Project Manager).

It will take about 15 minutes to complete. As an optional incentive, if you wish to leave an anonymous email address, I will send you a report on your leadership style. Note, it does not need to be a current team, it can be a previous team you know well.

Please find the survey here https://lnkd.in/eMWMrxz

#leadership #leadershipdevelopment

Appendix E Request for Survey Participation via Email

From: Jim Quill <jim.quill@<Company>.com>
Date: Monday 12 July 2021 at 12:09
To: Jim Quill <jim.quill@<personal>.com>
Subject: [Personal] Requesting survey participation for my college dissertation

Hi,

just making one last request for help to people I have worked or engaged with in the past before I close my MBA dissertation survey on Thursday 15th July.

Please find the survey here https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/QR6F8HP

I am researching sports participation attitudes and leader influence on shared leadership development within teams. There are 3 main parts

How you view leadership behaviours across your teams(s) – it is not comapny specific , you can think about a team you managed in the recent past.

Your Sport Participation attitudes (agree/disagree statements)

Self-rate your leadership style in terms of transformational and transactional behaviours

It will take about 15 minutes to complete – it took me 16, but average seems to be 19 minutes.

As your time is valuable, so if you wish as an optional incentive, at the end of the survey you can to leave a personal/anonymous email address and I will send you a report (after I complete) on your part 3 leadership style with some context to help inform you.

Thanks,

Jim

Appendix F Research Survey

MBA Dissertation Survey on Shared Leadership

Information Sheet

Study Title

"Shared Leadership and Teams of Knowledge Workers: What Sport Participation Can Teach Line Managers"

Purpose of the Research

The aim of the research is to identify how attitudes towards sports participation might influence leaderships styles and the fostering of leadership responsibilities within high performance teams.

Invitation

This survey is for people with team leadership and/or management responsibilities. You are being invited to take part in the research study for a college dissertation. I am a Master of Business Administration student at the National College of Ireland.

Do I have to take part?
You are free to withdraw from this study at any time and without giving a reason.

If I take part, what do I have to do?
You will be given an online survey to complete. It is completely anonymous. I encourage you to complete all sections. It is estimated the survey will take about 15 minutes to complete.

It is survey of your views on leadership behaviours demonstrated by your team (it does not have to be a current team, a previous team you know better is acceptable), your attitudes to sports participation, and finally a self-rating of your leadership style.

But what's in it for me?
I do appreciate this survey will take some time to complete. Therefore, if you wish, in the final section which gathers information on your leadership style, you will be given the opportunity to leave a personal (not work) and ***preferably anonymous*** email address for the researcher to send you a report on your, and only your, individual results with some extra information to provide context.

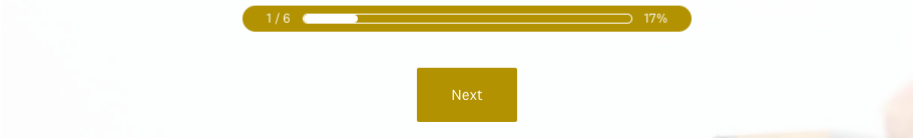
What are the disadvantages and risks (if any) of taking part?
The disadvantages of taking part are limited to the time taken to complete this survey.

How will information about me be used?
Information will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and stored securely in line with the requirements for best practice research at the National College of Ireland.

Who will have access to information about me?
The information will be stored securely, based on institutional guidelines, while also being treated with complete confidentiality. It will be stored for at least one year. Data will then be securely disposed of.

What will happen to the results of the study?
The results of this study will be used in the thesis of the researcher in fulfilment of requirements for a Master of Business Administration post-graduate degree. It is expected that the thesis will then be available on the National College of Ireland academic database.

What if there is a problem?
If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you may wish to speak to the researcher who will do their best to answer your questions. You should contact James Quill via email at x19105070@student.ncirl.ie.



MBA Dissertation Survey on Shared Leadership

Leadership Behaviours Exhibited by Your Team

The following are 48 descriptive statements about your team which you are to rate. Please evaluate each statement in terms of your teams overall leadership behaviour.

