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Socio-Psychological Aspects of Talent Management in Organizations: Quantitative Analyses on Newcomer Performance, Employee Goal Setting, and Emotion Display Rules

Marvin Schuth

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Vorsitzende:	Prof. Dr. Jutta Roosen, Ph.D.
Prüfende der Dissertation:	1. Prof. Dr. Isabell M. Welpe
	2. Prof. Dr. Christoph Fuchs

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Abstract

This thesis contributes to our understanding of talent management by examining the social and psychological aspects of managing talent at work. Focusing on the characteristics and behavior of the people who are at the center of all talent management activities, this thesis integrates the literature on talent management, organizational behavior, and social psychology. In three empirical essays, the thesis further extends our knowledge on the behavioral perspectives of talent management.

Integrating the literature on strategic human capital, newcomer socialization, and work teams, the first essay focuses on talent acquisition and seeks to close the gap between the macro-research on strategic human capital and the micro-literature on personnel selection. Examining multi-year data from the top five European football leagues, the first essay advances our understanding of the unique and combined influences of newcomer human capital and the team's collective environment on the performance of newly acquired talent by demonstrating that these relationships differ depending on the socialization context. By demonstrating the importance of team and socialization contexts in the talent literature, these findings extend the prevailing perspectives on the complex relationships that influence the success of talent acquisition strategies.

The second essay provides a theoretical framework that draws on role congruity theory and the concepts of goal setting to investigate the influence of stereotypical role expectations on the talent management practice of assigning performance and learning goals to employees. The content of the actual goals are investigated by using computer-aided text analysis methods. Indicating that women were assigned less agentic performance goals than men while also assigned more agentic learning goals than their male colleagues, the results of the second essay show that unconscious stereotypes about women and men are indeed reflected in assigned goals. Providing evidence that the employee's management position further amplified the stereotypical assignment of agentic goals, the second essay extends current assumptions of the rational side of talent management by highlighting that unconscious processes impact the management and development of talent.

Presenting a theoretical rationale for the influence of power levels and perceptions of power differences on display rules, the third essay reconciles conflicting research from the talent management and social psychology literature regarding the appropriateness of emotional expression for employees in managerial positions. Based on three field studies that examine emotion display rules from inside and outside perspectives, the third essay shows that power difference expectations, as emphasized by an organization's hierarchy of authority or as endorsed by an individual's power distance orientation, determine the relationship between the employee's power position in organizations and emotion display rules. The overall results contribute to the recent research on the organizational and individual influences on the management of emotions at work, while also demonstrating that not only service workers but employees at higher organizational levels face emotion display rules.

Deutsche Kurzfassung (German Abstract)

Diese Dissertation trägt zu einem besseren Verständnis von Talentmanagement bei, indem sie zentrale soziale und psychologische Aspekte im Umgang mit hochqualifizierten und sich in Schlüsselpositionen befindenden Mitarbeitern untersucht. Durch die inhaltliche Verknüpfung verschiedener Literaturstränge aus den Bereichen Talent Management, Organisationsverhalten und Sozialpsychologie werden verhaltensbezogene Perspektiven talentspezifischer Personalmaßnahmen in den Mittelpunkt gerückt und anhand dreier Essays dargestellt.

Der erste Essay beschäftigt sich mit der Akquise neuer Talente und zeigt einen theoretischen Ansatz, gestützt auf Theorien zu strategischem Humankapital, Sozialisierung neuer Teammitglieder und Arbeitsteams, zur Verbindung bisher abgegrenzter Makro- und Mikro-Betrachtungen in der Talentmanagement-Literatur. Die Untersuchung mehrdimensionaler Daten der fünf führenden europäischen Fußballligen ermöglicht dabei direkte und moderierende Effekte des Humankapitals neuer Teammitglieder und des kollektiven Umfelds eines Teams auf die Leistung neuer Teammitglieder differenziert zu betrachten und zeigt zudem, dass sich diese Beziehungen je nach Sozialisationskontext unterscheiden. Durch das Aufzeigen der Bedeutung von Team- und Sozialisationskontexten in Bezug auf die Leistung von Talenten erweitern diese Ergebnisse die vorherrschenden Perspektiven hinsichtlich Strategien zur Akquise neuer Mitarbeiter auf dem Arbeitsmarkt.

Der zweite Essay liefert einen theoretischen Ansatz, der sich auf die Theorie der Rollenkongruenz und die Konzepte der Zielsetzung im Rahmen der Mitarbeitermotivation stützt, um den Einfluss stereotyper Rollenerwartungen auf die unternehmerische Praxis der Zuweisung von Leistungs- und Lernzielen zu untersuchen. Dabei werden inhaltliche Merkmale von reellen Zielen mit Hilfe einer computergestützten Textanalyse untersucht. Die Ergebnisse des zweiten Essays zeigen, dass sich unbewusste Stereotype über Frauen und

Männer in zugewiesenen Zielen widerspiegeln. In den Zielbeschreibungen für Frauen finden sich weniger agentische Leistungsbeschreibungen wider als in Leistungszielen für Männer, während Frauen gleichzeitig einen höheren Anteil agentischer Lernziele zugewiesen bekommen als ihre männlichen Kollegen. Weiterhin wird aufgezeigt, dass sich die stereotype Zuweisung agentischer Ziele mit einer höheren Führungsposition des Mitarbeiters verstärkt. Die Ergebnisse des zweiten Essays demonstrieren folglich, dass unbewusste Prozesse das Management und die Entwicklung von Talenten beeinflussen.

Der dritte Essay präsentiert eine theoretische Begründung für den Einfluss von Machtniveaus und der Wahrnehmung von Machtunterschieden auf den angemessenen Ausdruck von Emotionen, und bringt widersprüchliche Forschungsergebnisse der Talentmanagement- und Sozialpsychologie-Literatur in Bezug auf das affektive Verhalten von Mitarbeitern in Führungspositionen in Einklang. Basierend auf drei Feldstudien zeigt der dritte Essay, dass Erwartungen hinsichtlich Machtdifferenzen, ausgewiesen durch die hierarchische Struktur einer Organisation oder durch die subjektive Machdistanz einer Person, die Beziehung zwischen der Machtposition eines Mitarbeiters und den Verhaltensregeln bezüglich des Ausdrucks von Ärger und Stolz bestimmen. Die Ergebnisse erweitern die derzeitige Forschung hinsichtlich organisatorischer und individueller Einflüsse auf den Umgang mit Emotionen bei der Arbeit und zeigen gleichzeitig, dass sich nicht nur Arbeitskräfte mit direktem Kundenkontakt, sondern auch Mitarbeiter in höheren Führungspositionen Verhaltensregeln für den Ausdruck von Emotionen gegenübersehen.

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1 Introduction[1]

1.1 Motivation and Research Questions

Talent management has emerged as a topic receiving much attention, and organizations are increasingly recognizing the importance of those employees who are considered to be of pivotal value to the organization's strategic success. Chief executive officers identify finding the right talent and the effective management of talent as top priorities in delivering on their strategic agendas (Ashton & Morton, 2005; Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Groysberg & Connolly, 2015). In many ways, these concerns highlight what is inherent in the hype regarding the challenges of talent management (Dries, 2013); that is, in a global environment of changing economies and technological innovations, the traditional sources of competitive advantage tend to diminish fairly rapidly, whereas individual talent is seen as a unique human capital resource that is rare, difficult to imitate, and key to an organization's sustainable success (Cascio & Boudreau, 2016; Festing, Kornau, & Schäfer, 2015). The demands on talent management are further amplified by the requirements to design and implement practices that account for the social, demographic, and institutional complexities of operating businesses (Collings, Mellahi, & Cascio, 2019).

The literature on talent management is characterized by these concerns and centers on the practices and policies through which organizations can select, identify, develop, and retain high-performing human resources in pivotal positions (Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Collings et al., 2019). While this resource-based approach has led to a number of conceptual frameworks illustrating how organizations should manage their talent (Weller, Hymer, Nyberg, & Ebert, 2019; Nyberg & Wright, 2015), there is still little evidence that organizations do so effectively (Cascio & Boudreau, 2016; Collings, Scullion, & Caligiuri, 2019; Ployhart, 2012). Moreover, the role of the people at the center of all talent management activities has been

[1] This chapter is partly based on and includes elements of Schuth, Brosi, Folger, Chen, & Ployhart, (under review), Schuth, Brosi, & Welpe (under review), and Schuth & Brosi (2018).

largely neglected (Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen, & Scullion, 2020; Wright, Nyberg, & Ployhart, 2018). As such, talent management has been limited by a narrow, organizational-level perspective on the relationship between talent management strategies and performance (Dries, 2013; Khilji, Tarique, & Schuler, 2015).

This limitation is especially unfortunate because the management of employees encompasses not only the practices that are used at work but also the skills, attitudes, and behaviors of the people who comprise the workforce (Wright & McMahan, 2011; Wright, Nyberg, & Ployhart, 2018). Moreover, although there has been some recent interest in the social and psychological aspects of talent management (Festing et al., 2015; Garavan, Morley, Cross, Carbery, & Darcy, 2020; Jackson, Schuler, & Jiang, 2014; Ployhart, Schmitt, & Tippins, 2017), there is still a serious lack of empirical contributions that focus on both the characteristics and behavior of talents and the practices used to manage those employees (Wright et al., 2018). Taken together, to advance our understanding of talent management, there is a critical need to incorporate and empirically assess the different human resources and behavioral perspectives of managing talent at work.

This dissertation addresses the resulting research need by exploring talent management from a socio-psychological perspective in three essays. The first essay focuses on talent acquisition. The practice of acquiring talent on the external labor market has become a “de facto talent management strategy for many firms” (Cappelli & Keller, 2014, p. 313). Hiring employees to gain a competitive advantage is especially popular, reflecting the challenge of managing talent in a dynamic environment with changing needs for the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) of individual employees (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman; 2010; Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Ployhart, Nyberg, Reilly, & Maltarich, 2013). Relying on external hires, however, implies being exposed to talent shortfalls, and the benefits of hiring the individuals with the highest job-related KSAOs may be offset by the costs of acquiring those talents in a competitive labor market (Barney, 1986;

Weller et al., 2019). Moreover, while talent literature generally expects that higher human capital resources will contribute positively to talent performance, recent theory argues that the transfer of valuable talent is influenced by organizations' existing resources and capabilities (Ployhart et al., 2014; Schmidt & Keil, 2013). They argue that because of different resource complementarities, market positions, and firm-specific strategies, the use value of human capital resources can vary between organizations (Sirmon, Hitt, & Duane Ireland, 2007).

Just as it is unclear whether and when human capital resources that are acquired through the labor market contribute to competitive advantage in the form of the performance of acquired talent (i.e., newcomer performance), research has identified social and socio-contextual aspects that may influence the performance of new hires (Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Groysberg & Lee, 2009). As such, theories and empirical research on teams, newcomer socialization, and organizational socialization highlight that the collective team environment that talents face when being newly acquired and the socialization context have the potential to affect newcomer performance (Chen, 2005; Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). More specifically, social ties and the broader social context of new teams, such as their level of coordination or capability to integrate new individuals, can influence the ability of new talent to turn their human capital into performance (Castilla, 2005; Groysberg & Lee, 2009). Yet, the extant literature is inconclusive about how these effects impact the performance of newly acquired talent either directly or in relation with human capital resources (Call & Ployhart, 2020; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2020).

In an attempt to answer these questions, the first essay integrates and extends the literatures on strategic human capital, newcomer socialization, and work teams. It thereby seeks to close the gap between macro research on strategic human capital (Weller et al., 2019) and micro literature on personnel selection (Ployhart et al., 2017) by examining data from the top five European football leagues, enabling thus the investigation of human capital holistically in an unconstrained labor market. Furthermore, the first essay evaluates the effects of the collective team environment (i.e., prior team performance and number of newcomers) on newcomer performance and outlines why these effects may be different depending on the socialization context (i.e., entering a team pre-season or mid-season) (Allen, Eby, Chao, & Bauer, 2017; Chen, 2005; Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). Thus, the first essay answers the following research question.

Research question 1. How do individual human capital resources and the collective team environment directly and in combination affect newcomer performance in teams, and how do these effects differ depending on the socialization context?

Despite the growing attention on outside hiring, management and academic literature has emphasized the internal identification of talent to fill pivotal positions (Cappelli, 2008; Cascio & Aguinis, 2008). Indeed, talent management strategies are often aimed at the internal talent pool to identify individuals for development and advancement (Cappelli & Keller, 2014). Accordingly, the second essay focuses on the practice of organizational goal setting, which is designed to provide talent with the motivation, skills, and opportunities to reach strategic, high-level positions (Jiang, Lepak, Hu, & Baer; 2012; Leslie, Flaherty Manchester, & Dahm, 2017; London, Mone, & Scott, 2004). As such, goal setting is often part of an annual performance and development plan in which employees are assigned specific outcome-related and mastery goals (Bateman, O'Neill & Kenworthy-U'Ren, 2002; Bratton & Gold, 2012). Goals are thereby assigned to increase the employee's motivation to draw upon given abilities or to develop pivotal skills and knowledge to improve performance (Latham & Seijts, 2016). The positive relationship between goal setting and talent development has thereby been confirmed by empirical research, with goal setting being found to set career paths (Tellhed, Bäckström, & Björklund, 2018) and to influence managerial advancement (Howard, 2013).

Introduction

While talent management generally highlights the value of setting performance and learning goals to identify and develop talent (see Bratton & Gold, 2012), social psychology emphasizes the underlying processes of goal setting. More specifically, assigning goals implies processing information and making rational assumptions about others' performances and abilities to determine the likelihood of achieving a given task (Locke & Latham, 1990; Austin & Vancouver, 1996). However, goal-setting and expectancy theory have also questioned the rational cognitive processes of determining expectations, arguing that individuals may be influenced by unconscious priming, such as gender stereotypes, when setting goals (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Locke & Latham, 2006). Consequently, goals may be assigned based on unconscious assumptions about the abilities and development needs of women and men rather than on their actual talent or lack thereof. Yet, little is known about how gender stereotypes are reflected in organizational goal-setting, as previous research that incorporated talent and stereotype literature is limited by a narrow focus on rather obvious differences between women and men in performance assessments, promotion opportunities, or rewards (Heilman & Haynes, 2005; Hoobler, Lemmon, & Wayne, 2014). This narrow view is particularly concerning because initial findings indicate that talent management practices can impact the inclusion of diverse workforces (Festing et al. 2015). Therefore, there is a specific need to examine stereotypes in organizational goal setting because stereotypical beliefs may not only prevent organizations from identifying actual talent but also influence differently the career advancement of women and men.

To address this need, the second essay takes an interdisciplinary perspective on talent management and provides a theoretical framework and empirical investigation into the influence of stereotypical role expectations on organizational goal setting. Based on role congruity theory, which argues that women may be disadvantaged in terms of career advancement because of a perceived lack of fit between the characteristics typically assigned to women and the agentic qualities (e.g., competence, assertiveness, and independence) that are expected to be important in high-level management positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002), it examines differences between women and men in assigned goals. Focusing on agentic expressions in natural language, the essay thereby improves our knowledge of how stereotypes are unconsciously reflected in assigned performance and learning goals (Ecces & Wigfield, 2002; Bargh & Williams, 2006) and further assesses whether assigning goals to employees may actually be a disadvantage for women in high management positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Therefore, the second essay links important findings from role congruity and goal-setting literature, provides organizations with the indication that they may emphasize a homogeneous workforce through the practice of goal setting, and gives an answer to the following research question:

Research question 2. How are unconscious stereotypes about the agentic abilities of women and men reflected in the content of assigned performance and learning goals?

Taking a behavioral perspective reveals another blind alleyway in talent management literature—the emotional nature of work. To address this deficit in talent research, the third essay contributes to our knowledge by considering the emotional labor of employees in managerial positions. Research has long emphasized the management of emotions as part of the work role, highlighting the regulation of emotion expressions in response to organizational policies or requirements (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Hochschild, 1983). Referred to as display rules, these formal job requirements specify the appropriate display of emotions (Diefendorff, Richard, & Croyle, 2006). For example, Hochschield (1983) described that many service employees are supposed to display certain emotions and hide other feelings when interacting with customers (i.e., “service with a smile”). A consistent theme that has emerged from the literature on emotional labor is that the regulation of emotions relates not only to individual well-being but also to organizational well-being (for an overview, see Grandey & Gabriel, 2015).

The empirical research on emotion display rules has mainly been conducted with service employees (Humphrey, 2012). While this research has provided important insights into the processes, antecedents, and outcomes of display rules (see Geddes & Lindbaum, 2020; Morris & Feldman, 1996), theoretical work concerning the emotion regulation of employees in pivotal managerial roles is limited. Therefore, it is unclear whether and how emotional display rules affect those employees in organizations' high-level positions. On the one hand, managerial roles require constant interpersonal interactions, making emotion display rules highly warranted for these positions (Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007). On the other hand, social psychology suggests that power differences and hierarchies specify which emotions are appropriate to display, with individuals in high-power positions expressing their emotions more freely (Van Kleef & Lange, 2020).

Seeking to reconcile this inconsistency in the extant literature, the third essay derives and tests a theoretical model based on functional theories of emotions (Magee & Smith, 2013) and suggests discrete emotions and perceptions of power differences as potential explanatory factors in the relationship between hierarchical power roles and emotion display rules. Focusing on anger and pride, the essay thereby recognizes the connection between these discrete emotions and power (Magee & Smith, 2013). The third essay further tests the theorized relationships in three experimental field studies from an inside and outside perspective and answers the following research question.

Research question 3. How does the interplay of hierarchical power levels and perceptions of power differences influence emotion display rules in organizations?

In summary, these essays contribute to the literature in at least three ways. By examining the unique and combined impact of individual human capital and team environment on newcomer performance in different social contexts, the first essay proposes an integrative approach that is consistent with the complex multi-level relationships of managing talent in organizations (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2020; Pfeffer, 2012). Thereby, this approach seeks to provide a more complete theoretical and empirical account of why team and socialization factors are likely to play an important role in extant models of talent performance. In addition, the second essay extends our knowledge about the influence of unconscious behavioral priming in talent management by integrating role congruity with goal-setting theory and identifying the effects that stereotypes have on the organizational practice of assigning performance and learning goals (Ecces & Wigfield, 2002; Madera, Hebl, & Martin, 2009). Identifying undetected stereotypes in talent management is particularly important because biased assessments of talent can help to explain the so far inconsistent findings about the rational processes of setting goals generally and of setting them specifically in terms of inclusion efforts. Finally, the third essay advances theories on emotions at work by building and testing a theoretical model focusing on discrete emotions and power and explaining the origins of display rules for employees in managerial positions, which is especially relevant, as it changes traditional assumptions that constraints on emotion expressions only adhere to the context of low-power roles (Hochschild, 1983).

1.2 Theoretical Background

To answer the research questions raised above, this thesis draws on different management, organizational behavior, and social psychology literatures. More specifically, the first essay incorporates micro and macro theories on human capital resources, the second essay draws on goal-setting and role congruity theory, and the third essay builds on functional theories of emotions. These theories likewise provide the theoretical basis of this dissertation and are outlined in the following sections.

1.2.1 Micro and Macro Perspectives on Human Capital Resources

The literature on human capital resource acquisition has examined the topic from two different theoretical perspectives (Ployhart, 2012). Micro research on talent selection is mainly concerned with the complexities of the individual-level relationships between KSAOs and individual performance (Ployhart et al., 2017). This perspective emphasizes that human capital resources are based on individual knowledge (i.e., factual or procedural information about performing a specific task), skills (i.e., required capabilities to perform a given task), ability (i.e., more stable capabilities that can be applied to a range of job-related tasks), and other characteristics (i.e., traits that impact an individual's performance across tasks) that can be utilized for achieving organizational success (Ployhart et al., 2013). This research stream aims to improve selection decisions and has advanced our understanding of the most important human capital attributes across contexts (e.g., Van Iddekinge, Arnold, Frieder, & Roth, 2019). Accordingly, micro research on talent acquisition considers individual differences in KSAOs to understand the relationship between human capital resources and performance and concludes that organizations should hire those talents with the highest job-related KSAOs (Campbell, 1990; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011).

Macro research on strategic human capital has approached the topic of talent acquisition from a factor market perspective, arguing that the benefits of hiring talent with the highest job-related KSAOs are offset by the costs of acquiring such talent in perfect labor markets (Weller et al., 2019). Focusing on organizational-level outcomes, this view highlights that the competitive advantage that results from talent acquisition is based primarily on an organization's human resource strategy (Sirmon et al., 2007). Recent theories have especially focused on human capital resource complementarities (e.g., Call & Ployhart, 2020). This view explains the alignment of individual competencies and organizational resources and illustrates the influence of team environment and context on the relationship between individual human capital and performance (Call & Ployhart, 2020; Wolfson & Mathieu, 2018).

While the team context appears to be particularly influential for newcomers who need to learn the team's norms and to be integrated into existing structures (Anderson & Thomas, 1996), extant literature on team socialization is inconclusive about the effects of the team environment on the performance of newly acquired talent. Given the interdependence among team members, team socialization literature has acknowledged the importance of the team's performance in the socialization process (Chen, 2005). As such, better performing teams are expected to facilitate the integration of newly acquired talent and enhance individual performance, as they are likely to consist of better performing individuals, possess better internal structures, and are better aligned (see Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). Yet, newcomers need time to socialize, and teams require longer periods to integrate new members into their processes (Kozlowski, Gully, Nason, & Smith, 1999; Levine & Moreland, 1994). A lack of time to adjust may therefore lead to performance detriments for newly acquired talent.

Research on team and newcomer socialization has further noted that the simultaneous acquisition of a number of newcomers can disrupt existing team structures (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). For example, literature on membership change has indicated that the integration of new team members constitutes a shock to present processes (Summers, Humphrey, & Ferris, 2012). The greater the number of individuals who enter a team is, the more radical the induced shock and the smaller the amount of resources that are devoted to the integration of the new members. In contrast, literature on organizational socialization has established that collective socialization tactics may be beneficial in the processes of integrating newcomers. Particularly, joining as a group increases commitment (Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007), enables social learning (Allen, 2006), and reduces uncertainty because a cohort of newcomers are more likely to receive standardized information (Cable & Parsons, 2001). However, team socialization is considered to take long time periods of several months (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). A short and stressful integration of a number of talent may therefore weaken the positive effects of collective socialization.

To address this lack of consensus in literature, the first essay integrates the different research on strategic human capital, newcomer socialization, and work teams. More specifically, the essay investigates the relationship between individual human capital resources, team environment, and new talent performance under different socialization contexts (i.e., when there is enough time for socialization and when time for socialization is limited) to further our understanding of talent acquisition. In explaining differences in new talent performance, the first essay therefore theorizes not only the roles of human capital, prior team performance and number of newcomers but also whether these relationships may differ when talent is acquired in a different context.

1.2.2 Organizational Goal Setting and Role Congruity Theory

Examining unconscious gender stereotypes in the talent management practice of assigning goals to employees, the second essay integrates role congruity and goal-setting theories. Role congruity theory considers the incongruity between traditional gender roles and managerial roles in organizations and suggests that there is a perceived mismatch between the female and the manager role (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Based on socially shared beliefs, gender roles are stereotypical expectations about the behavior and abilities of women and men (Eagly, 1987). Relatedly, management roles are shared understandings about the actions, skills, and knowledge that are necessary to be successful managers. The incongruity between the gender role of women and managerial roles mainly results from expectations about agentic traits. More specifically, while men are characterized as competent, assertive, and independent, women are less commonly associated with these qualities (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). Agentic traits are furthermore typically ascribed to managers, and agentic qualities are strongly associated with managerial success, achievement, and effectiveness (Abele, 2003; Duehr & Bono, 2006).

These role expectations lead to descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes about group members. Descriptive stereotypes serve as cognitive shortcuts in influencing impressions about the abilities of others (Heilman, 2012). Independent of actual behavior and performance, descriptive stereotypes impact the evaluation of individuals and lead to people being assessed based on the skills and knowledge that are associated with the group to which they belong (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008). For example, women are described as less agentic than men in performance appraisals (Biernat, Tocci, & Williams, 2012) and are rated less competent than their male colleagues in mixed-work teams (Heilman & Haynes, 2005). Additionally, prescriptive stereotypes form normative expectations about what members of a group should do. For gender roles, this implies that men are supposed to engage in agentic actions, while women should not demonstrate agentic behavior (Heilman, 2001). The potential for bias against women in management positions ultimately arises from the perceived lack of agentic qualities associated with women and the prototypes of strong, competent, and independent managers (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, & Liu, 1996). Consequently, when evaluating women in management positions, people combine largely incongruent expectations about agentic skills and knowledge, which results in negative performance expectations, whereas performance expectations for men in management positions are more positive because of redundant expectations about agentic abilities (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). This perceived (in)congruity even increases with the management position under consideration, as higher management levels are associated with greater levels of agentic skills and knowledge (Koenig et al., 2011).

Theoretical perspectives on goal setting generally outline that goals are based on expectations of success (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990). As such, goals are the outcome of an evaluative process in which the individual assesses what can be achieved based on perceived abilities or past success (Heslin & Wang, 2013). While traditional literature builds on the assumption that this evaluation is based on conscious processes, more recent theories argue that individuals prefer simpler but more fallible strategies, such as the use of stereotypes, to determine expectations (Ecces & Wigfield, 2002; Bargh & Williams, 2006). Hence, it is reasonable to expect that stereotypical beliefs about agentic skills and knowledge influence the assignment of goals to women and men in management positions. These stereotypes, however, should be differently reflected in the different goal types. Specifically, goal-setting theory differentiates between performance and learning goals (Winters & Latham, 1996). While a performance goal is assigned to increase an employee's motivation to draw upon given skills and knowledge, focusing attention on a specific task outcome, a learning goal is assigned in the absence of skills and knowledge to develop or improve task-related capabilities, shifting the employee's focus on ways how to perform a task (Chen & Latham, 2014; Latham & Seijts, 2016). Integrating literature on goal setting and gender stereotypes, the third essay therefore suggests that assigned performance and learning goals will differentially reflect agentic stereotypes, with contrasting consequences for women and men in management positions and that these contrasts will be most pronounced at higher management levels.

1.2.3 Emotion Display Rules and Power

To clarify the role of emotion display rules for employees in high-level positions, the third essay draws on functional theories of emotions. According to functional theories of emotion, emotional expressions support the behavioral coordination between individuals and serve social-signaling functions that transmit important interpersonal information in dyad and group settings (Van Kleef, 2009). This interpersonal information is assumed to include information about one's status relative to others (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). As such, emotional expressions define, establish, and maintain power relations between individuals (Fischer & Manstead, 2008).

Anger and pride are particularly assumed to serve in establishing and maintaining power relations (Fischer & Manstead, 2008). Anger results from seeing others responsible for a negative outcome, whereas pride is experienced in response to considering oneself responsible for a positive outcome (Weiner, 1985). With these attributions corresponding to an attribution style particularly ascribed to powerful individuals (Davis & Gardner, 2004), research provides compelling evidence for the relation between anger and pride with power. For example, anger and pride are both expected to elicit approach motivation (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009;

Williams & DeSteno, 2009), which is likewise associated with powerful individuals (Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, 2003). Moreover, anger and pride are both expected to lead to socially disengaging tendencies, which are again expected to be closely related to power (Magee & Smith, 2013). Finally, and providing a direct link, individuals in high-power positions are expected to be more likely to express anger and pride than individuals in low-power positions (Tiedens, Ellsworth & Mesquita, 2000), and expressing anger and pride leads to the ascription of power and status (Shariff & Tracy, 2009).

