How would autonomist and autocratic teammates affect individual satisfaction on prefounding entrepreneurship teams?

Chihmao Hsieh & Woo Jin Lee

Published online: 06 Nov 2020.

Submit your article to this journal

View related articles

View Crossmark data
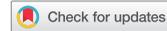
Routledge
Taylor & Francis Group

How would autonomist and autocratic teammates affect individual satisfaction on prefounding entrepreneurship teams?

Chihmao Hsieh [a] and Woo Jin Lee [b]

[a]Business Management Department, SUNY Korea, Korea; [b]Graduate School of Global Entrepreneurship, Kookmin University, Korea

ABSTRACT

We explore how differentially autonomous and autocratic teammates affect each other's exposure to conflict and then satisfaction on prefounding entrepreneurship teams. Data from venture creation courses show that preferences for freedom (from rules) and discretion (over one's job) each have their unique interactive effects, when assessing one's own preferences in light of teammates' preferences. High teamwide preference for independence was not linked to satisfaction, but one's preference for independence interacts with actual interdependence to affect it. High teamwide preference to lead autocratically increases task conflict and diminishes satisfaction. Overall we find that conflict plays no role as a mediating variable.

Introduction

Entrepreneurs are well known for valuing their own autonomy (Hamilton, 2000; Lange, 2012); whether self-employed or sole founder, they can have more control over their time and decision making. But then what happens if entrepreneurial hopefuls find themselves on the same team (Harper, 2008; Timmons, 1975)? Someone entrepreneurial who wants to be their own boss (e.g., an "autonomist" or "autonomist team member") may find it bothersome or disruptive to work with others who also do whatever they want. Of course, a person who prefers to wield authority (e.g., an "autocrat" or "autocratic team member") could grab autonomy by simply commanding others that he be left alone. Yet not everybody can be everybody else's boss. Given autonomist and autocratic teammates motivated to maximize their own satisfaction (Carsrud et al., 2017), much room emerges for conflict or dissatisfaction in the face of attempts at collective entrepreneurial effort.

Focusing on this kind of teammate satisfaction is especially relevant at the earliest stages of entrepreneurially oriented teamwork—for example, in prefounding teams (Emami & Dimov, 2017; Knipfer et al., 2018). Teams formed

in project-based learning settings may not automatically adopt a satisfying collaborative learning culture (Krishnan et al., 2011). Adams (2001) finds that some students in an engineering entrepreneurship class felt indifferent about the usefulness of team training sessions, which indeed may be useless if teammates don't have attitudes and values that fit well together. Venture creation programs at universities have even been found to foster declines in the intention to found start-ups (Von Graevenitz et al., 2010) and also declines in the willingness to engage in creative tasks, as well as enjoyment thereof (Pettersen et al., 2019). Indeed, incompatibilities in personal values related to autonomy and authority may diminish satisfaction in these earliest forms of entrepreneurial teamwork (Arieli et al., 2020).

What happens when we put people who prefer varying levels of autonomy and authority on the same entrepreneurship team? In this article, we examine whether the *aggregation* of greater individual preference (or higher "teamwide preferences") for autonomy and authority fuels conflict and diminishes individual satisfaction on prefounding entrepreneurship teams. Our hypotheses are generated by drawing from past research on self-management and team power, and we collect data from 180 participants across 48 new venture teams in entrepreneurship programs at universities in South Korea and the Netherlands. The effects on satisfaction from each team member's need for autonomy and authority are analyzed in light of his/her teammates' needs. In disentangling autonomy into three classic constructs, we determine that one's preference for freedom (from rules) interacts with teammates' preference for freedom in generating higher task conflict. In contrast, teamwide preference for job discretion apparently opens the door for *higher satisfaction* in the teamwork. While teamwide preference for independence has no effect on conflict or satisfaction, we find an interesting interaction between preference for independence and *actual* interdependence. Finally, we uncover that the need to wield authority found elsewhere within a team diminishes one's amount of exposure to conflict and also heightens one's own satisfaction with the team. Yet the directions of those two effects both reverse as one's own need to wield authority concurrently increases. Therefore, our data suggest that everybody's individual satisfaction in the teamwork drops—and everybody's exposure to conflict rises—when everybody has a higher need for exercising authority. Overall, though, our empirical analysis shows no evidence that intrateam conflict serves to mediate between these teamwide preferences and satisfaction.

We contribute to the literature in three ways. First, we empirically investigate determinants of satisfaction on entrepreneurial teams, distinguishing between preferences for autonomy (i.e., "being your own boss") and preferences for wielding authority (i.e., "being everybody's boss"), disentangling and accounting empirically for the former in terms of freedom from rules, independence from others, and discretion over one's own work. Second, although

research has considered the relevance of personal values to entrepreneurship (Bolzani & Foo, 2018; Fagenson, 1993), and also the relevance of those values to teamwork (Glew, 2009), to the best of our knowledge, we are the first to investigate how prototypically entrepreneurial values at the individual level can paradoxically contribute to conflict and collective (dis)satisfaction during entrepreneurship teamwork. Third, by relating the effects of individual personal values of teammates to their satisfaction on *prefounding teams*, we sidestep the "left censoring" problem in entrepreneurship research (e.g., Aldrich, 1999) and can offer some insight into what kinds of individuals theoretically come together to form founding teams in the first place (Clarysse & Moray, 2004).

The article proceeds as follows. We open by introducing the reader to how satisfaction in prefounding teams corresponds to meeting the goals that reflect personal values related to preference for autonomy and authority. Then we theorize how *teamwide* autonomy and authority preferences affect satisfaction and consider intrateam conflict as a mediating variable. In subsequent sections, we present our data and methods, discuss, and conclude.

Theory and hypotheses development

In general, entrepreneurship teams possess financial equity (Kamm et al., 1990), and their management practices certainly differ from those within large firms (Cooper, 1981; Gartner, 1985). We focus our theory specifically on *prefounding teams*, described as teams that are still selecting the most promising idea, refining business models, and establishing team functioning (Ardichvili et al., 2003; notably, Knipfer et al., 2018). Prefounding teams often struggle with simultaneous task and team challenges (De Mol et al., 2015), especially since they are typically characterized by weak social institutions where behavioral norms and scripts are undefined (Mischel, 1977) and where job descriptions are nonexistent and ambiguous (Staw, 1991). In this early-stage entrepreneurship, "what is important for a venture is that the members stay together and remain excited about the team's ideas" (Foo et al., 2006, p. 390).

Such team-level progress in entrepreneurship often benefits from motivation supported by team member satisfaction (Cooper & Artz, 1995, p. 440; Tekleab et al., 2009). At least job satisfaction—a measure of workers' contentedness and whether or not they like their job, in terms of, e.g., the nature of work or supervision (Cooper & Artz, 1995; Spector, 1997)—can be related to one's personal values or desirable, trans-situational goals that vary in importance as guiding principles in people's lives (Arieli et al., 2020; Ros et al., 1999; Schwartz, 1992). Meeting the goals that represent one's personal values is what leads to satisfaction.

Our study benefits from two specific personal values covered by Schwartz's (1992) seminal framework. He calls one of those personal values "self-direction," which maps directly onto the notion of preference for autonomy.

Autonomy is typically defined by "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 258); to date, virtually no research deeply distinguishes across these three dimensions of autonomy. *Freedom* can be defined generally in terms of "the power to act in absence of subjection to despotic government" (Oxford Dictionary), but in the managerial sense we prefer to adopt the notion of a lack of constraint from organizational rules (e.g., Ahmed, 1998, p. 36). *Independence* typically refers to lack of constraint or influence from the decisions or behaviors of other actors. Greater independence within entrepreneurship, as well as more positive attitudes toward independence, significantly increases the likelihood that people intend to become entrepreneurs (Cassar, 2007; Douglas & Shepherd, 2002; Edelman et al., 2010; Staniewski & Awruk, 2015). Finally, *discretion* refers to control over how one performs one's own job, in light of the amount of variability in that work's process (i.e., Klein, 1991). Self-employment, for example, affords greater discretion in terms of task variety and the joy of pursuing one's own creative methods and thus a richer, more interesting work content (see Gibbs & Levenson, 2002).

Schwartz's (1992) framework of personal values also covers a personal value called *power*. Need for wielding authority relates closely, referring to a person's desire to control, influence, and be in charge of other people or valuable resources so that he or she would see them working in the ways he or she wants (Keltner et al., 2003). Van Gelderen et al. (2017) finds that Russian entrepreneurs predominantly associate autonomy with financial independence and adopt a forceful leadership style to cope with conflicts brought about by fellow stakeholders. Van Gelderen and Jansen (2006) conclude that a person who resists bosses and rules may do well to become the boss and set rules for everybody to follow. Then that person could "direct traffic" in self-serving ways or even just tell others to leave him alone. In this way, authority *over* teammates can additionally serve to grant autonomy *from* teammates, whereby autonomy (e.g., freedom, independence, discretion) is distinguished from authority (control, steering, and responsibility) (Kolvereid, 1996).

Teamwide autonomy preferences and satisfaction

We assume basically that entrepreneurship teamwork requires managing a modicum of intrateam interdependencies (Hsieh et al., 2007). As an autonomist team member pursues more of the independence, freedom, and discretion that she herself prefers, she is prone to resist cooperation with teammates or the organization. This can sabotage any important communicative and cooperative efforts. Her teammates may expend additional extra effort to work with her, additionally disrupting her preferred autonomy; and may

also be forced to collaborate with each other without her, in unplanned, less efficient, and more complicated ways. Any excessive complexity in those teammates' additional coordination may require creating new rules and further suffocating their own independence, freedom, and discretion. Thus the greater the need for autonomy among those teammates the more likely they end up unsatisfied. Now consider how the situation amplifies when not just one team member but all of one's teammates have such high needs for autonomy. In that extreme situation, the simplest condition under which a team member would be able to handle his autonomist teammates would be to be completely nonautonomist. Teams are prone to fall apart if all team members want full independence, freedom, and discretion. A person who works with only autonomist teammates unlatches himself from constraints to pursue greater satisfaction if he has no need for freedom, independence, and discretion.

Similar logic and evidence comes out of the literature on self-managed work teams (SMWTs), described as groups of interdependent individuals that can collectively self-regulate their behavior on relatively whole tasks (e.g., Manz & Sims, 1980). Employees' satisfaction with tasks and occupational performance is expected to increase when their team manages and leads itself (Cohen et al., 1997). However, when teammates attempt to make decisions together to maximize team performance, then individual independence must often give way to communication and coordination (e.g., Langfred, 2005). Daily interactions, ongoing dialog, and discussion of common issues among members are crucial for entrepreneurship on a collective level (Lounsbury, 1998). Communication enables an understanding of each other's views and the emergence of shared understanding and feelings (Comeche & Loras, 2010). The quality of communication (i.e., the ways and means of information exchange within a team) depends on frequency, formalization, structure, and openness (Lechler, 2001), all of which would irritate staunch autonomists. Independence, freedom, and discretion can all be satisfying until other teammates require the same independence, freedom, and discretion, at which point collective effort starts to fall apart.

At the extreme, if all teammates are strictly autonomist, the team will be likely unable to coordinate all the idiosyncratic preferences in scheduling and implementation, and any unmet scheduling and implementation needs will cause dissatisfaction in one's job (see Manz & Angle, 1986). Also, dissatisfaction among teammates—about the team—might lie dormant in the form of grudges or passive-aggressiveness toward one another (McIlduff & Coghlan, 2000). At the very least, a team full of autonomists likely will not interact enough to generate team-level commitment (Moe et al., 2009). The point here is that a team of autonomists could be systematically dissatisfied *even in the absence of overt conflict*. Yet when a team member himself has low to no need for autonomy, he will be more immune to these sources of dissatisfaction.

Empirical research on entrepreneurial and collaborative teamwork does accord with our theory. Noncooperation reflecting autonomist behavior (including lack of tolerance of others views and constant drawing of attention to self in spite of the team) negatively correlates to group performance (Kotey & Matlay, 2007), then also diminishing team member satisfaction with the group. Juvonen (2013, p. 192) describes a course in which some student teammates on an entrepreneurship team were "solo players ... [where] it prevented mutual accountability to develop"; shortly afterward, a third of the team became dissatisfied and dropped out. Lovelace et al. (2001) uncover that the effects of task disagreement on team outcomes is affected by how free members feel in expressing task-related doubts and how contentiously or collaboratively these doubts are expressed. Of course, for autonomists predisposed to not accommodate and listen to others, most of that communication will seem contentious.

H1a: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for independence versus teammate preference for independence is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction.*

H1b: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for freedom versus teammate preference for freedom is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction.*

H1c: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for discretion versus teammate preference for discretion is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction.*

Teamwide authority preferences and satisfaction

Scholars typically remark that entrepreneurial teams are characterized by flat hierarchies and the absence of formal leadership structures (Dos Santos & Spann, 2011; Reich, 1987; Stewart, 1989). Still, a way to be one's own boss on a team is to simply be *everybody else's* boss.[1] The difficulty emerges when *everybody* wants to be the boss. As teammates become more power-hungry and look to exercise authority, they will become more inclined to worry about their standing vis-à-vis each other, since everyone is likely to act to protect and promote their own individual goals, desires, perspectives, feelings, and positions over those of others (Keltner et al., 2008; Van Kleef et al., 2008).[2] This can lead team members to become highly sensitive to displays of authority in the team (see Spataro et al.,

---

[1]A large empirical study by Wasserman (2012) shows that, besides autonomy, authority plays a big role in motivating a large percentage of entrepreneurs. Specifically, he finds that autonomy and power are the top two motivators (out of 13 total) for male entrepreneurs in their 20s through 40s; and female entrepreneurs in their 20s and 30s.
[2]Wasserman (2012, p. 119) finds that founders regularly complain, "Everyone wants to be CEO." He reports one founder admitting, "I have noticed that we are all trying to jockey for the leader role."

2014), which can lead to paranoia and a heightened state of quiet anxiety, suspicion, and distrust (Kramer, 2001) with negative effects on satisfaction. Wasserman (2012, esp. ch. 5) presents anecdotal evidence not only that cofounders are often autocratic and all like to be the boss but also that satisfaction can drop so much that teams fall apart when there are more than two people trying to lead a team. Satisfaction in the team can drop due to unmanaged or nontransparent grudges between teammates (Jehn, 1995); Wasserman (2012) finds founders who lose out from becoming CEO lamenting, "I feel like the lesser of the founders." Yet satisfaction in one's own work could also drop due to the role ambiguity that materializes amid constant negotiation between autocratic teammates under entrepreneurial uncertainty (Morris et al., 1979) even before tasks are assigned and overt conflicts start to emerge. Thus both satisfaction in one's job and satisfaction in one's team are at risk, but a team member is more likely immune to these sources of dissatisfaction if he is nonautocratic in the first place with no interest in wielding power or authority.

