

Changing Horses Midstream:

Determinants, Directions, and Consequences of Leader Succession in Self-Managed Teams

Ryan S. Hemsley

Michigan State University, Department of Management
632 Bogue Street (BCC) N453
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone: +1 (517) 353-5415
Email: hemsleyr@msu.edu

Brian Burgess

Michigan State University, Department of Management
632 Bogue Street (BCC) N453
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone: +1 (517) 353-5415
Email: burge193@msu.edu

John R. Hollenbeck

Michigan State University, Department of Management
632 Bogue Street (BCC) N453
East Lansing, MI 48824
Phone: +1 (517) 353-5415
Email: jrh@msu.edu

James G. Matusik

University of Georgia, Department of Management
630 S. Lumpkin St. C207 Benson Hall
Athens, GA 30602
Phone: +1 (706) 542-3524
Email: james.matusik@uga.edu

Daniel J. Griffin

University of South Florida, Department of Psychology
4202 E. Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620
Phone: +1 (813) 974-2492
Email: griff644@msu.edu

Changing Horses Midstream:

Determinants, Directions, and Consequences of Leader Succession in Self-Managed Teams

Given the importance and public nature of the leader selection and succession process, organizations go to great lengths to ensure that these decisions are effective and defensible. For example, elaborate assessment centers—validated via rigorous processes that conform to the Uniformed Guidelines for Personnel Selection developed by the U.S. Department of Justice and staffed by specialists from outside the organization—are often employed to assess potential candidates (Howard 1974, Hoffman et al. 2015). Likewise, formal leader succession programs are often developed in advance to ensure there are sufficient internal candidates to fill potential vacancies when they occur (Kottke and Pelletier 2006, Schepker et al. 2018). Finally, in the face of a lack of qualified internal candidates—or simply due to a perceived need to invoke change—organizations frequently turn to expensive executive search firms to recruit outsiders (Bretz et al. 1994, Cappelli and Keller 2017). All of this has resulted in an extensive literature and knowledge base when it comes to formal leader development and succession (Schepker et al. 2018, Farah et al. 2020).

However, for a host of historical reasons, organizations in Western societies are increasingly organizing work around more flexible and cross-functional self-managed teams (Mathieu et al. 2008, Mathieu et al. 2017). Self-managed teams are given “discretion over such decisions as methods of work, task schedules, and assignments of members to different tasks” (Manz and Sims 1987, p. 106, Erez et al. 2002). Self-managed teams are found in numerous industries, including technology (Bunderson and Boumgarden 2010), healthcare (Temkin-Greener et al. 2012), and music (Gilboa and Tal-Shmotkin 2012), particularly when teams need to adapt to changing task or contextual demands. Leadership status in such teams is thus more fluid relative to that of traditional teams, which are usually characterized by formally prescribed top-down planning structures. As a result, leadership is now generally conceptualized in the literature as a bottom-up process that occurs “in the plural” (Denis et al. 2012), with greater

attention devoted to informal leadership emergence, shared leadership, rotated leadership, and dual leadership structures (Aime et al. 2014, Hanna et al. 2021).

This critical change in the nature of work means that much of the knowledge base built around formal leader selection and succession may be largely irrelevant when it comes to generalizing to modern contexts where such decisions are more often driven by the subjective perceptions of current team members rather than by trained HR specialists. On the one hand, team members have less formal training and experience when it comes to making such decisions, and therefore one might fear that these decisions will be biased and invalid (Atkins and Wood 2002, Wang et al. 2010). On the other hand, team members have greater proximity to the work context, and thus the unique opportunity to view individuals' contributions firsthand. This might place them in a better position to judge who would make a good future leader relative to HR or talent professionals, who often are far removed from the work context and therefore may only see the staged and "socially desirable side" of various applicants (Morgeson et al. 2007) performing at their "maximum" rather than their "typical" level (Dalal et al. 2014). Indeed, self-managed teams are primarily utilized to provide the flexibility and autonomy to make adaptive decisions (Manz and Sims 1987).

This change in organizational strategies punctuates a clear need to extend the leader succession literature beyond top-down leadership decisions to examine bottom-up leader succession processes in self-managed teams. In team-based succession processes, the extent team members perceive potential candidates as leaders is key and Leadership Categorization Theory (LCT; Lord et al. 1984) is the dominant paradigm used to understand leadership perceptions. According to LCT, individuals are more likely to be perceived as leaders if they possess traits consistent with subordinates' leadership ideals (Lord et al. 2020).

We argue, however, that a default reliance on LCT limits our understanding of leader emergence and succession in self-managed teams. While traits of individuals are relatively enduring, who occupies leadership roles and which traits are considered ideal may not be—the key premise underlying the Opponent Process Theory of Leadership Succession (OPT; Hollenbeck et al. 2015). OPT, in contrast to

LCT, conceptualizes leaders as embedded in self-regulating, adaptive social systems. As such, OPT suggests that people compare and contrast the efficacy of different levels of a trait in iterative processes, rather than assume a specific level of a trait will consistently address leadership needs in a given context. As such, LCT and OPT make different assumptions about how leadership perceptions form, with the former assuming that leadership ideals are monolithic and static, and the latter suggesting that leadership ideals are dialectic and dynamic. These differing positions result in opposite predictions regarding who is likely to emerge as the leader during succession events in self-managed teams.

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to challenge LCT by contending that OPT is a more appropriate theoretical framework for understanding leadership ideals and the emergent leadership processes in ongoing, self-managed teams. Utilizing a sample of 60 self-managed teams ($n = 298$) engaged in a series of three back-to-back performance episodes (thus allowing for the observation of several succession opportunities), we find evidence suggesting that leadership ideals are more dynamic and fluid than assumed by the prototypes and implicit leadership theories of LCT. These findings also suggest leadership ideals do more than simply affect leadership perceptions, but directly and indirectly affect team processes and outcomes. While our theorizing and results challenge LCT in several areas, we also find support for LCT's emphasis on the role of trait-based leadership ideals in leader selection and emergence. This study also serves as a first test and extension of OPT, with our findings suggesting opponent processes are more prevalent than previously supposed. We recommend more dialectical theorizing to move the field beyond the frequented, yet static, "fit" finding metaphor.

Beyond theoretical contributions, this study also has important implications for incumbent leaders, would-be successors, and organizations in their leader development and succession planning efforts. An awareness of the benefits and liabilities of different traits can help incumbent leaders fend off unwanted succession events, while also informing would-be successors on effective ways to mount a campaign for change. For organizations, self-managed team structures appear to enable adaptive decisions independent of external intervention. Further, accounting for the unique team history will likely increase

the predictive validity of traits in selection contexts. These contributions suggest many important and exciting future directions involving leadership ideals and team processes.

Theoretical Foundations: Leadership Ideals and Leader Succession

Whom individuals appoint as a leader is a function of how individuals define leadership requirements. These definitions, known as leadership ideals, drive leadership perceptions. Individuals are perceived as leaders to the extent they match the ideal, and those who sufficiently match the ideal are typically granted leadership (DeRue and Ashford 2010). Thus, who is granted leadership in succession decisions depends on the nature of the leadership ideal. However, the nature of leadership ideals is understood differently by different theories. We articulate the differences between two theories, LCT and OPT, and how they relate to leadership ideals and leader succession.

Leadership Categorization Theory

The nature of leadership ideals, according to LCT, is best described in terms of prototypes and anti-prototypes (Lord et al. 2020). LCT, the dominant theory for understanding leadership perceptions, posits that individuals hold implicit leadership theories about the traits a prototypical leader should possess (Lord et al. 1984). These prototypes are used, as leadership ideals, to categorize others as either leaders (i.e., prototypical) or non-leaders (i.e., anti-prototypical). However, there are three areas where LCT breaks down that are especially evident in leader succession processes in self-managed teams.

First, LCT assumes one end of the continuum is composed of nothing but benefits (i.e., the prototype), whereas the opposite end of the leadership ideal is composed of nothing but liabilities (i.e., the anti-prototype). However, this presumes that one leadership approach is unilaterally better than the alternative approach. Second, LCT assumes that leadership ideals are stable over time in a given context, meaning that individuals always perceive the anti-prototype to be inferior to the prototype (Epitropaki and Martin 2004). However, this is a questionable assumption in contexts where team members update their perceptions based on experience. Finally, LCT assumes followers are largely passive, reacting habitually by preferring “more of the same” when specifying the criteria for a new leader (Ritter and Lord 2007). However, in self-managed teams, members play an active role in specifying new leader requirements as

individuals assess the outcomes of their leadership ideal and current team needs (van Knippenberg 2011). Thus, LCT assumes leadership ideals are (a) monolithic, (b) static, and (c) reactively engaged in succession processes. These three assumptions are not made by OPT.

Opponent Process Theory

The nature of leadership ideals, as suggested by OPT, is best described in terms of theses and antitheses (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). OPT posits that many recurring problems in groups have multiple acceptable leadership solutions. Each leadership solution has enough benefits to merit its application while simultaneously having enough liabilities to justify an alternative. In the lexicon of OPT, alternative solutions are arranged dialectically, where the prevailing solution is the “*thesis*” and the alternative solution is the “*antithesis*” (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). The solutions are mutually exclusive, such that it is impossible to enact both solutions purely and simultaneously with the same people in the same context. This dialectic nature of leadership ideals suggested by OPT avoids the monolithic assumption made by LCT.

OPT also avoids the static assumption made by LCT through dynamic opponent processes (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). These opponent processes occur because the thesis and antithesis have interrelated benefits and liabilities. These interrelations create a “*latent conflict*” between the liabilities of the thesis and the benefits of the antithesis. With time, the liabilities of the thesis accumulate, increasing the salience of the benefits of the antithesis. In other words, team members perceive no urgent need to solve problems that no longer exist (i.e., problems solved by enacting the thesis) and direct attention to problems that do exist (i.e., problems caused by enacting the thesis that might be solved by enacting the antithesis). After sufficient accumulation and exposure to a “*trigger*”, the latent conflict will transform into a “*manifest conflict*” where the team changes their preference from the thesis to the antithesis (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). This cycle of trading one set of problems for the opposing set defines opponent processes. Importantly, opponent processes suggest team members are proactive in determining leadership ideals in succession decisions, avoiding the passive and reactive assumption made by LCT.

Thus, OPT suggests leadership ideals are (a) dialectic, (b) dynamic, and (c) proactively engaged in succession processes.

Opponent processes are exemplified in numerous areas of research, including those on compensation (equity vs. equality rewards; Deutsch 1949, Adams 1965), group decision-making (centralized vs. decentralized; Kerr and Tindale 2004, Zhang and Peterson 2011), and team structure. For example, Structural Contingency Theory (Hollenbeck et al. 2002) outlines the benefits and detriments of two means of decomposing a team's shared task into individual roles. Functional team structures—where individuals have narrow roles with specialized skill sets—create efficiency through decreased redundancy and increased specialization. However, whereas this structure is helpful when tasks are predictable, efficiencies break down in dynamic contexts as narrow skills lack generalizability. To solve this problem, a team may consider a divisional team structure—where members have broad roles with generalized skill sets—as divisional structures are particularly adept at solving dynamic problems because the team has greater flexibility since members can perform any element of the shared task. Yet, this improvement in adaptability also comes with redundancy and inefficiency, inhibiting cross role communication due to lower interdependence. The benefits of the divisional thesis then become less salient, setting the stage for an opponent process to occur and supplant the divisional structure with its functional antithesis. We will argue below that these same opponent processes can play out for traits such as extroversion and agreeableness because of the potential virtues and liabilities associated with these traits in dynamic team contexts over multiple performance episodes.

Hypothesis Development

While the *role* of leadership ideals in leader succession is compatible with both LCT and OPT, the two theories have very different conceptualizations regarding the *nature* of leadership ideals. Due to these different conceptualizations, these theories yield opposite predictions about who self-managed teams appoint as a leader during succession. To resolve these competing predictions, as well as assess the functionality of self-managed succession processes in teams, we develop hypotheses about the determinants, directions, and consequences of leader succession in the following sections.

Determinants of Leader Succession

Regarding determinants of leader succession, LCT does not provide strong theoretical direction on specific triggers. This lack of attention to triggers does not suggest succession is inconsistent with LCT, however. Indeed, researchers have studied LCT in the context of external succession decisions (Ritter and Lord 2007). Rather, this suggests LCT is not particularly equipped to address internal succession decisions, where self-managing team members play a more proactive role and leadership ideals can change.