Due to this close connection of anger and pride with power, one may assume that it is generally more appropriate for employees at higher organizational levels (i.e., in high-power positions) to show anger and pride towards others than for employees at lower levels (i.e., in low-power positions). Yet, the third essay indicates that this relation is crucially qualified by an individual's acceptance of power differences. More specifically, the essay investigates the influence of power difference expectations, emphasized by an organization's hierarchy of authority (Hage & Aiken, 1967) and as endorsed by an individual's power distance orientation (Daniels & Greguras, 2014), on the relationship between position power and emotional display rules for anger and pride. On the organizational level, hierarchies of authority may be particularly important, as they capture the extent to which power is centralized at higher organizational levels. Similarly, power distance orientation refers to the extent to which unequal distributions of power are accepted by an individual (Daniels & Greguras, 2014). Considering the power-related nature of anger and pride, the third essay provides a theoretical framework that integrates these perceptions of power differences.

1.3 Methodology and Data Sources

The three essays in this thesis take a quantitative empirical approach. This approach is particularly relevant, as empirical knowledge in the context of talent management is scarce (Dries, 2013; Festing et al., 2015; Garavan et al., 2020). Thus, a specific method was adapted to facilitate the unique theoretical advancements of each essay.

Introduction

The first essay is based on a longitudinal dataset from the top five European professional football leagues (i.e., Spanish Primera División, English (and Welsh) Premier League, Italian Serie A, German First Bundesliga, and the French Ligue 1) for all seasons between 2008/2009 through 2017/2018. Football data are especially useful for talent management research, as similar to other industries, professional European football is a highly competitive, free, and profitable business sector with revenues of €28.9 billion, accumulated by the teams of the five highest-ranked leagues in the 2018/2019 season (Ajadi, Ambler, Udwadia, & Wood, 2020). European football is thereby characterized by a liberal labor market that follows the same labor laws as other industries in the European Union including free movement rights of talent, contractual duties and rights, and free competition between employers (Duval & van Maren, 2017). Football players also match the definition of talent, as players hold specialized positions that in turn require different KSAOs and as individual players can have a disproportionate impact on an organization's success (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; O´Boyle Jr. & Aguinis, 2012). Understanding how a newly acquired talent's human capital translates into talent performance is therefore of strategic importance in football. Moreover, a football player's human capital is measured by a publicly available construct, namely, a player's market value (Müller, Simons, & Weinmann, 2017). Likewise, European professional football leagues provide objective talent and team performance indicators that are weighted according to their influence on the game and depending on the importance of the data point (Moliterno, Beck, Beckman, & Meyer, 2014). Finally, European football provides an ideal context to analyze potential differences in newcomer effects on performance in the context of the timing of the change of teams, as players are only allowed to change teams in two specific transfer periods throughout a season. The first period starts after the previous season and ends shortly after the start of the new season (usually from July to September), while the second transfer period is around the mid of the season (usually in January). In summary, the European football leagues provide the context and objective indicators for examining the interplay between newcomer human capital and the team socialization environment.

Presenting a content analytical approach, the second essay uses archival data of actual goals that supervisors assigned to managers at an international operating insurance company between 2013 and 2015. Specifically, managers were assigned performance and learning goals in an open-ended format. This goal-setting process is especially suitable for analyzing unconscious bias in talent goal setting, as hidden beliefs or stereotypical assumptions are often manifested in natural language samples (Biernat et al., 2012). In other words, human psychology and psychological processes are often unconsciously reflected in the words that people use (Boyd, 2017; Pietraszkiewicz, Formanowicz, Gustafsson Sendén, Boyd, Sikström, & Sczesny, 2019).

The natural language samples were analyzed by applying computer-aided text analysis (CATA). This content analysis method allows the measurement of constructs by transforming text documents into quantitative data based on the frequency of words in a given text (McKenny, Aguinis, Short, & Anglin, 2018). The dictionary-based approach thereby screens documents on a word-by-word basis and compares each word to predefined word lists (Pennebaker, Boyd, Jordan, & Blackburn, 2015). More specifically, the assigned goals' content was processed by using Linguistic Inquiry Word Count (LIWC) software. The LIWC2015 program is one of the most validated and commonly used tools to evaluate and assess social, unconscious, and psychological properties in narratives (Pennebaker et al., 2015; Pennebaker, Mehl, & Niederhoffer, 2003). For example, Pietraszkiewicz et al. (2019) used LIWC to validate dictionaries of agentic adjectives, verbs, and nouns (e.g., active, accomplish, leadership) that possess strong psychometric properties to capture the agentic content of text samples. The second essay builds on these dictionaries to investigate the agentic content in assigned performance and learning goals.

The third essay comprises three field studies that are based on a two-wave survey (Study 1) and one-factorial experimental designs (Studies 2 & 3). The two-wave survey design was applied to ask participants about emotion display rules for themselves. In addition to demonstrating a high level of external validity due to the use of multivariate and multivalent measurements (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010), by separating the measures of the predictors and criteria variables, this design accounts for the common method bias inherent in traditional survey designs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Specifically, the participants filled out the questions on the hierarchy of authority in the organization and their power level 10 days before they indicated emotion display rules. While the two-wave survey design aims to examine emotion display rules from an inside perspective, the experimental designs are focused on the outside perspective about emotion display rules for other employees at different power levels. Participants were thereby randomly assigned to indicate emotion display rules for an employee with low, middle, or high power in the organization. Aiming to ensure high degrees of internal validity, the experimental manipulations were examined in relation to participant reports of the hierarchy of authority in their organization. Moreover, qualitative and quantitative manipulation checks were employed to control for the successful manipulation of the three power levels. Increasing external validity, the power levels captured real experiences within the organizational structure by referring to the organizational chart and the scope and influence of the hierarchical level within an organization (Greer & van Kleef, 2010). This carefully constructed and realistic description improved the immersion of the participants, thereby enhancing the experimental realism (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014).

In addition to their reliance on different data sources, the three essays also vary regarding the analytical methods applied. The football data in essay one were conceptually at different levels and contained a hierarchical structure in which newcomers (level 1) were nested within teams (level 2) and teams were nested within leagues (level 3). This nested structure creates the potential for nonindependence in the data, which can lead to biased standard errors (Bliese, 2000). Given this multilevel nature of the data and the cross-level relationships under investigation, a three-level mixed-model design was fitted in which individual variables were measured at level 1, team variables were measured at level 2, and the league variable, at level 3. The cross-level relationships were tested using Random Coefficient Modeling (RCM; also referred to as hierarchical linear modeling), which creates more accurate standard errors for both within-level and between-level effects (Bliese & Ployhart 2002; Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2004). Additionally, simple slopes analyses were conducted to test the moderating effects of team performance and number of newcomers on the relationship between individual human capital and performance (Aiken & West, 1991).

The language-based data in essay two also contained a nested structure in which each supervisor assigned goals for several managers. Consequently, and for the same reasons as in essay one, RCM was applied. In particular, manager-level goal contents were analyzed using a two-level model, in which agentic goal contents and individual variables were measured at level 1 and the supervisor variable was included at level 2 to reflect between-supervisor differences. Further, simple slopes analyses were conducted to test the difference between agentic goal content for women and men at different management levels.

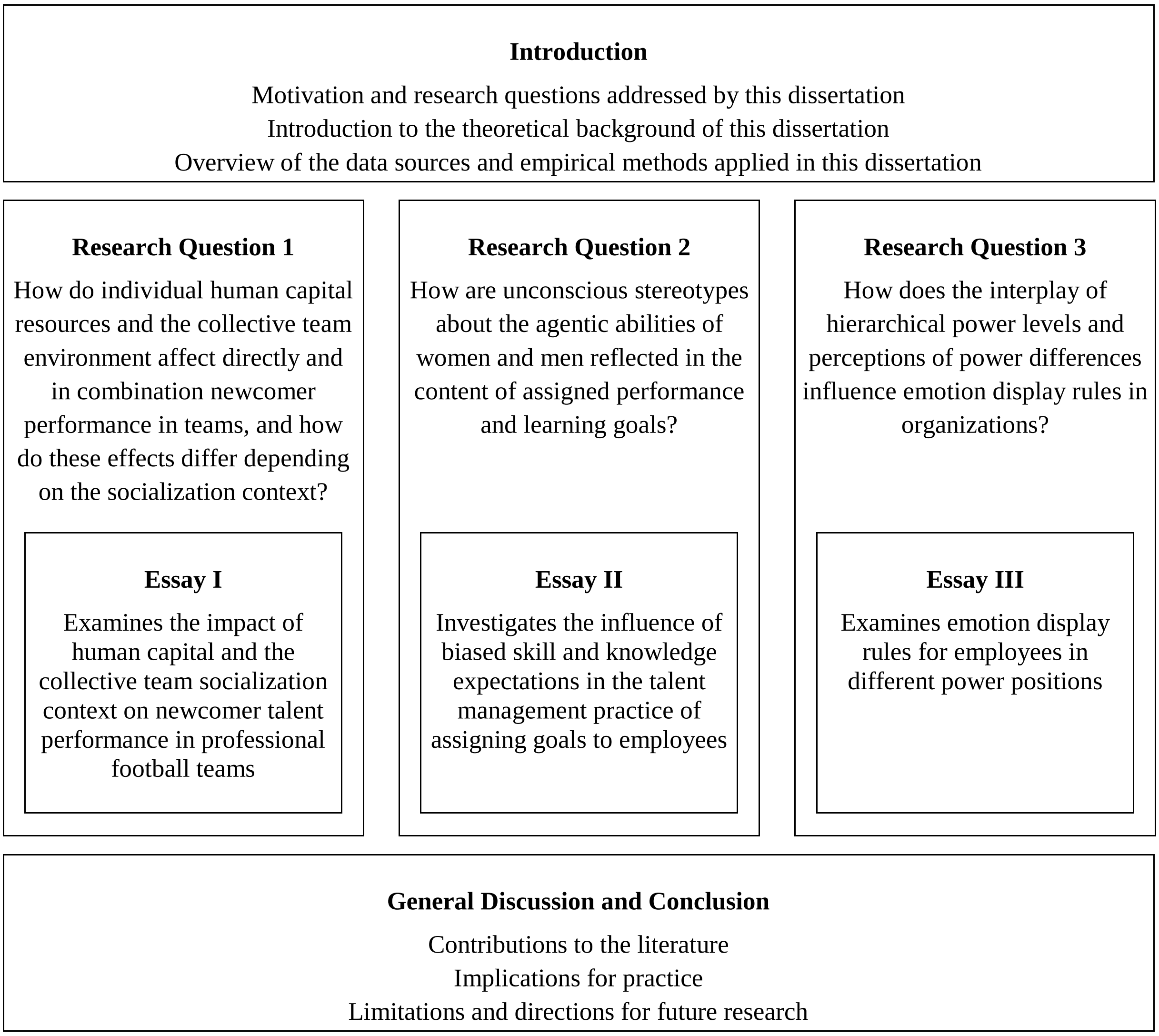
In the third essay, the data were analyzed via ordinary least squared regressions. Interaction effects were tested by using simple slopes and additionally by probing regions of significance (95%) following the Johnson-Nyman (JN) technique (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006). This technique is particularly suitable for probing interactions with a continuous predictor and thereby facilitates a more accurate interpretation of interaction effects (see Finsaas & Goldstein, 2020 for a more detailed discussion on probing interaction effects). Moreover, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to verify that emotion display rules for the emotions under investigation (i.e., anger, pride, sadness, and joy) represent four different factors.

1.4 Thesis Structure and Main Results

Following this introductory Chapter I, the three independent essays that constitute the main body of this thesis are presented in Chapters II through IV. Each essay only refers to its corresponding research question, as illustrated in Figure 1.1, and therefore comprises a separate introduction, theory and hypotheses development, methods, results, and discussion section. The final Chapter V discusses the main findings and contributions of this thesis, summarizes implications for practice, and highlights directions for future research. The remainder of this chapter provides a brief summary of the results of the three essays.

Figure 1.1

Thesis Overview



The first essay demonstrates that individual human capital and the collective team environment (i.e., prior team performance and number of newcomers) directly and in combination affect the performance of newly acquired talent and indicates that these effects differ depending on the length of the socialization. Specifically, while human capital was positively related to newcomer performance across socialization contexts, the relationships between prior team performance as well as number of newcomers and individual performance were dependent on the length of socialization. In addition, prior team performance qualified the relationship between newcomer human capital and performance.

The results of the second essay indicate that unconscious stereotypes about the agentic skills and knowledge of women and men indeed influence the talent management practice of goal setting, as supervisors used fewer agentic terms when assigning performance goals to women than when assigning performance goals to men. Moreover, learning goals that were assigned to women included more agentic content than did the learning goals that were assigned to men. The position of the manager further influenced the relationship between manager sex and the agentic content of performance goals, while management position did not impact the use of agentic terms when assigning learning goals to women and men.

The overall results of the third essay show that power difference expectations, as emphasized by an organization's hierarchy of authority or as endorsed by an individual's power distance orientation, determine the relationship between emotion display rules and employees' power position in organizations. More specific, the results of the third essay provide initial evidence that when participants judge emotion display rules for themselves, an organization's emphasis on power differences in terms of hierarchy of authority changes the relationship between power levels and emotion display rules for anger and pride. When judging the appropriateness of emotion expressions by others, individuals' power distance orientation was the crucial determinant for the relation between power levels and emotion display rules.

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2 Essay I: When New Talent Scores: The Impact of Human Capital and the Team Socialization Context on Newcomer Performance in Professional Football Teams[2]

ABSTRACT

This study blends research on strategic human capital, newcomer socialization, and work teams to examine the unique and combined influences of newcomer human capital and the team's environment (prior team performance and number of newcomers) on newcomer performance during different socialization contexts (which provided more vs. less time for newcomers and teams to mutually adjust). Examining large, multi-year data from the top five European professional football leagues, we found that individual human capital related positively to newcomer performance across socialization contexts, while the relationships between the collective team environment and performance were dependent on the socialization context. Beyond the direct relationships, our results also showed that human capital is less positively related to newcomer performance when newcomers join higher performing teams. These findings extend our understanding of the complex relationships between individual human capital and the team's socialization environment on newcomer performance; relationships that are sensitive to the socialization context.

Keywords: strategic human capital, teams, newcomer socialization, multi-level

[2] This chapter is based on Schuth, Brosi, Folger, Chen, and Ployhart (under review). Therefore, the plural instead of the singular is used throughout this chapter. References, previous versions, and author contributions are summarized in Appendix B.

It is widely recognized that attracting high quality human capital resources can contribute to employee and collective performance and competitive advantage (Ployhart, 2006). However, the types of human capital needed for a firm change over time as a company's strategy and competitive environment change (Kryscynski & Ulrich, 2015; Sirmon, Hitt, & Ireland, 2007). Workers with the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) that contribute most to a firm's unique strategy are particularly in demand and in short supply. Consequently, there is often intense competition for human capital resources in the broader labor market. To win this competition for high quality candidates, firms invest considerable resources, and there is an entire global industry based solely on talent acquisition (Cappelli, 2019). In hiring more talented employees, who are often more expensive to obtain than others in the market, organizations hope that the investment will pay off early in terms of higher new employee performance, even during socialization.

The micro and macro management literatures on human capital resource acquisition have examined the topic from different theoretical lenses (Ployhart, 2012; Wright & Boswell, 2002; Wright, Coff, & Moliterno, 2014). On the one hand, the micro literature on employee selection has focused mainly on whether KSAOs, such as general mental ability (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998), personality (Hough & Dilchert, 2010; Oh, Wang, & Mount, 2011), and work experience (Van Iddekinge, Arnold, Frieder, & Roth, 2019), relate to individual job performance. This research has sought to establish predictive relationships that generalize across contexts (Campbell, 1990). On the other hand, the macro literature has focused on understanding the acquisition of human capital resources within strategic factor (labor) markets and how such resources may contribute to unit-level performance and competitive advantage (Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr, & Ketchen, 2011). Arguing that competitive advantage is based primarily on firm-specific resources, the macro literature has given more explicit consideration to context in shaping the relationship between human capital and performance (Nyberg, Moliterno, Hale, & Lepak, 2014).

Thus, while the micro and macro literatures both posit that higher quality human capital resources should contribute to greater performance, they differ in terms of their outcomes (i.e., individual job performance vs. firm's competitive advantage) and recognition of the labor market context. Consequently, important gaps remain in our understanding of whether *and when* individual human capital contributes to new employees' effectiveness. First, the disconnect between micro and macro perspectives makes it difficult to understand how firms should best attract human capital resources that contribute to their firm's specific strategy and complement its existing resources (Phillips & Gully, 2015; Ployhart, 2012). All human capital resources are exchanged as part of a labor market, and the signals of human capital quality influence the costs of acquiring these resources. The micro literature tends to neglect the broader labor market context and focuses primarily on KSAOs; the macro literature tends to neglect the KSAOs and focuses primarily on labor market signals. Yet, labor markets are imperfect (Campbell, Coff, & Kryscynski, 2012), and firms may see value in different types of human capital because they complement their strategy and unique market positions. Thus, research needs to better understand whether firms that attract higher human capital resources in the labor market benefit from this strategy in terms of improved newcomer performance.

Second, we need to better understand how contexts, such as the collective team environment that newcomers face, may—directly as well as by functioning as a possible boundary condition—either facilitate or harm newcomer performance. Social ties and the broader social context of new teams can impact the ability of newcomers to turn their human capital into performance (Castilla, 2005; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Groysberg & Lee, 2009). For example, initial evidence has shown that newcomers perform better when they join better functioning teams (Chen, 2005). However, better performing teams show less openness to newcomers (Rink, Kane, Ellemers, & Van der Vegt, 2013). In addition, there is conflicting evidence regarding whether organizations benefit from bringing in groups of newcomers (i.e., hiring more vs. less new employees simultaneously). While research on team socialization indicates that newcomers may disrupt team processes (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013), research on cluster hiring (Eckardt, Skaggs, & Lepak, 2018; Raffiee & Byun, 2020) and collective socialization tactics (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007) indicates that bringing in groups of newcomers can facilitate newcomer adaptation processes.

Finally, the extant research is inconclusive about whether newcomers' human capital may benefit their new organizations directly after entering the organization. Given the importance of social ties (Castilla, 2005; Chen, 2005; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Groysberg & Lee, 2009), newcomers may require time to integrate themselves into new teams (Bauer, Erdogan, Caughlin, Ellis, & Kurkoski, 2020). Indeed, teams often spend time developing individual member roles and collective processes that enable effective team functioning (Kozlowski, Gully, Nason, & Smith, 1999). Yet, very often, newcomers enter teams that are fully operating (Mathieu, Tannenbaum, Donsbach, & Alliger, 2014) and in which they are expected to perform well quickly (Chen, 2005; Chen & Klimoski, 2003). While operating teams may provide established team processes that facilitate the integration (Call & Ployhart, 2020; Ployhart & Moliterno, 2011), the question remains whether newcomers need time to adapt to these teams. This question may be even more crucial if groups of newcomers enter a new team—i.e., when operating teams need to integrate multiple newcomers simultaneously.

To address the gaps noted above, we draw from literatures on strategic human capital, newcomer socialization, and work teams to examine the unique and combined influences of newcomer human capital and the team's socialization environment on newcomer performance. In doing so, we make three unique contributions to the literature. First, we seek to examine the relationship between individual-level newcomer human capital and performance. Of particular importance is that we focus on the perceived market valuation of the human capital as a means to test predictions that blend micro and macro human capital perspectives. Second, we examine the impact of team context (i.e., prior team performance and number of newcomers), on newcomer performance, to clarify if prior team performance helps newcomers as some research on teams suggests (Chen, 2005) or lowers teams' acceptance of newcomers and thereby harms newcomer performance (Rink et al., 2013). Likewise, we clarify if the number of newcomers lowers newcomer performance as research on teams indicates due to disrupting team processes (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013) or supports newcomer performance as collective socialization tactics suggest (Bauer et al., 2007). Finally, we also examine whether newcomer human capital and team context impact newcomer effectiveness differently depending if more versus less time is given for socialization (Allen, Eby, Chao, & Bauer, 2017). In doing so, we gain better understanding of whether socialization periods impact the extent to which organizations immediately benefit from investing more money in hiring employees with greater human capital resources.

2.1 Theory Development

With the increasing reliance on teams by organizations, the team context has become crucially relevant to the understanding of differences in new employees' effectiveness (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008; Mathieu et al., 2014). Newcomers do not enter isolated positions but, rather, need to integrate themselves into the context of interdependent roles and workflows that are central to both the newcomer's and the team's success (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). Before developing our hypotheses, it is important to consider the specific organization and socialization context to which newcomers enter.

In this research, we focus on newcomers to teams in the top five major European professional football leagues (France, Germany, Italy, Spain, England/Wales). These data are particularly suitable for examining the interplay between newcomer human capital and the team socialization context. First, the data include football player market valuation (in Euros) of human capital—or how much each player is estimated to be worth in the professional football market. Second, the data provide objective indicators for individual performance in a context where individuals have substantial influence on organizational performance, as each football team is a different organization. Third, in the five major European leagues, football clubs earn on average 173 million Euros per year (2018/2019 season), which matches the definition of large companies (i.e., generating more than 50 million Euros annually; European Union Commission, 2003). Finally, in European professional football, newcomers can join teams during two different annual periods: pre-season and mid-season. When entering pre-season, newcomers typically join their teams starting with a preparation phase of about 6 to 8 weeks, which includes training camps and test matches that support a more effective integration of new players. In contrast, when newcomers enter mid-season, the teams are in the middle of regular league matches, giving the teams and their new players a very short time to adjust to each other. Thus, as in other organizations, newcomers may either enter their new team when it is newly established beginning with a socialization phase, i.e., pre-season, or when the team is fully operating, i.e., mid-season (Mathieu et al., 2014). We therefore theorize not only the roles of newcomer human capital and two team context attributes (prior team performance and number of newcomers) in explaining differences in newcomer performance but also whether these relationships may differ when newcomers join the new team pre-season or mid-season.

2.1.1 Human Capital

Micro research on personnel selection examines the relationship between human capital in terms of newcomers' KSAOs and individual performance (Ployhart et al., 2017). Aiming to improve selection decisions, staffing research focuses on identifying the most important human capital attributes in terms of later individual job outcomes but is not necessarily concerned with predicting newcomer performance (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; Ryan & Ployhart, 2014). Thus, micro staffing research concludes that firms should select individuals scoring highest on job-related KSAOs (Campbell, 1990). Note that this approach is a compositional approach to talent acquisition, whereby the logic is "more is better."

In contrast, macro research on strategic human capital resources seeks to understand the mobility of human capital resources and how acquiring such resources in the labor market may (or may not) contribute to competitive advantage (Mawdsley & Somaya, 2015; Weller, Hymer, Nyberg, & Ebert, 2019). Historically, macro theory posits that acquiring human capital resources through the labor market cannot contribute to competitive advantage because such resources are generic. To the extent that KSAOs relate to performance, those with the highest KSAOs scores are likely to command the highest acquisition costs on the labor market. Thus, in an efficient labor market, the benefits of hiring such individuals are likely to be offset by the acquisition costs (e.g., Barney, 1986). However, it is also theorized that generic resources contribute to the formation of specific human capital resources (Morris, Alvarez, Barney, & Molloy, 2017). Furthermore, recent research has identified the importance of human capital resource complementarities. Because organizations pursue firm-specific strategies, some types of human capital resources are worth more to a given firm than they are to other firms that pursue different strategies (Sirmon et al., 2007). Consequently, the use value of human capital resources can be greater within a firm than its exchange value, i.e., the cost of acquiring it in the labor market (e.g., Call & Ployhart, 2020). Note that this perspective is a configural approach to talent acquisition, as it is heavily influenced by a firm's strategy and existing resource endowments (Sirmon et al., 2007).

Despite differences, both micro and macro research expect that the human capital selected will contribute positively to employee performance. The micro literature explains this relationship based on the fact that the KSAOs used to hire applicants are related to performance on the job. The macro literature explains this relationship based on resource complementarities and contributions to the firm's strategy. Incorporating both perspectives, we utilize a market-based indicator of human capital resources in this study. Employees' market valuation is a broad conceptualization of human capital (which we dub "human capital" henceforth) because it includes all KSAOs that individuals bring to their new employer (Morris et al., 2017). The market values individuals in terms of their potential for future performance based on their prior performance, assuming that this prior performance is based on KSAOs that can transfer across teams. Setting aside market insufficiencies in the valuation of employees (Call & Ployhart, 2020), human capital should relate positively to newcomer performance. Importantly, the conceptualization of human capital in terms of market values has been neglected in the micro research, while macro research lacks evidence pertaining to individual-level newcomer performance. Furthermore, we assume the universality of this relationship across socialization contexts, given that greater human capital should enable newcomers to adapt and perform better regardless of socialization challenges (Ployhart, 2006). Thus, the relationship should hold both when individuals enter pre-season, i.e., when they have time for socialization, and when they enter mid-season, i.e., when they enter directly into the performance phase.

Hypothesis 1. Human capital is positively related to newcomer performance.

2.1.2 The Role of Team Context

With the role of context in staffing decisions covering those "constructs, processes, and phenomena that exist on levels higher than the individual level" (Ployhart & Schneider, 2012: 49), the team context appears to be particularly influential for newcomers. The team socialization literature describes newcomer entry as a learning process involving mutual newcomer-team influences. Newcomers need to learn the team's norms, climate, and structures, as well as their individual role in the new team (Anderson & Thomas, 1996). Conversely, the team needs to get to know and integrate the newcomer into its existing structures (Moreland & Levine, 1982). We therefore argue that two team features—prior team performance and the number of newcomers—likely affect the success of newcomers in teams. Given the importance of socialization in teams, we also argue that the effects of these team features on newcomer performance depend on the length of the socialization process, i.e., whether newcomers join pre-season or mid-season.

Prior Team Performance. Research on team socialization has noted the important role of the team's performance in the socialization process (Anderson & Thomas, 1996; Chen, 2005). High-performing teams are likely to possess better internal structures and processes, including more competent members with better aligned roles and responsibilities, shared knowledge about working, and better executed processes, such as member coordination and motivation processes designed to achieve high levels of performance (for reviews, see Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; LePine, Piccolo, Jackson, Mathieu, & Saul, 2008). Research on strategic human capital has further pointed out that those team attributes not only enable better team performance but also facilitate the utilization of human capital and enhance individual performance in teams (Call & Ployhart, 2020; Ployhart & Moliterno, 2011).

