Dealing With New Members: Team Members' Reactions to Newcomer's Attractiveness and Sex

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We examine how team members respond to the inclusion of new members' physical attractiveness and sex. Drawing on Social Exchange Theory, we argue and show that incumbent team members engage in three behaviors (mimicry, ingratiation, and challenging) in response to the inclusion of more or less attractive male or female members in their team. Using a multilevel experimental design, we show that existing team members mimic newcomers who are higher on physical attractiveness and that the effect is more pronounced when there is a sex match (i.e., existing males mimic new males more). Furthermore, they ingratiate toward the physically attractive newcomers who are also committed to the task. In addition, we find that existing team members challenge physically attractive females who are committed to the task. Our findings suggest that the basic combinations of primary cues of newcomers' characteristics affect intrateam behaviors and produce different outcomes across sexes for attractiveness. By shifting the attention to the effect that newcomers have on team behaviors, the study provides novel insights for scholars that help move the discussion of team membership changes beyond the traditional accounts of new member socialization and team effectiveness.

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Changes in team membership significantly shape the evolution of teams. Although the inclusion of new members in teams can have profound consequences for team incumbents, a considerable emphasis of the team composition dynamics literature (Humphrey & Aime, 2014) has been to focus on broad team changes (i.e., size, centralization, turnover, and new membership), examining their impact on team processes and performance (Arrow & McGrath, 1993; Moreland & Levine, 1989; Summers et al., 2012). Some researchers have examined how broadly defined compositional changes—adding or subtracting members—affect team outcomes, with mixed findings showing that compositional changes can be both beneficial (Kane et al., 2005; Gorman et al., 2010) or detrimental to teamwork (Gruenfeld et al., 2000; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2012), whereas other researchers have focused on the socialization of new members

into their new teams (Rink et al., 2013). These two literatures are linked by their focus on broad rather that specific composition changes. In what may be attributable to a tradition of treating new team members either as undifferentiated or as more novice members of a team, however, virtually no attention has been devoted to study the processes that the arrival of a new team member produces on the incumbent team members.

In this article, we attenuate the assumption of new team members as undifferentiated and probe into the question of how new members may influence the behaviors of team incumbents. Specifically, we look at how differences in *sex* and *physical attractiveness* activate team incumbents' behaviors. Consistent with Blau's (1964: 44) notion that "the impressive qualities that make a person a particularly attractive ... group member also constitute a status threat to the rest," we argue that the inclusion of more or less physically attractive team members redefines the local distribution of status within the team (where status is defined as "an index of the social value that observers ascribe to an individual or a group"; Bendersky & Pai, 2018, p. 184) and forces incumbent team members to shape their interactions with the newcomer in response.

Much like in the comparison activation illustrated in Marx's statement that "let there arise next to the little house a palace, and the little house shrinks to a hut" (Useem, 1975: 53), we suggest that adding, for example, a new attractive male member to a team will activate status stabilizing processes within teams (i.e., the process of abating the fluctuation in status hierarchy produced by the introduction of a new member within a team), with implications for

incumbent member behaviors. We unpack our core question—*Do existing members exhibit different behaviors based on the new member's sex and attractiveness?*—by focusing on how the characteristics and motivation of the newcomer affect how existing team members act. To better understand the functioning of contemporary cross-functional teams, it is relevant to question how the characteristics of newcomers affect group processes.

Theory and Hypotheses

Physical Attractiveness, Sex, and Social Exchange Theory in Teams

Social Exchange Theory (SET; Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1972a, 1972b; Homans, 1961) has been a core theoretical paradigm within the social sciences for over 50 years. The basic premise of SET is that human behavior is fundamentally a social process where individuals engage in a dyadic social exchange over time (Homans, 1961). As defined by Blau (1964: 91), social exchange is the "voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others." Put more generally, SET posits that individuals do things for others either because they expect to be rewarded by the other (Blau, 1964) or because they have been rewarded for doing these things in the past (Homans, 1961).

If dyadic social exchanges were perfectly reciprocal (i.e., Person A's exchange with Person B was perfectly reciprocated by Person B, with Person B exchanging something of equal value with Person A), we would lack hierarchies within social systems (Emerson, 1972b). Yet, the lack of perfect reciprocation introduces an imbalance in a social exchange relationship (i.e., Person A provides more value to Person B than vice versa; Emerson, 1962). This imbalance creates dyadic dependencies (Person B relies on Person A) that must be resolved in order for a social exchange relationship to continue (Emerson, 1962). When considering team composition, Blau (1964) argued that as groups form, there is a tension in the group regarding the ability of different members to provide value to the group (i.e., behave, perform, or otherwise contribute to the group) creating a set of dyadic social imbalances that need to be resolved in order for social exchange to continue. Following the same logic, we argue that the entrance of a new member into a group introduces flux into the collective (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Summers et al., 2012), promoting a series of social imbalances that will necessitate reconciliation of the new member's expected value relative to the remainder of the team to provide stability to the social hierarchy (Blau, 1964; Berger et al., 1977; Emerson, 1962).

In the absence of specific information on task competence of the new member (or even in the presence of that information; Ridgeway et al., 1994), members will use available universal cues[1], like sex or physical attractiveness, to develop expectations of his or her performance, leading to the attribution of value to the new member, and the development of social instability in the team (i.e., it is unclear whether the existing team hierarchy is appropriate because the new member may slot above at least one member, thus changing the team hierarchy.

We study the effect of the physical attractiveness and sex of newcomers on existing member behaviors because research has demonstrated that these characteristics have nearly universal status implications (though there is a clear variation in valence across cultures), and thus encompass a broad domain that is applicable to any human society and present across different cultures and communities. *Physical attractiveness* is a valued characteristic in social interactions. The evolutionary perspective argues that "attraction to beauty is a universal part of the Darwinist struggle that pushes human beings toward activities that are likely to promote the survival of their genes" (Tsfati et al., 2010: 177), and it is therefore an outcome of natural selection (Gangestad & Scheyd, 2005). Physical attractiveness has been found to positively influence the evaluations of performance (Berger et al., 1980) and has a significant impact on the judgments and treatment by the perceivers (Langlois et al., 2000), providing attractive people with several benefits: People desire to form close bonds with attractive individuals (Lemay et al., 2010), they are more willing to help and become more sociable and enthusiastic with them (e.g., Andersen & Bem, 1981), and people assume physically attractive individuals possess unrelated positive characteristics such as social skills and task competence even if they do not actually hold them (Anderson et al., 2001).

Sex is another characteristic that creates differential expectations of value for team newcomers. According to Berger et al. (1980), there is a high level of agreement on the traits that differentiate males from females (see also Conway et al., 1996; Jost & Banaji, 1994). Particularly, the general expectations of differences between males and females are that males are more intelligent, more logical, and more rational than females (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). Although beliefs and expectations about sex may vary by individuals, across cultures, or over time, research continues to show that males are thought to be more capable and competent than females[2] (e.g., Fiske et al., 2002; Kacmar et al., 2011; Kroska & Cason, 2019).