For each statement, judge how frequently, on average, your team displays the behaviour described. Leave a response unselected if you are unsure, if the statement is irrelevant, or does not apply to your team.

1. Members of my team avoid controversial issues that would produce conflict

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

2. Members of my team instill pride in being associated with each other.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

3. Members of my team allow performance to fall below minimum standards before trying to make improvements

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

4. Members of my team emphasize the importance of being committed to our beliefs.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

5. Members of my team focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

6. Members of my team set high standards.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

7. Members of my team clearly communicate what each member needs to do to complete assignments.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

8. Members of my team emphasize the value of questioning each other's strategy for solving problems.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

9. Members of my team avoid addressing problems.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

10. Members of my team listen attentively to each other's concerns.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

11. Members of my team delay taking actions until problems become serious.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

12. Members of my team go beyond their self-interests for the good of the team.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

13. Members of my team closely monitor each other's performance for errors.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

14. Members of my team display conviction in their core ideals, beliefs and values.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

15. Members of my team work out agreements about what's expected from each other.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

16. Members of my team envision exciting new possibilities.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

17. Members of my team motivate each other to do more than they thought they could do.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

18. Members of my team encourage each other to rethink ideas which had never been questioned before.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

19. Members of my team fail to follow-up requests for assistance.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

20. Members of my team focus on developing each other's strengths.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

21. Members of my team tell each other what they've done wrong rather than what they've done right.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

22. Members of my team display extraordinary talent and competence.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

23. Members of my team spend time 'putting out fires'.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

24. Members of my team clarify the central purpose underlying our actions.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

25. Members of my team provide each other with assistance in exchange for each member's effort.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

26. Members of my team talk optimistically about the future.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

27. Members of my team heighten our motivation to succeed.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

28. Members of my team question the traditional way of doing things.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

29. Members of my team avoid making decisions.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

30. Members of my team spend time teaching and coaching each other.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

31. Members of my team wait until things have gone wrong before taking action.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

32. Members of my team behave in ways that build respect for one another.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

33. Members of my team track each other's mistakes.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

34. Members of my team talk about how trusting each other can help overcome their difficulties.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

35. Members of my team specify for each other what are expected levels of performance.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

36. Members of my team talk enthusiastically about our work.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

37. Members of my team encourage each other to do more than they expected they could do.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

38. Members of my team seek a broad range of perspectives when solving problems.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

39. Members of my team delay responding to urgent requests.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

40. Members of my team treat each other as individuals with different needs, abilities, and aspirations.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

41. Members of my team show they are firm believers in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it."

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

42. Members of my team display confidence in each other.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

43. Members of my team direct attention toward failure to meet standards.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

44. Members of my team emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

45. Members of my team recognize member and/or team accomplishments.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

46. Members of my team articulate a compelling vision of the future.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

47. Members of my team look at problems from many different angles.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

48. Members of my team provide useful advice for each other's development.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently or always
○	○	○	○	○

2 / 6 33%

Previous Next

MBA Dissertation Survey on Shared Leadership

About You

Some general, non-personally identifiable, demographic descriptive information about you.

* 1. What is your gender?

- ○ Female
- ○ Male
- ○ Non-binary
- ○ Prefer not to say

* 2. In what country do you live?

* 3. Which role best describes your leadership position:

- ◯ Senior Management Team (CEO, Executive Vice President, etc.)
- ◯ Director (Manager of Managers)
- ◯ First Line Manager
- ◯ Team Leader
- ◯ Project Manager
- ◯ Other (please specify)

* 4. Your tenure as leader/manager of the team being rated?

0 Years 10+

* 5. Your experience, in years, as a leader/manager?

0 Years 20+

3 / 6 50%

Previous Next

MBA Dissertation Survey on Shared Leadership

About the Team

Please provide some additional information about the team.