In contrast, OPT predicts leader succession accompanies a manifest conflict. That is, once accumulated latent conflict combines with a strong trigger, a manifest conflict will result in leader succession. To be clear, this does not suggest the absence of succession is inconsistent with OPT. Rather, the absence of succession could indicate a latent conflict has not yet manifested, perhaps due to insufficient accumulation or the absence of a strong trigger.

A strong trigger, when considering the potential advantages of team-managed succession, is a team performance failure (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). To facilitate team performance, members monitor hindrances to collective success across performance episodes and engage in sensemaking to develop potential solutions (Marks et al. 2001). Enacting these solutions may not take on “a true sense of urgency, however, until some precipitating event, such as a major group failure” (Hollenbeck et al. 2015, p. 336). Despite, or perhaps because, the causes of team performance failures are difficult to diagnose, members are likely to attribute failure to the leader (Meindl and Ehrlich 1987, Sterman 2001). Thus, in the minds of team members, part of the solution to poor performance is a change in leadership.

Hypothesis 1. *Team performance is negatively related to the likelihood of leader succession in self-managed teams.*

Directions of Leader Succession

Leadership Categories and Competing Predictions

After determining change needs to occur, a team must decide the direction the change will take. Specifically, when succession is likely to occur, the team needs to decide the extent the new leader will compare to the old. How the two leaders compare is a function of the leadership ideal and the pool of

potential successors. Consistent with LCT, teams use leadership ideals to place potential successors into leader and non-leader categories. These broad categories simplify information processing, allowing for multiple people in each category (Lord et al. 1984). In this sense, teams do not reserve the leader category for a single individual who *perfectly* matches the leadership ideal but include any individual who *sufficiently* matches it. This categorization is especially important in self-managed teams, where the pool of potential successors (i.e., existing team members) is small and perhaps relatively homogeneous, and thus may not contain the perfect match to the leadership ideal.

Because they define the nature of leadership ideals differently, LCT and OPT make opposite predictions about from which category the team will choose the successor. While LCT acknowledges contingencies to the extent that it theorizes leadership ideals vary *between* contexts (i.e., the definition of a prototypical leader changes depending on the context), it maintains that leadership ideals are relatively stable and shared *within* contexts (i.e., an anti-prototypical leader will not become a prototypical leader in the same context). Specifically, LCT holds that forces exogenous to the team, such as contextual cues, drive changes in leadership ideals. Contemporary theories of dynamics would define this type of exogenous change proposed by LCT as static¹ (Cronin and Bezrukova 2019). This definition of the nature of leadership ideals suggests a static search for fit, where teams consistently choose leaders from among those in the “leader” category and do not choose from among those in the “non-leader” category. That is,

¹ While LCT does recognize at least three dynamic elements, they are not theorized to yield more than incremental changes to leadership ideals within a specific context. First, work on adaptive resonance suggests that leadership ideals can display incremental changes due to exogenous forces such as when “individuals become assimilated in groups or as societies develop” (Offermann and Coats 2018, Acton et al. 2019, Lord et al. 2020, p. 58). Second, work on neural networks suggests dynamic prototype activation is the undergirding cause of contextualized leadership ideals (Foti et al. 2008, Grossberg 2013). That is, leadership ideals “are recreated each time they are activated” and interact with contextual information, making it “a process associated with ... top-down constraints” (Lord et al. 2020, p. 56). Third, work on semantic and episodic memory suggests that the “accuracy in how people were classified [as leaders] is retained” over time, even though the “accuracy in describing [the leader behavior they observed] is lost” over time (Lord 1985, Lord et al. 2020, p. 59). Thus, these recognized dynamic elements explain how exogenous forces incrementally change ideals, how context-specific ideals are activated, and how leader categorizations remain consistent over time (i.e., leaders are still thought of as leaders and non-leaders are still thought of as non-leaders). This is in direct contrast to opponent processes that explain how endogenous forces within a specific context radically change a leader categorization (i.e., leaders are now thought of as non-leaders and non-leaders are now thought of as leaders).

LCT predicts teams will consistently prefer a successor who matches the prototype in the team's context over someone who matches the anti-prototype.

In contrast, OPT identifies the potential for variance in leadership ideals not just *between* but *within* contexts as well. This within-context focus is because OPT acknowledges the role of team history, leveraging the idea that past outcomes serve as driving forces in future episodes (i.e., independent variables), and not just as “final scores” in a “game” that has ended and will never be played again (i.e., dependent variables). Meaning, OPT breaks out of the constraining Input-Process-Outcome approach and instead embraces a more contemporary perspective that places what have traditionally been considered “outcomes” in the role of “causes” rather than “effects” (Ilgen et al. 2005). Further, because this force of change in leadership ideals is endogenous to the team, contemporary theories of dynamics would define change through opponent processes as dynamic (Cronin and Bezrukova 2019). This more dynamic nature of a leadership ideal suggests teams will change categories, choosing a successor from what teams previously esteemed as the “non-leader” category. That is—in contrast to LCT—OPT predicts teams are more likely to prefer a successor who matches the antithesis over someone who matches the incumbent thesis.

Interpersonal Traits and Opponent Processes

Having discussed competing theories regarding the extent the new leader will compare to the old, we next address the content of the leadership ideals teams use to compare leaders. Leaders differ in more ways than one manuscript can satisfactorily address, including traits, behaviors, and leadership styles. LCT has set a strong precedent of examining prototypical leader traits as the central feature of leadership ideals (Lord et al. 1984, Offermann and Coats 2018). This socio-cognitive approach of LCT largely developed in response to behavioral approaches of leadership (Lord et al. 2017). Indeed, the seminal work on LCT demonstrated individuals could replicate the factor structure of leader behavior measures based on implicit theories of prototypical traits, even in the absence of knowledge regarding actual leader behavior (Eden and Leviatan 1975, Rush et al. 1977). In contrast, OPT primarily focuses on leadership styles over time. However, OPT can express the underlying logic inherent in opponent processes in trait

terms. This makes LCT and OPT viable theoretical alternatives when predicting leader succession from traits and, when compared, the two theories make opposite predictions.

In determining which traits to examine, we strive to balance the essential tension inherent in theory development between breadth and focus (Bacharach 1989). To provide breadth, we utilize the Five Factor Model due to its comprehensive intent (Costa and McCrae 1985, McCrae and Costa 1989). To provide focus, we limit our hypotheses to the two interpersonal traits of the Five Factor Model: extroversion and agreeableness (Wiggins 1980). Interpersonal traits are particularly relevant for leadership perceptions in self-managed teams and opponent processes (Ashton and Lee 2001, 2007).

Not all traits affect leadership perceptions equally. Indeed, interpersonal traits (i.e., extroversion, agreeableness) are more strongly related to subjective, perceptual measures of leadership and affective leadership outcomes—the primary focus of LCT (Judge et al. 2004, DeRue et al. 2011, Lord et al. 2020). In contrast, task-related traits (i.e., conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability) are more strongly related to objective measures of leadership and task outcomes (Judge et al. 2004, DeRue et al. 2011). As our theory primarily relates to subjective perceptions of leadership, we focus on interpersonal traits.

Further, not all traits will display opponent processes equally. An opponent process requires a latent conflict between alternatives (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). Yet, there cannot be latent conflicts for traits in the absence of benefits and liabilities for each extreme. For example, there may not be many liabilities of an intelligent leader or benefits of an unintelligent leader. However, there are salient liabilities and benefits in different ways leaders interact interpersonally with team members. Thus, we propose opponent processes are especially likely to occur in the interpersonal traits of extroversion and agreeableness.

Extroversion. Extroversion has consistently ranked as one of the most important leader characteristics (Judge et al. 2002, Bono and Judge 2004). Given that trait extroversion lies at the intersection of dominance and sociability (Judge et al. 2013, Do and Minbashian 2014), extroverted leaders are frequently described as gregarious, dominant, assertive, emotionally expressive, and charismatic—all characteristics that allow them to exercise greater influence within their teams (Judge

and Bono 2000). The sociability and affectivity expressed by extroverted leaders is likely to create a positive aura in the group (Hatfield et al. 1993) that leaves members open to the influence of the leader (Fredrickson 2004) and promotes social closeness. Furthermore, extroverted leaders are more dominant, make decisions more quickly, and are more directive when making those decisions (Hiller and Hambrick 2005). This haste in decision-making can benefit teams in times of uncertainty or when the team is under threat (Hogg 2007, Schoel et al. 2011) and may also lead extroverts to be better at handling the risks inherent to performance in self-managed teams (Weiss and Knight 1980, Perlow et al. 2002).

This said, extroversion is more strongly related to leadership emergence than it is to effectiveness (Judge et al. 2002). Indeed, Lanaj and Hollenbeck (2015) documented that extroversion was the single best predictor of leadership “over-emergence,” defined as the perception among followers that someone’s level of leadership emergence exceeds their level of effectiveness. Additionally, and in the context of self-managed teams that undergo several performance episodes, there may be “dark sides” to extroversion that slowly accumulate and set extroverted leaders up for replacement. For example, extroverts may leave less room for participative or collective leadership due to their tendency to be socially dominant and talkative, thereby stymieing team member behaviors that benefit team performance (Grant et al. 2011). That is, extroverts often exert their will over others so that they can be the “center of attention” (Ashton et al. 2002, Judge et al. 2009).

As a result, extroverted leaders may undermine group effectiveness (Do and Minbashian 2014) because extroverts “are often poor listeners and unreceptive to others’ input...which can limit their effectiveness in interdependent group tasks” (Bendersky and Shah 2013, p. 388). Finally, research suggests that extroverts are highly sensitive to rewards (Depue and Collins 1999, Lucas and Fujita 2000, Lucas et al. 2000), leading extroverts to be more risk-seeking and impulsive because they are more focused on the reward than they are on the potential negative consequences of their behaviors (Lanaj et al. 2012). Although risk tolerance may be beneficial for performance, as noted, excessive risk-taking and impulsivity could be detrimental.

Thus, there are both benefits and liabilities associated with extroverted leaders. Highly extroverted leaders are sociable, gregarious, and dominant, but ultimately their drive to remain the center of attention and their over-sensitivity to rewards may detract from the team's task. Drawing upon OPT, we expect that self-managed teams will change between extroverted leaders and introverted leaders when succession events take place. The advantages of introverted leaders—in terms of being good listeners, reflective, and cautious decision-makers—would be especially attractive after a bout of leadership under an extrovert. Conversely, the opposite process is also likely to play out with an incumbent leader who is highly introverted. Team members may come to the belief that their introverted leader is not dominant enough, is not providing enough guidance for the team, and is lacking in sociability. Given the potential opponent processes pertaining to leader extroversion, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2. *When self-managed teams undergo succession and appoint a new leader, the successor's extroversion is negatively related to the incumbent's extroversion.*

Agreeableness. Individuals who score high in agreeableness are described as trusting, altruistic, cooperative, meek, and considerate (Ashton et al. 2014). This last adjective, considerate, is particularly relevant as “consideration” is a dominant factor when it comes to perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Judge et al. 2004). At its root, agreeableness represents a desire for cooperation and a motivation to maintain positive relations with others, often above all else. Thus, agreeable leaders are more “friendly and approachable, likely to help followers develop their strengths, and respectful” (DeRue et al. 2011, p. 16). Indeed, agreeableness is the strongest predictor of supportive leadership (Do and Minbashian 2014), and agreeable leaders should provide a positive developmental environment for their teams.

Nevertheless, and perhaps due to the tendency for agreeable individuals to prioritize achieving and maintaining relational harmony above other outcomes, empirical evidence regarding this trait's relationship with leader effectiveness is equivocal (Judge et al. 2002). On the one hand, facilitating a cooperative work environment and treating others with dignity and respect would seem central to effective leadership. On the other hand, being highly acquiescent to the demands and expectations of others is generally not consistent with the commonly-held belief that leaders need to be agentic, powerful,

and results-oriented individuals (Koenig et al. 2011). Indeed, whereas the trusting aspect of agreeableness may seem like something required in a group context, research shows that teams often require a disagreeable and cynical member to prevent groupthink and premature consensus (Ellis et al. 2003). In fact, a common intervention in the literature on team decision-making is to create a devil's advocate role, where the individual chosen for that role is expressly ordered to act disagreeably (Schweiger et al. 1986). Rather than avoid conflict, a disagreeable leader may be more willing to address and successfully resolve conflict, even if self-initiated. Meaning, disagreeability in a leader could be considered a positive feature if that disagreeableness is channeled in the right direction.