Our analysis broaches the subject of *shared leadership*, defined as the presence of two or more active top management team leaders at the helm (Agarwal et al., 2020; Carson et al., 2007; Ensley et al., 2006, 2003). While there is very little research regarding the effects of personal values on shared leadership on entrepreneurial teams (see Hensel & Visser, 2018), the broader leadership literature (Reid et al., 2018; Simsek et al., 2015; Vecchio, 2003) offers some support for our approach. Hoegl and Muethel (2016) show that team leaders are often unprepared or unwilling to share leadership responsibility. Muethel and Hoegl (2013), in their study on shared leadership in independent professional teams, argue that independent professionals are more likely to adhere to social influence by other team members when it is rewarding, but this can be difficult when autocratic teammates are meting out punishment to each other on their own terms, independent of one's own ex ante behavior (Hoel et al., 2010). The literature addressing so-called coleadership also finds anecdotal evidence that organizations do not meet their potential if coleaders "tried to operate with the same style of dominant single personalities ... [without] spreading the responsibility and delegating authority" (Sally, 2002, p. 91).

H2: *The interaction effect between one's own need for authority versus teammates' need for authority is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction.*

Teamwide autonomy preferences, conflict, and satisfaction

Even though teamwide autonomy preferences may directly affect satisfaction, we also identify conflict as a possible mediating factor.[3] There is barely any research

---

[3]The mediation of an interaction is a concept that sees little exposure in the literature. To the best of our knowledge, the first instance of this concept is spelled out in Baron and Kenny's (1986) seminal piece on p. 1179. Their description of the idea is as we have utilized it.

explicitly examining this intervening effect. If autonomist teammates have personal values of self-direction and absolute needs for freedom, independence, and discretion, this selfishness can complicate coordination that manifests into overt irritation on the team (relationship conflict) or interfere with executing jobs (task conflict). First, managing the emotional conflict in relationships with selfish autonomist teammates would pull an autonomist away from attending to performing her tasks as she wishes (Lepine & Dyne, 2001), thus damaging satisfaction in her own job; any resulting antagonism would reduce satisfaction from collaborating with the team (Pelled et al., 1999).

Second, autonomists may have so much difficulty in their coordination that overt interpersonal task conflict between them becomes inevitable, reducing efficiency, effectiveness, or volition of independent effort and reducing satisfaction in their jobs. General satisfaction with the team may also be reduced. Manz and Angle (1986, p. 321) present the case of an insurance firm operating in a service industry where individual autonomy among agents was the industry norm; a senior team member subsequently forced into a self-managed work team suggested that conflict had emerged as he lamented that teammates were "on a constant ego trip.... We have several different personalities. These people don't know how to cooperate." Furthermore, Langfred's (2004) work on individual-level autonomy within self-managed teams explicitly suggests that autonomists are especially at risk of free-riding. Such slacking can lead other team members to waste task-related time and resources assisting, correcting, or explaining things to the autonomist loafer. In a particularly notable case covered by Jassawalla et al. (2009), a team member remarked that

> two members often engage in side conversation while we are in the middle of a team discussion.... [i]t slows these members down and the rest of the group is affected. This causes unrest in the group as it is very distracting. (p. 46)

In this way, increased teamwide autonomy could lead to pervasive loafing-related conflict that in turn diminishes satisfaction. This conflict may lower intrateam trust, which then leads to the introduction of policies that reduce the amount of individual autonomy afforded to teammates (Langfred, 2007). Thus, autonomists are systemically at risk of not acquiring the autonomy (and thus satisfaction) they actually prefer.

Watson et al. (1995) have found interpersonal flexibility, open sharing of information, and personal communication focused on problem solving to be core dimensions of interpersonal process effectiveness. These scholars also have suggested "helpfulness" as a core component. Helpfulness involves helping one another beyond what is required, as well as friendliness and cooperation that are oriented toward interactions with others. Other scholars have recognized mutual help, support, and solidarity as core facets of entrepreneurship at the collective level (Comeche & Loras, 2010; Lechler, 2001; Lounsbury, 1998). However,

autonomists who want to be their own boss would not be inclined to focus on others in preventing the kind of conflict that diminishes satisfaction.

H3a: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for independence versus teammate preference for independence is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences.*

H3b: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for freedom versus teammate preference for freedom is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences.*

H3c: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for discretion versus teammate preference for discretion is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences.*

H4a: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for independence versus teammate preference for independence is indirectly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.*

H4b: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for freedom versus teammate preference for freedom is indirectly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.*

H4c: *The interaction effect between one's own preference for discretion versus teammate preference for discretion is indirectly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.*

Teamwide authority preferences, conflict, and satisfaction

Both relationship conflict and task conflict could mediate between teamwide need for authority and one's individual satisfaction. People hungry for power tend to seek central positions in their social relationships (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009). When various team members simultaneously wrestle for social dominance and status, much conflict often results because such social resources are scarce and hard to allocate across multiple members (Overbeck et al., 2005). Autocrats are less likely to behave politely toward others (Keltner et al., 2008) and are more likely to engage in aggressive, conflictual behaviors (e.g., Anderson & Berdahl, 2002). Chan and Chen (2010) refer to the conflict that arises in learning teams due to "egocentricity." When two autocrats contend for power, they may gossip about each other or flatter other members in recruiting them onto their side. Furthermore, they may seek to dominate team meetings, pushing their selfish interests and interrupting each other's rivalrous input. Additional task conflict is generated if autocratic cofounders

are unable to relinquish supervisory control, potentially engaging in surveillance as a method for monitoring each other's behaviors (see Jensen & Raver, 2012). As members' energy, time, and attention are finite, expending these resources in power struggles can end up crowding out teammates' time, energy, and attention for the more critical team goals (Jehn, 1995). Conversely, groups with nonautocratic team members will not encounter such conflict because teammates are more willing to yield to one another. Indeed, lab research has shown that high-power teams end up experiencing more intragroup conflict (Ronay et al., 2012). In this way, a nonautocratic team member is less likely—compared to an autocrat—to report experiencing conflict when his teammates *on average* have high interests in wielding authority. He can just get out of the way and avoid their power struggles.

Such autocrat-driven conflict can dramatically reduce one's satisfaction. The typical manners in which a set of power-hungry teammates struggle for power creates tension and hostility (Georgesen & Harris, 2006), which erodes psychological safety (De Hoogh et al., 2015), intrateam trust (De Jong & Elfring, 2010), and members' willingness to share information and forge cooperation (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Greer & van Kleef, 2010). Power-hungry teammates would reduce the level of intense, mutually shared positive feelings for a collective team identity, thus impairing the formation of team entrepreneurial passion (Cardon, 2008; Cardon et al., 2017; Ho & Pollack, 2014; also see Smith et al., 1995). Perceived incompatibilities give rise to conflict that can also lead to a variety of negative emotions (Bell & Song, 2005) such as frustration, resentment, and anger (Stearns, 1972), diminishing satisfaction and harming team viability. Finally, if autocratic cofounders assert their status interests by challenging or defending their status position, closing off communication or coordination, they may make suboptimal decisions that hurt the group's task performance and satisfaction with the team (Van Der Vegt et al., 2000). Nonautocrats who step out of the way of conflict in the first place will feel less damaging effect to their satisfaction.

Research on autocratic leadership shows just how damaging it can be, especially when we see multiple autocrats on the same team. Eisenhardt and Bourgeouis (1988) stress that autocratic CEOs engage in politics and generate political behavior among subordinates (Boeker, 1992; Kaplan, 2008). Creasy and Carnes (2017) show that this kind of bullying has detrimental effects on behavior and perceptions at individual levels. In their recent study of the Japanese cotton spinning industry spanning three decades, Agarwal et al. (2020) show that stable shared leadership is extremely difficult to maintain, and power struggles typically lead to discord-induced leadership departures, lack of firm growth, and eventual exit. When everybody isn't trying to be everybody else's boss, a door closes on the conflict that fosters dissatisfaction among teammates.

H5a: *The interaction effect between one's own need for authority versus team-mates' need for authority is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences.*

H5b: *The interaction effect between one's own need for authority versus team-mates' need for authority is negatively related to one's satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.*

While we claim that an increasing need for authority across all of one's teammates increases one's exposure to conflict, existing research shows that dispersion in this need has a separate effect. *Dispersion* here refers to differentials in the need to wield authority among teammates (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Dispersion is higher, for example, when the most autocratic team member has far greater need to wield authority than the others. Past theorizing has suggested that power dispersion cuts down on conflict by communicating norms about entitlement, which smoothens social interactions and simplifies resource allocation decisions (Keltner et al., 2008). So-called dominance complementarity theory (Kiesler, 1983) suggests that proactive and assertive individuals can work better with those adopting submissive and passive roles (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and previous studies do find that individuals pursuing social dominance tend to report better interpersonal relationships when they work with those who do not have such orientation (e.g., Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). Across a sample of 51 new venture management teams, Foo et al. (2006) find that the presence of a distinct, singular leader—viewed by team members as the one clearly in charge—improved team satisfaction. We expect a similar outcome in how intrateam dispersion of need for wielding authority directly affects one's exposure to conflict.[4]

H5c: *The difference between one's own need for authority and the maximum need for authority found elsewhere on the team is negatively related to the amount of conflict one experiences.*

Effects from need for independence versus actual interdependence

Finally, we wish to account for actual interdependencies. According to Langfred and Moye (2004, p. 939), "granting autonomy increases the freedom to act more independently. As a result, giving autonomy to individuals in a situation requiring high coordination could at best accomplish nothing and at worst incur severe process losses as interaction and coordination decrease." At the same

---

[4]Power-sensitive members do not always wrestle each other for power. Changes in strategy or environment generate external resource threats or internal team dynamics that serve as triggers (Van Bunderen et al., 2018). When teammates are all sacrificing their effort and investing their (specialized) human resources for a venture with an unknown future, entrepreneurial survival may function as such a trigger.

time, "when tasks are characterized by lower interdependence, individuals can work relatively independently, and greater individual autonomy would allow them to take advantage of unique task-specific knowledge …". In this case, a lesser preference for autonomy at best offers no benefit and at worst makes it possible for teammates to meddle with the valuable unique application of that knowledge. The most satisfaction generated within the individual likely obtains when people who prefer high levels of independence also need not be concerned at all about interdependencies, and when people who prefer low levels of independence manage and appreciate all the interdependencies surrounding them. In other words, the *absolute* difference in magnitude between actual task interdependencies and preference for independence is what positively relates to satisfaction.

In relation to interpersonal conflict, however, a standard multiplicative interaction materializes. When a team member has a high preference for independence, then a high level of task interdependence opens the door for conflict: As Sprigg et al. (2000, p. 1524) remark, "There are costs rather than gains in involving others in decisions that are of no consequence to [team members] in the completion of their own tasks." Langfred (2005, p. 516) and Manz (1992, p. 1133) make the same argument. A lower preference for independence at a fixed level of task interdependence will reduce one's exposure to conflict, as we would also find if lowering task interdependence while keeping one's preference for independence constant. When actual interdependence and preference for independence are both low, we expect that one experiences low conflict but also experiences too little socialization to be satisfied.

H6: *The difference in magnitude between actual task interdependence and preference for independence positively relates to one's satisfaction.*

H7: *Task interdependence and one's preference for independence interact with a positive effect on the amount of conflict one experiences.*

Data and methods

Survey data from 180 team members across 48 student teams (ranging from two to five members per team) were collected from semester-long venture creation programs at two major public universities—one in the Netherlands and one in South Korea—between 2013 and 2017. Both programs were based on problem-based learning (Carvalho, 2016; Okudan & Rzasa, 2006), requiring students to collaborate in designing, prototyping, financing, and developing marketing strategies (Fang, 2012; Sullivan et al., 2001), and were open to virtually all undergraduate students at the respective universities.

Students self-selected into teams within the first two weeks. The composition of majors on each team was largely heterogeneous, as more than 15

majors were typically represented each semester, typically including the social sciences, prelaw, premedicine, business, and the physical sciences. Rarely was a team comprised of predominantly business majors. The interdisciplinary nature of the teams supported important aspects of entrepreneurship, student involvement, and learning that would not have occurred through a more traditional class project (Bhowmick et al., 2015). Because the students' experiences were real, we expect that they were able to reflect on their personal identities and values as they made decisions on their teams (McCord et al., 2015).

Ideas were generated as teams were formed. Thus, for the entire data set, some teams were formed before their team ideas were finalized, and other times a "champion" pitched his or her idea to eventual teammates. Regardless, all teams were expected to identify a problem, pain, or need and collaborate to search for a basic solution. Such problem-based learning is increasingly used in management education to help students develop critical thinking and teamwork skills (Bhowmick et al., 2015; Carvalho, 2016). Within the first four to five weeks of the course, they needed to deliver a "planning document" that outlined their expected schedule and anticipated progress for the remainder of the semester.

Teams self-organized, determined roles, and developed the organizational structure for designing and creating actual functional product prototypes or running service pilots, with the "stretch goal" of launching an actual company shortly after the program was over (Sullivan et al., 2001). Each team was required to submit business plan drafts and give practice presentations ("pitches") during the semester. Throughout the semester, guest lectures were offered to teach the students about surveys, teamwork, and intellectual property. At semester's end, the teams gave final presentations. Grades were determined mainly via team deliverables (e.g., business plans, progress reports, and product prototypes or service pilots) and 360-degree peer evaluations. One major difference within our data collection was that the Korean program encompassed a 16-week semester while the Dutch teams followed a 22-week semester.

We collected data on autonomy and authority preferences from teams at or shortly before the first day of the programs and then collected data on conflict and satisfaction after program completion. Such a setting was valuable for this study insofar that students are essentially forced into a team, from minimal networking, and stay in a team for the entire program. We can attest that teams were rarely formed—even partially—from friends. We also saw value in looking at satisfaction of teammates when the team is constrained to stay together. First, all teams are together for the same amount of time, when satisfaction data are collected. Supposedly, all teams will have thus been exposed to each other's needs for authority and autonomy for the same amount of time. But secondly, and more pointedly, our data collection does

not run the risk of survivor bias. Theoretically, different teams or team members can have different thresholds for determining whether to quit or not; some team members might quit if they are a little bit dissatisfied, while others would have to be totally dissatisfied before they quit. However, because our participants received credit from this university programming only upon completion, they essentially could not quit their team. By forcing all teams to conceive simultaneously and stay together for a significant amount of time, we believe that we obtain a range of satisfaction data wider than otherwise possible.[5]

Dependent variable

Satisfaction

Team member satisfaction has been distinguished in terms of satisfaction with one's own work versus satisfaction relationally with the team. Satisfaction with one's job[6] (while on a team) has been related to psychological empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011), supervisor support (Griffin et al., 2001), and job complexity (Van Der Vegt et al., 2000). Member satisfaction with the team has been associated with positive outcomes such as lower absenteeism (Dineen et al., 2007), greater creativity (Thatcher & Greer, 2008), and enhanced team performance (Kong et al., 2015). In particular, satisfaction with the entrepreneurial team has been suggested to lead to perseverance in young ventures (Foo et al., 2006).