Because actual performance capability is generally unknown, we argue that newcomers' sex and physical attractiveness will affect how incumbent members behave toward newcomers (Berger et al., 1970, 1977). Consistent with previous sociological research, our theorizing looks at the effect of cumulative cues (Ridgeway, 1991), such that a new member who is attractive will be considered more valuable, and a person who is physically attractive and male will be considered more valuable and consistent in cues while a person who is physically attractive and female will be considered more valuable but with inconsistent cues eliciting different behaviors in group incumbents (Berger et al., 1977). It is important to note here that, although there is strong evidence for the effect of these characteristics as diffuse status cues, we follow the study by Correll and Ridgeway (2006) in stating that we are not endorsing the content of the beliefs associated with these cues; instead, we are focused on identifying the impact of physical attractiveness and sex of newcomers on incumbent team member behavior.

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[1] Status Characteristics Theory views status as global (i.e., the status characteristics signal one's status independent of the specific group), which means that a newcomer possessing characteristics that signal high status will be viewed as high status regardless of whether the existing team members dislike the new member or find him/her dissimilar to themselves (cf., Hinds et al., 2000; Rink & Ellemers, 2015).

[2] An important addition to this argument is that being a woman can be seen as a higher-status characteristic when a group is performing a female gendered task (e.g., nurturing tasks; see Chatman et al., 2008; Conway et al., 1996). In the absence of a specifically female gendered context, however, men are diffusely judged as more competent (and thus higher status) than women (i.e., this is the default evaluation applied, particularly in the United States; Ashmore, 1981; Connell, 1987; Wagner & Berger, 1997). In our study, we did not select a clearly female gendered task, which defaulted our population to the "male is higher status" condition.

To identify various behaviors expected from the team members when a new male or female team member that is high or low on physical attractiveness joins a team, we embrace three behaviors (i.e., mimicry, ingratiation, and challenging) in consistency with Emerson's (1962) theorizing in which rebalancing actions are grouped into four categories[3], directed toward the new team member for the purpose of our article. First, one can alter the network within a team by changing the nature of the relationships between team members, ultimately with the goal of reducing the dependency upon the highly valued new team member (e.g., expanding the network or mimicking the new highly valued team member). Second, one can grant recognition to a highly valued new team member—special rewards will increase his or her motivational investment in the relationship, thus raising their dependency upon the incumbent team member (i.e., ingratiation). Third, incumbent members can act to potentially delegitimize the highly valued new member's value to the team (i.e., challenging). Finally, one can motivationally withdraw from the relationship, such as renouncing to the value of relationship or reducing the interest in the relationship. In this process, the incumbent member comes to deny his or her dependency by moving away from the relationship with the new member.

Although all actions are plausible, each action has a cost associated with it. By cost, we mean that these behaviors may require motivational expenditure (e.g., engaging in an action takes effort and/or perseverance, for both of which individuals have only a limited set of resources to expend at any given time; Hobfoll, 1989) and/or have social consequences (e.g., granting recognition may use social capital whereas denying it may lead to ostracism; Morrill, 1991). Some behaviors may be limited in cost, consisting of minimal (or unconscious) action on the part of an individual. In contrast, other behaviors have a high cost. For example, Emerson's (1962) third category of actions entails weaker members acting against the stronger actor. One can visualize a military coup attempting to topple a leader—success is far from guaranteed and failure has significant negative consequences for the weak members.

In our study, we specifically theorize and test the three different types of members' reactions that correspond to the first three status stabilizing strategies proposed by Emerson (1962): mimicry, ingratiation, and challenging. We do not argue or test the fourth potential strategy in our article because of the inherent costs of pursuing such a strategy and because the option of fully withdrawing from the collective is often times either physically or motivationally limited in field and experimental settings. In doing this, we agree with Emerson's view of withdrawal as an option that, when available, individuals are often reticent to adopt. Consistently, in our study, we focus on the three readily available options.

Mimicry

When a new member is a male or female higher on physical attractiveness, a low-cost behavior to alter the nature of the network structure within the team by adjusting the dyadic relationships between members is to *mimic the new physically attractive member* (Jones et al., 1963)[4]. The idea that people mimic each other has received much attention in recent years (e.g., Neumann & Strack, 2000; Lakin & Chartrand, 2003; Lakin et al., 2003; Salazar Kämpf et al., 2018; van Baaren et al., 2004), with researchers finding that mimicry provides the benefits of increases in rapport, empathy, affiliation, and liking (e.g., Lakin & Chartrand, 2003; van Baaren

et al., 2004). Although people may consciously mirror others' behaviors, researchers have become more interested in *nonconscious mimicking* behaviors, attending to the fact that animal species that had automatic mimicking tendencies survived through natural selection (Lakin et al., 2003). Following the logic of selection, mimicking the behaviors of those assumed to be valuable contributors leads to the performance of behaviors expected to be more successful (Frank, 1985). Research has demonstrated that mimicking happens almost automatically (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999), without any perceived cost on the actor and, thus, one of the easiest behaviors to reduce the imbalances produced by a highly valued new team member.

Building off of Emerson's (1962) arguments, as a member acts like—and therefore becomes like—a newcomer who is higher on physical attractiveness, other members' perceptions about him or her will change (cf., Jones et al., 1963). The attractive newcomer will utilize the social information exchanged through mimicry to quickly evaluate the mimicking member (Lester et al., 2008), inducing the newcomer to like the mimicking member more, creating an affiliation with the new member (Lakin & Chartrand, 2003). This in turn signals greater similarity between individuals through this affiliation (Benjamin & Podolny, 1999), one of the critical factors in the acceptance of newcomers (Cimino & Delton, 2010; Hinds et al., 2000).

As an existing member's worth in the team increases, the nature of relationships—and the quality of the network structure—with other incumbent members will also be enhanced accordingly. By doing so, the member can reduce his or her dependency upon the new member who is high on physical attractiveness, thus attaining more status within the team. We therefore hypothesize the following:

> *Hypothesis 1:* New members who are highly physically attractive will be mimicked more by existing team members than new members who are lower on physical attractiveness.

Ingratiation

The second stabilizing operation is to alter the target actor's motivational investment in goals by giving him or her recognition (Emerson, 1962). Emerson asserted that although the rewards could take a variety of forms, ego-gratifications are an effective stabilizing strategy because of their relative high value to the recipient (cf.,

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[3] Research on power and status ordering has differentiated between the power component (what has been decomposed into sources of power, power hierarchies, and power expressions; see Aime et al., 2014; French & Raven 1959; Magee & Galinsky, 2008) and the status component (which has been labeled prestige ordering in the past research; Berger et al., 1972; Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). Although there are meaningful differences between these two constructs (Blader & Chen, 2012), Emerson (1962) noted that they share a common construct space, as both are connected to perception of differences in capabilities (e.g., power is associated with the ability to reward others, whereas status is associated with the ability to perform a task). Because of this, we follow Emerson's arguments that mechanisms that influence power imbalances should also be connected to status instability and refer to status stabilizing operations based on Emerson equalization of power and status.

[4] Although one of the more in-depth examples referenced by Emerson was extending the size of the network by forming new relationships with alternative actors, this is a problematic solution in a closed-system (such as an organizational team) because team members cannot choose to bring additional members in to stabilize their own status ordering.

Jones et al., 1963) but at a higher cost to the ingratiator. Ingratiation can be understood as a tactical form of social exchange in which the intentional goal is to stabilize the dyadic exchange relationship (Jones, 1965) by increasing liking (Jones, 1964). Because people are more attracted to those who seem to be attracted to them, this strategy is effective in evoking interpersonal attraction and liking (Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Ingratiation has also been understood as an automatic reaction to social cues such as dependency on one another (Jones & Wortman, 1973) without any controlled planning (Gordon, 1996).