Thus, there are both benefits and liabilities associated with agreeable leaders. Highly agreeable leaders are pleasant, considerate, and collectively-oriented, but ultimately the drive to keep the peace by acquiescing to the needs of followers may seem antithetical to leadership. Drawing upon OPT, we expect that self-managed teams will change between more agreeable leaders and less agreeable leaders when succession events take place. After working in an aggressive, results-oriented, and combative environment, a self-managed team may long for someone who might create a more peaceful and cooperative environment. Conversely, the opposite process is also likely to play out with an incumbent leader who is highly agreeable. Team members may come to the belief that their agreeable leader is not critical, proud, bold, or independent enough, and thus may seek a more disagreeable leader. Given the potential opponent processes pertaining to agreeableness, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3. *When self-managed teams undergo succession and appoint a new leader, the successor's agreeableness is negatively related to the incumbent's agreeableness.*

Consequences of Leader Succession

The consequences of succession are unclear based on prior empirical work (Giambatista et al. 2005). That is, choosing a new leader that is the foil of the old leader has unclear performance implications in self-managed teams. This is because succession in self-managed teams has received scant empirical attention, with most research residing at the macro-level (e.g., strategic management, executive succession; Schepker et al. 2018). This macro, top-down succession is starkly dissimilar to the micro, bottom-up succession in self-managed teams and is, therefore, unlikely to generalize.

Traditionally, leader succession in organizations (e.g., the replacement of executives) involves top-down processes whereby HR professionals or board members spare no expense in recruiting and selecting the ideal successor (Bretz et al. 1994, Cappelli and Keller 2017). Yet, those making these succession decisions are external to the team, possessing only a limited knowledge of the environment the new leader will operate in and subject to the self-presentation of candidates during the selection process (Humphrey et al. 2009). In self-managed teams, however, succession decisions are the result of bottom-up processes engaged in by those internal to the team. Although team members may not have formal selection training, they may have a more accurate understanding of a prospective leader's performance under more realistic conditions and are likely more attuned to the factors that contributed to past failures (Erez et al. 2002). Therefore, existing empirical research on executive selection based on outside experts and external search firms may not generalize to self-managed teams.

Instead of past selection research, we rely on theory based on self-managed teams and opponent processes to predict changes in performance. A key purpose of self-managed team arrangements is to optimize performance by enabling adaptation (Manz and Sims 1987, Mathieu et al. 2017). This adaptation is required to address changes in the task environment or feedback following a performance episode (Keiser and Arthur 2021). After a performance failure specifically, self-managed teams can leverage their understanding of current demands and align the capabilities of team members accordingly. Indeed, realigning roles can enable teams to avoid process losses and create synergies—even beyond potential process loss from changing leaders—yielding a net positive effect on subsequent performance. Further, OPT explicitly predicts succession and opponent processes will yield adaptive growth when prompted by a team performance failure rather than internal politicking (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). Thus:

Hypothesis 4. *Leader succession in self-managed teams predicts improvements in team performance.*

Hypothesis 5. *Opponent processes related to incumbent and successor (a) extroversion and (b) agreeableness predict improvements in team performance, via leader succession.*

Methods

Participants and Procedure

298 first-year MBA students enrolled at a large U.S. university took part in this study to fulfill requirements for an advanced course on teamwork and leadership. Participants averaged 27.47 years of age ($\sigma = 3.46$), and approximately 33.11% identified as female. Furthermore, participants came from a variety of functional (e.g., medicine, law, engineering, finance, human resources, general management, etc.) and ethnic (e.g., Caucasian, East Asian, African American, Indian, etc.) backgrounds. Before their first week of class, participants completed surveys in which they provided trait and demographic information. Upon completion of this survey, we assigned participants to 1 of 60 four- or five-person, self-managed teams (for an average of 4.97 members per team). Once assigned, participants remained in these teams throughout the remainder of the study.

This data collection represented a large-scale effort that employed a cohort research design (Cook and Campbell 1979, Shadish et al. 2002) and spanned four years. Specifically, we collected each year of data from a distinct MBA cohort that only participated in the study for that particular year (i.e., individuals and teams from year t did not participate in the study in year $t+1$). There were 15 teams in the first year, 14 teams in the second year, 15 teams in the third year, and 16 teams in the fourth year. Additionally, each cohort of participants attended laboratory sessions on three occasions, and therefore participants engaged in three performance episodes in their assigned teams (resulting in a total of 180 observations). In each performance episode, teams completed the Leadership Development Exercise (LDX), a ten-round simulation that has been employed in prior team research (Lorinkova et al. 2013, Matusik et al. 2019). LDX requires participants to utilize a variety of offensive, defensive, and intelligence-collecting assets to identify and destroy hidden enemy targets on a 16x16 grid (see Lanaj et al., 2013 for a visualization of this grid). In addition to identifying and destroying enemy targets, participants must protect their own assets and “friendly base” from enemy attacks.

The version of LDX we employed required that participants fulfill five distinct roles within their team. We allowed teams to assign their members to one of these five roles at their own discretion (the 2 four-person teams collectively covered the “leftover” role). One of these roles included a formal leader role, which we referred to as the “Mission Commander.” The Mission Commander was responsible for

strategic planning, monitoring the task environment, and managing disagreements between team members. The primary advantage of holding the position of Mission Commander is that the Mission Commander had final decision-making authority in terms of the deployment of the team's offensive, defensive, and intelligence-collecting assets. In particular, each round of the simulation contained a phase in which the Mission Commander could relocate and place assets that had or had not been placed by other team members. During this phase, team members who were not the Mission Commander were physically unable to move assets. Importantly, this was the final phase before teams learned if they had discovered and/or destroyed enemy targets. As a result, Mission Commanders were provided a high level of decision-making authority and structural power, or control over the team's resources (Tost and Johnson 2019), and thus Mission Commanders held influential, salient, and important leadership roles within their teams.

Immediately prior to the first performance episode, teams decided upon team member roles and then completed LDX while remaining within their chosen roles. However, between performance episodes (i.e., between episodes one and two, and between episodes two and three), we provided teams the opportunity to reassign the five roles within their team, including the formal leader role (i.e., the Mission Commander role). Importantly, self-managed teams do not have leaders appointed by external entities (Morgeson 2005). Rather, leaders typically emerge informally via internal processes (Lanaj and Hollenbeck 2015) because self-managed teams are provided a great deal of discretion when it comes to task execution and role assignment within the group (Taggar et al. 1999). With this in mind, we were careful not to prime the teams in our sample to change leaders between episodes. Instead—and as was the case with the first episode—we simply instructed teams to assign roles as they saw fit. We never explained or discussed why teams might want to change Mission Commanders in order to avoid creating demand effects, or expectations that might affect team behavior (Sturm and Antonakis 2015).

Given that there was a total of 60 teams observed over 3 performance episodes, there were a total of 120 leader succession opportunities (each of the 60 teams had 2 opportunities to switch leaders, as this occurred between episodes) and 180 potential leaders (if each of the 60 teams had a different leader in each of the 3 performance episodes). Of the 120 succession opportunities, 43 resulted in a leader

succession event (35.83%). This resulted in 100 different leaders of the 60 teams across the 3 performance episodes—rather than 103 different leaders (60 initial leaders + 43 new leaders)—because some of the leaders in the first performance episode that were replaced in the second performance episode retook the helm of Mission Commander in the third performance episode.

Finally, worth highlighting is that there were two incentives to perform well on this task. First, a significant portion (25%) of students' course grade was tied to their teams' performance on LDX. This ensured participants put deliberate thought into who they assigned the role of Mission Commander, rather than choose absentmindedly or at random. Second, there were reputational consequences associated with performance on this task. Prior to the first course lecture of each week, researchers rank-ordered teams on a variety of discrete performance metrics. Then, during lectures, researchers made rankings known to the entire roster of students. Much like relative rating systems observed in applied contexts, this rank ordering prompted a variety of affective reactions from participants (e.g., "hurt egos;" Dominick 2009). Given the small and competitive nature of the sample—full-time MBA students who interfaced directly on a regular basis due to the residential nature of the program—this ranking system proved highly motivational.

Measures

Personality. We measured extroversion and agreeableness using items from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg 1992). The response scales for both measures ranged from 1 (*very inaccurate of me*) to 5 (*very accurate of me*) on a Likert-type scale. We used 11 items to capture extroversion and 9 items to capture agreeableness. An example item for extroversion includes, "I start conversations," and an example item for agreeableness includes, "I sympathize with others' feelings." Coefficient alphas for extroversion and agreeableness were .88 and .80, respectively. Importantly, the personality scores provided by self-reports are unlikely to differ significantly from those obtained via other-reports of personality, per previous meta-analytic research (Connelly et al. 2010, Kim and Ployhart 2018). As mentioned earlier, self-managed teams are limited to appointing successors from existing team members. Therefore, we group-mean centered the personality variables prior to analysis to (a) account for non-consequential interdependence and (b) yield a more interpretable solution (Cohen et al. 2003).

Succession event. We operationalized leader succession using a dichotomous (0,1) variable, where a value of 1 indicated that the team had changed leaders between performance episodes and a value of 0 indicated that the team had not changed leaders between performance episodes. As noted, of the 120 possible succession opportunities, 43 (35.83%) resulted in a succession event, with 26 occurring between the first and second performance episode and 17 occurring between the second and third performance episode.

Team performance. We captured team performance using objective indicators from the LDX simulation. Specifically, we operationalized team performance as the sum total of points teams gained—which was a function of the number of enemy targets teams destroyed—minus points teams lost—which was a function of the number of offensive, defensive, and intelligence-collecting assets destroyed by enemy targets, as well as the number of base attacks that occurred. We used this as our measure of performance because it was visible to participants throughout the entire simulation and thus served as a salient indicator of team success. When predicting the effects of team performance on leader succession (and thus testing Hypothesis 1), we used a standardized version of the team performance variable. When predicting the effects of leader succession on change in performance (and thus testing Hypothesis 4) we used a difference score, subtracting the team's score at time t from its score at time $t+1$ and standardizing the result prior to analyses (thus creating a performance improvement indicator).

Issues commonly associated with difference scores include reduced reliability, the confounding of distinct constructs, untested constraints, and dimensional reduction (Cafri et al. 2010). These issues are less relevant in our context due to the objective nature of our performance metric and the position of performance change in our theoretical model. First our performance metric is not powerfully influenced by random variance, and thus it does not lend itself to major sources of measurement error often observed in instruments such as those completed by human raters (e.g., surveys), including random response, transient, or specific factor errors (Schmidt and Hunter 2003). In instances where the observed score equals the true score, the best estimate of change is obtained by subtracting scores at time $t-1$ from scores at time t (Castro-Schilo and Grimm 2018). Second, our measure of performance does not collapse and

confound two distinct constructs. Team performance was calculated the same way and represented the same construct in each performance episode, unlike what might be found in literatures such as person-environment fit (Edwards 2001). Finally, criticisms regarding untested constraints and dimensional reduction do not apply given that change in performance was positioned as a dependent variable—not an independent variable—in our analyses.

Analytic Approach

Although opponent processes related to leader and incumbent extroversion and agreeableness could be conceptualized as antecedents to leader succession, more accurately the latent conflict between thesis and antithesis is ever present. A succession opportunity triggers opponent processes by making the latent conflict between thesis and antithesis manifest, and therefore opponent processes and leader succession co-occur (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). On the one hand, when teams decide to change their leader OPT suggests that they will select a team member who is opposite from their existing leader in terms of extroversion and/or agreeableness. Thus, the occurrence of a succession event is ostensibly a predictor of the interaction between leader and incumbent personality. On the other hand, OPT suggests that succession events are most likely to occur when there is an individual within the team who does not possess the same liabilities as the incumbent leader, or essentially when there exists a team member who represents a potential foil or antithesis to the incumbent leader. Thus, the existence of the thesis-antithesis interaction is a hypothesized predictor of the succession event.

Given this “chicken-or-the-egg” scenario, and, relatedly, the fact that opponent processes co-occur with succession events (i.e., if there is no succession event, there is no successor to be studied), we sought an analytical technique that allowed us to simultaneously (a) model the likelihood that an event will take place (i.e., leader succession) and (b) examine the interaction between incumbent and successor personality (i.e., opponent processes). As such, we used event history analysis in Stata version 16.1 to test Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3.