* 1. The gender mix of your team is:

- ◯ All male
- ◯ Majority male
- ◯ Equally mixed male and female
- ◯ Majority female
- ◯ All female
- ◯ Other

4 / 6 67%

Previous Next

MBA Dissertation Survey on Shared Leadership

Sport Participation

For each of the 70 brief statements below you are asked to select either agree or disagree.

Your responses should reflect how you feel about sport in general (youth, school, college, or recreational) not what you feel should be done at the professional and international levels.

1. Winning **is not** the most significant measure of success in the sport experience.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

2. My opponents **should be** respected.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

3. Performing to one's capabilities is the most significant measure of success in sport.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

4. Athletes **should** take legal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

5. Only the best should be allowed to play.

Agree Disagree

6. An individual must work **very hard** in order to experience success in sport.

Agree Disagree

7. Individuals can be successful in sport without allowing other aspects of their lives to suffer (Examples: relationships can be maintained and excellence can be achieved in other areas of life).

Disagree Agree

8. Only coaches should make decisions during contests.

Agree Disagree

9. I **do not** consider success in sport more valuable if an individual experiences pain during a contest.

Agree Disagree

10. Athletes that are poorly skilled **should not** get the opportunity to play.

Agree Disagree

11. It is the coach's responsibility to complain to officials when calls are often made against his or her team.

Agree Disagree

12. Losing **should be** a painful experience.

Agree Disagree

13. Televised sporting events **do not** provide good examples of behavior for coaches and athletes.

Agree Disagree

14. The greatest measure of success in sport is whether or not an individual enjoyed the contest.

Agree Disagree

15. An individual can decide not to participate in a contest when injured and still be committed to success.

Agree Disagree

16. Sport participation should be very hard work.

Agree Disagree

17. Individuals that are not willing to sacrifice their short-term health are not committed to success in sport (Example: not willing to break a bone).

Agree Disagree

18. All individuals should strive to play like the professionals.

Agree Disagree

19. Opponents are my friends.

Agree Disagree

20. Winning is more important than my honor.

Agree Disagree

21. Coaches **should not** set training rules for athletes (Examples: don't smoke, no alcohol).

Agree Disagree

22. Individuals unwilling to sacrifice their long-term health can experience success in sport (example: not willing to have a limp for life).

Agree Disagree

23. Opponents stand in the way of my achievement of success.

Agree Disagree

24. It is **not necessary** to utilize current information from the sport sciences in training sessions to be successful in sport (Examples: Exercise Physiology and Biomechanics).

Agree Disagree

25. The win-at-all-cost philosophy common in professional sport is unacceptable for youth and school sport.

Agree Disagree

26. Individuals should strive to win by as much as possible, even if the opponents are embarrassed.

Agree Disagree

27. Athletes **should not** take illegal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.

Agree Disagree

28. Athletes and coaches should regularly study game films of events in order to be successful.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

29. Large sums of money should be sacrificed in the pursuit of athletic success.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

30. It is acceptable to break the rules in order to win.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

31. It is **not necessary** for athletes and coaches to study game films in order to be successful.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

32. It is important for athletes to use the latest technology to find success in sport (Example: high tech equipment).

○ Agree ○ Disagree

33. It is appropriate to participate in sport and **not reflect** the behaviors of professionals.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

34. Coaches should make all decisions concerning the training of the team or individual athlete.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

35. It should be clear to anyone watching that the coach is in control.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

36. Competitors keep me from achieving success.

Agree Disagree

37. Coaches should make all decisions during competitive events.

Agree Disagree

38. Winning is the most significant measure of success in the sport experience.

Agree Disagree

39. Opponents are my enemies.

Agree Disagree

40. I believe that if an individual overcomes pain in the pursuit of success that the achievement is even more valuable than if pain were not experienced.