Ingratiating toward a new team member, however, requires substantially more effort from the actors than mimicry, as it involves acknowledging and praising the other person's value and granting status recognition, which requires energy and conscious expenditure of social capital from team members (Morrill, 1991). Therefore, team members will look for additional dependency cues beyond status cues before they exert more costly efforts like ingratiation. One such justification is the commitment of the new member to the team goals. Commitment "implies the extension of effort, over time, toward the accomplishment of an original goal and emphasizes an unwillingness to abandon or to lower the original goal" (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987: 212). As such, new team member commitment enhances the value of stabilizing operations directed toward the new member because it signals their relevance to the team in terms of involvement (Hansen & Levine, 2009).

Although mimicry (as proposed in Hypothesis 1) is automatic and free of cost, the higher cost of ingratiation implies the need for the incumbent members to evaluate both the personal cues about the newcomer—physical attractiveness—and the situation (i.e., their commitment to the task) to activate their behavioral response. If one thinks of this in terms of Boolean logic, it is necessary for the newcomer to both be high on physical attractiveness and commitment to the task for there to be enough instability to overcome the cost of ingratiating toward the newcomer. This differentiation between strategies is consistent with the logic of person by situation arguments of classic interactional psychology (Endler & Magnusson, 1976). We therefore hypothesize that

> *Hypothesis 2:* There will be an interaction between new team member physical attractiveness and new team member expressed commitment to the task, such that existing team members will ingratiate toward a new team member more when the new team member is higher on physical attractiveness and exhibits commitment to team tasks, as compared to new members who are either low on physical attractiveness or are high on physical attractiveness but not committed to the team task.

Challenge

The third stabilizing operation is to challenge or oppose the high-status member (Emerson, 1962). Compared to the other stabilizing behaviors, challenging the new member can be considered the highest cost action. The potential costs of challenges are notable— as noted by Morrill (1991), those who challenged legitimate highly valued others in his investigation of "Playco" executives faced severe social consequences (e.g., both a lack of trust and ostracism). We therefore expect that challenging behaviors will only take place under certain circumstances. First, like our predictions for ingratiation, we do not expect that challenging behavior will occur in situations where the new member has self-reduced the instability in the team by disengaging motivationally from the task. Second, because challenging is a classic response to questions of legitimacy in social exchange relationships (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Tyler, 1997), we do not expect existing team members to challenge a new member who has consistent, highly valued social cues. Specifically, we expect the costs of challenging to be lower when challenging new members who are both high on physical attractiveness and female because this combination of characteristics signals conflicting expectations for performance (i.e., being attractive signals high competence, whereas being female signals lower competence; Berger et al., 1980). In this case, we expect that the new member will be challenged. That is, in conditions of high commitment to the team task, a new member who is a male high on physical attractiveness possesses diffuse cues that uniformly signal high levels of competence, and thus would be thought of as possessing a legitimate place in the status hierarchy. In contrast, if the new member is a physically attractive female, she possesses inconsistent cues that call into question the legitimacy of her status. In this situation, we expect that existing team members will challenge the new member.

> *Hypothesis 3:* There will be an interaction between new team member characteristics and new team member expressed commitment to the task, such that existing team members will challenge a new team member more when (a) the new team member is a female higher on physical attractiveness and (b) demonstrates commitment to the team task, as compared to a new member who is a male lower on physical attractiveness or is not committed to the team task.

Method

Participants and Design

Participants were undergraduate college students enrolled in four sections of a core junior-level undergraduate business course at a large United States university (Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) # BU-11–37; "Team Membership"). They were randomly assigned into four to five person teams in the beginning of the semester to work on various activities that required teamwork and active interactions with each other. The only constraint on the random assignment was that all teams must be mixed sex in composition (on average, teams were 56% male). The teams completed course assignments for course credit within their classes. In addition, they could receive extra credit for participating in the study and a cash reward if they were among the highest performing teams. In total, 289 students participated in the study (128 women, 161 men; mean age = 20.69; 60 teams).

Teams were created at the beginning of the semester. Two weeks later, all teams completed the Marshmallow Challenge task (Wujek, 2010) to give teams an opportunity to complete an interdependent task with a clearly defined goal (two defining characteristics of teams; Mathieu et al., 2008). This task consisted of building the largest free-standing structure possible in 18 min, using only 20 sticks of spaghetti, one yard of tape, one yard of string, and one marshmallow, where the marshmallow had to be on the top. Following the completion of the task, we asked the participants to rate each member of their team (7-point scale) on seven items related

to status (e.g., "this team member is the most competent; this team member has the highest status") that were derived from Anderson et al's (2001) definition of status. The scale demonstrated sufficient reliability ($\alpha = .95$), and there was sufficient agreement within the team, intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) (1, k) = .32; ICC (2, k) = .66. $F = 2.90$. Analyzing this data, we saw differentiation within teams on the ratings of individuals. The average standard deviation within teams on status ratings was .69, with an average range from highest to lowest status ranking within teams of 1.62. Thus, we concluded that this exercise was of sufficient length and content to create a clear hierarchy within the team (Berger et al., 1972). Controlling for this variable in our hypotheses tests did not affect our results or conclusions.

Finally, following their completion of the first task, teams were invited to the laboratory to complete the second task. All teams that participated in the laboratory portion of the study did so within 2 weeks of completing the first task. Each team was randomly assigned to a cell in a 3 (a male attractive new member vs. a female attractive new member vs. control) × 2 (high vs. low commitment level of the new member) design.

Of particular importance, which we detail in greater depth below, is that the second task of our study was designed to produce separation between the different operationalizations of the constructs. First, our independent variables were structural manipulations. Second, our three stabilizing behaviors were collected from three different sources: video coding, participant rating of others in the team, and confederate ratings of behaviors directed toward themselves.

Procedure

As each team arrived at the laboratory, teams were assigned to unique rooms. In each room, teams had access to a table on which there was a stack of blank papers, nametag labels, consent forms, and pens. There were also two video cameras set up in each room: Video 1 was plugged in and pointing at the table and Video 2 available to the teams for use in their team task.

Once each member read through and signed the consent form, they were asked to write their names on labels. Each team was introduced to a new person (i.e., the confederate) who was to join their team for the task. We verified that the confederates did not personally know any member of the team they were going to work with. Participants (including the new member) were then asked to look into the camera and introduce themselves.

The task was to make and tape a 60-sec commercial for a new start-up cellphone company, with a detailed description of the company provided on the instruction sheet. Each team was given 45 min to create and rehearse the commercial (which could be in any creative form they wanted), as well as an iPad to gather information from the internet. Participants were all aware of the fact that the whole 45-min period was to be taped by the first video camera. After 45 min, each team filmed the commercial in front of Video 2.

Manipulations

For the purposes of this study, we recruited confederates from the undergraduate psychology program using personal contacts (i.e., we did not "post" recruitment information). When interviewing potential confederates, three members of the research team also rated the applicants on physical attractiveness using a single item

("how attractive is this person?") on a five-point scale, selecting the highly rated potential confederates into the attractive condition and the lower rated into the control condition[5]. Every confederate in the study attended a 1-hr training session. During the session, they were given the instructions on the role they would be playing and on how they need to behave during the actual experiment. Because each of the different types of confederates attended a different training session, none of the confederates were exposed to or made aware of what the roles of the other confederates in the study were.