This analytical approach—also referred to as *survival analysis*, *failure-time modeling*, and *duration modeling*, depending upon the discipline it is employed in (Kleinbaum and Klein 2012)—is a

highly flexible technique that may be used to model the likelihood of an event occurring (e.g., graduation from high school, leader succession; Lord et al. 2010) as well as identify the factors that predict the occurrence of said event (e.g., socioeconomic background, opponent processes). This estimation method is more appropriate than alternative approaches for several reasons. First, it can model the likelihood of event occurrence while also accounting for censoring in the data (Klein and Moeschberger 2003)—unlike other methods for modeling dichotomous outcomes (e.g., multinomial logit models)—which was likely in our data as our teams worked together over the course of only three performance episodes. By “censoring,” we mean that, in some teams, leader succession was not observed for reasons that are unknown. Some teams may have never changed leaders, no matter how many performance episodes took place, but other teams may have not changed leaders because three performance episodes was not enough time for leader succession to occur. Event history analysis was designed to account for this censoring (Klein and Moeschberger 2003). Second, event history analysis accounts for the order of observations over time and, relatedly, allows for multiple occurrences of one’s event of focus—in our case, leader succession—within teams. Finally, event history analysis allows for the inclusion of all variables—team performance, incumbent personality, successor personality, and succession events—together in a single model, providing a holistic test of our theorizing that piecemeal approaches (e.g., two-stage models) do not afford.

With these strengths in mind, we utilized the Andersen-Gill extension of Cox regression to estimate a global parameter and a baseline hazard function for all leader succession events (Kleinbaum and Klein 2012). In doing so, we employed the “nohr” option in Stata. We chose Cox regression with the Andersen-Gill extension (Andersen and Gill 1982) for several reasons. First, we chose Cox regression because it allows for multiple predictors (e.g., both incumbent and successor personality traits), whereas alternatives such as the Kaplan-Meier approach are typically used to look at comparisons between groups (e.g., treatment versus control groups). That is, Cox regression allows for more covariates in the model relative to Kaplan-Meier, which is necessary for testing our theorizing. Second, we chose the Andersen-Gill extension because we had ordered panel data (i.e., sequential performance episodes nested within

teams) and because teams could have been characterized by more than one leader succession event. In other words, we chose this particular extension because teams could have switched leaders more than once between the three performance episodes (Kleinbaum and Klein 2012), noted above. Therefore, this extension was necessary given the nature of our data. Finally, we utilized the “nohr” option in Stata so that the software would produce coefficients rather than hazard ratios. This facilitates the interpretation of results as coefficients are more easily understood than hazard ratios by those unfamiliar with event history analysis. Moreover, we needed coefficients, rather than hazard ratios, to calculate our moderated indirect effects, and thus test Hypothesis 5.

Before moving forward, it is important to again emphasize that event history analysis estimates the *likelihood* (or “risk”) that an event will occur based upon various factors (Vermunt and Moors 2009, p. 1). We position team performance (to test Hypothesis 1) and incumbent and successor personality traits (as well as their interaction terms) as variables predicting leader succession, and thus our results, *when interpreted through a traditional lens*, inform us as to whether performance, these traits, and these traits’ interactions predict greater likelihood of leader succession. However, leader succession—our event—and the interaction between leader and incumbent personality co-occurred. In other words, the succession event and personality interactions took place simultaneously, rather than one ahead of the other in time. Thus, another way to interpret our model’s results is “*when a succession event is likely to occur, how does the personality of the incumbent differ from or align with those of the successor?*”, which we captured via the use of interaction terms.

To test Hypotheses 4 and 5, we used random effects panel regression in Stata version 16.1 (StataCorp 2019) and calculated 95% Monte Carlo confidence intervals (CIs; 20,000 replications) around the indices of moderated mediation (Hayes 2015) in R version 4.0.3. This allowed us to calculate the effect of leader succession on change in performance (our “b-path”) while also controlling for both incumbent and successor extroversion and agreeableness. We used panel regression because it accounts for the non-independence of observations (i.e., performance episodes nested within teams; Wooldridge 2010) and, importantly, because it can be specified so that the order of observations is taken into account

(using the “xtset” command in Stata, along with team identification numbers and a time variable specifying performance episode). Following prior research (Certo et al. 2017, Harrison et al. 2019), we chose random effects rather than fixed effects because extroversion and agreeableness represent between-person, time-invariant variables as they were measured once (see Bell and Jones 2015). This said, we obtain the same pattern of results when using fixed effects. Finally, we used the index of moderated mediation because opponent processes were expressed by interaction terms in our event history analysis, noted above. The index of moderated mediation is a relatively novel estimate that equates empirically to the difference between two conditional indirect effects and serves as “a direct quantification of the linear association between the indirect effect and the putative moderator of that effect” (Hayes 2015, p. 3). Given that the interactions between incumbent and successor personality traits were necessary components of both our theoretical and empirical models, this approach for quantifying the indirect effect between opponent processes and performance, via leader succession, seemed particularly appropriate.

Results

Insert Table 1 about here

Descriptive statistics and correlations are reported in Table 1. In Hypothesis 1, we predicted that team performance shares a negative relationship with leader succession. As indicated in Table 2, performance was negatively related to leader succession (Model 1: $b = -.356$, $SE = .120$, $p = .003$) which, in the context of event history analysis, indicates that greater team performance is associated with a reduced likelihood of a succession event. Additionally, we calculated *Hedge's g*, comparing teams that did versus did not change leaders in terms of their performance level prior to the succession opportunity. *Hedge's g* equaled .713, which by Cohen's (2013) standards is a moderately large effect size. On average, teams that switched leaders between performance episodes scored an average of 61.86 points prior to the switch, while teams that did not switch leaders scored an average of 104.26 points (in the same performance episode as those who did switch), for a difference of 42.40 points.

In Hypothesis 2, we predicted that, when self-managed teams undergo a succession event and appoint a new leader, the successor's extroversion is negatively related to the incumbent's extroversion. As indicated in Table 2, the product term representing the interaction between incumbent leader and emergent leader extroversion was significant (Model 2: $b = -1.112$, $SE = .203$, $p < .001$) and provided an interpretation consistent with our theorizing when plotted (see Figure 1). Specifically, results suggest that, when a leader succession event is likely to occur (the top half of Figure 1, where the y-axis is characterized by positive values), teams typically replace incumbent leaders high (low) in extroversion with a successor that is low (high) in extroversion. Naturally, these results also suggest that, when a leader succession event is unlikely to occur (the bottom half of Figure 1, where the y-axis is characterized by negative values), incumbent and successor extroversion are similar. This is in part because a lack of a succession event necessarily means that the individual occupying the leader role at time t is the same individual occupying it at time $t+1$. However, this also suggests that team members with similar, but not necessarily identical, levels of extroversion were unlikely to emerge as the successor.

In Hypothesis 3, we predicted that, when self-managed teams undergo a succession event and appoint a new leader, the successor's agreeableness is negatively related to the incumbent's agreeableness. As indicated in Table 2, the product term representing the interaction between incumbent leader and emergent leader agreeableness was significant (Model 2: $b = -2.637$, $SE = .885$, $p = .003$), and provided an interpretation consistent with our theorizing when plotted (see Figure 2). Specifically, results suggest that, when a leader succession event is likely to occur (the top half of Figure 2, where the y-axis is characterized by positive values), teams typically replace incumbent leaders high (low) in agreeableness with a successor that is low (high) in agreeableness. Again, these results also suggest that, when a leader succession event is unlikely to occur (the bottom half of Figure 2, where the y-axis is characterized by negative values), incumbent and successor agreeableness are similar. This is in part because a lack of a succession event necessarily means that the individual occupying the leader role at time t is the same

individual occupying it at time $t+1$. However, this also suggests that team members with similar, but not necessarily identical, levels of agreeableness were unlikely to emerge as the successor.²

 Insert Table 2 about here

 Insert Figures 1 and 2 about here

Hypotheses 4 and 5, in which we argued that leader succession (a) is positively related to performance improvements and (b) mediates the indirect effects of opponent processes on performance improvements, were supported (see Table 3). Specifically, leader succession was associated with increases in team performance ($b = .427, SE = .162, p = .008$), controlling for both incumbent and successor extroversion and agreeableness (and using robust standard errors), supporting Hypothesis 4. Additionally, we calculated *Hedge's g*, comparing teams that did versus did not switch leaders in terms of the change in performance level that occurred between performance episodes. *Hedge's g* equaled .39, which by Cohen's (2013) standards would be considered a moderate effect size. On average, teams that switched leaders saw an average increase of 28.93 points between performance episodes while teams that did not switch leaders saw an average *decrease* of 6.52 points between performance episodes. Finally, the 95% Monte Carlo CIs (20,000 repetitions) around the indices of moderated mediation excluded zero for both extroversion [-.900, -.112] and agreeableness [-2.479, -.184], supporting Hypothesis 5.

 Insert Table 3 about here

Supplemental Analyses

² The pattern of results do not change if we include the aggregated, team-level Five Factor Model personality traits as control variables (operationalized as team-level means for all five traits). Team performance still shares a negative relationship with the likelihood of a succession event taking place ($b = -.352, SE = .117, p = .003$), and the interactions for successor and incumbent extroversion ($b = -1.168, SE = .290, p < .001$) and agreeableness ($b = -2.976, SE = 1.006, p = .003$) remain significant. Additionally, results from a series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) revealed that those teams who had changed leaders did not differ significantly from those teams who had not changed leaders when it came to within-team variability in extroversion ($F(1, 59) = 0.74, p = .394$) or agreeableness ($F(1, 59) = 0.08, p = .777$), operationalized as the within-team standard deviation on these traits. Thus, we do not believe that within-team variability on our focal traits serves as an alternative explanation for our findings.

Alternative traits. Our hypotheses on the interpersonal traits of the Five Factor Model sought to balance both breadth and focus. However, “the primary risk in theoretical parsimony is the underspecification of the model” (Bacharach 1989, p. 509). Therefore, we considered additional traits beyond those addressed in our hypotheses (Hollenbeck and Wright 2017). While we posited extroversion and agreeableness were especially likely to affect leadership perceptions and display opponent processes, it is possible other traits impact succession decisions as well.

Indeed, there are documented benefits and liabilities to conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability (Judge et al. 2009), suggesting the potential for latent conflicts and subsequent opponent processes. Specifically, a team may desire a conscientious leader as they are dependable and deliberate (Zillig et al. 2002), however teams may eventually perceive them as rigid problem solvers, micro-managers, or perfectionistic (LePine et al. 2000, Judge et al. 2009). A team may desire a leader high in openness to experience as they are creative, intellectually curious and willing to challenge established conventions (McCrae 1996), however “followers of leaders who are complex, philosophical, and prone to bouts of deep analysis and reflection, might get frustrated with an open leader's engagements in fantasy and inability to develop a particular position on important issues” (Judge et al. 2009, p. 869). Lastly, teams may desire an emotionally stable leader as they are more predictable and resilient to stress, however low emotionality may decrease credibility by indicating less passion for and commitment to the task (van Kleef et al. 2009). Thus, to examine the potential for additional traits to display opponent processes and impact succession decisions, we followed the same analytic strategy used when testing our formal hypotheses.

Using items from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg 1992), we captured emotional stability, openness to experience, and conscientiousness on a 5-point, Likert-type scale (1 = *very inaccurate of me*, 5 = *very accurate of me*). We used 10 items to capture each of these variables. An example item for emotional stability includes, “I often feel blue” (reverse-scored), an example item for openness to experience includes, “I have a vivid imagination,” and an example item for conscientiousness includes, “I am always prepared.” Coefficient alphas were .89, .82, and .81, respectively.

 Insert Table 4 about here

As indicated by Table 4, we found significant interactions between incumbent and successor traits for emotional stability ($b = -.632$, $SE = .134$, $p < .001$), openness to experience ($b = -1.187$, $SE = .342$, $p = .001$), and conscientiousness ($b = -2.122$, $SE = .525$, $p < .001$). The interactions for both openness to experience and conscientiousness provide interpretations akin to those for extroversion and agreeableness (see Figures 4 and 5). However, emotional stability's pattern of results deviates. Specifically, these results suggest that incumbents high (low) in emotional stability are not necessarily replaced by successors who are low (high) in emotional stability. Rather, incumbents low in emotional stability may be replaced by successors who score either high *or* low in emotional stability (the left side of Figure 3), while incumbents who score high in emotional stability are less likely to be replaced, in general (the right side of Figure 3). This set of supplemental findings is largely consistent with there being benefits and liabilities for each extreme of a trait and suggests the presence of opponent processes beyond interpersonal traits. However, teams appear eager to replace individuals who are low in emotional stability—even if that means with another person similarly low in emotional stability.

