Leadership in Interaction in a Virtual Context

A Study of the Role of Leadership Processes in a Complex Context, and how such Processes are Accomplished in Practice

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DK-2000 FREDERIKSBERG
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WWW.CBS.DK

ISSN 0906-6934

Print ISBN: 978-87-93956-98-8
Online ISBN: 978-87-93956-99-5

LEADERSHIP IN INTERACTION IN A VIRTUAL CONTEXT: A STUDY OF THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP PROCESSES IN A COMPLEX CONTEXT, AND HOW SUCH PROCESSES ARE ACCOMPLISHED IN PRACTICE

PhD Series 11.2021

Lise Dahl Arvedsen

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Ph.D. dissertation

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1st edition 2021
PhD Series 11.2021

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The CBS PhD School is an active and international research environment at Copenhagen Business School for PhD students working on theoretical and empirical research projects, including interdisciplinary ones, related to economics and the organisation and management of private businesses, as well as public and voluntary institutions, at business, industry and country level.

Summary (EN)

Within the last decades, technology has infused the way we collaborate with each other. From having a wired, landline phone and perhaps a simple computer to carry out our work, we now have computers, cell phones, and tablets for collaboration. Developing from the first telecommuters in the 1990s, organizations are now creating work collaborations across countries and time zones, with virtual teams as the foundation for such collaborations; not just for temporary projects, but for long-lasting organizational teams in which task interdependence is low or non-existent. Rather than being centered around a task, such teams are collected based on profession, constituting a virtual community with the intention of creating a professional network and discussion and debate platform regarding their daily work. This way of organizing across distance, with the support of technology, has implications for work collaboration; in particular, it has implications for how leadership is accomplished, as the context in itself imposes certain challenges for the interaction. Though supporting collaboration across distances, mediated collaboration can cause challenges, due to lack of bodily cues, gaze, and minimal responses, aspects that are known to be extremely important for communication. Further, organizing teams across distances creates a complex context, wherein team members miss out on the benefits of team proximity, small talk, and shared office space, which are otherwise available when collocated. The possibility of organizing in virtual teams also prompts the possibility of participating in multiple teams and tasks, further increasing complexity. As such, the context complicates work collaboration, in the sense that the interaction is affected, but also in regard to the understanding of who the team is and what its purpose is.

Studies on leadership in teams argue that leadership is an important factor for team performance. Leadership is found to have a positive impact on team tasks and team collaboration in complex contexts such as virtual teams. Much literature within this field assumes that, as a prerequisite of team collaboration, team identification is a stable construct, where team boundaries and team tasks are easily defined. Further, studies presume that the task of setting boundaries and defining the team should be accomplished by the team manager. In other words, much literature identifies team leadership as a task in itself that is carried out by the team manager, based on the assumption that the team is a clearly defined, stable unit. This is problematic in at least two ways. First, recent research has demonstrated that leadership is not a task that solely belongs to the team manager. Rather, leadership is seen as an interpersonal influence process involving at least two interlocutors, in which the influencer and the influenced participate. Second, virtual

teams organized as organizational teams often have no or little task interdependence and the team members collaborate in an interactionally restricted context. Consequently, the team collaborates within a context that does not foster a stable environment for the team. This prompts the need to understand how such team identification is established in a complex virtual context and the role that leadership has in this. Much leadership literature argues that it is a leadership task to support clarity and team coherence. Fewer studies, however, explore how this is actually accomplished in practice. A stream within leadership, leadership-as-practice, argues for the importance of concentrating on the practice, but fewer studies within this stream explore actual situated data. Subsequently, this dissertation turns towards the strand of leadership: leadership in interaction. In this regard, a number of previous studies have focused on the interaction, and through micro-studies, have shed light on how leadership is accomplished within mundane, everyday work collaboration. From this perspective, this dissertation sheds light on how leadership is accomplished in a complex context, as well as the role of leadership in this context.

This dissertation is positioned within the field of ethnomethodology, a methodological perspective that centers on how people, in practice, sustain a shared social world. As such, by shedding light on the social accomplishment of phenomena such as leadership, ethnomethodology provides a lens that allows for in-depth exploration of the role of leadership in a virtual context. Engaging with five different companies and eight different teams, I conducted eight introductory interviews, observed and recorded 54 virtual meetings, amounting to 56 hours of virtual meeting data. Closely watching (and re-watching) these meetings, I was able to code the data into eight empirically founded categories, based on how the interlocuters oriented within the interaction. Next, applying an abductive approach, going back and forth between data and theory, I condensed and selected four empirically founded categories. I then applied multimodal conversation analysis as a way to concentrate on the situated interactions taking place within the virtual context. Excerpts from the meetings were transcribed rigorously and analyzed based on the principles of conversation analytics, producing thick analytical descriptions of my excerpts in relation to the empirically founded categories. Subsequently, each analysis of the excerpts was related to the concept of leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process, enabling me to shed light on the accomplishment of leadership processes and the role of leadership is in this context.

Analysis of the interaction and situated practices within virtual team meetings reveals that team identity is not automatically produced; rather, it calls for continuous collaborative interactional work amongst interlocuters through subtle leadership processes. Importantly, these leadership processes are not carried out solely by the team manager, but as a collaborative effort in which both team managers and team members are involved as both influencer(s) and influenced. Further, focusing on the interaction allowed me to demonstrate how leadership is an integral part of the mundane, everyday work within the virtual context. In this way, the analysis showed leadership to be deeply entangled with the mundane work within the teams. The findings of this dissertation demonstrate how interlocuters can mobilize rights and obligations from explicitly assigned local roles, such as that of meeting chair, as well as affordances of material objects, to collectively accomplish leadership. For example, by assigning a subordinate the role of chair, while the team manager is still present in the meeting, the subordinate can mobilize the rights and obligations of this role to act as influencer in the leadership process.

In this dissertation, the practical work of leadership is found to be small, mundane, and far from grandiose, yet extremely important. Concentrating on the interaction and analyzing situated data based on how the interlocuters observably treat the interaction allows for analytical sensitivity towards the relational aspect of the leadership process. Consequently, this dissertation shows that formal position is not necessarily the determinant of leadership, prompting a need to consider how leadership is configured. Some scholars treat leadership configuration as only involving, on the one hand, formally appointed leaders (i.e., managers), and on the other hand, emergent and informal processes among subordinates. This dissertation argues that this is too simplistic and ontologically problematic. Instead, the findings suggest that the leadership configuration should be understood on the basis of the formally appointed hierarchical leader and subordinates, as well as situated, explicit local roles. This allows for the interpretation of leadership as relational and processual, while at the same time acknowledging how position or explicit role assignment are important resources for shaping the interactional environment from which leadership emerges, for both formally appointed leaders as well as subordinates as influencer(s). The three articles in this dissertation demonstrate how both team managers and team members engage in the interpersonal influence process in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals. As such, this study extends existing research by demonstrating these leadership processes in a complex setting.

Resumé (DK)

I løbet af de sidste årtier har teknologien forandret den måde, vi samarbejder på. Fra at have en fastnettelefon og måske en simpel computer til at *arbejde med*, har vi i dag mobiltelefoner, tablets og computere til at *samarbejde igennem*. Med udgangspunkt i de første 'telecommuters' i 90'erne ser vi i dag virksomheder organisere sig på tværs af landegrænser og tidszoner, hvor samarbejdet er baseret på virtuelle teams. Denne måde at organisere sig på er ikke blot relevant for tidsbegrænsede projekter, men for også for langsigtede, organisatoriske teams, hvor den indbyrdes opgaveafhængighed er lav eller slet ikke eksisterende; i stedet bygger samarbejdet her på et professionelt fælleskab, hvor mennesker er samlet i teams ud fra profession, med den intention at skabe et forum for netværk og sparring med henblik på at skabe værdifuldt arbejde. Denne virtuelle måde at organisere sig på, understøttet af teknologien, har konsekvenser for det professionelle samarbejde og i særdeleshed for hvordan ledelse bliver skabt, fordi konteksten i sig selv skaber interaktionelle begrænsninger. Selvom teknologien supporterer den virtuelle kommunikation, så kan det medierede samarbejde i sig selv skabe udfordringer grundet af de manglende kropslige signaler, øjenkontakt og minimal respons; aspekter der er vigtige for god kommunikation. Derudover organiseres virtuelle teams på tværs af store distancer, hvilket skaber en kompleks kontekst i den forstand, at man mister den fysiske nærhed, 'smalltalk' og det delte kontor, som ellers er til stede, når man sidder fysisk sammen. Organiseringen af medarbejdere i virtuelle teams giver ligeledes mulighed for i højere grad at deltage i flere forskellige teams og opgaver, hvilket yderligere øger kompleksiteten for den enkelte medarbejder og for koordineringen. Det giver en række udfordringer for samarbejdet i den forstand, at interaktionen i sig selv bliver påvirket af at være medieret, samt at den komplekse kontekst komplicerer forståelsen af, hvem teamet er, og hvilket formål teamet har.

Forskning i teamledelse konkluderer, at ledelse er en vigtig faktor for team performance. Studier peger på, at ledelse har en positiv indvirkning på teamets opgaver og samarbejdets kvalitet i en kompleks kontekst, som for eksempel i virtuelle teams. En del af litteraturen inden for netop dette felt argumenterer for, at en forudsætning for et godt teamsamarbejde er teamidentifikation. Samme litteratur antager, at denne teamidentifikation er en stabil konstruktion. Det vil sige, at rammerne for teamet og teamets opgaver er lette at sætte og derfor klart definerede. Samtidig antages det, at dét at sætte disse rammer og tydeliggøre teamets opgaver er en opgave for team manageren. En del af litteraturen peger med andre ord på, at teamledelse er en opgave, team managere skal tage sig af ud fra antagelsen om, at teamet er en klart defineret og afgrænset

enhed. Dette er problematisk af mindst to årsager: For det første har nyere studier vist, at ledelse ikke er en opgave, der tilfalder team manageren alene. I stedet skal ledelse forstås som en interpersonel indflydelsesproces, hvilket betyder, at for at skabe ledelse er der brug for mindst to personer: Én der influerer, og en der bliver influeret. For det andet så har virtuelle teams, der er organiserede som organisatoriske teams, lille eller ingen intern opgaveafhængighed, samtidig med at de samarbejder i en interaktionelt begrænset kontekst. Det giver anledning til at udforske, hvordan teamidentifikation bliver skabt i en kompleks virtuel kontekst og dertil, hvilken rolle ledelse har i denne proces. En del af ledelseslitteraturen argumenterer for, at det er en ledelsesopgave at sikre klarhed omkring opgaven og skabe teamsamhørighed, væsentligt mindre forskning udforsker dog, hvordan dette er gjort i praksis. En strømning indenfor ledelse, ’leadership-as-practice’, argumenterer for at zoome ind på praksis. Dog er der få studier inden for denne strømning, der udforsker situeret data. Denne afhandling fokuserer i stedet på strømningen ’leadership in interaction’, hvor en række studier har belyst ledelse i hverdagens arbejdssamarbejder. Med dette perspektiv udforsker denne afhandling både, hvordan ledelse bliver skabt i en kompleks kontekst, samt hvilken rolle ledelse har i denne kontekst.

Denne afhandling er positioneret inden for etnometodologien, som er et metodisk perspektiv, der centrerer, hvordan mennesker i praksis opretholder en fælles social verden. På den måde tilbyder etnometodologien en linse, som kan bruges til at belyse både lederskabets rolle i at håndtere de interaktionelle udfordringer i en virtual kontekst samt de praksisser, hvorved ledelse bliver skabt. Ved at samle data fra otte forskellige teams i fem forskellige virksomheder har jeg samlet otte introduktionsinterviews og observeret og optaget 54 møder; i alt 56 timers optagede virtuelle møder. Ved at gennemse disse optagelser ganske nøje adskillige gange var det muligt for mig at kode data i otte forskellige empiriske kategorier baseret på, hvordan deltagerne orienterede sig i interaktionen. Derefter, gennem en abduktiv tilgang, bevægede jeg mig frem og tilbage mellem teori og data og kondenserede og udvalgte fire empirisk funderede kategorier. Dernæst anvendte jeg multimodal samtaleanalyse som en måde at zoome ind på den situerede interaktion i den virtuelle kontekst. Eksempler fra detaljerede transskriberinger blev analyseret baseret på samtaleanalytiske principper. På den måde kunne jeg producere grundige analytiske beskrivelser af mine eksempler relateret til mine empirisk funderede kategorier. Dernæst relaterede jeg hver enkelt analyse af uddragene til teorier om ledelse, hvor ledelse forstås som en interpersonel indflydelsesproces, hvilket gav mig mulighed for at belyse konstruktionen af ledelsesprocesser, samt hvilken rolle ledelse har i denne kontekst.

Analysen af interaktionen og de situerede praksisser i de virtuelle møder viser, at teamidentitet ikke er automatisk produceret. I stedet kræver det kontinuerlig interaktionelt samarbejde mellem deltagerne gennem subtile ledelsesprocesser at konstruere en teamidentitet. En vigtig faktor i at skabe teamets identitet er, at ledelsesprocesserne er skabt af flere, ikke bare af team manageren; med andre ord så er ledelse skabt gennem en fælles indsats, hvori teammedlemmerne kan deltage både, som en der influerer, og en der bliver influeret. At zoome ind på interaktionen gav mig mulighed for at illustrere, hvordan ledelse er en integreret del af det gængse hverdags-arbejde i et team. Afhandlingens resultater demonstrerer, hvordan deltagerne kan mobilisere eksplicit tildelte rollers rettigheder og forpligtigelser, som for eksempel mødelederrollens, ligesom man kan mobilisere materielle objekters ”affordances” for i fællesskab at skabe ledelse. Ved for eksempel at tildele en underordnet mødelederrollen kan denne mobilisere rettigheder og forpligtigelser tilknyttet denne rolle til at influere og skabe ledelse.

Denne afhandling viser, at ledelse i praksis er handlinger i hverdagen, som langt fra er grandiose og pompøse, men stadig utrolig vigtige. Ved at zoome ind på interaktionen og analysere situeret data baseret på, hvordan deltagerne observerbart orienterer sig i interaktionen, skabes der mulighed for analytisk sensitivitet til at belyse det relationelle aspekt af ledelsesprocessen. Som følge heraf viser denne afhandling, at den formelle position ikke nødvendigvis er afgørende for ledelse, hvilket giver anledning til at diskutere, hvordan ledelse så er konfigureret. Nogle forskere orienterer sig mod ledelseskonfigurationen baseret på en dualistisk tilgang med den formelle leder (manageren) på den ene side og på den anden side som uformelle processer blandt underordnede (teammedlemmerne). Denne afhandling argumenterer for, at den tilgang er simplificeret og ontologisk problematisk. I stedet peger resultaterne i denne afhandling på, at ledelseskonfigurationen skal forstås som konstitueret af den formelle leder, de underordnede, samt situerede eksplicitte lokale roller. Dette giver mulighed for en forståelse af ledelse som relationel og processuel, mens det på samme tid anerkendes, hvordan position eller eksplicit rolletildeling kan være en vigtig ressource i den interaktionelle kontekst inden for hvilken, ledelse bliver skabt, både med den formelle leder, såvel som den underordnede som influerende spillere. Alle tre artikler i denne afhandling demonstrerer, hvordan både team managere og teammedlemmer engageres i den interpersonelle indflydelsesproces og er medskabere af ledelse, og på den måde bygger denne afhandling oven på eksisterende forskning ved at demonstrere, hvordan ledelse bliver skabt i en kompleks kontekst.

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List of abbreviations

ANT:	Actor-network theory
CA:	Conversation analysis
CBS:	Copenhagen Business School
CCO:	Communicative constitution of organizations
CIRCD:	Centre for Interaction Research and Communication Design
DAC:	Direction, alignment, and commitment
EM:	Ethnomethodology
EM/CA:	Ethnomethodology and conversation analysis
ICT:	Information and communication technology
L-A-P:	Leadership-as-practice
MCA:	Membership categorization analysis
OT:	Observation team

Acknowledgements

I would like to begin by thanking Copenhagen Business School (CBS) for making this journey of mine possible. It is a privilege to have the opportunity to spend three years to excel and explore a subject that I am passionate about while being a part of a larger likeminded community. In particular, I would like to thank Signe Vikkelsø and the CBS Department of Organization for giving me and my research a home, and to Marianne Aarø-Hansen for always having time to help – no questions being too small or too big. I would also like to thank Lise Justesen for support in regards to teaching, for her work in my employee performance reviews, and particularly for her immense support during a difficult time in the spring of 2020. I would like to thank Ph.D. coordinators Morten Thanning Vendelø and Ursula Plesner for engaging actively and supportively during my time as a Ph.D. student. I also especially owe a debt of gratitude to Katja Høeg Tingleff for guiding me through the complex labyrinth of the Ph.D. regulations.

The people I have met during my journey as a Ph.D. scholar have helped me pave my way academically and personally by positively influencing my choices and supporting me in my work and life during hard times and good times. As such, many good people have a stake in this dissertation. I am grateful to the Leadership Group at CBS, the Centre for Interaction Research and Communication Design (CIRCD) at the University of Copenhagen, and the Danish MOVIN network. I would especially like to acknowledge and thank some of my Ph.D. colleagues, most of whom have finished their dissertations by now: Bontu Lucie Guschke, Cecilie Kampmann, Christian Dyhrlund Wåhlin-Jacobsen, Frank Meier, Jannick Friis Christensen, Maibrith Kempka Jensen, Maria Krysfeldt, Sophie Marie Cappelen, and Thomas Burø.

I want to thank my secondary supervisor Birte Asmuß for hosting me in Aarhus in 2018 and for always being there just when I needed her. Her incomparable methodological and grammatical acumen has been a tremendous support.

To my family and friends who have put up with me in the last five years. A heartfelt thanks to you for being there during times of grueling work, identity crises, hectic periods, and crazy ideas. I would particularly like to thank my two incredible children, Iben and Hubert. Your entrance into my life gave me time to reflect upon my research, and importantly, you taught me to achieve a higher level of efficiency and life balance.

Lastly, there are three people, without whom this Ph.D. would not have been possible, and most importantly, who made the journey more enlightening, adventurous, and marvelous.

Liv. I am so grateful that this Ph.D. gave me you. I am excited about our future and truly value how far we have come in the last two years with Augmenti, which has decidedly given me a guiding star and purpose in the last six months. I am especially appreciative of your help in the final stretch, your cheering, your meticulous feedback, and your wealth of experience.

Magnus. Just, thank you. There are not enough words to express my gratitude for having you by my side as my supervisor during this Ph.D. journey. Thank you for helping me back to CBS in 2016. Thank you for always having the time for me, time to read my stuff, and time to offer excellent, constructive feedback. Thank you for always asking, “So, how are you?”. Thank you for always being impartial and not imposing your ideas on me but for pushing me to go my own way. Thank you for inspiring me and for expanding my boundaries. I cannot imagine having been given a better friend, academic partner, and Ph.D. supervisor.

Michael. My amazing husband and best friend. Thank you for supporting my decision to do a Ph.D. and for never leaving my side along a path filled with challenging roadblocks but also magnificent triumphs. Thank you for being my rock and for helping me to be the best version of myself throughout 10 years, two kids, a pandemic, and one Ph.D. I love you to the end of the universe and back.

Lise Dahl Arvedsen

Copenhagen, January 2021

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Preface

This dissertation includes the following three articles, all of which have been submitted to different academic journals for peer review. Each article will serve as a chapter in this dissertation. Please note that the various articles adhere to specific journal guidelines, which means style discrepancies can occur, though adjustments have been made in the dissertation for ease of reference management, as well as readability. All references have been compiled in a combined literature list at the end of this dissertation.

Article 1, (chapter 4), "To team or not to team: The role of leadership in interaction for enabling team identification" is co-authored by Magnus Larsson. It was re-submitted in January 2021 to Human Relations after initially being rejected in summer 2020. Reviewers had few comments regarding the analysis, thus restructuring the argument prior to resubmission was the primary aim.

Article 2, (chapter 5), "A situated leadership configuration: Accomplishing leadership in interaction in a virtual meeting", is single-authored and submitted to the International Journal of Business Communication. It was previously reviewed in a work-in-progress seminar on 2 June 2020, and the data was presented at CIRCD data sessions.

Article 3, (chapter 6), "Accomplishing leadership-in-interaction by mobilizing available information and communication technology objects in a virtual context" is co-authored by Liv Otto Hassert. The article was published in a special issue on leadership in interaction in Leadership, vol. 16, issue 5, 2020.

1 Introduction

This dissertation has its origin in my master's thesis, which I completed in 2011.With my thesis partner, I explored shared leadership in virtual teams. During our studies, we found a theoretical field that was rather new, yet only a few explorative studies were available. Studies focused on the differences between collocated teams and virtual teams (Purvanova and Bono, 2009; Zimmermann et al., 2008), how trust is established in virtual teams (Allen et al., 2004; DeRosa et al., 2004), and how virtual team managers can be good virtual leaders (Avolio and Kahai, 2003; Hertel et al., 2005; Kahai et al., 2007; Malhotra et al., 2007). What intrigued me, personally, with the virtual setting was its interactional complexity. Our empirical observations in relation to the master's thesis indicated that the interactional restraints of the context exerted impact on both work collaboration and the accomplishment of shared leadership. It seemed more difficult to collaborate in a virtual context.

In 2016, I returned to CBS to carry on my research on leadership in the virtual context. Returning to the scholarly field after a couple of years as a practitioner, I had hoped that the theoretical field of virtual teams could offer a more explorative perspective on this complex context; however, that was not the case. The virtual team leadership literature was dominated by theoretical papers and quantitative studies (see, for example, Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017; Liao, 2017; Maduka et al., 2018). While this was one way to address virtual collaboration, I was missing a perspective on the virtual collaboration that focused on the interaction to identify and understand what was actually going on. At that time, studies on leadership within interaction had begun to emerge (Clifton, 2006; Larsson and Lundholm, 2010, 2013). Knowing empirically that the virtual context had impact on the interaction, I was curious as to how these leadership practices unfolded within this virtual context. Thus, I began to explore leadership in interaction, within the context of virtual collaboration.