In every training session, instructors explained the team task and made sure the confederates understood that although they were to be participants in the team, they were not to "suggest new ideas" or otherwise make a "creative contribution" to the task. Moreover, they were also told not to take on leadership roles and advised them to follow their team's lead. They were also required to take a hold of the iPad as soon as it was placed on the table.

Confederates were told that their responsibility was to act either committed to or uncommitted to the team task, depending upon session (all confederates participated in both high- and low-commitment conditions). For the high-commitment condition, confederates were to use the iPad productively to assist with the task, whereas for the low-commitment condition, they were asked to check their email, read unrelated news, or pull up YouTube videos. The commitment manipulation was to be implemented almost immediately upon entering the experimental session.

For the physical attractiveness manipulation, we created two dummy codes: higher attractiveness males and higher attractiveness females, with the control condition—which was composed of average to below average attractive confederates (balanced both male and female)—represented as a 0 for both dummy codes[6]. For commitment, we created a dichotomous variable representing low commitment (0) or high commitment (1).

In total, there were 12 confederates utilized in the study, 4 in the attractive male condition, 4 in the attractive female condition, and 4 in the control condition. The confederates were between 20 and 22 years old and all were Caucasian.

Measures

Mimicry

We measured mimicry by coding the verbal and nonverbal behaviors of the team member displayed in the video recording of their interaction. Each video was rated by three to four ($M = 3.16$) coders (each coder coded only a subset of the total

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[5] To verify that the experimenters were not biased in their personal evaluation of the confederates, we validated our rating after the experiment by analyzing the participants' ratings of the confederates. Our manipulation check showed that the highly attractive confederates ($M = 4.85$) were rated as more attractive than the less attractive confederates ($M = 4.03$), $t = 2.74$, $p = .02$.

[6] We tested whether there was an impact of separating the control condition into male and female control conditions. The results of these analyses demonstrated that the two control conditions were not different. Specifically, for mimicry, there is no significant interaction between confederate sex and attractiveness ($z = -1.03$); for ingratiation, there is no significant three-way interaction between confederate sex, attractiveness, and commitment ($z = 0.88$); and for challenging, there is no significant three-way interaction between confederate sex, attractiveness, and commitment ($z = -1.32$).

videos) using a 10-question scale (see the Appendix). We found acceptable reliability on the scale ($\alpha = .94$) and consistency across the coders [ICC $(1, k) = .31$, $F = 2.45$, $p < .001$; ICC $(2, k) = .59$].

Ingratiation

After the task was completed, each team member filled out a questionnaire asking how much each of the members in their team ingratiated toward the new member during the task. Each team member rated the other team members on a five-item scale (see Appendix). We averaged all five items to create a scale and averaged all team members' ratings of the focal individual (not including oneself) to create the measure. We found acceptable reliability on the scale ($\alpha = .92$) and consistency on the team member evaluations [ICC $(1, k) = .30$, $F = 2.79$, $p < .001$; ICC $(2, k) = .64$].

Challenge

After the task was finished, each confederate completed a questionnaire asking the extent to which each of the team members challenged him or her. The confederates rated the other team members on a seven-item scale (see the Appendix). We found acceptable reliability on the scale ($\alpha = .82$).

Attractiveness

After the task was completed, each team member rated the attractiveness of every other team member (see the Appendix). We found acceptable consistency across raters on the attractiveness of team members [ICC $(1, k) = .20$, $F = 2.09$, $p < .001$; ICC $(2, k) = .52$].

Analyses

We tested our hypotheses with multilevel modeling using the "multilevel" package in R[7] (Bliese, 2006). We also reran all hypotheses in HLM 6 (Raudenbush et al., 2004) to replicate the results from R and estimated the differences between conditions via contrast effects testing in HLM. The manipulation variables (i.e., attractiveness, sex, and commitment of the new member) were modeled as Level 2 variables (team level), whereas the attractiveness of the existing member and their sex were modeled as Level 1 variables (individual level). Existing member attractiveness was group-mean centered at Level 1 (Enders & Tofighi, 2007) to remove the variance that is attributable to between-team variables, and all manipulation variables at Level 2 were dummy coded and uncentered. This method accounts for clustering of the data and avoids inaccurate standard errors and biased statistical conclusions due to nonindependence (Bliese, 2000). The analysis partitions the variances of observations into two components, the between-group variances and within-group variances, thus ensuring that the estimation of the within-group effects and between-group effects will not contaminate each other. To explore the shape of significant interactions, we plotted the interaction in a bar chart. We also conducted exploratory analyses of the effect of existing member's physical attractiveness and sex on the stabilizing behaviors (full information included in the Online Supplement). To assess the amount of variance in the outcome variables, we computed the values of pseudo R^2 accounted for by the study constructs for each model (Aguinis et al., 2013; Snijders & Bosker, 1993, 2012), and

reported the likelihood ratio test for each pair of analyses. We also reported the explained variance for the random slopes for all exploratory analyses in the online supplement.

Results

Hypothesis Testing

Table 1 shows the mean values, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables. Hypothesis 1 predicted that existing team members would mimic the behaviors of a new member high on physical attractiveness. As shown in Model 1 of Table 2, higher attractiveness females ($\gamma = .68$, $p < .01$) and higher attractiveness males ($\gamma = .57$, $p = .02$) were mimicked more by the existing team members than the new members in the control group. Thus, the results support Hypothesis 1.

We further examined whether these results were affected by the commitment of the attractive new member. Results of the interaction test (Model 2) suggested a significant positive interaction between commitment and higher attractiveness males ($\gamma = .96$, $p = .02$), and a negative interaction between commitment and higher attractiveness females ($\gamma = -.75$, $p = .03$). The results of this interaction are shown in Figure 1, which demonstrate that team members mimic highly committed, higher attractiveness men more than low commitment, higher attractiveness men, and that higher attractiveness females were more likely to be mimicked when they had low commitment. This is perhaps attributable in part to the fact that behaviors associated with low commitment—not talking—are easy to replicate, as it does not take effort to not talk.

We next turned to predictors of ingratiation. As shown in Model 3 of Table 3, there was neither a significant direct relationship between the physical attractiveness of the new member nor commitment on ingratiation. Hypothesis 2 predicted that existing team members will ingratiate toward the new member most frequently when the new member was high on both attractiveness and commitment. As shown in Model 4 of Table 3, there was a significant interaction between higher attractiveness females and commitment on ingratiation ($\gamma = 1.18$, $p = .02$) and a significant interaction between higher attractiveness males and commitment ($\gamma = 1.28$, $p = .04$).

We plotted the interactions shown in Figure 2. In examining the interaction, it shows that ingratiation occurred more frequently toward higher attractiveness males or females when they were high on commitment. In an unexpected finding, the results demonstrate that low commitment control new members were also ingratiated toward. Thus, we found support for the primary focus of the hypothesis (that higher physical attractiveness new members will be ingratiated toward more when they display high commitment to the task), though we also found an unexpected result pertaining to the ingratiation toward members low on commitment and attractiveness.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that existing team members would challenge new higher attractiveness females who are committed to the task more than they will challenge other new members. As shown in Model 5 of Table 4, there were no main effects of physical attractiveness or commitment on challenging. However, as shown in Model 6, there was a significant interaction between higher attractiveness females and commitment on challenging ($\gamma = .44$, $p < .05$).