Given the interdependencies among team members, better performing teams consist of—and require—better performing individuals (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen & Rosen, 2007; Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). However, newcomers need time to transfer into their new roles. Teams are complex systems in which individuals master not only their own roles but also dyadic and collective interdependent actions (Kozlowski et al., 1999). Likewise, teams require time to accommodate newcomers in this mutual adaptation process (Levine & Moreland, 1994). Indeed, there is evidence that prior team performance does not relate to newcomer initial performance but instead relates positively to newcomer performance improvement such that the relationship becomes more positive after the team and the newcomer have had a longer time to co-adapt to each other (Bauer et al., 2020; Chen, 2005).

Thus, although newcomers are likely to integrate themselves better in well-performing teams, which should boost their own performance, this is more likely in situations where the newcomer and the team have time to adjust towards each other, i.e., pre-season. Hence:

Hypothesis 2. Prior team performance is positively related to newcomer performance when entering a team pre-season.

When newcomers enter the team mid-season, the relationship between prior team performance and newcomer performance may be more complex. Newcomers need to adjust very quickly to teams that already have well-established and ongoing structures and processes. For example, performance pressures and stress levels are higher in professional European football teams mid-season, as teams face looming possibilities of either relegation to lower-tier leagues or opportunities to qualify for the highly prestigious European Champions League (Moliterno, Beck, Beckman, & Meyer, 2014).

On the one hand, in line with arguments above, better performing teams can enable newcomers to perform better due to having better systems and processes that promote teamwork and encourage individual performance. On the other hand, the fact that teams already have well-established coordination systems and processes may mean that better performing teams may be more reluctant to adjust for newcomers (Rink et al., 2013). Given the importance of cooperation among team members for individual performance (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013), high-performing teams may even harm newcomer performance when newcomers enter without having the time to integrate themselves. Lacking knowledge about their team-specific role and the team combined with a lack of time to adjust to their new team may lead to performance detriments for newcomers. Thus, theory indicates both positive and negative effects of prior team performance on newcomer performance when newcomers join mid-season. As such, we examine this relationship as a research question. Specifically:

Research Question 1. Is prior team performance a) positively or b) negatively related to newcomer performance when entering a team mid-season?

Number of Newcomers. Research on teams and newcomer socialization has acknowledged that the simultaneous entry of a large number of newcomers can be disruptive to existing team processes (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; Mathieu et al., 2014). Team socialization is a mutual process (Moreland & Levine, 1982), whereby teams require resources to assimilate newcomers and to adapt themselves to newcomers. In line, research on membership changes has established that newcomers can disrupt team coordination, as they constitute a shock to existing processes (Summers, Humphrey, & Ferris, 2012). The more newcomers enter a team, the more radical the changes that teams need to make to their internal structures and processes. This may also be problematic for individual newcomers, as teams may have fewer resources devoted to integrating each individual newcomer effectively into the team, making it more difficult for newcomers to understand how they need to carry out their individual roles. Thus, the number of newcomers who join simultaneously may be negatively related to newcomer performance.

In contrast, research on organizational socialization has indicated that collective socialization tactics, such as joining a unit with a large cohort of newcomers, may be beneficial for newcomers. When newcomers go through the socialization process as a group, they understand their roles more easily, feel more efficacious, are more committed, and perceive a greater fit (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). The presence of other newcomers enables social learning, such as how best to adjust to the team's norms and habits, which facilitates the understanding of individual roles (e.g., Allen, 2006). Further, other newcomers may reduce uncertainty because a group of newcomers is more likely to receive standardized introductions and information (e.g., Cable & Parsons, 2001). Thus, the number of newcomers may also be positively related to newcomer performance.

Although there are reasons to expect that the number of newcomers in the team may either benefit or harm newcomer performance, we expect the balance of these conflicting factors to differ depending on whether newcomers join the teams pre-season or mid-season. When joining pre-season, both factors (those harming newcomer performance due to team disruptions and those benefitting newcomer performance due to collective socialization processes) are likely to operate in full, as there is more time for the team and the newcomers to co-adapt. As such, for pre-season newcomers, we posit the following research question:

Research Question 2. Is the number of newcomers in the team a) positively or b) negatively related with newcomer performance when entering a team pre-season?

However, when joining teams mid-season, the positive benefits of collective socialization tactics may be less likely to operate, as newcomers and their teams quickly need to adapt to each other, while pressures for newcomers and team performance are rather intense. In general, time is acknowledged as an important determinant in team socialization (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). Team socialization unfolds over time as incoming team members and the team need to adjust to each other (Anderson & Thomas, 1996; Moreland & Levine, 1982). Highlighting the criticality of sufficient time for socialization, this adjustment is typically considered to take place in time intervals of several months in socialization research (Bauer et al., 2007).

In contrast, when entering mid-season, newcomers and the team need to adjust to each other rather quickly. Such shorter and stressful socialization periods may limit the benefits newcomers receive from joint/collective socialization (e.g., Saks et al., 2007); hence, newcomers will be unlikely to realize benefits from entering the team as a group (Reichers, 1987). Thus, groups of newcomers entering mid-season have neither the necessary time in terms of duration nor in terms of experiences for successfully integrating themselves into the new team (Ashforth, 2012). As time is lacking mid-season, the resulting unresolved disruptions from entering with a group of newcomers are the more likely to hurt individual newcomer performance. Accordingly:

Hypothesis 3. The number of newcomers in the team is negatively related to newcomer performance when entering a team mid-season.

2.1.3 Human Capital and Team Context

The configural approach to strategic human capital asserts that relationships between human capital and performance may be context-dependent (Nyberg et al., 2014; Weller et al., 2019). The strategy literature posits that superior performance can be obtained by acquiring human capital resources that are of the quality needed to complement the firm's strategy and other resources (Sirmon et al., 2007). Furthermore, the team socialization literature indicates that the newcomer and the team's context mutually determine newcomer adjustments and performances (Anderson & Thomas, 1996; Moreland & Levine, 1982). Such an interactionist perspective is particularly important when considering human capital in terms of market value. Investments in people may pay off or dissolve depending on the team context that newcomers enter. Hence, we consider interactions between newcomer human capital and team attributes, next.

Human Capital and Prior Team Performance. We previously assumed that prior team performance may facilitate newcomer performance pre-season because better performing teams have more competent members, better aligned roles and responsibilities, more shared knowledge, and better executed processes (Chen, 2005; Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; LePine et al., 2008). Research on organizational socialization further suggests that those with lower human capital may benefit more from these favorable team conditions associated with better performing teams (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). Newcomers with lower human capital, more so than those with higher human capital, may require the structure and integration that high-performing teams can provide (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). Consequently, higher prior team performance is expected to complement (or substitute for) lower levels of human capital in promoting newcomer performance, a facilitation that is less required for newcomers with higher human capital. The resulting substitution effect weakens the positive relationship between human capital and newcomer performance. Hence:

Hypothesis 4. When entering pre-season, prior team performance negatively interacts with newcomer human capital to influence newcomer performance, such that newcomer human capital relates to newcomer performance less positively when entering teams with higher vs. lower prior team performance.

For mid-season, we not only assumed that better performing teams provide better structures and processes (Chen, 2005) but also that better performing teams are more reluctant to adapt to newcomers (Rink et al., 2013). While this contradiction has led us to pose a research question on opposing main effects, both theoretical perspectives indicate a weaker relationship between human capital and newcomer performance in higher performing teams. Specifically, due to better structures and processes, we already suggested (Hypothesis 4) a substitution-type interaction effect on newcomer performance, involving team performance and newcomer human capital. In addition, following the notion that better performing teams are more reluctant to adapt to newcomers (Rink et al., 2013), lower performing teams may be more likely to see newcomers with higher human capital as potential saviors from relegation and as capable drivers of performance improvements. Seeing newcomers with high human capital as substitutes for their inferior structure and processes, lower performing teams—more so than higher performance teams—may even actively facilitate the performance of newcomers with high human capital. In sum, both theoretical approaches suggest that for newcomers entering a team mid-season, there is a substitution effect leading to a negative interaction between human capital and prior team performance. Consequently, we formulated the same interaction hypothesis for mid-season as we did for pre-season:

Hypothesis 5. When entering mid-season, prior team performance negatively interacts with newcomer human capital to influence newcomer performance, such that newcomer human capital relates to newcomer performance less positively when entering teams with higher vs. lower prior team performance.

Human Capital and Number of Newcomers. For newcomers joining pre-season, we assumed conflicting effects for number of newcomers on newcomer performance due to greater disruptions to team functioning (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013) but also greater benefits to newcomers from socialization associated with a larger number of newcomers when there is time for socialization (Bauer et al., 2007). In addition, research on organizational socialization assumes that human capital is positively related to newcomer performance because it reduces uncertainty (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). The disruption that results from higher numbers of newcomers may thus hurt newcomer performance—especially the performance of newcomers with lower human capital, who are likely less equipped to handle tougher socialization contexts (cf. Bauer et al., 2020; Ployhart & Schneider, 2012). In contrast, the collective socialization that results from higher numbers of newcomers may be more beneficial for newcomers with lower human capital because they perceive higher uncertainty in this situation (Allen, 2006; Cable & Parsons, 2001). Thus, following the assumed contrary direct relationships of number of newcomers with newcomer performance when newcomers enter pre-season, there are also contradictory theoretical indications for the number of newcomers changing the relationship between human capital and newcomer performance. In line with formulating Research Question 2 for the direct relationship of number of newcomers, we therefore also formulate the following research question:

Research Question 3. When entering pre-season, does number of newcomers interact with newcomer human capital to influence newcomer performance, such that newcomer human capital relates to newcomer performance a) more positively or b) less positively when entering teams with more vs. less newcomers?

In contrast, when entering mid-season, we argued that the beneficial effects associated with collective socialization do not apply, as newcomers lack the time in terms of duration and joint experiences that are the basis for collective socialization (Reichers, 1987; Ashforth, 2012). In line, we do not expect a positive interaction between human capital and number of newcomers. If time does not allow for collective socialization to unfold its beneficial effects, newcomers lower in human capital are more likely to be harmed than those higher in human capital. This is especially true mid-season, when a detrimental effect of the number of newcomers due to greater disruptions to the team is more likely (cf. Summers et al., 2012). With teams not having the time to make these adjustments mid-season, the resulting disruptions should be harmful for newcomers, especially those with less human capital available to handle these disruptions (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). Hence:

Hypothesis 6. When entering mid-season, the number of newcomers positively interacts with newcomer human capital to influence newcomer performance, such that newcomer human capital relates to newcomer performance more positively when entering teams with more vs. less newcomers.

2.2 Methods

2.2.1 Study Context

We tested our hypotheses and research questions using a data set of new players who joined teams of the five top European football leagues, according to the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA), i.e., Spanish Primera División, English (and Welsh) Premier League, Italian Serie A, German First Bundesliga, and French Ligue 1.[3] All observed leagues are composed of 20 teams, except for the German Bundesliga, which encompasses 18 teams. All teams play twice against each other throughout each season (i.e., 38 or 34 match days during which all teams play), while the middle of the season is the point in time when the first round of games has been completed (i.e., every team has faced all other teams in the league once). A team can win, draw or lose a game, whereby the team receives three points for a win, one point for a draw and no points for a defeat. After each game, the points are accumulated, and teams are ranked in their league according to the total points earned up to this time in the season.[4] At the end of a season, the team with the highest total number of points wins the

[3] Different from most sports leagues in the U.S. (MLB, NBA, NFL, NHL), where talent and money are redistributed by regulatory measures, such as salary caps, spending caps, luxury taxes, or the draft system (i.e., the allocation of young players to prevent bidding wars for talents and to encourage parity), to balance competition, European football is characterized by a more liberal market. Moreover, European football leagues follow the same labor laws as industries in the European Union including free movement rights of players, contractual duties and rights, and a free competition between employers (Duval & van Maren, 2017).
[4] If two or more teams have the same number of points, their position is determined by goal difference (the difference between the total number of goals scored by and against a team). If any two or more teams have scored the same number of points and have the same goal difference, their position is determined by the total number of goals scored (for example, see The Football Association Premier League Limited, 2020).

league. The two or three teams (depending on league rules) with the lowest number of points (i.e., teams whose points total places them last, second to last, or third to last at the end of the season) get relegated to the second division.[5] For the following season, the best two to three teams from the respective second division (i.e., teams whose point totals place them on the first, second, or third rank of the second-highest division at the end of the previous season) get promoted and replace the relegated teams.

While a professional football team usually consists of 20 to 30 players, 11 players plus a maximum of three substitutes can be used in each game. During a game, players line up in different positions (i.e., goalkeeper, defender, defensive midfielder, midfielder, attacking midfielder and striker) that differ in their main tasks (e.g., prevent scores from the opponent, set up scoring opportunities, or score). Yet, given the game's multi-facetted nature of fluid, fast-paced, and creative sequences, along with well-planned and rehearsed moves, players have to perform a variety of tasks, constantly exchange information, and coordinate instantly regardless of position.

2.2.2 Data

We used a longitudinal dataset for all years between the 2008/2009 season through the 2017/2018 season (i.e., nine full seasons). We collected the players' market values from the popular German-based football news, statistics, and social media website Transfermarkt (*transfermarkt.de*). For all other data, including individual- and team-level data, we utilized the influential football statistics website Whoscored (*whoscored.com*). Whoscored retrieves the raw data from Opta Sports, one of the leading football data collection companies in Europe, aggregates it and presents the data on its publicly available website.

[5] In contrast to the teams with the lowest number of points, the teams with the most points in their domestic leagues are given the chance to play in the lucrative European-wide "*Champions League*" or "*UEFA Europe League*". Both relegation and promotion are accompanied by significant financial losses and gains, respectively, increasing the incentive of teams to invest in their players and team quality (Noll, 2002).

After collecting the raw data, which includes information for 16,434 games involving 23,188 players who were active on at least one of the teams of the five leagues for at least one season, we matched the two datasets and carried out the following steps to make the data usable for the purpose of our study. First, for individual-level data, we only kept those players that are considered newcomers, defined as players who entered at least one new team in one of the five leagues during the observed period. Even though it might be the case that players changed teams more than once during this period, we only included the first change per player to accomplish a balanced sample. Second, to account for outliers, we set the minimum number of appearances for a given half-season following a player's team change to five games (Deutscher & Büschemann, 2016). Third, we excluded all players for whom we could not find any market value on Transfermarkt or performance measure on Whoscored. Fourth, we created one dataset including newcomers that entered new teams pre-season and a second dataset including newcomers that entered teams mid-season. To make the two datasets comparable, the first dataset only includes the games in the first round of each season, while the second dataset includes only the games in the second round of each season. Overall, across the five leagues and nine seasons, our pre-season data set included 3,357 newcomers on 168 teams, and our mid-season data set included 1,248 newcomers on 161 teams.

2.2.3 Dependent Variable

To measure *individual performance*, we used player ratings from Whoscored. Whoscored determines each player's rating according to an algorithm that is based on over 200 recorded performance indicators (e.g., successful dribblings, goals scored, and successful tackles), which are weighted according to their influence on the game and depending on the importance of the data point for a specific position.[6] Using an algorithmic rating such as Whoscored's is especially suited for our purpose, as Whoscored's rating is a composite

[6] For a detailed description of the *Whoscored* rating system, please follow this link: https://www.whoscored.com/Explanations

measure of performance. In European football, individual performance includes many different indicators, such as goals scored, assists, shooting accuracy, passing accuracy, or tackle accuracy (Gómez, Lago, Gómez, & Furley, 2019; Lucifora & Simmons, 2003). The validity of using one of these measures independently to operationalize a player's performance is limited, as (1) they only represent one of several performance indicators of a player, and (2) they do not account for a player's position, making therefore comparisons among players of different positions difficult (e.g., defenders have fewer opportunities to score a goal than strikers). In addition to overcoming these limitations, the Whoscored composite measure accounts for less obvious contributions, such as clearances, cross passes, or aerials, that may prevent or lead to scores and are important facets of a player's tasks during a game. And, although the weighting of events underlying an algorithm involves value judgments, the overall rating is objective in the sense that it is applied uniformly to all players and over time (Dendir, 2016).

The final rating scale ranges from 0 ("*extremely poor performance"*) to 10.0 ("*excellent performance"*), while a rating of 6.0 - 6.9 is considered "*average performance*". Each player starts a game with a 6.0, while players who have not played in a match as part of the starting eleven or as a substitute do not receive a rating. For our analyses, we used the average rating of all games in the first half of the season for the pre-season newcomer dataset and the average rating of all games in the second half of the season for the mid-season newcomer dataset to determine individual performance.[7] We averaged ratings across games for each player to smooth out game-specific performance peaks and troughs resulting from individual and team form, injuries, or opponent strength (Dendir, 2016).

[7] For robustness check, we also examined average performance ratings across the full season for pre-season newcomers. The results were consistent with the results reported in this study.

2.2.4 Independent Variables

Individual human capital. To operationalize *individual human capital,* we used the Transfermarkt market value of each newcomer. Transfermarkt utilizes its online community of football enthusiasts and the judge principle (Brunswick, 1952; Hollenbeck, Ilgen, Sego, Hedlund, Major & Phillips, 1995) to determine professional football player market values. Members of the online community can make a proposition for a player's market value and provide a rationale to justify their estimation. The main drivers for market value estimations are the player's past and his potential future performance. External variables, such as team market value or public attention, are also reflected in a player's market value (Herm, Callsen-Bracker, & Kreis, 2014). Market value propositions are made and then discussed in an online forum where community members can contribute to the discussion thread based on their own criteria. Yet, only merited community members with superior rights make the ultimate decision about market-value propositions by community members (see Herm et al., 2014). The Transfermarkt market values have not only been used in previous sports and management research (e.g., Bryson, Frick, & Simmons, 2013; Hofmann, Schnittka, Johnen, & Kottemann, 2019) but are also used by football club officials and player agents as an anchor point in contract negotiations and to determine transfer fees when selling or buying players (Peeters, 2018). Even though market values on Transfermarkt are updated regularly throughout the season, the time intervals vary among leagues and players. To gain comparable values, we used those values that were determined directly before each season, as this market value determination period is similar across all leagues in our sample. Hence, in our sample, each player has one market value per season. We measured individual human capital as the actual Transfermarkt value in Euro (EUR), divided by 1,000,000.

Prior team performance. To operationalize prior team performance, we used the previous rank of each team in its domestic league. For the pre-season newcomer dataset, we used the team ranks of the previous season in the respective league. As the last two to three teams are replaced by the best two to three teams of the respective second division after each season, we assigned the last two to three ranks to the promoted teams. For the mid-season newcomer dataset, we used the ranks at mid-season (i.e., after half the games are played). For ease of interpretation, we reverse coded the ranking to rank teams from 1 (*worst performing team in each league*) to 20 (*best performing team in each league*). We rescaled the Bundesliga (18 teams) ranking to have the same minimum (1) and maximum (20) as the other leagues using the arithmetic procedure recommended by Dawes (2008).

Number of newcomers. We operationalized number of newcomers for each transfer period (pre-season and mid-season) as the total number of players that entered each team/football club at that time.

2.2.5 Control Variables

We collected various control variables that might affect the outcomes of our study. First, we controlled for *newcomer age* and *newcomer age squared* in years because player ages may be connected to greater experience, but as players age, their physical skills, such as speed and athleticism, decline (Dendir, 2016; Kalén, Rey, Rellán-Guerra, & Lago-Peñas, 2019; Torgler, & Schmidt, 2007).

Second, even though our individual performance measure calibrates to differences due to a player's position, we controlled for *player positions,* as we cannot fully rule out that differences in the ratings are to some extent due to position effects. Moreover, market values of players are dependent on the position of the player, as attacking players generally have higher market values than defending players (Kalén et al., 2019). We defined seven dummy variables that are commonly used to distinguish among player positions: goalkeeper, defender, defensive midfielder, midfielder, attacking midfielder (base group), and striker.

Third, we controlled for whether the incoming player was a newcomer from the *top five European football leagues* or not. In these five leagues, the quality levels of players and competition among teams are considered to be higher than in all other professional football leagues. This might lead to differences in the individual performance of newcomers from other leagues versus those from inside the top five European leagues. Playing in one of the top five leagues may also influence a player's market value, as teams and players in these leagues receive higher attention rates than others because of increased international media coverage. This variable (*newcomer from top five league*) takes a value of 1 if the player is a newcomer from inside the top five European football leagues and a value of 0 otherwise.

Fourth, we controlled for *team human capital*, operationalized as the average of the market value of all players of a team, including newcomers, because team human capital is a strong predictor of team performance (Gerhards & Mutz, 2017) and a proxy for the overall quality of a team. Consequently, newcomers to high-quality teams might feel higher pressure to increase their performance to positively affect the overall performance of the team. As individual human capital, *team human capital* was measured as the average Transfermarkt value of a team (including existing and new players) in Euro (EUR), divided by 1,000,000.

Finally, we controlled for each *season*. The overall quality in football with regard to the pace of the game, the physical abilities of the players, and the tactical evolutions has increased significantly over the last decades. This time effect might also affect the individual performance ratings of players. Further, the influx of private investors into European football and more lucrative broadcasting contracts have led to increased revenues for Europe's professional football clubs and increased player market values over time (Rohde & Breuer, 2016).

2.2.6 Analysis Overview

Our data contained a hierarchical structure in which individuals (newcomers) were nested within teams and teams were nested within leagues. Due to this multilevel nature of the data, we tested our cross-level relationships using Random Coefficient Modeling (RCM). In particular, individual-level performances were analyzed using three-level mixed-models, in which individual human capital and individual covariates were measured at level 1; team past performance, number of newcomers, and team covariates were measured at level 2; and the league variable at level 3 to reflect between-league differences (Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2004). All analyses were conducted separately for the pre-season and mid-season sample data using the lme4 package in R (Bates, Mächler, Bolker & Walker, 2015), applying the same strategy. Given that effect size estimates are tenuous in multilevel models, we report pseudo-R^2, following the recommendations by Snijders & Bosker (2012).

2.3 Results

Table 2.1 presents descriptive statistics and correlations among variables for pre-season newcomers. Notably, individual human capital (r = .34, p < .001) and prior team performance (r =.18, p < .001) positively correlated with newcomer performance, while number of newcomers was negatively related (r = -.06, p < .001). Table 2.2 presents descriptive statistics and correlations among variables for mid-season newcomers. Also at mid-season, individual human capital (r = .25, p < .001) and team past performance (r =.07, p = .010) positively correlated with newcomer performance, while number of newcomers was negatively related (r = -.07, p = .009). These findings provided preliminary indications for the relationships under investigation.

Results for the pre-season and mid-season models are presented in Table 2.3 and Table 2.4, respectively. According to Hypothesis 1, we expected that individual human capital is positively related to newcomer performance. RCM tests showed that individual human capital was indeed significantly related to newcomer performance after both pre-season entry (b = .022, p < .001) and mid-season entry (b = .014, p < .001). Thus, in support of Hypothesis 1, pre-season newcomers perform 0.22 performance points better with every increase of 10 million EUR in human capital. For mid-season, newcomers performed 0.14 performance points better for every increase of 10 million EUR in human capital.

Table 2.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations with Confidence Intervals for Pre-Season Newcomers

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Newcomer age	25.60	3.84							
2. Newcomer age squared	670.12	205.88	1.00*** [1.00, 1.00]						
3. Newcomer from top-five league	0.35	0.48	.25*** [.22, .28]	.25*** [.21, .28]					
4. Individual human capital	4.26	6.09	.01 [-.02, .05]	.01 [-.03, .04]	.28*** [.25, .31]				
5. Team human capital	4.58	4.83	-.07*** [-.11, -.04]	-.07*** [-.10, -.04]	.23*** [.20, .27]	.69*** [.68, .71]			
6. Prior team performance	9.28	5.76	-.11*** [-.14, -.08]	-.11*** [-.14, -.08]	.19*** [.15, .22]	.41*** [.38, .44]	.63*** [.61, .65]		
7. Number of newcomers	11.43	5.00	.07*** [.03, .10]	.07*** [.04, .11]	-.13*** [-.16, -.09]	-.18*** [-.21, -.15]	-.27*** [-.30, -.24]	-.35*** [-.38, -.32]	
8. Newcomer performance	6.73	0.35	.10*** [.06, .13]	.09*** [.05, .12]	.15*** [.12, .19]	.34*** [.31, .37]	.24*** [.21, .27]	.18*** [.15, .22]	-.06*** [-.09, -.02]

Note. *N* = 3,358. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. Individual human capital and team average human capital in million *EUR*. Newcomer from top-five league, 0 = no, 1 = yes.

$^{\dagger}p < 0.1$
$^{*}p < 0.05$
$^{**}p < 0.01$
$^{***}p < 0.001$

Table 2.2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations with Confidence Intervals for Mid-Season Newcomers

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Newcomer age	26.11	3.87							
2. Newcomer age squared	696.83	208.03	1.00*** [1.00, 1.00]						
3. Newcomer from top-five league	0.46	0.50	.12*** [.06, .17]	.12*** [.06, .17]					
4. Individual human capital	4.30	5.54	.11*** [.05, .16]	.09** [.03, .14]	.25*** [.20, .30]				
5. Team human capital	4.27	4.26	.02 [-.04, .08]	.02 [-.04, .07]	.14*** [.09, .20]	.58*** [.55, .62]			
6. Prior team performance	8.47	5.65	-.06* [-.11, -.00]	-.06* [-.11, -.00]	.09** [.03, .14]	.29*** [.24, .34]	.54*** [.50, .58]		
7. Number of newcomers	5.83	2.85	.09*** [.04, .15]	.10*** [.04, .15]	.09** [.04, .15]	-.08** [-.13, -.02]	-.15*** [-.21, -.10]	-.22*** [-.27, -.17]	
8. Newcomer performance	6.68	0.33	.08** [.02, .13]	.07* [.01, .12]	.14*** [.09, .20]	.25*** [.20, .30]	.18*** [.12, .23]	.07* [.02, .13]	-.07** [-.13, -.02]

Note. N = 1,248. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. Individual human capital and team average human capital in million *EUR*. Newcomer from top-five league, 0 = no, 1 = yes.
$^{\dagger}p < 0.1$
$^{*}p < 0.05$
$^{**}p < 0.01$
$^{***}p < 0.001$

Next, we examined the cross-level relationships between team context and individual performance. For prior team performance, we hypothesized a positive relationship with newcomer performance when entering a team pre-season (Hypothesis 2). In support, Model 2 in Table 2.3 confirms this positive relationship (*b* = .003, *p* = .012), indicating that pre-season newcomers who joined the best (1st ranked) team of the previous season performed 0.03 performance points better than players who joined the 10th ranked team of the previous season.

