Shared Leadership on Employee Performance and the Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy

Isabella J. Strows

S4223470

Department of Psychology, University of Groningen

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Supervisor: Roxana Bucur

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Abstract

Traditional leadership has continuously researched the benefits it brings to team outcomes like performance or effectiveness (Day et al., 2004). However, shared leadership research has begun to reveal that this traditional approach may no longer be sufficient, with the distribution of leadership found to bolster team outcomes further(Bergman et al., 2012). Self-efficacy is another highly researched variable in understanding performance outcomes, and has gathered great support, but this focus on the individual is minimal in current organisational leadership research. Thus, this present study investigated the role of self-efficacy as a moderating variable in the relationship between shared leadership and an employee's performance. We hypothesised that when a team engages in shared leadership, the positive effects of this will be stronger on employee performance when self-efficacy is high. A sample of 89 matched dyadic pairs, and statistical regression analyses, revealed that shared leadership and self-efficacy both negatively predicted employee performance, but performance was positively predicted by the interaction between them. Previous research has found negative effects of shared leadership, such as a lack of individual attentional resources (Hobföll, 1989; Evans et al., 2021) or social loafing (Chen et al., 2001). Similarly negative effects of self-efficacy include overestimation of ability (Bandura, 1997) and designating less time to preparation (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Such findings may begin to explain the negative effects found in the current study. Thus, the importance of focusing on individuals within organisations is clear and a necessary focus for future research.

Keywords: Shared leadership, Self-efficacy, Employee Performance, Dyads

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Investigation into the various leadership styles and their effects on teams is prominent in organisational research, with the general consensus demonstrating that a single effective leader is crucial for the performance outcomes of teams (Day, Gronn & Salas, 2004) as well as for in-group relationships and team cohesiveness (Yukl & William, 2020). Recent studies have begun to reveal, however that the focus of this research is narrow, only investigating the role of one formal leader on a team of subordinates while disregarding the influence of team members on one another (Carson, Tesluk, Marrone, 2007; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Stewart & Manz, 1995) and with the proliferation of self-managing teams (Carson et al., 2007; Ensley, Hmieleski & Pearce, 2006; Solanksy, 2008; Wu, Cormican & Chen, 2020) this is evermore important. Research intothe benefits of sharing these leadership responsibilities across the entire team. Locke (2003) refers to shared leadership simply as ‘group-level leadership’, while more recent developments from Lyndon, Pandey, and Navare (2020) extend this, in which shared leadership represents an informal influential dynamic process involving more than the traditional top-down influence of a selected leader onto subordinates. As such, researchers have investigated this leadership style on team-based concepts such as performance, cohesiveness and satisfaction (Bergman, Rentsch, Small, Davenport, & Bergman, 2012). These studies show that a single formal leader may not be sufficient while demonstrating the value introducing shared leadership can bring in addition to the traditional top-down leadership concept (Bergman et al., 2012). Individual studies have researched shared leadership in many different contexts such as new venture teams (Ensley et al., 2006) and change management teams (Pearce & Sims, 2002), which continue to back up these results. Additionally, there are currently 5 meta-analyses that have

investigated the different areas of shared leadership. Namely, the antecedent conditions that bring shared leadership to fruition (Wu et al., 2020) benefits it brings to team outcomes (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, Kukenberger, 2016; Wang, Waldman, Zhang, 2014; Wu et al., 2020), as well as moderating variables in these relationships (Nicolaides, LaPort, Chen, Tomassetti, Weis, Zaccaro, Cortina, 2014; Wu et al., 2018; Yin, Niu, Dong, Zhang, Ashok, 2023).

Notwithstanding the benefits, one cannot ignore the contradictions of other shared leadership research. There are a handful of empirical studies that have discovered contexts in which shared leadership reveals negative effects on team performance. Han, Yoon, Choi and Hong (2021) found that while a generally positive association, when shared leadership is task-oriented, teams develop low decision-making efficiency, causing negative effects on the team's performance. Additionally, research highlighted that too much sharing can actually begin to have negative effects. Chen, Gully and Eden (2001) found emergence of diffused responsibility in the team, leading to social-loafing or free-riding, as well as declines in team creativity. Liu (2017) found a U-shaped curvilinear relationship between shared leadership and employee challenge-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour, later damaging performance. Nordbäck and Espinosa (2019) found high shared leadership among a group has a negative impact on the team's performance due to creation of leadership dependencies in uncoordinated tasks.

However, highlighted from these studies is the neglect of one important figure in both performance outcomes and shared leadership - the individual. Many studies highlights the benefits to team or task performance (D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, Kukenberger, 2016; Wang et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2020), as well as the role of team-efficacy in performance outcomes (Chae & Park, 2020; Gully, Incalcaterra, Joshi & Beaubien, 2002; Riggs & Knight, 2004), with very

limited focus on the effect and role of the individual. Self-efficacy is a largely studied concept regarding individual performance, and consistent positive effects could help to bridge the gap in the conflicting results. Thus, the purpose of this study is to provide an even more comprehensive view of shared leadership and what it can bring to the field of organisational psychology.