I believe that most Ph.D. dissertations encounter various challenges. One challenge concerns what contributions you expect to produce, and narrowing down which theoretical field these can then be related to. For this dissertation, contributions could be directed primarily to the field of virtual teams or to the field of leadership. First, taking an empirical perspective on what is going on in the world, I believe technology is infusing our everyday work more and more, to an extent where there is no such thing as either a collocated team or a virtual team. All teams are a bit of both, one way or another. We all collaborate with the support of our computers, phones, and cloud-based services. Furthermore, with the COVID-19 pandemic, most white-collar workers have experienced the kind of flexibility and collaboration that technology offers. Hence, I believe, it is not a matter of exploring the virtual team as such; rather it is a matter of exploring how collaboration is achieved within the virtual space, to understand how work is accomplished in a context which imposes certain interactional challenges. Leadership has a role in circumventing these challenges, and subsequently this dissertation aims to make its contribution to the leadership field.

The leadership field, however, has its own complexities. This is perhaps best illustrated with an experience I had in the beginning of my Ph.D. studies. As I returned from my first maternity leave, I attended a Ph.D. course on practice theory. At this point in time, I had been a Ph.D. student for four months (in addition to my maternity leave). We introduced our projects in smaller groups on this course. Silvia Gheradi headed my group and when I introduced my project, she went silent for a minute or two. Then she said something akin to: "Don't go to the leadership field." She continued, saying, "That field is too messy, you will drown." I believe it was kind of her to share that experience with me, because it is a field full of complexities, ontological disagreements, and muddy definitions. Nonetheless, with great support from my supervisors and colleagues, I continued down this road, and as such, what you are about to read is a dissertation that explores how leadership is accomplished within virtual collaboration, and further, what role leadership has within this complex context.

The point of departure for this dissertation is aptly described by Suchman (1987: 50): "What traditional behavioral sciences take to be cognitive phenomena have an essential relationship to a publicly available, collaboratively organized world of artifacts and actions". The world in which many teams collaborate today is a rather complex context to engage and work within. Suchman (1987) argues that there is an interconnectivity between the actions of interlocuters and the artefacts available to us. As the world is globalized, and collaboration across time zones is enabled with the support of information and communication technology (ICT), complex contexts emerge. Team members are invited into several teams, consisting of various constellations involving a variety of different cultures, languages, technologies, and norms to identify with. This complexity might complicate finding out who the team is, what the boundaries of the team are, and what direction the team is heading. In other words, this context calls for leadership (Kozlowski et al., 2016; Morgeson et al., 2010).

Leadership is understood as a process of interpersonal influence in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). Yet the question is how this interpersonal process is addressed ontologically and epistemologically. A number of studies within the leadership field conduct leadership research focusing on the formally appointed hierarchical leader (Grint, 2005a). Centering on this one person (the leader) provides knowledge about this person, rather than the actual leadership process; this will inform about competencies, skills, and behavior, and as Grint (2005a: 15) states:

> It should be self-evident that we do not need more ‘lists’ of leadership competences or skills because leadership research appears to be anything but incremental in its approach to ‘the truth’ about leadership: the longer we spend looking at leadership the more complex the picture becomes.

This dissertation explores this complexity by orienting to what is “publicly available” (Suchman, 1987: 50). Focusing on the interaction and studying the spoken word, as well as the multimodal aspects allows exploration of what is actually going on. As Boden (1994: vii) argues: “Talk really isn’t cheap; it’s consequential and far-reaching”. Several studies within leadership in interaction point to the immense amount of interactional work that has to be carried out to accomplish leadership (Larsson and Lundholm, 2010, 2013; Van De Mieroop, 2020; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020). At the same time, studies within virtual interaction point to the difficulty of work collaboration caused by the restricted interactions, such as lack of bodily cues, gaze, and minimal response (Arminen et al., 2016; Oittinen, 2018). As such, the problem this dissertation sets out to explore is first and foremost, how leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process, is accomplished in the virtual context, and what the role of leadership is in handling the interactional challenges the context offers.

Applying ethnomethodology (EM) and conversation analysis (CA) to recorded situated data from virtual team meetings in eight different teams, this dissertation analyzes work collaboration to explore leadership processes in a virtual context. This dissertation shows that leadership in a virtual context is a collectively accomplished interpersonal influence process involving both influencer(s) and influenced. It shows that it takes an immense amount of interactional work to achieve the intersubjectivity needed to accomplish leadership. For example, this virtual context fosters sub-groupings. Here, leadership is found to have a significant role in creating collective team identification categories that team members can orient towards, instead of the sub-groups. Further, this dissertation shows that interlocuters, both formally appointed hierarchical leaders as well as subordinates, can mobilize affordances from available material objects and rights and obligations from formal roles, such as that of meeting chair, to engage in the leadership process. This dissertation shows that leadership plays an influential role in managing the challenges caused by the virtual context to produce, for example, a shared team identification or a future direction. As such, this dissertation focuses on the interaction within virtual team meetings, as a way to shed light on the leadership practices in a complex setting.

This dissertation is structured as follows: First, after the introduction, chapter 2 will describe the dissertation's theoretical foundation, as well as present the relevant leadership perspectives, how theory from the virtual team literature can support my research, and how studies of business meetings can help unravel the interactions taking place in this context. This chapter will conclude with the dissertation's research question. Second, chapter 3, which describes my methodology, will explain the underlying research philosophy of this dissertation and how applying EM and CA enabled me to answer my research question. In this chapter, I also present my data, and finally, I explain my analytical process. Next, chapters 4, 5, and 6 present the three articles of this dissertation, while chapter 7 discusses the articles' findings, relating them to the theoretical perspectives presented in chapter 2 before presenting my reflections on the dissertation's limitations and offering suggestions for further research. Finally, chapter 8 presents this dissertation's conclusion.

2 Leadership in a complex context

This theoretical section introduces the relevant literature that this dissertation builds upon. First and foremost, I address the scholarly field of leadership, elaborating upon how the concept of leadership in this dissertation is addressed and regarded as both a practice and a process. I expand upon the idea that leadership is constructed between interlocutors, and as such, leadership cannot ontologically be the sole doing of 'a manager.' I argue for the relevance of researching leadership in terms of interaction, examining work practices to see leadership as it unfolds. Applying this perspective on leadership allows for a more comprehensive understanding of leadership, enabling both formally appointed hierarchical leaders as well as subordinates to participate in the leadership process. This perspective is particularly interesting when looking at teams that experience increased complexity; for example, virtual teams, which might draw on leadership as a resource to overcome experienced boundaries (such as mediated communication and geographical differences). To explore leadership in interaction in virtual teams, I focus on the virtual team meeting and the meeting literature, to elaborate how this context is particularly interesting for this research project. Finally, this chapter will conclude with a presentation of the research question of this dissertation.

Leadership as a practice and a process

Leadership can be understood as both a practice and a process. In this conception lies the assumption that leadership is defined as an interpersonal influence process in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). As such, leadership is a process (Crevani, 2018) that is constructed between interlocutors as they interact (Clifton et al., 2020) and, subsequently, it is observable within everyday practice (Larsson, 2017). This way of understanding leadership is rooted in the broader linguistic approach within organization studies (Alvesson and Kärreman, 2000; Cooren and Fairhurst, 2004), and more particularly within the ideas presented in Fairhurst's (2007) book on discursive leadership. Fairhurst (2007) argues that the leadership process is to be found within the discourse. Leadership as an influence process is still constructed on the basis of asymmetrical relations, however, these relations are not static. This means that leadership, as an influence process, exists only as people engage with one another and collaboratively construct an asymmetrical influence process. Thus, with this argument, Fairhurst (2007) moves attention towards leadership as something processual, ongoing, and social.

This diverges from previous research, which focuses on what the formally appointed hierarchical leader does, assuming that that in itself is leadership (Parry and Bryman, 2006; Yukl, 2013). Grint (2005a) distinguishes between leadership as a process, person, position, or result. He declares that reducing leadership to the individual human being "constitutes an analytically inadequate explanatory foundation" (Grint, 2005a: 33), and explains that, without followers, there is no such thing as leadership. We simply cannot talk about leadership as an influence process without acknowledging both the influencer and the influenced. The excessive focus on the leader was noted by Meindl and colleagues (1985) in a large study, wherein they demonstrated how leader actions were romanticized in the sense that too much causality was inferred on the leader, and further, that followers were neglected in the research. Analytically, assuming that leadership emanates from a formally appointed hierarchical leader can cause a sliding motion, from wishing to understand leadership as a process but ending with a description of what a leader does (Ashford and Sitkin, 2019). In other words, when leadership is treated analytically, as something a person does, important actors in the leadership process are neglected; consequently, the theoretical concept of leadership ceases to be an adequate representation.

What a formally appointed leader 'does' in everyday work is not in itself leadership. By focusing only on a formally appointed leader, we are informed about what this person does, rather than uncovering the actual practices of producing leadership (see e.g., König et al., 2020; Liao, 2017; Zaccaro et al., 2018). This, for example, was illustrated in a review by Zaccaro et al. (2018: 35), where focus is on a broader array of leader attributes, which, they argue, are "precursors of leadership capacities, which in turn mediate their effects on leadership behaviors and outcomes". Rost (1991) notes the problematic nature of assuming that leadership emanates from the formally appointed hierarchical leader because, as he explains, being a leader and being a formally appointed hierarchical leader ('a manager') are two widely different things, which applies as well for management and leadership. Where leadership is based on an influence relationship, seeking change, management is based on an authoritative relationship, seeking to produce and sell goods and/or services (Rost, 1991). Thus, when looking at what formally appointed leaders do, it is not leadership we see, it is managerial work. That said, managerial work can become leadership, as was shown in a study by Larsson and Lundholm

(2010) in which they demonstrated that leadership was embedded in the everyday work and as formally appointed hierarchical leaders interacted with, for example, subordinates in work tasks, it enabled leadership to emerge.

By only focusing on the leader, leadership research neglects the practical accomplishments of leadership and disregards what constitutes the leadership process. Focusing on the leader rather than the accomplishments of leadership coincides with Garfinkel (1967), who describes how scholars have a tendency to leave out practices and instead focus on elevated theoretical concepts with no roots in the actual empirical setting. Garfinkel (1967) terms this problem *the missing what*, which Lynch (2012: 165) describes as an expression to "characterize the way earlier sociological studies had left out the performance of the constituent practices when studying sociological aspects of the arts, sciences, and other organizations of practice". Turning to the notion of leadership, studies draw on a somewhat shared definition of leadership as an influence process (Parry and Bryman, 2006; Yukl, 2013), but it seems to be missing how this process is actually constructed. Although conceiving leadership as a process involving several actors is not a new perspective, the field of leadership research still calls for further research on the processes of leadership as it occurs in interaction (Clifton et al., 2020; Larsson, 2017; Schnurr and Schroeder, 2019).

Leadership can be operationalized in the sense that it becomes observable within interactions. For example, leadership can be operationalized as an interpersonal influence process (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013). Operationalizing leadership as explicit local roles (such as that of a meeting chair) is not leadership either. Some studies draw on actions related to the role of chair as a way to demonstrate leadership in interaction (Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Clifton, 2006). For example, the study of Holm and Fairhurst (2018) demonstrated leadership as emanating from what they denoted as the vertical leader (the formally appointed hierarchical leader) as actions of chairing (e.g., opening and closing of meetings and agenda control). I argue that this prompts the risk of conflating the role of chair with leadership. First, the role of chair is often occupied by the formally appointed leader (Holmes et al., 2007); thus, with this focus, there is a risk of assuming leadership a priori to emanate from the formally appointed hierarchical leader. Second, as was exemplified with the Holm and Fairhurst (2018) study, taking up the role of chair does not automatically produce leadership. Leadership is a social phenomenon (Smircich and Morgan, 1982) that calls for both a leader(s) and followers (DeRue and Ashford, 2010); hence, focusing on only the formal appointed leader (or explicit local roles) leaves the story of leadership incomplete. Knights and Willmott (1992) emphasize how research should investigate and problematize the practices of leadership, rather than research how ideas about leadership are attributed to particular persons or forms of behavior. Hindmarsh and Llwewllyn (2010) argue that, rather than stipulate or presume theories around organizing, it is relevant to demonstrate how organizations are apparent in, and sustained through, ordinary work practices. This is complicated, because leadership is not a work task, but something accomplished while working. This prompts the idea that by moving away from the ideas about leadership, towards an empirically founded understanding of the concept, it is necessary to turn to the mundane, everyday work interaction, and as such, to engage with practice to locate leadership.

Leadership emerges through the things interlocutors do when interacting with one another. Crevani and Endrissat (2016) argue that leadership is a phenomenon of organizing (based on an interpersonal influence process) and that practice is the analytical framework. Within the field of Leadership-As-Practice (L-A-P), studies are "concerned with how leadership emerges and unfolds through… social and material-discursive contingencies… [which] do not reside outside of leadership but are very much embedded within it" (Raelin, 2016: 3). They argue that leadership is embodied in recurrent patterns of action, or previously stabilized patterns of action, and as such, remove focus from individuals to process (Crevani and Endrissat, 2016); a fluid process containing both humans and materiality, and a process in which agency lies within the process, rather than with the individual (Crevani, 2018). In this argument, materiality plays a significant role, in the sense that some scholars argue how material in itself has agency within the leadership process (Pöyhönen, 2018; Pullen and Vachhani, 2013; Ropo et al., 2013). Further, although leadership is understood as a collaborative accomplishment in practice-oriented studies (Crevani, 2018; Simpson et al., 2018), the existence of the collective within which this collaboration takes place seems to be treated as a given. This prompts the question of how to explore practice, without knowing what these patterns are. If it cannot be assumed that leadership emanates from a particular position or person, how can leadership then be found?

While discussing leadership within practice, less studies within L-A-P attend to what happens within the interaction, analyzing situated data. Studies of leadership in interaction, a stream of research within the leadership literature, do, however, tend towards examining the leadership process as it is produced in the interaction between interlocutors (Larsson, 2017). Here, leadership is continuously understood as an interpersonal influence process in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). However, leadership in interaction provides a lens for examining how leadership is actually being accomplished within the interaction. As Larsson (2017: 173) states:

> [S]tudies of leadership interaction rest on the idea that we need to be able to locate leadership in everyday organizational practice for research to credibly grant it any role in shaping of organizational reality.

Studies within this strand draw on CA, interactional sociolinguistics, and similar approaches, in which recordings of work interactions are used to explore how leadership is accomplished and produced as part of an ongoing work interaction (Clifton, 2019; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020). For example, a study by Larsson and Lundholm (2013) showed in detail how leadership had organizing properties through negotiation and offering of shared, rather than individual, identities. In a team setting, studies have shown how various interactional tactics were used, for example, humor (Schnurr, 2009) and knowledge (Meschitti, 2019), in order to accomplish leadership.

Asserting that leadership is a process shifts the focus from individuals to what is accomplished within interactions between interlocutors. When looking at interactions, how can we then determine who is involved in the leadership process? Simpson (2016) argues that having a practice perspective on leadership is a matter of focusing on the interactions between pre-defined entities, such as leaders and followers, and seeking to identify their attitudes and habits of action. It might, however, be problematic to work with predefined entities, because who defines who is the leader and who is the follower (DeRue and Ashford, 2010), if the analytical gaze is limited to formalized roles? Another perspective is that of process ontology (Crevani, 2018), in which it is possible to argue that leadership lies within a process, and as such, leadership is not a product of what a person is 'doing,' nor are we, as analysts, capable of, a priori, determining who is the leader and who is the follower. This is socially constructed within the situation, and as such, is not limited to formally appointed roles. Crevani (2018: 84) states that leadership should be considered, "a phenomenon produced and sustained in interactions, a situated and relational phenomenon". This resonates with the developments within the field of leadership in the last decades. Here, scholars argue for a more pluralistic perspective on leadership, oriented towards the "combined influence of multiple leaders in specific organizational situations" (Denis et al., 2012: 211). Thus, by turning the analytical focus to the process and the interlocutors involved in this process, rather than the formally appointed leader, we are offered an analytical sensitivity to the possibility that several interlocutors can be involved in the influence process.

As more than one interlocutor is involved in the leadership process, curiosity about the pluralistic perspectives on leadership emerges (Denis et al., 2012). This is a way to understand leadership based on, for example, a shared or distributed leadership process. Both Contractor et al. (2012) and Fairhurst et al. (2020) argue that notions such as distributed and shared leadership can be collected under the umbrella term collective leadership. Fairhurst et al. (2020) gather the following seven notions under the term collective leadership: Collective leadership, shared leadership, distributed leadership, complexity leadership, discursive leadership, relational leadership, and network leadership. In doing so, they refer to the literature review of Denis et al. (2012: 211), pointing to how these different strands are interconnected in the sense that they "in one way or other imply plurality: that is, the combined influence of multiple leaders in specific organizational situations". Leaning on both Contractor et al. (2012) and Fairhurst et al. (2020), in this dissertation, I will address the pluralistic perspective on leadership as collective leadership, by not distinguishing between shared, distributed, discursive leadership, etc. This perspective is particularly relevant when taking an interactional perspective on leadership, as it sanctions analytical sensitivity. Collective leadership as a concept does not analytically determine who are included in the leadership process, rather, it allows me to align with the broad understanding of leadership being a collective social process (Bolden, 2011; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Less studies, however, tend to engage with the collective aspect in the accomplishment of leadership, which, according to Fairhurst et al. (2020), prompts the need to address the question 'what is collective leadership?' And how is this collectiveness configured, or in other words, organized between the different interlocutors? (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018). The leadership configuration is defined as an "accurate description of situational practice that includes both individual leaders and holistic leadership units working in tandem" (Gronn, 2009: 384). The concept is portrayed as a dichotomy, in the sense that it is a matter of establishing the right balance between a formally appointed hierarchical leader and the more informal, emergent and collective leadership processes (Gronn, 2009; Holm and Fairhurst, 2018). This is potentially a problematic understanding of the configuration because the opposing sides represent different ontological perspectives. On one end of the spectrum, leadership is considered a position, and in the other end, leadership is considered a process (Grint, 2005a). I argue that leadership is to be understood as an interpersonal phenomenon, in which it must consist of a process involving both a leader and follower(s) (DeRue and Ashford, 2010). In other words, I believe the leadership configuration and process should be understood based on the situated relevance of roles rather than a priori assuming that only position matters.

Collective leadership is particularly relevant in studying interaction in teams as well. Collective leadership studies list a number of positive effects when including subordinates in the leadership process in teams. Carson, Tesluk and Marrone (2007) find shared leadership to be a critical factor in improving team performance in general. More particularly, shared leadership has been found to be essential for virtual team effectiveness (Eisenberg et al., 2016; Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017), and to have a positive impact on virtual team performance as well (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). Leadership in teams is still understood as an influence process (Carter et al., 2020); however, it centers around team effectiveness in the sense that a team leader's task is " 'to do, or get done, whatever is not being adequately handled for group needs' … (McGrath 1962, p. 5)" (Morgeson et al., 2010: 8). While studies within this field seemingly focus on how leadership contributes to team cohesion, clarity of task and purpose, supportive team climate, among other factors, (Day et al., 2004; Morgeson et al., 2010), less attention is paid as to how this is achieved.

In this first part of the theory chapter, I argue that leadership can be understood as both a practice and a process, which can be found within the interaction. In many studies, however, the role of the formally appointed hierarchical leader continues to be romanticized, centering on the formally appointed leader or explicit local roles (such as that of chair) as the focus of analyses. This is problematic, when leadership is understood as an interpersonal influence process because this understanding prompts involvements of at least two interlocuters (influencer and influenced). Though some scholars argue for the importance of the processual perspective, less studies attend to what actually takes place when zooming in on the interaction. Additionally, with a processual orientation, plural perspectives enable a pluralistic perspective on the leadership process. I introduced the notion of collective leadership as a way to engage with the pluralistic perspective on leadership. Collective leadership prompts a curiosity on how leadership is configured. I believe the existing understanding the leadership configuration is too simplistic and argue that the leadership process should be understood based on situated relevance of roles rather than a priori assuming position matters. This is in particular interesting because collective leadership studies emphasize a range of positive effects when subordinates take part of the leadership process in teams.

A complex setting: The virtual context

Today's teams experience a high degree of complexity, which can be caused by task complexity, organizational complexity, globalization, and virtual collaboration (Edmondson and Harvey, 2017; Krumm et al., 2016). This increase of team complexity triggers ambiguity, which creates a lack of clarity regarding team boundaries (Guarana and Hernandez, 2015) and team identity (Gray et al., 2019; Porck et al., 2019). Collaboration is problematized in such a way that it has negative consequence for team performance (Henttonen et al., 2014). This goes as well for the virtual context, wherein the distribution of team members poses a number of challenges for team identity and collaboration (Espinosa et al., 2014; Schulze et al., 2017). Paradoxically, despite a strong consensus in the scholarly literature on the importance of leadership for a range of team aspects (Day et al., 2004; Drath et al., 2008; Morgeson et al., 2010), relatively little is known about the situated practices through which leadership processes make a difference. This is particularly true for teams in complex settings, wherein the vast majority of team leadership studies have focused on stable and co-located teams (Edmondson and Harvey, 2017). This is problematic because, due to high complexity, teams today cannot be assumed as stable, nor that they are collocated.

In a complex context, virtual team members might experience what can be called *discontinuities* (Dixon and Panteli, 2010). Discontinuities are experienced interactional constraints that are framed as gaps or lack of coherence in work activities (Watson-Manheim et al., 2002) that potentially complicate the team climate and work collaboration. Discontinuities can include time zones and cultural differences (Krumm et al., 2013; Lilian, 2014; Maznevski and Chudoba, 2000), and can be found within the interaction as something the interlocuters situationally orient to as problematic. A time zone does not have to be problematic; however, interlocutors can orient towards it as being problematic. In other words, discontinuities can be seen as elements that discontinue the interaction. For example, the technology through which the virtual collaboration is mediated, ICT, can cause experiences of discontinuity in the form of interactional constraints in work collaboration (Heath et al., 2000). Mondada (2007a) emphasizes the importance of bodily gestures in turn-taking (e.g., pointing), which is often not a possibility in virtual interaction. Several studies have shown how interactions within the virtual space were specifically challenging due to limitations such as lack of bodily cues, gaze, and missing minimal response (Arminen et al., 2016; Kangasharju, 1996; Oittinen, 2018). The challenge of lack of visibility was, for example, demonstrated in a study by Fineman, Maitlis and Panteli (2007), which revealed the difficulty of sharing and 'reading' emotions within the virtual context. Hence, the virtual context has interactional limitations that can be experienced as discontinuities by the interlocutors and can complicate the interaction needed to accomplish work.