There exist a variety of surveys that measure satisfaction, such as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ: Weiss et al., 1967), the Overall Job Satisfaction Scale (OJS: Brayfield & Rothe, 1951), and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS: Hackman & Oldham, 1974). However, their survey items of job satisfaction typically ask general questions about work and its perceived purpose (e.g., OJS: "My job seems like a hobby to me" or MSQ: "In my present job, I feel satisfied about the way my job provides for steady employment") and ask about likelihood of absenteeism or quitting a job (e.g., OJS: "Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work" or JDS: "I frequently think of quitting this job"). In contrast, we aimed to distinguish between two aspects of work satisfaction—job satisfaction and satisfaction in one's team—and our empirical setting is a semester-long university course centered around a specific venture where quitting is highly unlikely.

Because we could not find an existing set of measures that met our needs, we developed our own survey items. Work satisfaction is thus operationalized

---

[5]Examples of venture ideas tackled during the program were a stylish personal pouch for diabetes health care, a nutritional effervescent drink tablet for college students, and stickers designed to beautify and draw attention to emergency equipment in office settings.

[6]Because entrepreneurship teams can be so informal, we prefer using the word "work" to describe each team member's set of tasks. However, the literature heavily focuses on "job satisfaction." Thus we use the phrase "satisfaction with work/job/role" interchangeably.

here in terms of one's satisfaction in quantity and importance of (a) own assigned responsibilities, (b) own decisions, and (c) own resulting performance contributions. Each of those three categories was measured with the two survey items (quantity, importance: 5-point Likert scale from *agree* to *disagree*). We take a raw average of the Likert scores across these six survey items.[7] Each team member thus has their own work satisfaction score (Cronbach's α = 0.88). In contrast, satisfaction in one's team is defined as the average of satisfaction *about each of one's teammates* regarding their behavior, action, and attitude. Respondents were shown the single statement "General satisfaction with a teammate is defined here in terms of his/her behavior for the entire team (not just you)" and were asked to rate on 5-point scales each of their teammates from *very low* satisfaction to *very high* satisfaction.

Mediating variable

Work conflict

Like much of the literature, we distinguish between task conflict and relationship conflict and highlight their effect on satisfaction. Task conflict is characterized by disagreement among group members regarding decisions, viewpoints, ideas, and opinions (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Even though task conflict often is associated with higher team performance, on a team of autonomists we see it more likely causing "tension, antagonism, and unhappiness among group members" and leading to "an unwillingness to work together in the future" (Bisseling et al., 2011, p. 156). Bisseling et al. (2011) found that, for both the Netherlands and Brazil, significant proof was found for a negative association between task conflict and job satisfaction.

In contrast, relationship conflict is described as the perception of interpersonal incompatibility between individuals, and it is often characterized by animosity, suspicion, tension, and hostility within the group (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Simons & Peterson, 2000). Empirical research in new product development teams shows that relationship conflict results in negative feelings (via frustration and stress) and lowers satisfaction of team members (Barczak & Wilemon, 2003). Team members exposed to high amounts of relationship conflict may deduce that "there is a lot wrong with the department, the people in it, and their own jobs" (De Dreu & Beersma, 2005, p. 111). Relationship conflict may also limit the information processing ability of team members due to the fact that members spend their energy focusing on the personal antagonisms rather than on the task (Simons & Peterson, 2000), thus lowering satisfaction with one's own role.

---

[7]As evidenced by Schjoedt (2009), Hackman and Oldham's (1976) task identity variable was actually not found to be relevant to job satisfaction on entrepreneurial teams. He hypothesizes that entrepreneurs may not experience the end of a task or its viable outcome due to constantly handing off completion of tasks to others (i.e., one's employees). For this kind of reason, it is not included in our analysis.

Our survey items measuring task conflict and relationship conflict are adapted from Simons and Peterson (2000, p. 106). To measure task conflict, we ask team members how often they disagreed with teammates regarding strategic issues in the venture and also how often they disagreed with teammates regarding the appropriate goals and objectives (α = 0.88). To measure relationship conflict, we asked team members how often they experienced personality clashes with teammates and also whether they held a personal grudge with teammates by the end of the nascency period (see Ward et al., 2007). In order, scale anchors were *everyday, a couple times a week, a few times a month, once a month*, and *never* (reverse-scored) (α = 0.74).[8]

Independent variables

Autonomy and authority variables

Although we adapt autonomy survey items from Barling et al. (2003, p. 279), we follow Hackman and Oldham (1976) and distinguish among autonomy from bosses and teammates ("independence"), autonomy from formalized rules or corporate culture ("freedom"), and autonomy over job design ("discretion"). Each of these types of autonomy, if teamwide, may generate conflict that inhibits or interferes with team satisfaction.

To measure preference for independence, we asked respondents to agree or disagree (on 5-point Likert scales: 0 = *strongly disagree*) with the two statements "I need to work without being constrained by a boss" and "I need to work without being constrained by peers or colleagues" (α = 0.63). For freedom, we gave respondents the single statement "I need to work without being constrained by rules." We also asked all respondents their need for discretion over the following: type of work, how that work is done, when work is started and finished, and the pace of work (anchors: *none, a little, some, a lot*) (α = 0.72).

Both literatures on "need for power" (McClelland & Burnham, 1976) or "need for dominance" (Bateman & Crant, 1993) highlight that power is wielded when an authority goes against institutionalized rules or the preferences of others. Published measures generally do not draw clear boundaries between these concepts. For authority, we expanded on authority-oriented items by Steers and Braunstein (1976)[9] and took the average of the following four items (5-point Likert *agree/disagree*):

- I desire to steer the organization according to my own preference, even though my preference conflicts with the preferences of others.

---

[8]Status conflict, or disputes over people's relative status positions in their group's social hierarchy (Bendersky & Hays, 2012), was not considered an issue since virtually all members of the teams were similarly aged culturally similar university students with essentially no work experience.

[9]For example, Steers and Braunstein (1976) measure both need for autonomy and need for dominance, and one item is "I go my own way at work, regardless of the opinions of others." When such preference involves steering the entire organization in the face of resistance, we consider this to reflect an authoritative disposition.

- I desire to steer the organization according to my own preference, even though my preference conflicts with accepted rules.
- I desire to steer the organization according to my own preference, even if I might guess that my preference is an illogical one. (x)
- I desire to steer the organization according to my own preference, even if I know that it might hurt other organizational members in a professional way.

The logic behind this formulation was to focus not only on team members' desire for the capacity for power but on their desire to wield authority. If a team member wanted to steer an organization in a direction, and it matched his teammate's directional preference, then even if he might have power already vested to "steer the organization according to his preference," he wouldn't have to wield any authority to carry out his preference. Cronbach's alpha for this four-item scale was just below the marginally acceptable level of 0.6; however, when we carried out exploratory factor analysis, the first, second, and fourth items in this list all loaded on the single factor, while the third item (denoted with an x above) did not load. When it was dropped, Cronbach's alpha for the three-item set rose to 0.60. Hair et al. (2009) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) both present that an alpha of 0.60 is minimally acceptable, especially reasonable for scales in exploratory research with as low as three items. By calculating all team members' need to wield authority, we were also able to calculate the difference in that need between a focal team member and the most autocratic teammate from the remaining team members.

Respect for authority

One can also have generalized attitudes or a personality that respects others' authority (e.g., Rigby & Rump, 1979). Respect for authority, at times blurred with "obedience to authority" (Ent & Baumeister, 2015, p. 232; Milgram, 1965), has been studied in organizational communication (Loehr, 1995), managerial psychology (Newman & Sheikh, 2012), and cultural studies (Hofstede, 1983). Notably, Schaubroeck et al. (2007) describe how teams with "greater respect for authority … may be more open to leaders' influence attempts," and "more willing to emulate their leaders and to follow through on suggestions to rethink approaches to work and to work collaboratively" (p. 1022).

We were worried that preference to wield authority might be correlated with respect for (others') authority more generally. In such a case, one's satisfaction in a team when teammates all respect each other's authority may empirically hide one's dissatisfaction when everybody wants to be the boss. By omitting a variable measuring teamwide respect for authority, we run the risk of inadvertently covering up in our empirics how teamwide need to wield authority diminishes satisfaction. Then need for authority may incorrectly not show up as a significant factor.

Respect for authority has been measured by Yang et al. (1989), but their measure is societal in nature (i.e., including items regarding attitude toward marriage). Thus, we collected data on respondents' "respect for others' authority" by devising five from French and Raven's (1959) bases of power (e.g., "I respect others' authority when they have power to fire or demote me" aligns with coercive power). The item "I respect others' authority when they are also charming"—which aligns with referent power—was dropped as it was the only item not to load on our single factor. Cronbach's alpha for our measure of respect for authority was 0.63.

Knowledge-sharing benefits

Team collaboration typically involves knowledge sharing (Andres & Shipps, 2010), which can invite additional chances for conflict. However, we also expect that the amount of knowledge accumulated via learning from each other in the face of conflict could represent a reward toward human capital and help reduce negative effects on job satisfaction and also represent an indicator of feedback among teammates, considered to be a core job characteristic contributing to job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Knowledge sharing was measured by asking each team member to agree or disagree (5-point Likert scale) with the following statement for each teammate: "I have learned a lot about how to do my job in the venture, by listening to _____."

Team size

Team size, surprisingly, has not been extensively studied in relation to conflict and performance. Amason and Sapienza (1997) look at the effects of top management team size on conflict, and Yang et al. (2011) look at the relationship between team size and project performance. According to our theory, we expect that greater size of entrepreneurial teams (thus engaging in highly uncertain and dynamic activity) will leave less room for task autonomy (Elfenbein et al., 2010) and significantly opens the door for more social loafing and conflict (Aggarwal & O'Brien, 2008).

Actual interdependence and independence-interdependence interactions

We asked each team member how much interdependence they encountered with each of their teammates, via the survey item "My own organizational decisions and actions have affected or been dependent upon the decisions and actions of _____" with a 5-point Likert agreement scale. The interdependence variable in our empirics is based on calculating the task interdependence one experiences, averaged in relation to all of one's teammates.

Gender

To the best of our knowledge, no research finds a direct general effect between gender and satisfaction at work. However, gender can play a role in conflict,

even though empirical evidence seems to support a variety of hypotheses. Gbadamosi et al. (2014) find that female students more likely used a competitive style of conflict resolution, while male students were more conflict avoidant. On the other hand, Holt and DeVore (2005) find that females are more likely to endorse the use of compromising than males, regardless of culture. Eagly and Johnson (1990) determined that women tended to adopt a more democratic, less autocratic style than did men.

We do not include a variety of control variables typically included in research on team conflict. Neither age nor race are included since they are highly homogeneous within teams in our data set: Dutch students were basically teamed with each other, and Korean national students were teamed with each other. In addition, due to the nature of the courses, student age did not vary significantly (almost all ranging within two to three years). Finally, we do not have data on incentives or performance for this stage of entrepreneurial nascency. While a venture's financial performance could keep cofounders around in hopes of a big payday, financial success is uncommon in the earliest stages of entrepreneurship. Nonfinancial team performance is hard to assess or measure objectively without bias.

Methods

Repeated use of simple mediation is not as valuable as a multiple mediation framework in our context (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Wood et al., 2008). Therefore we conducted a multilevel multiple mediation model via generalized structural equation modeling (e.g., the GSEM tool kit in STATA). We conducted confirmatory factor analysis to measure discriminant validity among our explanatory variables. Evidence that common method variance does not account for the observed relationships would turn up if our multifactor model, representing each variable as a separate construct, is superior to a one-factor model.

We decided to run our GSEM analysis with country random intercepts for each of the mediators and dependent variables because we expected that different cultures would relate to different sets of entrepreneurship-oriented personal values across countries (Roccas & Sagiv, 2010). For example, national cultures differ in whether they tend to resolve conflict or avoid it in the first place; and cultures also differ in their baseline sensitivity to individualism and collectivism, possibly reflected by satisfaction in the job and the team respectively.[10]

---

[10]We also considered that our authority-oriented variables should be handled via random slopes, due to the difference in power distance for Korea versus the Netherlands. However, when we compared correlation coefficients of these variables for our Korean versus Dutch data via *z*-scores, we found no meaningful difference and thus little reason to consider this for our model.

Results

Table 1 shows our summary statistics. Some participants had very low satisfaction with all of their teammates, but nobody was dissatisfied with their job to the similar extreme. Furthermore, while some participants had extreme amounts of task conflict with their team, nobody reported the extreme amount for relationship conflict. There are some notable correlations. One's experience with relationship conflict and task conflict were moderately positively correlated. Preference for work freedom is highly positively correlated to preference for work independence. Knowledge sharing correlated positively with one's satisfaction with the team.

We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to check our common method variance among the following variables in our study: both satisfaction variables, both conflict variables, the three autonomy variables, and the two authority variables. The result showed that the seven-factor model (conflict, autonomy, and authority variables) offered a significantly better fit for our data, thus indicating that severe common method variance was absent.

Of our three main autonomy-based variables, Table 1 shows that preferences for freedom and independence are particularly correlated. To get a better grasp of our empirics, we highlight in Table 2 the distribution of our data according to some three-way cross-tabs. Only one respondent out of 180 expressed total dislike for independence from teammates. The data do seem to be slightly concentrated within the extremes. Note that precisely one-third of our study's participants were measured agreeing that they prefer both independence and freedom while working on teams.

Is there a statistically significant difference in autonomy preference for different team sizes? After all, although teams only had a week or so to form, and so there is quite some randomness in the combinations of students, we suppose that team members could welcome or block off additional teammates as teams started to form. Figure 1 shows a set of tables comparing a participant's ex ante preferences for autonomy and authority, compared to the size of the team s/he ended up on. We ran chi-squared tests, comparing our autonomy and authority variables to team size. Freedom from rules, independence from others, and discretion over the job were all unassociated to team size ($p = .124$, $p = .652$, $p = .094$ respectively). Need for authority was associated to team size at $p = .007$.