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[7] The annotated R code and output for all models are in an OSF registered repository, accessible at https://osf.io/hb8p2/?view_only=e5513b71d4ec4a23 83cec1ce6993d6da.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Focal Study Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	ICC (1)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Level 1 variables											
1. Mimicry	3.43	.81	.42								
2. Ingratiation	4.22	.55	.73	.01							
3. Challenging	1.42	.48	.48	−.17	−.01						
4. Existing member attract.	4.96	.70	.43	.04	.46**	.19					
5. Existing member sex	.56	.50	.00	.00	−.06	−.02	−.15				
6. Existing member age	20.56	2.80	.01	−.02	−.12	−.01	−.06	.16			
Level 2 variables											
7. Higher attractiveness males	.20	.40		.16	−.05	−.19	.09	.06	−.11		
8. Higher attractiveness females	.38	.49		.32**	−.14	.18	−.05	−.07	.06	−.39	
9. Commitment	.53	.50		−.12	−.10	.17	.06	−.07	.09	−.03	−.02

Note. Level 1 $N = 289$ existing team members; Level 2 $N = 60$ teams. Correlations, mean values, and standard deviations for the Level 1 variables represent relationships at the within-group level of analysis. Level 1 variables were aggregated to provide estimates of between group relationships with Level 2 variable. Attract. = Attractiveness. ICC = intraclass correlation coefficient.
* $p < .05$.   ** $p < .01$.

Our plot of the interaction clarifies these results further. As shown in Figure 3, higher attractiveness women who displayed high commitment were challenged significantly more than other new members. If the higher attractiveness women displayed low commitment, they were not challenged particularly differently than other new members. Interestingly, our results show that higher attractiveness males who displayed high commitment to the task were almost never challenged, with the result approaching the floor for the scale ($M = 1.11$), though the difference between high and low commitment was not statistically significant for higher attractiveness males. Thus, we found support for Hypothesis 3.

Exploratory Analyses

Although we did not make predictions about the effect of existing team members on stabilizing behaviors, we took the opportunity to examine whether existing members' attractiveness and sex affected the incidence of the stabilizing behaviors. We were aware that existing members are not empty vessels, reacting solely to the situational cues—there is reason to suspect that depending upon the existing member's attractiveness or sex, the behaviors become more or less frequent or pronounced. We examined these potential effects through a series of multilevel analyses, the full results of which are provided in an Online Supplement.

Discussion

Our study supports the prediction that the introduction of a new, physically attractive member to an existing team elicits stabilizing reactions from the other team members. In this study, we have examined the impact of new members' physical attractiveness and

Table 2

Results of Multilevel Analyses Predicting Mimicry

	Mimicry									
	Model 1					Model 2				
Level and variables	γ	SE	df	t value	p value	γ	SE	df	t value	p value
Level 1										
Intercept (γ_{00})	3.17	.17	227	19.02	.00	3.15	.18	227	17.62	.00
Existing member attractiveness (γ_{10})	−.01	.10	227	−.11	.91	−.03	.10	227	−.32	.75
Existing member sex (γ_{20})	−.03	.11	227	−.29	.77	−.05	.12	227	−.48	.63
Level 2										
Higher attractiveness females (γ_{01})	.68**	.19	56	3.58	.00	1.09**	.25	54	4.32	
Higher attractiveness males (γ_{02})	.57*	.23	56	2.47	.02	.09	.29	54	.30	.77
Commitment (γ_{03})	−.20	.17	56	−1.15	.25	−.15	.24	54	−.64	.53
Higher attractiveness females × commitment (γ_{04})						−.75*	.34	54	−2.23	.03
Higher attractiveness males × commitment (γ_{05})						.96*	.41	54	2.36	.02
Variance components										
Within-team (L1) variance (σ^2)	.53					.52				
Intercept (L2) variance (τ_{00})	.22					.11				
Attractiveness slope (L2) variance (τ_{11})	.17					.16				
Sex slope (L2) variance (τ_{22})	.19					.24				
Pseudo R^2			.12					.17		
Likelihood ratio test						$\chi^2(2) = 15.62$, $p < .01$				

Note. $n = 289$ team members from $N = 60$ teams. All coefficients unstandardized. Existing member sex coded as 0 = Female, 1 = Male.
* $p < .05$.   ** $p < .01$.

Figure 1

Interaction Between New Member Attractiveness, Sex, and Commitment on Mimicry
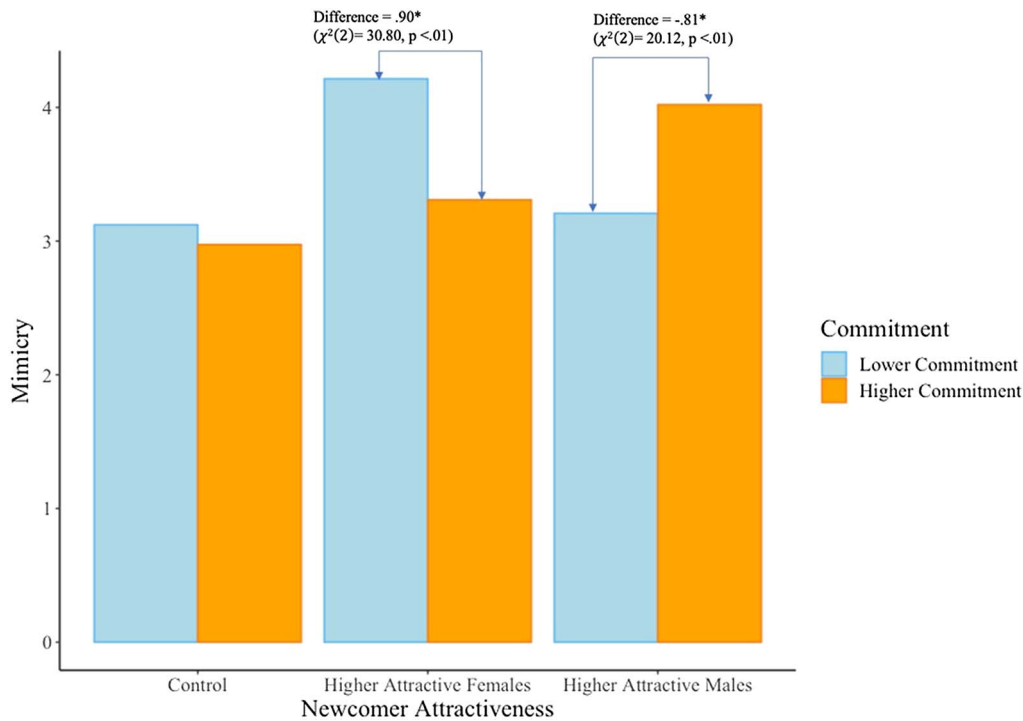
Note. See the online article for the color version of this figure.

sex on verbal and nonverbal behaviors—specifically demonstrating links to mimicry, ingratiation, and challenging behaviors.