Agree Disagree

41. Televised sport events provide good examples for the behaviors of coaches and athletes.

Agree Disagree

42. Sport participation should be fun.

Agree Disagree

43. All athletes should be given an opportunity to play in all contests.

Agree Disagree

44. Even poorly skilled athletes deserve the right to play.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

45. Athletes should be allowed to make decisions during contests.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

46. Individuals should strive to win, but should be careful **not** to embarrass opponents.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

47. Athletes should take illegal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

48. If an individual is not willing to compete when in pain, he or she lacks commitment to success.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

49. Losing **should not** have much of an affect upon an individual.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

50. Both my competitors and I can achieve success in a contest.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

51. The win-at-all-cost philosophy common in professional sport is acceptable for youth and school sport.

○ Agree ○ Disagree

52. Individuals **should not** be willing to sacrifice their short-term health in pursuit of success in sport (Example: break a bone).

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

53. It **is not** important for athletes to use the latest technology to find success in sport (Example: high tech equipment).

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

54. The greatest measure of success in sport **is not** enjoyment.

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

55. Athletes **should not** take legal performance-enhancing drugs in the pursuit of success.

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

56. My honor is more important than winning.

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

57. Athletes should have input into their training.

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

58. Individuals can experience success in sport without working hard.

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

59. It is acceptable if the coach does not seem to be in control at all times.

◯ Agree ◯ Disagree

60. It **is not** acceptable to cheat in order to win.

Agree Disagree

61. The coach **should not** complain to officials concerning calls that are made against his or her team.

Agree Disagree

62. Performing to one's capabilities **is not** the most significant measure of success in sport.

Agree Disagree

63. Coaches should set training rules for athletes (Examples: don't smoke, no alcohol).

Agree Disagree

64. Individuals should be willing to sacrifice their long-term health in the pursuit of success (Example: life-long joint pain).

Agree Disagree

65. My opponents should be hated.

Agree Disagree

66. Athletes should have input into decisions during competitive events.

Agree Disagree

67. In order for individuals to be successful in sport, they must dedicate themselves to the point that other aspects of their life may suffer (Examples: sacrifice relationships and the achievement of excellence in other areas of life).

Agree Disagree

68. The latest information from the sport sciences should be utilized in training sessions (Examples: Exercise Physiology and Biomechanics).

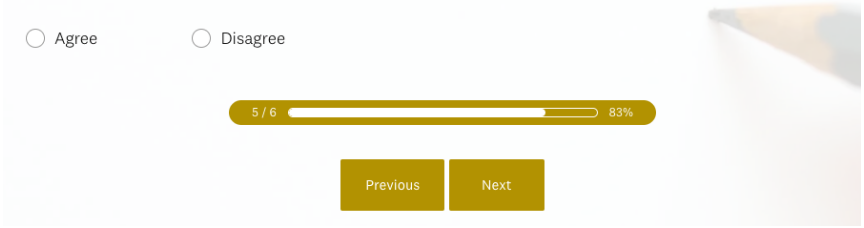
Agree Disagree

69. Opponents assist me in achieving my success.

Agree Disagree

70. Individuals **should not** sacrifice large sums of money in the pursuit of athletic success.

Agree Disagree



MBA Dissertation Survey on Shared Leadership

About Your Leadership Style

Final section! This questionnaire provides a description of your leadership style. 21 descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word *others* may mean your followers, clients, or group members.

1. I make others feel good to be around me.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

2. I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

3. I enable others to think about old problems in new ways.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

4. I help others develop themselves.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

5. I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

6. I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

7. I am content to let others continue working in the same ways always.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

8. Others have complete faith in me.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

9. I provide appealing images about what we can do.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

10. I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

11. I let others know how I think they are doing.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

12. I provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

13. As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

14. Whatever others want to do is OK with me.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

15. Others are proud to be associated with me.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

16. I help others find meaning in their work.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

17. I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

18. I give personal attention to others who seem rejected.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

19. I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

20. I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

21. I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
○	○	○	○	○

22. **OPTIONAL**: Thank you! In exchange for your valuable time, if you wish to receive a report on your results - for this section only - please provide a personal (preferably anonymous) email address for the researcher to send them to you with some additional context for this survey questionnaire.

6 / 6 100%

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