Table 3 shows results from our GSEM specification and Table 4 summarizes our findings. We find some direct effects of preferences for autonomy and authority on satisfaction. Satisfaction in one's job was positively associated with one's own preference for work independence, while also positively associating with teammates' preference for work independence. We do not find evidence of a negative interaction effect of those two variables.[11] Increasing need

---

[11]Respect for authority showed up mildly statistically significant in our data. One's respect for authority ($p < .01$) and teammate respect for authority ($p < .005$) both related to diminished satisfaction with one's job, with no counter-acting interaction effect.

Table 1. Summary statistics ($N = 180$ for all variables; asterisk indicates significance at .05 level).

Correlation coefficients

Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)
(1) Satisfaction in the team	2.850	0.840	0	4																								
(2) Satisfaction in one's job	3.015	0.638	1	4	0.4644*																							
(3) Task conflict	0.651	0.741	0	4	-0.2579*	-0.2843*																						
(4) Relationship conflict	0.421	0.588	0	3	-0.5363*	-0.3191*	0.5818*																					
(5) Freedom	2.419	0.941	0	4	-0.0444	-0.0138	0.1158	-0.0145																				
(6) Independence	2.268	0.819	0	4	0.0109	0.0258	0.0100	0.0588	0.5942*																			
(7) Discretion	2.027	0.493	0	3	0.0137	0.0949	-0.0293	-0.0119	0.1300	0.1146																		
(8) Need for authority	1.692	0.701	0	4	-0.0336	0.0445	0.1731*	0.1122	0.3000*	0.1941*	0.0398																	
(9) Respect for authority	2.672	0.613	0.75	4	0.0241	0.0374	-0.1600*	-0.1040	-0.1890*	-0.1551*	0.0262	-0.1380																
(10) Others' freedom	2.419	0.564	0.667	4	-0.003	0.0445	0.0771	0.0756	-0.0176	-0.0367	-0.0416	-0.0322	-0.0014															
(11) Others' independence	2.268	0.483	1.25	3.750	0.0268	0.0858	0.0797	0.0963	-0.0372	-0.0614	0.0053	-0.0697	-0.0709	0.5322*														
(12) Others' discretion	2.027	0.323	0.917	2.833	0.0912	0.0835	0.1048	0.1106	-0.0381	0.0048	0.0705	0.0116	-0.0129	0.0779	0.0829													
(13) Others' need for authority	1.541	0.404	0.5	3	0.0444	0.0294	0.1440	-0.0485	0.0051	-0.0296	0.0285	0.0065	0.1032	0.2483*	0.1114	0.0760												
(14) Others' respect for authority	2.696	0.353	1.5	3.8	0.0944	0.0198	-0.0931	-0.0656	0.0292	-0.0222	0.0049	0.0478	-0.0521	-0.1002	-0.0634	0.0516	-0.0557											
(15) Freedom interaction	5.844	2.686	0	14	-0.0577	-0.0019	0.1375	0.0470	0.8261*	0.4888*	0.0813	0.2304*	-0.1695*	0.5101*	0.2548*	0.0000	0.1089	-0.0296									
(16) Independence interaction	5.120	2.155	0	12	0.0188	0.0548	0.0225	0.0732	0.5037*	0.8373*	0.1026	0.1317	-0.1795*	0.2462*	0.4590*	0.0178	0.0144	-0.0610	0.5817*								
(17) Discretion interaction	4.119	1.253	0	7.375	0.0714	0.1279	0.0232	0.0424	0.0863	0.0902	0.8412*	0.0361	0.0146	-0.0001	0.0275	0.5861*	0.0415	0.0375	0.0647	0.0777							
(18) Need for authority int	2.609	1.318	0	6.667	-0.0349	0.0398	0.2429*	0.0911	0.2599*	0.1435	0.0425	0.8249*	-0.0528	0.1007	-0.0161	0.0250	0.5253*	0.0035	0.2520*	0.1062	0.0305						
(19) Respect for authority int	7.192	1.863	1.875	11.6	0.0807	0.0685	-0.1954*	-0.1319	-0.1510*	-0.1544*	0.0183	-0.0936	0.8614*	-0.058	-0.0904	0.0119	0.0581	0.4487*	-0.1661*	-0.1940*	0.0219	-0.0423					
(20) Knowledge sharing	2.317	0.904	2	4	0.0261	0.0425	-0.4278*	-0.3055*	-0.0680	-0.0775	0.0450	-0.0243	0.0505	0.1717*	0.1435	0.0398	0.0006	0.1214	0.0199	0.1092	0.0615	-0.0410	0.1074				
(21) Team size	3.933	0.795	2	5	0.0744	0.0975	0.0891	-0.1790*	0.0900	0.1419	0.0027	-0.0421	0.1900*	-0.1429	-0.1314	-0.0039	-0.0675	0.3052*	-0.1514*	-0.1314	-0.0033	-0.0703	0.3272*	0.0840			
(22) Gender	0.667	0.473	0	1	0.1715*	0.1466*	-0.1531*	-0.0003	-0.0004	0.0084	-0.0184	0.1882*	-0.2010*	-0.1013	-0.0092	0.0209	0.0396	0.1260	0.0345	0.1314	0.0164	0.1680*	-0.1103	0.0461	-0.1189		
(23) Interdependence	2.736	0.677	0	4	0.5101*	0.0009	-0.0833	-0.2276*	0.4819*	0.8205*	0.0647	0.0009	0.0520	0.0179	0.0660	0.016	0.0099	0.0529	0.0037	0.0385	-0.0032	-0.0108	0.0745	0.4003*	-0.0295	0.0679	
(24) Indep x Interdep interaction	6.209	2.741	0	14	0.3013*	0.1660*	-0.056	-0.0838	-0.1091	-0.3267*	0.1009	0.1660*	-0.1028	-0.0169	-0.0159	0.0044	-0.0082	-0.0041	0.4035*	0.7116*	0.0515	0.1203	-0.0969	0.2606*	-0.0999	0.1729*	0.5486*
(25) Abs diff between indep & interdep	0.938	0.675	0	3.5	0.1741*	0.0703		-0.1077				-0.1332	0.1009	-0.0122	0.0623	0.0718	-0.0253	0.1276	-0.1247	-0.2995*	0.1237	-0.1253	0.1556*	0.1144	0.1094	-0.1178	0.3180*	-0.1869*

for discretion regarding one's own job, as well as increasing need for discretion by teammates, both reduce satisfaction in one's team, but there is a positive interaction effect. According to the GSEM output, the highest teamwide preference for discretion never actually has a net positive effect on satisfaction with the team. All else being equal, those with low preference for discretion are still likely to be more satisfied on these early-stage entrepreneurship teams. Regardless, we do not find support for H1.

Irrespective of any intrateam conflict, teammate need for authority related positively with one's satisfaction with the team, but this positive effect starts to reverse via a moderation effect as one also grows interest in wielding authority. As a team member and his teammates all start to want authority, that team member's satisfaction (with the team) is at risk of diminishing on net. In other words, teamwide need for authority has a negative effect on general satisfaction in the team. In this way we do find support for H2.

Our data suggest that team member preferences in authority do have their effects on the amount of intrateam conflict but that these sources of conflict do not end up diminishing satisfaction. One's preference for freedom (from rules) and teammates' preference for such freedom do not seem to have any separate effects on conflict; however, our data show that as teamwide preference for freedom increases (i.e., a team member and all his teammates prefer it), task conflict grows. H3b is thus supported in terms of task conflict, while neither H3a nor H3c is supported.

The need for authority among team members can predispose them to experience conflict. According to our model, one's own need for authority appears to relate negatively to intrateam task conflict, just the same as teammates' need for authority does. In other words, one's own need for authority as well as teammates' need for authority both apparently may independently serve to prevent or curtail conflict in the team. This holds for both task conflict and relationship conflict. One likely starts to experience both task and relationship conflict when wanting to wield authority among autocratic teammates. Thus, as everybody on the team simultaneously wants to wield more authority, everybody starts to experience more conflict. H5a is supported. Can this interaction effect end up contributing to a net positive effect? When we input our data's values for need for authority, it appears that this kind of extreme scenario is not typical, at least not in a student entrepreneurship setting like ours. Neither task conflict nor relationship conflict affect any kind of satisfaction, so we find no support for H4a–c or H5b.

We do find evidence that dispersion in *individual need for authority* has its effects on conflict. Specifically, when a team member's need for authority is compared to the highest need for authority found elsewhere on the team, that difference in need for authority is negatively related to relationship conflict

Table 2. Three-way cross-tabs for the N = 180 respondents: preferences for independence, freedom, discretion; and need to wield authority.

(a) independence (large tab) and freedom (small tab) [averaging Likert items: 0 = SD, 4 = SA]

discretion	0					1					2					3					4				
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0 (SD)																	1								
1 (D)													9	1	1		1	4							1
2 (N)							9	5	2		1	15	23	15	2		4	10	29	3				3	4
3 (A)		1					1	1	1	1			2	4	5		5	5	1					1	9
4 (SA)																									

Pearson chi-squared statistics (two-way)

discretion & independence, 12 dof: 25.3597 ($p = .013$)   discretion & freedom, 12 dof: 24.6325 ($p = .017$)

independence & freedom, 16 dof: 122.6092 ($p = .000$)

(b) independence (large tab) and freedom (small tab) [averaging Likert items: 0 = SD, 4 = SA]

need for auth.	0					1					2					3					4				
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0 (SD)		1										1	2												1
1 (D)							7	2	1		1	11	16	6	1		1	6	13	2				1	
2 (N)							3	3	2	1		5	13	11			3	9	20	1				3	10
3 (A)								1					5	4	2			1	5	1					3
4 (SA)																		1							

Pearson chi-squared statistics (two-way)

need for auth. & independence, 16 dof: 52.8006 ($p = .000$)   need for auth. & freedom, 16 dof: 25.8808 ($p = .056$)

also: need for auth. & discretion, 12 dof: 4.9604 ($p = .959$)

Note. Preference for freedom was measured with a single item; one respondent was originally coded a 1.5 because s/he created a bubble between 1 (*disagree*) and 2 (*neutral*). In creating this table, that response was coded a 1. Preference for independence and discretion (and need for authority) were all based on coding multiple survey items. The resulting aggregate scores were rounded off in the standard way to arrive at this table (i.e., .5 and above was rounded up, while .49 and below was rounded down). Thus these tables are based on slightly adjusted data, and won't perfectly match the summary statistics in Table 1.

(row *w*). H5c can be supported, in terms of both relational conflict and task conflict. However, we find that the statistical significance for relational conflict ($p < .005$) is stronger than for task conflict ($p < .05$).

Finally, our data on actual interdependence offer limited support. While interdependence with others on the team was unrelated to satisfaction with one's own job, the differential between the magnitudes of actual interdependence and preference for independence had a positive effect on satisfaction in one's own job ($p < .005$), thus offering support for H6. In H7 we hypothesized that preference for independence and actual interdependence would interact with a positive effect on the amount of conflict one experiences. In contrast, we empirically find a negative effect (on task conflict), at the $p < .01$ level.

Discussion

Although autonomy and authority are primary motivators for entrepreneurs (Wasserman, 2012) and can obviously affect a start-up's organizational
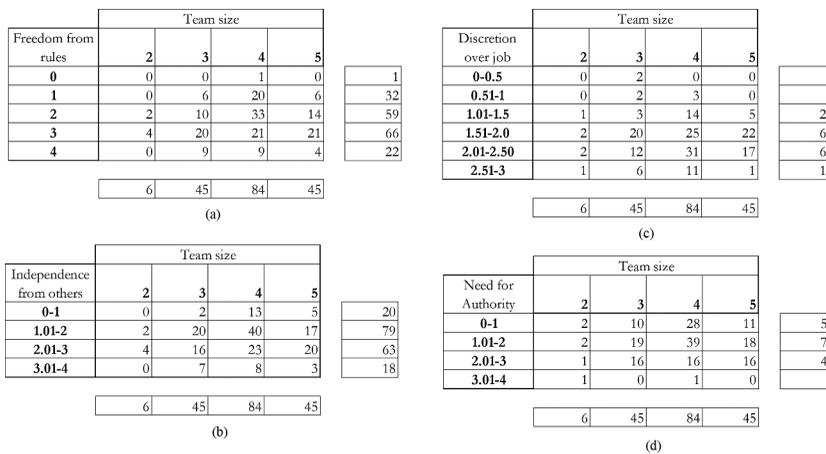
Freedom from rules	Team size					
	2	**3**	**4**	**5**		
0	0	0	1	0		1
1	0	6	20	6		32
2	2	10	33	14		59
3	4	20	21	21		66
4	0	9	9	4		22
	6	45	84	45		

(a)

Discretion over job	Team size					
	2	**3**	**4**	**5**		
0-0.5	0	2	0	0		2
0.51-1	0	2	3	0		5
1.01-1.5	1	3	14	5		23
1.51-2.0	2	20	25	22		69
2.01-2.50	2	12	31	17		62
2.51-3	1	6	11	1		19
	6	45	84	45		

(c)

Independence from others	Team size					
	2	**3**	**4**	**5**		
0-1	0	2	13	5		20
1.01-2	2	20	40	17		79
2.01-3	4	16	23	20		63
3.01-4	0	7	8	3		18
	6	45	84	45		

(b)

Need for Authority	Team size				
	2	**3**	**4**	**5**	
0-1	2	10	28	11	51
1.01-2	2	19	39	18	78
2.01-3	1	16	16	16	49
3.01-4	1	0	1	0	2
	6	45	84	45	

(d)

Figure 1. Cross-tabs for autonomy/authority preferences versus team size. Indices are based on the Likert scale for (a), (b), and (d), based on item responses from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). For example, "Freedom from rules" was measured in terms of one item that asked whether the respondent preferred to work "without being constrained by rules." The greater the index, the greater the preference for autonomy (or need for authority). The index in Figure 3(c) looks at preference for job discretion and is averaged over six items, e.g., "How much influence do you need over the type of work you do?" (None = 0, A little = 1, Some = 2, A lot = 3).

structure and decision making, there is virtually no research that examines how individual preference for autonomy explicitly affects satisfaction on entrepreneurship-oriented teams. As Chun and Choi (2014, p. 448) recently conclude, "Individual needs should not be considered in isolation in a group setting … [and a] multilevel application of individual needs presents new theoretical and empirical insights that cannot be acquired from purely individual-level investigations." Our article thus specifically considers that people joining entrepreneurial teams have different levels of preference for autonomy and also different levels of need to wield authority and that autonomist and autocratic teammates open the door for diminished satisfaction on an entrepreneurial team.