These results present a dynamic view of team behavior in response to membership change. Whereas more traditional views on hierarchical ordering within teams suggest a fairly stable structure, with perhaps a simple revision of the hierarchy in response to a change, our results present a more dynamic view wherein team members engage in fairly disparate behaviors depending upon the

Table 3

Results of Multilevel Analyses Predicting Ingratiation

	Ingratiation									
	Model 3					Model 4				
Level and variables	γ	SE	df	t value	p value	γ	SE	df	t value	p value
Level 1										
Intercept (γ_{00})	4.57	.23	227	20.09	.00	4.98	.26	227	18.86	.00
Existing member attractiveness (γ_{10})	.24**	.06	227	4.04	.00	.24**	.06	227	3.87	.00
Existing member sex (γ_{20})	−.07	.07	227	−1.04	.30	−.07	.07	227	−1.04	.30
Level 2										
Higher attractiveness females (γ_{01})	−.35	.26	56	−1.31	.19	−1.01*	.37	54	−2.72	.01
Higher attractiveness males (γ_{02})	−.28	.32	56	−.88	.38	−.98*	.44	54	−2.22	.03
Commitment (γ_{03})	−.19	.24	56	−.78	.44	−.90*	.35	54	−2.55	.01
Higher attractiveness females × commitment (γ_{04})						1.18*	.50	54	2.34	.02
Higher attractiveness males × commitment (γ_{05})						1.28*	.61	54	2.09	.04
Variance components										
Within-team (L1) variance (σ^2)	.19					.19				
Intercept (L2) variance (τ_{00})	.75					.68				
Attractiveness slope (L2) variance (τ_{11})	.06					.05				
Sex slope (L2) variance (τ_{22})	.05					.05				
Pseudo R^2			.07					.16		
Likelihood ratio test							$\chi^2(2) = 6.32, p = .04$			

Note. $n = 289$ team members from $N = 60$ teams. All coefficients unstandardized. Existing member sex coded as 0 = Female, 1 = Male.
* $p < .05$.   ** $p < .01$.

Figure 2

Interaction Between New Member Attractiveness, Sex, and Commitment on Ingratiation
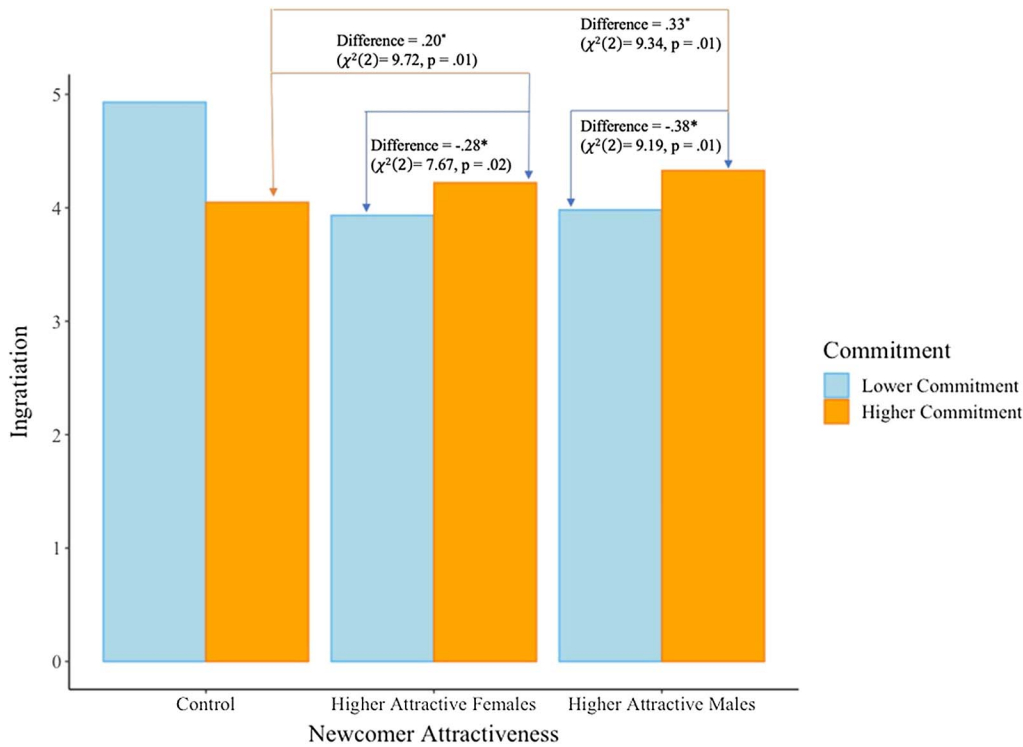
Note. See the online article for the color version of this figure.

characteristics of the new member, their alignment, and the new member's behavior. Although a new member may elicit a specific stabilizing behavior (mimicry) from nearly all team members, the low correlation between the three stabilizing behaviors (.01, −.01, and −.17) makes it clear that the behaviors themselves do not represent a simple package of behavioral reactions that emerge in response to any new member. Rather, the relative cost of each of these behaviors serves to (implicitly or explicitly) influence the decision to engage in each behavior. It is particularly notable that challenging behavior only emerged in specific configurations—

Table 4

Results of Multilevel Analyses Predicting Challenging

	Challenging									
	Model 5					Model 6				
Level and variables	γ	SE	df	t value	p value	γ	SE	df	t value	p value
Level 1										
Intercept (γ_{00})	1.31	.11	227	12.07	.00	1.37	.12	227	11.39	.00
Existing member attractiveness (γ_{10})	.18*	.08	227	2.30	.02	.18*	.08	227	2.31	.02
Existing member sex (γ_{20})	.04	.05	227	.78	.44	.05	.05	227	.93	.35
Level 2										
Higher attractiveness females (γ_{01})	.08	.11	56	.68	.50	−.16	.16	54	−.98	.33
Higher attractiveness males (γ_{02})	−.13	.14	56	−.93	.36	−.03	.19	54	−.15	.88
Commitment (γ_{03})	.13	.10	56	1.32	.19	.02	.15	54	.16	.87
Higher attractiveness females × commitment (γ_{04})						.44*	.21	54	2.04	.05
Higher attractiveness males × commitment (γ_{05})						−.24	.26	54	−.91	.37
Variance components										
Within-team (L1) variance (σ^2)	.14					.14				
Intercept (L2) variance (τ_{00})	.21					.17				
Attractiveness slope (l2) variance (τ_{11})	.21					.21				
Sex slope (l2) variance (τ_{22})	.00					.00				
Pseudo R^2			.08					.17		
Likelihood ratio test								$\chi^2(2) = 6.83, p = .03$		

Note. $n = 289$ team members from $N = 60$ teams. All coefficients unstandardized. Existing member sex coded as 0 = Female, 1 = Male.

* $p < .05$.