However, the interactional limitations and boundaries of the virtual context are not necessarily problematic. In their study, Dixon and Panteli (2010) demonstrated how teams at first oriented towards a specific boundary as problematic (such as a discontinuity). However, by changing practices, not the boundary in itself, the discontinuity experienced ceased to exist. They denote this new practice as *virtual continuity*; virtual continuities in the literal meaning of being "continuities 'in effect, but not in fact' " (Dixon and Panteli, 2010: 1194). In other words, Dixon and Panteli (2010) demonstrated how virtual continuities were established without removing the boundaries that otherwise produced the previously experienced discontinuities. Additionally, they might be locally developed in the virtual team, in ways that are not easily imagined from the outside. Dixon and Panteli (2010) argue that virtuality can be a way to describe the experience of working in a virtual context. Thus, instead of defining a virtual team based on its contextual boundaries (that the collaboration is mediated, what the geographical distances might be, and so forth), a virtual team is framed based on its virtuality; based on how the team orients towards discontinuities and virtual continuities. Virtual teams might experience multiple such discontinuities, of which difference in geographical location is just one, but also that the subjective experiences of the discontinuity might not be what an outsider would expect. Depending on how such virtual continuities are developed and deployed, observable experienced challenges or boundaries, such as time zones or geographical distribution, might be experienced differently in different teams, and their impact on interaction may vary accordingly.

In many studies of virtual team, the virtual context is assumed a priori to be problematic, and hence neglect Dixon and Panteli's (2010) call to broaden the understanding of boundaries and focus on a more subjective perception of what is actually experienced and considered problematic in the virtual collaboration (exemplified by Maduka et al., 2018; Marlow et al., 2017; Schulze et al., 2017; Tenzer and Pudelko, 2016). There are, however, scholars, who do engage with the notion of virtuality (Watson-Manheim et al., 2012), in the sense that they challenge some of the discontinuities that are taken for granted in the virtual team literature, such as the importance of trust (Breuer et al., 2016; Gilson et al., 2015). In general, studies have developed a more exploratory nature, allowing open questions of media selection (Klitmøller et al., 2015; Lee and Panteli, 2010) and the causes of communication breakdowns (Lockwood, 2015), and exploring boundary maintenance (Huiyan and Sco, 2011).

How interlocutors treat facets of the complex setting, whether they orient towards them as continuities or discontinuities, can reveal when leadership is particularly needed. In the team literature, leadership is understood as the function of tending to team needs, whether they relate to experienced continuities or other team needs (Hertel et al., 2005; Morgeson et al., 2010). As such, the implication of discontinuities could be that one important possible leadership function is to enable the construction of continuities that are conducive for work. Thus, the concepts of virtuality and continuities are essential in relation to leadership in virtual teams and will help this dissertation in two ways. First, they broaden the perspective to include boundaries of many types, focusing on the subjective perception of what is actually experienced and oriented to as problematic in the interaction, rather than on the objective existence of boundaries. Second, ascribing this process as the production of virtual continuity is one way to operationalize the notion of leadership. As such, the production of virtuality, can help shed light on leadership in the interaction.

Although the interaction is influenced by the local context, few studies have focused on the interactional consequences of the virtual context. Among the few studies available looking at virtual interaction, Oittinen (2018) illustrated how problems with hearing, speaking, or understanding in the overall meeting space enabled the negotiation of alignment and affiliation by co-present participants in the same local meeting space. Another study by Laitinen and Valo (2018) demonstrated how technology was framed within the interaction. While continuities are assumed to develop within interactions, how this process is actually accomplished is left unexplored; that is, what are the interactional processes and strategies through which such continuities are established and maintained? In this process, leadership is pointed to as being an important factor for team effectiveness (Larson and DeChurch, 2020; Maduka et al., 2018; Schmidt, 2014). Hence, how are these continuities established, and how do they relate to leadership within the interaction?

Leadership in virtual team meetings

Studying leadership in a virtual context offers a lens to understanding leadership in a complex world. As the subject of leadership in virtual teams emerged in the scholarly field, the virtual team in itself was a clearly defined analytical unit, with all team members being fully distributed (Maznevski and Chudoba, 2000; Townsend et al., 1998). This carried implications of how leadership was understood in relation to this context. Scholars pointed to the need for the introduction of concepts such as the notion of e-leadership (Avolio et al., 2000; Avolio and Kahai, 2003) as a way to frame the uniqueness of the leadership role in the virtual team context compared to a face-to-face-team (Bell and Kozlowski, 2002). Today more or less everyone works virtually to some degree (Liao, 2017). Most people collaborate through cell phones, computers, emails, and cloud-based platforms for filesharing and communication. This poses the question by the team of "when are we a team?" Analytically, this might relate to a question about *how* virtual the team is (Chudoba et al., 2005; Dixon and Panteli, 2010). This is where the concepts of discontinuities and continuities can support the analytical work in this dissertation, as this perspective of virtuality introduces another prerequisite for leadership in virtual teams; one which points more towards a complex context, rather than a stable context. Consequently, exploring leadership in a virtual context can reveal something about not just leadership in this particular setting, but more broadly, about leadership in a complex world infused with technology.

The virtual team meeting is interesting to zoom in on as analytical focus, as meetings in particular are where we can identify the organizing practices, when talking the organization 'into being' (Boden, 1994; Cooren, 2007). It is within these organizing practices that leadership can be located (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013). Meetings are where social structures are established through talk; it is where time and space are organized (Boden, 1994). A formal meeting can be defined as a

> planned gathering [in] which the participants have some perceived (if not guaranteed) role, have some forewarning (either longstanding or quite improvisatorial) of the event, which has itself some purpose or 'reason , a time, place and in some general sense, an organizational function (Boden, 1994: 84).

Formal meetings will most likely have a pre-published or relatively fixed agenda (Svennevig, 2012), and they will most likely be chaired (Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009). It is within such meetings that one can get people 'on board' and create consensus, (Wodak et al., 2011), wherein entitlements and institutional roles are negotiated (Asmuß and Oshima, 2012), and future actions are determined (Barnes, 2007). It all happens within the interaction. Using the knowledge on the interactions that unfold in business meetings, and relating this to a more complex setting, such as that of a virtual context, can help to shed light on the leadership practices in complex settings more broadly.

This is not to say that leadership in a virtual context has not been explored previously. However, preceding focus is predominantly on the hierarchical leader as the one 'doing' leadership (Gibbs et al., 2017; Gilson et al., 2015; Liao, 2017). Further, studies seem to be focusing heavily on specified variables with which to measure leadership (e.g., Charlier et al., 2016; Hoch and Kozlowski, 2014; Serban et al., 2015). In a literature review by Gilson et al. (2015: 1325) they express: "Somewhat surprisingly, given that VT [virtual team] communication can be captured, we found very few studies that provided an in-depth analysis of communication records". Accordingly, they suggest future research to include in-depth analysis communication records. Leadership in itself, though, receive little attention in the section on future research. They do mention the role of leadership in preventing subgroupings in the virtual space as a potential subject for future research. Few studies tend to the communicative constitution of organizing within the virtual context. Darics (2020) explored leadership in instant messages through micro-analysis. Oittinen (2018) explored the multimodal accomplishment of alignment and affiliation in virtual meetings, highlighting how those who were co-located drew on their physical setting and the material environment in producing intersubjectivity. Markman (2009) explored how interlocutors construct openings and closings in a chat-based meeting. Streeck, Goodwin and LeBaron (2011: 11) argue that, research on mediated collaboration, for example in online environments, is "virtually non-existent". No studies of leadership in the field of virtual teams have focused to the interactional practices of accomplishing leadership within the virtual context.

The constrained interactional context relates to the use of material objects available in the context and how interlocuters use available objects within the context to support their interaction accordingly. Exploring the use of objects in social interaction can be done through the notion of affordances, which Hutchby (2001: 444) describes as "functional and relational aspects which frame, while not determining, the possibilities for agentic action in relation to an object". In other words, affordances are functional in the sense that they enable and constrain specific activities. Meredith (2017) reasons that the notion of affordances is relevant when analyzing technology, given that affordances are not static features of a particular object. Instead, affordances rely entirely on the relationship between the object and the actor. For example, Licoppe's (2017: 63) study demonstrated that meeting participants could mobilize the affordance of an object, by showing it in video-mediated communication, making the object a powerful resource to perform what he calls "intimacy-at-a-distance". A study by Bülow et al. (2019) showed how the affordances of mediated communication, in the form of emails, were mobilized in a workplace conflict. Lastly, Luff et al. (2016) also explored how advanced meeting technology acted as an affordance and supported virtual collaboration, thereby bridging some of the interactional challenges.

What is particularly helpful in the virtual setting is the way that the constrained environment offers a more explicit interaction for the analytical eye. What this means is that interactional limitations provided by the virtual context (Arminen et al., 2016) entail more outspoken communication, both vocally and embodied. Minimal responses and eye gaze, which are important in physically collocated meetings (Asmuß, 2015; Mondada, 2007a), are limited or non-existent in the virtual space, and as such, accomplishing work tasks calls for additional interactional work. Yasui (2013) explored the role of gesture repetition in a brainstorming session, revealing how embodied gestures were crucial in the demonstration of dis-alignment or alignment with the ideas put forward. Djordjilovic (2012) studied how team identities were locally produced through use of bodily orientation, gaze, nodding, and talk in an identification process in a specific team. In essence, the virtual context offers a more vocalized environment, in the sense that what might normally entail subtle, almost unseen deeds, has to be vocalized more explicitly in the situation to grant any significance among interlocutors. This gives me, as an analyst, more rich data to consider in regard to studying the work unfolding in virtual team meetings.

I have introduced a line of theoretical arguments, and as I get closer to the presentation of this dissertation's research question, I find it helpful to briefly summarize the argument that I have constructed. Leadership is a process of interpersonal influence. It is a phenomenon that is accomplished collectively between several interlocutors. It is to be found within the practices of work collaboration. In other words, it is to be found within the interaction. Today, teams experience high complexity in their collaboration. This influences a number of team aspects, such as a team's identity and collaboration. The virtual context presents a particularly complex environment in which interlocutors often experience discontinuities, which influence team collaboration.

It is interesting to question how leadership is accomplished in the virtual context, where leadership work is a matter of tending to team needs. Examining the interaction within virtual team meetings is one way to look at the organizing practices in which leadership is embedded, as they unfold in situ. More broadly, this prompts questions such as: In what situations might leadership processes be important? How is the leadership process accomplished in the virtual context? What does that disclose about the particular role of leadership in a virtual context? To tend to these questions, I have formulated a more specific question, the research question of this dissertation:

> *What is the role of leadership processes in handling the particular challenges presented by a virtual context, and how are such processes accomplished in practice?*

Next, I will briefly touch upon the specific notions and core concepts mentioned in the research question in order to clarify how they are defined in this dissertation.

Leadership

Leadership is defined in this dissertation as an interpersonal influence process in the accomplishment of organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). This interpersonal influence is a collaborative accomplishment, which is displayed within the interaction (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013).

Accomplishing leadership processes

Understanding leadership as a process in which interpersonal influence is accomplished raises the question of when something is completed. While a process perspective on for example organizing (Dobusch and Schoeneborn, 2015) or leadership (Crevani, 2018) portrays these as fluid and ongoing, from an EM perspective, when zooming sufficiently in on a specific interaction, it is reasonable to argue that actions do have a beginning and an ending (Levinson, 2014). As such, although acknowledging that leadership is an ongoing process, in this dissertation, I also understand these leadership processes to consist of multiple small accomplishments of leadership (inter)actions, which, when analyzing these actions and re-actions, essentially provide insight into the broader understanding of leadership processes.

Challenges in a virtual context

By framing the research question around the challenges in a virtual context, I chose to lean on Watson-Manheim and colleagues' (2002) understanding of challenges in a virtual context such as discontinuities, explained as interactional constraints that are experienced in the virtual space. Further, I draw on the understanding of virtuality presented by Dixon and Panteli (2010) to emphasize that challenges in a virtual context entail subjective understandings of the interactional constraints, based on the virtual continuities each team has managed to establish. As such, the research question orients towards how interlocutors within a virtual meeting carry out certain actions as a means to accomplish work within this constrained context.

Practice

In reference to practice in the research question, I must emphasize that it is not to say this dissertation lies within the field of L-A-P. I position this dissertation within leadership in interaction (Clifton et al., 2020; Larsson, 2017). Nonetheless, practice is a useful notion for describing the mundane, every day, messy work interactions that unfold within, for example, business meetings, which are what this dissertation is focused on.

3 Methodology

In this chapter I present my methodology. First, I begin by describing the philosophical point of departure of my research. Next, I explain my methodological framework, which is based on EM and CA. This will lead to a presentation of my data, and finally, I describe how I applied my methodological frame for analysis.

Research philosophy

The research question presented in this dissertation focuses on leadership processes in interaction. According to Rasborg (2007), ontologically speaking, social phenomena and processes are continuously changing and adapting, and as such, the study of how these processes are accomplished is the analysis of the social construction of practices. The study of social practices is consistent with the approach of EM. Garfinkel (1967) argues that EM is not a methodology, nor a research philosophy. Rawls (2008) argues that EM is a study of social construction in action. When bringing social construction to the table, a particularly important question arises: The social construction of what?

Social construction can have many meanings; is it the social construction of an idea, an object, a theory, a person (Hacking, 1999)? Hacking (1999) encourages us to ask what the point is (the aim or focus of the study), rather than asking for meaning. The aim of this dissertation is to explore the phenomenon of leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process in a complex setting. In this sense it becomes interesting to reflect upon social construction in relation to the notion of leadership. Leadership is defined here as an interpersonal influence process in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). If leadership is a social relation, it cannot be anything but socially constructed. However, Alvesson and Spicer (2012) argue that if leadership is considered a socially constructed process, everything can be considered leadership. They argue that by zooming in on practices, we leave out social structures such as hierarchy. The counter question here is, if social structures (such as hierarchy) are relevant for the interaction, would it not be visible within such interaction?

Kelly (2014) argues how leadership, as a social construct, becomes an empty container, saying that leadership as a notion is filled with different meanings. Considering leadership as an empty container makes it impossible to analytically locate leadership in practice as, according to

Alvesson and Svenningson (2003) and Kelly (2014), it then only exists within the minds of the interlocutors. For example, Alvesson and Svenningson (2003) interview people about their opinion on leadership. They ask managers what they believe 'leadership comes down to'; in this sense, each interviewee may construct their own understanding of the word leadership. They are not provided with a definition of leadership, rather it lies in the task of their defining what it means, resulting in interviewees describing their understanding of the word leadership, and what they ascribe this term, rather than researching what is actually going on. Alvesson and Svenningson's (2003) study is also an example of how leadership is continuously researched with the point of departure in the formal position, though at the same time acknowledging leadership as an interpersonal influence process. As elaborated in chapter 2 it is problematic to assume that leadership lies with a position while at the same time stressing leadership as emerging between people. This will cause what Woolgar and Pawluch (1985: 214) refer to as "ontological gerrymandering". Mixing ontological understandings of leadership creates problems in the way leadership is to be understood at its most fundamental level; the notion becomes muddy, and it prompts misunderstandings as to what it is we are actually talking about. In essence, leadership understood as a position and leadership understood as a process are essentially incommensurable in their ontological roots. That said, formal positions may very well have an impact on the leadership process, but only if socially constructed as such within the situation.

Larsson (2017: 174) offers another ontological understanding of leadership, saying that

> [the] discursive and interactional perspective [of leadership] takes the social arena as a distinct ontological and empirical field in its own right and assumes that this is where leadership as well as where organization more generally (Hindmarsh & Llewellyn, 2020) is shaped and realized.

Along this line of thought, Fairhurst and Grant (2010: 177) distinguish between "the social construction of reality" and "the construction of social reality". The first relates to the social construction of ideas, whereas the second refers to the social world as something that is constructed by actors. This is in line with Rawls' (2002) argument that if reality is a social construction, it is a matter of how reality is constructed, and thus not about how people's ideas about reality are constructed; EM can be considered a research program that studies exactly this.

Scholars within EM seldom characterize themselves as social constructivists, as it may prompt a sense of being interpretivist (Watson, 1994). Essentially, EM is about being empirically anchored (Rawls, 2008). It is *the documentary method of interpretation* (Garfinkel, 1967) within EM that is central as to how the world can be understood. In this lies the idea, for example, that a decision is not a decision until it is recognized as such by the interlocutors within the interaction. Likewise, roles are not roles until they are performed and recognized as such within the interaction. This is the foundation upon which this dissertation is constructed. I believe leadership is to be found within messy, everyday practices as a process of interpersonal influence. As such, I have addressed my data on the basis of member's method (Garfinkel, 1967) in this dissertation. Subsequently, I have applied CA as the analytical method for approaching my data. In the next section of this chapter, I will describe EM and multimodal CA, while also bridging the methodological choices to the concept of leadership.

Ethnomethodology, multimodal conversation analysis, and leadership

This dissertation is centered around the questions: What is the role of leadership processes in handling the particular challenges presented by a virtual context, and how are such processes accomplished in practice? To explore how leadership is constructed within the virtual context, I focus on the interaction, allowing for situated data to enlighten me on how leadership is accomplished, and what role leadership plays. I begin this part of the chapter with a short description of how scholars within the theoretical field of leadership traditionally research leadership, linking this to the recent discursive turn in leadership, and the methodological impact that has had. I will then present EM, which is this dissertation's methodological lens; the lens through which I, as an analyst, look at the world. Next, I will introduce CA and the multimodal turn, two closely related methodological approaches that support the analysis of talk-in-interaction. I will then consider these analytical approaches in relation to the methodological considerations of conducting research of business meetings, particularly in a virtual context.

Methodology: Zooming in on leadership processes

Theoretically, Grint (2005a: 1) distinguishes between four different perspectives on leadership: Leadership as "a person", "a result", "a position" and "a process". Understanding leadership on the basis of something “a person” does is fundamentally different than understanding leadership on the basis of “a process” that involves two or more interlocutors, as Grint (2005a) underlines; it has epistemological impact. Whereas many leadership studies understand leadership based on the perspective that Grint (2005a) denotes leadership as “a person” or “a position,” this dissertation understands leadership as “a process.” Understanding leadership as a process is consistent with the discursive turn (Denis et al., 2012; Fairhurst, 2007), which offers an ontological understanding of leadership that is different than that presented in the mainstream leadership literature (Parry and Bryman, 2006; Yukl, 2013). Within this discursive perspective, leadership is understood as a process involving at least two interlocutors between whom an interpersonal influence process is produced (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013), as such, not as something someone does to someone else. With this focus, individual cognitive sensemaking processes or personal characteristics become less interesting.

The discursive turn is a matter of looking at organizations as “ongoing and precarious accomplishments realized, experienced, and identified primarily – if not exclusively – in communication processes” (Cooren et al., 2011: 1150). Leadership studies that can be positioned within the discursive turn (Clifton, 2019) lean on methodologies that focus on discourse and the impact that the spoken word has on the accomplishment of leadership (Clifton, 2012; Crevani, 2018; Fairhurst, 2008; Larsson, 2017; Schnurr and Schroeder, 2019). Focusing on leadership within the interaction, studies draw on discourse analysis, interactional sociolinguistics, CA and similar approaches (Clifton, 2019; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020; Vine et al., 2008). Common to these methodologies is the way in which they tend to the in situ organizing of practices through analysis of situated data. Interactional sociolinguistics works on the basic premise that the use of language reveals something about who the speaker is and what this person wants (Schnurr, 2012). However, focus is, as such, less on the *inter*action, and more on the spoken word, and how words in themselves are perceived as actions. Discourse analysis, another methodology for analyzing situated data, can take many forms, but is essentially a matter of analyzing, on different levels, the impact and meaning of the discourse (Gee, 2011). As such, though all three are focusing on a micro-level, these two strands are different from CA, the method applied in this dissertation, in the sense that CA focuses on the interactional accomplishment of social practices, rather than the intention or meaning of these practices.

There is wide agreement within the leadership field that leadership as a concept is to be understood as an influence process (Grint, 2005a; Yukl, 2013). However, depending on ontology and epistemological choices, the phenomenon that is actually researched varies, as pointed to by Grint (2005a). In this dissertation, I lean on the understanding that the concept of leadership can be found in different empirical phenomena as an interpersonal influence process (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). This means, as previous studies of leadership in interaction have demonstrated, that the concept of leadership can be understood as, and found in, empirical phenomena, such as the practices of organizing (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013) or as actions of influence (Van De Mieroop, 2020). Thus, a core assumption in this dissertation is that the concept of leadership can be identified empirically within the interaction, as interlocutors influence and are influenced by one another.

Ethnomethodology

Before shortly turning towards EM, I would like to touch upon a few methodological considerations I have made, as EM is not necessarily the only way to address the discursive turn within the theoretical field of leadership. A methodology which accommodates the discursive turn is a methodology that attends to the discourse. This can be done in many ways. As already discussed, discourse analysis and social linguistics are two approaches. Other scholars tend to discourse by measuring interaction. This is seen in the study by Gerpott et al. (2019) in which they used video recordings to capture verbal behaviors using fine-grained empirical interaction coding. Through hypothesis testing and multilevel modeling, they showed that task-oriented discourse was a positive predictor of emergent leadership, whereas change-oriented discourse predicted emergent leadership at the start of a project. However, measuring calls for hypothesis testing and the research question for this dissertation prompts exploration of existing practices. As such, measuring discourse seems less relevant for this study.

Another relevant approach is that of Actor-network theory (ANT). Within ANT, the common assumption is that for one actor to act, many actors must act as well. Important here is that actors are both humans and non-humans (Bencherki, 2017). Studies within leadership, which draw on this methodological framework, focus on materiality in leadership. For example, Ropo and Salovaara (2019) discuss how artifacts influence leadership, arguing that leadership is produced through an embodied and performative process between people and space. In this study, Ropo and Salovaara (2019) illustrated through retrospective data how, for example, an actor in a theater was influenced by space. In other words, it is the non-human that acts as influencer. In relation to this dissertation, I believe one of the challenges with the ANT perspective is that agency is assumed a priori. As with how leadership is assumed “to lie” with the formally appointed leader, agency in materiality is assumed to exist as well. Although this might very well be the case, based on one analytical perspective, I was looking for a methodological perspective that could accommodate the exploration of interactions without a priori assuming either agency with materials or leadership emanating from the formally appointed hierarchical leader.