Table 2.3

Hierarchical Linear Modeling Analyses of Pre-Season Newcomer Performance

	Pre-Season Newcomer Performance		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**
Level 1 (Player)			
Newcomer age	0.089^{***}	0.041^{*}	0.039^{*}
	(0.016)	(0.016)	(0.016)
Newcomer age squared	-0.002^{***}	-0.001^{*}	-0.001^{*}
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Newcomer from top-five league	0.045^{***}	0.010	0.006
	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.012)
Individual human capital		0.022^{***}	0.036^{***}
		(0.001)	(0.005)
Level 2 (Team)			
Team human capital	0.018^{***}	-0.003	-0.001
	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.002)
Prior team performance		0.003^{*}	0.005^{***}
		(0.001)	(0.001)
Number of newcomers		0.001	0.002
		(0.001)	(0.002)
Cross-level interactions			
Individual human capital × Prior team performance			-0.001^{***}
			(0.000)
Individual human capital × Number of newcomers			-0.000
			(0.000)
Intercept	5.414^{***}	6.018^{***}	5.991^{***}
	(0.219)	(0.215)	(0.217)
Control for season?[a]	Yes	Yes	Yes
Control for player position?[a]	Yes	Yes	Yes
Pseudo R^2	0.193	0.257	0.256

Notes. N_{player} = 3,358; N_{team} = 168; N_{league} = 5. Unstandardized estimates provided, standard errors are in parentheses. [a] To control for season and player position, dummy variables are included. Pseudo R^2 based on formula by Snijders & Bosker (2012).
$^{\dagger}p < 0.1$; $^{*}p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{***}p < 0.001$

At mid-season, we questioned whether the relationship between prior team performance and newcomer performance would be either positive or negative (Research Question 1). Supporting the latter possibility, results from Model 2 in Table 2.4 show a negative relationship between prior team performance and newcomer performance (*b* = -.004, *p* = .043). To put this into perspective, mid-season newcomers who joined the best team after the first half of the season performed 0.04 performance points worse than newcomers who joined the 10th ranked team.

Table 2.4

Hierarchical Linear Modeling Analyses of Mid-Season Newcomer Performance

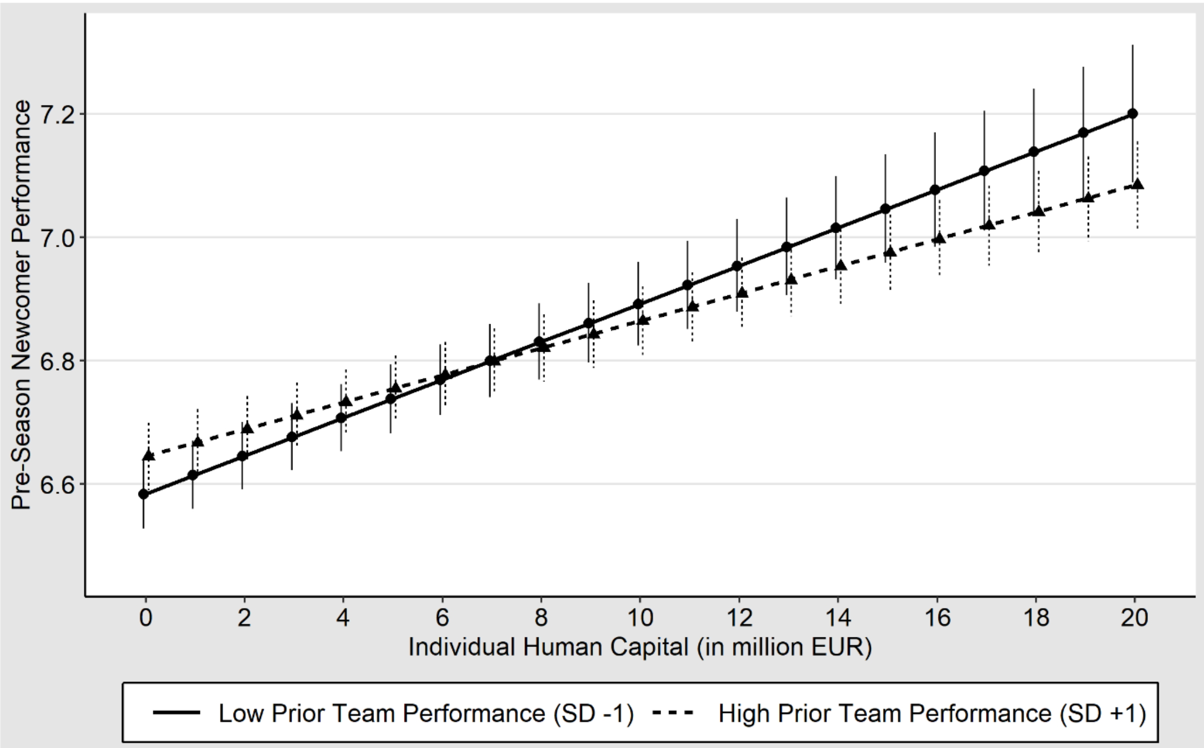
	Mid-Season Newcomer Performance		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**
Level 1 (Player)			
Newcomer age	0.090^{***}	$0.046^{\dagger}$	$0.044^{\dagger}$
	(0.026)	(0.026)	(0.026)
Newcomer age squared	-0.002^{***}	$-0.001^{\dagger}$	$-0.001^{\dagger}$
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Newcomer from top-five league	0.088^{***}	0.068^{***}	0.066^{***}
	(0.018)	(0.018)	(0.018)
Individual human capital		0.014^{***}	0.027^{***}
		(0.002)	(0.007)
Level 2 (Team)			
Team human capital	0.015^{***}	0.007^{*}	0.008^{**}
	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Prior team performance		-0.004^{*}	-0.002
		(0.002)	(0.002)
Number of newcomers		-0.010^{**}	-0.006
		(0.004)	(0.004)
Cross-level interactions			
Individual human capital × Prior team performance			-0.001^{*}
			(0.000)
Individual human capital × Number of newcomers			-0.001
			(0.001)
Intercept	5.314^{***}	5.972^{***}	5.948^{***}
	(0.341)	(0.345)	(0.347)
Control for season?[a]	Yes	Yes	Yes
Control for player position?[a]	Yes	Yes	Yes
Pseudo R^2	0.122	0.165	0.163

Notes. N_{player} = 1,248; N_{team} = 161; N_{league} = 5. Unstandardized estimates provided, standard errors are in parentheses. [a] To control for season and player, position dummy variables are included. Pseudo R^2 based on formula by Snijders & Bosker (2012).
$^{\dagger}p < 0.1$; $^{*}p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{***}p < 0.001$

Continuing with number of newcomers, we questioned whether the relationship between number of newcomers in a team and newcomer performance would be positive or negative for pre-season newcomers (Research Question 2). Not supporting either direction, the coefficient estimate of number of newcomers was insignificant for pre-season newcomers (b = .001, p = .335). We further hypothesized in Hypothesis 3 that the relation between number of newcomers and newcomer performance would be negative for mid-season newcomers. In support, number of newcomers was negatively related to newcomer performance when entering mid-season (b = -.010, p = .012), indicating that newcomer performance declined by 0.01 performance points with every additional player that entered the team at mid-season.

Figure 2.1

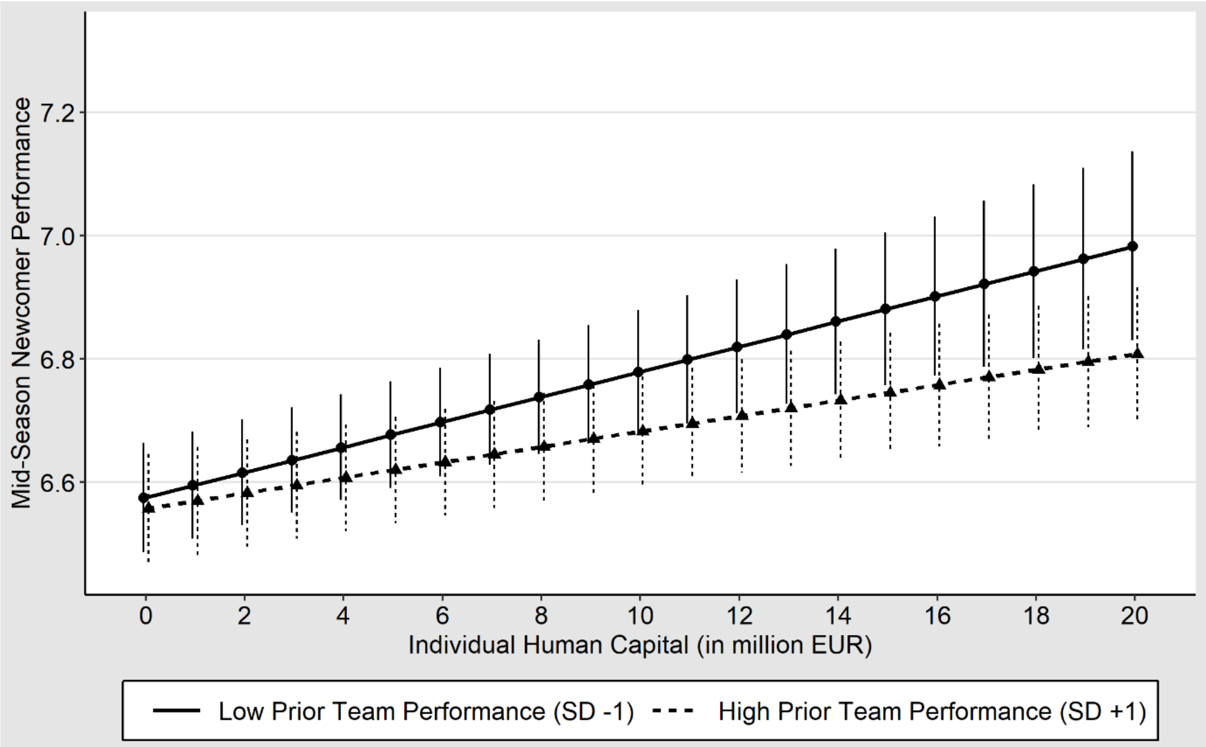
Two-way Interaction between Individual Human Capital and Prior Team Performance on Pre-Season Newcomer Performance



Turning to the cross-level interactions, Hypothesis 4 stated that newcomer human capital relates to pre-season newcomer performance less positively when newcomers enter teams with higher vs. lower prior team performance. The coefficient of the interaction term between individual human capital and prior team performance in Model 3 of Table 2.3 is negative and significant (*b* = -.001, *p* < .001). Figure 2.1 graphically displays the form of the interaction by calculating predicted values and 95% confidence intervals of pre-season newcomer performance for different levels of individual human capital. As predicted, the relationship between individual human capital and pre-season newcomer performance was less positive for high levels (+1 *SD; b* = .022, *SE* = .002, *p* < .001) than for low levels (-1 *SD; b* = .031, *SE* = .003, *p* < .001) of prior team performance. According to Hypothesis 5, we expected prior team performance to negatively interact with newcomer human capital in influencing newcomer performance at mid-season. Model 3 in Table 2.4 shows that the interaction term between individual human capital and prior team performance is negative and significant (*b* = -.001, *p* = .037).

Figure 2.2

Two-way Interaction between Individual Human Capital and Prior Team Performance on Mid-Season Newcomer Performance



In support of Hypothesis 5, the plot of the interaction effect in Figure 2.2 indicates that the relationship between individual human capital and mid-season newcomer performance was less positive for high levels (+1 *SD; b* = .013, *SE* = .002, *p* < .001) than for low levels of prior team performance (-1 *SD; b* = .020, *SE* = .004, *p* < .001).[8]

Finally, we tested the interaction effect of individual human capital and number of newcomers on newcomer performance. Regarding Research Question 3, newcomer human capital and number of newcomers was not related to newcomer performance when joining pre-season (*b* = -.000, *p* = .393; Table 3, Model 3). Hypothesis 6, according to which we expected that newcomer human capital relates to newcomer performance more positively when entering teams with more vs. less newcomers, was not supported. The interaction effect was non-significant for mid-season newcomers (*b* = -.001, *p* = .168; Table 2.4, Model 3).

2.4 Discussion

In this study, we tested whether and how individual human capital and the collective team environment (i.e., prior team performance and number of newcomers) affect newcomer performance directly and in combination, and whether these effects differ depending on the length of the socialization context (i.e., pre-season and mid-season). Examining human capital in terms of overall market valuation, we found a direct positive relationship with newcomer performance across socialization contexts. In contrast, relationships between the collective team environment and performance were dependent on the socialization context. Specifically, while newcomers benefited from better performing teams when the newcomer and the team had enough time to adapt to each other (i.e., pre-season newcomer entry), entering a high-performing team lowered newcomers' individual performance when the time for socialization was limited (i.e., mid-season newcomer entry). Further, results showed that a larger number of

[8] We further probed the ranges over which the interactions holds applying the Johnson-Neyman technique (Finsaas & Goldstein, 2020; Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006). Using the 95% regions of significance, we found the same results patterns (see Appendix A).

newcomers who join simultaneously harmed newcomer performance when the time for socialization was limited, i.e., mid-season. Beyond the direct relationships, prior team performance qualified the relationship between newcomer human capital and performance such that human capital was less positively related to performance when newcomers joined higher performing teams, regardless of joining pre- or mid-season. In contrast, the number of newcomers did not alter any relationship between human capital and newcomer performance.

2.4.1 Theoretical Implications

In this study, we extended and integrated the literatures on strategic human capital, newcomer socialization, and work teams to better understand whether and when individual human capital contributes to individual performance under different team contexts (Call & Ployhart, 2020). The theory and empirical findings offered in this paper contribute to the extant literature in these areas in three ways. First, the positive and consistent individual-level relationships between human capital and newcomer performance help to reduce the gap between the micro staffing literature and macro literature on strategic human capital (Nyberg et al., 2014; Ployhart, 2012). Specifically, we extend the existing micro literature on staffing, which so far has focused primarily on the examination of specific KSAOs in relation to performance (Ployhart et al., 2017), by confirming the relationship with a holistic measure of market value. Showing that this relationship is consistent across socialization contexts, we also contribute to the macro research on strategic human capital by indicating that acquiring generic human capital through the labor market may indeed lead to a competitive advantage for organizations by fostering individual performance in positions that can have nontrivial influence on organizational performance (O'Boyle & Aguinis, 2012). Altogether, this result supports the compositional approach to talent acquisition by highlighting that indeed more is better when it comes to human capital.

Second, we enhance understanding of the collective team environment that newcomers face when entering new teams, answering calls for more research on context in staffing decisions (e.g., Ployhart & Schneider, 2012) and clarifying contradictions in the extant team and newcomer socialization literatures. When there is more time for socialization, our findings indicate that prior team performance helps newcomers, in line with some team socialization research (Chen, 2005). However, when time for socialization is more limited, our results support other team socialization research suggesting that high-performing teams appear to be less supportive of newcomers (Rink et al., 2013). Further, the number of newcomers reduces newcomer performance when there is no time for socialization, in line with the notion that newcomers disrupt team processes (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; Summers et al., 2012). Given that the negative relationship between number of newcomers and newcomer performance was not detected when there was time for socialization indicates that lengthy team socialization can overcome the destructive performance effects of newcomers' entry disruptions. Yet, our findings do not directly support the beneficial effects proposed by prior research on cluster hiring (Eckardt et al., 2018; Raffiee & Byun, 2020) and collective socialization tactics (Bauer et al., 2007), regardless of length of the socialization period.

In addition to the direct relationships, our results also support a configural approach to human capital (Sirmon et al., 2007), as the relationship between human capital and newcomer performance was indeed dependent on the team context. Specifically, the positive relationship between newcomers' human capital and newcomer performance was stronger when entering teams that recently performed worse than when entering well-performing teams. This extends prior research that indicates that well-performing teams can facilitate performance for newcomers who are low in human capital when there is time for socialization (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007) and that high-performing teams are less open to newcomers (Rink et al., 2013). Specifically, our results suggest that the tougher environment posed by worse performing teams can be overcome or even provides the opportunity for newcomers who possess higher human capital to thrive and demonstrate their capabilities.

Finally, while research on socialization typically examines socialization processes over time (Allen et al., 2017; Bauer et al., 2020), our study is distinct in that we explore the performance of newcomers in teams at different socialization conditions: pre-season, when there is time for socialization, and mid-season, when time for socialization is lacking. The relationship between human capital and newcomer performance was consistent across socialization conditions, indicating that socialization might be less necessary for newcomers' translation of human capital into performance (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). In contrast, the direct relationships of both team context variables (i.e., prior team performance and number of newcomers) were quite different under the different socialization conditions. When time for socialization is given, well-performing teams benefit newcomer performance, but such teams harm newcomers when socialization time is limited. Furthermore, teams who experience disruptions from large numbers of newcomers require time for socialization, as the number of newcomers also hurts newcomer performance if no time for socialization is given. In sum, these results emphasize the important role of time in team socialization for newcomers coping with the team context (e.g., Ashforth, 2012; Chen, 2005).

2.4.2 Practical Implications

Our findings suggest that when staffing teams, organizations should consider not only an individual's human capital but also the team's context and the timing of hiring. To begin, it generally makes sense to look for newcomers with high human capital, as human capital consistently translated into newcomer performance, regardless of the length of socialization afforded to the newcomer. Our findings extend prior recommendations in that we show that investing in hiring more expensive new talent benefits the organization in terms of higher newcomer performance (cf. O'Boyle & Aguinis, 2012). Furthermore, our findings also indicated that newcomers with higher human capital performed especially well when joining worse-performing teams, suggesting that hiring more expensive talent may be especially beneficial for teams whose performance is lower vs. higher.

Further, entering teams together with other newcomers can be detrimental for newcomer performance when there is no time for socialization. Thus, when staffing fully operational teams (Mathieu et al., 2014), managers need to be especially careful to not bring in too many newcomers, as the disturbance to the team makes it difficult to integrate them. Alternatively, they may invest in measures that support team socialization, such as role clarification, social meetings, and offsite activities, as our results indicate that time for socialization can offset the potential negative effect resulting from disturbances to the team.

Finally, our results indicate a very specific strategy for staffing low-performing teams. When staffing low-performing teams, managers may selectively pick one (but not many) newcomer(s) with high human capital who then mutually benefit from the team by receiving stronger support for their own performance. In football, one of the most prominent examples for this strategy might be Luis Suárez from Uruguay, who’s already promising career took off after joining the underperforming Liverpool FC during the 2010/2011 season (see Jackson, 2014). After hiring the rather expensive Suárez, Liverpool FC made it from being ranked in the middle of the league to sixth in the final English Premier League standings of 2010/2011, while Suárez himself became a top scorer that same year. Thus, staffing teams are a complex endeavor in finding the right (number of) people in the right (team and socialization) context.

2.4.3 Limitations and Future Research

While this study provides important contributions, it is not without limitations. First, the use of professional European football team data may raise concerns about the generalizability of our findings, as our sample has certain idiosyncratic features. While the football context allowed us to obtain high quality data on human capital as well as individual and team performance, these data might not be available in most other industries, where the labor markets are in general less transparent and subject to more inefficiency (Call & Ployhart, 2020). However, note that individual performance in some occupations, such as investment banking, stockbrokers, and science, are similarly transparent and visible (in terms of dollars or patents). Furthermore, the greater importance of the physical abilities of football players as opposed to intellectual abilities (Grijalva, Maynes, Badura & Whiting, 2020) may raise questions regarding whether the tasks in this industry are comparable to those in other industries. Yet, the focus of our examination was the interplay of human capital and team context. With our theory being tightly embedded within strategic human capital, newcomer socialization, and work teams, we examined constructs that are not bound to physical abilities and, quite the contrary, are broadly applicable to most teams and organizations (e.g., Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). Still, replications and extensions in other industries and areas of work are needed.

Second, while comparing two different socialization conditions (i.e., pre-season vs. mid-season) allowed us to contribute to extant socialization and team literature, we were not able to clearly separate the effects of time for socialization from other potential differences between entering a new team pre-season or mid-season or to control for the specific length and content of the socialization phase. This is especially important, as temporal dynamics have been found to be complex in nature (Kozlowski & Bell, 2013). Future research might therefore aim to find contexts in which the time for socialization can be examined while keeping other context factors (e.g., performance pressures) constant.

Third, it is difficult to interpret the non-significant relationship between number of newcomers and newcomer performance pre-season. While socialization time could neutralize the disturbance resulting from newcomer entry, the positive relationship resulting from simultaneous socialization with other newcomers may also balance the negative relationship that we observed between number of newcomers and newcomer performance mid-season. Therefore, future research may additionally examine mediators to clarify the conflicting results of number of newcomers on newcomer performance, i.e., disturbance vs. socialization, and further understand the effects of prior team performance, i.e., superior team processes vs. reduced openness to newcomers.

Finally, while we concentrated on the team context of newcomer integration, we did not observe other complementarities besides prior team performance and number of newcomers that might influence newcomer performance in teams either directly or via interactions. In line with our proposed approach to integrate different literature perspectives, future work could focus on managerial factors, such as the influence of coaching (Crocker & Eckardt, 2014) or human resource management policies (Weller et al., 2019), to expand the understanding of newcomer effectiveness.

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3 Essay II: Unconscious Bias in Employee Goal Setting: A Content Analysis of Actual Performance and Learning Goals[9]

ABSTRACT

Applying role congruity theory to organizational goal setting, we investigate differences in the agentic content of performance and learning goals assigned to female and male managers. We further test whether this influence of stereotypes on the goals of women and men increases with higher management positions based on the assumption that the incongruity between gender stereotypes and stereotypes about managers increases with hierarchical levels. We examine the resulting research model by applying computer-aided text analysis to archival data of an international insurance company. In line with descriptive gender stereotypes, we found that women were assigned fewer agentic performance goals than men, while they were assigned more agentic learning goals than men, reflecting the discrepancy between gender stereotypes and stereotypes about managers. The difference in agentic content in performance goals for women and men further increased the higher their management position, while management position did not change the influence of stereotypes on the agentic content in learning goals. Based on these findings, we advance the understanding of subtle gender and role stereotypes in career paths and performance assessments and discuss implications for research and organizations.

Keywords: stereotypes, unconscious bias, goal setting, agency, content analysis

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[9] This chapter is based on Schuth, Brosi, and Welpe (under review). Therefore, the plural instead of the singular is used throughout this chapter. References, previous versions, and author contributions are summarized in Appendix B.

Organizations have progressed substantially toward equality between women and men. Women are equally represented in the workforce, are increasingly employed in typically male-dominated professions, and account for more managerial positions than ever before (Bono et al., 2017; Dezső, Ross, & Uribe 2016). Yet, women are still underrepresented in higher-level management positions (Frear, Paustian-Underdahl, Heggestad, & Walker, 2019), take longer to advance their careers (Blau & DeVaro, 2007), and receive fewer leadership tasks (Latu, Mast, Lammers, & Bombari, 2013), even though there is evidence that they are equally qualified and have career preferences similar to those of their male colleagues (Braun, Stegmann, Hernandez Bark, Junker, & van Dick, 2016). Hence, while the overall gap between women and men in organizations is diminishing, women continue to be disadvantaged in terms of career advancement.

In explaining the disparity in career advancement, research has identified biases resulting from role expectations about gender and professional roles as an important factor (see Joshi, Neely, Emrich, Griffiths, & George, 2015). Accordingly, there is a perceived incongruity or lack of fit between the characteristics typically assigned to women and the agentic qualities (e.g., competence, assertiveness, and independence) that are thought to be necessary to succeed as a manager, especially in higher management positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2012). Consequently, expectations about gender and management roles lead to the stereotypical assumption that women are not equipped to be successful managers, which biases performance expectations as well as hiring and promotion decisions (Heilman, 2012). As such, stereotypes “take subtle rather than blatant forms” (Biernat, Fuegen, & Kobrynowicz, 2010, p. 855) with or without the assessor’s awareness but nevertheless influence career outcomes and foster gender disparity. In support of this notion, previous research has found that women, compared to men, are described as being less agentic in written appraisals, letters of recommendation, or performance assessments (Biernat, Tocci, & Williams, 2012; Heilman & Haynes, 2005; Madera, Hebl, & Martin, 2009) and receive less training, mentoring, and rewards (Hoobler, Lemmon, & Wayne, 2014).

Despite this substantial list, the literature has so far neglected important aspects of managerial career advancement in organizations. Referring to the organizational practice of assigning goals to employees during the annual performance management process, many organizations use goal setting to steer and measure performance. Two research streams are relevant yet have obtained inconclusive findings on gender stereotypes in goal setting. First, research has shown gender stereotypes in managers' written evaluations in the performance management process but has solely focused on performance appraisals (Madera et al., 2009; Bauer & Baltes, 2002), while ignoring the potential influences on organizational practices, such as goal setting. This is the more problematic, as goal setting ultimately influences managerial advancement (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Howard, 2013; Tellhed, Bäckström, & Björklund, 2018). Thus, stereotypes in goal setting may set men and women on different career paths. Second, the extant research on goal setting has solely focused on self-set goals in terms of performance expectation, self-image, and self-evaluation (Crocker & Major, 1989; Loose, Régner, Morin, & Dumas, 2012). Although this self-evaluation approach has demonstrated that gender stereotypes influence expectations of performance and success, leading to biased self-set goals (Kray, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2002; Smith, 2006), it only focuses on the self as a goal source rather than on others. However, field and experimental research has provided evidence that assigned and self-set goals have distinct ability- and content-related dynamics (see Hollenbeck & Brief, 1987; Hollenbeck, Williams, & Klein, 1989; Welsh, Baer, & Sessions, 2020). Further highlighting the importance of examining gender stereotypes in goal assignments, scholars have observed that stereotypes are more dominant in the evaluation of others than in self-evaluation (see Hentschel, Heilman, & Peus, 2019).

The examination of perceived role incongruity in organizational goal setting is particularly worthwhile because assigned goals are largely based on expectations about the goal target's abilities (Heslin & Wang, 2013; Locke & Latham, 1990). Specifically, goal-setting theory differentiates between performance and learning goals (Chen & Latham, 2014; Latham & Seijts, 2016; Winters & Latham, 1996). Performance goals are assigned to increase employees' motivation to draw upon given skills and knowledge, focusing attention on a specific task outcome (e.g., grow the embedded value of a business by 20%). In contrast, learning goals are assigned in the absence of skills and knowledge to develop or improve task-relevant capabilities, shifting an employee's focus to the ways to perform a task (e.g., explore possibilities to develop management skills). Through the integration of the literature on gender stereotypes and goal setting, we suggest that assigned performance and learning goals will differentially reflect gender stereotypes with contrasting consequences for women and men in managerial roles. Given that agentic skills and knowledge are especially relevant in management positions (Bateman, O'Neill, & Kenworthy-U'Ren, 2002; Eagly & Heilman, 2016) and that the agentic profiles of managers become increasingly pronounced at higher organizational levels (Bateman et al., 2002; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ones & Dilchert, 2009), we examine differences between women and men in agency-related contexts in performance and learning goals across managerial levels.

Thereby, we make the following three contributions. First, we extend the current knowledge on biases in supervisors' evaluations of their employees (Biernat et al., 2012; Joshi et al., 2015; Madera et al., 2009) by providing evidence that stereotypes also influence goal setting in organizations. The examination of goals is particularly relevant because goal setting constitutes a key predictor of career success (Howard, 2013). Second, we expand the literature on stereotypes in goal setting (Ecces & Wigfield, 2002; Bargh & Williams, 2006) by identifying the effects that stereotypes can have on the assignment of performance and learning goals. This distinction is particularly important, as we assume that while performance goals directly reflect gender stereotypes, stereotypes in learning goals arise from the discrepancy between gender stereotypes and the stereotypes that exist about managers. Finally, we provide an indication that organizations may actually emphasize agency bias in higher management positions through the practice of goal setting (Eagly & Karau, 2002). We thereby demonstrate that the increasing congruity between the male role and the management role at higher management levels is also reflected in assigned performance and learning goals, which could explain why many organizations struggle with female managers rising to the highest organizational levels.