Figure 3
Interaction Between New Member Attractiveness, Sex, and Commitment on Challenging
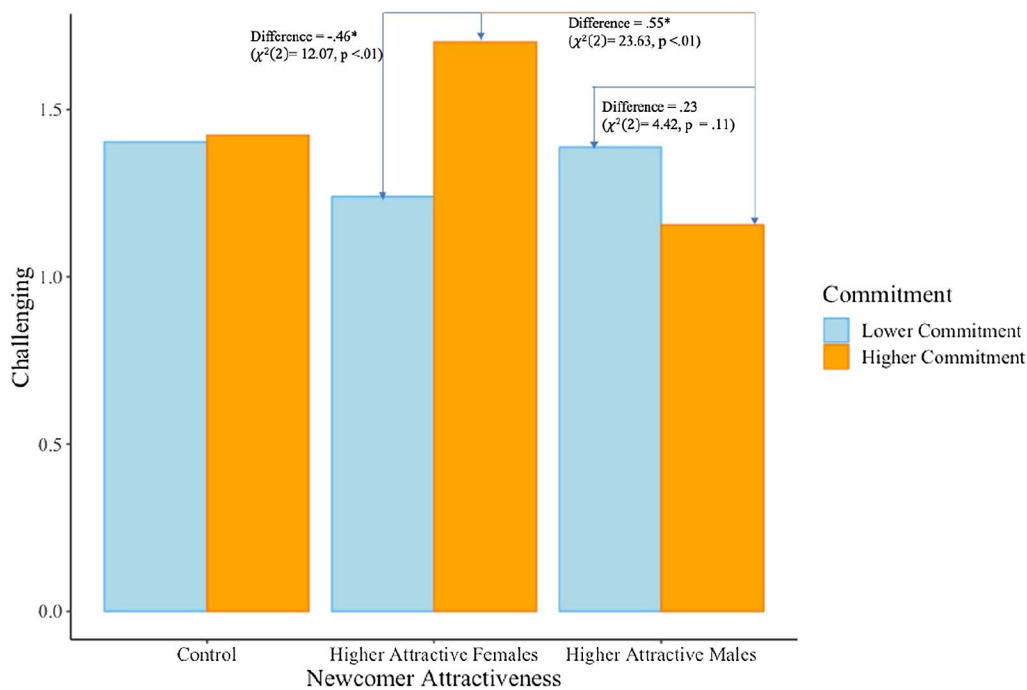
Note. See the online article for the color version of this figure.

when the new member was a higher attractiveness female and displayed high commitment to the task.

Our study also revealed some unexpected findings that deserve more careful scrutiny. First, significant ingratiation behaviors were noticed toward uncommitted physically unattractive new members whereas we only expected ingratiation behaviors toward high commitment, higher physical attractiveness new members. This finding is surprising as it is unlikely that one would engage in a presumably effortful behavior toward someone who seems of no help to the team. One possible explanation would be that existing members may want to engage a new member who seems to lack capability and commitment—thus no threat to themselves—by making him or her feel more "in-group" and acknowledged so that he or she can potentially contribute to the team. Future research can explore this issue further.

Another notable finding throughout our study is associated with the role of sex in status. In addition to our results confirming the value of physical attractiveness, it is particularly worth revisiting the fact that traditional views on sex differences in competence or value perceptions still remain today, and that people in default perceive men as more capable than women (see Ridgeway, 1991, 2001; Shor et al., 2015). This phenomenon was clearly depicted in our findings with challenging behavior—the most challenging was found against higher attractiveness female members and least against higher attractiveness male members. Researchers can continue to study this sex issue and observe when, if ever, the discrepancy in challenging behaviors between sexes fades and becomes nonsignificant. Furthermore, managers should take this issue more seriously and consider developing interventions that can help to counteract potentially discriminatory behaviors.

With these results in mind, our article makes several fundamental contributions to theory and research in organizational behavior. First, whereas nearly all of the research on team membership dynamics has focused on either the new members or changes to team performance, we provide theoretical insight into the effect of new members on the existing team members. This shift is notable, particularly given that existing members make up the majority of the team, with their behaviors within the team directly affected through the introduction of a new member. Understanding how they react (which in turn affects how the team performs) has significant implications for any study of real teams undergoing perpetual membership dynamics.

Second, theorists have argued for decades (Emerson, 1962) that individual actors enact stabilizing actions to manage disruptions to power and status orders. Nonetheless, research has primarily focused on the emergence of stable status orderings (based upon various status characteristics), rather than on how these stabilizing operations are enacted within teams. By providing an operationalization of this model within the context of teams, we introduce a way to examine how members handle changes to established status ordering. This relevant and timely aspect of team dynamics may have been overlooked by previous research because studying team processes such as status stabilizing requires an express consideration of organizing processes in teams (Humphrey & Aime, 2014) that transcends the predominant within-level and within-period theorizing found in the groups and teams literature (Bell & Kozlowski, 2012).

In addition to the noted contributions to theory and empirical research, our study directly speaks to a phenomenon occurring within organizations—membership dynamics within teams. Given

that organizations are increasingly loosening the boundaries of teams through the frequent introductions of new members (Humphrey & Aime, 2014), there needs to be an increased consideration of the effect of these changes. Managers generally introduce members to solve a situational need, ranging from deficient skill sets (e.g., no team members have the programming skills necessary to connect a software application to the cloud) to emergent problems (e.g., overloaded servers due to a DDoS attack). Considering whether members will "play nice" with each other may not rise to the top of the list of factors to consider when evaluating potential new members. Yet, given that new members bring certain diffuse characteristics beyond their specific capabilities that may impact how others interact with them, a manager would be well served to at least consider the potential implications of changes to status ordering within the team.

Study Limitations and Future Research

Much like any empirical study, ours has limitations that suggest the need for additional research to refine and extend our work. For example, in this study, our article was specifically focused on the effect of physical attractiveness and sex. Although we studied how physical attractiveness and sex would impact behaviors, these two characteristics do not represent the totality of diffuse cues that may be relevant for the evaluation of new members. It would therefore be beneficial for the future research to consider whether the stabilizing behaviors we theorize about herein are transferable to other surface-level diffuse cues (e.g., race or age), a mix of diffuse and specific cues (e.g., expertise), or purely specific cues. In fact, we could imagine some of the same behaviors occurring when faced with conflicting surface level and specific cues—challenging a woman who is high on task-relevant expertise is both likely and consistent with existing research (e.g., Joshi, 2014). Given the immediacy of the stabilizing behaviors, however, it is possible that a specific cue that is not surfaced quickly will fail to play a large part in determining the behaviors undertaken by existing members. Alternatively, it is possible that uncovering specific cues over time will serve as a shock that disrupts the stability of the team, thereby producing new team dynamics. Future research should be undertaken to examine this.

Moreover, although we presented physical attractiveness as superordinate to sex in the evaluative process (where sex acted as a consistent or inconsistent status cue), other characteristics may hold hierarchical precedence over physical attractiveness (thereby relegating it to the inconsistent status cue level). Although there is an abundant amount of research demonstrating the importance and salience of these characteristics for determining power and status ordering, as well as the fact that these characteristics transcend cultural boundaries (whereas characteristics such as race and age—which were both fairly homogeneous within our study population—may be more culturally specific), future research is needed to see how additional characteristics may produce stabilizing actions. Although the evaluations of physical attractiveness and sex are generally consistent across populations, it may be that other characteristics produce more complex (and context specific) evaluations, shaping the decision to engage in various stabilizing actions. Related to this point, the population we studied was fairly homogeneous in composition—nearly all team members were Caucasian, they were primarily from a specific geographic region of the country (implying similar cultural experiences) and were all roughly the same age (primarily 20–22 years old). The downside of this is that we could not speak to other status characteristics that may be interesting or important. However, this also served to significantly limit the variance between teams on these other characteristics, reducing the likelihood that other characteristics could affect our results (cf., Bales, 1950). In addition, we constrained teams during the formation process to include at least one male and one female team member (i.e., all teams were mixed sex), which means that our results may not generalize to single-sex teams. Future research is encouraged to examine this boundary condition.