Many leadership studies, particularly those romanticizing the role of the formally appointed hierarchical leader (Meindl et al., 1985), tend to talk less about what leadership is and more about what it does. Garfinkel’s (1967) notion of *the missing what* characterizes such studies, which leave out the performance of the constituent practices (Lynch, 2012: 165). This central idea within EM is that it is

> the study of a particular subject matter: the body of common-sense knowledge and the range of procedures and considerations by means of which the ordinary members of society make sense of, find their way about in, and act on the circumstances in which they find themselves (Heritage, 1984b: 4).

EM offers a lens through which to explore how interlocutors themselves orient towards what is going on in mundane, everyday work. In EM informed studies focus is on how people “practically sustain a shared social world” (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010: 4), rather than condense interactions to an objective factual truth. EM can help look at how members collaboratively produce and manage their settings of organized everyday affairs. To undertake the study of leadership through an EM approach, prompts the recognition of leadership as a collective production, found in the midst of mundane, everyday work (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020), rather than as a mythological and invisible phenomenon (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2003; Kelly, 2014). EM offers a way to take a phenomenon otherwise understood as mainstream and study it as “endogenous accomplishments of knowledgeable members of a social group” (Whittle and Housley, 2017: 174). As such, EM offers a lens through which the role of leadership in handling the interactional challenges in a virtual context can be explored, shedding light on the practices with which leadership is accomplished.

One way to gain an understanding of how members organize their everyday affairs is through the study of interactional data. Llewellyn and Hindmarsh (2010: 8) argue that “by engaging with real-time interaction… analysts might establish a ‘unique position’ from which to engage with practice”. Applying an EM lens is a matter of zooming in on the “seen but unnoticed” (Garfinkel, 1967: 37). This could, for example, be to focus on the dialogues at the office, by the coffee machine or in the business meetings, to understand how people practically accomplish influence processes as they happen. Garfinkel (1967) proposed that instead of asking why social order is as it is in principle (or is claimed to be), practices should be examined to show how particular manifestations of social order are achieved and worked into being (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010; Llewellyn and Spence, 2009). He called this “the artful practices” of social order (Garfinkel, 1967: 9). In relation to leadership, Fairhurst (2011: 498) states, that “ethnomethodology eschews essentialism by forcing analysts to understand leadership from the perspective of the actors involved”. Thus, looking at how members in situ make sense of and act on the basis of their specific context allows for an understanding of how leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process, is produced in a specific context, and additionally, an increased understanding of the processes, through which leadership can manage the experienced challenges in a virtual context.

Although Garfinkel’s (1967) work is widely cited in the organizational field, relatively few studies align with the EM dictum engaging in detail with the actual studies of constituent practices (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010). Llewellyn and Hindmarsh (2010: 10) state: “The overwhelming bulk of the studies are *about* talk rather than *of* talk”. Instead, the work itself is described *prior to* the analysis, rather than being an actual object of analysis (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010). Scholars who do engage with the constituent practices are, for example, Garfinkel (1967) himself, Suchman (1987), Barley (1996), and Orr (1996) (for more examples see Hammersley and Atkinson (1995)). Cooren and Fairhurst (2004: 793–794) critically argue that “it still remains to be shown how the process of organizing can be identified through the details of naturally occurring interactions”.

Studies within EM that direct attention towards the real-time accomplishment of organizing draw on CA (EM/CA) (Hindmarsh and Llewellyn, 2010). CA is the study of how ordinary talk is produced and organized; the study of "how the meanings of talk are determined, are practical, social and interactional accomplishments of members of culture" (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008: 1). As such, CA is a method within EM, which supports the analysis of everyday practices. Thus, rather than

> chasing important events… and imagining 'organisation' always to be elsewhere, ethnomethodological studies allow analysts to access thousands of 'small ways' in which people locally recognize and reproduce the organizational location of their actions (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010: 5).

EM/CA is one way to access how organizations are constituted in the moment-by-moment flow of mundane, everyday work (Llewellyn and Spence, 2009; Maynard and Clayman, 2003). It brings into focus the " 'seen but unnoticed' (Garfinkel 1967) ways in which people recognize and reproduce the organizational location of their actions, in and through each successive action (Sacks 1984)" (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010: 13). Hence, EM/CA can help explore the role of leadership processes in handling the particular challenges presented by a virtual context, and how such processes are accomplished in practice.

Conversation analysis

In this section, I present CA, and the core concepts applied in this dissertation. First, I briefly introduce the background of CA. Next, I explain some of the core concepts that are particularly relevant in this dissertation, such as sequence organization and next-turn proof procedure. Finally, I introduce membership categorization as an analytical tool to frame and discuss identification categories in interaction.

CA, a method for analyzing interaction, was developed on the body of work by Sacks (Sacks, 1992) and Schegloff and Jefferson (Sacks et al., 1974), particularly based on lectures held by Sacks throughout the 1960's and 1970's. The first CA studies were based on audio-recorded conversations from a suicide helpline. Sacks (1984) argued that the format, recorded audio, was particularly relevant for going over the conversation as many times as needed in the analytical process. The intention with CA is to understand how ordinary talk is organized, how interlocutors coordinate their interaction, and what role talk has in wider social processes. In other words, the method can help disclose “the tacit, organized reasoning procedures which inform the production of naturally occurring talk” (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008: 1).

Sidnell (2010: 1) describes CA as a “machinery” within social sciences that “aims to describe, analyze and understand talk as a basic and constitutive feature of human social life”. This is not to say that CA entails predetermined social structures; rather, it suggests that there is a thorough methodological foundation to stand on to analyze the structures created by social actors. Within CA, structure is “a feature of situated social interaction that participants actively orient to as *relevant* for the ways they design their actions” (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008: 4). As such, structure is not an objective, external source of constraints on the individuals. This does not mean that social structures such as hierarchical position, roles, or authority are deemed irrelevant or non-existent. Rather, it requires the analyst to “pay close attention to empirical phenomena and to begin from the assumption that participants are active, knowledgeable agents, rather than simply the bearers of extrinsic, constraining structures” (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008: 5). In other words, within CA, social constructs, such as hierarchy, do exist, however, it is argued that it unfolds when interlocutors orient to it as relevant (Asmuß, 2015).

The methodological possibilities within CA are well established and offer a variety of perspectives on interactional data. It allows for exploration of *the sequential order of interaction* (Stivers, 2013), and how, through turns-at-talk in situ, actors collaboratively accomplish intersubjectivity (Schegloff, 2007b). Heritage (1984b: 256) describes how “linked actions … are the building-blocks of intersubjectivity”. For example, if a doctor in a consultation asks where it hurts, you are expected to provide an account for this. This would be the relevant action. These expectations of responses are what Schegloff (2007b) refers to as *the relevance rules*. The relevance rules are known practices that are invoked to call for a specific reply. For example, when asking certain types of questions, it is expected that an interlocutor self-select the turn and reply. Hence, these rules set the terms for conduct and interpretations in the next moments following their invocation, and it is with these rules that, when analyzing sequence organization, the analyst can say something about the interaction.

Having the sequential order in mind when addressing the recorded interaction, it is relevant to consider the interconnectedness between each sequence. As such, within CA, interaction is analyzed based on visible responses to previous turns (Heritage and Clayman, 2010) and builds on the idea that “all social life is based on people’s ability to recognize what others are doing”

(Stevanovic and Peräkylä, 2014: 185). This is reflected in what is referred to as the *next-turn proof procedure* (Sacks et al., 1974; Sidnell, 2012). The next-turn proof procedure is based on the systematics of turn-taking in a conversation. Interlocutors have a moral obligation to demonstrate their understanding of other interlocutors' turns-at-talk. Each turn tells something about how the prior turn was understood by the interlocutor. Subsequently, in the analytical process, it is relevant to look at each turn-at-talk and ask the question: "why this now?" (Heritage, 1984b; Heritage and Clayman, 2010). Addressing the interaction based on a next-turn proof procedure is relevant in relation to leadership, when understanding leadership as an interpersonal influence process (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). The next-turn proof procedure ensures that leadership is not only about identifying a person who enacts influence but acknowledging that influence only exists when the next turn illustrates that someone has been influenced.

CA also offers the analytical tool *membership categorization analysis* (MCA), which is an analytical approach to analyze identity categories in interaction. While some scholars argue that MCA is distinct from CA (Hester and Eglin, 1997), Sacks (Sacks, 1992) himself is quite interested in the subject. MCA offers a particular analytical approach to talk-in-interaction (Stokoe, 2012). As Sacks (Sacks, 1992) explains in his lectures, people continuously organize their worlds into categories and mobilize these categories within their daily interaction. Hester and Eglin (1997: 3) describe MCA as a method that

> directs attention to the locally used, invoked, and organized 'presumed common-sense knowledge of social structures' which members are oriented to in the conduct of their everyday affairs, including professional sociological inquiry itself.

As such, MCA allows for an analytical lens through which to look at how members within the interaction mobilize and identify with particular categorizations (Watson, 1997). Membership to a certain category is ascribed or rejected within the interaction, and displayed (or ignored) within the interactional work (Antaki and Widdicombe, 2008). This analytical tool is particularly relevant for this dissertation, as MCA is a way to understand how team members and managers orient towards each other, the team, and the context they are in based on observable interactional categories. MCA can help explore how leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process, becomes relevant in relation to the identification categories made relevant in the interaction.

Conversation analysis and multimodality

Though interaction is much about the spoken word, other modalities may influence the interaction as well. It is therefore helpful to pay attention to the multimodal aspects of accomplishing leadership in virtual settings. Leaning on multimodal CA, I draw on a strong line of CA informed research (Deppermann, 2013; Mondada, 2016), which have demonstrated the embodied influence on sensemaking (Goodwin, 1994; Mondada, 2011) and how professional actors skillfully used material resources to accomplish their everyday work (Deppermann et al., 2010; Koschmann et al., 2011; Mondada, 2007a). In this dissertation, I seek to draw on EM/CA and multimodality to explore not the body, as such, in leadership, but rather how actors draw on and how they use the multimodal resources available to them in this process (Van De Mieroop, 2020; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020). This is especially interesting in a virtual context, wherein the body and other sensory experiences are less available. I focus on the situated interaction in a virtual context, both attending to the use of virtual resources and also considering how, in combination with talk, this can accomplish leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process.

Since this dissertation focuses on virtual meeting interaction, it is particularly relevant how Asmuß (2015) argues that while interlocutors talk, they also make use of other resources. As seen in a study by Asmuß and Oshima (2012) words, body movements, and materials were in play when interlocutors negotiated institutional roles within the interaction. In line with this, Mondada (2011: 542) stresses how sensemaking is achieved in interaction that consists of "situated, contingent, embodied, and intersubjective dimensions", making it relevant to consider all of these aspects of the interaction when exploring leadership within a virtual context. Thus, by including the multimodal aspect, I am able to consider both the sequential ordering of talk and how the actors use materials, bodies, gestures, etc. in their interaction and to accomplish leadership. The focus on leadership in combination with multimodal CA is also found in the recent study by Van De Mieroop et al. (2020), wherein they illustrate how leadership, through talk, gaze, the use of space, artefacts and so on, is negotiated in subtle ways, which allow informal leadership to emerge in conjunction, and in this case in conflict, with formal leadership. How materiality is treated analytically varies depending on theoretical perspective. Adapting, for example, sociomateriality (Orlikowski, 2007) or ANT (Bencherki, 2017) emphasis would, to a great extent, be on the agency of the human as well as the material. In this dissertation, I lean on previous organizational studies, which address the role of objects within the interaction, not as an active agent, but rather as a tool which can be mobilized by human actors (Goodwin, 1994; Licoppe, 2017; Streeck et al., 2011). These studies built on an understanding wherein it was the social actor's use of the object that was of interest, rather than the object itself. Mortensen (2012: 3) refers to this approach as the "interactional perspective." Within this perspective, modalities and materiality matter, but only when oriented to as interactionally relevant by the interlocutors.

Looking at multimodalities, video recording is particularly helpful, but this approach also presents a number of challenges. There has been a proliferation of studies which uses video recordings of work tasks to demonstrate fine-grained details of work as it is accomplished within mundane, everyday organizational settings (Hindmarsh and Heath, 2007). The challenge is that video recordings raise questions as to the problem of relevance (Schegloff, 1991). The analyst is offered information through talk as well as multimodal actions and material objects. As such, the analytical complexity increases when the role of materiality is considered within the interaction (Hindmarsh and Llewellyn, 2018). However, Hindmarsh and Llewellyn (2018: 413) argue that as long as the data is analyzed based on "the relevance of the account for organizational members in the production of their actions and activities", this should pose less of a problem. In other words, within the interaction, the embodied actions are relevant when interlocutors treat them as such. This relates to material objects as well, wherein objects can be deemed relevant when interlocutors orient towards the material object as possessing affordances that are operationalized within the interaction (Hazel et al., 2014).

Multimodal conversation analysis and the (business) meeting

A particularly interesting context in this dissertation is that of a business meeting. A business meeting consists of a number of empirical phenomena, such as the agenda, chair roles, and formulations. The multimodal CA perspective offers an explanation to the meeting as an event which is constituted, sustained, and repeatedly renegotiated based on a turn-by-turn organizing principle (Asmuß, 2015). Consequently, meeting roles, such as chair or meeting participant, are not only preassigned, but "they are also locally accomplished, sustained, and altered by the way in which the meeting participants interactively orient to their organizational roles" (Asmuß, 2015: 279). Thus, for example, structures related to a business meeting, such as roles, rules, rights, and obligations (Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Boden, 1995), are possible to introduce prior to the meeting, but at the same time, they are constructed, formed, and influenced within the specific situations. It is particularly helpful for this dissertation to lean on the meeting literature, while at the same time not assuming a priori that a particular construct is important to the interaction. Rather, the situated data should be treated based on how the interlocutors orient towards the interaction as a recognizable pattern, such as the meeting chair (Asmuß, 2015).

Several actions are considered possibly relevant within the business meeting in regard to leadership. This goes for the opening and closing of meetings (Nielsen, 2013), enacting the role of chair (Pomerantz and Denvir, 2007), producing formulations (Barnes, 2007), and using the agenda for topic introductions (Svennevig, 2012). In particular, being informed by the literature about the role of the meeting chair, spurred an awareness of the relation between the actions of the chair and the notion of leadership (Choi and Schnurr, 2014; Van De Mieroop, 2020; Wodak et al., 2011). For instance, Huisman (2001) applied CA to illustrate how decision-making is talk-in-interaction, as organizational members collaboratively created the future of their organization through talk in meetings. All these studies, together with many more studies of workplace meetings (for more, see, e.g., Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Oshima and Asmuß, 2018), have informed my empirical study about what is going on within business meetings.

Interaction in a virtual context

When carrying out research within virtual meetings, it is particularly relevant to consider the influence of the context. The situatedness of both the meeting and the virtual context matters for the interaction (Heritage, 1984b). One of the basic assumptions within CA is that "contributions to interaction are contextually oriented" (Heritage, 1984b: 242). This means that what is said in a given situation, such as a virtual meeting, is produced in relation to the contextual features that characterize it. In the virtual context, there are visually few or no cues to guide the interaction (Oittinen, 2018). Furthermore, minimal responses are often limited as well, due to muted microphones. This calls for additional explicit communication within the interaction, to guide and inform each other on matters that in physical collocated meetings, are otherwise less problematically accomplished (Arminen et al., 2016). Hence, from a methodological perspective, it is relevant to consider that the context influences the interaction, both when capturing the interaction, and particularly in the analytical process as well. As interlocutors have to act according to the restrictions offered by the context, interactions are more vocalized. This means that interlocutors have to articulate visibly, what they could have done implicitly if collocated, e.g., through body language. This could, for example, be selection of the next speaker, which can be embodied through eye gaze in a collocated meeting but has to be vocalized in a virtual meeting. As such, the interactional restrictions can help the analysis of leadership in interaction, as the interactions are more vocalized in the virtual context.

Having a multimodal perspective calls for attention to materiality. Luff et al. (2014) argue that considerations as to how objects are referred to, manipulated, and transformed within and through mediated interaction between interlocutors are often neglected. Licoppe (2017: 64) demonstrated how meeting participants showed one another a personal object in video-mediated communication. He distinguishes between informative showing, evocative showing, and personal showing, in which the latter can constitute a powerful resource to perform "intimacy-at-a-distance". This distinction is significant, as it illustrates the relevance of mobilizing the material objects within the virtual context. The question is how to analytically treat what is not present in the local space. Luff and Heath (2019: 578) problematize getting the experience of the "lived work" in mediated collaboration. To this, it could be argued that work carried out in the virtual space lives in the virtual space. Additionally, if the researcher participates in the virtual space in the meeting, interaction in a local space is as accessible to the researcher as for all those sitting remotely. Luff et al. (2014: 327) argue that difficulties that might arise in video-mediated collaboration seem to be "due to the asymmetric nature of the resources available to the coparticipants", which relates to both participants and the researcher. Hence, in this dissertation, it is assumed that what is experienced in the virtual meeting space is relevant to the interaction. Furthermore, though acknowledging that there is asymmetrical access to the collaboration caused by the technology, it is assumed that it is the what Luff and Heath (2019: 578) refer to as "lived work" that can be observed in the virtual space.

As such, to gain access to this virtual space, EM offers a lens through which interaction in mundane, everyday work can be considered. It is a perspective that allows for the exploration of mundane, everyday work. It grants a possibility of gaining an understanding of how interlocutors themselves orient towards what is going. EM/CA directs attention towards real-time accomplishment, turning attention to the situated accomplishments of work practices. CA is a broad field of research methodology, accommodating many studies within different theoretical streams of literature, as well as a distinct field of research in itself. Within this field, studies within multimodality, the business meeting, and mediated collaboration are particularly interesting for this dissertation, as they can support the exploration of the role of leadership processes in handling the particular challenges presented by a virtual context, and how such processes are accomplished in practice. In the section on analytical process later in this chapter, I describe how CA has been applied in my analytical process. In the next section of this chapter, I present some of the more critical voices on EM, (multimodal) CA, and interactional studies.

Critique of ethnomethodology and conversation analysis

In this dissertation, CA is seen as part of the EM tradition. However, not all scholars align with this perspective. Lynch (2000) argues that CA is indeed developed from EM, but argues that it has transformed into its own independent research program. For Lynch (2000), this is an important distinction, as he argues that CA studies have a positivistic discourse, which is, for him problematic, as it indicates that social interaction can be generalized. This is considered problematic because, within EM, it is believed that though things seem to be repeated, they are "each another next first time" (Garfinkel, 1967: 182). This means that though the interaction can follow a rather commonsensical structure, such as, for example, a consultation with a doctor (Heritage, 1984b), each visit at the doctor will continue to be distinct. Others, such as Maynard (2003), maintain that in their work they are doing EM with the support of CA. He argues that particular actions, such as aligning, accepting, and evaluating, can be seen as generic in the sense that they are recognizable across situations. How these procedures are then uniquely designed in specific situations are distinct and particular. This discussion is particularly relevant in relation to this dissertation, as I draw on both fields (CA and EM). I thus lean on previous scholars to emphasize that CA and EM is commensurable and, consequently, I see these two methodologies in alignment as a way to approach the interactional practices of leadership. As such, in this dissertation, I am, first and foremost, leaning on the core principles within CA, thus centering the participants' observable orientations in the interaction (Heritage and Clayman, 2010; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). I use, as Maynard (2003) describes it, known procedures as a way to understand how intersubjectivity is accomplished within a specific context.

Another point of critique relating to what Lynch (2000) refers to as generalizability is the fact that different CA studies can be positioned within different perspectives: Linguistics and sociology (Heritage and Stivers, 2014; Stivers, 2013). CA studies within linguistics are zooming in on what Maynard (2003) refers to as generalizable procedures such as accomplishing alignment (Stivers, 2008), showing the function of a change-of-state token (Heritage, 1984a), and in particular, the study of syntax (Lerner, 1991). There is a certain generalizability in these procedures in terms of what we can expect as a next turn (Schegloff, 2007b). These studies are often based on collections of data (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008; Schegloff, 1987) to support this generalizability. Sociological studies drawing on CA, in contrast, seem to base their research on single cases. Single cases allow for longer fractions of talk (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008), which grant the possibility of exploring more complex social phenomena. What is important to note here is that, though generalizability is relevant to consider, Garfinkel (2002: 182) also points to how any social action is “each another next first time”. This possibility of exploring more complex social phenomena, which expands on more than a few turns, is essentially also what makes it possible to link theoretical notions such as leadership to the social actions (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010). Further, single cases, which illustrate social practices within a given institutional setting, such as a business meeting, have a certain generalizability as well, as long as the interaction in the single cases adhere to the next-turn-proof procedure (Sacks et al., 1974; Sidnell, 2012). I believe this distinction between generalizability and single case studies is relevant to consider in a study like this, as it relates to how CA is applied in the analysis. As such, in this dissertation, I apply CA to explore a more complex social phenomenon, namely that of leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence.

Last, but not least, there are voices that contest whether moving a fine-grained analysis into a broader level is possible (for examples, see chapter 9 in Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). Though a distinction between micro and macro level is often applied in this discussion (Hilbert, 1990), I wish to, at first, refer to Boden’s (1994: 2) statement: “there is no such thing as ‘macro’ or ‘micro’, nor should there be”. She argues that it is tempting to consider “structure over action” (Boden, 1994: 5), in the sense that structure is macro level and action is what individuals do on micro level. Nonetheless, accepting this separation would be to dismantle the world as it is; no structure exists without actions and vice versa. Although Garfinkel (1967) argues that social action is “each another next first time” (Garfinkel, 2002: 182), that does not mean that this specific action cannot shed light on social structures. On the contrary, as Boden (1994: 7) formulates it:

> People's everyday actions in concrete social situations are the stuff of social order, and as such, the constitution of society involves the mutual and simultaneous elaboration of structure and action across time and across space. The business of talk is just that.

With this understanding, I believe EM/CA can help shed light on my research question, in the sense that the EM perspective allows for analysis of the mundane, everyday work practices. Further, applying CA can direct attention towards the real-time accomplishment of interpersonal influence processes.

Data

In this section, I present the data upon which this research project is built. First, I describe how I decided which type of organizations and teams were relevant for my research. Second, I explain how I gained access to the different companies and teams. Third, I briefly introduce each company and each team with which I collected data. Finally, I describe how I collected my data.