Theory Development and Hypotheses

Shared Leadership and Employee Performance

According to Homan's (1958) Social-Exchange Theory social relationships rely on a cost-benefit analysis of a situation which drives our behaviour regarding reciprocity. If we feel support from others around us we are likely to deem it more beneficial to reciprocate this support. What follows is a perpetuated cycle of support and other behaviours that benefit both individuals and the relationship. This idea can be applied to the organisational context and is known as the theory of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975). Through the perception of organisational support, employees feel an obligation to reciprocate efforts with an increase in Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB) as well as performance. This rests on the idea that there is a proportionality between the value the employee places on the leader's behaviour and the value placed on the employee behaviour by the leader. By providing support and engaging in a high quality relationship with their employee, leaders foster a situation in which employees feel a need to give back to the leader, and in turn, the organisation by improving performance. This exchange is then 'completed' by the leader engaging and potentially rewarding the employee's efforts and, thus, the cycle continues (Shih & Nguyen 2023).

Shared leadership being an informal dynamic influence of leadership, also means it is situationally dependent - the leadership role is taken on by whomever the team believes is most qualified. Applying the concept of reciprocation further, if multiple roles are possible for each individual in the team, there is potential for multiple networks of reciprocation: when one takes on the follower role to a supportive leader, when one takes on the follower role with other supportive followers, and when one is in the leadership role and can demonstrate support to the former supportive leaders.

Recent empirical studies have primarily found shared leadership to be effective for team outcomes (Barnett & Weidenfeller, 2016; Day et al., 2004; D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Drescher, Kordgaard, Welpe, Picot &Wigand, 2014; Klasmeier & Rowold, 2020; Wu et al., 2018). Earlier research also identified additional potential outcomes. For example, Katz and Kahn (1978) suggested that providing leadership to others should increase the sense of commitment one feels toward the group and goal, as well as, providing greater resources and more information to tasks they deem complex. Supporting this, Drescher et al., (2014) and Han, Lee, Beyerlein and Kohl (2018) found that teams utilising shared leadership experience an increase in the cognitive resources they share as well as the expertise they use, and a strengthened sense of coordination effort towards the group goal. As a result, teams that exhibit such leadership behaviours are more likely to experience less conflict, a greater consensus, with higher intragroup trust, and strengthened cohesion (Bergman et al., 2012). So, when employees share the leadership roles and responsibilities among a team, the effect on performance will be greater than those with a hierarchical leader structure, something that Ensley et al., (2006) and Pearce and Sims (2002) found.

Although, shared leadership research is greatly in favour of its benefits on teams, higher employee proactivity as a result of the shared reciprocity has been found to build foundations for a higher quality dyadic relationship, which in turn constitutes a higher quality outcome. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Shared Leadership is positively related to employee performance

Self-efficacy and Performance

Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997) explains how one's confidence in their ability to perform specific tasks or attain specific goals influences the final outcome. One's expectations of their efficacy can have an influence on their initiation of action, effort and persistence behaviours in relation to the task when faced with obstacles. Research into this phenomenon has focused on its application in the academic setting and seemingly found self-efficacy to be a positive predictor of subsequent task performance (Chae & Park, 2020; Lane & Lane 2001; Multon, Brown, Lent, 1991). Outside of education, organisational research has continued to find a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance along with increasing team cohesiveness, commitment and involvement (Black, Kim, Rhee, Wang, Sakchutchawan, 2018). Recent research found that self-efficacy increases one's perception of control, organisation, and successful outcomes, as well as applications of different strategies to current challenges (Yagil, Medler-Liraz, & Bichachi, 2023). Shunck (1989) found that one's belief in their abilities not only affects later performance, but even has an impact on the tasks they choose to perform as well as motivation to do so. This view is supported by Locke and Latham's (2002) goal setting theory suggests that highly efficacious individuals are more likely to choose challenging, but attainable tasks. Combining this with Stajkovic and Luthan's (1998) suggestion that self-efficacy increases

job satisfaction, it is plausible that these factors as well as the relationship between them will increase motivation as well as employee performance.

Despite the plethora of research supporting self-efficacy's positive influence, one missing, or at least limited area of leadership research as of yet, is the study of self-efficacy's impact on individual employee performance. Much of the research investigating self-efficacy focuses on individual academic performance, or self-efficacy's effect on team performance. Therefore, due to this present research investigating the effects on individuals, reference to positive effects on individual academic performance serves as the basis for the second hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Self-efficacy is positively related to employee performance

Shared Leadership, Employee Performance, and the Moderating Effects of Self-efficacy

Research into the moderating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between shared leadership and employee performance seems limited and with this limitation comes many mixed conclusions.

Suppose one perceives themselves as part of the team and therefore takes on a collective identity (Mathieu, Kukenberger, D'Innocenzo, Reilly, 2015), in that case, they are likely to have an increased sense of engagement with the team and tasks, and therefore utilise one's internal resources, knowledge as well as the expertise of a diverse team (Wang et al., 2014). This is based on Ackerman's (1987) resource allocation theory, which states that employees have a fixed number of attentional resources that can be allocated to tasks that are regarded as important. Additionally, when confidence in one's abilities to complete particular tasks or achieve certain

goals increases, it follows that our sharing behaviour might increase too (Safdar, Batool & Mahmood, 2020). Given the abundance of research discovering positive links between shared leadership and performance, and between self-efficacy and performance, it seems likely that the effect of the former would further strengthen when self-efficacy is high. Bandura's (1997) research revealed this to be the case: when self-efficacy is high, individuals are more willing to share personal resources and devote them to the task or outcome, suggesting improvements in performance. Further, Chae and Park (2020) as well as Safdar et al., (2020) found that self-efficacy is not only positively related to knowledge-sharing but is a stronger predictor of it. Further, frequent leader-follower interactions, such as those in a shared leadership dynamic wherein leadership and follower roles are taken on by everyone, can boost confidence in our efficacy to complete tasks and overcome challenges, therefore improving performance (Liden). Other researched areas include employee resilience (Maddux, 1995), collaboration efforts (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and employee proactive behaviours (Salanova, Lorente, Chambel & Martínez, 2011)