Preference for autonomy

According to our analysis, one's preference for work independence related to higher satisfaction with one's job, and teammate preference for work independence has the same effect. Remarkably, the interaction effect was not statistically significant in any direction. Teamwide preference for work independence did not diminish satisfaction as we expected, and there may be some good reasons to believe that entrepreneurial team members are not bothered when everybody prefers independence. That is, teammates may be considered a solution to autonomy-related challenges rather than a hindrance to one's

Table 3. Generalized structural equation modeling results.

		Satisfaction in the team	Satisfaction in one's job	Task conflict	Rel. conflict
a	Task conflict	0.119	−0.169		
		(0.148)	(0.484)		
b	Relationship conflict	−0.629	−0.196		
		(0.611)	(0.400)		
c	Preference for freedom	−0.00214	0.00591	−0.0810	−0.496
		(0.311)	(0.162)	(0.228)	(0.325)
d	Preference for independence	0.173	**0.256***	0.566	0.773*
		(0.967)	**(0.0844)**	(0.307)	(0.322)
e	Preference for discretion	**−1.104***	−0.867	0.700	0.360
		(0.0492)	(0.870)	(1.463)	(1.351)
f	Need for authority	0.109	−0.00384	**−0.435***	**−0.214***
		(0.127)	(0.0966)	**(0.0312)**	**(0.0690)**
g	Respect for authority	−1.084	−1.683**	0.759	0.566
		(1.274)	(0.610)	(0.475)	(0.615)
h	Teammate preference for freedom	0.00235	0.0233	−0.106	−0.346
		(0.268)	(0.0433)	(0.135)	(0.272)
i	Teammate preference for independence	0.129	**0.341***	0.584*	0.798
		(0.957)	**(0.120)**	(0.297)	(0.528)
j	Teammate preference for discretion	**−0.849***	−0.787	0.999	0.533
		(0.0476)	(1.050)	(1.533)	(1.233)
k	Teammate need for authority	**0.176***	−0.0251	**−0.464***	**−0.480***
		(0.0327)	(0.104)	**(0.158)**	**(0.0614)**
l	Teammate respect for authority	−0.957	−1.663***	0.931	0.606
		(1.103)	(0.453)	(0.487)	(0.642)
m	Freedom interaction	−0.0348	−0.0179	**0.0826***	0.173
		(0.103)	(0.0382)	**(0.0285)**	(0.109)
n	Independence interaction	−0.0418	−0.0941	−0.204	−0.297
		(0.378)	(0.0655)	(0.178)	(0.233)
o	Discretion interaction	**0.541***	0.473	−0.371	−0.176
		(0.0491)	(0.519)	(0.653)	(0.572)
p	Need for authority int	−0.0650***	0.0634*	**0.278***	**0.197***
		(0.00202)	**(0.0283)**	**(0.0174)**	**(0.0107)**
q	Respect for authority int	0.383	0.624*	−0.290	−0.223
		(0.438)	(0.255)	(0.187)	(0.231)
r	Knowledge sharing	**0.316***	**0.156***	**−0.0857***	−0.171
		(0.0304)	**(0.0196)**	**(0.00300)**	(0.0935)
s	Team size	−0.0420	−0.0685	−0.141**	−0.0731
		(0.0357)	(0.125)	(0.0532)	(0.0509)
t	Interdependence (sum)	0.346	−0.0308	0.0646	−0.0857**
		(0.355)	(0.0733)	(0.0933)	(0.0331)
u	Absolute differential between independence & interdependence	0.00357	**0.0153***		
		(0.00974)	**(0.000704)**		
v	Indep x Interdep interaction			−0.0675**	−0.00716
				(0.0241)	(0.0698)
w	Difference bet. own need and max need among teammates for authority			−0.152*	**−0.0249***
				(0.0740)	**(0.00612)**
x	Gender			0.144	0.000414
				(0.141)	(0.00270)
	Constant	5.414	8.130***	−3.492	−1.654
		(3.463)	(2.548)	(5.592)	(4.444)
	Variance in country random intercepts	1.01e-29	1.12e-28	0.213	0.00428
	Error variances	0.288***	0.298***	0.286***	0.257***
		(0.0232)	(0.0197)	(0.0451)	(0.0141)

Note. Absolute model fit statistics are not available at all in Stata GSEM.
$N = 180$. Standard errors in parentheses. *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .005$.

autonomy. In Van Gelderen's (2016) study, one respondent states: "I like to be influenced by my business partners. I enjoy discussing matters and what I can do to improve." Another says:

Table 4. Summary of hypotheses and findings.

Hypotheses		Hypothesis supported?			
		Satisfaction in the team	Satisfaction in one's job	Task conflict	Relationship conflict
Autonomy and satisfaction	H1a: The interaction effect between one's own preference for independence versus teammate preference for independence is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction. (*row n in* Table 3)	No	No		
	H1b: The interaction effect between one's own preference for freedom versus teammate preference for freedom is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction. (*m*)	No	No		
	H1c: The interaction effect between one's own preference for discretion versus teammate preference for discretion is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction. (*o*)	No (positive instead of negative)	No		
Authority and satisfaction	H2: The interaction effect between one's own need for authority versus teammates' need for authority is directly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction. (*p*)	**Supported**	No		
Autonomy and conflict	H3a: The interaction effect between one's own preference for independence versus teammate preference for independence is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences. (*n*)			No	No
	H3b: The interaction effect between one's own preference for freedom versus teammate preference for freedom is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences. (*m*)			**Supported**	No
	H3c: The interaction effect between one's own preference for discretion versus teammate preference for discretion is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences. (*o*)			No	No
Autonomy: conflict as mediator	H4a: The interaction effect between one's own preference for independence versus teammate preference for independence is indirectly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.		No		
	H4b: The interaction effect between one's own preference for freedom versus teammate preference for freedom is indirectly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.		No		
	H4c: The interaction effect between one's own preference for discretion versus teammate preference for discretion is indirectly and negatively related to one's own satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.		No		
Authority and conflict	H5a: The interaction effect between one's own need for authority versus teammates' need for authority is positively related to the amount of conflict one experiences. (*p*)			**Supported**	**Supported**
Authority: conflict as mediator	H5b: The interaction effect between one's own need for authority versus teammates' need for authority is negatively related to one's satisfaction, mediated by the amount of conflict one experiences.		No		
Authority and max authority	H5c: The difference between one's own need for authority and the maximum need for authority found elsewhere on the team is negatively related to the amount of conflict one experiences. (*w*)			**Supported** (*p* < .05)	**Supported** (*p* < .005)
Independence and interdependence	H6: The difference in magnitude between actual task interdependence and preference for independence positively relates to one's satisfaction. (*u*)	No	**Supported**		
	H7: Task interdependence and one's preference for independence interact with a positive effect on the amount of conflict one experiences. (*v*)			No (negative instead of positive)	No

That's one of the reasons I'm now beginning to work with a partner. You do have expertise but not in all fields and then it's very nice to have someone you can share it with and exchange opinions. Then you know that you're on the right track.

Another respondent stated: "The more individuals you work with, the more limitations an entrepreneur has. But I am ready to give that up, because I think it is more important to work together than to do things alone. It is about connecting." Teammates can reduce the burdens that come with decisional freedoms in terms of knowledge, skills, and networks and in terms of distributing tasks within a team. As Van Gelderen (2016) states, "Autonomy-oriented entrepreneurs are not necessarily individualistic; rather, many seem to prefer to make decisions in consultation with others."

Teamwide freedom (from rules) appears to affect task conflict. When one prefers freedom while others also prefer such freedom, this opens the door for task conflict. However, when only a given team member prefers freedom from rules, or when only his teammates prefer that freedom, the team member does not directly experience any team conflict. Why wouldn't task conflict emerge already when one's teammates all prefer freedom from rules? In other words, if a team member prefers (or has no objections to) *following* rules, and his teammates all prefer freedom from rules, shouldn't this necessarily interfere with that team member's work? We offer a couple possible explanations. From a theory standpoint, possibly rules are changing over time in these early-stage entrepreneurship teams (see Mischel, 1977), and teammates appreciate when the rules are allowed to change. From a more empirical perspective, among these student teams, perhaps there were rules put in place but teammates were mostly forgiven when they were broken. Unfortunately our data cannot distinguish between these two possible explanations.

At the same time, our results reveal interesting effects of job discretion on satisfaction in one's team, regardless of any conflict or lack thereof. If only one team member has a high need for job discretion, his satisfaction with the team tends to be low. If only his teammates have a high need for job discretion, his satisfaction with the team is also diminished. We find those negative associations lining up with work by Lawler et al. (1973, pp. 60–61), who find that increased discretion actually reduced satisfaction due to insecurities generated from lack of interpersonal interaction. However, when *everybody* highly prefers managing their own jobs, we find a separate positive interaction effect on one's satisfaction with the team. Addressing the case of the founders at Dreamworks, Alvarez and Svejenova (2006, pp. 156–157, emphasis added) remark that "the glue that binds a constellation is not only the complementarity of competencies and networks of contacts but also the availability of space for *each* individual member to develop a preferred area of activity." Consider also that in nascent entrepreneurial teams, jobs and roles are always changing. Wasserman (2012) offers anecdotal evidence from the Feedburner

venture team that cofounders can learn to adjust their roles over time to retain autonomy, improving satisfaction.

We might then highlight a distinction between preference for independence and preference for job discretion on early-stage entrepreneurship teams. Even if a team member does have a preference for independence, perhaps some are willing to accept feedback from entrepreneurship teammates anyways. All members of the team could be more satisfied as they use their discretion over how to include that feedback in getting their own task done and fulfill their role. In other words, job discretion could make up for any undesired infringement upon one's preferred amount of independence: "I'm OK with depending on your information so that I can finish my task, but I'll be more satisfied if you let me design my job or work the way I want it. And I know that you depend on me, but I'll let you design your job or work the way that you want it so that you can be satisfied." Warhuus et al.'s (2017, p. 241) study interviewed an entrepreneurship student who made a congruous remark: "What I mean by saying that I'm more open-minded is that I think that I will allow people to do stuff more their way."

Need for authority

Leadership comes in many forms in entrepreneurship (e.g., Leitch & Volery, 2017; Reid et al., 2018; Renko et al., 2015). As highlighted by Bergman et al. (2012, p. 23), "The extent to which power is shared among members should have a significant effect on the group's dynamics and members' feelings toward the group." Measuring individual need for wielding authority and investigating the effects of that need by team members and teammates revealed some interesting relationships. In our data the varied need for authority across the team had direct effects on conflict and satisfaction. We find concrete evidence that individual team members tend to encounter less conflict if somewhere on the team people have the interest or preference to lead the team as an authority. Specifically, we found that increasingly autocratic teammates relate to decreases in both kinds of conflict. This may align with research by Mathieu et al. (2015), who find that shared leadership relates positively to team cohesion, and also research by Liu et al. (2014), who find that shared leadership has a positive impact on both team and individual learning. Some research suggests that entrepreneurial teams perform best when leadership styles are balanced among teammates (Darling & Leffel, 2010). Research by Chen and Agrawal (2017) finds that team leaders can reduce the deleterious effects of communication barriers among teammates, and Chiu et al. (2016) argues for the value of humility in shared leadership. Nevertheless, if one had a high need for authority while teammates did too, this particularly increased one's exposure to conflict.

Teamwide need to wield authority damages satisfaction in the team even when conflict has not materialized (row *p*).

While this foregoing analysis addresses the average need for authority across one's teammates, we also found evidence that the differential between one's own need for authority and that need by the most autocratic teammate related to decreased relationship conflict. In other words, the more that one's place in the leadership structure was clearer to him, the less relationship conflict he encountered (Ensley et al., 2000; Knipfer et al., 2018). Foo et al. (2006) also found that teams with multiple leaders can be torn between the leaders who can lead the teams in different directions. According to those researchers, the presence of a distinct leader was related to greater satisfaction among teammates mainly because that leader helps members focus actions on a common goal.

Why wouldn't teamwide preferences for authority negatively affect one's job satisfaction? Teammates may sometimes view power on the team as expandable, meaning that one team member's power gain does not diminish other members' power (Tannenbaum, 1962). In teams where members have this shared belief, power sensitivity need not necessarily lead to power struggle. We believe it is possible that teamwide sensitivity to need for authority may not be detrimental to satisfaction with one's own job, due to these expandable pie beliefs.

Actual interdependence

Our GSEM model reveals that, although teamwide preference for independence has no significant effect on conflict or satisfaction, preference for independence and actual interdependence do have interactive effects: The difference between the magnitudes of interdependence and preference for independence has a positive effect on satisfaction with one's job. Thus, for example, those who prefer more independence are more satisfied with their own job when team interdependencies are low rather than high, and those who need less independence are more satisfied with their own job when interdependencies are high rather than low.

Our empirical analysis shows some additional counterintuitive results. First, as row *t* indicates, interdependencies relate negatively to relationship conflict ($p < .01$). We believe that interdependencies offer two competing effects: They can increase coordination costs that open the door for conflict or can offer a means for developing a team cohesiveness. We surmise that the latter effect may dominate in our data but are unsure why. Second, in row *v*, we found a negative interaction effect for H7: Holding interdependence constant, a higher need for independence actually appears to invite less task conflict ($p < .01$). Our best suggestion for this finding is that independence actually has two competing effects when task interdependencies are present: (a) independence shuts off

communication, such that *conflict is staved off between teammates*; or (b) independence shuts off communication, such that *(repeated) attempts to coordinate are ignored* and teamwork starts to fall apart. There is a fine line between these two cases, but we believe our data show that (a) dominates. Recall that teamwide preference for discretion over jobs can open the door wider for satisfaction in the teamwork. Together, the data paint a picture that teammates can exercise autonomy from one another such that when interdependencies emerge, they leave communication channels closed. By tweaking their own jobs through their discretion, they collectively forestall conflict. In this way we absolutely corroborate Langfred's (2007, p. 896) empirical finding that "in teams with high levels of both autonomy and interdependence, members typically tried to exercise substantial individual discretion over their components of tasks while constantly juggling demands for coordination."