To examine agentic stereotypes in goal setting, we investigate actual performance and learning goals for managers, as set by their supervisors. In doing so, we focus on supervisors' agentic expressions in natural language. Linguistic inquiries provide objective measures (i.e., content analysis) and are particularly suitable for our context, as words reflect a writer's conscious and unconscious assumptions and beliefs (Biernat et al., 2012; Pietraszkiewicz, Formanowicz, Gustafsson Sendén, Boyd, Sikström, & Sczesny, 2019). Thereby, we rely on objective measures (i.e., content analysis) and use validated dictionaries (i.e., Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count [LIWC] program; Pennebaker, Boyd, Jordan, & Blackburn, 2015).

3.1 Theory Development

3.1.1 Role Congruity Theory, Agentic Characteristics, and Stereotypes

Grounded in social role theory, role congruity theory considers the congruity between traditional gender roles and management roles in organizations (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Because social roles imply shared expectations of the members who occupy a certain role, gender roles are stereotypical beliefs about the behavior, skills, and knowledge of women and men. Similarly, management roles are socially shared expectations about the necessary abilities to successfully occupy a managerial position (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Crucial for understanding why men, but not women, are perceived as successful managers are expectations about their agentic qualities. Accordingly, men are characterized as assertive, dominant, and competent, while these traits are less commonly ascribed to women (Eagly, 1987; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). Considering the characteristics ascribed to managers, there is empirical evidence that managers are perceived as being more similar to men than to women on a multitude of agentic qualities, such as taking control, giving direction, and thinking analytically (Duehr & Bono, 2006; Heilman, Block, & Martell, 1995; Schein, 1975). Moreover, agentic qualities are strongly associated with managerial effectiveness, achievement, and success, contributing to the strong link between the male and the manager role (Abele, 2003; Do & Minbashian, 2014). Although other characteristics, such as warmth, compassion, or kindness (Eckes, 2002; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011), are also differently ascribed to women and men, the discrepancy in agentic characteristics is the main factor that leads to the incongruity between women and managerial roles (Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, & Liu, 1996).

To understand this incongruity, it is important to note that role expectations provoke both descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes about group members. By establishing beliefs about what members of a group do or can do, descriptive stereotypes serve as heuristics or cognitive shortcuts in influencing impressions about the skills and knowledge of others (Heilman, 2012). As such, descriptive stereotypes are often activated automatically, with or without the perceiver's awareness, and independent from actual abilities or characteristics, leading to people being evaluated not because of what they have done or can do but because of the group to which they belong (Abele & Bruckmüller, 2011; Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008). In particular, agentic content appears in employee evaluations, with women being generally described as less agentic than men in recommendation letters for academic positions (Madera et al., 2009), surgery fellowships (Hoffman, Grant, McCormick, Jezewski, Matemavi, & Langnas, 2019), or performance evaluations of attorneys (Biernat et al., 2012). Moreover, Heilman and Haynes (2005) showed that in mixed-sex work teams, women were rated as being less competent, less influential, and less likely to occupy a leadership role than their male colleagues, indicating that women are not credited for their success in agentic roles. In addition to descriptive stereotypes, prescriptive stereotypes establish normative expectations about what a group of people should do or how they should behave (Eagly & Karau, 2002). In terms of gender roles, men are supposed to engage in agentic behavior, while prescriptive norms designate that women should not demonstrate agentic abilities (Heilman, 2001; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). In sum, gender stereotypes activate beliefs about the abilities of women and men, with women being generally perceived as less agentic than men.

Yet, stereotypical beliefs about the agentic skills and knowledge of women and men are not inherently problematic for women in managerial positions (Heilman, 2012). The potential for bias against women in work settings stems only from the inconsistency between the perceived lack of agentic skills and knowledge associated with women and the predominantly agentic abilities that people attribute to managers (Eagly & Karau, 2002). More specifically, leadership categorization theory (Lord & Maher, 1993) and the think manager – think male paradigm (Schein et al., 1996) suggest that the mental representations, or prototypes, of how managers are and should be mainly include agentic expectations, such as strength, authority, or competence (Koenig et al., 2011; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Offermann, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994). Thus, when evaluating women in management positions, people combine largely incongruent expectations about their agentic skills and knowledge, whereas in evaluating men in managerial roles, people combine highly redundant expectations about agentic abilities (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Consequently, stereotypes lead to negative performance expectations of women in management positions because women are perceived to lack the necessary agentic abilities that are deemed important in managerial roles.

3.1.2 Stereotypes and Goal Setting

According to central theoretical perspectives on the goal-setting process, goals are based on expectations of success (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990; Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Bandura, 1997). Specifically, goals are set in the anticipation that an individual can successfully perform a given task. As such, goals are the outcome of a discrepancy-creating process in which the desired outcome and what can actually be achieved are assessed based on perceived abilities and past success (Heslin & Wang, 2013; Latham & Locke, 1991; 2002). Beliefs about the extent to which an individual possesses the necessary skills and knowledge to perform a required task can thereby differ from actual abilities, as such beliefs are often based on subjective evaluations (Bandura, 1997; Klein, Austin, & Cooper, 2008).

Goal-setting and expectancy theory argue that such biased assessments of abilities and past performance occur because individuals prefer simple and established constructs (e.g., stereotypes) to determine expectations and that the goal-setting process can therefore be influenced by unconscious priming (Ecces & Wigfield, 2002; Bargh & Williams, 2006). Similarly, role congruity theory assumes that evaluations of others' skills and knowledge can be influenced by stereotypical beliefs (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that stereotypes about the agentic abilities of women and men influence the evaluative process of assigning goals to others.

While these considerations provide insight into the goal-setting process that may be influenced by stereotypes, stereotypical beliefs about the agentic abilities of women and men should be differently reflected in the two key types of goals: performance goals and learning goals. Performance goals focus on the achievement of specific tasks according to given abilities or experience (Seijts & Latham, 2001; Tasa, Whyte, & Leonardelli, 2013). Specifically, performance goals are set based on the perception that an individual can rely on existing or previously earned skills and knowledge to successfully perform an assigned task (Seijts, Latham, & Woodwark, 2013). In an organizational context, this implies that goal setters make assumptions about the agentic abilities of managers when assigning goals (e.g., accomplish three million dollars in revenue, improve productivity by 3%, or acquire 10-15 new customers) (Bateman et al., 2002). As women are generally perceived as having fewer agentic skills and less knowledge than men, expectations of success should be lower when assigning agentic performance goals to women than when assigning them to men. As such, and in line with research on evaluative judgements (Madera et al., 2009; Biernat et al., 2012), the content of performance goals for managers should reflect the lower expectations about the agentic skills and knowledge of women in management positions, resulting in the assignment of fewer agentic performance goals for women than for men.

Hypothesis 1. Women are less likely than men to be assigned performance goals that are formulated in agentic terms.

In contrast to performance goals, learning goals direct attention to task processes and frame goals in terms of skill and knowledge acquisition (Seijts et al., 2013; Winters & Latham, 1996). Learning goals are assigned when the requisite abilities to perform a task have yet to be acquired (Locke & Latham, 2013). Consequently, the setting of learning goals implies that the goal setter assumes that the individual is in need of developing skills and knowledge in a given area. This also requires the evaluation of existing skills and knowledge or the lack thereof to provide an expedient framework for developing the desired abilities (Seijts et al., 2013).

For employees in management positions, desired abilities are largely based on agentic expectations of prototypical managers (e.g., train to be proactive, improve leadership skills, or earn the respect of your team) (Bateman et al., 2002). Based on the incongruity between the agentic skills and knowledge associated with women and the desired agentic abilities of managers, learning goals should reflect the perceived need for women to engage in actions to develop or improve their agentic abilities. For men, learning goals should reflect congruent expectations about their abilities and managerial prototypes, as they are expected to possess or have already developed the necessary agentic skills and knowledge.

One may also assume the opposite, i.e., that learning goals reflect prescriptive stereotypes about desired gender roles, leading to the assignment of fewer agentic learning goals to women. Yet, learning goals focus on the acquisition or development of desired skills and knowledge to conform with managerial roles, while prescriptive gender stereotypes designate that women should not display agentic abilities. Moreover, learning goals are explicitly set in the perceived absence of skills and knowledge to achieve better results (Latham & Seijts, 2016). With agentic abilities generally seen as desirable for employees in management positions

(Koenig et al., 2011), the potentially opposing effects of prescriptive gender stereotypes should be less relevant. We therefore assume that based on the perceived need for women to develop agentic skills and knowledge, resulting from the incongruity between the female and manager roles, learning goals for women in management positions include more agentic content than do those for their male colleagues.

Hypothesis 2. Women are more likely than men to be assigned learning goals that are formulated in agentic terms.

3.1.3 Stereotypical Goal Assignments at Different Management Levels

Although people generally ascribe agentic abilities to managerial roles, the level of agency associated with managers varies by the level of management position, with higher management levels associated with greater levels of agentic abilities (Martell, Parkers, Emrich, & Crawford, 1998; Ones & Dilchert, 2009). In line with the above relationship, meta-analytical findings by Koenig et al. (2011) on the think manager – think male paradigm indicate higher agentic ascriptions to upper-level managers than to moderate-level managers or to managers in general. In contrast, gender roles have been found to be essentially similar across contexts (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Therefore, role congruity theory proposes that the role incongruity between the female role and manager role intensifies when women occupy higher management positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

The increased (in)congruity between gender roles and the manager role at higher management levels may also be reflected in assigned performance goals. According to role congruity theory, men and managers are perceived as being similar in terms of their agentic qualities, while women are perceived as lacking these qualities (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This assumed similarity of men and managers even increases with managerial status (Koenig et al. 2011). In contrast, the stereotypical dissimilarity of women and managers is independent of manager status (Koenig et al. 2011). Thus, while men may be perceived as even more agentic the higher the management position they occupy is, the stereotypical picture of women is not updated with higher management levels. Following these descriptive stereotypes, men should receive more agentic performance goals in upper-level positions. In contrast, the descriptive stereotype about women will not be updated when they occupy higher management positions unless they reach the highest management level (Rosette & Tost, 2010). Therefore, the agentic content of performance goals for women cannot be assumed to change with a higher management level, which leads to an increase in the differences in agentic performance goals the higher the management position. We therefore predict:

Hypothesis 3. The relationship between manager sex and performance goals that are formulated in agentic terms is moderated by management position in such a way that the difference in agentic terms used to formulate performance goals for women and men is more pronounced the higher the management position.

The increasing incongruity between gender roles and the manager role at higher management levels (Eagly & Karau, 2002) should also be reflected in assigned learning goals. We previously assumed that women are assigned higher agentic learning goals because of the perceived discrepancy in agentic qualities between women and managers (Heilman, 2012). With the prototypical assumption of managers needing to possess agentic qualities increasing with the level of the management position under consideration (Koenig et al. 2011), the perceived gap between the agentic skills and knowledge of women and managers also widens when assessing upper-level managers. As the perceived gap widens, women are assumed to have a greater need to improve their agentic skills and knowledge. Thus, women should be assigned more agentic learning goals the higher their management level. In contrast, given that the assumed similarity of men and managers increases with manager status (Koenig et al. 2011), men should be assumed to have already developed the necessary agentic abilities to successfully perform at such high management levels. Thus, we expect that the difference in agentic learning goals for women and men will increase when assigning learning goals for managers in upper-level management positions. Specifically, we predict:

Hypothesis 4. The relationship between manager sex and learning goals that are formulated in agentic terms is moderated by management position in such a way that the difference in agentic terms used to formulate learning goals for women and men is more pronounced the higher the management position.

3.2 Methods

3.2.1 Data

We tested our hypotheses using archival data of actual goals that supervisors assigned to managers. The managers worked at an international operating insurance company located at the German branch of the organization. All managers were assigned their goals within the organization’s annual performance management process, in which goals were described in an open-ended format. This goal-setting procedure is particularly suited for our study on unconscious bias in employee goal setting because natural language samples reflect linguistic manifestations of beliefs and cognitions (Boyd, 2017; Pietraszkiewicz et al., 2019; Short, McKenny, & Reid, 2018). Specifically, stereotypical role expectations are unconsciously reflected in the words that people use (Pietraszkiewicz et al., 2019). Moreover, the insurance company provided feedback formats in which supervisors had to differentiate between performance goals (i.e., detailed descriptions of performance-related goals) and learning goals (i.e., development planning, including information about development objectives and action plans to acquire desired competences), which allowed for the separate investigation of the content of both goal types.

The overall sample included data for 107 managers. Of all managers, 63% (n = 67) were men. Manager ages ranged from 30 to 66 years, with a mean of 48.65 years (SD = 8.69). Four managers were not assigned general performance-related goals, while eight managers were assigned no goals or there was insufficient information about development areas (e.g., to be announced, ongoing, ad hoc). We excluded those goals with no or insufficient information because they did not contain enough words for linguistic analysis (Golbeck, Robles, & Turner, 2011; Sun, Schwartz, Son, Kern, & Vazire, 2020), resulting in 103 performance goals and 99 learning goals assigned by 34 supervisors. On average, more words were used to describe performance goals (M = 136.27, SD = 99.62) than learning goals (M = 25.99, SD = 21.44).

3.2.2 Procedure

After obtaining the data, we transcribed the open-ended goal descriptions to electronic form and analyzed the text using computer-aided text analysis (Short et al., 2018). Computer-aided text analysis is a content analysis method that enables quantitative analyses of written documents by calculating the frequency of words in a given text (McKenny, Aguinis, Short, & Anglin, 2018). We used the LIWC2015 program, which screens text on a word-by-word basis and compares each word to predefined dictionaries (Pennebaker et al., 2015).

As goal descriptions were in English and German, we separately analyzed the English and German subsamples using independent dictionaries. We thereby avoided the double count of phonetically similar words, assuring linguistic rigor in the dictionaries and processed texts (Wolf, Horn, Mehl, Haug, Pennebaker, & Kordy, 2008). The results of the separate text analyses for the English and German subsamples were later merged for further statistical analyses.

We adapted the previously validated dictionaries of agentic terms by Pietraszkiewicz et al. (2019); these dictionaries included agentic adjectives (e.g., active, confident, responsible), verbs (e.g., accomplish, acquire, earn), and nouns (e.g., leadership, productivity, score) and were found to possess strong psychometric properties to capture the agentic content of goals (see Pietraszkiewicz et al. 2019 for a detailed explanation about capturing agentic content). Because these dictionaries were created to capture agentic content in natural language but not specifically the language used when assigning goals to others, we evaluated the existing dictionaries based on the present texts and enriched the lists with terms that were used in previous research to capture agentic content when referring to others (i.e., lists by Hentschel et al., 2019 and Madera et al., 2009). We further controlled for insurance-specific words to avoid interference effects. The final dictionaries included 181 English and 191 German agentic terms.

3.2.3 Dependent Variables

Agentic content in performance goals. Using the described dictionaries for agentic content, we processed the open-ended descriptions of performance-related goals for each manager and calculated the percentage of agentic terms used. The measure indicates the relative use of agentic terms in the assignment of performance goals to managers. The average percentage of agentic words in performance goals was 4.84%.

Agentic content in learning goals. To measure the agentic content of learning goals, we analyzed those assignments that were specified as areas for development. We processed the open-ended descriptions and calculated the percentage of agentic terms in learning goals using the same dictionary as that used for performance goals. The measure indicates the relative use of agentic terms in the assignment of learning goals to managers. The average percentage of agentic words in learning goals was 12.13%.

3.2.4 Independent Variables

Sex. Manager sex was coded male (0) and female (1).

Management position. To operationalize management position, we used the indicated management level of each manager. For ease of interpretation, we coded the management levels to rank managers from 1 (low management position) to 3 (high management position).

3.2.5 Control Variables

We controlled for four variables that may affect the outcome of our study. First, we controlled for manager’s age in years because manager’s age may be connected to the goals they are assigned (Zacher & Frese, 2011). For example, older managers may be seen as more experienced in mastering performance goals and as having less motivation or need than younger managers to engage in learning tasks (Lyons & Kuron, 2014), which may influence the assignment of agentic learning and performance goals. Furthermore, the historic development of the labor market and traditional gender roles may result in older managers being predominantly men.

Second, controlling for the individual performance assessment of the managers provides evidence that stereotypes and role expectations have unique effects on goal setting, above and beyond performance evaluations. Managers' overall performance was assessed on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (unacceptable) to 7 (outstanding), with higher scores representing higher performance assessments.

Third, we controlled for the language in which the goals were written, as we cannot rule out that differences in the use of agentic terms are to some extent due to linguistic differences between German and English (Abele & Wojciszke, 2014). Language was coded 1 if the supervisor used English and 0 if the supervisor assigned goals in German.

Finally, we controlled for business unit, as managers worked in different areas of the organization. Business units are usually characterized by discrete tasks, processes, and demands (Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan, 2003), which may lead to differences in managers' goal content due to unit-related requirements. Moreover, women and men may be differently distributed among the business units of the branch (Barbulescu & Bidwell, 2013). The managers in this study worked in eight different business units (e.g., treaty, finance, life international).

3.2.6 Analysis Overview

Our data contained a nested structure in which each supervisor assigned goals for one to ten managers, with an average of 3.03 performance goals and 2.91 learning goals, creating the potential for nonindependence in our data, which can lead to biased standard errors (Bliese, 2000). Due to this nested and nonindependent nature of the data, we tested our relationships using Random Coefficient Modeling (RCM; also referred to as hierarchical linear modeling), which creates more accurate standard errors for both within-supervisor (i.e., manager-level) and between-supervisor (i.e., supervisor-level) effects (Bliese & Ployhart 2002). In particular, manager-level goal contents were analyzed using a two-level model in which agentic goal contents, manager sex, and control variables were measured at level 1 , and the supervisor variable was included at level 2 to reflect between-supervisor differences (Raudenbush, Bryk, & Congdon, 2004). All analyses were conducted separately for performance goals and learning goals using the lme4 package in R (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015), applying the same analytical strategy. In addition, although effect size estimates are tenuous in multilevel models, we report conditional and marginal pseudo-R2, following the recommendations of Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2013).

3.3 Results

The descriptive statistics and correlations of our variables are shown in Table 3.1. Most notably, manager sex correlated negatively with agentic content in performance goals ($r = -.22$, $p = .010$) and positively with agentic content in learning goals ($r = .28$, $p = .004$). Management position was positively correlated with agentic content in performance goals ($r = .31$, $p = .002$) and negatively correlated with agentic content in learning goals ($r = -.25$, $p = .012$). These preliminary findings provided an initial indication for our hypotheses.

The results of the RCM tests, including unstandardized coefficients and standard errors, are presented in Table 3.2. As shown in Model 2, manager sex was negatively related to agentic content in performance goals ($b = -.016$, $p = .034$). More specifically, performance goals assigned to women included less agentic content than performance goals assigned to men. Thus, our results supported Hypothesis 1. According to Hypothesis 2, we expected that learning goals for women included more agentic terms than learning goals for men. In support of this hypothesis, Model 5 shows that manager sex was positively related to agentic content in learning goals ($b = .038$, $p = .036$), indicating that learning goals assigned to women include more agentic content than learning goals that are assigned to men.

In the next step, we examined the interaction effects of manager sex and management position on agentic goal content. Hypothesis 3 stated that the difference in agentic content of assigned performance goals for women and men increase the higher the management position.

Table 3.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations with Confidence Intervals

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Manager age	48.65	8.69						
2. Performance assessment	4.94	0.83	.04 [-.15, .23]					
3. Language	0.36	0.48	-.13 [-.31, .06]	-.09 [-.28, .10]				
4. Manager sex	0.37	0.49	-.34*** [-.50, -.17]	-.06 [-.25, .13]	-.01 [-.20, .18]			
5. Management position	1.89	0.65	.13 [-.06, .31]	.30** [.12, .47]	-.29** [-.46, -.11]	-.31** [-.48, -.13]		
6. Agentic content in performance goals	0.048	0.035	.04 [-.15, .23]	.09 [-.11, .28]	-.36*** [-.52, -.18]	-.22* [-.40, -.03]	.31** [.12, .47]	
7. Agentic content in learning goals	0.121	0.079	-.16 [-.34, .04]	-.27** [-.44, -.08]	.06 [-.14, .26]	.28** [.09, .46]	-.25* [-.43, -.06]	.02 [-.18, .22]

Note. *N* = 99-107. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. Language was coded as 0 = English, 1 = German. Sex was coded as 0 = men, 1 = women.
$^{\dagger}p < 0.1$. $^{*}p < 0.05$. $^{**}p < 0.01$. $^{***}p < 0.001$

Table 3.2

Random Coefficient Modeling Analyses of Agentic Content in Assigned Goals

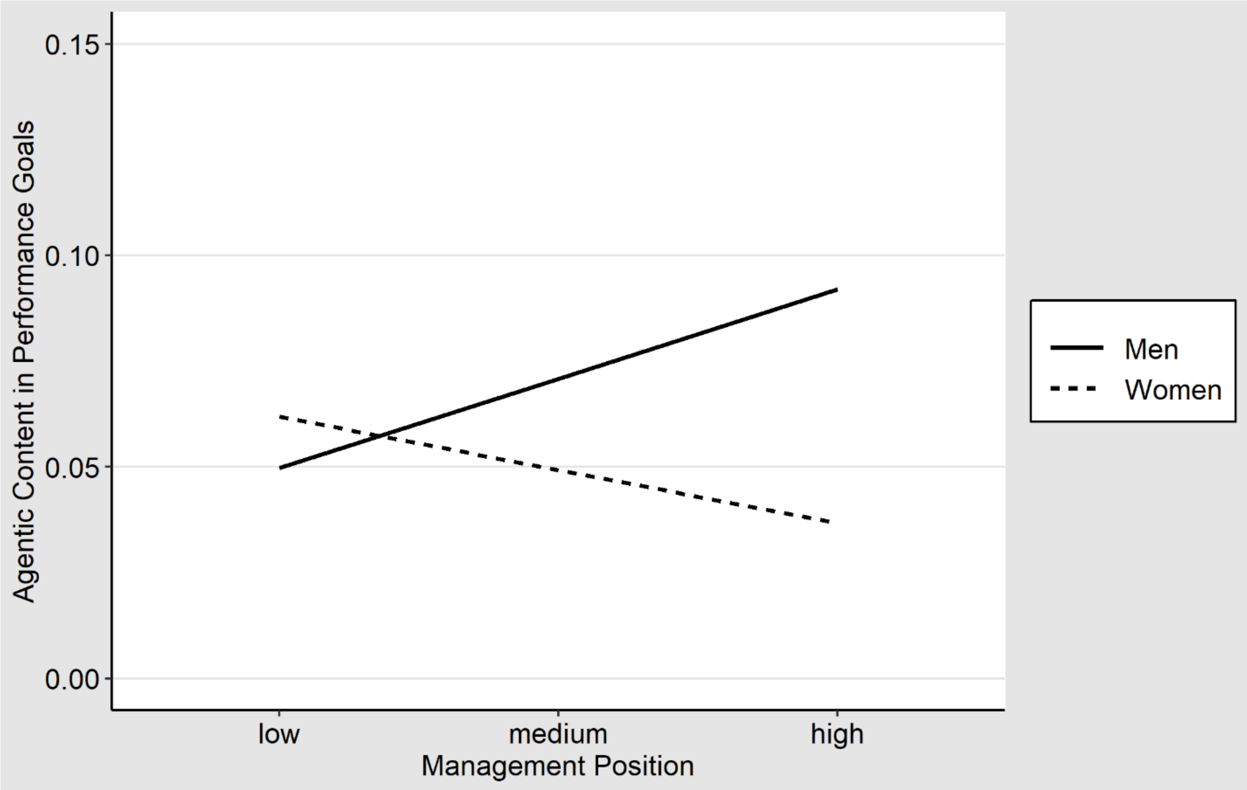
	Agentic Content in					
	Performance Goals			Learning Goals		
	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**	**Model 4**	**Model 5**	**Model 6**
Controls						
Manager age	0.000	-0.000	-0.000	-0.002*	-0.001	-0.001
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Performance assessment	-0.001	-0.001	-0.003	-0.021*	-0.021*	-0.021*
	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.010)
Language	-0.019*	-0.021**	-0.015†	-0.003	0.001	-0.001
	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.008)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.020)
Business Unit: 2	0.008	-0.007	-0.031	0.093	0.101	0.125
	(0.032)	(0.032)	(0.033)	(0.081)	(0.080)	(0.088)
Business Unit: 3	0.058	0.042	0.021	0.079	0.089	0.113
	(0.040)	(0.040)	(0.040)	(0.101)	(0.099)	(0.105)
Business Unit: 4	0.090**	0.073*	0.049	0.058	0.070	0.094
	(0.032)	(0.033)	(0.034)	(0.082)	(0.082)	(0.089)
Business Unit: 5	0.011	-0.003	-0.028	0.042	0.048	0.071
	(0.039)	(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.098)	(0.097)	(0.104)
Business Unit: 6	0.028	0.026	0.043	0.140	0.115	0.160
	(0.039)	(0.038)	(0.040)	(0.098)	(0.098)	(0.109)
Business Unit: 7	-0.006	-0.015	-0.021	0.069	0.063	0.080
	(0.023)	(0.023)	(0.022)	(0.060)	(0.060)	(0.063)
Business Unit: 8	-0.004	-0.012	-0.016	0.100	0.090	0.095
	(0.023)	(0.023)	(0.022)	(0.061)	(0.061)	(0.061)
Independent variables						
Manager sex		-0.016*	0.079*		0.038*	0.068
		(0.007)	(0.033)		(0.018)	(0.082)
Management position			0.021*			-0.011
			(0.009)			(0.022)
Interaction						
Manager sex × Management position			-0.034**			-0.013
			(0.012)			(0.030)
Intercept	0.055†	0.090*	0.035	0.246**	0.197*	0.214*
	(0.033)	(0.036)	(0.041)	(0.080)	(0.083)	(0.092)
Pseudo R^2_m [a]	0.260	0.294	0.354	0.134	0.172	0.181
Pseudo R^2_c [b]	0.331	0.351	0.438	0.193	0.244	0.241

Notes. $N_{\text{manager-level}}$ = 103 (Model 1-3) / 99 (Model 4-6); $N_{\text{supervisor-level}}$ = 34; Unstandardized estimates provided, standard errors are in parentheses. Business Units as dummy variables (Business Unit: 1 = base group). [a] R^2 calculations based on recommendations by Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2013); R^2_C (conditional R^2) refers to variance explained by both fixed and random factors, and R^2_m (marginal R^2) refers to variance explained by fixed factors (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013).
$^{\dagger}p < 0.1$. $^{*}p < 0.05$. $^{**}p < 0.01$. $^{***}p < 0.001$

The coefficient of the interaction term between manager sex and management position in Model 3 is negative and significant (b = -.034, p = .004). We illustrated the interaction in Figure 3.1 by estimating predicted agentic content in performance goals for management position and manager sex. We additionally conducted simple slopes analysis to test the difference between agentic goal content for women and men at low (1), middle (2) and high (3) management levels (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006). Simple slope test revealed that the difference between women and men in low management positions was not significant (b = .012, SE = .011, p = .293), whereas the difference was significant in middle (b = -.022, SE = .008, p = .008) and high management positions (b = -.055, SE = .016, p = .001), with performance goals for men including more agentic content than those for women. These findings support Hypothesis 3.