 Insert Figures 3 through 5 about here

Multinomial logit model. As a robustness test, we predicted leader succession using an alternative analytical approach for modeling dichotomous (0,1) outcomes, a namely multinomial logit model. As was the case with our focal analyses, we predicted leader succession using team performance, as well as incumbent and successor extroversion and agreeableness (and their interactions). Consistent with our focal analyses, results of the multinomial logit model indicated that team performance was negatively related to succession events ($b = -.788$, $SE = .294$, $p = .007$), and that incumbent and successor extroversion ($b = -4.152$, $SE = 1.262$, $p = .001$) and agreeableness ($b = -8.057$, $SE = 2.999$, $p = .007$) interacted to predict succession events. When plotted, these interactions provided interpretations consistent with those provided by Figures 1 and 2: when succession events are likely to occur, individuals

high (low) in extroversion/agreeableness tend to be replaced by individuals low (high) in extroversion/agreeableness. These additional interaction plots are available upon request.

Sensitivity analysis. While our use of incumbent-successor interaction terms in our event history analysis was necessary to test our hypotheses, statistical artifacts—such as regression to the mean or selection effects—are possible alternative explanations for our findings. For example, because the incumbent and successor traits are inherently identical when succession does not take place, one could argue we only provide evidence that traits change when leaders change rather than the intended evidence against LCT and for OPT. Given that our research question centers on the relative merits of LCT and OPT in predicting leader succession processes in self-managed teams, we conducted a sensitivity analysis to further probe the extent our observed data was consistent with LCT and OPT as well as the probability of our observed data accounting for the presence of any potential statistical artifacts. To conduct this sensitivity analysis, we first needed to generate a null distribution that reflected (a) the expected distribution if LCT explained succession processes and (b) the presence of any statistical artifacts.

In order to generate the expected null distribution if LCT explained succession processes, we first generated 10,000 simulated datasets that approximated our sample in terms of size and structure. Specifically, each simulated dataset was comprised of 60 teams with 5 members where 2 leader succession events were possible. For each of the simulated datasets, we randomly assigned the personality traits of the 300 individual team members from the distribution of personality traits in the observed dataset (i.e., we simulated the datasets via resampling techniques). In each succession event, every team had a random chance (i.e., 50%) to either maintain or change leaders. For the teams that changed leaders during a succession event, simulated team members selected successors randomly based on probabilities weighted by the inverse square Euclidean distance from the incumbent's personality. This common similarity index affords stronger weights to potential successors whose personality is similar to the incumbent leader and weaker weights to potential successors whose personality is dissimilar to the incumbent leader. Thus, the patterns of succession in these simulated datasets reflect the predictions made by LCT.

In order to generate a null distribution that accounts for the presence of statistical artifacts, we ran an event history analysis on each of the aforementioned 10,000 simulated datasets to estimate the incumbent-successor interaction coefficients for each of the five traits. We then arranged the interaction coefficients derived from each simulated analysis to form a null distribution. Because the interaction coefficients that comprise the null distribution were estimated using event history analysis, the same as our original analysis, the simulated interaction coefficients incorporate the effects of potential statistical artifacts. Thus, this null distribution represents the range of interaction coefficients one would expect if LCT explained succession processes while accounting for statistical artifacts.

We then compared this null distribution of simulated coefficients with the observed coefficients to assess the probability of our observed data if LCT explained succession processes. Specifically, we examined if our observed coefficients were significantly different from 95% of the simulated coefficients. Thus, significance indicates that the observed coefficient is unlikely if LCT explains leader succession processes in self-managed teams accounting for potential statistical artifacts. Notably, this procedure does not generate a “pure” coefficient unaffected by statistical artifacts; the primary purpose is to assess the probability of the observed coefficient compared to what we expect due to statistical artifacts. Thus, eliminating statistical artifacts as an alternative explanation while also testing our research question regarding LCT and OPT.

The results of our sensitivity analysis largely confirm our initial interpretation of our findings. Specifically, the observed coefficients were significantly different from the simulated coefficients for extroversion ($p = .016$), agreeableness ($p < .001$), and conscientiousness ($p = .006$); however, only marginally so for openness ($p = .069$). With openness as the exception, our observed interaction coefficients are unlikely if LCT explained leader succession processes in self-managed teams accounting for statistical artifacts. These findings eliminate statistical artifacts as an alternative explanation as well as suggest, when it comes to most traits, teams are not appointing successors that approximate a static, monolithic prototype (i.e., what LCT would predict). In contrast, the observed coefficients were not significantly different from what LCT would predict for emotional stability ($p = .428$). This means LCT

remains a viable explanation for how teams appoint successors regarding leader emotional stability. Thus, the results of our sensitivity analysis largely confirm our initial interpretation of our findings. Together, these results suggest that cognitive structures of leadership are more dynamic and dialectic than predicted by LCT. In contrast, we are unable to falsify OPT with the existing data.

Discussion

We examined the determinants, directions, and consequences of leader succession in self-managed teams. We first demonstrated how performance failures trigger leader succession. We then contrasted LCT (Lord et al. 1984) and OPT (Hollenbeck et al. 2015) to illuminate how leadership ideals can change over time, such that team members often desire a new leader with traits that are opposite to those of their previous leader—the opposite prediction of existing theory. Finally, we invoked research on self-managed teams and OPT to argue that the perspective and autonomy of self-managed team members enables an adaptive leadership selection process that improves team performance. The broad empirical support for our hypotheses has implications for both research and practice.

Contributions

Theoretical

Although the literature on LCT suggests that teams reactively prefer traits consistent with monolithic and static leadership ideals when evaluating a successor, our theorizing—based on OPT—suggests that teams actively seek successors that embody traits opposite of the predecessor, consistent with dialectic and dynamic leadership ideals. In other words, LCT approaches leader prototypes with an “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it” perspective, while OPT takes the perspective that “the grass always appears greener on the other side” of a leadership ideal dialectic. Ultimately, our results support OPT’s perspective: self-managed teams who encounter a performance failure appear to search for a different type of leader when leader succession events take place, and these opponent processes demonstrate potential to improve team effectiveness. These findings suggest leadership ideals have broader implications than previously supposed as they can also affect broader team processes and outcomes.

This study also serves as the first test and extension of OPT. While OPT originally addressed leadership styles, we find opponent processes also occur with traits. Not only with the interpersonal traits where we theorized opponent processes were especially likely to occur, but with most of the Five Factor Model. These findings suggest opponent processes may be more prevalent than previously supposed. Indeed, opponent processes can occur whenever there are latent conflicts between two alternatives due to interrelated benefits and liabilities, including constructs beyond the Five Factor Model. Together, these initial results are encouraging for future research on opponent processes and underscore the need for more dialectical theorizing in the organizational sciences that moves beyond the static “fit” finding metaphor prevalent in many organizational theories, including LCT.

Finally, although our theorizing and results represented a challenge to LCT, they also supported LCT’s emphasis on traits (Lord et al. 2020) by highlighting the importance of traits as leadership ideals in determining leader suitability. Not only did each of the Five Factor Model traits affect leader succession, but the pattern of results for emotional stability were clearly more consistent with LCT than OPT. Specifically, teams were consistently likely to replace leaders with low levels of emotional stability, reflecting an anti-prototypical rather than antithetical pattern. Further, while we relied on the ideal-based categorization process generally used in the LCT literature, these results reflected a more person-based alternative process (Ritter and Lord 2007). That is, teams appeared to adopt an “anyone but them” mentality and afforded more attention to getting the previous leader out than to the ideal nature of the successor—even if this meant the successor was unlikely to solve the problem (i.e., the successor and predecessor both have comparatively low levels of emotional stability). Thus, these findings support LCT’s emphasis on traits and suggest the assumptions of LCT are appropriate with traits that do not display a latent conflict (i.e., where there are no perceived benefits on the opposite end of the continuum).

Practical

The results of this study also have implications for incumbent leaders, would-be successors, and organizations. As it pertains to incumbent leaders, an understanding of OPT can help fend off unwanted succession events. For example, developing a self-awareness of the strengths and weaknesses of one’s

traits enables a leader to keep the benefits of their traits in the foreground and not allow them to become taken-for-granted elements of the background. To accomplish this, the leader may need to maintain a campaign focused on the liabilities of alternative approaches, perhaps pointing to other teams that are led by someone who is that leader's foil as indirect evidence for the superiority of their own approach.

As it pertains to would-be successors, they would do well to position themselves as the antithesis of the current leader. Even when current leaders are successful (e.g., when team performance is favorable), OPT suggests these leaders are constantly sowing the seeds of change because the benefits of their traits may be inadvertently pushed into the background. The would-be successor could tend those seeds (i.e., push liabilities into the foreground) and harvest their fruits when succession becomes a real possibility. At the very least, a would-be successor can assess when and where their natural trait-based tendencies are going to be more versus less appreciated by followers based upon the team's history.

As it pertains to organizations, self-managed team structures can yield adaptive succession decisions without the intervention of HR professionals. Adaptive succession decisions are possible because the unique perspective and autonomy of self-managed teams enables them to optimize their team configuration to unique circumstances. However, self-managed teams are limited as to the resources at their disposal. Our data suggest succession can lead to improvement but should not be interpreted as an undisputed panacea to poor performance or that HR professionals are unneeded. We say this because team performance is a function of team inputs and processes—of which leadership is only one. With persistent unsatisfactory team performance, optimization through leadership change among existing members may be insufficient. Indeed, succession can cost considerable momentum and process loss, particularly if leadership becomes more politically-based (i.e., self-promoting) than performance-based (Hollenbeck et al. 2015). In such instances, more serious interventions involving HR professionals may be necessary (e.g., dissolving the team or membership changes).

In either case, organizations need to be aware of how a team's (or their own) history affects the traits desired for certain leadership positions. Most formal HR approaches to staffing start with a job description and a set of job specifications that are completely agnostic to the history of the team or

organization. OPT suggests that the desired traits for leadership positions are contingent upon the traits embodied by the past leader. Thus, whereas the dominant paradigm in formal selection programs focuses on the validity of some trait (e.g., extroversion or agreeableness) in a vacuum, OPT suggests that the validity of a trait can only be understood in relationship to the historical context of how that trait was manifested in past leaders. If an organization always hires extroverted individuals for leadership positions, the validity of that trait may decrease over time as the benefits of such leaders dissipate and the local demand for the antithesis builds. Indeed, the gross lack of appreciation for subtle context cues when it comes to the predictive validity of traits is one of the most frequent explanations for why the predictive validity of traits is often so disappointing (Morgeson et al. 2007).

Limitations

As with all studies, there are certain limitations of the current study that need to be addressed by future research. One such limitation deals with the generalizability of our findings. In order to establish comparability of succession events across a sufficient number of teams, we placed a priority on internal validity and used a controlled laboratory context where many of the confounding influences that would be present in a field study were eliminated. Moreover, our primary goal was the generalizability of our theoretical conclusions regarding LCT and OPT rather than our specific findings, per se (Mook 1983), and there is nothing inherent to any of these theories that would suggest that their propositions would not hold in our context. Hence, we felt this was a fair context to test our theorizing (Colquitt 2008). Still, leader succession is in an important applied problem that needs to be studied in applied contexts as well.

Another limitation of this study is the short-term nature of the team task. Although these were “real teams” (Hackman 2002), the timing associated with this study was six weeks and occurred early in the team’s history. As a formal theory, OPT places time and history in central theoretical roles. That is, it describes a process of how perceptions build and change over time, and all the events we document took place in the first six weeks of these teams’ histories. On the one hand, this may make this a conservative test of this theory; though we found statistically significant effects, these effects might be even stronger in contexts where teams interacted longer. Further, many short-term project teams complete their work in

less than six weeks. On the other hand, these teams were early in their developmental stage and may have been more fluid than what one might see in teams that are further along in terms of development.

Finally, we could not test all of our hypotheses in a single model (as one might do when using path analysis) and, as a result, the coefficients that we used to calculate our 95% Monte Carlo confidence intervals were derived from separate models: an event history analysis and a random effects panel regression. Although we controlled for the effects of incumbent and successor extroversion and agreeableness when conducting our panel regression—and therefore captured the unique effect of leader succession on changes in team performance—we advise readers and future researchers to interpret our indices of moderated mediation with this in mind.

Future Directions

While we controlled for team composition, there is room for theoretical developments on how team composition affects opponent processes. For instance, the social identity theory of leadership (Hogg 2001, van Knippenberg and Hogg 2018)—in contrast to the prescriptive leadership ideal of LCT—posits that teams use a more descriptive ideal based on group membership where the most prototypical member of the group will emerge as the leader (Wellman 2017). Team composition in these instances would be an important factor in managing latent and manifest conflicts about how team members identify with the collective. Potential triggers for opponent processes involving social identities could include performance failures and membership churn. Indeed, changes in membership are important to consider given the role of team composition in defining social identity as well as how team researchers often treat membership as static and are agnostic to its history (Mathieu et al. 2018, Wolfson et al. 2021).