Conflict as a nonmediator

Conflict generally does not serve as a mediator in our data. Some explanations hold potential. First, some factors in lowering satisfaction do not actually cause conflict. People may hide their irritation or seek other ways to relieve it, and the uncaptured indirect links between autonomy/authority and satisfaction may be related to stress (Hon & Chan, 2013; Jassawalla et al., 2009). Second, some factors that increase conflict may not lower satisfaction. Perhaps teammates deliberately raise their tolerance for each other's autonomy preferences when it comes to putting up with conflict in entrepreneurship team contexts. In other words, in the earliest stages of entrepreneurship, when team members are not at their best, teammates "forgive but don't forget" (see Vranceanu et al., 2015). Nevertheless, we suggest that teams should not automatically expect correlations between overt team conflict and satisfaction.

Positioning our findings

According to Lazar et al. (2020), we know little about how individual characteristics shape team-level dynamics, team formation, and performance (including satisfaction). Team formation is affected by interpersonal decision situations for members to cooperate, where those situations are characterized by the balance in interests among individuals. Because formation processes typically occur well before teams are officially founded, many of their important elements are "unobservable" in entrepreneurship data sets and often stay "under the researchers' radar" (Rasmussen et al., 2011). Studies that fail to correct for prefounding conditions face a selection problem because they only examine the performance of new ventures that have managed to survive. This

is a kind of "left-censoring" problem that confronts many areas of entrepreneurship research (e.g., Aldrich, 1999).

For this reason, entrepreneurial team formation studies are often stuck looking at teams that have already formed. The implicit assumption of past studies is that team configuration is exogenous or predetermined, so characteristics of its members may be used as the starting point (Eesley et al., 2014). Research starts with teams already being formed and focuses on socialization and development along sequential stages (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977); it is largely silent on how teams are formed in the first place. Investigating the prefounding phase of entrepreneurial teams provides a unique opportunity to understand the initial stage of the team development process (e.g., Tuckman, 1965) and why and how certain kinds of individuals come together to form an entrepreneurial team (Delmar & Shane, 2006). Our study takes a first step in investigating the effects of prototypically entrepreneurial personal values across all prefounding team members to better understand determinants of the earliest satisfaction that might keep teammates together.

Our article also addresses collectiveness in team-based entrepreneurship. Goals, efforts, and performance contribute to team commitment and cohesion, which are affective states of team members that influence individuals' motivation and morale but also their concrete actions, such as information sharing and decision making (Ensley et al., 2003). For example, Deutsch (2006) sees that positive goal interdependence—where one person's probability of goal attainment is positively correlated with the other person achieving his or her goal—promotes group action. When it comes to the more specific criteria for team membership (Ruef et al., 2003), social-psychological aspects that reflect the team as collective, such as attitudes, are also important. We show here that personal values should also be considered in the context of collective action, especially if we are led to believe that the pool of entrepreneurs tends to include those who want to be their own boss or those who want to be the boss. Research shows that the way in which entrepreneurial team members work together plays an important role in determining venture outcomes (Ensley et al., 2003; Kamm & Nurick, 1993). In our article we have looked specifically at the effects of autonomy and authority preferences on entrepreneurial satisfaction with the job and with one's team.

Finally, according to a recent study (Forsström-Tuominen et al., 2015), prospective university student entrepreneurs would prefer to team up with other similarly entrepreneurially minded students to begin their entrepreneurship experience. According to our findings, this may not work out well. University entrepreneurship programs that want to maximize satisfaction and cohesion within their student teams to optimize real-world outcomes from their courses should assess students in terms of their personal values regarding preferences for autonomy and authority. Of course, instructors have to decide whether to assign students to teams or to let teams form organically.

Perhaps they can assign captains (e.g., "lead entrepreneurs") in class that end up leading predesigned brainstorming groups during the prefounding stage.

Limitations and future research

First and foremost, care should be taken to extrapolate our findings to real-world entrepreneurship teams (Robinson et al., 1991). Recent research does make use of student venture data to illuminate "prefounding entrepreneurship teams" (Knipfer et al., 2018), and in these university courses—like those found at universities all around the world—we could only motivate students to consider the possibilities of launching real businesses after the course was over. Furthermore, our satisfaction data relate to student satisfaction in light of outcomes by the end of a semester, while real-world teams are more likely to assess their satisfaction in light of hopes and expectations for real-world financial success farther into the future.

Causality and endogeneity should also be considered. We acknowledge that actual autonomy and intrateam conflict may affect one another, and so it can be difficult to infer causality between those two variables. In our framework, however, we instead measure *preference* for autonomy (and need for authority) before the venture even starts, and measure conflict and satisfaction after the semester is over. During a few of the Dutch semesters, students were actually resurveyed about their preferences, but in virtually all cases, those preferences had not changed. Even though students had little time to choose teammates, and we observed little evidence that friends were teaming up at the beginning of the program, we acknowledge that our students were not randomly assigned to teams.

We wish to put potential research directions into three categories: autonomy, authority, and teamwork. First, insofar that dissatisfaction among autonomists need not require or reflect overt conflict, is it because "thresholds for irritation" are raised in anticipation (of the benefits) of disagreement, or is it because conflict is anticipated and accepted? Perhaps entrepreneurship teams anticipate and appreciate the diversity in beliefs and values, or teammates have a sense of humor about conflict. Research could also look at the effects of work experience on the link between individual autonomy and satisfaction on teams. We used student data, where most students had little to no work experience. However, perhaps past experience in worklife and entrepreneurship contributes to sensitive yet flexible mindsets about teamwork that moderate how preferences for autonomy and authority relate to individual satisfaction. Research could also look at what happens when teammates all have a strong preference for "personal autonomy" defined by Clarke and Holt (2010) as "reflective judgement" and "a sense of personal conviction" that entrepreneurs can have for judging the sense and rectitude of possible decisions.

Second, research should consider further the dynamics of authority in entrepreneurship teams. Autocratic management—as well as research on it—has been demoted for the last few decades (see Harms et al., 2018, for a rigorous review). In a world where workers are becoming more independent and where they risk being more individualistic, it should be revisited how autocratic leadership unfolds in entrepreneurship efforts (De Hoogh et al., 2015). We believe our study can assist in studying entrepreneurial leadership on teams: how it unfolds when multiple teammates want to be the boss, whether shared leadership works more effectively than other forms of leadership, and how team atmosphere is affected. Furthermore, recent research in the leadership literature has repeatedly evidenced that shared leadership is a valuable managerial structure (Bergman et al., 2012; Carson et al., 2007; Drescher et al., 2014; Pearce et al., 2009) also in entrepreneurship (Ensley et al., 2006, 2003). We did not collect data specifically about leadership roles or processes. Future research could consider how multiple autocrats on a team might share leadership and create a shared vision in the earliest stages of venture creation (Preller et al., 2020). Other work could consider the effects of teamwide preference for authority on shared leadership in light of creativity (He et al., 2020; Serban & Roberts, 2016).

Finally, research should look at the more nuanced interactive effects regarding teamwork and learning between autonomists and autocrats on entrepreneurship teams. Williams et al. (2006) and Dolmans and Schmidt (2006) suggest that teamwork orientation, group cohesiveness, and group discussion can help motivate teammates and foster team learning. Other research (i.e., Kapp, 2009) finds that interventions like team-building workshops can be introduced upfront to help students collaborate more effectively in project-based courses such as those in entrepreneurship education. However, Hoegl and Muethel (2016) find that leaders on virtual project teams can monopolize decision-making authority and provide insufficient levels of autonomy for team members to tackle their tasks, jeopardizing team performance. We still know very little about individual and team-level learning in contexts where autonomists and autocrats must team up with each other.

Conclusion

In this article, we compared each team member's needs for autonomy and authority with their teammates' needs. In disentangling autonomy into three kinds of constructs, we determined that preferences for freedom, independence, and discretion all interact in different ways to affect one's satisfaction and exposure to conflict on early-stage (student) entrepreneurship teams. We also uncover that everybody's individual satisfaction in the teamwork starts to drop—and everybody's exposure to conflict rises—when all team members have a higher need for

exercising authority. However, according to our data, this negative effect does not typically overcome the positive effects of having an authority somewhere on the team. In our empirical context, intrateam conflict does not serve as a mediator between these teamwide preferences and satisfaction. Ultimately we hope that this article can offer a starting point—both theoretically and empirically—for future research to examine the interplay among autonomy, authority, conflict, and satisfaction in entrepreneurship teams; there is still much to investigate.

ORCID

Chihmao Hsieh http://orcid.org/0000-0002-0273-779X
Woo Jin Lee http://orcid.org/0000-0002-6871-2149

References

Adams, S. G. (2001). The effectiveness of the E-team approach to invention and innovation. *Journal of Engineering Education*, *90*(4), 597–600. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2001.tb00645.x

Agarwal, R., Braguinsky, S., & Ohyama, A. (2020). Centers of gravity: The effect of stable shared leadership in top management teams on firm growth and industry evolution. *Strategic Management Journal*, *41*(3), 467–498. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.3048

Aggarwal, P., & O'Brien, C. L. (2008). Social loafing on group projects: Structural antecedents and effect on student satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Education*, *30*(3), 255–264. https://doi.org/10.1177/0273475308322283

Ahmed, P. K. (1998). Culture and climate for innovation. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, *1*(1), 30–43. https://doi.org/10.1108/14601069810199131

Aldrich, H. (1999). *Organizations evolving*. Sage Publications.

Alvarez, J. L., & Svejenova, S. (2006). *Sharing executive power: Roles and relationships at the top*. Cambridge University Press.

Amason, A. C., & Sapienza, H. J. (1997). The effects of top management team size and interaction norms on cognitive and affective conflict. *Journal of Management*, *23*(4), 495–516. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639702300401

Anderson, C., & Berdahl, J. L. (2002). The experience of power: Examining the effects of power on approach and inhibition tendencies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*(6), 1362–1377. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.83.6.1362

Anderson, C., & Kilduff, G. J. (2009). The pursuit of status in social groups. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *18*(5), 295–298. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2009.01655.x

Andres, H. P., & Shipps, B. P. (2010). Team learning in technology-mediated distributed teams. *Journal of Information Systems Education*, *21*(2), 213–222. http://jise.org/Volume21/n2/JISEv21n2p213.pdf

Ardichvili, A., Cardozo, R., & Ray, S. (2003). A theory of entrepreneurial opportunity identification and development. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *18*(1), 105–123. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(01)00068-4

Arieli, S., Sagiv, L., & Roccas, S. (2020). Values at work: The impact of personal values in organisations. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *69*(2), 230–275. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12181

Barczak, G., & Wilemon, D. (2003). Team member experiences in new product development: Views from the trenches. *R&D Management*, *33*(5), 463–479. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9310.00311

Barling, J., Kelloway, E. K., & Iverson, R. D. (2003). High-quality work, job satisfaction, and occupational injuries. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(2), 276–283. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.276

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173–1182. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173

Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior: A measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *14*(2), 103–118. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030140202

Bell, C., & Song, F. (2005). Emotions in the conflict process: An application of the cognitive appraisal model of emotions to conflict management. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *16*(1), 30–54. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022922

Bendersky, C., & Hays, N. A. (2012). Status conflict in groups. *Organization Science*, *23*(2), 323–340. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1110.0734

Bergman, J. Z., Rentsch, J. R., Small, E. E., Davenport, S. W., & Bergman, S. M. (2012). The shared leadership process in decision-making teams. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *152*(1), 17–42. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2010.538763

Bhowmick, S., Chandra, A., Harper, J. S., & Sweetin, V. (2015). Collaborative learning using a project across multiple business courses: A cognitive load and knowledge convergence approach. *Decision Sciences: Journal of Innovative Education*, *13*(2), 197–219. https://doi.org/10.1111/dsji.12060

Bisseling, D., Sobral, F., & Posthuma, R. A. (2011). A cross-cultural comparison of intragroup conflict in The Netherlands and Brazil. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *22*(2), 151–169. https://doi.org/10.1108/10444061111126684

Boeker, W. (1992). Power and managerial dismissal: Scapegoating at the top. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *37*(3), 400–421. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393450

Bolzani, D., & Foo, M. D. (2018). The "why" of international entrepreneurship: Uncovering entrepreneurs' personal values. *Small Business Economics*, *51*(3), 639–666. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11187-017-9945-8

Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *35*(5), 307–311. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0055617

Cardon, M. S. (2008). Is passion contagious? The transference of entrepreneurial passion to employees. *Human Resource Management Review*, *18*(2), 77–86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2008.04.001

Cardon, M. S., Post, C., & Forster, W. R. (2017). Team entrepreneurial passion: Its emergence and influence in new venture teams. *Academy of Management Review*, *42*(2), 283–305. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0356

Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(5), 1217–1234. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.20159921

Carsrud, A. L., Brännback, M., Elfving, J., & Brandt, K. (2017). Motivations: The entrepreneurial mind and behavior. In M. Brännback & A. L. Carsrud (Eds.), *Revisiting the entrepreneurial mind* (pp. 185–209). Springer.

Carvalho, A. (2016). The impact of PBL on transferable skills development in management education. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, *53*(1), 35–47. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2015.1020327

Cassar, G. (2007). Money, money, money? A longitudinal investigation of entrepreneur career reasons, growth preferences and achieved growth. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, *19*(1), 89–107. https://doi.org/10.1080/08985620601002246

Chan, L. H., & Chen, C.-H. (2010). Conflict from teamwork in project-based collaborative learning. *Performance Improvement*, *49*(2), 23–28. https://doi.org/10.1002/pfi.20123

Chen, M.-H., & Agrawal, S. (2017). Do communication barriers in student teams impede creative behavior in the long run?—A time-lagged perspective. *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *26*, 154–167. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2017.10.008

Chiu, C.-Y., Owens, B., & Tesluk, P. E. (2016). Initiating and utilizing shared leadership in teams: The role of leader humility, team proactive personality, and team performance capability. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(12), 1705–1720. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000159

Chun, J. S., & Choi, J. N. (2014). Members' needs, intragroup conflict, and group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*(3), 437–450. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036363

Clarke, J., & Holt, R. (2010). Reflective judgement: Understanding entrepreneurship as ethical practice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *94*(3), 317–331. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-009-0265-z

Clarysse, B., & Moray, N. (2004). A process study of entrepreneurial team formation: The case of a research-based spin-off. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *19*(1), 55–79. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(02)00113-1

Cohen, S. G., Chang, L., & Ledford, G. E. (1997). A hierarchical construct of self-management leadership and its relationship to quality of work life and perceived work group effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, *50*(2), 275–308. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1997.tb00909.x

Comeche, J. M., & Loras, J. (2010). The influence of variables of attitude on collective entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, *6*(1), 23–38. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-009-0131-6

Cooper, A. C. (1981). Strategic management: New ventures and small business. *Long Range Planning*, *14*(5), 39–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-6301(81)90006-6

Cooper, A. C., & Artz, K. W. (1995). Determinants of satisfaction for entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *10*(6), 439–457. https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(95)00083-K

Creasy, T., & Carnes, A. (2017). The effects of workplace bullying on team learning, innovation and project success as mediated through virtual and traditional team dynamics. *International Journal of Project Management*, *35*(6), 964–977. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2017.04.005

Darling, J., & Leffel, A. (2010). Developing the leadership team in an entrepreneurial venture: A case focusing on the importance of styles. *Journal of Small Business & Entrepreneurship*, *23*(3), 355–371. https://doi.org/10.1080/08276331.2010.10593490

De Dreu, C. K. W., & Beersma, B. (2005). Conflict in organizations: Beyond effectiveness and performance. *European Journal of Work & Organizational Psychology*, *14*(2), 105–117. https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320444000227

De Hoogh, A. H. B., Greer, L. L., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2015). Diabolical dictators or capable commanders? An investigation of the differential effects of autocratic leadership on team performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *26*(5), 687–701. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.01.001

De Jong, B. A., & Elfring, T. (2010). How does trust affect the performance of ongoing teams? The mediating role of reflexivity, monitoring, and effort. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(3), 535–549. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.51468649

De Mol, E., Khapova, S. N., & Elfring, T. (2015). Entrepreneurial team cognition: A review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *17*(2), 232–255. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijmr.12055

Delmar, F., & Shane, S. (2006). Does experience matter? The effect of founding team experience on the survival and sales of newly founded ventures. *Strategic Organization*, *4*(3), 215–247. https://doi.org/10.1177/1476127006066596

Deutsch, M. (2006). Cooperation and competition. In M. Deutsch, P. T. Coleman, & E. C. Marcus (Eds.), *The handbook of conflict resolution: Theory and practice* (pp. 23–42). Jossey-Bass.