On the contrary, one can see how low self-efficacy can have opposing effects on the shared leadership and employee performance relationship. Surprisingly, however, such effects have been found to be dependent on the perceived efficacy of others. According to Tett and Burnett's (2003) trait activation theory, our personality and job performance are strongly connected such that when certain situations arise, particular cues allow for individual trait expression. Perceptions of colleague or team efficacy can provide a cue as to where we allocate our 'attentional resources'. Minimally self-efficacious employees who perceive the team to be highly efficacious may defer their responsibilities onto others (Carson et al., 2007), as a result of decreased motivation and efforts (Bandura, 1997) as well as a lack of confidence to engage in

proactive or leadership behaviours (Bandura, 1982). With this, comes a reduced proactivity and initiative one may normally experience, along with a diminished capacity for problem-solving and decision-making capacity (Salanova et al., 2011) . Following from this may come the chance for increased stress or burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and finally a reduced sense of resilience when faced with challenges (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994). Applying Locke and Latham's (2002) theory, individuals experiencing low self-efficacy may choose easier tasks or fail to find motivation to persevere when tasks are deemed challenging, thus negatively impacting their performance.

While negative effects of low self-efficacy may be a natural assumption, one that may not come so naturally is the negative effects of high self-efficacy. Ambiguity of one's performance seems to have gained much attention with Bandura's (1997) mention of negative self-efficacy effects in the preparation before a task. With this, one can refer to the academic setting. In preparation for their final exams students must effectively judge their competence for the exam material. In doing so they allocate their efforts, such that more effort goes to material they feel they have not mastered, and less to material that they have. The issue with this, however, is our tendency to optimistically overestimate our own knowledge of material, resulting in allocating less time to all material, and much to our surprise, a disappointing performance (Chen et al., 2001; Gully et al., 2009; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004, Talsma, Schüz & Norris, 2019; Vancouver, More, Yoder, 2008). Highly efficacious individuals are also more likely to take undue risks and portray a reduced tolerance for feedback (Chen et al., 2001; Moore & Healy, 2008; Satjkovic & Luthans, 1998). Schmidt and DeShon (2010) discovered negative effects of self-efficacy when one experiences ambiguity regarding their performance. Extending this further, Beattie, Woodman, Fakehy and Dempsy (2016) found that when performance/task reflexivity is not

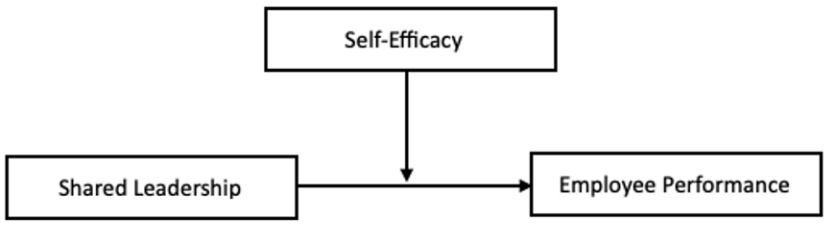
possible, in situations involving the withholding of feedback, self-efficacy adversely impacts one's performance. Ackerman (1987) discovered that when one deems themselves highly self-efficacious and their colleagues equally efficacious, the intention to share resources and knowledge may decrease, through a perspective of competitive standard in which one feels obligated to confirm the ability they believe to have.

However, working in teams whereby each individual is equally responsible for team outcomes, may help to minimise this. Indeed, shared leadership research has found the ability to distribute challenges and/or responsibilities per each task can allow for better communication and collaboration (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), motivation in organisational tasks (Bandura, 1997; Maddux, 1995), and problem solving (Salanova et al., 2011), thus, potentially enhancing employee performance for highly-efficacious individuals. Due to this particular moderator relationship being one of, if not the first, to include both self-efficacy and employee performance, it is the perfect opportunity for this study to potentially bring further clarification to the broad phenomena that is shared leadership. As a result, the final hypothesis will be based on Chae and Park's (2020) moderator study involving team-efficacy and performance. Therefore, as demonstrated in Figure 1, the final hypothesis is:

> *Hypothesis 3: Employee self-efficacy moderates the effect of shared leadership on employee performance. The positive effect of shared leadership will be stronger when employees show more self-efficacy*

Figure 1

Hypothesised Moderating Relationship Between Shared Leadership, Self-efficacy, and Employee Performance



Method

Participants

The initial sample included 257 total participants recruited from companies around the Netherlands. X identified as men, X identified as women, and 0 identified as 'other'. Participants were required to work at least 17 hours a week, be a minimum of 18 years old, and part of a team. From the total participants, 79 were removed, due to reasons such as, participation of only one member of the dyad, or leaders with multiple employee matches, but only completing the questionnaire, leaving us unable to accurately match.This left a total of 178 final participants. The final sample created 89 dyads, meaning 89 leaders and 89 matched employees, with the 1 follower per leader. The leader group consisted of 56 men and 33 women, with an overall average age of 42. Within the employee group 35 were men and 54 were women with an overall average age of 35.

Design and Procedure

Our study is a cross-sectional multi-source field study wherein participants were recruited conveniently through personal networks of the students themselves, as well as approaching participants with a QR code, either in the street or in their places of work. All original questionnaires were in English, so in order to make this applicable to only Dutch or Dutch-speaking participants, all questionnaires were adjusted and translated into Dutch (See Appendix A). Leaders and employees received a link to the online questionnaire and were instructed to answer the survey in relation to their matched pair. The questionnaire included other measures such as destructive leadership, trust, legitimacy, and job satisfaction. All leader-follower pairs were asked to create a unique code to assist in the future matching process. All participants received information about the handling of their data, as well as information

regarding their rights as participants as well as what we asked of them prior to giving their consent to complete the survey. This research was approved by the ethical committee of The Faculty of Behavioural and Social Sciences at the University of Groningen.