Finding the cases

As I sat off to find relevant cases for this dissertation, I had certain considerations as to what cases would be relevant to work with. From the beginning, I was curious about the everyday practices in mediated collaboration. As such, I was searching for recorded, interactional, situated data. In practice, meditated or virtual collaboration is becoming more and more common. In 2012, 66% of multinational companies utilized virtual teams (Gilson et al., 2015), while a survey from 2018 (Cultural Wizard, 2018) showed that 89% of the respondents participated in at least one virtual team (and today, with the current global situation of COVID-19, the number of people working virtually has skyrocketed). As such, the topic of exploring corporate use of virtual collaboration was, and still is, of substantial practical relevance.

The next question was how the team should be organized. A vast amount of literature within the scholarly field of virtual teams focuses on project teams (Drouin and Bourgault, 2013; Gilson et al., 2015), in which the team members have task interdependence and the team has a limited lifespan. Turning towards an empirical setting, many organizations construct teams that are less project specific and more purpose driven, and have no expiration date. In these teams, the team members' tasks are not necessarily interdependent, rather the team members are gathered in a team based on a professional community, with a daily team manager somewhere in the world as their mutual touch point. Arrow, McGrath and Berdahl (2000) differentiate between teams composed on the basis of either a particular task (project teams are a good example), roles (crews), or on the basis of the people (e.g., competencies, interests, etc.). This last category can be called an organizational team, and it is this type of team that became the primary interest of my data collection.

As I started my data collection, I did not know exactly where my research would take me, which is in line with the EM approach to research (Hammersly and Atkinson, 1995; Rawls, 2008). As such, it was impossible to know how many teams I needed to collect data from. Once I began my data collection process, what became clear to me was how I had a unique opportunity to gain insight into different teams and organizations. Therefore, not knowing exactly what my data would reveal and where it would lead me, I decided that I would aim for 5-10 teams. This gave me an opportunity to carry out comparative studies whether that was a road to take, or alternatively, to create empirical collections across teams and organizations. I ended up with access to eight different teams in five different companies. The first six teams were structured according to the understanding of Arrow, McGrath and Berdahl (2000): teams, on the basis of people. The seventh team is a classical project team. The eighth team is atypical, in the sense that the team is the organization, a startup, and the organization is fully distributed.

Having, recruited eight teams, the data foundation lies upon a case study approach. As Yin (2009) points out, case studies are particularly relevant when working with 'how' or 'why' questions, and particularly when the researcher has limited control over the events taking place. Working from the EM perspective, it is expected that actions and events are outside the hands of the researcher (Hammersly and Atkinson, 1995). Furthermore, in accordance with Yin (2009), I have explored both documents, interviews, observations, and objects as a part of my data collection; though, primarily focusing on observations and recordings of interaction. Yin (2009) describes several different types of case studies, such as single, multiple, and comparative case studies. In this dissertation, I study multiple cases that look alike. I have not chosen the cases because they contrast each other. Rather, they were chosen because they support the phenomena which I observe. Further, the phenomena I look at are not just found in one case, but rather in several cases (see section below on structuring and coding my data in the analytical process).

Access to cases

To gain access to the relevant teams and organizations, I initially used my network to reach out to different companies. I wrote a text describing the intentions of the project and provided suggestions as to how I could give back knowledge to the virtual teams after my data collection. The text can be found in the appendix (3). This text was distributed via LinkedIn, but also to specific contacts within larger global companies, to pass on to relevant persons internally in the organizations. I was in a dialogue with 12 different companies and ended with access to five. Prior to each data collection process, I engaged in telephone conversations with contact persons to elaborate on the project description from the project letter. The companies and teams which did not wish to participate following the introductory talks opted out primarily based on the requirement that I would be allowed to record the virtual meetings.

All companies involved were offered a confidentiality agreement. This confidentiality agreement was based on a draft from CBS's legal department (see appendix (4)) and contained a thorough description of elements, such as ownership of data, right to publication of data, anonymity of the involved persons, etc. Seven of the eight teams chose to sign this. The last company wanted to use their own confidentiality agreement. I had it checked with CBS's legal department to ensure I was not "worse off" than with the original contract. It was confirmed that the contract was acceptable and allowed me access and right to use the data collected in this company.

As a part of gaining access to companies, I offered to provide feedback to the participating teams, based on my insights on virtual collaboration from the literature and my initial data analysis. This process would not be initiated until I had finished my data collection. As I completed the data collection process within each team, I reached out to the team managers to ask if they were interested in some kind of feedback. Four out of the eight team managers expressed interest in this.

Case description

To provide an overview of the companies and teams from which I collected my data, I will briefly introduce each company. After each introduction, I present the observation teams from this company. The numbering of the teams follows the order in which I collected data in them; thus, Observation Team 1 was the first team I engaged with, and Observation Team 8 was the last. To conclude this section, I have collected the relevant information on the case companies and the observation teams in Table 1. An overview of the collected data can be found in Table 2.

Information about each company is retrieved from the company's webpage. Additional information about the company and the teams is based on recordings from either the introductory interview carried out with the team managers or recorded team meetings (see section in this chapter on "Collecting data").

Case company A

Company A is a global engineering and consultancy company, present in more than 30 countries and with over 16,000 employees. The company was founded more than 70 years ago by two engineers, and today the company is a mixture of management consultants and advisors in engineering. The headquarters is in Copenhagen. In interviews with team managers in the observation teams, it was described how the company was organized according to different areas of expertise, with a support function that covers all expertise areas. All of the observation teams from case company A work in the support organization.

Observation team 1 (OT1)

OT1 was an organizational team of project managers. This means that the team members were all project managers on different projects, and as such, the team members did not have any task interdependence amongst each other. The project managers were leading different internal global IT projects. For example, if the company had sold a large engineering project to an external client somewhere in the world, the project managers from OT1 would support the engineers in starting up this project, by managing the set-up of the technical aspects of the project on the location (computers, internet, phone-connections, etc.). The same was the case when projects were closed down; the project managers from OT1 were responsible for shutting IT down and collecting hardware. Other projects could be creating a new intranet or leading IT service teams. At the time that the data collection began, OT1 consisted of 13 team members and one team manager. The 14 persons were spread over six different locations on two different continents. Seven out of the 14 persons were collocated in the headquarters in Copenhagen. Most of the time, the team's controller (a person from the financial team) would attend their team meetings. The team meeting was held each Friday morning and lasted one hour.

Observation team 2 (OT2)

OT2 was an organizational team of financial controllers. The team members were all working with fiscal numbers; in particular, budget planning and follow-up on budgets. Each of the financial controllers had their own areas of responsibility, which corresponded to the company's different areas of expertise. One of this team's largest tasks was to create the budgets for the coming year, and thus, each fall they were deeply engaged in forecasting and having dialogues with the teams for whom they were planning the budgets. The team members were not interdependent in their work, however, they used each other for sparring on calculations, insights on figures, and networking within the company. One of the controllers was supporting OT1 and attended their weekly meeting. At the time of the data collection, OT2 consisted of 12 team members and a team manager. Six people were collocated in the headquarters in Copenhagen, three were located together in India, and the remaining three was distributed throughout Europe. The team meetings were arranged ad hoc. The team manager informed me that he aimed to host a team meeting once a month. The team meetings varied from 1.5 to 2.5 hours.

Observation Team 7 (OT7)

OT7 was a project team. As such, it was different than the other seven observation teams in terms of lifespan, organization, and function. However, despite the variation from the team type I had intended to observe, I saw it as an opportunity to gain empirical insights as to what a traditional project meeting would look like when I was invited to join some of their meetings. The project manager was a team member in OT1. The task of the team was to develop a new intranet. At the time of the data collection process, the team consisted of six persons. Three persons were located in India and three persons (including the project manager) were collocated in the headquarters in Copenhagen. Those located in India were primarily coding the new intranet, while those placed in Copenhagen were planning the tasks, collecting knowledge from the business, and framing the project. The team held daily planning meetings, which varied between 15-30 minutes.

Observation Team 8 (OT8)

OT8 was an IT service team, supporting internal IT projects. The team manager was a team member in OT1. Being a team manager in OT8 was a part of her role, together with leading internal IT projects as well. OT8 worked to support smaller IT project roll outs; for example, if a new location needed new printers, new network connections, or new phones. As the team members in OT8 were connected to different projects, their daily work tasks were not interconnected. At the time the data collection began, the team consisted of 10 people, with the team manager in Sweden, and team members spread across the northern European countries. The team had ad hoc team meetings, arranged by the team manager, when she experienced a need to gather the team. The team meetings were centered around sharing information on projects that the team members managed or took part in, and in particular, the team manager's disseminating management information.

Case company B

Company B works within the oil and gas industry. The company has offices in six different countries on four different continents and employs close to 3,000 people. It was founded almost 50 years ago and today focuses primarily on managing oil rigs located around the world. The company headquarters is on Zealand in Denmark.

Observation Team 3 (OT3)

OT3 consisted of managers from a number of the oil rigs, which is at the core of the company's business. At the time of the data collection, the team consisted of six rig managers who were located around the world on the oil rigs and 10 people located in the headquarters. The team manager, who was located in the headquarters in Denmark, expressed in the introductory interview, that the purpose of the team meetings was to add value to those sitting at the rigs. As such, the team meetings were mostly about delivering the information they needed to do their job well. The meetings were originally scheduled biweekly. Halfway through the data collection process, the structure changed, and the team meetings were held once a month thereafter. Throughout most of my data collection, the team meetings were chaired by a team member, although the team manager was present at the meetings. The chair would facilitate the meetings based on a (more or less) repeating agenda.

Case company C

Company C is a production and engineering company, founded more than 100 years ago. The company is present in more than 35 countries and employs more than 11,500 people. The company's headquarters is on Zealand, with two production facilities in Denmark and more than 40 production facilities in over 20 countries around the world.

Observation Team 4 (OT4)

OT4 was a team of engineers. At the beginning of the data collection process, the team consisted of 14 people; six team members were located in Denmark, six team members in Holland, one in France, and one in the UK. The team manager was in Denmark, but flew out to the other locations approximately once a week (one destination each week) and spent a couple of days there. The team consisted of subject matter experts and were connected to or led larger engineering development projects. The team had weekly team meetings on Monday mornings. The team meetings lasted for one hour. In the beginning of the data collection, the team manager was chairing the team meetings, but later on, he began to distribute the chair role to team members, while still being a part of the meeting himself.

Case company D

Company D is special, in the sense that the company is the team (OT5) in itself. Case company D was a tech startup that approached me following a LinkedIn post I had made. The CFO reached out, and though their organizational structure was significantly different from the first three case companies I had engaged with, I decided to take them onboard, and include them in this research process. I saw it as a possibility to see, within the meetings, how an entire organization was constituted. The company was building an online platform, through which people can ship things across the world.

Observation Team 5 (OT5)

OT5 consisted of six team members. The CEO was Danish but lived in Sydney, Australia, the CFO was Danish and lived in Spain, and the remaining four team members were located in Copenhagen. When I met with the team the first time, the CFO was in Denmark. They had access to an office collab in Copenhagen, where those who were located in Copenhagen would meet a couple of times a week. Besides that, the team met in Google Hangout for team meetings on a weekly basis, but they were all in daily contact through different types of technological platforms. Due to the frequent communication, the team meetings were thus less about tasks, and more about them all touching base with each other. The team meetings were flexible in the sense, that some lasted for 30 minutes, while others could last 1.5 hours.

Case company E

Company E is a large global company that specializes in beverages and consumer goods. The company operates in more than 30 countries around the world and employs more than 19,000 people around the globe. In its current form, the company has existed since 2000, but has roots going back more than 50 years. The headquarters is in Jutland in Denmark.

Observation Team 6 (OT6)

OT6 was a business development team. At the time of data collection, the team consisted of 15 people, with one placed in the UK, one in Germany, one in in Sweden, and the remaining 12 people located at the headquarters in Denmark. Their task was to support the entire organization by preparing business cases for possible new projects within a specific branch of the organization. As such, the team members were not necessarily collaborating on specific tasks, even though they supported each other on larger projects. The team meetings, which were held on a monthly basis, were therefore a forum in which the team manager shared information about finance, organizational changes, strategy, etc. It was also a place, where team members could share ideas, information about current projects, and request support from others in the team. The team meetings, which lasted between 1-1.5 hours, were chaired by the team manager, who left room for incoming topics during the meeting by opting for a very high-level agenda.

In the table below (Table 1), I have collected the relevant information on the case companies and the observation teams. In the next section of this chapter, I will describe my data collection process. Accordingly, an overview of the collected data can be found in Table 2 in the end of the next section ("Collecting data").

Case company	**Branch**	**Team**	**Role of team members**	**Meeting frequency**
Case company A	Engineering and consultancy	OT1	Internal IT project managers	Weekly team meetings
		OT2	Financial controllers	Ad hoc team meetings
		OT7	IT project team	Daily project meetings
		OT8	IT service team, supporting internal IT projects	Ad hoc team meetings
Case company B	Oil and gas	OT3	Oil rig managers and headquarters support	Biweekly team meetings / monthly team meetings
Case company C	Production and engineering	OT4	Engineering project managers	Weekly team meetings
Case company D	Tech start-up	OT5	Tech start-up team (the organization)	Weekly team meetings
Case company E	Beverages and consumer goods	OT6	Business development	Monthly team meetings

Table 1: Overview of obsertation teams

Collecting data

I structured the data collection process the same way for all the teams. I have depicted this process in Figure 1. As previously described in the section “Access to cases”, the first step was to reach out to my network. In step 2, I was in dialogue with 12 different companies, elaborating on my project. Subsequently, five companies and eight teams volunteered. As each team manager had signed a confidentiality agreement, I would carry out an introductory interview (step 3). Next, in step 4, I would participate in the first virtual team meeting. All of the teams had a part of the team collocated with the team manager in the headquarters. I would participate at the first team meeting, being collocated with this group. In step 5, after the first meeting, being collocated with a part of the team, I would participate in the team meetings as a remote participant. Having participated in a number of meetings (varied from team to team), I would inform the team manager, that I would close the data collection process.

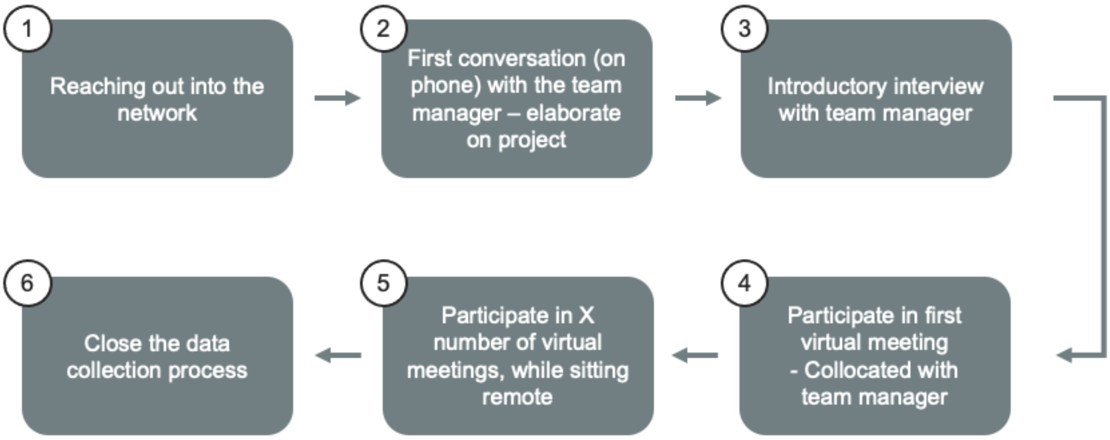

Figure 1: Data collection process

In the next two sections, I will describe how I conducted the introductory interviews as well as my observations.

Introductory interview

As a team manager had agreed, on the behalf of the virtual team, to participate in my research, we signed a confidentiality agreement, which also served as a signed consent form. We then scheduled an introductory interview. The purpose of these interviews was to gain an understanding of the team, the team members, the work that the team did, and how the team meetings were thought to be organized. This information would help me, consistent with the EM approach, to attend the team meetings as a (more) knowledgeable member (Garfinkel, 1967). However, contrasting a structured and standardized interview (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2010), I was also interested in allowing the introductory interview to be more conversational and somewhat informal, hoping that this would leave room for topics the team manager found relevant or important for my participation. This enabled me to even further become a knowledgeable member (Garfinkel, 1967). Consequently, I decided to conduct semi-structured interviews (Kvale, 1997; Marchan-Piekkari et al., 2004). Consistent with Eriksson and Kovainen’s (2010) description of semi-structured interviews, I constructed an interview guide with questions, topics, and subjects that I wanted to explore in my interviews (see appendix (5) for interview guide). Questions I would start with in the conversation could be: Who is in your team? What does the team do? How often do you have team meetings? What do you believe the purpose of these meetings is? These interviews lasted from 30 minutes to 2 hours. All team managers spoke Danish, except the team manager in OT3, for which the interview was conducted in English. All interviews were recorded with my Philips DVT4010 voice recorder, based on oral consent from the interviewee.

Observations

All of the virtual teams in this study were organized in such a way that at least 20-50% of the team was collocated in the headquarters. In all teams, except OT5 (where the team manager was located in Sydney), the team manager was collocated with this group in the headquarters. Thus, a typical team meeting in my observation teams was structured with a smaller group being collocated at the headquarters, while the rest of the team would participate in the meeting online. As such, a part of the team would participate from one location, while the rest of the participants would be logging in from their individual computers. This could be depicted as seen in Figure 2.

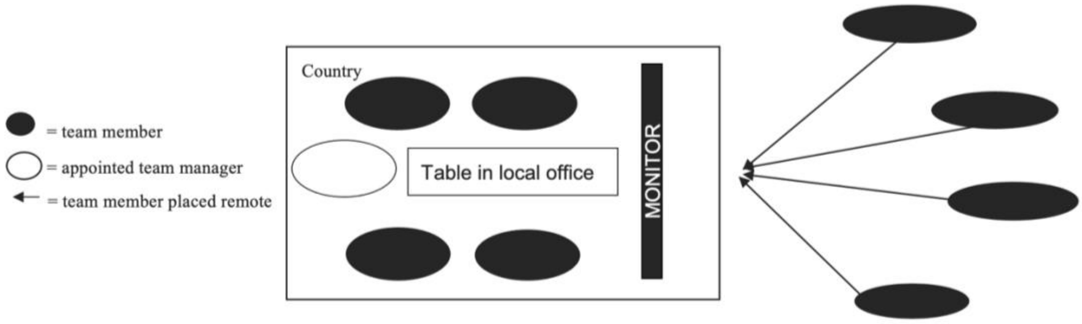

Figure 2: A typical virtual team structure

How I participated in the virtual meetings

At the first meeting in each new team, I participated in the meeting in-person, with the collocated group in the headquarters. I believed that being collocated with a part of the team, and the team manager would increase my authenticity. This is particularly important in relation to conducting observations in the virtual space, because it is more complicated to evaluate new people in the virtual space (Hine, 2008). As the meetings began, the team manager would introduce me, and I would spend 10 minutes elaborating on my project, how I would collect, manage, and work with my data, and finally, asked for questions and oral consent by the team. A few times I was met with follow-up questions from the team members. All of the questions had the character of curiosity, rather than concern. Following my introduction by the team manager and myself, there seemed to be no unease about my participation from the team members. After the first meeting, I would participate in the meetings logging in online, as the rest of the team members participating remotely. Besides making it easier to record the meeting, this would also increase my authenticity in relation to my observations, as I would then be equalized with those sitting remotely (Hine, 2008). Subsequently, I chose not to be ‘a fly on the wall’ in the office at the headquarters, as I believed I would blend in better if I participated remotely. Further, in accordance with the discussion previous in this chapter (in the section “Interaction in virtual context”), recording and observing in the virtual space is a good place the experience the “lived work” (Luff and Heath, 2019: 578) in the virtual space (Arminen et al., 2016; Licoppe, 2017).

After the first meetings, where I was thoroughly introduced, my role became much less intrusive and as more of a (virtual) fly on the wall in the following meetings. In some cases, as a meeting began, the team manager would greet me and ask about my project, however, in most meetings as I logged in, it was barely noticed (at least verbally) that I participated in the meeting. In a few instances I even experienced that team members had forgotten who I was, despite having participated continuously in previous meetings.

How I observed the virtual meetings

Although not carrying out a full ethnography, in this data collection process, I did draw on the principles of ethnography (Hammersly and Atkinson, 1995). I was inspired by Cunliffe (2010) and Van Maanen (1988) in the sense that I would first and foremost participate in the meetings to gain an insight as to what was going on between the interlocutors. Thus, while also recording the meetings (see next section), I addressed each team meeting as an opportunity to observe the meeting practices. As such, I was not looking for anything in particular, I was there to become familiar with each team's way of conducting their team meetings. To supplement the traditional understanding of ethnography with that of observation in a virtual setting, I found inspiration in Hine's (2008) and Jarzabkowski et al.'s (2015) work. Jarzabkowski et al. (2015) point to how virtual teams carry out their daily work in this setting, and as such, it is within this context their mundane, everyday is constructed. I would therefore pay close attention to how interlocutors engaged and constructed their social practices within this virtual space.

Further, as the team meetings were held online, I needed to acquire certain technical skills in order to avoid the disturbance of unnecessary technical challenges during my observations (Hine, 2008). I would therefore test the link to the meeting invite, the online meeting-platform (Skype for Business or Google Hangout/Google Meet), and my recording program (see next section) prior to the meetings.

During my observations (both while being collocated in the first meeting and participating remotely afterward), I had a notebook in which I wrote my ethnographic field notes (Emerson et al., 2011), in which I would note down things I found particularly interesting, questions, names of participants, who was sitting remote and where, etc. After each meeting, I would have 1-2 pages of handwritten notes. Prior to each new meeting, I would revisit my field notes from the previous meeting(s). As such, following a couple of meetings, these observations became the first step in recognizing the social patterns which would reemerge (Garfinkel, 1967) in the meetings.