Dineen, B. R., Noe, R. A., Shaw, J. D., Duffy, M. K., & Wiethoff, C. (2007). Level and dispersion of satisfaction in teams: Using foci and social context to explain the satisfaction-absenteeism relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(3), 623–643. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.25525987

Dolmans, D. H. J. M., & Schmidt, H. G. (2006). What do we know about cognitive and motivational effects of small group tutorials in problem-based learning? *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, *11*(4), 321–336. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10459-006-9012-8

Dos Santos, R., & Spann, M. (2011). Collective entrepreneurship at Qualcomm: Combining collective and entrepreneurial practices to turn employee ideas into action. *R&D Management*, *41*(5), 443–456. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9310.2011.00660.x

Douglas, E. J., & Shepherd, D. A. (2002). Self-employment as a career choice: Attitudes, entrepreneurial intentions, and utility maximization. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *26*(3), 81–90. https://doi.org/10.1177/104225870202600305

Drescher, M. A., Korsgaard, M. A., Welpe, I. M., Picot, A., & Wigand, R. T. (2014). The dynamics of shared leadership: Building trust and enhancing performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*(5), 771–783. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036474

Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *108*(2), 233–256. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.108.2.233

Edelman, L. F., Brush, C. G., Manolova, T. S., & Greene, P. G. (2010). Start-up motivations and growth intentions of minority nascent entrepreneurs. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *48*(2), 174–196. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-627X.2010.00291.x

Eesley, C. E., Hsu, D. H., & Roberts, E. B. (2014). The contingent effects of top management teams on venture performance: Aligning founding team composition with innovation strategy and commercialization environment. *Strategic Management Journal*, *35*(12), 1798–1817. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.2183

Eisenhardt, K. M., & Bourgeouis, L. J. (1988). Politics of strategic decision making in high-velocity environments: Toward a midrange theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, *31*(4), 737–770. https://doi.org/10.5465/256337

Elfenbein, D. W., Hamilton, B. H., & Zenger, T. R. (2010). The small firm effect and the entrepreneurial spawning of scientists and engineers. *Management Science*, *56*(4), 659–681. https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.1090.1130

Emami, A., & Dimov, D. (2017). Degree of innovation and the entrepreneurs' intention to create value: A comparative study of experienced and novice entrepreneurs. *Eurasian Business Review*, *7*(2), 161–182. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40821-016-0068-y

Ensley, M. D., Carland, J. W., & Carland, J. C. (2000). Investigating the existence of the lead entrepreneur. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *38*(4), 59–77. https://search.proquest.com/docview/220999311

Ensley, M. D., Hmieleski, K. M., & Pearce, C. L. (2006). The importance of vertical and shared leadership within new venture top management teams: Implications for the performance of startups. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *17*(3), 217–231. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.02.002

Ensley, M. D., Pearson, A., & Pearce, C. L. (2003). Top management team process, shared leadership, and new venture performance: A theoretical model and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, *13*(2), 329–346. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(03)00020-2

Ent, M. R., & Baumeister, R. F. (2015). Individual differences in guilt proneness affect how people respond to moral tradeoffs between harm avoidance and obedience to authority. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *74*, 231–234. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.10.035

Fagenson, E. A. (1993). Personal value systems of men and women entrepreneurs versus managers. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *8*(5), 409–430. https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(93)90022-W

Fang, N. (2012). Improving engineering students' technical and professional skills through project-based active and collaborative learning. *International Journal of Engineering Education*, *28*(1), 26–36. https://www.ijee.ie/covers/covandabs28-1.pdf

Foo, M. D., Sin, H. P., & Yiong, L. P. (2006). Effects of team inputs and intrateam processes on perceptions of team viability and member satisfaction in nascent ventures. *Strategic Management Journal*, *27*(4), 389–399. https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.514

Forsström-Tuominen, H., Jussila, I., & Kolhinen, J. (2015). Business school students' social construction of entrepreneurship: Claiming space for collective entrepreneurship discourses. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, *31*(1), 102–120. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scaman.2014.08.001

French, J., & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in social power* (pp. 150–167). Institute for Social Research.

Gartner, W. B. (1985). A conceptual framework for describing the phenomenon of new venture creation. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*(4), 696–706. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4279094

Gbadamosi, O., Baghestan, A. G., & Al-Mabrouk, K. (2014). Gender, age and nationality: Assessing their impact on conflict resolution styles. *Journal of Management Development*, *33* (3), 245–257. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-02-2011-0024

Georgesen, J., & Harris, M. J. (2006). Holding onto power: Effects of powerholders' positional instability and expectancies on interactions with subordinates. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *36*(4), 451–468. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.352

Gibbs, M., & Levenson, A. (2002). The economic approach to personnel research. In S. Grossbard-Shechtman & C. Clague (Eds.), *The expansion of economics: Toward a more inclusive social science* (pp. 99). M.E. Sharpe.

Glew, D. J. (2009). Personal values and performance in teams: An individual and team-level analysis. *Small Group Research*, *40*(6), 670–693. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496409346577

Greer, L. L., & van Kleef, G. A. (2010). Equality versus differentiation: The effects of power dispersion on group interaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *95*(6), 1032–1044. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020373

Griffin, M. A., Patterson, M. G., & West, M. A. (2001). Job satisfaction and teamwork: The role of supervisor support. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *22*(5), 537–550. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.101

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1974). *The job diagnostic survey: An instrument for the diagnosis of jobs and the evaluation of job redesign projects* (Vol. 4). Yale University.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *16*(2), 250–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(76)90016-7

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2009). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Pearson.

Hamilton, B. H. (2000). Does entrepreneurship pay? An empirical analysis of the returns to self-employment. *Journal of Political Economy*, *108*(3), 604–631. https://doi.org/10.1086/262131

Harms, P. D., Wood, D., Landay, K., Lester, P. B., & Lester, G. V. (2018). Autocratic leaders and authoritarian followers revisited: A review and agenda for the future. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 105–122. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.007

Harper, D. A. (2008). Towards a theory of entrepreneurial teams. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *23*(6), 613–626. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2008.01.002

Harrison, D. A., & Klein, K. J. (2007). What's the difference? Diversity constructs as separation, variety, or disparity in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(4), 1199–1228. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.26586096

He, W., Hao, P., Huang, X., Long, L., Hiller, N. J., & Li, S. (2020). Different roles of shared and vertical leadership in promoting team creativity: Cultivating and synthesizing team members' individual creativity. *Personnel Psychology*, *73*(1), 199–225. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12321

Hensel, R., & Visser, R. (2018). Shared leadership in entrepreneurial teams: The impact of personality. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, *24*(6), 1104–1119. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEBR-03-2018-0133

Ho, V. T., & Pollack, J. M. (2014). Passion isn't always a good thing: Examining entrepreneurs' network centrality and financial performance with a dualistic model of passion. *Journal of Management Studies*, *51*(3), 433–459. https://doi.org/10.1111/joms.12062

Hoegl, M., & Muethel, M. (2016). Enabling shared leadership in virtual project teams: A practitioners' guide. *Project Management Journal*, *47*(1), 7–12. https://doi.org/10.1002/pmj.21564

Hoel, H., Glasø, L., Hetland, J., Cooper, C. L., & Einarsen, S. (2010). Leadership styles as predictors of self-reported and observed workplace bullying. *British Journal of Management*, *21*(2), 453–468. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2009.00664.x

Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *14*(2), 75–89. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490867

Holt, J. L., & DeVore, C. J. (2005). Culture, gender, organizational role, and styles of conflict resolution: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, *29*(2), 165–196. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2005.06.002

Hon, A. H. Y., & Chan, W. W. (2013). The effects of group conflict and work stress on employee performance. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *54*(2), 174–184. https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965513476367

Hsieh, C., Nickerson, J. A., & Zenger, T. R. (2007). Opportunity discovery, problem solving and a theory of the entrepreneurial firm. *Journal of Management Studies*, *44*(7), 1255–1277. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2007.00725.x

Jassawalla, A., Sashittal, H., & Malshe, A. (2009). Students' perception of social loafing: Its antecedents and consequences in undergraduate business classroom teams. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, *8*(1), 42–54. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2009.37012178

Jehn, K. A. (1995). A multimethod examination of the benefits and detriments of intragroup conflict. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *40*(2), 256–282. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393638

Jehn, K. A., & Bendersky, C. (2003). Intragroup conflict in organizations: A contingency perspective on the conflict-outcome relationship. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *25*, 187–242. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(03)25005-X

Jensen, J. M., & Raver, J. L. (2012). When self-management and surveillance collide: Consequences for employees' organizational citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors. *Group & Organization Management*, *37*(3), 308–346. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601112445804

Juvonen, P. (2013). Learning to fly? First experiences on team learning of Icaros cooperative. *European Journal of Engineering Education*, *38*(2), 186–193. https://doi.org/10.1080/03043797.2012.760534

Kamm, J. B., & Nurick, A. J. (1993). The stages of team venture formation: A decision-making model. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *17*(2), 17–27. https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879301700202

Kamm, J. B., Shuman, J. C., Seeger, J. A., & Nurick, A. J. (1990). Entrepreneurial teams in new venture creation: A research agenda. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *14*(4), 7–17. https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879001400403

Kaplan, S. (2008). Framing contests: Strategy making under uncertainty. *Organization Science*, *19*(5), 729–752. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1070.0340

Kapp, E. (2009). Improving student teamwork in a collaborative project-based course. *College Teaching*, *57*(3), 139–143. https://doi.org/10.3200/CTCH.57.3.139-143

Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, *110*(2), 265–284. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.110.2.265

Keltner, D., van Kleef, G. A., Chen, S., & Kraus, M. W. (2008). A reciprocal influence model of social power: Emerging principles and lines of inquiry. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *40*, 151–192. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(07)00003-2

Kiesler, D. J. (1983). The 1982 interpersonal circle: A taxonomy for complementarity in human transactions. *Psychological Review*, *90*(3), 185–214. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.90.3.185

Klein, J. A. (1991). A reexamination of autonomy in light of new manufacturing practices. *Human Relations*, *44*(1), 21–38. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679104400102

Knipfer, K., Schreiner, E., Schmid, E., & Peus, C. (2018). The performance of pre-founding entrepreneurial teams: The importance of learning and leadership. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *67*(3), 401–427. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12126

Kolvereid, L. (1996). Organisational employment versus self employment: Reasons for career choice intentions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *20*(3), 23–31. https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879602000302

Kong, D. T., Konczak, L. J., & Bottom, W. P. (2015). Team performance as a joint function of team member satisfaction and agreeableness. *Small Group Research*, *46*(2), 160–178. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496414567684

Kotey, B., & Matlay, H. (2007). Teaching the attributes of venture teamwork in tertiary entrepreneurship programmes. *Education + Training*, *49*(8/9), 634–655. https://doi.org/10.1108/00400910710834067

Kramer, R. M. (2001). Organizational paranoia: Origins and dynamics. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *23*, 1–42. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(01)23002-0

Krishnan, S., Gabb, R., & Vale, C. (2011). Learning cultures of problem-based learning teams. *Australasian Journal of Engineering Education*, *17*(2), 67–78. https://doi.org/10.1080/22054952.2011.11464057

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Barrick, M. R., & Stevens, C. K. (2005). When opposites attract: A multi-sample demonstration of complementary person-team fit on extraversion. *Journal of Personality*, *73*(4), 935–958. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2005.00334.x

Lange, T. (2012). Job satisfaction and self-employment: Autonomy or personality? *Small Business Economics*, *38*(2), 165–177. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11187-009-9249-8

Langfred, C. W. (2004). Too much of a good thing? Negative effects of high trust and individual autonomy in self-managing teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, *47*(3), 385–399. https://doi.org/10.5465/20159588

Langfred, C. W. (2005). Autonomy and performance in teams: The multilevel moderating effect of task interdependence. *Journal of Management*, *31*(4), 513–529. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206304272190

Langfred, C. W. (2007). The downside of self-management: A longitudinal study of the effects of conflict on trust, autonomy, and task interdependence in self-managing teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*(4), 885–900. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.26279196

Langfred, C. W., & Moye, N. A. (2004). Effects of task autonomy on performance: An extended model considering motivational, informational, and structural mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(6), 934–945. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.6.934

Lawler, E. E., Hackman, J. R., & Kaufman, S. (1973). Effects of job redesign: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *3*(1), 49–62. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1973.tb01294.x

Lazar, M., Miron-Spektor, E., Agarwal, R., Erez, M., Goldfarb, B., & Chen, G. (2020). Entrepreneurial team formation. *Academy of Management Annals*, *14*(1), 29–59. https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2017.0131

Lechler, T. (2001). Social interaction: A determinant of entrepreneurial team venture success. *Small Business Economics*, *16*(4), 263–278. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1011167519304

Leitch, C. M., & Volery, T. (2017). Entrepreneurial leadership: Insights and directions. *International Small Business Journal*, *35*(2), 147–156. https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242616681397

Lepine, J. A., & Dyne, L. V. (2001). Peer responses to low performers: An attributional model of helping in the context of groups. *Academy of Management Review*, *26*(1), 67–84. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.4011953

Liu, S., Hu, J., Li, Y., Wang, Z., & Lin, X. (2014). Examining the cross-level relationship between shared leadership and learning in teams: Evidence from China. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*(2), 282–295. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.08.006

Loehr, L. (1995). Composing in groups: The concept of authority in cross functional project team work. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *38*(2), 83–94. https://doi.org/10.1109/47.387772

Lounsbury, M. (1998). Collective entrepreneurship: The mobilization of college and university recycling coordinators. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *11*(1), 50–69. https://doi.org/10.1108/09534819810369572

Lovelace, K., Shapiro, D. L., & Weingart, L. R. (2001). Maximizing cross-functional new product teams' innovativeness and constraint adherence: A conflict communications perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, *44*(4), 779–793. https://doi.org/10.5465/3069415

Manz, C. C. (1992). Self-leading work teams: Moving beyond self-management myths. *Human Relations*, *45*(11), 1119–1140. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679204501101

Manz, C. C., & Angle, H. (1986). Can group self-management mean a loss of personal control: Triangulating a paradox. *Group & Organization Management*, *11*(4), 309–334. https://doi.org/10.1177/0364108286114002

Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (1980). Self-management as a substitute for leadership: A social learning theory perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, *5*(3), 361–368. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1980.4288845

Mathieu, J. E., Kukenberger, M. R., D'Innocenzo, L., & Reilly, G. (2015). Modeling reciprocal team cohesion–performance relationships, as impacted by shared leadership and members' competence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(3), 713–734. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038898

McClelland, D. C., & Burnham, D. H. (1976). Power is the great motivator. *Harvard Business Review*, *54*(2), 100–110.