Figure 3.1

Two-way Interaction between Manager Sex and Management Position on Agentic Content in Assigned Performance Goals



Accordingly, we tested the interaction effect on learning goals. We expected that the difference in agentic content in learning goals for women and for men would increase with higher management positions. Model 5 shows that the interaction term between manager sex and management position is not significant ($b = -0.013$, $p = .673$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 is not supported.

3.4 Discussion

By integrating the literature on gender stereotypes and goalsetting (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Locke & Latham, 2002), we examined whether gender stereotypes and role expectations about the agentic skills and knowledge of managers influence goal setting in organizations. Based on actual goals assigned to managers, we found that supervisors used fewer agentic terms when assigning performance goals to women than when assigning performance goals to men. In contrast to performance goals, learning goals included more agentic content when supervisors assigned them to women than when supervisors assigned learning goals to men. Our results further showed that the management position of the manager can influence the relationship between manager sex and agentic content in performance goals. More specifically, the management position amplified the stereotypical assignment of agentic goals, with men receiving more agentic goals than women at middle and high management levels. However, management position did not affect the use of agentic terms when supervisors assigned learning goals to women and men.

3.4.1 Theoretical Implications

By integrating the literature on stereotypes and goal setting, our investigation of the agentic content of assigned goals contributes to previous research in three ways. First, providing evidence that gender stereotypes and role expectations about agentic abilities influence goal setting for women and men extends the literature on biases in organizational practices that has so far focused on performance evaluations and biased language in letters of recommendation (Biernat et al., 2012; Heilman & Haynes, 2005; Ross, Boatright, Nunez-Smith, Jordan, Chekroud, & Moore, 2017). We show that unconscious stereotypes are also reflected in goals that are assigned to employees by confirming that the agentic content in managers' goals is different for women and men. Specifically, our results indicate that individuals rely on stereotypical assumptions about the skills and knowledge of others and that when determining if others can successfully perform an agentic task, women are generally assumed to have fewer agentic abilities than men. Adding goal assignments to the list of possible sources for gender bias in organizations is particularly important, as goal setting is a critical determinant of managerial success and career advancement in organizations (Howard, 2013; Frear et al., 2019). As such, our study opens new avenues for researchers to better explain the still existing disparity in career progression between women and men by investigating the role of biased goal setting in career advancement.

Second, adding to the literature about the influence of stereotypes in goal setting (Bargh & Williams, 2006; Sinclair, Nilsson, & Cederskär, 2019), we showed that stereotypes about agentic skills and knowledge are differently reflected in performance and learning goals. Our findings indicate that expectations about the existing abilities associated with the assignment of performance goals are directly influenced by gender stereotypes regarding agentic skills and knowledge, which leads to the assignment of fewer agentic performance goals to women than to men. In contrast, expectations about desired abilities associated with learning goals are influenced by the perceived (in)congruity between the agentic abilities ascribed to men and women and the agentic abilities considered important for managers, which leads to the assignment of more agentic learning goals to women. Thus, our results emphasize that research has to differentiate between different goal types when examining the influence of unconscious stereotypes on goal setting.

Finally, our results on the amplifying effect of management positions on the stereotypical assignment of agentic performance and learning goals to women and men enhance the understanding of the association between higher management levels and agentic qualities

(Koenig et al., 2011). Specifically, men were assigned more agentic performance goals than women when supervisors assigned goals to managers at middle and high management positions but not when goals were assigned to managers at low management positions. This result provides support for the think manager – think male paradigm suggesting that men—but not women—are perceived as developing greater agentic abilities when moving up the hierarchy (Schein et al., 1996). Yet, the increasing incongruity between the female and management roles at higher management levels was not reflected in assigned learning goals (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Given that this effect was not found for learning goals, employees are generally expected to improve their agentic skills and knowledge, even at higher management levels. While our findings provide an initial indication that organizations emphasize the agency bias against women in higher management positions through the practice of goal setting, our results vary across different goal types, and we encourage future research to carefully evaluate these indirect effects.

3.4.2 Managerial Implications

Our findings also suggest important implications for the practice of goal setting in organizations. Although most organizations are aware of the motivational effects of setting goals for employees (Locke & Latham, 2002), they are likely unaware of the influential effects that stereotypes and role expectations can have on the goal-setting process. Specifically, organizational goal setting can emphasize stereotypical task assignments because assigning goals implies that individuals may rely on stereotypical beliefs about the skills and knowledge of others. Consequently, employees are assigned goals not according to their actual abilities and preferences but according to the group to which they belong. Given the importance of goal setting for career advancement (Howard, 2013), it is important for organizations and employees alike to understand that goal setting in organizations may be at least partially based on stereotypical expectations about women and men and to take action against these biases in their performance evaluation and goal setting processes.

Our results specifically emphasize that women are assigned fewer agentic performance goals than men. This may prevent women from working on highly regarded tasks, such as those involving business development, the implementation of new technologies, or strategic decisions (Bateman et al., 2002). Women may also be disadvantaged because their performance goals are likely to include fewer leadership tasks, resulting in fewer leadership opportunities. Men may be assigned performance goals for which they are likely to lack the necessary skills and knowledge. These findings are crucial because they indicate not only that women may be disadvantaged but also that stereotypical assumptions about agentic abilities have the potential to undermine the beneficial effects of assigning specific, difficult performance goals (Locke & Latham, 2002; Welsh, Baer, Sessions, & Garud, 2020).

The assignment of more agentic learning goals to women than men can likewise undermine the positive effects of goal setting. Specifically, while women may be guided to focus on the development of skills and knowledge they already possess, men may not be provided with the opportunity to improve their agentic abilities. Given that learning goals are set to acquire desired skills and knowledge, stereotypical expectations can guide employees in focusing on stereotypical rather than necessary abilities.

Our research further suggests that the influence of stereotypical expectations about agentic abilities on goal setting becomes more apparent at higher organizational levels. As such, we identified the assignment of goals as an organizational practice involving potential bias towards women in higher management positions (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011). To offset the assignment of biased goals, organizations should carefully monitor goal content and provide supervisors who assign goals with adequate resources and assistance throughout the goal-setting process. Additionally, supervisors can elaborate on discussing goals with their respective employees. By encouraging supervisors and managers to participatively set goals, organizations may motivate supervisors to consciously assess employees' current and desired skills and knowledge. Finally, organizations can encourage employees to critically analyze and question the goals they receive to address possible inconsistencies and to avoid the assignment of stereotypical goals.

3.4.3 Limitations and Future Research

Although we can base our examination on actual goals gathered from organizational records, there are limitations that need to be discussed. Examining gender differences in the agentic content of goals, differences between men and women may result from actual differences in agentic abilities between women and men rather than from the use of stereotypes. However, as the agentic content of goals assigned to women and men were different above and beyond performance evaluations, such patterns are unlikely to be explained by objective skills and knowledge (Biernat el al., 2012). Furthermore, it is unlikely that supervisors are aware of their gender stereotypes about agentic abilities, as the words that people use reflect unconscious rather than conscious processes (Pennebaker, Mehl, & Niederhoffer, 2003; Pietraszkiewicz et al., 2019). As such, the language used in describing goals represents honest signals about the writer's beliefs, impressions, and assumptions (Akstinaite, Robinson, & Sadler-Smith, 2019)

In addition, the total number of words in learning goals was relatively low. While text with more words is generally perceived to produce more robust results when applying computer-aided text analysis, the use of LIWC (i.e., calculating the percentage of total words) is a reliable method when examining the content of text with a limited number of words (Tumasjan, Sprenger, Sandner, & Welpe, 2010). Nevertheless, future research can aim to use text with more content or can aggregate different goals at the individual level to facilitate text analysis of assigned goals.

Another helpful extension of our analyses can be an examination of additional outcome variables. Focusing on goal content, one may question whether the differences found in this study have organizational consequences, such as in promotion decisions, rewards, or subsequent performance ratings. This is especially important, as unconscious stereotypes in written narratives have already been linked to career outcome variables, such as hireability ratings (Madera et al., 2009) or performance judgments (Biernat et al., 2012).

Finally, we based our investigation on goals that were assigned to a relatively small sample of managers of one insurance company at one point in time. Yet, despite the small sample size and although we controlled for several alternative effects, we found significant gender differences in the agentic content of goals. Future research may analyze goal content from different organizations, industries, and countries to validate the generalizability of our findings. These examinations may be particularly fruitful, as previous research has shown that gender stereotypes are more pronounced in male-dominated areas (Joshi et al., 2015) and vary across cultural backgrounds (Shan, Keller, & Joseph, 2019). Furthermore, future research may also integrate racial perspectives (Rosette, Koval, Ma, & Livingston, 2016) into the examination of gender differences in goal setting.

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4 Essay III: Power and Emotion Display Rules for Anger and Pride in Organizations[10]

ABSTRACT

This paper solves so far inconclusive results on the relationship between power and emotion display rules in organizations by providing a theoretical rationale for the influence of power level and perceptions of power differences on display rules for anger and pride. Results from three field studies, in which we examined emotion display rules from an internal (Study 1) and experimentally from an external perspective (Study 2 and 3), mostly support our hypotheses. When power difference perceptions are high, expressions of anger and pride are seen as more appropriate the higher the power level, whereas when power difference perceptions are low, expressions of anger and pride are seen as less appropriate the higher the power level. Results further indicate that when judging from an internal perspective, organizations' power difference in terms of hierarchy of authority is decisive, while from an external perspective, individual power distance orientation was the crucial determinant.

Keywords: emotion display rules, hierarchy, power, anger, pride

[10] This chapter is based on Brosi and Schuth (2018). Therefore, the plural instead of the singular is used throughout this chapter. References, previous versions, and author contributions are summarized in Appendix B.

Emotion display rules refer to implicit or explicit rules about which emotions are appropriate to be displayed (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). As employees modify their emotion expressions to comply with emotion display rules, emotion display rules have been shown to lower employees' job satisfaction (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003), well-being (Diefendorff, Erickson, Grandey, & Dahling, 2011), and performance (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Furthermore, emotion display rules pose a deciding difference on how observers react to others' emotion expressions (van Kleef, 2009, 2014). While observer reactions are mostly functional when emotion expressions are seen as appropriate, observers tend to react with dysfunctional behaviors towards the emotion expresser when emotion expressions are not seen as appropriate (e.g., Geddes & Callister, 2007; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007).

While originally only employees in low power positions, such as service roles, were assumed to face emotion display rules (Rafaeli, 1989a, 1989b), research indicates that individuals in managerial roles, which are mostly marked by high power, also need to adhere to emotion display rules (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). Given that managerial roles require interpersonal interactions (Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007), which, in turn, are important antecedents of emotion display rules (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000), emotion display rules seem highly warranted. Further providing support for the view that those in power also face emotion display rules, leaders have been generally shown to regulate their emotion expressions (Fisk & Friesen, 2012; Wang & Seibert, 2015). Research within the field of social psychology, however, asserts that power relieves individuals from emotion display rules (Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003). In this vein, those in power have been shown to be more expressive (Schmid Mast, 2010) and open in their emotion display (Berdahl & Martorana, 2006; Langner, Epel, Matthews, Moskowitz, & Adler, 2012; Langner & Keltner, 2008). Thus, research on the relationship between power and emotion display rules is inconclusive.

Aiming to clarify the relationship between power and emotion display rules, we provide a novel theoretical perspective in suggesting that research needs to take into account two key issues for understanding the relationship between power and emotion display rules. First, emotion display rules depend on discrete emotions (Diefendorff & Greguras, 2009; Glomb & Tews, 2004). Focusing on the effect of power on emotion display rules, anger and pride are particularly central because these discrete emotions are inherently connected to power (Magee & Smith, 2013; Overbeck, Neale, & Govan, 2010; Tiedens, Ellsworth, & Mesquita, 2000) and may therefore be uniquely covered by emotion display rules. Second, whether the expression of anger and pride is appropriate for those in power may crucially depend on perceptions of power differences. Specifically, how rigid or steep power differences are perceived may crucially change if the expression of power-related emotions is seen as appropriate. Backing this assumption, research demonstrates that power dynamics change dramatically when power is seen as illegitimate (Lammers, Galinsky, Gordijn, & Otten, 2008; Sligte, de Dreu, & Nijstad, 2011).

Integrating these issues, we derive and test a theoretical model based on functional theories of emotions (Fischer & Manstead, 2008; Magee & Smith, 2013) that lays out how employees' power levels shape emotion display rules for discrete emotions focusing on anger and pride. Thereby, we will make the following theoretical contributions. First, we follow the call for theoretical work on discrete emotions (e.g., Gooty, Gavin, & Ashkanasy, 2009) by presenting functional theories as theoretical foundation for examining emotion display rules for discrete emotions in organizations. We specifically aim to demonstrate that display rules for emotions of different valence, i.e., anger and pride, can be more similar than those for discrete emotions of the same valence, i.e., sadness and joy. Second, we add power to the list of antecedents of emotion display rules within organizations, which is so far predominantly concentrated on requirements for interpersonal interactions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Adding power to the list of antecedents is particularly noteworthy, as it challenges the traditional assumption that emotion display rules only adhere to the context of low-power roles (Hochschild, 1983). Third, we posit power differences as a pivotal condition on the effect of power level on emotion display rules, as we assume relations to reverse depending on perceptions of power differences. Thereby, we solve the currently inconclusive results in research on the relation between power and emotion display rules.

With regard to practical implications, the disclosure of implicit emotion display rules and their antecedents may help employees and decision-makers in organizations alike. For employees, it reduces insecurity about emotion display rules and the likely consequences of emotion expressions (Hadley, 2014). For decision-makers, this transparency helps in estimating the consequences of hierarchies in organizations. As the active management of emotion expressions can impair well-being, job satisfaction, and even performance (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011), the results provide an important indication of undetected consequences of hierarchical structures in organizations.

We tested our theoretical model in three field studies examining emotion display rules both from an inside perspective, i.e., asking participants about emotion display rules they experience for themselves (Study 1), and from an outside perspective by applying experimental designs, i.e., asking participants about emotion display rules for different power levels in organizations (Study 2 & 3). Furthermore, we examine power differences as the boundary condition operationalized as the centralization of power within organizations (Hage & Aiken, 1967; Studies 1 – 3) and individual acceptance of power differences (Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Study 3). Thereby, we also tested whether our rationale uniquely applied to the power-related discrete emotions of anger and pride, while discrete emotions that are solely characterized by valence, i.e., sadness and joy (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), showed a different pattern.

4.1 Hypothesis Development

4.1.1 Functional Theories of Emotions

According to the basic premise of functional theories of emotions, discrete emotions have evolved to secure the physical and social survival of human beings (Ekman, 1992; Johnson-Laird & Oatley, 1992; Keltner & Gross, 1999; Oatley & Jenkins, 1992; Tooby & Cosmides, 1990). In fulfilling this function, discrete emotions facilitate coping with specific circumstances. Thus, specific antecedents elicit discrete emotions (Frijda, 1986). In preparing individuals to cope with these circumstances, discrete emotions are linked to distinctive physiology and specific action tendencies (Lazarus, 1991). In this way, emotions facilitate functional responses for coping with the emotion-eliciting circumstances. In preparing not only individuals for coping with these circumstances but also others, such as group members and bystanders, emotions are further connected to distinctive universal expressions (Ekman, 1992).

Due to these distinct universal expressions, researchers highlight the social function of emotions in dyads and groups (Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Niedenthal & Brauer, 2012). This social function consists of solving problems in social relationships that occur in ongoing interactions (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). As emotion expressions are fast and easily recognized in others (Tracy & Robins, 2008), they can easily transmit important social information (van Kleef, 2009). This information particularly includes interpersonal information about ones standing relative to that of others. Thus, individuals define and negotiate power with emotion expressions (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). In doing so, emotion expressions are assumed to serve in establishing and maintaining power relations between individuals (Fischer & Manstead, 2008).

4.1.2 The Function of Anger and Pride

In particular, anger and pride are assumed to serve in establishing and maintaining power relations (Fischer & Manstead, 2008; Magee & Smith, 2013). First, looking into the antecedents of anger and pride, anger results from seeing others responsible for a negative outcome, whereas pride is experienced in response to considering oneself responsible for a positive outcome (Weiner, 1985). These attributions correspond to an attribution style particularly ascribed to powerful individuals (Davis & Gardner, 2004). Second, the action tendencies of both anger and pride encompass approach motivation (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009; Williams & Desteno, 2009). Approach motivation, in turn, is also a characteristic of those in power (Guinote, 2017; Keltner et al., 2003). Third, further looking into action tendencies, anger and pride both lead to ego-focused and socially disengaging tendencies (Kitayama, Markus, & Kurokawa, 2000; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Likewise, heightened concern about the self and social disengagement are closely related to power (Magee & Smith, 2013). Fourth, providing direct evidence of the link of power with anger and pride, individuals in high-power positions are expected to be more likely to express anger and pride than individuals in low-power positions (Tiedens et al., 2000). Conversely, when expressing anger and pride, individuals are ascribed more power and status (Shariff & Tracy, 2009; Tiedens, 2001).

Further indications for a power-related function are provided when examining the expressions that are connected with anger and pride. Anger expressions are characterized by forward movements of the whole body, raised voices, stern gaze, and verbal attacks (Dael, Mortillaro, & Scherer, 2012; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Lewis, 2000). These expressions communicate the expresser’s aim to influence and change the anger eliciting person (Kuppens, Van Mechelen, & Meulders, 2004). Thus, expressing anger confronts others with one’s wish to exert influence over them and the expectation that the other reacts by giving in and showing submissive behavior (Fischer & Roseman, 2007). Pride expressions are characterized by an expanded chest, bold body movements, head tilted back, and a small smile (Tracy & Robins, 2007). Those who express pride are making themselves taller and stand out of the crowd in highlighting their recent achievement (Tracy & Matsumoto, 2008). They actively communicate their superior position in comparison to that of others (Tracy, Weidman, Cheng, & Martens, 2012) by requesting deference from others (Martens, Tracy, & Shariff, 2012). Therefore, expressions of anger and pride are assumed to actively establish power relations between individuals (Fischer & Manstead, 2008; Glomb & Hulin, 1997; Overbeck et al., 2010).

4.1.3 Power Levels and Emotion Display Rules for Anger and Pride

Due to the assumed function of anger and pride in establishing and maintaining power relations, one may assume that it is generally more appropriate for high-power individuals to show anger and pride towards others than it is for individuals with low power. Yet, we expect that this relation crucially changes with perceptions about power differences in terms of the level to which the differences between high-power and low-power levels are accepted. An organization's hierarchy of authority captures the extent to which the power to make work decisions is centralized in upper levels of power (Hage & Aiken, 1967). When hierarchy of authority is high, employees are assumed to ask leaders for approval on even small decisions; thus, differences are pronounced. When hierarchy of authority is low, employees can act autonomously, narrowing the differences between levels.

Thus, organizations with high hierarchy of authority are marked by clear power differences in which those in positions with high power enjoy an institutionalized privilege to act, whereas obedience is expected from those at lower power levels (Astley & Sachdeva, 1984). In contrast, in organizations with low hierarchy of authority, lower power levels within the organization have more latitude (Jansen, Simsek, & Cao, 2012). In these organizations, structures offer autonomy and empower employees at lower levels (Hempel, Zhang, & Han, 2012), making them the main source of performance (Lin & Germain, 2003). Roles also change for those at high power levels the lower the hierarchy of authority, as their role turns from one of making decisions towards one of an inspiring and supporting role model (Walter & Bruch, 2010). Thus, those at high power levels not only need to delegate responsibilities to employees but also need to strengthen employees' self-confidence in taking over responsibility, support employees in building the necessary capabilities, and coach them in successfully fulfilling these capabilities (Martin, Liao, & Campbell, 2013). Thus, hierarchy of authority changes the roles for those on both high-power and low-power levels.

Putting the pieces together, in organizations with a low hierarchy of authority, the roles of those on high-power and low-power levels are characterized as ones in which those on lower-power levels act autonomously and those on higher-power levels act in a supportive role. These roles are in stark contrast with the function of anger and pride in establishing and maintaining power relations. While this function of anger and pride is fully in line with the roles in organizations with high hierarchy of authority, expressing anger and pride in organizations with low hierarchy of authority may be particularly detrimental, as it pushes relationships between those on low-power and high-power levels back to the dynamics of high hierarchy of authority (Gruenfeld & Tiedens, 2010). We therefore assume:

Hypothesis 1. There will be a two-way interaction of hierarchy of authority and power level on emotion display rules for anger and pride in the way that in organizations with high hierarchy of authority it is the more appropriate to express anger and pride, the higher the power level and in organizations with low hierarchy of authority it is the less appropriate to express anger and pride, the higher the power level.

We uniquely formulated our hypothesis for anger and pride because these discrete emotions are inherently connected to power (Magee & Smith, 2013). In demonstrating this unique connection, we also test our hypothesis for sadness and joy. We chose sadness as a comparison for anger and joy as a comparison for pride because these emotions are the broadest discrete negative and positive emotions. They are elicited by either negative or positive outcomes without necessitating further appraisals or attributions, such as seeing oneself or others responsible for an outcome (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

4.2 Study 1

In Study 1, we tested our hypothesis from an inside perspective, asking 169 participants (56% female, mean age: 33.20; two participants did not indicate their sex, one did not indicate the age) from a broad range of different organizations about emotion display rules for themselves. Most participants worked in the service sector, i.e., transport, logistics, tourism, real estate (63%), the information sector, i.e., consulting, high tech, law, science (12%), or the industrial sector, i.e., manufacturing, trade, construction (9%). To reduce potential common method bias, we collected data on the predictor and criteria at two different points of time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Participants first filled in a survey including questions on the hierarchy of authority in the organization and their power level within the organization; 10 days later, they were invited to indicate emotion display rules.

4.2.1 Measures

Power level. We measured power levels by asking participants to self-assess their level of power in the organization on an 11-point scale from 0% (bottom) to 100% (top) (Blickle, Schneider, Liu, & Ferris, 2011).

Hierarchy of authority. In line with other researchers (Schminke, Cropanzano, & Rupp, 2002; Walter & Bruch, 2010), hierarchy of authority was measured with 5 items taken from Hage and Aiken (1967). Using a 7-point Likert scale, participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with statements on the distribution of decision authority in organizations (e.g., “There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision”, α = .88).

Emotion display rules for anger and pride. Focusing on the appropriateness of discrete emotion expressions, we followed the approach by Glomb and Tews (2004) in presenting participants a list of discrete emotions. For this list, we asked them to indicate how appropriate it is to display the respective emotions in their workplace with three items each on 7-point scales ranging from 0 (not appropriate at all) to 6 (very appropriate). Anger was measured using the terms angry, frustrated, and irritated (α = .76), taken from Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway (2000). Pride was measured using the terms proud, satisfied, and confident (α = .65), taken from Williams and Desteno (2009).

Control variables. We included age and gender of the participants as control variables because emotion display rules have been argued to deviate depending on gender (Simpson & Stroh, 2004) and age (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000).

Control emotion display rules. Emotion display rules for sadness and joy were measured on the same 7-point scales as that for anger and pride. Sadness was measured with sad, depressed, and gloomy ($\alpha = .84$), and joy was measured with joy, happy, and glad ($\alpha = .82$). All items were taken from Watson and Clark (1999).

4.2.2 Results

Preliminary analyses. We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to verify that emotion display rules for anger, pride, sadness, and joy indeed represented four different factors. Our hypothesized four-factor model satisfactorily fit the data: χ^2 [46] = 61.590, $p = .062$; χ^2/df = 1.339; RMSEA = .045; CFI = .982. Moreover, our hypothesized four-factor model fit the data better than any alternative three-factor, two-factor, or one-factor model.

Hypothesis testing. We tested our hypothesis using regression analyses. All predictors and control variables were standardized prior to the regression analysis. Interaction effects were tested by including product terms. When these were significant, we tested and plotted simple slopes for high (+1 *SD* above the mean) and low (-1 *SD* below the mean) levels of hierarchy of authority, and additionally tested regions of significance (95%) following the Johnson-Nyman (JN) technique (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006). Table 4.1 shows descriptive statistics and correlations. Table 4.2 shows the regression results.

According to Hypothesis 1, we expected a two-way interaction between power levels and hierarchy of authority on emotion display rules for anger and pride. We assumed that when hierarchy of authority is high, it is the more appropriate to express anger and pride, the higher the power level and when hierarchy of authority is low, it is the less appropriate to express anger and pride, the higher the power level. For anger, results showed the expected two-way interaction (Study 1: B = 0.203, $p = .031$). Figure 4.1 depicts this interaction for high ($t = 0.696$,

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 1)

	M	***SD***	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
1. Age	33.20	9.85								
2. Sex	1.44	-	.00							
3. Power level	4.57	2.65	.39**	-.07						
4. Hierarchy of authority	3.17	1.51	-.18*	.04	-.36**	(.88)				
5. Display rule for joy	5.66	1.01	.03	-.13†	.12	-.23**	(.82)			
6. Display rule for sadness	2.72	1.22	-.06	-.03	-.05	-.17*	.28**	(.84)		
7. Display rule for anger	2.95	1.19	-.16*	.04	-.09	-.13†	.20*	.66**	(.76)	
8. Display rule for pride	5.40	1.10	.04	-.10	.03	-.19*	.71**	.25**	.26**	(.65)

Note. N = 169. Sex (1 = female) (2 = male).
†p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01.

Table 4.2

Regression Results for Emotion Display Rules (Study 1 & Study 2)

	Appropriateness of emotion display							
	Study 1				Study 2			
	Anger	Pride	Sadness	Joy	Anger	Pride	Sadness	Joy
(Intercept)	3.014**	5.490**	2.785**	5.695**	2.503**	4.803**	2.434**	5.397**
Controls								
Age	-0.135	0.074	-0.038	-0.004	-	-	-	-
Sex	0.053	-0.092	-0.029	-0.119	-	-	-	-
Independent variables								
Power level	-0.098	-0.047	-0.108	0.035	-0.032	-0.027	-0.342**	0.029
Hierarchy of authority	-0.167†	-0.148†	-0.216*	-0.193*	-0.023	-0.112	-0.070	-0.138*
Interaction terms								
Power level × Hierarchy of authority	0.203*	0.232**	0.182†	0.059	0.037	0.140*	0.003	0.058
F	2.955*	3.063*	2.304*	2.388*	0.236	2.487†	7.868**	2.116†
Adjusted R^2	.056	.059	.038	.040	-.010	.018	.078	.014

Note. $N_{Study\ 1}$ = 169, $N_{Study\ 2}$ = 244. Unstandardized regression coefficients are displayed. Sex (1 = female) (2 = male). HA = Hierarchy of Authority
†p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01.

p = .488) and low (t = -2.389, p = .018) hierarchy of authority. Regions of significance showed that the relation between power level and emotion display rules was significantly positive for standardized levels of hierarchy of authority above 7.917 and significantly negative below -0.558. Given the maximum and minimum of the standardized levels of hierarchy of authority at 2.537 and -1.434, respectively, only the lower bound fell within the observed region. Hence, for anger, the interaction included in Hypothesis 1 was supported with anger expressions being the less appropriate the higher the power level in organizations when hierarchy of authority was low.