Measures

Shared leadership (Independent Variable)

Shared Leadership was measured using the scales by Hoch (2013), containing 18-items divided across 3 subscales (See Appendix). Six items made up transformational leadership and a sample item was “My manager gives a clear picture of what our team stands for”. Eight further items made up individual empowering leadership and a sample item was “My manager encourages me to find solutions to my problems at work myself”. Finally, 4 items made the participative leadership subscale. A sample item was “My manager decides with me what my performance goals are”. Participants were asked to rate each of the 18 items on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree, and 4 = neither agree or disagree). Therefore, high scores indicate the employee feels supported and encouraged by their leaders in their jobs. The reliability of the total shared leadership scale was Cronbach’s alpha = .757.

Performance (Dependent Variable)

Measuring performance used 2 individual scales. The first, by Van Der Vegt and Bunderson (2005), required leaders to score their employees on 6 items relating to general performance (See Appendix A), for example perceived efficiency or quality of work. This was also scored using a 7-point scale (1 = very poor performance, 7 = very good performance). Therefore, higher ratings indicate the leader believes their employee to be exerting high performance at work. The second scale involved 21 items from the scale of Williams & Anderson (1991) divided across 3 subscales (See Appendix A). Seven items make up the In-Role

Behaviour (IRB) Performance subscale. A sample item is " They perform assigned tasks properly". A further 7 items were used to measure performance of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours that have a specific individual as the target (OCBI) in which a sample item is "They help others who have been absent". The final 7 items were used to measure performance of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours that focus on benefiting the organisation (OCBO); a sample item was "Attendance at work is above standard". This was also rated on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree, and 4 = neither agree or disagree). Therefore, high scores indicate an employee engages in so as to boost performance of themselves as well as others and the organisation. The reliability of the total self-efficacy scale was Cronbach's alpha = .906.

Self-efficacy (Moderator)

Self-efficacy was measured using Riggot, Schyns & Mohr's (2008) 6-item scale Occupational Self-efficacy Scale (See Appendix A). Included are items regarding one's efficacy beliefs relating to their abilities in general as well as ability to overcome obstacles. Employees were asked to rate each item on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree, and 4 = neither agree or disagree). An example item is "I can remain calm when faced with difficulties in my work because I can rely on my skills". Therefore, higher scores indicate the employee feels they have a stronger ability to deal and overcome obstacles when they present themselves. The reliability of this scale was Crohnbach's alpha = .863

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Our final sample consisted of N=89 dyads of employee and leader pairs. As shown in Table 1, the means of each variable were very close: shared leadership with a mean of 5.48 (SD = .763), employee self-efficacy with a mean of 5.66 (SD = 1.04), and employee performance with a mean of 5.31 (SD = .71). The correlation between self-efficacy and employee performance was positive but very weak and non-significant, while the correlation between shared. Interestingly though, shared leadership was moderately and positively correlated with employee self-efficacy.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Variables - Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1.	2.
1. Shared Leadership	5.48	.763	-	-
2. Self-Efficacy	5.66	1.04	.445*	-
3. Employee Performance	5.31	.71	-.006	.180

Note. $N = 89$. * $p < .001$.

Assumptions

To test the assumptions for our analyses, we inspected histograms, P-P Plots of standardised residuals, standardised residual-by-predicted-values plots, and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). All plots can be found in Appendix B. Inspection of the residual plots showed the standardised residuals to be normally distributed, and further inspection of the residual-by-predicted plots indicated this further. Thus, no violations of the normality, linearity, or homoscedasticity assumptions. The VIF of shared leadership and self-efficacy

were both above the cut-off of 4, 5.1 and 10.4 respectively, thus the assumption of multicollinearity was not met. A value above 10 indicates a moderate correlation between variables, however, as other values are lower, we consider a moderate relationship acceptable for this research. The residual-by-predicted-values scatter plot revealed potential for one case to be an outlier, however, it does not stray too far from the data that it would have a large influence on results. Overall, most assumptions for regression analysis are met, although not all. As such, results should be interpreted with caution.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1 states that shared leadership is positively related to employee performance, and Hypothesis 2 states that employee self-efficacy is positively related to employee performance. To test these, the main effects of each variable were investigated, shown in Table 2. A negative but significant main effect of shared leadership on employee performance as well as of self-efficacy on employee performance means Hypothesis 1 and 2 are not supported.