McCord, M., Houseworth, M., & Michaelson, L. K. (2015). The integrative business experience: Real choices and real consequences create real thinking. *Decision Sciences: Journal of Innovative Education*, *13*(3), 411–429. https://doi.org/10.1111/dsji.12070

McIlduff, E., & Coghlan, D. (2000). Understanding and contending with passive-aggressive behaviour in teams and organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *15*(7), 716–736. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940010378072

Milgram, S. (1965). Some conditions of obedience and disobedience to authority. *Human Relations*, *18*(1), 57–76. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872676501800105

Mischel, W. (1977). The interaction of person and situation. In D. Magnusson & N. S. Endler (Eds.), *Personality at the crossroads: Current issues in interactional psychology* (pp. 333–352). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Moe, N. B., Dingsøyr, T., & Dybå, T. (2009). Overcoming barriers to self-management in software teams. *IEEE Software*, *26*(6), 20–26. https://doi.org/10.1109/MS.2009.182

Morris, J. H., Steers, R. M., & Koch, J. L. (1979). Influence of organization structure on role conflict and ambiguity for three occupational groupings. *Academy of Management Journal*, *22*(1), 58–71. https://doi.org/10.5465/255478

Muethel, M., & Hoegl, M. (2013). Shared leadership effectiveness in independent professional teams. *European Management Journal*, *31*(4), 423–432. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2012.11.008

Newman, A., & Sheikh, A. Z. (2012). Organizational rewards and employee commitment: A Chinese study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *27*(1), 71–89. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941211193866

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill.

Okudan, G. E., & Rzasa, S. E. (2006). A project-based approach to entrepreneurial leadership education. *Technovation*, *26*(2), 195–210. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.technovation.2004.10.012

Overbeck, J., Correll, J., & Park, B. (2005). Internal status sorting in groups: The problem of too many stars. In M. C. Thomas-Hunt , E.A. Mannix, & M.A. Neale (Eds.), *Research on managing groups & teams* (vol. 7, pp. 169–199). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Pearce, C. L., Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (2009). Where do we go from here?: Is shared leadership the key to team success? *Organizational Dynamics*, *38*(3), 234–238. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2009.04.008

Pelled, L. H., Eisenhardt, K. M., & Xin, K. R. (1999). Exploring the Black box: An analysis of work group diversity, conflict and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *44*(1), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.2307/2667029

Pettersen, I. B., Åmo, B. W., van der Lingen, E., Voldsund, K. H., & Bragelien, J. J. (2019). Developing engineering students' willingness and ability to perform creative tasks. *Education + Training*, *61*(9), 1138–1150. https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-10-2018-0219

Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, *40*(3), 879–891. https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.40.3.879

Preller, R., Patzelt, H., & Breugst, N. (2020). Entrepreneurial visions in founding teams: Conceptualization, emergence, and effects on opportunity development. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *35*(2), 105914. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2018.11.004

Rasmussen, E., Mosey, S., & Wright, M. (2011). The evolution of entrepreneurial competencies: A longitudinal study of university spin-off venture emergence. *Journal of Management Studies*, *48*(6), 1314–1345. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2010.00995.x

Reich, R. B. (1987). Entrepreneurship reconsidered: The team as hero. *Harvard Business Review*, *65*(3), 77–83.

Reid, S. W., Anglin, A. H., Baur, J. E., Short, J. C., & Buckley, M. R. (2018). Blazing new trails or opportunity lost? Evaluating research at the intersection of leadership and entrepreneurship. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 150–164. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.11.005

Renko, M., El Tarabishy, A., Carsrud, A. L., & Brännback, M. (2015). Understanding and measuring entrepreneurial leadership style. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *53*(1), 54–74. https://doi.org/10.1111/jsbm.12086

Rigby, K., & Rump, E. E. (1979). The generality of attitude to authority. *Human Relations*, *32* (6), 469–487. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872677903200603

Robinson, P. B., Huefner, J. C., & Hunt, H. K. (1991). Entrepreneurial research on student subjects does not generalize to real world entrepreneurs. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *29*(2), 42–50. https://search.proquest.com/docview/220956493

Roccas, S., & Sagiv, L. (2010). Personal values and behavior: Taking the cultural context into account. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *4*(1), 30–41. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2009.00234.x

Ronay, R., Greenaway, K., Anicich, E. M., & Galinsky, A. D. (2012). The path to glory is paved with hierarchy: When hierarchical differentiation increases group effectiveness. *Psychological Science*, *23*(6), 669–677. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797611433876

Ros, M., Schwartz, S. H., & Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic individual values, work values, and the meaning of work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *48*(1), 49–71. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.1999.tb00048.x

Ruef, M., Aldrich, H. E., & Carter, N. M. (2003). The structure of founding teams: Homophily, strong ties, and isolation among U.S. entrepreneurs. *American Sociological Review*, *68*(2), 195–222. https://doi.org/10.2307/1519766

Sally, D. (2002). Co-leadership: Lessons from Republican Rome. *California Management Review*, *44*(4), 84–99. https://doi.org/10.2307/41166144

Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. S. K., & Cha, S. E. (2007). Embracing transformational leadership: Team values and the impact of leader behavior on team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(4), 1020–1030. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1020

Schjoedt, L. (2009). Entrepreneurial job characteristics: An examination of their effect on entrepreneurial satisfaction. *Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice*, *33*(3), 619–644. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2009.00319.x7

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (vol. 25, pp. 1–65). Academic Press.

Seibert, S. E., Wang, G., & Courtright, S. H. (2011). Antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organizations: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*(5), 981–1003. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0022676

Serban, A., & Roberts, A. J. B. (2016). Exploring antecedents and outcomes of shared leadership in a creative context: A mixed-methods approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *27*(2), 181–199. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.01.009

Simons, T., & Peterson, R. (2000). Task conflict and relationship conflict in top management teams: The pivotal role of intragroup trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *85*(1), 102–111. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.1.102

Simsek, Z., Jansen, J. J., Minichilli, A., & Escriba-Esteve, A. (2015). Strategic leadership and leaders in entrepreneurial contexts: A nexus for innovation and impact missed? *Journal of Management Studies*, *52*(4), 463–478. https://doi.org/10.1111/joms.12134

Smith, K. G., Carroll, S. J., & Ashford, S. J. (1995). Intra- and interorganizational cooperation: Toward a research agenda. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*(1), 7–23. https://doi.org/10.5465/256726

Spataro, S. E., Pettit, N. C., Sauer, S. J., & Lount, R. B. (2014). Interactions among same-status peers: Effects of behavioral style and status level. *Small Group Research*, *45*(3), 314–336. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496414532532

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. SAGE Publications.

Sprigg, C. A., Jackson, P. R., & Parker, S. K. (2000). Production teamworking: The importance of interdependence and autonomy for employee strain and satisfaction. *Human Relations*, *53*(11), 1519–1543. https://doi.org/10.1177/00187267005311005

Staniewski, M., & Awruk, K. (2015). Motivating factors and barriers in the commencement of one's own business for potential entrepreneurs. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, *28*(1), 583–592. https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2015.1083876

Staw, B. M. (1991). Dressing up like an organization: When psychological theories can explain organizational action. *Journal of Management*, *17*(4), 805–819. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700412

Stearns, F. (1972). *Anger: Psychology, physiology, and pathology*. Charles C. Thomas.

Steers, R. M., & Braunstein, D. N. (1976). A behaviorally-based measure of manifest needs in work settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *9*(2), 251–266. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(76)90083-X

Stewart, A. (1989). *Team entrepreneurship*. Sage Publications.

Sullivan, J. F., Carlson, L. E., & Carlson, D. W. (2001). Developing aspiring engineers into budding entrepreneurs: An invention and innovation course. *Journal of Engineering Education*, *90*(4), 571–576. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2001.tb00641.x

Tannenbaum, A. S. (1962). An event-structure approach to social power and to the problem of power comparability. *Behavioral Science*, *7*(3), 315–331. https://doi.org/10.1002/bs.3830070304

Tekleab, A. G., Quigley, N. R., & Tesluk, P. E. (2009). A longitudinal study of team conflict, conflict management, cohesion, and team effectiveness. *Group and Organization Management*, *34*(2), 170–205. https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601108331218

Thatcher, S. M. B., & Greer, L. L. (2008). Does it really matter if you recognize who i am? The implications of identity comprehension for individuals in work teams. *Journal of Management*, *34*(1), 5–24. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307308909

Tiedens, L., & Fragale, A. (2003). Power moves: Complementarity in dominant and submissive nonverbal behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(3), 558–568. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.84.3.558

Timmons, J. A. (1975). The enterpreneurial team: An American dream or nightmare? *Journal of Small Business Management*, *13*(4), 33–38. https://search.proquest.com/openview/5d483057cbf156398d5f6b4f26fc704b/1

Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental sequence in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, *63*(6), 384–399. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0022100

Tuckman, B. W., & Jensen, M. A. C. (1977). Stages of small-group development. *Group & Organization Studies*, *2*(4), 419–427. https://doi.org/10.1177/105960117700200404

Van Bunderen, L., Greer, L., & van Knippenberg, D. (2018). When interteam conflict spirals into intrateam power struggles: The pivotal role of team power structures. *Academy of Management Journal*, *61*(3), 1100–1130. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2016.0182

Van Der Vegt, G., Emans, B., & Van De Vliert, E. (2000). Team members' affective responses to patterns of intragroup interdependence and job complexity. *Journal of Management*, *26*(4), 633–655. https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600403

Van Gelderen, M. (2016). Entrepreneurial autonomy and its dynamics. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *65*(3), 541–567. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12066

Van Gelderen, M., & Jansen, P. (2006). Autonomy as a start-up motive. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, *13*(1), 23–32. https://doi.org/10.1108/14626000610645289

Van Gelderen, M., Shirokova, G., Shchegolev, V., & Beliaeva, T. (2017). Entrepreneurial autonomy in Russia: A comparison with the Netherlands. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, *2017*(1), 13590. https://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2017.13590abstract

Van Kleef, G. A., Oveis, C., van der Lowe, I., LuoKogan, A., Goetz, J., & Keltner, D. (2008). Power, distress, and compassion: Turning a blind eye to the suffering of others. *Psychological Science*, *19*(12), 1315–1322. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02241.x

Vecchio, R. P. (2003). Entrepreneurship and leadership: Common trends and common threads. *Human Resource Management Review*, *13*(2), 303–327. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1053-4822(03)00019-6

Von Graevenitz, G., Harhoff, D., & Weber, R. (2010). The effects of entrepreneurship education. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, *76*(1), 90–112. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jebo.2010.02.015

Vranceanu, R., Ouardighi, F. E., & Dubart, D. (2015). Team production with punishment option: Insights from a real-effort experiment. *Managerial & Decision Economics*, *36*(6), 408–420. https://doi.org/10.1002/mde.2678

Ward, A. J., Lankau, M. J., Amason, A. C., Sonnenfeld, J. A., & Agle, B. R. (2007). Improving the performance of top management teams. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *48*(3), 85–90. http://sloanreview.mit.edu/wp-content/uploads/1999/11/4042bd9387.pdf

Warhuus, J. P., Tanggaard, L., Robinson, S., & Ernø, S. M. (2017). From I to we: Collaboration in entrepreneurship education and learning? *Education + Training*, *59*(3), 234–249. https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-08-2015-0077

Wasserman, N. (2012). *The founder's dilemmas: Anticipating and avoiding the pitfalls that can sink a startup*. Princeton University Press.

Watson, W. E., Ponthieu, L. D., & Critelli, J. W. (1995). Team interpersonal process effectiveness in venture partnerships and its connection to perceived success. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *10*(5), 393–411. https://doi.org/10.1016/0883-9026(95)00036-8

Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1967). Manual for the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire. *Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation*, *22*. http://vpr.psych.umn.edu/sites/vpr.dl.umn.edu/files/monograph_xxii_-_manual_for_the_mn_satisfaction_questionnaire.pdf

Williams, E. A., Duray, R., & Reddy, V. (2006). Teamwork orientation, group cohesiveness, and student learning: A study of the use of teams in online distance education. *Journal of Management Education*, *30*(4), 592–616. https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562905276740

Wood, R. E., Goodman, J. S., Beckmann, N., & Cook, A. (2008). Mediation testing in management research a review and proposals. *Organizational Research Methods*, *11*(2), 270–295. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428106297811

Yang, K.-S., Yu, A.-B., & Yeh, M. H. (1989). *Chinese individual modernity and traditionality: Construct definition and measurement" (in Chinese)*. Proceedings of the Interdisciplinary Conference on Chinese Psychology and Behavior (pp. 287–354).

Yang, L., Huang, C., & Wu, K. (2011). The association among project manager's leadership style, teamwork and project success. *International Journal of Project Management*, *29*(3), 258–267. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2010.03.006