How the meetings were recorded

All meetings were recorded, as this would allow me to answer questions about *how* interlocutors constitute their organizing through their talk (Silverman, 1997). The questions prior to the recordings were what I wanted to record and how I would do it. Had I been primarily interested in what was going on in the local space, as is seen in the study by Oittinen (2018), I would need cameras in the different headquarters, where all of the teams had a larger part of the team collocated. Even further, I would also have to consider having cameras in all the local spaces with those sitting remotely. However, as I was exploring interaction in the virtual space, I decided to record the online meetings from my computer; not only a much easier and more practical choice, but it would also allow me to focus on the aspect I found most interesting. Practically, this was done with QuickTime, through which I could do a screen recording of what was occurring on my screen. I would start a QuickTime recording, then log into a meeting, and QuickTime would capture whatever was taking place on the screen in that meeting (speakers view, those with camera on, shared presentations, etc.). I recorded an audio back-up with my Philips DVT4010 voice recorder. The recordings have a total size of 150 GB and are stored on CBS's cloud-based server, and an external hard-drive for back-up, all in accordance with GDPR regulations.

Recording these virtual meetings was significantly less troublesome than I would have expected; both in regard to practicalities, and also in regard to the concern or awareness of the participants. Gordon (2013) argues that the presence of recorders has influence on an interaction. Hazel (2016) describes how participants display when they are influenced by a recorder, in the sense that they would turn towards the recording device. As I already explained, there were few or no questions by the participants following my introduction of the project, in which I elaborated that I would record the meetings, and how I would work with the data. I did not experience that it was commented upon that I was participating in the meetings nor that I was recording the meetings. In general, I experienced the participants being very relaxed about my participation, in the sense that they would share private pictures (family holidays and private ceremonies), talk about their private lives, and carry out quarrels, in my presence.

Duration of a data collection process for a team

The data collection processes for each team varied in length. In the first teams I observed (OT1-4), I experienced that it took some time for me to get to know the team's meeting practices, their roles, and their internal relations. After 3-4 meetings, I had a feeling that I had a rather well-informed understanding of the team and their meetings. After 7-8 meetings, I noticed how I wrote down very few things in my notebook for each meeting, and I experienced a high degree of repetitiveness. I would then participate in one more meeting, and if nothing changed, I stopped the data collection process. For OT4, I participated in a few additional meetings, because the team manager changed the meeting structure, and I wanted to collect that data as well, not knowing if it would have relevance for my study. In other words, I tried to let the data guide me.

With the observation teams 5-7, I had already familiarized myself with their team meetings, after 2-3 meetings, and after 4 meetings, I noticed how my writing declined. Following that, I participated in one additional meeting and then ceased the data collection. In regard to the last team, observation team 8, there were complications in regard to when the meetings were held, and when I could participate. After a couple of months emailing back and forth, following my participation in the first meetings, I looked at the data I had. With 54 meetings already recorded, I agreed with the team manager to close the data collection process with her team.

Table 2 presents an overview of the eight observation teams. Following the first two descriptive columns, the third column illustrates the length of the interviews with the team manager. The next column depicts the number of hours that I observed and recorded in each team. The last column shows the number of meetings I observed and recorded in each team. As the length of meetings varied, so does the number of hours of observations, as is evident from the table below.

	Data collection period	Hours of data		No. of meetings
		Interview	Observations and recorded	Observations and recorded
Company A - OT (1)	06.2017-12.2017	1	9	9
Company A - OT (2)	07.2017-02.2018	1.5	12	9
Company B - OT (3)	11.2017-05.2018	1	10.5	8
Company C - OT (4)	12.2017-09.2018	1	10.5	12
Company D - OT (5)	11.2017-07.2018	2	6	6
Company E - OT (6)	03.2017-03.2018	1	4	3
Company A - OT (7)	02.2018-04.2018	0.5	3	6
Company A - OT (8)	09.2018	0.5	1	1
Total data collected:		8.5 hours	56 hours	54 meetings

Table 2: Overview of collected data

As I completed my data collection, I still did not know exactly where my data would take me. I had, however, sought to let the empirically grounded data lead the way, in the sense that each of the data collection processes was carried out based on the objective of getting to know the team's way of doing virtual team meetings, rather than collecting a certain number of meetings or hours of observations being a measure in itself.

While collecting the data, I gradually started to approach and analyze my data. The process through which I did this will be described in the next section.

Analytical process

At this point, I have presented my research philosophy and my methodological framework and presented my data. In this section, I will explain how I approached, structured, and coded my data and how I carried out my analytical process. This section is divided into two steps of analysis: First, how I approached the data from an EM perspective, and second, how I then applied CA. Even though this may appear to be two separate actions, I have visited and revisited both steps of the analytical process several times, and as such, it has been a reciprocal movement back and forth throughout the research process. This process has been particularly helpful, in the sense that it allowed for empirical and analytical sensitivity, prompted by my research question. In other words, EM could help me look at the work practices more broadly, while CA could help me focus on smaller fractions of the interaction and shed light on specific actions; these approaches were particularly complementary in not getting lost in either long meetings or specific details.

Structuring and coding the data

Structuring and coding my data was a matter of first and foremost familiarizing myself with the data I had. As such, I began to watch the meetings. While watching the meetings, I would return to the ethnographic field notes I had collected during the actual meeting (Emerson et al., 2011). A process followed in which I slowly formed an empirical understanding of social structures that were unfolding in the virtual team meetings as recognizable patterns (Garfinkel, 1967). With the videos and the field notes at hand, I would first describe these patterns with longer sentences, such as, for example: "He turns and points/smiles/talks to those remote", "he struggles with sharing the screen", "she uses the agenda". As these phenomena reemerged in other meetings, I could condense these empirically founded, recognizable patterns into categories. For example, I found that within most of the meetings a pre-set agenda was presented, which was then applied by the meeting chair to facilitate turns-at-talk. As such, I would note down the empirically founded category "the use of agenda". Having watched all of the recorded meetings twice (some more), I had condensed eight empirically founded categories (see Table 3 next page).

Empirical category	**Examples of description**
Subordinates chairing a virtual meeting (with the manager present)	“Team member is chairing the meeting”, “Team manager introduces new structure with ‘rotating meeting chair’”, “team member is chairing part of the meeting”
The use of materials/objects in the virtual meeting	“They use the cursor to illustrate where they are”, “they share screen to clarify what they are talking about”, “they write on a PowerPoint slide in shared screen”
Local space/subgrouping in virtual meetings	“They use local language in local space”, “they discuss topics only relevant for those in the headquarters”, “two conversations are taking place at the same time”
Interactional restraints in virtual space	“They cannot hear each other”, “they cannot see each other”, “the graphs in the Excel file are not working due to internet connection”
The use of the agenda in a virtual meeting	“Meeting chair introduces agenda”, “meeting chair selects next speaker, referring to the agenda”, “team discusses whether the agenda could be structured differently”
No-agenda virtual meetings	“The team manager mentions that next meeting is a ‘no agenda’ meeting”, “the team manager introduces the meeting as ‘no agenda’ meeting”
Knowledge sharing events	“Inviting a guest to talk about nudging”, “two team members collaborate to tell the team about new system”, “a team member describes a course he participated in”
The use of camera, or lack hereof	“The participants in the headquarters state that they do not know who is on (camera is off)”, “remote participants wave to get the word”, “they have to ask explicitly for feedback (camera is off)”

Table 3: Initial eight empirically founded categories

After I explored my empirical material and identified relevant topics for further inquiry, I turned to the theory to familiarize myself with the existing research on these subjects. What I encountered was a substantial number of studies on the phenomenon of business meetings (Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Boden, 1994), the use of the agenda (Boden, 1995; Deppermann et al., 2010; Svennevig, 2012), and the chair role (Angouri and Marra, 2010; Pomerantz and Denvir, 2007); however, much fewer studies attended to how these elements of the business meeting were carried out in a virtual context (Markman, 2009; Oittinen, 2018; Oittinen and Piirainen-Marsh, 2015). Subsequently, based on existing research, where my interest lies, and evaluating my data, based on my in-depth knowledge of my data, I decided to continue my research process with the five categories listed in Table 4.

Empirical category
The use of and the lack of the agenda in a virtual meeting
Subordinates chairing a virtual meeting (with the manager present)
The use of materials/objects in the virtual meeting
Local space/subgrouping in virtual meetings
Interactional restraints in virtual space

Table 4: Subsequent five empirically founded categories

These five categories were based on empirical phenomena that I saw repeated across my data, and which the actors oriented to and treated as ‘ordinary’ in their context, and as such, recognizable. Even though leadership was a great interest of mine, I was, at this point, conscious of the fact that leadership is embedded in such everyday interaction, as was shown in the study by Larsson and Lundholm (2010). Hence there was no reason to look particularly for it yet. Instead, at this point, I started to explore each phenomenon in detail using CA.

Transcribing, analyzing and linking to theory

Having the five categories, I would continue to work with the scholarly themes connected to each of these categories, together with my data. Practically speaking, I had a board, with a note on each category. Below this, I could add relevant theoretical references, empirical examples (timestamps at the meetings), and relevant methodological concepts (see Appendix (6) for illustrative example). Having a structure to support my onwards analytical journey, a new process thus began. On the one hand, I initiated an extensive review of the literature on topics such as the business meeting, virtual teams, and materiality. At the same time, I would start to work more intensely with the identified empirical examples of the formulated categories. This process is best described as abductive (Svennevig, 2001). It was a messy process in the sense that I went back and forth between data, method, and theory, I will try to describe the analytical process in more detail in the following sections.

Transcribing

For each of the categories, I had a number of suggested excerpts which could help me shed light on this specific category. As such, I wanted to work intensely with these examples, and decided to transcribe the data, for further analysis. Transcriptions are representations of the data, and though analysis is carried out partially with the support of a transcript, analysis should never be based on a transcript alone (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). Rather it is incremental to return to the source to "confirm or disconfirm their initial findings and subsequently adjust the transcript if necessary" (Asmuß, 2015: 289). Within CA, analysis is based on both transcript and recording; however, it is still preferable to have as rich, detailed and compliant transcribed version of the video-fragment as possible. I chose to transcribe the meeting excerpts for this dissertation based on what Nielsen and Nielsen (2005) call the minimal CA transcription. This approach is based on the work by Jefferson (2004), but less detailed. The transcription is created with symbols to indicate the prosody of the talk. As such, the use of symbols is a way to capture how the talk is heard (Boden, 1994).

To produce these transcripts, I used the software CLAN, an open-source software that was originally developed for analysis of child language data. Today, many CA scholars use CLAN when transcribing recorded data, such as audio or video, because it allows easy access to relevant transcribing symbols and control of speed, pause and visualization of the data, while transcribing it. Transcribing just a few minutes could easily take a couple of days, capturing as much detail as possible (sound, prosody, overlaps, pauses, etc.). Having a full transcript, I would share transcript and video with a colleague or a supervisor to ensure that I had not missed something.

Analyzing the transcripts

Having prepared and verified my transcripts, I would go over the excerpts I had transcribed and collected for each of the empirical phenomena and start my fine-grained analysis. Beginning the analysis, I would look at each turn-at-talk and ask the question: “why this now?” (Heritage, 1984b; Heritage and Clayman, 2010). I would use the principles of sequence organization (Schegloff, 2007b) and my understanding of the next-turn proof procedure (Sacks et al., 1974; Sidnell, 2012) to analyze and describe, turn by turn, what was taking place in the interaction. I would address each sequence in the transcript, explaining what it was, what the relevant next-turn would be, and what then happened, based on a participant’s perspective (Asmuß, 2015). The knowledge about sequence organization could help me describe, for example, when interlocutors would mitigate before a dispreferred answer, when interlocutors positioned a preferred response, and when interlocutors would initiate self-repair (Heritage, 1984b; Sacks et al., 1974; Schegloff et al., 1977). At this point, my focus was still strictly on “why this now?” (Heritage, 1984b; Heritage and Clayman, 2010) in an attempt to understand what, in particular, was going on. In this process, I would collect feedback from both my supervisors and colleagues, also conducting CA research about what was going on in the excepts to ensure as precise and detailed descriptions of the interactions as possible.

Initially, in this part of the analysis process, talk was the primary focus of analysis, however, continuously, while analyzing the transcriptions of occurring talk, I would look at the video as well. As I became more and more familiar with the notions and tools within CA and more confident in the quality of my transcriptions and analyses, I started to notice how the multimodal resources within the interaction were mobilized as well, seeing how these also mattered greatly for the interactions. As such, when interlocutors oriented towards the multimodal resources as relevant, I would add them in the transcript (see, for example, in article 3, chapter 6, wherein the interlocutors orient towards the cursor).

Evaluating my empirical categories

When I began the analytical process, I had five empirically founded phenomena. At this point, I revisited the categories to evaluate, not just their overall relevance, but also their interdependency in relation to the research question of this dissertation and the methodological framework. The category of “The use of and the lack of the agenda in a virtual meeting” stood out. My original idea had been to compare meetings with an agenda and meetings denoted by a team manager as no-agenda meetings. However, the examples of no-agenda meetings only derived from OT1. As such, framing this study as a multiple case study approach, this empirical category was no longer relevant, as I would not be able to address data across multiple teams. Subsequently, I continued with the categories listed in below table.

Empirical category
Subordinates chairing a virtual meeting (with the manager present)
The use of materials/objects in the virtual meeting
Local space/subgrouping in virtual meetings
Interactional restraints in virtual space

Table 5: Final four empirical categories

Linking empirical data to the concept of leadership

For each of my transcripts, I reached a point at which I felt I could not add more description to my analysis of the interaction of each excerpt. At this point, I would start visiting the theory. As my research interest was within leadership, I revisited studies of leadership in interaction (Clifton, 2006, 2009; Larsson and Lundholm, 2010, 2013) to see how the interpersonal influence process could be explored when focusing on the interaction. I then revisited my thick descripted analysis. Here, I found several examples within each empirical category, which could reasonably be argued as showing interpersonal influence processes.

To each of the final four empirical categories, I had, at this point, at least four detailed transcripts, with detailed analysis, depicting some kind of interpersonal influence in relation to the empirical phenomenon that were occurring within this complex virtual context. At this point, as I began to connect theoretical notions to my empirically driven analysis, I was keen to get feedback on my transcripts, analysis, and theoretical ideas. Thus, I began to bring data to data-sessions at CBS, The University of Copenhagen, and Aarhus University, as well as to conferences. Here, I received valuable input in terms of other perspectives on the "why this now?" question (Heritage, 1984b; Heritage and Clayman, 2010), as well as my theoretical ideas about leadership in relation to the interactional data I had.

The more I worked with the transcripts, the theories, and the video-fragments, I found that for each of the empirical categories, I had one, two, or three examples that particularly well-illustrated the process and role of leadership in this complex context. As such, the extracts presented in the articles in this dissertation are presented as single cases (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). Though analyzing several extracts relating to each of the empirical phenomena in which I did find examples of leadership, each of them were still "another next first time" (Garfinkel, 2002: 182). As such, they could shed light on the influence processes, while at the same time be unique interactions. Thus, having recorded 56 hours of virtual meetings and spent more than 200 hours watching these meetings, my experience is that there are many empirical similarities (patterns, if you will) across the recordings of the team meetings in regard to how interactional challenges are oriented to, how the role of chair is constituted, how technological tools are used and so on. As such, I do believe, with the methodological framework I have used in this dissertation, my findings can be adapted into the leadership field, by contributing to the understanding of leadership in a complex context. This is so, as the extracts shown in this dissertation provide examples as to how leadership is accomplished and what role it plays in these virtual team meetings. As such, the single cases presented in this dissertation adhere to Peräkylä's (2011) idea about generalizability based on possibility, in the sense, that the single cases represent what Yin (2009) refer to as multiple case studies. Therefore, the single cases presented in this dissertation illustrate social practices that are, in similar forms, observed across the greater dataset.

As I was carrying out the analysis, I found that one of the empirical categories reemerged in all three remaining categories, namely that of "Interactional restraints in virtual space." Consequently, the first three empirical categories ("Subordinates chairing a virtual meeting with the team manager present", "The use of materials/objects in the virtual meeting", and "Local space/subgrouping in virtual meetings") were crystalized into three articles. I found that the category on interactional restraints was the key that comprised the three articles, and as such, will be discussed and concluded in the frame of this dissertation.

At this point, it is hopefully evident that my research process has been, from the first contact with the teams to submission of my articles, driven by empirical practices. I developed empirically formulated categories based on how the interlocutors oriented towards the interaction as a recognizable pattern (Garfinkel, 1967). After I identified eight empirical categories, later condensed to four, I began a process in which I went back and forth between theory and data, to inform myself about studies on these phenomena, while at the same time analyzing the interactional practices at hand. This abductive process finally enabled me to shed light on the leadership processes accomplished in the complex setting.

On the next page I have sought to depict my entire Ph.D. process to create an overview of the analytical process as well as the remaining elements of my Ph.D. journey.

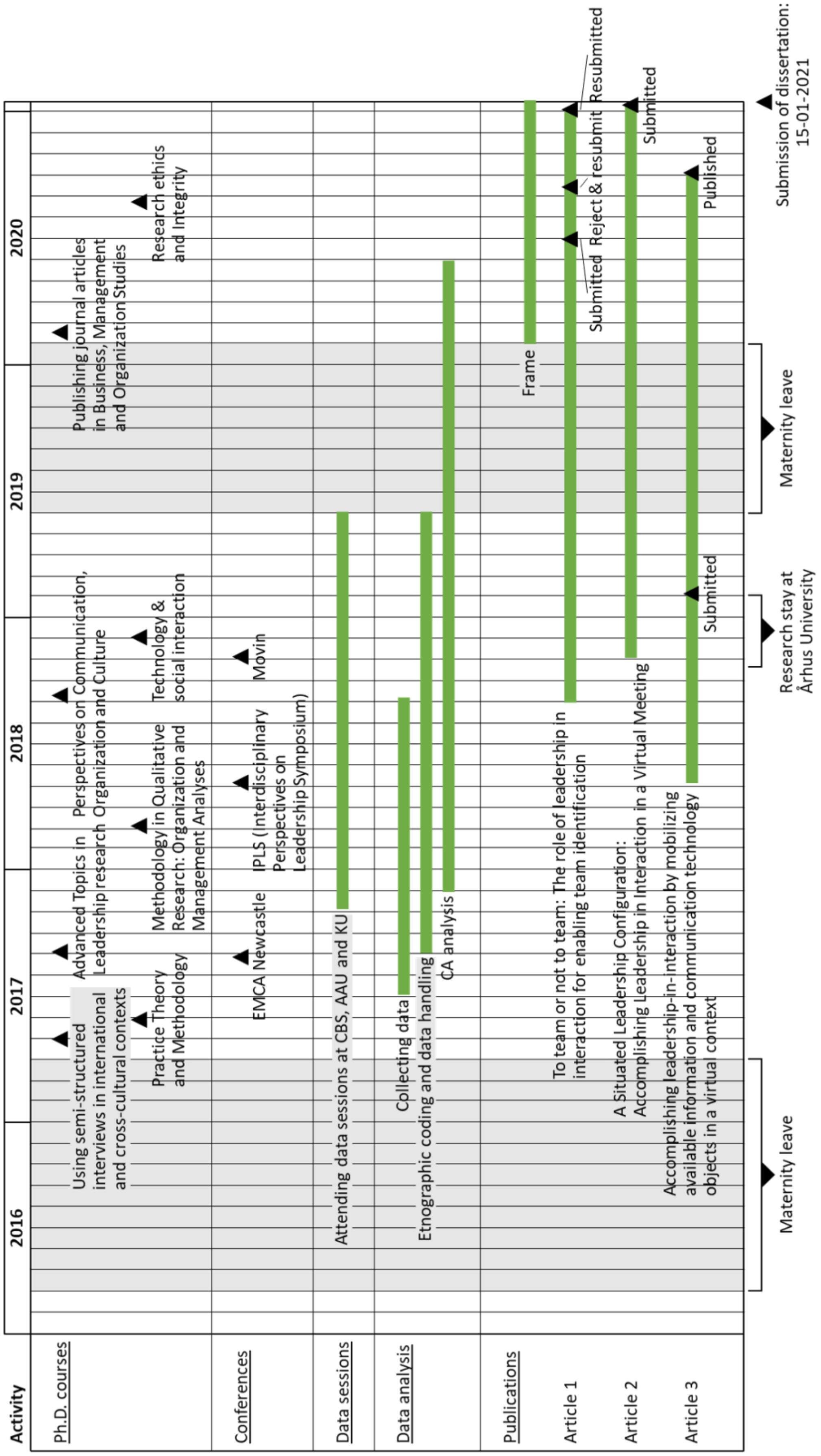

Figure 3: Ph.D. process

Research ethics

Having presented my methodological foundation, presented my data, and elaborated on my analytical strategy, I find it appropriate to finalize this chapter with considerations I have had regarding research ethics. First, I address general compliance, then ethics in regard to choosing my methods, and finally, I consider ethics regarding my choice of theory.

Research ethics is centered around assuring trust. This trust involves participants engaged in the research, data management, the analytical process, and in terms of those engaging with research after publication (Israel, 2015). It is a matter of ensuring transparency, reflexivity, and thoroughness throughout the process.

Regarding the involved participants, I first and foremost ensured giving them information and confirming consent. I did this in several steps. First, I engaged with the team manager and informed him or her about the study in detail. Next, the team manager (and I) signed a confidentiality agreement, which also served as a signed consent agreement. Then, the team manager informed the team about my participation, sharing with the team the project proposal I had initially shared with the team manager (see appendix (3)). As I participated in the first meeting with the teams, I spent 10 minutes explaining my research project, the data collection process, and how I would attend to data management and their privacy. I finalized by asking for oral consent and emphasized the possibility of reaching out to either me or the team manager if they had any questions or concerns.

In terms of safeguarding and managing data during the research process, I stored my data on CBS's server. I have a back-up on an external hard drive, adequately secured in relation to GDPR regulation. My data contains personal information on names and video, but none of my data is characterized as sensitive personal data according to GDPR regulation. Whenever sharing my data, for example, in data sessions or conferences, I have anonymized videos and transcripts.

Besides considering data management throughout the research process, I sought to work with research ethics in the research process (Israel, 2015). I did this by involving both colleagues and supervisors discussing data, theoretical approaches and methodological concerns. Furthermore, before submitting my articles to journals, they were reviewed several times by colleagues.