Hypothesis 3 states that employee self-efficacy moderates the effect of shared leadership on employee performance such that the positive effect of shared leadership will be stronger. To test this, after standardising all variables, a multiple linear regression was completed. As shown in Table 2, the interaction effect of shared leadership and self-efficacy was a significant predictor of employee performance ($\beta = .113$, $p = .016$), thus providing support for Hypothesis 3. Figure 2 supports this, at high levels of self-efficacy, the moderation was significant ($p = .025$) suggesting, as hypothesised, when shared leadership is in place and one's self-efficacy is high, employees experience an increase in their

performance. The moderation was also significant at the low levels of self-efficacy (p = .025), suggesting that when shared leadership is high in a team, lowly efficacious employees perform worse. As a model, 7-11% of the variance in employee performance is significantly explained (R^2 = .105, Adjusted R^2 = .07, $F(3,85) = 3.341$, $p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

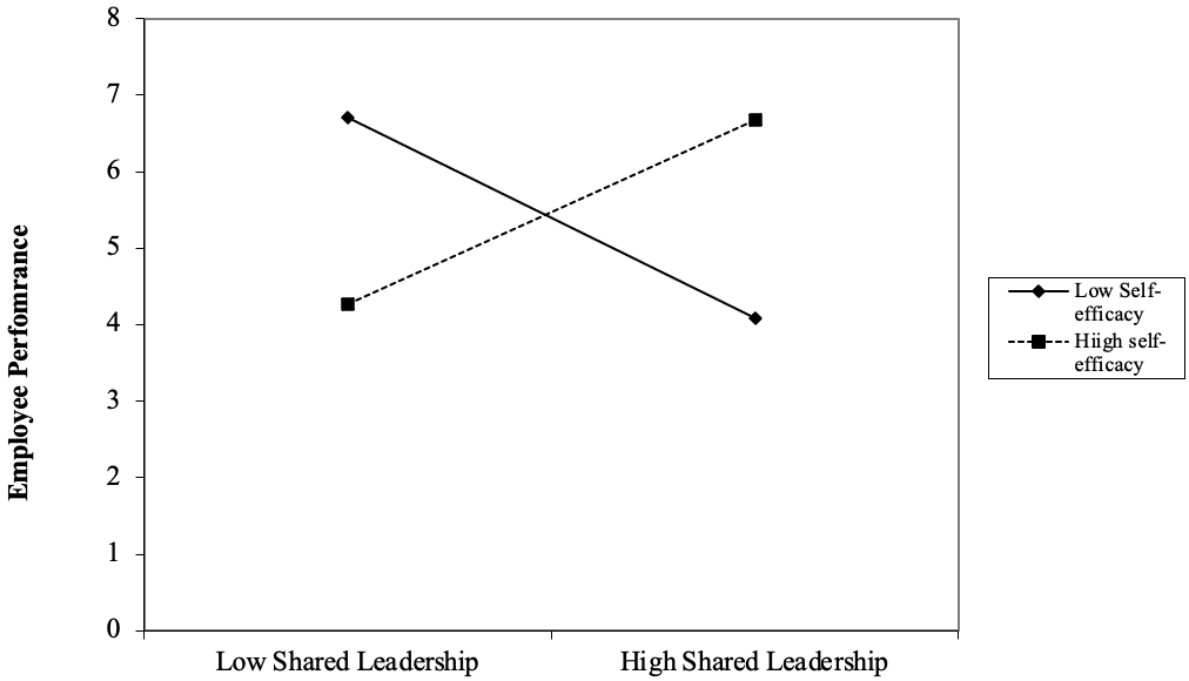
Table 2

Results of the Regression Analysis Predicting Employee Performance

Predictor	***B***	***SE***	***t***	***p***
Constant	7.691	1.051	7.317	<.001
Shared Leadership	-.578	.234	-2.469	.016
Self-Efficacy	-.547	.244	-2.241	.028
Interaction	.140	.049	2.833	.006

Figure 2

Interaction Between Shared Leadership and Self-efficacy



Discussion

This research delved into how working in teams that engage in shared leadership influences employee outcomes. Three hypotheses were determined: shared leadership is positively associated with employee performance, self-efficacy is positively associated with employee performance, and employee self-efficacy positively moderates the relationship between shared leadership and employee performance. The analysis revealed that the first two hypotheses were not supported. Shared leadership and self-efficacy were found to be negative predictors of employee performance. However, the moderation hypothesis was supported, with a significant moderation relationship when self-efficacy is high, implying that when a team already practises shared leadership, the degree of one's self-efficacy can positively influence its relation to employee performance. Individually, the variables negatively influence performance, but when combined have a positive effect.

Theoretical Implications

Self-efficacy negatively predicting employee performance is unexpected due to research into self-efficacy and Bandura's (1987) heavily supported Social Cognitive Theory continuously pointing to its positive association with performance. Previously mentioned was the idea of too much self-efficacy and its adverse effects on performance, which may explain the negative result. Self-efficacy is an internal concept based on our individual perceptions of ability. For some, this perception can be skewed, resulting in an overestimation of abilities (Bandura, 1997) and consequently designating less time to tasks and their preparation (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Mann & Eland, 2005); Vancouver et al., 2008) Further, high self-efficacy acts as an internal signal of good performance so the value assigned to constructive feedback is minimised (Sherf &

Morrison, 2020), consequently not improving performance. This did not support the hypothesised positive association between self-efficacy and employee performance.

Shared leadership negatively predicting employee performance is another unexpected result. Though shared leadership was crystallised as a concept relatively recently by Pearce and Conger (2003), research has continued to establish its positive effects within organisations. Similar to self-efficacy, potentially too much shared leadership may explain the contradictory results of the current research. Briefly mentioned was the resource allocation theory (Ackerman, 1987) which suggests that a high collective identity may encourage us to share our resources with the team. However, allocating many resources to team tasks may minimise the resources individuals allocate to themselves. This was an idea theorised by Hobföll (1989) and was recently supported in shared leadership research by Evans, Sanner and Chiu (2021), and can be further linked to the concept of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB). These behaviours are chosen voluntarily by employees without expectation of reward, that can benefit other individuals (OCBI) and the organisation (OCBO) (Wengang, Fenglian, & Feng, 2023). According to this, it could be that employees part of a shared leadership team allocate their resources to the team, sacrificing their own outcomes for those of the team and organisation. Diffusion of responsibility and social loafing, as found by Chen et al. (2001) may also be at play. Therefore, although the hypothesised positive association between shared leadership and performance was not supported, significant negative associations highlight the importance of focusing on individuals