For pride, results also showed the expected two-way interaction (Study 1: B = 0.232, p = .007). Figure 4.1 shows the interaction effect at values of high (t = 1.348, p = .179) and low (t = -2.442, p = .016) hierarchy of authority. Regions of significance revealed that the relation between power levels and emotion display rules for pride was significantly positive for standardized levels of hierarchy of authority above 1.922, while it was significantly negative below -0.644. Given the maximum (2.537) and the minimum (-1.434) of the standardized level of hierarchy of authority, the upper and lower bounds fell within the observed region. Hence, for pride, Hypothesis 1 was supported with pride expressions being the more appropriate, the higher the power level when hierarchy of authority was high and the less appropriate the higher the power level when hierarchy of authority was low.

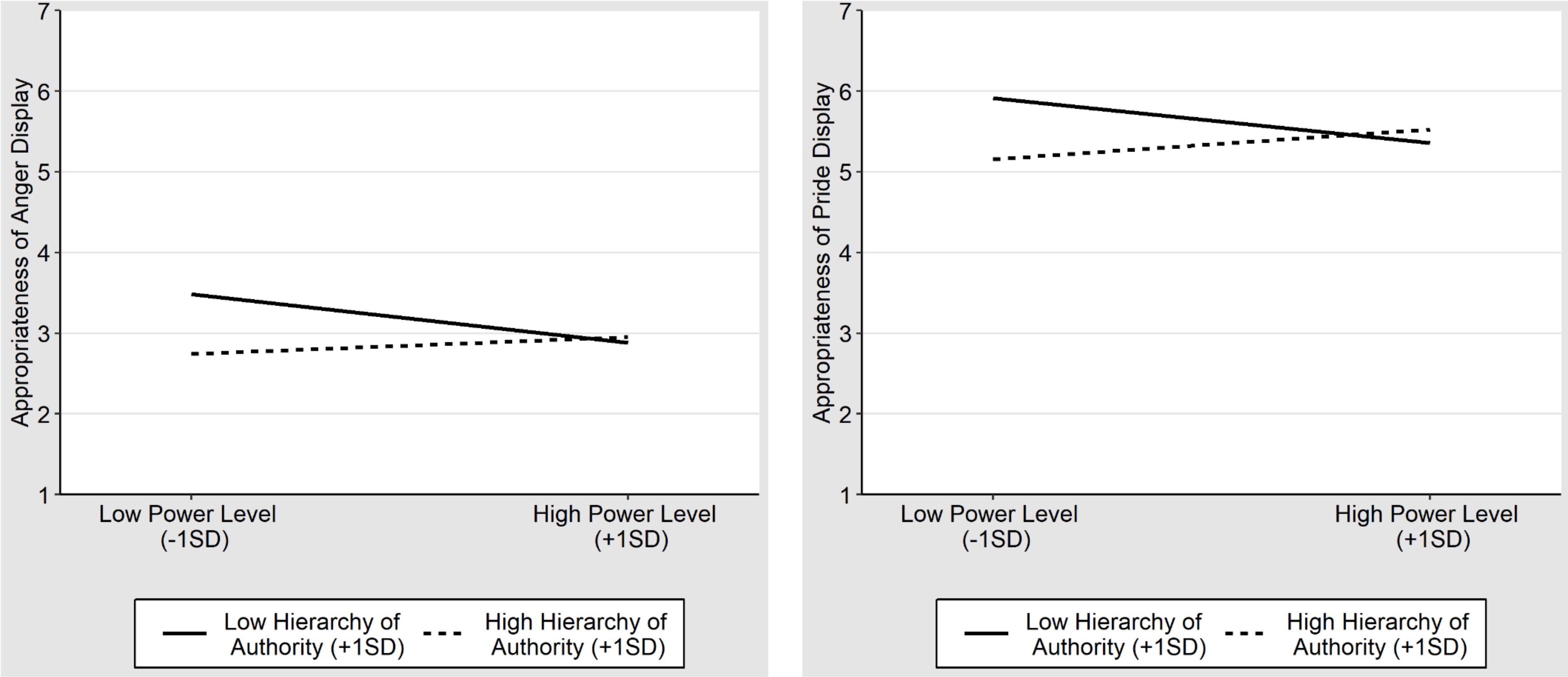
Surprisingly, results also showed a slightly significant two-way interaction for sadness (Study 1: B = 0.182, p = .064). Regions of significance revealed that for sadness, the relation between power level and emotion display rules was significantly negative for standardized levels of hierarchy of authority below -0.653. As expected, we did not find a significant two-way interaction for joy (Study 1: B = 0.059, p = .457).

4.2.3 Discussion of Study 1

As expected, results showed the interaction effect of power level and hierarchy of authority on emotion display rules for anger and pride. In organizations with high hierarchy of

Figure 4.1

Interaction of Hierarchy of Authority and Power Level on Emotion Display Rules for Anger and Pride (Study 1)



authority, participants indicated the expression of pride to be the more appropriate, the higher their power level. In organizations with low hierarchy of authority, participants indicated the expressions of anger and pride to be the less appropriate, the higher their power level. As expected, this pattern was not revealed for display rules for joy and was only slightly significant for display rules for sadness.

We obtained these results by using two different surveys to separate our measurements of power level and hierarchy of authority from the measurement of emotion display rules. Yet, although interaction effects can hardly be explained by common method bias, the causality of the demonstrated relationships may still be questioned. We therefore aimed to substantiate our findings with an experimental setting. Comparing emotion display rules for anger and pride again with those for sadness and joy, we also aimed to test whether the unexpected marginally significant effect for sadness may replicate.

4.3 Study 2

With emotion display rules being identifiable both from an inside perspective, i.e., for the own person, and from an outside perspective, i.e., for other persons, we applied a one-factorial experimental design in which we randomly assigned participants to indicate emotion display rules for a person with low, middle, or high power in the organization. Interacting the resulting power levels with participants’ reports of the hierarchy of authority in their organization, we aimed to reach internal validity, while also capturing real experiences of organizational structure that may hardly be induced experimentally. The sample consisted of 244 employees (46% female, mean age 35.24; nine participants did not indicate their sex, seven did not indicate the age) from a broad range of different organizations. Most participants worked in the service (29%), information (29%), or industrial (27%) sector.

4.3.1 Experimental Conditions

Power levels were manipulated by referring to the organizational chart and the scope and influence of the hierarchical level within an organization (Greer & van Kleef, 2010). In the low-power condition (*N* = 78), the description referred to a position, located in the lower end of an organigram, with no subordinates, a limited scope of tasks, and low influence in the organization, comprising one of many similar positions on the same level. In the middle-power condition (*N* = 83), the description referred to a position, located in the middle of an organigram, with supervisory responsibility over several other employees, supervisory management by another person, and a mediocre influence in the organization, comprising one of several similar positions on the same level. In the high-power condition (*N* = 83), the description referred to a position, located at the high end of an organigram, with supervisory responsibility over many subordinates, a broad scope of tasks, and high influence, comprising one of a few similar positions on the same level.

4.3.2 Measures

Hierarchy of authority. Hierarchy of authority was measured as in Study 1 (α = .90).

Emotion display rules for anger and pride. We used the same scale as in Study 1 but presented participants with a list of five items for each emotion. For anger (α = .81), we used the terms upset, frustrated, irritable, angry, and hostile (Grühn, Kotter-Grühn, & Röcke, 2010; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Pride (α = .78) was measured with confident, accomplished, proud on the own person, successful, and satisfied with the own person (Tracy & Robins, 2007; Williams & Desteno, 2009).

Control emotion display rules. Additionally, using the same scales as in Study 1, we measured sadness (α = .90) with the terms downhearted, sad, discouraged, distressed, and blue. Joy (α = .83) was measured by using the terms enthusiastic, cheerful, delighted, happy, and joyful. All items were taken from Watson and Clark (1999).

Manipulation check. We included a qualitative and a quantitative manipulation check in Study 2. As qualitative manipulation check, participants were asked to indicate a job title in line with the described power level. In the low-power condition, participants indicated job titles such as clerk, intern/trainee, and assistant worker. In the middle-power condition, participants indicated jobs referring to middle management positions, such as team lead, department head, or group lead. In the high-power condition, indicated jobs mainly referred to top management positions on the c-level and high management positions. Due to the qualitative manipulation check, we had to exclude 12 participants, as they provided job titles that did not fit with the described position. As quantitative manipulation check, we included the same measure for power level as that in Study 1. A one-way ANOVA, F (2,241) = 354.204, $p < .001$, revealed that participants ascribed significantly lower power in the low-power condition (M = 2.91, SD = 1.77) than in the middle-power condition (M = 6.86, SD = 1.44) or the high-power condition (M = 9.81, SD = 1.71) and ascribed significantly lower power in the middle-power condition than in the high-power condition. Significance (ps < .001) was confirmed with post hoc tests using Bonferroni corrections.

4.3.3 Results

Preliminary analyses. As in Study 1, confirmatory factor analysis confirmed our hypothesized four-factor model for emotion display rules: χ^2 [159] = 400.169, $p < .001$; χ^2/df = 2.517; RMSEA = .079; CFI = .908. Moreover, our hypothesized four-factor model fit the data better than any alternative three-factor, two-factor, or one-factor model.

Hypothesis testing. We tested our hypothesis with regression analyses using the same approaches for probing the interactions as in Study 1. Table 4.3 shows descriptive statistics, regression results are also included in Table 4.2.

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 2)

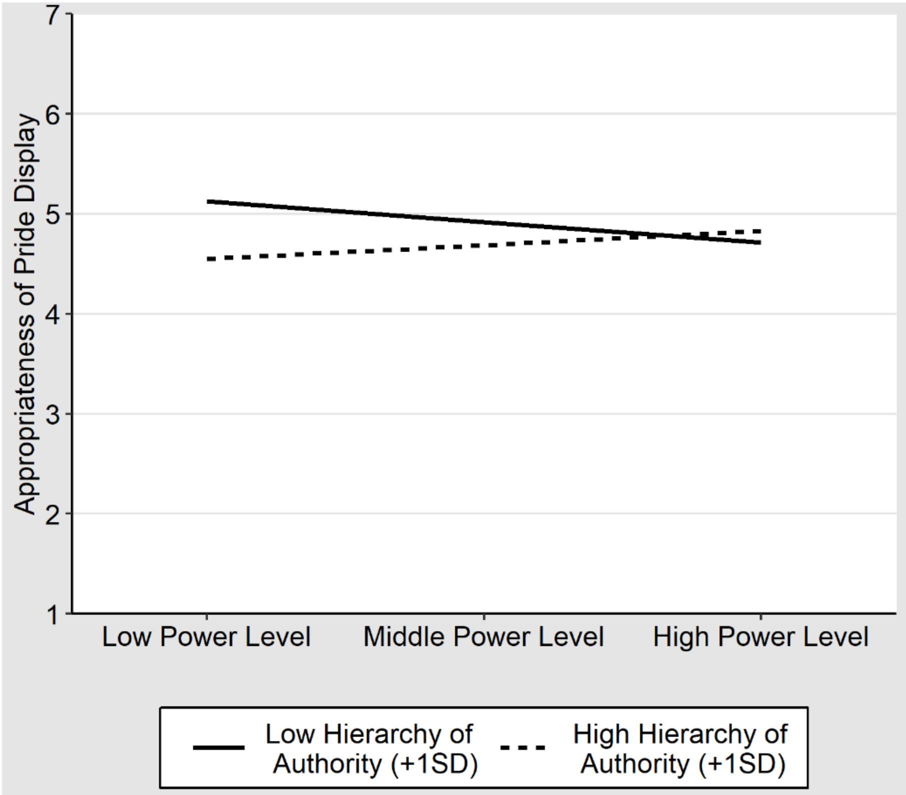
	M	***SD***	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1. Power level	2.02	0.81						
2. Hierarchy of authority	3.26	1.47	-.02	(.90)				
3. Display rule for joy	5.40	0.98	.04	-.15*	(.83)			
4. Display rule for sadness	2.43	1.16	-.29**	-.05	.20**	(.90)		
5. Display rule for anger	2.50	1.00	-.03	-.03	.12†	.68**	(.81)	
6. Display rule for pride	4.80	1.09	-.02	-.11†	.52**	.12†	.21**	(.78)

Note. N = 244. Sex (1 = female) (2 = male).
$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$.

For anger, results did not confirm the expected two-way interaction (Study 2: B = 0.037, p = .560) according to which we assumed that when hierarchy of authority is high, it is the more appropriate to express anger (and pride) the higher the power level and when hierarchy of authority is low, it is the less appropriate to express anger (and pride) the higher the power level.

Figure 4.2

Interaction of Hierarchy of Authority and Power Level on Emotion Display Rules for Pride (Study 2)



For pride, results showed the expected two-way interaction (Study 2: B = 0.140, p = .037). Figure 4.2 depicts the interaction effect for high (t = 1.204, p = .230) and low (t = -1.701, p = .090) hierarchy of authority. As expected, the relation between power level and the emotion display rule for pride was positive for high hierarchy of authority and negative for low hierarchy of authority. Yet, the upper (4.429) and lower (-1.785) bounds of the 95% regions of significance lay outside the observed values of standardized hierarchy of authority (2.547; -1.540). Within the observed levels of hierarchy of authority, the relation between position power and emotion display rules for pride was only significant at the 90% level of significance in being positive above 1.789 and negative below -0.922. Hence, for pride, Hypothesis 1 was slightly supported.

Results did not show a significant two-way interaction for sadness (Study 2: B = 0.003, $p = .968$) and joy (Study 2: B = 0.058, $p = .337$).

4.3.4 Discussion of Study 2

Results of Study 2, in which we examined emotion display rules from an outside perspective, did not support the expected interaction between power level and hierarchy of authority for anger and only slightly for pride. Although the interaction for pride indicated that the expression of pride was more appropriate, the higher the power level when hierarchy of authority was high and the less appropriate, the higher the power level when hierarchy of authority was low, these underlying effects of power level on emotion display rules for pride did not turn out to be significant.

One may conclude that in comparison to the findings of Study 1, these finding show that power levels and hierarchy of authority jointly influence how appropriate employees see their own but not necessarily others' emotion expressions. Indeed, when judging others' emotion expressions, emotion display rules capture the question of whether participants, as the observers of an emotion expression and recipients of the accompanying social information (van Kleef, 2014), consider this communication appropriate. From this perspective, an organization's standards in terms of hierarchy of authority might be less determining than one's own standards for the expression of power-related emotions. These individual standards might be particularly captured by individuals' power distance orientation, which refers to the extent to which an individual accepts unequal distributions of power (Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007). Individuals who are high in power distance orientation accept and believe in power differences, whereas individuals who are low in power distance orientation are more likely to strive against power inequalities. In general, power distance orientation is negatively related to employees' tendencies to display emotions in organizations (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Considering the power-related nature of anger and pride, individuals high in power distance orientation might be more likely to see expressions of anger and pride from those in power positions as appropriate, while those low in power distance orientation might rebel against these expressions, seeing them less appropriate with the higher power levels of the emotion expresser. We therefore assume the same pattern for power distance as that we hypothesized for hierarchy of authority:

Hypothesis 2. There will be a two-way interaction of power distance orientation and power level on emotion display rules for anger and pride in the way that for individuals high in power distance orientation it is the more appropriate to express anger and pride, the higher the power level and for individuals low in power distance orientation it is the less appropriate to express anger and pride, the higher the power level.

4.4 Study 3

We applied the same one-factorial experimental design as in Study 2 by randomly assigning participants to indicate emotion display rules for a person with either low (N = 113), middle (N = 110), or high (N = 118) power in Study 3. The overall sample consisted of 341 participants (50% female, mean age 31.31) from a broad range of different organizations. Most participants worked in the service (35%), industrial (35%), or information sector (16%).

4.4.1 Measures

Hierarchy of authority. Hierarchy of authority (α = .89) was measured as in Study 2.

Power Distance Orientation. Power distance was assessed at the individual level with eight items (Daniels & Greguras, 2014; Earley & Erez, 1997). Participants indicated on a seven-point Likert scale the extent to which they agreed with statements on their personal attitude to power inequality (e.g., "Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.", α = .75).

Emotion display rules for anger and pride. We measured anger ($\alpha = .78$) and pride ($\alpha = .81$) using the same scale and items as in Study 2.

Control emotion display rules. We measured sadness ($\alpha = .87$) and joy ($\alpha = .83$) using the same scale and items as in Study 2.

Manipulation check. We included the same qualitative and quantitative manipulation checks in Study 3 as in Study 2. In the low-power condition, participants indicated job titles such as clerk, intern/trainee, and assistant worker. In the middle-power condition, participants indicated jobs referring to middle management positions such as department head, team leader or group leader. In the high-power condition, the indicated jobs were top management positions on the c-level and high management positions. Due to the qualitative manipulation check, we had to exclude 15 participants, as they provided job titles that did not fit with the described power level. One-way ANOVA, F (2,338) = 280.67, $p < .001$, revealed that participants ascribed significantly lower power to the low-power condition (M = 3.25, SD = 2.07) than to the middle-power condition (M = 6.32, SD = 1.89) or the high-power condition (M = 9.53, SD = 2.08) and ascribed significantly lower power to the middle-power condition than to the high-power condition. Differences were significant (ps < .001) with post hoc tests using Bonferroni corrections.

Model fit. As in the previous studies, our hypothesized four-factor model satisfactorily fit the data: χ^2 [161] = 461.454 $p < .001$; χ^2/df = 2.866; RMSEA = .074; CFI = .904. Moreover, our hypothesized four-factor model fit the data better than any alternative three-factor, two-factor, or one-factor model.

4.4.2 Results

Hypotheses testing. We tested Hypotheses 1 and 2 with regression analyses using the same approaches for probing the interaction as in the previous studies. Descriptive statistics are depicted in Table 4.4, regression results in Table 4.5.

First, we tested Hypothesis 1, expecting a two-way interaction between power levels and hierarchy of authority on emotion display rules for anger and pride. For anger, results did not confirm the expected two-way interaction of power levels and hierarchy of authority (Model 1: B = 0.039, p = .473).

Table 4.4

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 3)

	M	***SD***	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. Power level	2.01	0.82							
2. Hierarchy of authority	3.29	1.42	-.04	(.89)					
3. Power distance orientation	3.31	0.92	.01	.19**	(.75)				
4. Display rule for joy	5.41	1.08	.06	-.09†	-.09†	(.83)			
5. Display rule for sadness	2.48	1.13	-.33**	.02	-.07	.08	(.87)		
6. Display rule for anger	2.53	0.98	-.09†	.04	-.01	.01	.61**	(.78)	
7. Display rule for pride	4.76	1.17	.07	.01	.00	.51**	.09†	.15**	(.81)

Note. N = 341. Sex (1 = female) (2 = male).
$^{\dagger}p < .10$; $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$

For pride, the two-way interaction was slightly significant (Model 1: B = 0.111, p = .086). Simple slopes were significant at levels of +1 *SD* above the mean of hierarchy of authority (t = 2.096, p = .037) but not at levels -1 *SD* below the mean of hierarchy of authority (t = -0.368, p = .713). Given the maximum (2.622) and the minimum (-1.615) of the standardized levels of hierarchy of authority, 95% regions of significance showed that the relation between power level and emotion display rules for pride was significantly positive for levels above 0.636. Hence, for pride, Hypothesis 1 was slightly supported, with pride expressions being the more appropriate the higher the power level in organizations with high hierarchy of authority.

In comparison, results did not show significant two-way interactions for sadness (Model 1: B = -0.031, p = .604) and joy (Model 1: B = 0.056, p = .347).

Table 4.5

Regression Results for Emotion Display Rules (Study 3)

	Appropriateness of emotion display			
	Anger	Pride	Sadness	Joy
Hierarchy of authority				
(Intercept)	2.529**	4.762**	2.478**	5.410**
Power level	-0.089	0.077	-0.369**	0.055
Hierarchy of authority	0.041	0.030	0.009	-0.089
Power level × Hierarchy of authority	0.039	0.111†	-0.031	0.056
F	1.270	1.523	13.629**	1.525
Adjusted R^2	.002	.005	.100	.005
Power distance orientation				
(Intercept)	2.527**	4.757**	2.479**	5.407**
Power level	-0.103†	0.068	-0.377**	0.056
Power distance orientation	-0.012	-0.003	-0.080	-0.099†
Power level × Power distance orientation	0.156**	0.118†	0.082	0.063
F	4.147**	1.745	15.002**	1.715
Adjusted R^2	.027	.007	.110	.006

Notes. N = 341. Unstandardized regression coefficients are displayed. HA = Hierarchy of Authority, PD = Power Distance Orientation.
†p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01

Next, we tested Hypothesis 2, in which we replaced hierarchy of authority with power distance orientation in the two-way interaction. For anger, results showed the expected two-way interaction with power distance orientation (Model 2: B = 0.156, p = .002). The interaction effect is depicted for high (t = 0.760, p = .448) and low (t = -3.407, p = .001) power distance orientation in Figure 4.3. Testing 95% regions of significance, the relation between power level and emotion display rules for anger was significantly positive for levels of standardized power distance orientation above 2.106 and significantly negative below -0.003. Both bounds fell within the observed region of the standardized levels of hierarchy of authority, with the maximum being 3.991 and the minimum being -2.503. Hence, for anger, Hypothesis 2 was fully supported, with anger expressions being the more appropriate the higher the power level for individuals with high power distance orientation and the less appropriate the higher the power level for individuals with low power distance orientation.

For pride, the two-way interaction with power distance orientation was slightly significant (Model 2: B = 0.118, p = .055). The interaction effect is depicted for high (t = 2.200, p = .029) and low (t = -0.541, p = .589) power distance orientation in Figure 4.3. Regions of significance revealed that the relation between power level and emotion display rules for pride was significantly positive for levels of power distance orientation above 0.607. Hence, for pride, Hypothesis 2 was slightly supported with pride expressions being the more appropriate, the higher the power level for individuals with high power distance orientation.

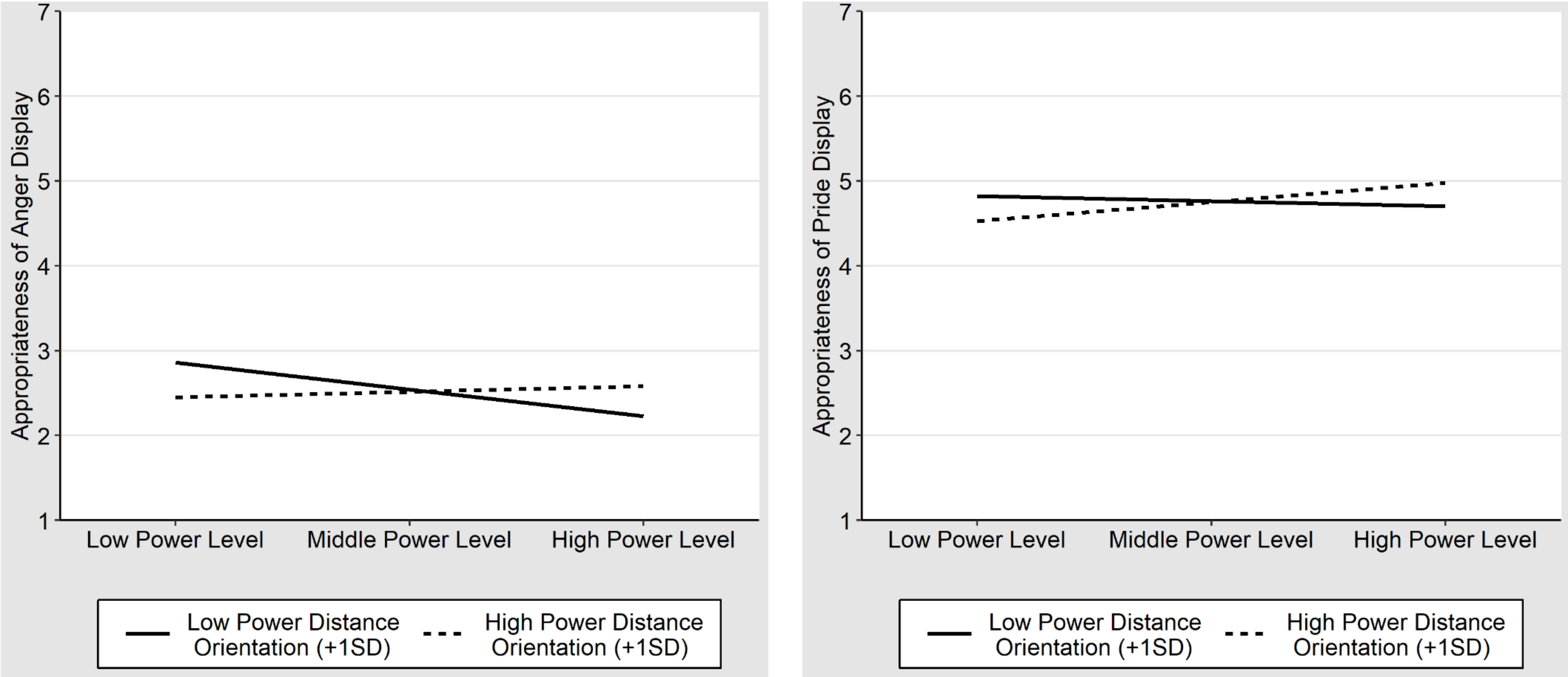
In contrast, results did not show a significant two-way interaction for sadness (Model 2: B = 0.082, p = .144) and joy (Model 2: B = 0.063, p = .263).

4.4.3 Discussion of Study 3

As in Study 2, results of Study 3 did not support the expected interaction between power level and hierarchy of authority for anger but slightly supported the interaction for pride. Yet, results fully supported the expected effects on anger for the interaction between power level and power distance orientation. For individuals with high power distance orientation, there was a positive relation between power levels and the appropriateness to express anger, while this relation was negative for individuals with low power distance orientation. For pride, the expected interaction effect between power level and power distance orientation was slightly supported, with the relationship between power level and the appropriateness to express pride being positive for individuals with high power distance orientation. In comparison, no such effects were found for sadness and joy.

Figure 4.3

Interaction of Power Distance Orientation and Power Level on Emotion Display Rules for Anger and Pride (Study 3)



4.5 Discussion

Having examined emotion display rules from internal (Study 1) and external perspectives (Studies 2 and 3), we provide initial evidence for the interplay of power levels and perceptions of power differences on emotion display rules for anger and pride. Results showed that power difference perceptions as emphasized by the organization or endorsed at the individual level, constitute a pivotal determinant of the association between power level and the appropriateness of anger and pride display. Overall, results indicate that when power differences are high, expressions of anger and pride seem to be the more appropriate the higher the power level, while when power differences are low, expressions of anger and pride tend to be the less appropriate. In contrast, we did not find a similarly consistent indication when examining emotion display rule for sadness and joy, demonstrating the specific connection between power and the distinct emotions of anger and pride.