A second limitation of our study is that we only identified one specific stabilizing behavior for each status stabilizing operation. Emerson (1962) presented a broad theory of action in groups, which allows for a multitude of different operationalizations for each operation. We expect that, in other settings, scholars could readily identify other behaviors following the introduction of a high-status newcomer. For example, for the first operation, it may be possible to add additional team members to shift the relative position of existing members within the local status ordering. For the second operation, more tangible rewards (rather than social recognition) may be given by existing members to the newcomer. For the third operation, it is distinctly possible that the existing team members form a coalition to stabilize the relationships within the team. We call on researchers to examine these status stabilizing operations in greater depth in the future and encourage these scholars to identify other behaviors that are contextually valuable.

Connected to this concern is whether the confederates' self-ratings of challenging behaviors were sufficient for capturing this behavior. It is reasonable to posit that different confederates had different thresholds for perceiving the challenging behavior. Notably, as confederates participated in different (committed or uncommitted) conditions and coded the experienced challenging behaviors as different across conditions, we are not highly concerned with this issue. Nonetheless, we encourage the future research to explore whether other ratings of challenging behaviors (e.g., video codes) align with self-ratings.

Relatedly, another potential limitation of our study is that we constrained teams so that the fourth stabilizing operation (withdrawal) specified by Emerson (1962) could not happen. In the field, however, it is possible that team members will leave. We expect that the cost of this behavior will vary widely depending upon the context, influencing the likelihood of occurrence. For example, in communities defined by the fuzzy boundaries of teamwork (Garud et al., 2008), leaving one team for another may have little cost. In other contexts, such as large multinational organizations, there is likely a (manageable) cost for leaving a specific team. In contrast, a team member in an entrepreneurial start-up may find that the introduction of a new member to the management team may create status instabilities that cannot be resolved through leaving the team, as large time and/or capital may be lost if he or she leaves.

Another limitation is that the teams in our study did not have clearly defined roles. Yet, member change affects teams differently depending upon the role structure (Humphrey et al., 2009; Summers, et al., 2012). New members who enter the team expecting to take on critical roles may be more disruptive and/or induce stronger reactions from the team than new members who take on

nonessential roles—for example, an attractive female taking on a critical role may induce strong needs to challenge her competency, whereas if she takes on a noncritical role, the team may not feel the need to question her ability.

In addition, because this research project was motivated to examine how existing members reacted to the addition of a new member (given that there is a dearth of existing research examining this side of the relationship), we both theorized exclusively about the behaviors taken by existing members toward the new member and designed the study to control the behaviors of the new member. Yet, it is reasonable to presume that there will be a bidirectional interaction between new and existing members—a newcomer may also look to resolve the social imbalances by engaging in mimicry, ingratiation, or challenging behaviors. Future research is needed to examine the unfolding nature of the social interactions that form the core of the status conflict driven by the shock of the addition of a new member.

Finally, in our study, we were interested in examining the short-term behavioral implications of adding a new member to a team. That is, we examined the stabilizing operations that occurred in the team during a 45-min period following the introduction of a new team member. Yet, there may be both long-term behavioral consequences, as well as important affective reactions to the introduction of a new member. Although not presented in the study, we found that there were short-term performance implications that resulted from the stabilizing behaviors. Specifically, we found that challenging behaviors (which is a fairly taxing, high cost, lower occurrence behavior) were correlated with high levels of performance within the team in the short run. However, this is particularly notable for how challenging behaviors affected the new member. Unstructured conversations with the confederates at the end of the study revealed how uncomfortable they felt when being challenged, as the challenging behaviors were explicit in their denigration of the new member (note that the questions—shown in the Appendix— include such strong statements as "belittled me and/or my ideas" and "talked down to me"). Based on this, one can readily imagine that challenging behaviors could result in long-term costs to the team in terms of conflict (Humphrey et al., 2017), suppressed minority dissent (Nemeth, 1986), unethical decision making (Chen et al., 2020), and limited interest in continued collaboration (Bell & Marentette, 2011). An additional consideration is that mimicry, although presented as a low-cost behavior (and thus likely would not have any notable negative consequences for the team or its members), might—at extreme levels—lead to negative evaluations of the mimicker, as it could make the mimicker look "small," less confident, and less competent. Given that teams change membership frequently (Humphrey & Aime, 2014), change is a prevalent (and perhaps constant) state of existence for the teams. It is possible that the perpetual striving for stability will have a cumulative, lasting effect on team processes and performance in unexpected ways.

Despite the limitations discussed and in addition to contributions discussed earlier, this study boasts a number of strengths. First, we were able to examine existing teams (who existed both before and after the study), introducing an experimental manipulation to the social structure of the teams to test our hypotheses. Although this is not quite a quasi-experimental study, in that the manipulation took place in a laboratory context, it goes beyond the traditional model of studying ad hoc undergraduate teams. Second, through our research design, we were able to identify and measure three stabilizing behaviors using different sources— mimicry was coded from videos based upon the specific behaviors of team members, ingratiation was captured from the convergence of team member evaluations of others in the team, and challenging was rated by the specific individual being challenged. This approach avoids some of the weaknesses often found in various research designs, where multiple constructs are collected from the same people, inducing halo effects and other biases (see Podsakoff et al., 2012).

Conclusion

In our study, we demonstrate that the introduction of a physically attractive new member can induce specific stabilizing behaviors. We posit that these stabilizing behaviors have a varying degree of cost that dictates the likelihood of exhibiting the behavior. Taken holistically, our study therefore helps clarify the internal dynamics of teams following the introduction of a new member.

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Appendix

Mimicry was measured using the following 10-item scale (using a 7-item agreement Likert-type scale; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*) derived from Lakin et al.'s (2003) work. Each team member was rated on his/her mimicry of the new team member. The stem to each question was as follows: *During the task, when compared to all others in the team, this team member ...*

1. Followed postures (e.g., sitting, leaning, foot shaking, etc.) of the new member

2. Followed facial expressions (e.g., smiling, frowning, etc.) of the new member

3. Followed hand gestures (e.g., face/hair touching, pointing at someone, etc.) of the new member

4. Followed the language (e.g., use of same words, expressions, etc.) the new member used

5. Overall, acted like the new member

6. Engaged with the team (e.g., talked) as much as the new member

7. Engaged in the same activities as the new member

8. Expressed the same emotions as the new member

9. Agreed with the things the new member said

10. Behaved the same as the new member

Ingratiation was measured using the following 5-item scale (using a 7-item agreement Likert-type scale; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*), adapted from the study by Bolino and Turnley (1999). Each team member was rated on his/her ingratiation toward the new team member. The stem to each question was as follows: *During the task, this person ...*

1. Complimented the new member so the new member would see him/her as likeable

2. Took interest in the new member's personal life to show the new member that he/she is friendly

3. Praised the new member for the accomplishments so the new member would consider him/her a nice person

4. Used flattery and favors to make the new member like him/her more

5. Did personal favors for the new member to show the new member that he/she is friendly

Challenging was measured using the following 7-item scale (using a 7-item Likert-type frequency scale; 1 = *never* to 7 = *all of the time*), adapted from the study by Duffy et al. (2002). Each team member was rated on his/her challenging of the new team member. The stem to each question was as follows: *This team member ...*

1. Criticized me in front of other team members

2. Intentionally ignored me

3. Talked down to me

4. Went back on his/her word

5. Gave me the silent treatment

6. Belittled me and/or my ideas

7. Didn't listen to me

Attractiveness was measured using the following item (using a 7-item Likert-type scale; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*):

1. When compared to all others in the team, this team member is the most attractive