In regard to the choice of method Buchanan and Bryman (2007) argue that choice of methods is contextually dependent and that choice of method frames the window through which the phenomenon at the center is observed. CA and EM were one way to go, but to be able to reflect upon my methodological lens, I attended different Ph.D. courses, granting me insights to other perspectives, such as practice studies (course at Aalborg University), the communicative constitution of organizations (CCO) (course at CBS), and a course on methodological reflections and choices (also at CBS). These courses helped me sharpen my understanding of the methodological choices during the process. Further, having chosen EM and CA as a methodological frame, I engaged with my secondary supervisor, Birte Asmuß, who is a highly experienced CA scholar, with expertise on business meetings as well (Asmuß, 2015; Asmuß and Oshima, 2012; Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Oshima and Asmuß, 2018).

Lastly, leadership is a messy scholarly field. Although there seems to be a mutual agreement that leadership is a process of influence (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013), Grint (2005a: 31) also writes, that there “appears to be little consensus on what defines leadership and hence considerable conflict over what counts as demonstrations of leadership”. Ciulla (1995) argues that there is a need to consider how we approach the theoretical notion of leadership. She refers to the book by Rost (1991) as a good example of ethically reflecting upon the use of theory. In this book, Rost (1991) critically addresses the tendency to conflate the hierarchical position of a formal leader with the phenomenon of leadership. For this dissertation, I have taken several measures to reflect upon the theoretical notion of leadership and how it is applied in this research project. For me, it has been important to gain knowledge about leadership broadly academically, but also to present my research to other leadership scholars to gain their feedback. I did this both informally and formally; for example, by attending and presenting at relevant courses, conferences, and reading groups. These events offered me the possibility to discuss the leadership theories in great depth and test my own ideas.

Throughout my research process, I have sought to adhere to compliant and ethical research conduct. I have, by reflecting on my choices, through sparring with peers and supervisors, through my rigorous analyses of both data and theory, sought to grant this research project as high validity as possible.

4 Article 1: To team or not to team: The role of leadership in interaction for enabling team identification

Authored by Lise Dahl Arvedsen and Magnus Larsson

Abstract

Distributed collaboration, enabled by information and communications technology, is a common practice in most organizations. The restricted interactional environment of the virtual context presents challenges for interaction and consequently for team leadership. In particular, a complex and distributed environment presents challenges for team identification. While team leadership has been shown to facilitate task performance in stable teams, the role of leadership practices in teams with unclear and contested identity has received less research attention. Drawing on multimodal conversation analysis, this study explores recordings of virtual team meetings to show that leadership, as a collaborative influence practice, works to continually enable a team identification process. In the leadership process, the rights and obligations of the formal team leader emerged as significant resources. In sum, the leadership process emerged as collaborative but asymmetric. The study contributes to the literature on team leadership by showing the importance of leadership for team identification as well as to studies of collective leadership by demonstrating the dynamic interplay between influence emerging from a formal leader and from team members.

Introduction

The now rather common way of working remotely produces new types of challenges for work collaboration. Though information and communication technology (ICT) enables collaboration that was previously otherwise impossible (across short and long distances), it also complicates collaboration, as it limits access to body language, smiles, and minimal responses (e.g., ‘yeah’, ‘mmm’, ‘okay’). Within the virtual context, relationships are more difficult to establish and maintain, creativity is more difficult to foster, and generally, work with complex issues, such as strategizing, team building, and brainstorming sessions, seems to be experienced as difficult in this context. As collaboration is challenged, leadership can help overcome such challenges. That said, accomplishing leadership in such a context fosters challenges as well.

In particular, team identification (Ashforth et al., 2008; Haslam, 2001) is challenged in a virtual and complex organizational context (Carter et al., 2020; Mitchell et al., 2015). In a face-to-face context, team identification is supported by physical arrangements, such as sharing of office spaces and everyday small talk, which are lacking in a virtual context. This raises the question of leadership in relation to fostering team identification in virtual collaboration. In general, leadership is seen as an influence process to provide what is needed to establish effective teamwork (Kozlowski et al., 2016; Morgeson et al., 2010). When teams collaborate face to face, research has shown leadership to contribute to a range of important factors for fostering team effectiveness, such as cohesion and task clarity (Kozlowski et al., 2016; Morgeson et al., 2010). Exploring how such effects are produced in established teams, practice and process oriented studies have shown, for instance, direction to be produced through conversational shifts and turns (Crevani, 2018; Meschitti, 2019; Simpson et al., 2018; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020). In even more detail, collaborative storytelling (Clifton, 2014) and subtle identity negotiations (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013) have been identified as interactional practices through which leadership can be accomplished. This literature seems to suggest that team leadership, working on the foundation of sufficient clarity about what the team is, contributes significantly to task performance. However, the role of leadership in a situation of unclear and contested team identification has so far remained empirically unexplored.

This paper shows that leadership, accomplished through subtle interactional work, plays a significant role in enabling and maintaining team identification. In the virtual context, team identification is an ongoing, fragile, interactional process that demands work and effort to be maintained. Our multimodal analysis of interaction in a virtual team shows that the virtual and distributed environment offers a range of identification targets, making team identification fragile and only possible to accomplish through a significant amount of interactional work. Analyzing virtual team collaboration thus sheds light on an otherwise less visible aspect of the leadership processes, as well as on the interactional practices through which team identification is accomplished. We find that the resources provided by the formal role of team leader as well as language choice and agenda items were important to accomplishing this work. These findings have important consequences as to how we understand leadership processes in teams within a complex context. Where previous studies of teams and team leadership tend to assume that team identity is an already established state (Kozlowski et al., 2016; Morgeson et al., 2010), and then focus on the work of the formal hierarchical leader (Al-Ani et al., 2011; Sivunen, 2006), this paper shows that team identification is in fact a continuous accomplishment, produced by several interlocutors within the team.

In this paper, we will review relevant literature on team identification, leadership in interaction, and virtual teams. We will then unfold our methodological and analytical approach which draws on multimodal conversation analysis (CA) (Heritage and Clayman, 2010; Sacks, 1992). This leads us to the presentation of our findings in the form of three extracts from a virtual team meeting. We will discuss our findings in relation to the extant literature and, finally, point to some concluding contributions and implications of our study.

Team identification and leadership

It is well known that team identification is important for team efficiency (Ashforth et al., 2008; Brewer, 1991; Riketta and Van Dick, 2005; Roccas and Brewer, 2002). Among the factors that influence team dynamics and functioning (Kozlowski et al., 2016; Morgeson et al., 2010), team identification in particular concerns the fundamental question of whether team members consider themselves as belonging to the team. Producing clarity about what the team is and what characterizes it facilitates members' identification (Haslam, 2001), which, in turn, has strong motivational potential (Ellemers et al., 2004). This clarity about belonging to the team can be supported by sharing work spaces, tools, processes, and clear boundaries (Hinds and Mortensen, 2005). Further, success on team tasks might facilitate team identification, in turn, enhancing future performance, while failures and confusion about tasks might make team identification less likely (Ellemers et al., 2004).

While team identification has primarily been studied as a cognitive phenomenon, it clearly depends on and is expressed within social interaction. Identities are expressed, negotiated, and refined during interaction (Antaki and Widdicombe, 2008; Djordjilovic, 2012; Kangasharju, 1996). For collocated and stable teams, such interaction might be informal and, to a large degree, occur outside of structured meetings (Edmondson and Harvey, 2017; Morgeson et al., 2010). Through such daily informal small talk, the lived experience of the team as an entity, along with its relevance for the team members, is developed (Ashforth et al., 2008; Boden, 1994). However, distributed and cross-departmental teams typically have less opportunities for such informal social interaction. Indeed, for some teams, such as those studied in this article, team meetings might be the only occasion when individuals interact as team members. As such, team meetings are a central arena for the interactional practices of team identification in virtual teams.

Complex organizational environments make team identification more fragile and challenging. Diversity, in terms of different functions, cultures, languages, and geographical locations, offers an obstacle to establishing a particular team as a distinct identity target (Ashforth et al., 2008; Mitchell et al., 2010, 2015). Identity targets might be nested (Gaertner et al., 1993; Wageman, 2001) and, at times, in conflict (Dovidio et al., 2007), calling for considerable identity work to be reconciled (Cain et al., 2019). As a result, team members might experience ambivalence as to whether or not they identify with a particular team (Guarana and Hernandez, 2015), further complicating the conditions for interaction.

Such challenges make leadership highly relevant. Taking leadership in a team setting to be an interpersonal process of influence aimed towards organizationally relevant goals (Ashford and Sitkin, 2019; Fairhurst, 2011; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013), this process works to provide the team with what is needed for effective work (Kozlowski et al., 2016; Morgeson et al., 2010). This could mean ensuring clarity regarding tasks, performance expectations, or team identification. Further, taking interpersonal processes to be central to leadership directs our analytical gaze towards the relational practices through which influence is realized (Ospina et al., 2020), and to the consequences of these for the team. In other words, such a definition of leadership compels us to explore, rather than assume, the function of formal roles in the process of enabling and fostering team identification.

Indeed, a series of practice oriented studies highlight the collaborative nature of how coordination and direction is accomplished in teams (Ospina et al., 2020). The direction of the conversation in a team changes, for instance, through so-called turning points, that is, when "talk create[s] something new [and] … change[s] the direction of leadership movements" (Simpson et al., 2018: 649). The team Simpson et al. (2018) studied developed a response to a strategic challenge through a series of such collaboratively produced turning points. In her study, Crevani (2018: 103) found such changes in team conversation to be accomplished through "the ongoing evolution of the relational configurations"; that is, through shifts in team members' relationships. As the relational conversation shifted, so did the focus of the conversation, creating movement in the team process. It seems reasonable to further expect such shifts to be accompanied by shifting identifications, both as subgroups might emerge, and as the shared understanding of what characterizes the team shifts over time.

More in detail, changes and shifts in conversations are produced through the sequential nature of interaction (Clifton et al., 2020). In turn-by-turn evolving interactions, narration in the form of "small stories" (Clifton et al., 2020: 102) might gradually produce particular versions of organizational reality, accomplishing a form of management of meaning (Grint, 2005b). At the same time, leader identities are negotiated by the crafting of contributions to the interaction (Van De Mieroop et al., 2020), wherein, for instance, tactical use of humor (Schnurr, 2009) as well as demonstrations of knowledge (Meschitti, 2019) might be effective. Researchers have shown how team discussions are influenced by summaries of what has previously been discussed (Clifton, 2006), as well as by the employment of a range of discursive conflict management tactics (Wodak et al., 2011). Larsson and Lundholm (2013) showed that organizing in a dyadic leadership relationship was accomplished through negotiation and offering of shared, rather than individual, identities. Beyond spoken language, the ability to mobilize particular material artefacts also offered opportunities to influence and shift the flow of interaction. For instance, Arvedsen and Hassert (2020) showed that, in a virtual context, control over presentation media and the computer cursor provided influence to shape the direction of the conversation. Further, the relative balance between formal leader roles and emergent, shared leadership processes are dependent on the discursively available sources of authority (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018) as well as on how these are negotiated in the interaction (Van De Mieroop et al., 2020). In sum, the studies of leadership in interaction shows that broader shifts in team conversation and processes can be traced to the details in which contributions are crafted in the turn-by-turn evolving interaction.

However, the role of leadership in relation to the fundamental process of team identification has received little attention in these research traditions. Studies with a practice or interaction focus explore processes in which the clarity of the team or dyad tends to be taken as a given. While leadership is shown to be a collaborative accomplishment (Crevani, 2018; Meschitti, 2019; Ospina et al., 2020; Simpson et al., 2018), the existence of the collective within which this collaboration takes place is mostly treated as already unproblematically established. As argued above, however, distributed collaboration, and in general, complex organizational environments, make the process of team identification fragile and problematic. Potentially, leadership might play a role in handling this fragility and complexity. To date, however, this has not been empirically explored.

In this study, we will do precisely that: Explore the role of leadership in enabling and facilitating team identification in a complex context; namely, that of virtual teams. Team identification in virtual teams is not supported by casual interactions, but demands interactional effort in formal meetings in an electronically mediated environment. Virtual teams “work interdependently through the use of electronic communication media to achieve common goals” (Dulebohn and Hoch, 2017: 569). Such teams typically face challenges in establishing a team identity and developing cohesion (Gera, 2013; Kirkman et al., 2002; Sivunen, 2006). As virtual teams experience significantly less everyday small talk and lack of physical proximity, team identification is not facilitated by face-to-face interactions. Instead, other identification targets (e.g., local departments, locations, and national cultures) might become more salient.

The objective boundaries present in distributed collaboration might be experienced by team members as discontinuities. Discontinuities can be understood as “gaps or a lack of coherence in aspects of work, such as work setting, task, and relations with other workers or managers” (Watson-Manheim et al., 2002: 193). In other words, discontinuities can be seen as experienced elements that discontinue the interaction. In this lies the possibility that, for example, geographical distances might be experienced for one team as a problem; however, only if oriented to as such. The concept of discontinuity helps to refocus analytical attention on the subjective experiences of interactional problems in collaborating teams (Klitmøller et al., 2015; Lockwood, 2015; Watson-Manheim et al., 2012). For example, Breuer et al. (2020) found that the experienced discontinuities in the virtual work context led to an increased need for experienced availability by other team members, in order for trust to emerge in virtual teams. In a study of team interactions, Oittinen (2018) explored the role of geographical separation for a team collaborating via ICT. She showed how physically being in the same room, called local space, offered a different interactional environment as compared to participating via ICT, called virtual space. Without explicitly using the concept of discontinuities, her study demonstrated that the distinction between local and virtual space was present in the interaction, and how various tactics were mobilized to maintain an interactional flow.

Virtual teamwork is a context in which discontinuities are particularly present, challenging the establishment of a shared team identification. Subsequently, in the face of such discontinuities, teams construct various forms of practical continuities that facilitate collaboration (Dixon and Panteli, 2010). In that sense, teamwork is not determined by the objective boundaries, rather work collaboration is a matter of which virtual continuities the team has established to circumvent such boundaries. ICT is an example of a possible boundary, as it offers a more restricted interactional environment (Arminen et al., 2016), potentially creating further discontinuities. That said, ICT also offers the possibility of establishing continuities in the face of physical distribution through, for instance, video conferencing, depending on the competencies to mobilize ICT affordances (Arvedsen and Hassert, 2020).

Consequently, the virtual context offers a particularly interesting setting for studying the role of leadership practices in relation to team identification. Team identification bridges the experienced gaps and disconnections in work processes and relationships experienced as discontinuities. In that sense, team identification can work as an interactionally established continuity, which facilitates work collaboration. The role of leadership as an interpersonal influence process, fostering and maintaining team identification, is expected to be particularly amenable for study in this setting for two reasons. First, team identification is expected to be challenging in this setting and in need of visible interactional work. Rather than relying on minor, everyday interactions to foster and maintain team identification, it needs to be enabled and fostered in the face of a variety of discontinuities in electronically mediated (and thus restricted) interaction. In essence, we expect there will be a significant amount of interactional effort directed towards fostering and maintaining team identification. Second, leadership practices are expected to be particularly visible in this setting since it is the only arena where the team interacts synchronously at the same time. Leadership needs to be accomplished in the virtual interaction, to facilitate shared identification processes focusing on the team in question, despite the abundance of other potential identification targets. This raises the following research questions:

(1) How is team identification interactionally accomplished, negotiated, and managed in a virtual context?

(2) What is the role of leadership in the interaction in this process?

Method and data

Collected in 2017 and 2018, the data in this paper is part of a corpus of 54 video-taped virtual business meetings that derive from eight different virtual teams in five different companies. Though the teams are from different companies, within various industries, the objective of the meetings was the same, namely that of sharing organizational knowledge and updating the team on each other's ongoing work. As such meetings lasted 0.5 to 1.5 hours, all with a priorly selected chair and a fixed agenda. All meetings were mediated via Skype for Business or Google Hangouts. Screen recordings of the meetings were done with QuickTime, capturing video visuals of speakers and presentations during the meeting. Video-taped data was chosen to capture the multimodal actions (Asmuß, 2015; Mondada, 2016).

To analyze our data, we draw on multimodal CA (Asmuß, 2015; Deppermann, 2013). Building on the ethnomethodological idea that social order is an interactional accomplishment (Garfinkel, 1967; Heritage, 1984b; Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010; Rawls, 2002), Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (Sacks, 1992; Sacks et al., 1974) established CA, which specifically focuses on talk-in-interaction (later to be supplemented with multimodal aspects) to explore how intersubjectivity is produced through interaction (Heritage and Clayman, 2010; Hindmarsh and Llewellyn, 2010).

Within CA, we particularly draw on sequence organization (Schegloff, 2007b) and categorization in interaction (Schegloff, 2007a; Whittle et al., 2015). The former relates to how contributions from various individuals are sequentially ordered and how this ordering is managed by the interactants, including how, for instance, anomalies and interruptions are handled. The systematics of sequence organization contribute to furthering the various tasks at hand (such as opening a meeting, making a decision, and having a conflict) (Schegloff, 2007b), thus unpacking some of the complexities of social interactions, for instance, in organizational meetings (Asmuß, 2015; Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Svennevig, 2012). Categorization in interaction, on the other hand, is used for team identification processes (Hester and Eglin, 1997; Jayyusi, 1984; Stokoe, 2012). We understand identification in interaction as a categorization in which interlocuters cast themselves or another into a particular category (explicitly or implicitly), which then provides an interactional identity (Antaki and Widdicombe, 2008). Including multimodal aspects of interactions in our analysis reflects our interest in how bodies are used in the process of creating intersubjectivity and the organizing of actions in-situ

(Deppermann, 2013; Goodwin, 1994; Mondada, 2016), particularly within a meeting (Asmuß, 2015).

The analysis was carried out in several steps. First, we took an ethnomethodological approach to the data, applying *members knowledge* (Garfinkel, 1967), which involved watching the recorded meetings closely to note interactional passages which appeared problematic, from a member's perspective (Jefferson, 1988; Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010). Throughout all of the meetings, we observed interactional problems which seemed to be potentially important occasions for team identification. We collected a pool of examples that, from a member's perspective, all illustrated what appeared to be interactional problems of identification across locations. We then selected a number of sequences from different meetings for closer examination (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008; Schegloff, 1987). The selection was based on the idea that subgroupings were produced, and hence, a need to tend to a production of shared team identification. Extracts were carefully transcribed using the Jeffersonian approach (Jefferson, 2004), making subtle details (such as intonation, breathing, and pacing) readily available for the analysis of the organizing of talk (Sidnell, 2010). Subsequently, drawing on the CA apparatus (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008), the analysis focused on sequence organization (Schegloff, 2007b) and the way participants draw on categories in their accomplishment of intersubjectivity (Whittle et al., 2015). Through this close analysis, the interactional work that was carried out to make particular identity categories present became visible and possible to discuss as leadership processes (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020). The meeting presented here was found to be particularly illustrative, containing several types of challenges and leadership processes within the same meeting, making it useful for presentation purposes. However, the analysis is presented as a single case with an extended extract (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008; Schegloff, 1987).

The extracts in this paper is from a virtual team set up by IT project managers for in-house IT projects at a multinational consultancy and engineering company headquartered in Copenhagen, Denmark. At the time of data collection, the team consisted of 11 IT project managers, one controller, and a team manager. The team's manager and five of the project managers were located at the Copenhagen headquarters. The rest of the team, which was distributed in the UK, Germany, Norway, Finland, and India, participated in the meeting via Skype for Business. The team held weekly team meetings. The meeting agenda shifted from week to week and comprised a mixture of dissemination of information by the team manager and input from the team members on recent experiences from their projects. At the beginning of this particular meeting from which the excerpts in this article derive, the team manager explained that the purpose of the meeting was to have a dialogue around the employee survey, recently published by the department of human resources. The results were displayed on a shared screen visible to everyone at the meeting. The survey included a variety of topics relating to the well-being of the employees, to team relations, and to the work-space environment.

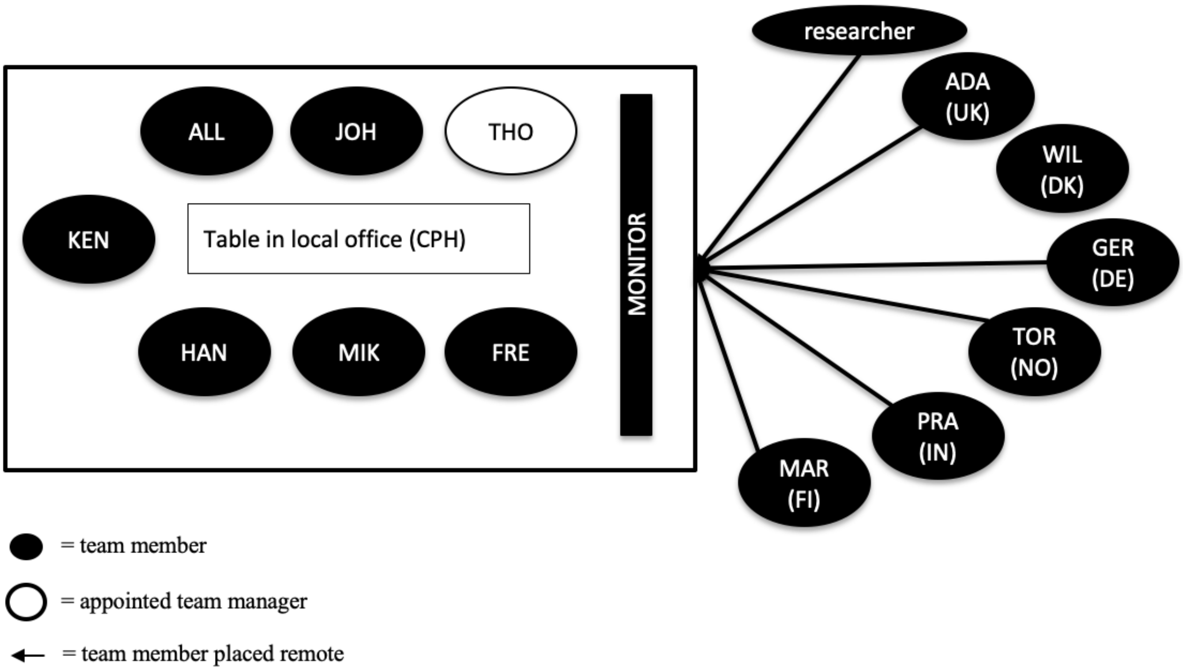

Figure 4: Seating plan of the virtual team

Analysis

In our analysis, we present three extracts from one meeting, chosen because they clearly illustrate the situated production of shared team identification, but also because, with subtle nuances, they illustrate the role of leadership in these identification processes particularly well. We will focus on how the team members and manager negotiate and manage identification with the team or with other identification targets, as an aspect of their ongoing interaction. In showing this, we can illustrate how team identification is an ongoing, fragile interactional process, which calls for work to be maintained. Leadership plays a significant role in this process. To show this illustration, we draw on the distinction between a local space (where people are physically in the same room) and a virtual space (where people only interact through ICT) (Oittinen, 2018) to explore struggles with team identification.