However, despite the individual negative effects of these variables, the results revealed that in the end combining them has a positive influence on one's performance. A significant interaction at high levels of self-efficacy supports the moderation hypothesis, however, due to the

lack of research investigating this hypothesised model, speculation for these results is the only possible course. Due to self-efficacy being a personal concept its effects in individual versus group settings may vary. Ackerman (1987) suggests that the effects of self-efficacy on sharing behaviour and performance are based on how efficacious we perceive our team. If we deem the team and ourselves highly efficacious, we view it as a competition and withhold resources; if we deem ourselves more efficacious than the team we do not feel threatened, so are more likely to take the lead and share skills and knowledge in order to achieve our tasks and goals (Chae and Park, 2020). Due to the positive results it could be that in general employees perceived themselves more efficacious than their team, thus engaged in sharing behaviour and improving their performance. The speculation is undoubtedly high with these final interpretations, as limited research has investigated individual effects, but future research into confounding factors such as perceived team efficacy could expand the understanding further.

Strengths

One significant strength of this research is the focus on the dyadic relationship between leader and employee which allows for a more in-depth, comprehensive understanding of the leader-employee dynamic in an organisational context. Many studies into leadership styles tend to focus attention to either employee outcomes or leadership styles on team outcomes; not many combine them. As such, we extend the current research into leadership and performance further by investigating the underlying connections between shared leadership styles and the individual employee outcomes.

Additionally, although many organisations are becoming more international, some organisations around the Netherlands likely have a higher ratio of Dutch employees/leaders to international employees/leaders to the degree that some places are entirely or majority Dutch.

The goal of this study was to investigate workplace relationships in Dutch-speaking organisations. As such, the results of this current research are relevant in these particular situations and can be the first stepping stones to understanding Dutch leadership styles in these Dutch organisations.

Limitations and Future Research

While these results provide insight into unexplained areas of shared leadership, one must not ignore the study's limitations, which make result interpretation challenging. First, a sample size of 89 is too small to draw significant conclusions or make generalisations. With such a small sample, the chance of encountering errors is too high to make the results entirely valid and not meeting all of the assumptions of a regression analysis further contributes to this. One reason for a small sample is the issue of data privacy. Many approached individuals were sceptical about the information we had access to and what we would use it for, so despite detailed explanations and reassurance, they did not feel comfortable to participate. In large-scale organisations like Phillips or ASML, data privacy concerns are much more prevalent and less lenient. Many personal contacts individually showed interest in the study but could not participate due to the strict privacy restrictions their company enforces.

Moreover, as a group of students following the English track of Psychology, the international students within the group outnumbered the Dutch students. As a result, not only does using a convenience sampling method and potentially the snowball sampling method miss a large amount of employee/leader matches, this limitation is then further limited by the amount of Dutch contacts available. The Netherlands is a highly international country, with a 150% increase in immigration between 2021 and 2022 (CBS Statline, 2023) and a 170% increase in work permits administered to migrating individuals in that same period (CBS Statline, 2023); it

seems likely then that many organisations, especially those on a large scale, have growing international teams. Thus, integrating international employees and exploring the subsequent variations of Dutch and International employees or leaders (Dutch leader/international employee, Dutch employee/international leader and international leader/international employee) could significantly enhance the study. This expansion would not only address the limited dyadic research of leaders and employees but also might improve the participant recruitment process and increase the sample size, thus making it more generalisable to a broader population.

Second, reliance on self-reports leaves the data susceptible to influence by factors we, as researchers, are not privy to or have control over. Examples include participants' degree of honesty, the potential for over or underestimating themselves, and whether questions are clear enough to answer. Potential collaboration with their leader or employee pair, the influence of completing the questionnaire at home or in the workplace, or simply the influence of whether the employee or leader is the one to find a pair are additional factors that we did not or could not control for. With this comes the further influence of team size, degree of work experience, the spectrum of the closeness between colleagues and the inability to know the extent of employee performance improvement due to lack of comparison data. With such confounding factors and sample size, making conclusions or interpretations becomes restricted. Controlling for these factors, or investigating some of their potential influence, working from home versus at the office for example, may have the potential to explore and deeper understand further influences around organisational dyadic relationships.

Following this, not all leader and employee relationships are positive. It is plausible to assume that participants in more negative relationships will not want to answer about their pair in general, and if they do not want to answer about their pair, they certainly will not want to ask

them to participate. Even if the relationships between employees and leaders are not as unfavourable, individuals may feel that asking their pair could disrupt their healthy or at least civil relationship. Employees may feel obligated if approached by their manager, or, if their manager were to decline, they may feel the relationship has shifted. As such, individuals may not want to participate at all or might fill out their questionnaire but will not approach their pair, making their data invalid.

Practical Implications

Despite its flaws, this study offers unique insights into the dynamics of leader/employee relationships from the perspectives of both leaders and employees. It not only contributes to some of the current gaps in general leadership and shared leadership research but does so while focusing on the individuals involved - an avenue not taken by many. Discovering negative effects of shared leadership and self-efficacy, variables continuously found to have positive influences, only highlights further the value and potential for further exploration into employees.