Finally, we limited our initial test to traits per the precedent set by LCT. However, future research should examine leadership ideals and opponent processes in leadership behaviors, styles, and functions. Future research on functions is crucial, especially in self-managed teams (Morgeson et al. 2010). In self-managed teams, team members can distribute the responsibility of different leadership functions to different people. How different team members think leaders should ideally execute leadership functions (e.g., composing teams, structuring roles, or making decisions) is not addressed in existing theory on

leadership ideals. Such ideals are fundamental to understanding essential leadership processes in self-managed teams, including leadership emergence, claiming-granting negotiations, and the emergence of shared norms (DeRue and Ashford 2010, Wellman 2017). Indeed, further expanding theory about the nature and scope of leadership ideals has considerable potential to advance future leadership research.

Conclusion

Despite its considerable impact on the field, LCT makes several problematic assumptions. To address these assumptions, we leveraged and provided the first test of OPT. In doing so, we provided evidence against the predictions made by the incumbent prototype/anti-prototype paradigm of LCT and present evidence in support of the dialectical thesis/antithesis perspective paradigm of OPT. This evidence suggests that the nature of leadership ideals is fundamentally different than previously supposed. We also outline how understanding these differences can affect leadership and team processes. Together, these findings have important implications for leader selection practices and leadership research.

References

- Acton BP, Foti RJ, Lord RG, Gladfelter JA (2019) Putting emergence back in leadership emergence: A dynamic, multilevel, process-oriented framework. *Leadership Quart.* 30(1):145-164.
- Adams JS (1965) Inequity in social exchange. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, vol. 2 (Elsevier), 267-299.
- Aime F, Humphrey S, DeRue DS, Paul JB (2014) The riddle of heterarchy: Power transitions in cross-functional teams. *Acad. Management J.* 57(2):327-352.
- Andersen PK, Gill RD (1982) Cox's regression model for counting processes: a large sample study. *The annals of statistics*:1100-1120.
- Ashton MC, Lee K (2001) A theoretical basis for the major dimensions of personality. *Euro. J. of Personality* 15(5):327-353.
- (2007) Empirical, theoretical, and practical advantages of the HEXACO model of personality structure. *Personality and Soc. Psych. Rev.* 11(2):150-166.
- Ashton MC, Lee K, De Vries RE (2014) The HEXACO Honesty-Humility, Agreeableness, and Emotionality factors: A review of research and theory. *Personality and Soc. Psych. Rev.* 18(2):139-152.
- Ashton MC, Lee K, Paunonen SV (2002) What is the central feature of extraversion? Social attention versus reward sensitivity. *J. Personality Soc. Psych.* 83(1):245.
- Atkins PWB, Wood RE (2002) Self- versus others' ratings as predictors of assessment center ratings: Validation evidence for 360-degree feedback programs. *Personnel Psych.* 55(4):871-904
- Bacharach SB (1989) Organizational theories: Some criteria for evaluation. *Acad. Management Rev.* 14(4):496-515
- Bell A, Jones K (2015) Explaining fixed effects: Random effects modeling of time-series cross-sectional and panel data. *Poli. Sci. Research and Methods* 3(1):133-153.
- Bendersky C, Shah NP (2013) The downfall of extraverts and rise of neurotics: The dynamic process of status allocation in task groups. *Acad. Management J.* 56(2):387-406
- Bono JE, Judge TA (2004) Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analysis. *J. Appl. Psych.* 89(5):901.
- Bretz RD, Boudreau JW, Judge TA (1994) Job search behavior of employed managers. *Personnel Psych.* 47(2):275-301.
- Bunderson JS, Boumgarden P (2010) Structure and learning in self-managed teams: Why “bureaucratic” teams can be better learners. *Organ. Sci.* 21(3):609-624.
- Cafri G, Van Den Berg P, Brannick MT (2010) What have the difference scores not been telling us? A critique of the use of self—ideal discrepancy in the assessment of body image and evaluation of an alternative data-analytic framework. *Assessment* 17(3):361-376.
- Cappelli P, Keller J (2017) The historical context of talent management. *The Oxford handbook of talent management*:23-42.
- Castro-Schilo L, Grimm KJ (2018) Using residualized change versus difference scores for longitudinal research. *J. of Soc. and Personal Rel.* 35(1):32-58.
- Certo ST, Withers MC, Semadeni M (2017) A tale of two effects: Using longitudinal data to compare within-and between-firm effects. *Strat. Management J.* 38(7):1536-1556.
- Cohen J (2013) *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (Academic press).
- Cohen J, Cohen P, West SG, Aiken LS (2003) *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: erlbaum (3rd ed.).
- Colquitt JA (2008) Publishing laboratory research in AMJ: A question of when, not if. Editorial. *Acad. Management J.*
- Connelly BL, Tihanyi L, Certo ST, Hitt MA (2010) Marching to the beat of different drummers: The influence of institutional owners on competitive actions. *Acad. Management J.* 53(4):723-742
- Cook TD, Campbell DT (1979) Quasi-Experiments: Nonequivalent Control Group Designs. *Quasi-experimental design and analysis issues for field settings* (Rand McNally, Chicago), 1-36.

- Costa PT, McCrae RR (1985) *The NEO personality inventory* (Psychological assessment resources Odessa, FL).
- Cronin MA, Bezrukova K (2019) Conflict management through the lens of system dynamics. *Acad. Management. Ann.* (ja).
- Dalal RS, Bhawe DP, Fiset J (2014) Within-person variability in job performance: A theoretical review and research agenda. *J. Management* 40(5):1396-1436.
- Denis J-L, Langley A, Sergi V (2012) Leadership in the plural. *Acad. Management. Ann.* 6(1):211-283.
- Depue RA, Collins PF (1999) Neurobiology of the structure of personality: Dopamine, facilitation of incentive motivation, and extraversion. *Behav. and Brain Sci.* 22(3):491-517.
- DeRue DS, Ashford SJ (2010) Who will lead and who will follow? A social process of leadership identity construction in organizations. *Acad. Management Rev.* 35(4):627-647.
- DeRue DS, Nahrgang JD, Wellman N, Humphrey SE (2011) Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psych.* 64(1):7-52.
- Deutsch M (1949) A theory of cooperation and competition. *Human Relations* 2:129-152.
- Do MH, Minbashian A (2014) A meta-analytic examination of the effects of the agentic and affiliative aspects of extraversion on leadership outcomes. *Leadership Quart.* 25(5):1040-1053.
- Dominick PG (2009) Forced rankings: Pros, cons, and practices. *Performance management: Putting research into action*:411-443.
- Eden D, Leviatan U (1975) Implicit leadership theory as a determinant of the factor structure underlying supervisory behavior scales. *J. Appl. Psych.* 60(6):736-741
- Edwards JR (2001) Ten difference score myths. *Organ. Res. Methods* 4(3):265-287.
- Ellis APJ, Hollenbeck JR, Ilgen DR, Porter COLH, West BJ, Moon H (2003) Team learning: Collectively connecting the dots. *J. Appl. Psych.* 88(5):821
- Epitropaki O, Martin R (2004) Implicit leadership theories in applied settings: Factor structure, generalizability, and stability over time. *J. Appl. Psych.* 89(2):293.
- Erez A, Lepine JA, Elms H (2002) Effects of rotated leadership and peer evaluation on the functioning and effectiveness of self-managed teams: a quasi-experiment. *Personnel Psych.* 55(4):929-948.
- Farah B, Elias R, De Clercy C, Rowe G (2020) Leadership succession in different types of organizations: What business and political successions may learn from each other. *Leadership Quart.* 31(1):101289.
- Foti RJ, Knee Jr RE, Backert RS (2008) Multi-level implications of framing leadership perceptions as a dynamic process. *Leadership Quart.* 19(2):178-194.
- Fredrickson BL (2004) The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences* 359(1449):1367-1377.
- Giambatista RC, Rowe WG, Riaz S (2005) Nothing succeeds like succession: A critical review of leader succession literature since 1994. *Leadership Quart.* 16(6):963-991.
- Gilboa A, Tal-Shmotkin M (2012) String quartets as self-managed teams: An interdisciplinary perspective. *Psych. Music* 40(1):19-41.
- Goldberg LR (1992) The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. *Psych. Assessment* 4(1):26.
- Grant AM, Gino F, Hofmann DA (2011) Reversing the extraverted leadership advantage: The role of employee proactivity. *Acad. Management J.* 54(3):528-550.
- Grossberg S (2013) Adaptive Resonance Theory: How a brain learns to consciously attend, learn, and recognize a changing world. *Neural Net.* 37:1-47.
- Hackman JR (2002) Why teams don't work. *Theory and research on small groups* (Springer), 245-267.
- Hanna AA, Smith TA, Kirkman BL, Griffin RW (2021) The Emergence of Emergent Leadership: A Comprehensive Framework and Directions for Future Research. *J. Management* 47(1):76-104.
- Harrison JS, Thurgood GR, Boivie S, Pfarrer MD (2019) Measuring CEO personality: Developing, validating, and testing a linguistic tool. *Strat. Management J.* 40(8):1316-1330.
- Hatfield E, Cacioppo JT, Rapson RL (1993) Emotional contagion. *Current Direct. in Psych. Sci.* 2(3):96-100.

- Hayes AF (2015) An index and test of linear moderated mediation. *Multivariate Behav. Res.* 50(1):1-22
- Hiller NJ, Hambrick DC (2005) Conceptualizing executive hubris: the role of (hyper-) core self-evaluations in strategic decision-making. *Strat. Management J.* 26(4):297-319.
- Hoffman BJ, Kennedy CL, LoPilato AC, Monahan EL, Lance CE (2015) A review of the content, criterion-related, and construct-related validity of assessment center exercises. *J. Appl. Psych.* 100(4):1143.
- Hogg MA (2001) A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Soc. Psych. Rev.* 5(3):184-200
- (2007) Uncertainty-identity theory. *Adv. Experiment. Soc. Psych.* 39:69-126.
- Hollenbeck JR, DeRue DS, Nahrgang JD (2015) The opponent process theory of leadership succession. *Organ. Psych. Rev.* 5(4):333-363.
- Hollenbeck JR, Moon H, Ellis AP, West BJ, Ilgen DR, Sheppard L, Porter CO, Wagner III JA (2002) Structural contingency theory and individual differences: examination of external and internal person-team fit. *J. Appl. Psych.* 87(3):599.
- Hollenbeck JR, Wright PM (2017) Harking, sharking, and tharking. Editorial. *J. Management*
- Howard CG (1974) Model for the design of a selection program for multinational executives. *Pub. Personnel Management* 3(2):138-145.
- Humphrey SE, Mannor MJ, Morgeson FP (2009) Developing a theory of the strategic core of teams: A role composition model of team performance. *J. Appl. Psych.* 94(1):48-61
- Ilgen DR, Hollenbeck JR, Johnson M, Jundt D (2005) Teams in organizations: From Input-Process-Output models to IMO models. *Ann. Rev. Psych.* 56(1):517-543
- Judge TA, Bono JE (2000) Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *J. Appl. Psych.* 85(5):751.
- Judge TA, Colbert AE, Ilies R (2004) Intelligence and leadership: a quantitative review and test of theoretical propositions. *J. Appl. Psych.* 89(3):542.
- Judge TA, Ilies R, Bono JE, Gerhardt MW (2002) Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *J. Appl. Psych.* 87(4):765-780
- Judge TA, Piccolo RF, Kosalka T (2009) The bright and dark sides of leader traits: A review and theoretical extension of the leader trait paradigm. *Leadership Quart.* 20(6):855-875.
- Judge TA, Rodell JB, Klinger RL, Simon LS, Crawford ER (2013) Hierarchical representations of the five-factor model of personality in predicting job performance: integrating three organizing frameworks with two theoretical perspectives. *J. Appl. Psych.* 98(6):875.
- Keiser NL, Arthur W (2021) A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of the after-action review (or debrief) and factors that influence its effectiveness. *J. Appl. Psych.* 106(7):1007.
- Kerr NL, Tindale RS (2004) Group performance and decision making. *Ann. Rev. Psych.* 55:623-655
- Kim Y, Ployhart RE (2018) The strategic value of selection practices: Antecedents and consequences of firm-level selection practice usage. *Acad. Management J.* 61(1):46-66
- Klein JP, Moeschberger ML (2003) *Survival analysis: techniques for censored and truncated data* (Springer).
- Kleinbaum DG, Klein M (2012) The Cox proportional hazards model and its characteristics. *Survival analysis* (Springer), 97-159.
- Koenig AM, Eagly AH, Mitchell AA, Ristikari T (2011) Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms. *Psych. Bull.* 137(4):616.
- Kottke JL, Pelletier KL (2006) Effective Succession Planning: Ensuring Leadership Continuity and Building Talent Within. *Personnel Psych.* 59(2):475.
- Lanaj K, Chang C-H, Johnson RE (2012) Regulatory focus and work-related outcomes: a review and meta-analysis. *Psych. Bull.* 138(5):998.
- Lanaj K, Hollenbeck JR (2015) Leadership over-emergence in self-managing teams: The role of gender and countervailing biases. *Acad. Management J.* 58(5):1476-1494.
- LePine JA, Colquitt JA, Erez A (2000) Adaptability to changing task contexts: Effects of general cognitive ability, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. *Personnel Psych.* 53(3):563-593.