Yet, in comparing our results across studies we also need to acknowledge notable differences. While we clearly identified the organization's emphasis on power differences in terms of hierarchy of authority as changing the relationship between power levels and emotion display rules for anger and pride when participants judged emotion display rules for themselves (Study 1), we could only find slight support for this influence on emotion display rules for pride and none for emotion display rules for anger when participants judged emotion display rules for others (Study 2 and 3). Instead, when judging from an external perspective, individuals' power distance orientation was the crucial determinant for the relation between power levels and emotion display rules for anger and likewise influential for emotion display rules for pride. In contrast, emotion display rules for pride appeared to be similarly influenced by the organization's emphasis on power differences and individuals' power distance orientation.

4.5.1 Theoretical Implications

By providing and testing a theoretical model for emotion display rules for anger and pride, we particularly contribute to current research on discrete emotions in organizations

(Conroy et al., 2017; Gooty et al., 2009). While examining aggregated positive and negative emotions might be sufficient in the field of customer service encounters (Cheshin, Amit, & van Kleef, 2018; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003), the complex interactions between members of an organization might require display rules for discrete emotions. Specifically, due to the function of some discrete emotions in steering interpersonal power relationships (e.g., Fischer & Manstead, 2008; Hu & Kaplan, 2015), our results indicate that display rules for emotions of different valence, i.e., anger and pride, may be more similar than those for discrete emotions of the same valence, i.e., sadness and joy. Consequently, emotion display rules may be contemplated in terms of the specific functions that these discrete emotions fulfill in interpersonal relationships.

In focusing on emotion display rules for discrete emotions that are assumed to regulate power in interpersonal relationships, this research also brings back an important factor that has been currently overseen, despite having always been at the heart of emotion display rules: power (Hochschild, 1983). Thereby, we extent the list of antecedents for emotion display rules within organizations that so far have predominantly focused on interpersonal interactions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Furthermore, we follow recent work on emotion display rules for those in power, such as managers (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), changing the predominant view that emotion display rules exclusively apply to those in low-power positions in organizations (Hochschild, 1983) by demonstrating that under certain conditions, those in power also face emotion display rules.

Identifying power differences as one such crucial condition in explaining the effect of power level on emotion display rules, we particularly reconcile the currently conflicting indications from organizational research (e.g., Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002), which assumes those in power to face emotion regulations, and social psychology (e.g., Keltner et al., 2003), which assumes power to relieve individuals from rules on their emotion expressions. By introducing perceptions of power differences as a deciding factor that crucially qualifies emotion display rules at different power levels, we further contribute to nascent research on the influence of organizational (Ozcelik, 2013) and personal (Taras et al., 2010; van Kleef, 2014) factors on employees' management of emotions.

4.5.2 Practical Implications

This research also has important implications for practitioners. First, it provides individuals in organizations with empirical evidence for emotion display rules, which are mostly implicit and therefore often accompanied by insecurity (Hadley, 2014). Results indicate that employees at lower power levels may experience more leniency in expressing anger and pride as long as power differences are low. In contrast, in relationships characterized by high power differences, the expressions of anger and pride seem to be more justifiable for individuals at high power levels. As organizations tend towards less hierarchical structures in the future (e.g., Puranam, Alexy, & Reitzig, 2014), individuals in high-power positions may be well advised to increasingly regulate their expressions of anger and pride, as these emotion expressions are increasingly perceived as inappropriate. This may be even more important, as inappropriate expressions of anger and pride have been found to negatively affect pivotal behaviors, such as organizational citizenship (Koning & van Kleef, 2015) or the likelihood of others' negative emotional reactions in response.

Furthermore, results also provide indications to decision-makers in organizations on how organizational structure influences employees. In response to emotion display rules, employees actively manage their emotions by suppressing felt emotions or eliciting unfelt emotions (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). This emotional labor has important consequences in lowering well-being, job satisfaction, and even performance (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). As our results imply that hierarchical structures indeed influence emotional display rules, organizations need to weigh these changing demands and support employees at different power levels accordingly.

4.5.3 Limitations and Further Research

Although we were able to strengthen the validity of our contribution by partially replicating our findings with an internal and external perspective, as well as with different dimensions of power differences for emotion display rules for anger and pride, while at the same time differentiating anger and pride from other discrete emotions (Campbell & Fiske, 1959), this research has some limitations that require additional future research. First, we measured hierarchy of authority and power distance orientation on an individual level. Although this approach is in line with previous research, researchers highlight that these phenomena may have different outcomes depending on the respective level of examination, i.e., the individual, cultural, or organizational level (Daniels & Greguras, 2014). Therefore, multi-level research is necessary collecting data from employees clustered within different organizations and across national origins.

Second, results were not fully consistent between the internal (Study 1) and the external perspectives (Studies 2 and 3). When individuals change their emotion expressions, they are doing this on behalf of observers—because they want observers to witness emotions other than what they experience internally. Therefore, individuals may change their own emotion expressions in response to what they think is appropriate within the organization, i.e., the hierarchy of authority they perceive within the organization, while they may judge others' emotion expressions based on their individual power distance orientation. Yet, additional research is necessary to further examine the influence of these different perspectives on emotion display rules.

Finally, we measured emotion display rules by directly asking how appropriate participants perceived the expression of anger and pride. This approach was warranted, as we particularly aimed to determine how the appropriateness of expressions of anger and pride changes with power levels and perceptions of power differences. Yet, consequently, we are not able to provide an indication to what extent this level corresponds to genuinely felt emotions or necessitates the suppression or amplification of emotions (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015). Additional research is therefore necessary to examine the concrete consequences on emotional labor as well as more distal outcomes, such as performance.

4.5.4 Conclusions

Being the first to connect emotion display rules for anger and pride with power in organizations, this research showed that power levels and perceptions of power differences interact in their influence on emotion display rules. Thereby, our results constitute a first step in determining emotion display rules for discrete emotions in response to power in organizations.

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5 Overall Discussion and Conclusion[11]

5.1 Summary of Findings

This dissertation advances our understanding of the social and psychological aspects of talent management in three essays. Focusing on talent acquisition, the first essay examines the impact of individual human capital and the collective team environment (i.e., prior team performance and number of newcomers) on newcomer performance in different socialization contexts (i.e., when there is enough time for socialization and when time for socialization is limited). The findings showed that while individual human capital relates positively to performance across socialization contexts, newcomers only benefitted from better performing teams when there was enough time for socialization. When time for socialization was limited, entering a high-performing team and joining a team as a member of a large number of newly acquired talent lowered the newcomer's individual performance. Beyond the direct relationships, human capital was less positively related to performance when talents joined higher performing teams, while the number of newcomers did not qualify the relationship between individual human capital and performance.

The second essay provides an empirical investigation into whether stereotypical role expectations about the agentic skills and knowledge of women and men influence the talent management practice of assigning performance and learning goals. Based on a content analytical approach, the results of the second essay indeed indicate a gender bias in organizational goal setting, as women were assigned less agentic performance goals than men while also being assigned more agentic learning goals than their male colleagues. The employees' management position further amplified the stereotypical assignment of agentic goals, with the results indicating that men received more agentic performance goals than

[11] This chapter is partly based on and includes elements of Schuth, Brosi, Folger, Chen, & Ployhart, (under review), Schuth, Brosi, & Welpe (under review), and Schuth & Brosi (2018).

women at higher management levels. With regard to learning goals, the management position did not influence the assignment of agentic goals to women and men.

Focusing on the emotional nature of work, the third essay examines the appropriateness of emotion expressions from an internal and external perspective and highlights that emotion display rules affect not only employees in low-level positions but also employees in managerial roles. The overall results of the third essay showed that the expressions of anger and pride are more appropriate for employees at higher power levels when power difference expectations are high, while expressions of anger and pride tend to be the less appropriate when unequal distributions of power are less accepted. Results across studies further indicate that an organization's hierarchy of authority is the relevant determinant when individuals judge the appropriateness of emotion expressions for themselves, while individuals' power distance orientation determine the relationship between power levels and emotion display rules when judging emotion expressions by others.

5.2 Implications for Theory

Extending and integrating literatures on strategic human capital, talent socialization, and work teams (first essay), organizational goal setting and role congruity theory (second essay), and emotion display rules for employees in different power positions (third essay), this dissertation helps to reduce the gap between the resource-based approach and social perspectives on talent management. Presented in separate essays, the theory and empirical findings of this dissertation contribute to the extant literature in three ways. First, the unique and combined relationships of individual human capital and the collective team environment on newcomer performance in different socialization contexts, as shown in the first essay, extend micro and macro literatures on strategic human capital resources by conforming the relationship between KSAOs and talent performance with a holistic measure of market value and across contexts (O'Boyle & Aguinis, 2012; Ployhart, Schmitt, & Tippins., 2017). As such, the results of the first essay emphasize the multilevel nature of talent research by simultaneously addressing individual- and team-level data (Wright & Ulrich, 2017). Highlighting the role of the collective team environment and the socialization context further answers calls for more research on context in talent literature (e.g., Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen, & Scullion, 2020) and clarifies contradictions in the extant literature.

Second, providing evidence that gender stereotypes are reflected in the content of assigned goals, this dissertation contributes to our knowledge about the impact of unconscious behaviors in talent management (Heilman & Haynes, 2005; Hoobler, Lemmon, & Wayne, 2014). Specifically, the results of the second essay extend current assumptions of the rational and economic side of talent management by showing that individuals rely on unconscious role expectations about agentic skills and knowledge when assessing talent (Thunnissen, 2016). In doing so, the second essay indicates that stereotypes about the abilities of individuals have the potential to undermine practices that are intended to effectively manage and develop talent (Collings, 2014). Moreover, the findings imply that talent management can emphasize the gender bias against women in higher management positions through the practice of goal setting.

Third, by testing a theoretical model on discrete emotions and power, the third essay reconciles currently conflicting research from management and talent literature (e.g., Griffith, Baur, & Buckley, 2019; Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007) and social psychology (e.g., Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Van Kleef & Lange, 2020) on the appropriateness of emotion expressions for employees in managerial positions. More specifically, the third essay demonstrates that not only employees in low-power positions but also those at higher organizational levels face emotion display rules. Introducing perceptions of power differences as a crucial factor for the appropriateness of emotion expressions by employees at different organizational levels, the third essay further contributes to the research on organizational and individual aspects (Ozcelik, 2013; van Kleef, 2014) of the management of emotions at work.

5.3 Implications for Practice

Providing evidence that social and psychological aspects can influence the performance, assessment, and behavior of talent, this dissertation also has important implications for the practice of talent management. It is important for organizations and employees alike to understand that talent management is not about implementing practices and policies to effectively manage talent but is rather embedded in and influenced by the social dynamics of work (Dries, 2013). For example, the results of the first essay indicate that the performance of newly acquired talent relates not only to individual human capital but also to the collective team environment the newcomers face when entering a new team. Consequently, organizations have to take the social factors that can influence talent performance into account when investing in talent to advance organizational success.

The findings of this dissertation further suggest that talent management practices may not always lead to the desired results. Organizations invest considerable resources in selecting and developing individual talent in pivotal positions, with the assumption that these investments result in a strategic advantage (Cappelli & Keller, 2014). This dissertation shows that this is only true to a certain extent. For example, the collective team environment may be detrimental to the performance of newly acquired talent when there is not enough time for socialization. Thus, when acquiring new talent for fully operating teams (Mathieu, Tannenbaum, Donsbach, & Alliger, 2014), organizations should support team socialization by clarifying roles, supporting joint socialization efforts, or setting up personal meetings, as the results from the first essay indicate that time for socialization is crucial when integrating talent.

Similarly, unconscious stereotypes can influence the organizational practice of setting goals for employees. Setting goals to identify and develop talent is an adequate and well established practice (Locke & Latham, 2006). However, it is important to note that goals may be assigned not according to actual talent but based on stereotypical expectations about the abilities of women and men, as shown in the second essay. As a consequence, stereotypical goal assignments can undermine the beneficial aspects of setting goals for employees and influence career outcomes, which is why organizations should carefully monitor the content of assigned goals. Organizations may thereby especially focus on goals that are assigned to employees at higher organizational levels because not only do biased goals become more apparent at higher levels but also setting stereotypical goals for employees in those positions may be most harmful to organizations' overall performances.

In addition, the results of this thesis provide practical insights into the emotional nature of work for employees at higher organizational levels. Results indicate that individuals in higher positions may be well advised to regulate their emotion expression, as the findings of the third essay imply that the display of anger and pride is increasingly perceived as inappropriate. Regulating emotion expressions may be particularly relevant for employees at higher organizational levels because the inappropriate display of emotions has been found to elicit negative emotional responses in others (Grandey & Gabriel, 2015) and affect important outcomes, such as organizational citizenship behavior, employee well-being, and job performance (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015).

5.4 Directions for Future Research

Scholars widely acknowledge talent management as a potential source of competitive advantage in an environment of changing economies and technological innovations (Collings, Mellahi, & Cascio, 2019). However, research has not adequately examined the social and behavioral perspectives that are inherent in managing talent at work. As a consequence, our understanding of the psychological aspects of talent management is still limited. This dissertation provides a key step to strengthen the social approach to talent management literature while also acknowledging that more work is needed in this area.

First, with regard to influential factors on the performance of newly acquired talent, this dissertation underscores that talent research might benefit from further validating the critical role of context in general and team context in particular (Garavan, Morley, Cross, Carbery, & Darcy, 2020). Specifically, the first essay highlights that human research complementarities, such as the collective team environment, might influence talent performance in the context of professional football. Future research could focus on additional factors, such as managerial aspects (e.g., the influence of coaching, human resource management policies), contextual dynamics (e.g., performance pressures), or social capital resources, that might influence human capital in promoting performance (Crocker & Eckardt, 2014; Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; Raffiee & Byun, 2020). The findings of this thesis could also be extended in other industries to improve our understanding of talent performance.

Second, this dissertation shows that more theoretical and empirical studies involving the effects of unconscious biases in talent management are warranted. Examining unconscious behaviors might be particularly fruitful, as the results of the second essay indicate that stereotypical gender expectations may explain inconsistent findings on the effectiveness of talent management practices (Cascio & Boudreau, 2016). Researchers may integrate racial, cultural, or age perspectives into the examination of hidden biases in talent management, while also questioning whether potential differences ultimately affect the promotion, reward, and performance of talent (Rosette, Koval, Ma, & Livingston, 2016; Shan, Keller, & Joseph, 2019).

And finally, research might further examine the role of emotions and emotional labor in talent management. As outlined throughout this dissertation, with most research on emotion display rules being conducted with service employees (Humphrey, 2012), more theoretical work on the emotion regulation of employees in strategically important positions is needed. This is particularly relevant not only because emotional labor may help talent to maintain an appropriate mood at work, establish trusting interpersonal relationships, and express their emotions effectively (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008) but also because the psychological costs of performing emotional labor can contribute to stress and burnout

(Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). While this dissertation is not able to provide an investigation on these concrete consequences of emotional labor, future research might build on the theoretical framework provided in the third essay to examine the outcomes of emotion display rules for employees in pivotal positions.

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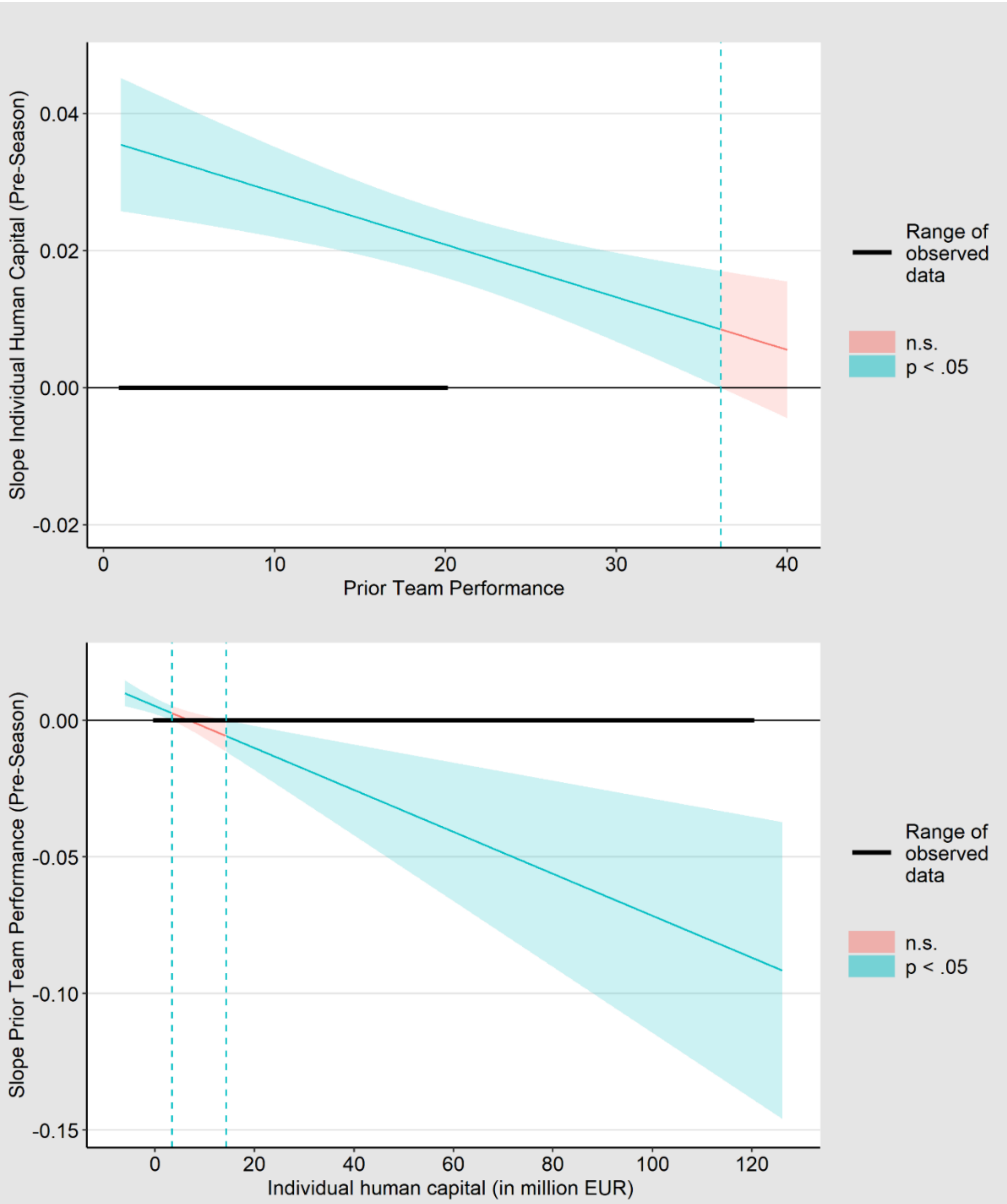
6 Appendix

Appendix A: Regions of Significance for the Interaction Effects on Newcomer Performance

Figure 6.1

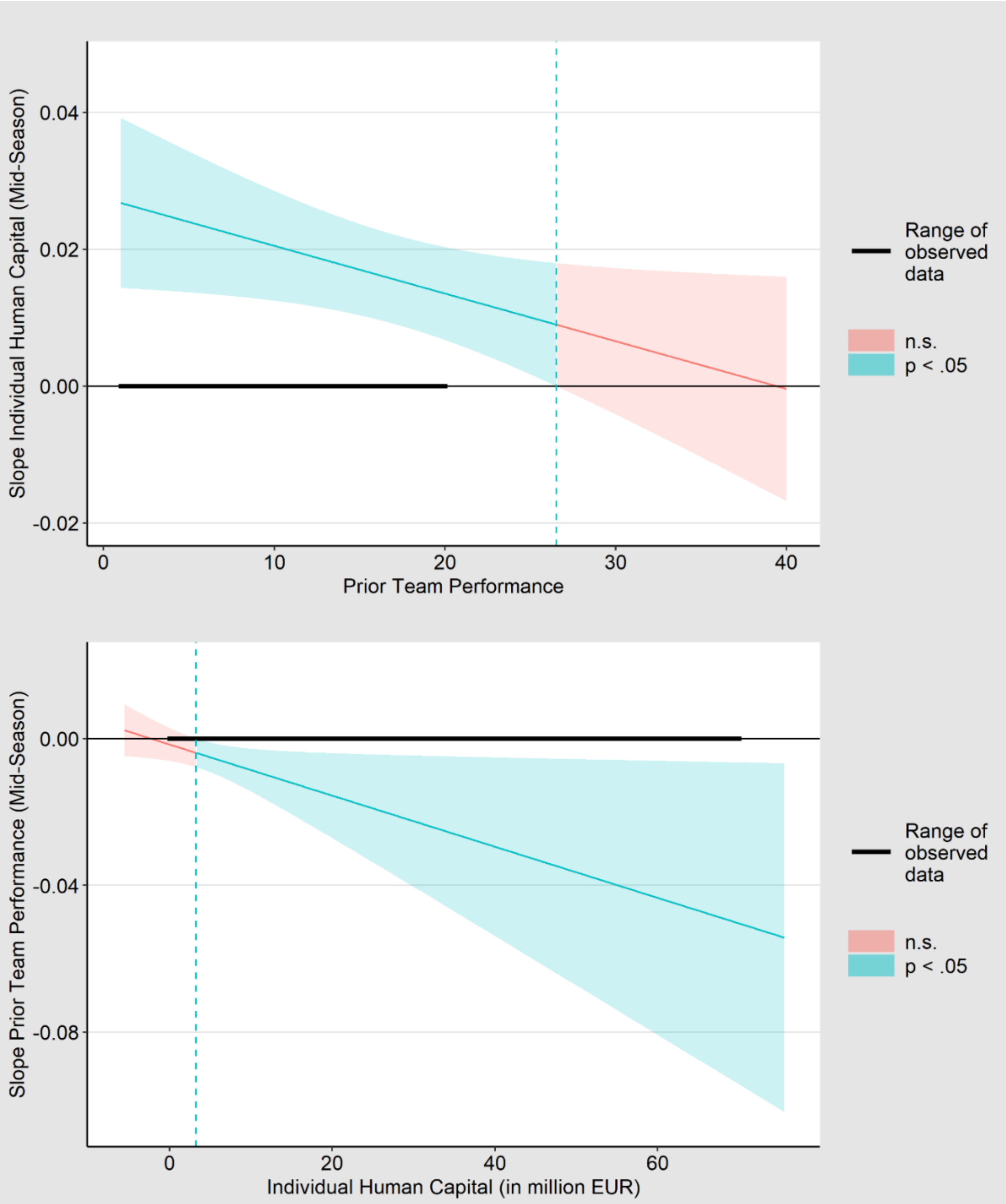
Johnson-Neyman Regions of Significance (95%) Plots of the Interaction between Prior Team Performance and Individual Human Capital on Pre-Season Newcomer Performance



Note. The top plot depicts the region of significance when prior team performance is acting as the moderator, and the bottom plot depicts the region of significance when individual human capital is acting as the moderator.

Figure 6.2

Johnson-Neyman Regions of Significance (95%) Plots of the Interaction between Prior Team Performance and Individual Human Capital on Mid-Season Newcomer Performance



Note. The top plot depicts the region of significance when prior team performance is acting as the moderator, and the bottom plot depicts the region of significance when individual human capital is acting as the moderator.

Appendix B: References, previous version, and author contributions

Essay I (Chapter II)

Essay I is based on. Schuth, M., Brosi, P., Folger, F, Chen, G., & Ployhart, R.E. (under review). When New Talent Scores: The Impact of Human Capital and the Team Socialization Context on Newcomer Performance in Professional Football Teams. Manuscript submitted for publication at the *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

Previous version of the paper. Schuth, M., Folger, N., Brosi, P. & Chen, G. (2019). Is Social Capital Embedded in Human Capital? A Conservation of Resources Perspective on the Portability Paradox. Accepted as part of the symposium "Using Teams to Leverage Strategic Human Capital in the Organization" at *The Annual Conference of Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) 2020*.

Author contributions to Essay I. Marvin Schuth developed the research design together with Nicholas Folger. The research question was developed by Marvin Schuth, Prisca Brosi, and Nicholas Folger with suggestions by Gilad Chen and Robert E. Ployhart. Marvin Schuth and Nicholas Folger collected the data and supervised four (former) students of the Technical University of Munich who helped gathering the data. Marvin Schuth pre-processed the data and was responsible for the data analysis. Throughout the data analysis process, he received feedback from Gilad Chen. The article was written in an iterative cooperative process, in which Marvin Schuth (Introduction, Theory, Methods, Results, Discussion), Prisca Brosi (Introduction, Theory, Discussion), and Nicholas Folger (Method, Discussion) wrote the first draft of a full paper, which was further developed together with Gilad Chen and Robert E. Ployhart.

Marvin Schuth (lead author)

Prof. Dr. Prisca Brosi (co-author)

Nicholas Folger (co-author)

Prof. Gilad Chen (co-author)

Prof. Robert E. Ployhart (co-author)

Appendix

Essay II (Chapter III)

Essay II is based on. Schuth, M., Brosi, P., & Welpe I. M. (under review). Unconscious bias in employee goal setting: A content analysis of actual performance and learning goals. Manuscript submitted for publication at the *Journal of Organizational Behavior*.

Previous version of the paper. Schuth, M., & Brosi, P. (2017). Descriptive and Prescriptive Gender Stereotypes in Agency. *Presented at the Annual Academy of Management Meeting 2017*, Atlanta (USA), 4-9 August 2017.

Author contributions to Essay II. Marvin Schuth developed the research question and research design. He was supervised by Prisca Brosi and Isabell M. Welpe. Having received a transcribed archival data set, Marvin Schuth pre-processed the data and was responsible for the data analysis. Throughout the data analysis process, Marvin Schuth received feedback from Prisca Brosi and Isabell M. Welpe. The article was written in an iterative cooperative process, in which Marvin Schuth wrote the first draft of a full paper, which was further developed together with Prisca Brosi and Isabell M. Welpe.

Marvin Schuth (lead author)

Prof. Dr. Prisca Brosi (co-author)

Prof. Dr. Isabell M. Welpe (co-author)

Essay III (Chapter IV)

Essay III is based on. Brosi, P. & Schuth, M. (2018). Quod Licet Iovi, Non Licet Bovi? Power and Emotion Display Rules for Anger and Pride in Organizations. Submitted to the journal of *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*.

Previous version of the paper. Schuth, M. & Brosi, P. (2018). Power and Emotion Display Rules for Anger and Pride in Organizations. *Received Best Doctoral Paper Award at the International Conference on Emotions and Organizational Life 2018 (EMONET XI)*, Chicago (USA), 8-9 August 2018.

Author contributions to Essay III. Prisca Brosi developed the research question and research design. The research model was jointly designed by Marvin Schuth and Prisca Brosi. The data was collected by Marvin Schuth and Prisca Brosi. Marvin Schuth pre-processed the data and was responsible for the data analysis. Throughout the data analysis process, Marvin Schuth received feedback from Prisca Brosi. The article was written in an iterative cooperative process, in which Marvin Schuth wrote the first draft of a full paper, which was further developed together with Prisca Brosi.

Marvin Schuth (lead author)

Prof. Dr. Prisca Brosi (co-author)