Conclusion

As organisational research into leadership styles and team outcomes relationships continues to grow, one must remember that teams require the input of individuals; therefore, investigating the influence of the individuals that make up these teams is paramount. This study provides an insight into this by showing, potentially for the first time, that teams engaging in shared leadership can boost the degree to which an employee perceives themselves as self-efficacious, and the extent of one's self-efficacy can improve the impact of shared leadership on one's performance at work. This study thus contributes to filling the gap in current shared leadership research while providing a foundation for the various possible directions of future investigations.

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Appendix A

Original andAdjusted Questionnaires

Original Shared Leadership Questionnaire (Hoch, 2013)

1. My colleagues provide a clear vision of whom and what our team is.
2. My colleagues are driven by higher purposes or ideals.
3. My colleagues show enthusiasm for my efforts.
4. My colleagues encourage me to rethink ideas which had never been questioned before.
5. My colleagues seek a broad range of perspectives when solving problems.
6. My colleagues encourage me to go above and beyond what is normally (e.g., extra
7. effort).
8. My colleagues encourage me to search for solutions to my problems without
9. supervision.
10. My colleagues urge me to assume responsibilities on my own.
11. My colleagues encourage me to learn new things.
12. My colleagues encourage me to give myself a pat on the back when I meet a new
13. challenge.
14. My colleagues encourage me to work together with other individuals who are part of
15. the team.
16. My colleagues advise me to coordinate my efforts with the others, who are part of the
17. team.
18. My colleagues urge me to work as a team with the others, who are part of the team.
19. My colleagues expect that the collaboration with the other members in the team works
20. well.

21. My colleagues decide on my performance goals together with me.
22. My colleagues and I work together to decide what my performance goals should be.
23. My colleagues and I sit down together and reach agreement on my performance goals.
24. My colleagues work with me to develop my performance goals.

Original Employee Performance Questionnaire 1. (Van der Vegt and Bunderson, 2005)

How does your employee score on ...

1. achieving goals?
2. meeting deadlines?
3. working speed?
4. the quality of the work?
5. productivity?
6. effectiveness?

Original Employee Performance Questionnaire 2. (Van der Vegt and Bunderson, 2005)

1. Performs assigned duties satisfactorily.
2. Fulfills the responsibilities stated in the job description.
3. Performs the tasks expected of him/her.
4. Meets the formal performance requirements of the position.
5. Engages in activities that directly affect his/her performance rating.
6. Neglects aspects of the work he/she is required to perform.
7. Fails to perform essential duties.
8. Helps others who have been absent.
9. Helps others who have a heavy workload.
10. Assists me with my work (when not requested).

11. Takes the time to listen to colleagues' problems and concerns.
12. Does his/her utmost to help new employees.
13. Takes personal interest in other employees.
14. Passes on information to colleagues.
15. Attendance at work is above standard.
16. Indicates in advance when he/she cannot come to work.
17. Takes too many work breaks.
18. Spend a lot of time on personal phone calls.
19. Complains about unimportant things at work.
20. Stores and protects organizational property.
21. Adheres to informal rules established to maintain order.

Original Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (Riggots et al., 2008)

1. I can remain calm when faced with difficulties in my work because I can rely on my skills.
2. When I am confronted with a problem in my work, I usually find several solutions.
3. Whatever happens in my work, I can usually handle it.
4. The experiences I have gained in my work in the past have prepared me well for my work in the future.
5. I achieve the goals I set for myself in my work.
6. I feel able to cope with the demands of my job.

Adjusted Shared Leadership Questionnaire

1. Mijn leidinggevende geeft een duidelijk beeld van waar ons team voor staat.
2. Mijn leidinggevende is gedreven door hogere doelen of idealen.

3. Mijn leidinggevende laat waardering zien voor mijn inspanningen.
4. Mijn leidinggevende moedigt mij aan om ideeën te heroverwegen die nooit eerder in twijfel getrokken zijn.
5. Mijn leidinggevende maakt gebruik van veel verschillende perspectieven om problemen op te lossen .
6. Mijn leidinggevende moedigt mij aan om meer te doen dan alleen dat wat van mij verwacht wordt (bijv. extra inspanning).
7. Mijn leidinggevende moedigt mij aan om zelf oplossingen te zoeken voor mijn problemen in het werk.
8. Mijn leidinggevende dringt aan om zelf verantwoordelijkheid voor het werk te nemen.
9. Mijn leidinggevende moedigt mij aan om nieuwe dingen te leren.
10. Mijn leidinggevende moedigt mij aan om mezelf een schouderklopje te geven wanneer ik een nieuwe uitdaging heb behaald.
11. Mijn leidinggevende moedigt mij aan om samen te werken met andere teamleden.
12. Mijn leidinggevende adviseert mij om mijn werk af te stemmen met anderen, die onderdeel uitmaken van het team.
13. Mijn leidinggevende dringt erop aan om als een team samen te werken met anderen, die deel uitmaken van het team.
14. Mijn leidinggevende verwacht dat de samenwerking met de andere teamleden goed verloopt.
15. Mijn leidinggevende besluit samen met mij wat mijn prestatiedoelen zijn.
16. Mijn leidinggevende en ik werken samen om te kiezen wat mijn prestatiedoelen moeten zijn.

17. Mijn leidinggevende en ik gaan samen om de tafel om overeenstemming te krijgen over mijn prestatiedoelen.
18. Mijn leidinggevende werkt met mij samen om mijn prestatiedoelen te ontwikkelen.

Adjusted Employee Performance Questionnaire 1.

Hoe scoort uw medewerker op...

1. …het bereiken van doelen?
2. … het behalen van deadlines?
3. … werksnelheid?
4. … de kwaliteit van het werk?
5. … productiviteit?
6. … effectiviteit?