- Lord RG (1985) Accuracy in behavioral measurement: An alternative definition based on raters' cognitive schema and signal detection theory. *J. Appl. Psych.* 70(1):66.
- Lord RG, Day DV, Zaccaro SJ, Avolio BJ, Eagly AH (2017) Leadership in applied psychology: Three waves of theory and research. *J. Appl. Psych.* 102(3):434-451.
- Lord RG, Diefendorff JM, Schmidt AM, Hall RJ (2010) Self-regulation at work. *Ann. Rev. Psych.* 61(1):543-568
- Lord RG, Epitropaki O, Foti RJ, Hansbrough TK (2020) Implicit leadership and followership: Theories and dynamic processing of leader information. *Ann. Rev. Organ. Psych. Organ. Behav.*
- Lord RG, Foti RJ, De Vader CL (1984) A test of leadership categorization theory: Internal structure, information processing, and leadership perceptions. *Organ. Behav. Human Perf.* 34(3):343-378
- Lorinkova NM, Pearsall MJ, Sims Jr HP (2013) Examining the differential longitudinal performance of directive versus empowering leadership in teams. *Acad. Management J.* 56(2):573-596.
- Lucas RE, Diener E, Grob A, Suh EM, Shao L (2000) Cross-cultural evidence for the fundamental features of extraversion. *J. Personality Soc. Psych.* 79(3):452.
- Lucas RE, Fujita F (2000) Factors influencing the relation between extraversion and pleasant affect. *J. Personality Soc. Psych.* 79(6):1039.
- Manz CC, Sims HP (1987) Leading workers to lead themselves: The external leadership of self-managing work teams. *Admin. Sci. Quart.* 32(1):106-129
- Marks MA, Mathieu JE, Zaccaro SJ (2001) A temporally based framework and taxonomy of team processes. *Acad. Management Rev.* 26(3):356-376
- Mathieu JE, Hollenbeck JR, van Knippenberg D, Ilgen DR (2017) A century of work teams in the J. Appl. Psych.. *J. Appl. Psych.* 102(3):452-467.
- Mathieu JE, Maynard MT, Rapp T, Gilson L (2008) Team effectiveness 1997-2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *J. Management* 34(3):410-476
- Mathieu JE, Wolfson MA, Park S (2018) The evolution of work team research since Hawthorne. *Amer. Psych.* 73(4):308.
- Matusik JG, Hollenbeck JR, Matta FK, Oh JK (2019) Dynamic systems theory and dual change score models: Seeing teams through the lens of developmental psychology. *Acad. Management J.* 62(6):1760-1788.
- McCrae RR (1996) Social consequences of experiential openness. *Psych. Bull.* 120(3).
- McCrae RR, Costa PT (1989) The structure of interpersonal traits: Wiggins's circumplex and the five-factor model. *J. Personality Soc. Psych.* 56(4):586.
- Meindl JR, Ehrlich SB (1987) The romance of leadership and the evaluation of organizational performance. *Acad. Management J.* 30(1):91-109
- Mook DG (1983) In defense of external invalidity. *Amer. Psych.* 38(4):379-87.
- Morgeson FP (2005) The external leadership of self-managing teams: intervening in the context of novel and disruptive events. *J. Appl. Psych.* 90(3):497.
- Morgeson FP, Campion MA, Dipboye RL, Hollenbeck JR, Murphy K, Schmitt N (2007) Reconsidering the use of personality tests in personnel selection contexts. *Personnel Psych.* 60(3):683-729
- Morgeson FP, DeRue DS, Karam EP (2010) Leadership in teams: A functional approach to understanding leadership structures and processes. *J. Management* 36(1):5-39
- Offermann LR, Coats MR (2018) Implicit theories of leadership: Stability and change over two decades. *Leadership Quart.* 29(4):513-522.
- Perlow LA, Okhuysen GA, Repenning NP (2002) The speed trap: Exploring the relationship between decision making and temporal context. *Acad. Management J.* 45(5):931-955.
- Ritter BA, Lord RG (2007) The impact of previous leaders on the evaluation of new leaders: An alternative to prototype matching. *J. Appl. Psych.* 92(6):1683-1695
- Rush MC, Thomas JC, Lord RG (1977) Implicit leadership theory: A potential threat to the internal validity of leader behavior questionnaires. *Organ. Behav. Human Perf.* 20(1):93-110

- Schepker DJ, Nyberg AJ, Ulrich MD, Wright PM (2018) Planning for future leadership: Procedural rationality, formalized succession processes, and CEO influence in CEO succession planning. *Acad. Management J.* 61(2):523-552.
- Schmidt FL, Hunter JE (2003) Meta-analysis. Schinka JA, Velicer WFVE, eds. *Handbook of psychology: Research methods in psychology*, vol. 2 (John Wiley & Sons Inc, Hoboken, NJ), 533-554.
- Schoel C, Bluemke M, Mueller P, Stahlberg D (2011) When autocratic leaders become an option—Uncertainty and self-esteem predict implicit leadership preferences. *J. Personality Soc. Psych.* 101(3):521.
- Schweiger DM, Sandberg WR, Ragan JW (1986) Group approaches for improving strategic decision making: A comparative analysis of dialectical inquiry, devil's advocacy, and consensus. *Acad. Management J.* 29(1):51-71.
- Shadish WR, Cook TD, Campbell DT (2002) *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin).
- StataCorp (2019) Stata Statistical Software: Release 16. (StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX).
- Sterman JD (2001) System dynamics modeling: Tools for learning in a complex world. *Calif. Management Rev.* 43(4):8-25.
- Sturm RE, Antonakis J (2015) Interpersonal power: A review, critique, and research agenda. *J. Management* 41(1):136-163.
- Taggar S, Hackett R, Saha S (1999) Leadership emergence in autonomous work teams: Antecedents and outcomes. *Personnel Psych.* 52(4):899-926
- Temkin-Greener H, Cai S, Zheng NT, Zhao H, Mukamel DB (2012) Nursing home work environment and the risk of pressure ulcers and incontinence. *Health Serv. Res.* 47(3pt1):1179-1200.
- Tost LP, Johnson HH (2019) The prosocial side of power: How structural power over subordinates can promote social responsibility. *Organ. Behav. Human Decision Processes* 152:25-46.
- van Kleef GA, Homan AC, Beersma B, van Knippenberg D, van Knippenberg B, Damen F (2009) Searing sentiment or cold calculation? The effects of leader emotional displays on team performance depend on follower epistemic motivation. *Acad. Management J.* 52(3):562-580
- van Knippenberg D (2011) Embodying who we are: Leader group prototypicality and leadership effectiveness. *Leadership Quart.* 22(6):1078-1091.
- van Knippenberg D, Hogg MA (2018) Social identifications in organizational behavior. *The self at work: Fundamental theory and research* 1:72-90.
- Vermunt JK, Moors G (2009) Event history analysis. *Handbook of quantitative methods in psychology*:658-674.
- Wang XM, Wong KFE, Kwong JYY (2010) The roles of rater goals and ratee performance levels in the distortion of performance ratings. *J. Appl. Psych.* 95(3):546-561
- Weiss HM, Knight PA (1980) The utility of humility: Self-esteem, information search, and problem-solving efficiency. *Organ. Behav. Human Perf.* 25(2):216-223.
- Wellman N (2017) Authority or community? A relational models theory of group-level leadership emergence. *Acad. Management Rev.* 42(4):596-617
- Wiggins JS (1980) Circumplex models of interpersonal behavior. *Rev. Personality Soc. Psych.* 1:265-294.
- Wolfson MA, D'Innocenzo L, Bell ST (2021) Dynamic team composition: A theoretical framework exploring potential and kinetic dynamism in team capabilities. *J. Appl. Psych.*
- Wooldridge JM (2010) *Econometric analysis of cross section and panel data* (MIT press).
- Zhang Z, Peterson SJ (2011) Advice networks in teams: The role of transformational leadership and members' core self-evaluations. *J. Appl. Psych.* 96(5):1004-1017
- Zillig LMP, Hemenover SH, Dienstbier RA (2002) What do we assess when we assess a Big 5 trait? A content analysis of the affective, behavioral, and cognitive processes represented in Big 5 personality inventories. *Personality and Soc. Psych. Bull.* 28(6):847-858.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of and Correlations Among Variables: Teams That Changed Leaders Versus Teams That Did Not Change

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	M	SD
1. Succession Event	1.00	.00	—	-.28	.19*	-.20*	.03	-.19	-.33*	.08	-.08	.13	-.24*	-.36*	-.01	.00	.00
2. Team Performance	61.86	57.83	-.28*	—	-.46*	.05	-.16	.05	.02	-.04	.05	-.16	.05	.02	-.04	104.26	60.40
3. Change in Performance	28.93	75.94	.19*	-.22	—	.05	.05	.06	.00	.09	.05	.05	.06	.00	.09	-6.52	97.31
4. Extroversion – I	3.46	.71	-.20*	.13	.00	—	.43*	.27*	.44*	.56*	1.00	.43*	.27*	.44*	.56*	3.75	.63
5. Agreeableness – I	4.13	.49	.03	-.25	.11	.34*	—	.18	.16	.26*	.43*	1.00	.18	.16	.26*	4.09	.66
6. Conscientiousness – I	4.00	.57	-.19*	.03	-.20	-.09	-.14	—	.29*	.15	.27*	.18	1.00	.29*	.15	4.19	.48
7. Emotional Stability – I	3.77	.67	-.33*	.00	.01	.46*	.28	-.02	—	.17	.44*	.16	.29*	1.00	.17	4.19	.44
8. Openness – I	4.04	.59	.08	.03	.01	.44*	.15	.03	.17	—	.56*	.26*	.15	.17	1.00	3.99	.52
9. Extroversion – S	3.62	.63	-.08	-.05	-.01	-.33*	-.05	-.11	-.21	.02	—	.43*	.27*	.44*	.56*	3.75	.63
10. Agreeableness – S	4.23	.47	.13	-.01	-.19	-.05	-.01	.13	-.10	.07	.44*	—	.18	.16	.26*	4.09	.66
11. Conscientiousness – S	3.94	.60	-.24*	.02	.27	.01	-.13	-.31*	.25	-.06	.01	.06	—	.29*	.15	4.19	.48
12. Emotional Stability – S	3.72	.70	-.36*	.11	.10	-.07	.00	-.14	-.41*	.04	.43*	.33*	.18	—	.17	4.19	.44
13. Openness – S	3.95	.57	-.01	-.01	-.07	-.20	.02	.23	.09	-.08	.38*	.25	.21	.10	—	3.99	.52

Notes. The correlations below the diagonal are from those teams that changed leaders, while above the diagonal are from those teams that did not change. All correlations with the Succession Event are calculated using the entire sample. Means and standard deviations on the left are from those teams that changed leaders, while the means and standard deviations on the right are from those teams that did not change leaders. Correlations with Team Performance and Change in Performance standardized to enhance interpretability, but means were calculated using unstandardized versions. The Five Factor Model were group-mean centered in our analyses and when calculating correlations to enhance interpretability, but we used unstandardized and uncentered versions to calculate means and standard deviations.

I = incumbent, S = successor.

* $p < .05$

Table 2. Panel Event History Analysis Estimates with Robust Standard Errors in the Prediction of Leader Succession Likelihood

	Model 1		Model 2	
	Estimate	<i>p</i>	Estimate	<i>p</i>
Extroversion – I	-.283 (.217)	.193	-.030 (.158)	.848
Extroversion – S	-.154 (.253)	.544	-.320 (.205)	.119
Agreeableness – I	-.488 (.397)	.219	-.343 (.384)	.372
Agreeableness – S	.811 (.341)	.017	-.130 (.421)	.757
Prior Performance	-.356 (.120)	.003	-.372 (.118)	.002
Extroversion Interaction			-1.112 (.203)	< .001
Agreeableness Interaction			-2.637 (.885)	.003

Notes. Robust standard errors in parentheses. I = incumbent, S = successor.

Table 3. Random Effects Panel Regression Estimates with Robust Standard Errors in the Prediction of Performance Change

	Model 1		Model 2	
	Estimate	<i>p</i>	Estimate	<i>p</i>
Extroversion – I	-.099 (.160)	.535	-.036 (.158)	.821
Extroversion – S	.081 (.163)	.619	.109 (.167)	.515
Agreeableness – I	.345 (.288)	.231	.388 (.289)	.179
Agreeableness – S	-.244 (.290)	.400	-.364 (.296)	.218
Leader Succession			.427 (.162)	.008
Index for Extroversion			-.474 [-.900, -.112]	
Index for Agreeableness			-1.126 [-2.479, -.184]	

Notes. Robust standard errors in parentheses for Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Leader Succession only. I = incumbent, S = successor. “Index” represents index of moderated mediation, with corresponding brackets representing Monte Carlo confidence intervals around these indices.

Table 4. Supplemental Analyses: Panel Event History Analysis Estimates with Robust Standard Errors

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	Estimate	<i>p</i>	Estimate	<i>p</i>	Estimate	<i>p</i>	Estimate	<i>p</i>	Estimate	<i>p</i>	Estimate	<i>p</i>
Emotional Stability – I	-.664 (.162)	< .001	-.588 (.155)	< .001								
Emotional Stability – S	-.586 (.153)	< .001	-.336 (.193)	.081								
Openness – I					.275 (.271)	.310	.192 (.296)	.517				
Openness – S					-.147 (.230)	.522	.079 (.232)	.732				
Conscientiousness – I									-.165 (.239)	.490	-.461 (.279)	.098
Conscientiousness – S									-.437 (.212)	.039	-.274 (.236)	.245
Emotional Stability Interaction			-.632 (.134)	< .001								
Openness Interaction							-1.187 (.342)	.001				
Conscientiousness Interaction											-2.122 (.525)	< .001

Notes. Results controlling for team performance (standardized). Robust standard errors in parentheses. I = incumbent, S = successor.

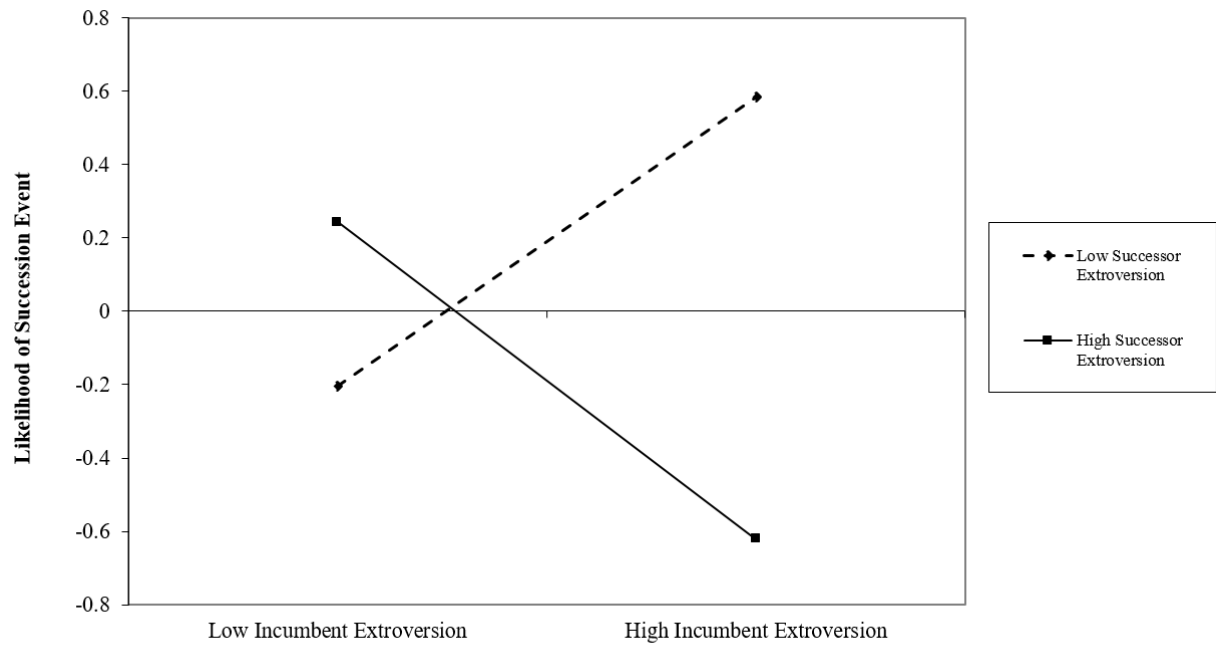
Figure 1. Interaction between Incumbent and Successor Extroversion in the Prediction of Succession Likelihood

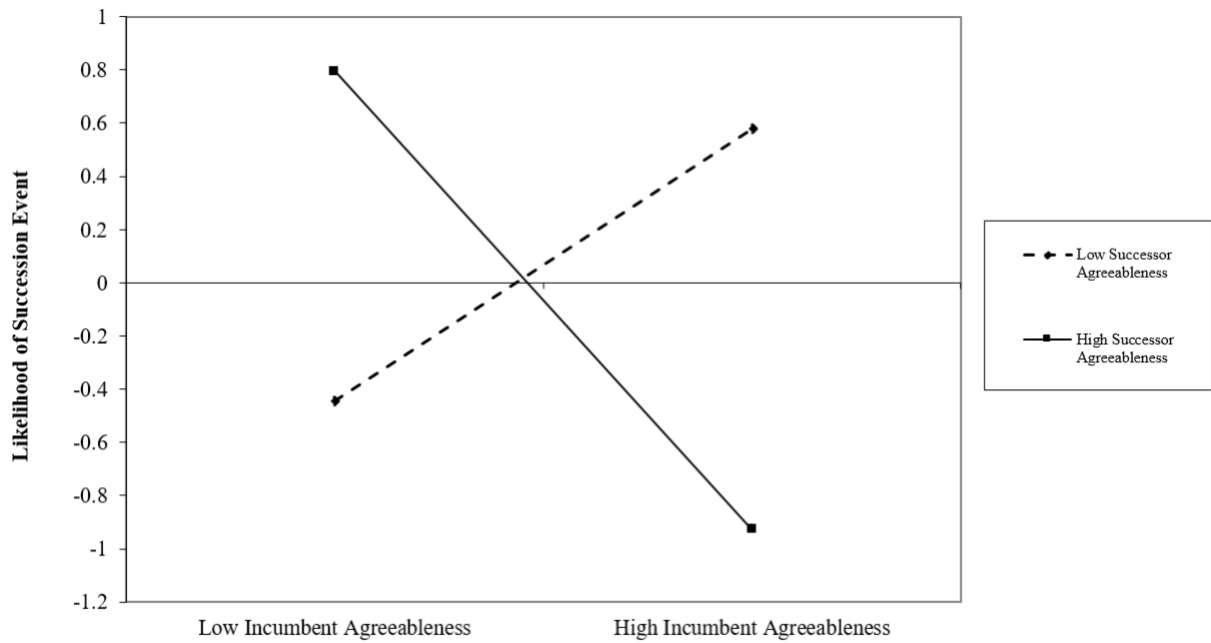
Figure 2. Interaction between Incumbent and Successor Agreeableness in the Prediction of Succession Likelihood

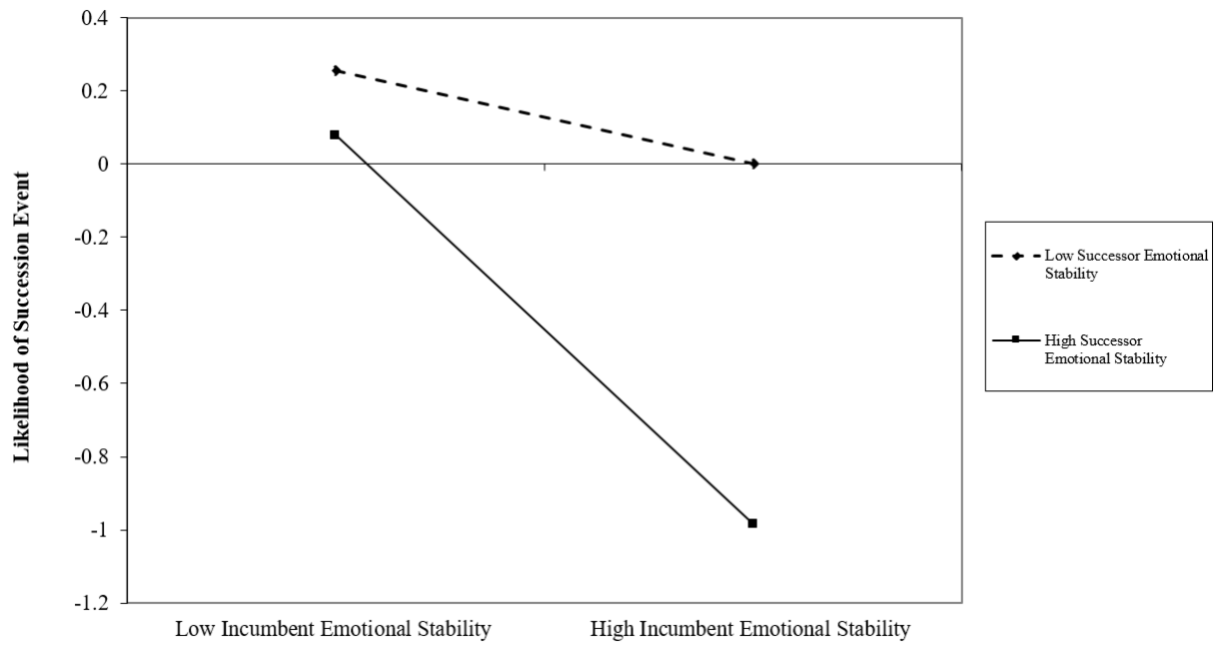
Figure 3. Interaction between Incumbent and Successor Emotional Stability in the Prediction of Succession Likelihood

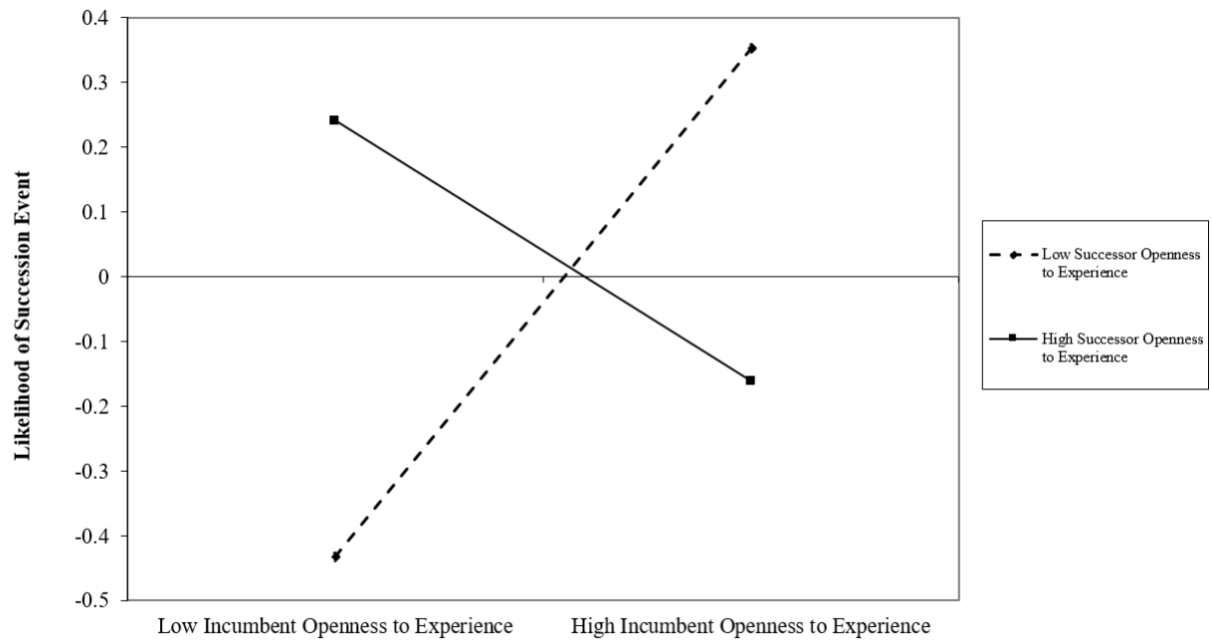
Figure 4. Interaction between Incumbent and Successor Openness in the Prediction of Succession Likelihood

Figure 5. Interaction between Incumbent and Successor Conscientiousness in the Prediction of Succession Likelihood