Adjusted Employee Performance Questionnaire 2.

1. Voert de opgedragen taken naar behoren uit.
2. Voldoet aan de verantwoordelijkheden vermeld in de functiebeschrijving.
3. Voert de taken uit die van hem/haar verwacht worden.
4. Voldoet aan de formele prestatie-eisen van de functie.
5. Houdt zich/haar bezig met activiteiten die rechtstreeks van invloed zijn op zijn/haar prestatiebeoordeling.
6. Verwaarloost aspecten van het werk dat hij/zij verplicht is uit te voeren.
7. Faalt in het uitvoeren van essentiële taken.
8. Helpt anderen die afwezig zijn geweest.
9. Helpt anderen die een zware werklast hebben.
10. Assisteert mij bij mijn werkzaamheden (wanneer niet gevraagd).

11. Neemt de tijd om te luisteren naar problemen en zorgen van collega's.
12. Doet zijn/haar uiterste best om nieuwe medewerkers te helpen.
13. Heeft persoonlijke belangstelling voor andere werknemers.
14. Geeft informatie door aan collega’s.
15. Aanwezigheid op werk is boven de norm.
16. Geeft van te voren aan wanneer hij/zij niet kan komen werken.
17. Neemt te veel werkpauzes.
18. Besteed veel tijd aan persoonlijke telefoongesprekken.
19. Klaagt over onbelangrijke dingen op het werk.
20. Bewaart en beschermt eigendommen van de organisatie.
21. Houdt zich aan informele regels die zijn opgesteld om de orde te handhaven.

Adjusted Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

1. Ik kan kalm blijven wanneer ik geconfronteerd word met moeilijkheden in mijn werk, omdat ik kan terugvallen op mijn vaardigheden.
2. Wanneer ik geconfronteerd word met een probleem in mijn werk, dan vind ik meestal meerdere oplossingen.
3. Wat er ook gebeurt in mijn werk, ik kan het meestal wel aan.
4. De ervaringen die ik in het verleden in mijn werk heb opgedaan, hebben me goed voorbereid op mijn werk in de toekomst.
5. Ik haal de doelstellingen die ik aan mezelf stel in mijn werk.
6. Ik voel me in staat om de eisen van mijn werk het hoofd te bieden.

Appendix B

Multiple Regression Assumption Plots

Figure 1: Histogram

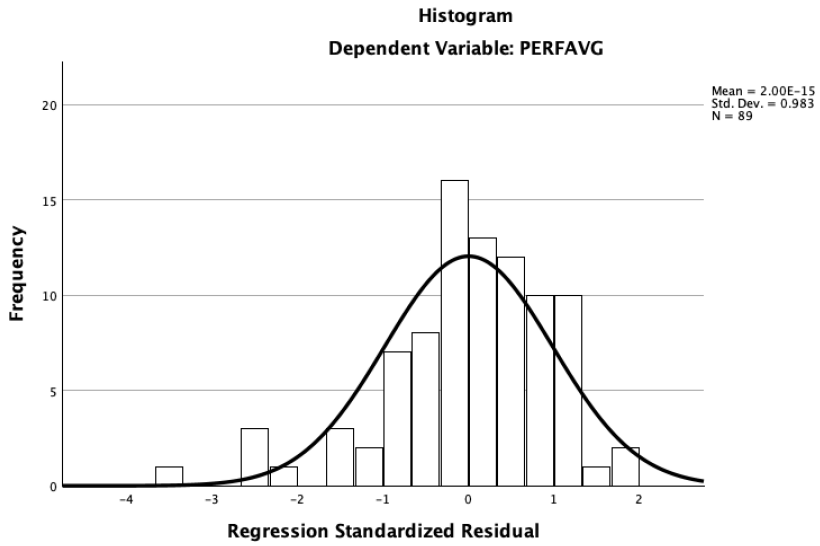

Figure 2: Normal P-P Plot of Employee Performance to check Linearity

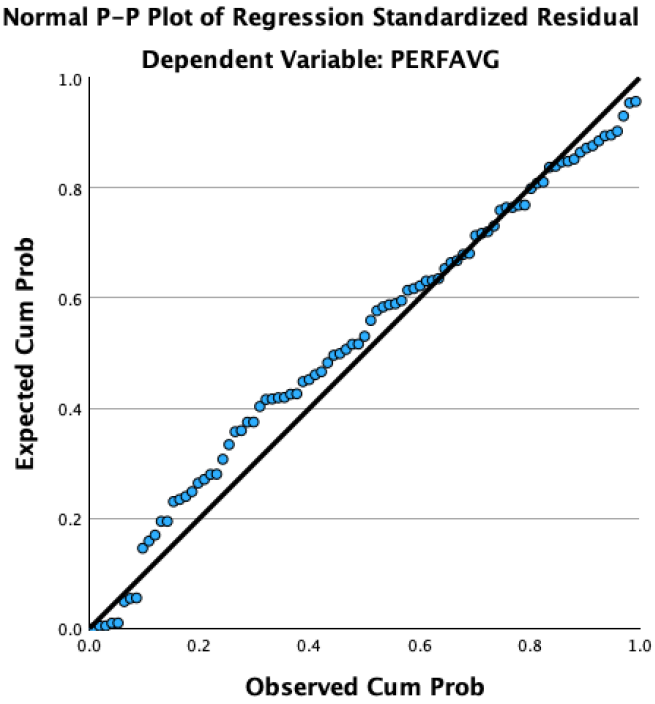

Figure 3: Residual-by-Predicted Plot to check Homoscedasticity