Extract 1) – local space sub-team identification

On a shared screen, the team manager presents the result of the employee survey. The team reviews the top 10 statements with the largest variations in scores compared to the previous year. In this extract, they specifically address the topic with the largest decline: "I have access to the technology I need to perform my work well." The pictures included for illustration show what remote participants see; in other words, this is what was seen as a distributed employee. Remarks made in Danish are translated into English and marked with italics.

Extract 1

```
1          (1.8)
2  FRE:    yeah and ⌈we are⌉ still missing the third speaker
3                   ⌊((turning his head slightly towards the collocated
4          team members))⌋
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```
5          (1.0)
6          meeting room speaker (.) we only have two
7          (3.2)
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8 THO: .okay (.) ⌈so⌉ somebody ↑lost it some⌈where⌉

9 ⌊((THO and FRE gaze towards each other))⌋

10 ⌊((THO gazes towards

11 screen))⌋

12 FRE: yeah ⌈som- ⌉ somebody lost it

13 ⌊((FRE and HAN gaze towards each other))⌋

14 HAN: ⌊hva for noget⌋

what is this

15 FRE: ⌈yes ⌉

16 ⌊((THO and FRE gaze towards each other))⌋

17 MIK: ⌊de der⌋

Those

18 THO ⌊((THO gazes to MIK and gaze back at FRE))⌋

19 FRE: (.) som- somebody ⌈stole ⌉

20 HAN: ⌊vores øh⌋

our eh

21 FRE: ⌈the eh ⌉

22 ⌊ ((gazes towards HAN))⌋

23 ⌈the eh ⌉

24 HAN: ⌊nåh ?skildpadden⌋

oh ?the turtle

25 THO: okay

```
26 FRE:    the eh ⌈nå⌉ ((laughs))
27 THO:        tha⌊t that⌋ sounds like that is manageable as well
28                ⌊((points hand towards FRE While gazing at the screen))⌋
```

```
29         ⌈e::h     ⌉
30 FRE:    ⌊okay good⌋
31 THO:    ⌈other:: ⌉ comments from eh from eh (.)
32         ⌊((pointing and gazing towards the big screen)) ⌋
```

Extract 1 illustrates how subgroups are constructed within the interaction. First, a subgroup is established by Frederik (FRE), who introduces a membership category not relevant to everyone in the team. In l. 2, Frederik (FRE) self-selects as the next speaker (Schegloff, 2007b), producing a problem report on the missing speaker. While speaking, he turns his head towards those sitting in the same room (ll. 3-4). His physical movement suggests that the pronoun “we” (l. 2) is reasonably heard as referring to the people he turns to; that is, the collocated members of the team. In other words, he is making the problem report relevant for those affected by the missing speaker; that is, the collocated team members. As such, his action works to make the collocated team members relevant as an identification category (Schegloff, 2007a); i.e., as a subgroup. The next subgroup is established as the conversation momentarily splits into two different languages. In l. 14, Hanne (HAN) initiates a conversation in Danish in overlap with Frederik. The interaction thereby forks into two concurrent conversations in the same room, something that Egbert (1997) calls schisming. Through her language choice, Hanne visibly orients towards the Danish speakers as recipients of her utterance and at the same time includes herself in the category of Danish team members (Schegloff, 2007a). A subgroup identity of Danish-speaking team members is made relevant. Thus, the extract shows that both the distinction between local and virtual space and different languages offer categories which the team members can make relevant and claim membership in, or in other words, utilize for interactional identification (Antaki and Widdicombe, 2008).

While multiple simultaneous identification categories are offered within the meeting shown here, the question is: how are these different interactional identities handled by the participating parties? In this extract, we see how both the team manager and also a team member orient towards the team as a whole. Thomas (THO), the team manager, orients towards all subgroups by engaging with Fredrik (ll. 8-27) about the missing speaker, by gazing towards the schisming conversation (l.18), and by looking towards those sitting remotely (ll. 10-11 and l. 28). In ll. 31-32, he engages in explicit selection of the next speaker, inviting the team members in virtual space into the conversation. In doing this, Thomas draws on the right conventionally endowed to the chair to select the next speaker (Svennevig, 2012), as well as an obligation to secure participation from all members (Angouri and Marra, 2010). This is an obligation towards the whole team, rather than towards a subgroup. By explicitly addressing members of the virtual space, he makes the identity category of the whole team present. Thomas, however, is not the only person orienting to the whole team. Frederik also orients to the whole team, as he chooses to voice his problem report in English (l. 2). Further, with the pronoun “we,” he collectivizes the relevance of the topic (Wodak et al., 2011), making identification an available option for those relating to the missing speaker.

In summary, this extract demonstrates the situated production of subgroups. These subgroups offer situated categories employed in interactional identification processes, while marginalizing the whole team as an identification category. Consequently, considerable interactional work is carried out here by Thomas and Frederik in managing the multiple subgroups and to initially make a shared team identification possible and relevant.

Extract 2) – orienting towards the whole team

The employee survey remains displayed on the shared screen. While pointing towards the screen, the team manager asks if there are additional comments. A team member in the local space claims the floor and a conversation with swift turn-taking evolves in the room in

Copenhagen. By the end of this extract, a team member sitting remotely enters the conversation (subscripted “rem” in the transcript).

Extract 2

```
1 THO:     ⌈other:: ⌉ comments from eh from eh (.)
2          ⌊((pointing and gazing towards the big screen)) ⌋
```

```
3 HAN:     =im very sur⌈prised⌉ about the women men ↑thing
4 THO:                 ⌊((gazing towards HAN))⌋
5 HAN:     (.) what ↑is ↓that what was the question there
6 FRE:     =the the ⌈women⌉ are getting the better ⌈(.) jobs basically⌉
7 HAN:              ⌊((pointing towards screen while smiling)) ⌋
```

```
8                                             ⌊yeah (.) okay⌋ of ⌈course⌉
9  FRE:                                                          ⌊yeah   ⌋
```

10 THO: hh⌈hhh ⌉

11 ELL: ⌊↑hihi⌋hi

12 FRE: ⌊so⌋

13 THO: ⌊((gazing towards the screen))⌋

14 HAN: is ↑that the point

15 FRE: johanna ha- has ⌈taken⌉

16 THO: ⌊((gazing towards FRE))⌋

17 FRE: the team lead and you are getting the best projects.

18 (1.0)

19 HAN: you want my ? ⌈projects⌉

20 MON: ⌊you ↑didn't⌋ see that coming .hanne

21 ((MIK, ELL, HAN, FRE, KEN is smiling / laughing))

22 THO: .okay ⌈i think it's⌉

23 ⌊((pointing and gazing towards the screen)) ⌋

24 HAN: ⌊but (no ↑no)⌋

25 THO: ⌈sorry i⌉

26 HAN: ⌊he ↑can have my projects⌋

27 THO: ⌈th- i ⌉

28 ⌊((pointing and gazing continuously towards the screen again))⌋

29 MON: =yeah you can have mine ⌈( )⌉ as well

30 THO: ⌊but ⌋

31 HAN: ⌈you are⌉ welcome ⌈((laughing))⌉

32 THO: ⌊((gazing down in lap))⌋

33 ⌊i think we ⌋ are having ⌈some (.)⌉ fun here

34 ⌊((gazing towards screen))⌋

35 FRE: ⌊sorry sorry⌋

36 THO: ⌈but it's eh⌉

37 ⌊((pointing and gazing towards the screen again)) ⌋

38 (.) i guess it's dif- difficult to:: sort of track and h::

39 follow the discussion eh from from you guys

40 (.)

41 Any:: eh any inputs on e:h on on ↑any of these eh (0.8)

42 suggestions or:: thing- things (.) you want to comment on or

43 reflect on

44 (5.8)

45 ?no

46 (1.9)

47 .okay

48 (0.7)

49 GER$_{rem}$: perhaps to the last .one (.)

This sequence demonstrates the struggle to create a shared team identity. A conversation with swift turn-taking begins with Hanne self-selecting her turn (l. 3) (Schegloff, 2007b), introducing the topic of "the women men thing." She asks for clarification (l. 5), to which Frederik offers a candid explanation (l. 6). Hanne responds by smiling (l. 6) and the comment "yeah okay of course" (l. 8), while Thomas (l. 10) and Ellen (l. 11) laugh subtly. The laughter suggests that Frederik's comment is heard as potentially sensitive or provocative, where the humor and laughter serve to defuse the potential tension (Holmes and Stubbe, 2015). However, this subtle handling of a potentially sensitive matter is restricted to the local space. The pace and the overlaps enabled by the rich interactional environment in the local space make it practically impossible for those sitting remotely to engage in the conversation (Espinosa et al., 2015). Consequently, they are positioned as an audience.

Struggling to bridge the subgroups that arose, Thomas, the team manager, engages in quite a significant amount of interactional work to shift the relevant identification. In l. 13, Thomas orients towards the screen and those sitting remotely. Drawing on his rights in the role as chair (Angouri et al., 2011), he produces a sequence closing candidate, "okay" (Schegloff, 2007b), followed by "I think it's" (l. 22), which can be heard as an attempt to change the orientation of the conversation. As this is not considered by Hanne (l. 24), Thomas initiates a new attempt with a, "sorry I" in l. 25, and again in ll. 27 and 30, while pointing towards the screen (l. 28), demonstrating an embodied attention to those sitting remotely. This is still not acknowledged by Hanne, as she continues to contribute to the ongoing conversation (l. 31) and Thomas looks down (l. 32), which can possibly be perceived as a sign of disengagement. He then produces an overlap to Hanne (l. 33), and while again gazing towards the screen, he produces a sequence closely (l. 36) resembling the one he initiated in l. 22.

Thomas engages in moral work, presenting moral obligations for everyone in order to secure team participation for all team members. He does so by pointing to the difficulties for members in the virtual space of getting access to the conversation. In l. 37, Thomas vocalizes the challenges of participating for those sitting remotely, while pointing to the screen. He thereby invites virtual space in as speakers, not listeners. In l. 41, Thomas asks for input from "you," reasonably heard as a reference to those sitting remotely, as Thomas is physically oriented towards the screen and putting his attention on the virtual space from l. 37. By extending the speaker role to the virtual space, he can be seen to demonstrate an obligation for ensuring that virtual space is included in the interaction and that what goes on is relevant, also for those sitting remotely. He works to make the whole team a relevant and present identification category; that is, to influence the team identification process towards a shared category. Participants in the local space align with this identification category through the extended pause in l. 44, giving the floor to the virtual space that is subsequently taken up in l. 49 with Gerhard (GER) self-selecting as speaker.

In summary, through the interactional work, both vocally and embodied, Thomas engages in moral work, which serves to shift the current attention to and identification with members of the local space to members of the whole team. This collaborative effort to categorize (Whittle et al., 2015) exerts influence (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013), visible through the team members' alignment (ll. 44-49). In other words, leadership is accomplished in the sense that the team members within the situation align with the relevance of the obligations of members in the local space towards members in virtual space, making the whole team accepted (for now) as the relevant identification category. Clearly, establishing a shared identity is not automatically supported by the setting and the ICT. Instead, it takes considerable interactional work to establish and maintain. Further, as shown both in this and the previous extract, the rights and obligation of the chair are continuously made relevant as subgroups emerge and develop. The complexity of the setting seems to trigger ambiguity (Guarana and Hernandez, 2015), not least in terms of which (sub)group is relevant at a certain point in time. The mobilization of the formal roles might be seen as a reflection of the tendency for deference in terms of formal leadership, as suggested by Guarana and Hernandez (2015).

Extract 3) – constructing the task and the purpose for the team

The issue of team identity is closely tied to what the "we" in the team is doing, or in other words, what the task and purpose of the work within the team is, which constitutes the interdependencies that tie "us" together (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Morgeson et al., 2010). At times, the question of the task for the team surfaces and is more or less explicitly negotiated. Below, we will look at one such sequence in Extract 3.1. We shall see how the structure of the distributed team (local versus virtual space) impacts the process of constructing a relevant task. Triggered by an item in the employee survey about learning and development, the team engages in a discussion about to what extent learning and development is part of the task for the team (rather than just for individuals). For clarity of presentation and analysis, the sequence is divided into three parts, with about two minutes omitted. Only the participants in the local space in Copenhagen are participating until l. 43, which is when a member in the virtual space enters the conversation (subscript “rem” for remote).

Extract 3.1

```
1  FRE:    (h) thinking that maybe we could do something (.) more?
2          (1.4)
3          ehm
4          (2.2)
5          if the budget for (.) 2018 ⌈hasn't⌉ been closed yet we should eh
6          ⌈turn up on the eh⌉
7  THO:    ⌊(                )⌋ it it it .has
8  FRE:    yeah well so then eh but eh (.) that can still be .changed
9          (1.0)
10         but maybe if we could -s eh:
11         (2.3)
12         well it's just (.)i- i guess i'm not (1.3) eh:m (.) scouting out
13         for <when should i try to ehm>(1.3) participate in an (.) in eh
14         event (  ) >i i should do that more< i guess (.) but i haven't
15         submitted so so and i haven't submitted the ehm (.) request for
16         (.) can i participate in this conference and so on but
17         (1.5)
18         somehow we maybe should
19         (3.0)
```

20 yeah >talk a little< -bout bit about what what eh (.) or

21 (1.4)

This extract starts with Frederik suggesting, “maybe we could do something” (l. 1); as such he topicalizes what the team does and frames a relevant task for the entire team. What follows is essentially a long turn (except for Thomas’ contribution in l. 7) on the topic of participating in events. The pauses in ll. 2 and 4, together with the “ehm” in l. 3, are reasonably heard as hesitancy, indicating that he orients towards this topic as potentially sensitive. What might be sensitive here is the morality of the suggestion to extend the obligations for the team to do something he might benefit from. In ll. 12-15, he brings up his own actions in relation to participating in events, suggesting, “i i should do more,” thus emphasizing and amplifying his own obligations. This can be heard as a preparation for suggesting that there are also obligations for the team here, as is explicated in l. 18. After some preparatory interactional work, he thus arrives at a suggestion to extend the task for the team: To work to secure learning and development opportunities for the team members, by talking about participation in various events. As such, it can be seen that he tends to what he believes is a group need (Kozlowski et al., 2016).

Extract 3.2

22 FRE: but maybe <we could ehm> (.) next year eh (.) try to (1.5) say

23 that people should s- aim to (.) participate in an ↑event

24 ?globally

25 THO: mm

26 FRE: and then report on it on these meetings ⌈(.)⌉

Frederik’s work involves interpretation of the team task, and in that sense, he engages in category work, both forwarding the whole team as a membership category and elaborating on its associated features. The pronoun “we” is reasonably heard as referring to the whole team, as this suggestion is raised in the context of discussing the employee survey that relates to the whole team. Frederik thus presents a task towards which the team members can orient. In terms of categories, he can be seen to add features (Jayyusi, 1984) to the category "the whole team" in terms of rights and obligations for each member of that category, in relation to each other. Specifically, his suggestion implies that when participating in events in the future, one might do that as a member of the whole team, rather than just as an individual (cf. Larsson and Lundholm, 2013), with an implicit obligation to both participate and share experiences from it afterwards. Frederik can be seen to take charge and engage in a leadership function to fulfill a team need (task development and clarification, Morgeson et al. (2010)). In an organizational team of this kind, there is ample room to interpret and develop the task, in contrast to a project team with several external stakeholders, for instance.

Extract 3.3

27 THO: i i think eh i think going for these eh different <seminars> and

28 (1.9)

29 this kind of meetings its its rarely eh a bud↑get thing (0.9)

30 its mo::re getting it fit in to eh to eh busy (   ) day (.) eh

31 (1.3)

32 but but but i think it's a nice (1.2) other alternative (.) we

33 have the i l x which has so::me training but but i know EdX as

34 well (.) eh:: it has eh i don't know probably not a million

35 different courses but(h): it's quite a bit

36 (2.6)

37 ehm (.) >again i think< it it i think the: the key: focus is to

38 to (both) you ⌈frederik⌉ and others to be aware (0.6) <and eh:>

39 ⌊((orient towards the screen))⌋

40 and then also try to share i know eh: (.) eh adam ⌈you⌉

41 ???: ⌊mmh⌋

42 THO: joined something eh just a few weeks ago and ⌈eh ⌉

43 ADA$_{rem}$: ⌊yeah⌋

44 THO: some key ((tech fall out)) key things that you could share for

45 next meetings?

46 ADA$_{rem}$: yeah i think in this eh (.) well frederik and i got a meeting

47 coming up to present and i was thinking about (placing) a bit in

48 there

The category work of elaborating on the team task get divided along the discontinuity produced by the separation of local and virtual space, allowing for different types of participation. In l. 27, Thomas self-selects and develops the category of team task. Where Frederik categorized event participation as a team obligation (ll. 22-23), Thomas suggests event participation as an individual obligation (l. 38), though sharing with the team. Thomas then invites Adam into the conversation to share his experience (ll. 40-44). He does so by using context-specific deployment of address terms (Lerner, 2003) accounting for selecting Adam, based on Adam’s recent event participation. Adam is invited to perform the task of sharing experiences, but not to the negotiation of a possible extension of the task and team obligation. This suggests a subtle role division in the team, regarding the important function of task clarification and development. It seems to be easier in the local space than in the virtual space, since the interactionally richer environment facilitates more nuanced speaker (self)selection, among other benefits. While Thomas makes the whole team relevant as an identification category, members in the virtual space are primarily invited to perform on a task that is given, rather than to construct a task fitting their needs.

All in all, this extract illustrates a leadership process in the sense of expanding the team task, and in this process, negotiating the team identification category. Throughout extract 3, Frederik, Thomas, and in the end, Adam have collaborated in developing and clarifying the task for the team. Frederik oriented towards a team need, which he believed should be fulfilled (Morgeson et al., 2010). To the category of the whole team, new features have subtly been added (or at least reemphasized) (Jayyusi, 1984) based on negotiation between Frederik, Thomas, and Adam. This category work (Whittle et al., 2015) constitutes leadership processes, understood as interpersonal influence processes, in the sense that the new features that are added involve obligations for the team members in making the whole team relevant. The leadership process unfolds as follows: First, Frederik suggests extending the team task. His careful work around his own obligations in the first segment (ll. 12-16) demonstrates the moral sensitivities involved. Then, Thomas works to negotiate the team task, hence engaging in the leadership process. In the end, Adam's initial report (ll. 46-47) demonstrates alignment with this new version of the task, and in that sense, followership. As such, interpersonal influence is accomplished as Adam responds to Frederik's invitation to contribute, and Adam also aligns with the elaboration of the team task.

Discussion

Team identification, as the practice of treating the whole team as the relevant identification target, is challenged in a complex virtual context. The electronic communication offers a means to bridge geographical distances and to establish continuities across boundaries presented by different locations and languages. At the same time, the electronic communication offers a restricted interactional environment, where new boundaries emerge. In our case, the differences in interactional environments in local and virtual space (Oittinen, 2018) are clearly experienced as a discontinuity (Watson-Manheim et al., 2002) and invite subgrouping. Subgrouping, however, did not emerge as a mechanical consequence of differing physical conditions. It was only through the interactional appropriation of these differences, using them as identity categories (Djordjilovic, 2012; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013), that interactionally relevant "multi-person social units" (Kangasharju, 1996: 291) were established, for the moment, replacing the whole team as the effective identification target. Clearly, team identification was far from an automatic process in this virtual and complex context (Edmondson and Harvey, 2017).

Leadership that enabled team identification resided in the work to persuasively advance the whole team as an identification target. In the face of emerging subgroups, which was oriented to as discontinuities in the team collaboration, this took considerable interactional effort. It is a leadership process in the sense of actively influencing the team to produce what is needed for the team process. Through a series of skillfully crafted contributions, building on, but also subtly shifting, the ongoing conversation, the whole team was made relevant for all team members to identify with. The influence process worked to establish a shared team identity, which served as a virtual continuity, linking all team members and making a shared teamwork process possible. The influence consisted in highlighting the identification category of the whole team by physically and verbally orienting towards momentarily marginalized team members. The influence consisted of making present obligations towards each other as team members. Similarly to how Larsson and Lundholm (2013) showed that influence worked by creating mutual individual obligations, the whole team in our study was made present as an identity category within which members had obligations towards each other (for instance, to not ignore each other). Leadership was observably accomplished in our case when team members actively acknowledged and oriented towards the whole team, rather than towards subgroupings. However, as subgroupings repeatedly reemerged, leadership was recurrently needed to maintain team identification.

Notably, the persuasiveness of leadership work in enabling team identification has a strong moral element in the sense of building on obligations. The moral aspect here is of a practical, rather than philosophical, nature (Jayyusi, 1984), and primarily concerns situated obligations (visible in the crafting of contributions to the interaction), for instance, to not ignore or exclude team members. The observation of the role of the moral nature of influence, in our case, adds another layer to previous descriptions of influence accomplished through attractive identities (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Whittle et al., 2015) or futures (Clifton, 2014).

While leadership is often associated with the construction of organizational reality (Crevani, 2018; Grint, 2005b; Simpson et al., 2018), what this entails or how it is accomplished is less often clarified or explicated in detail. Our study offers a demonstration of precisely this process. In the situation wherein there is an abundance of available identity targets, our case demonstrates leadership as an influence process through which the whole team is turned into a primary, experienced entity. Thus, leadership is shown to have organizing properties, not only in the sense of organizing actions (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013) but also in constructing an organizational reality (Grint, 2005b). Team identification is established as a virtual continuity, shaping the context within which team members interact. Not only is this shared identification made legitimate (Grint, 2005b), but our analysis shows that this legitimation is accomplished through considerable interactional effort, mobilizing obligations towards each other and establishing a shared task. Further, our case suggests that although the technology affords resources to collaborate across geographical distances (through video conferencing), this possibility is not exploited until the social construction of the reality of the whole team is accomplished. This strongly supports the argument for the importance of discontinuities (Watson-Manheim et al., 2002) and virtual continuities (Dixon and Panteli, 2010) as subjective and experienced phenomena, over more objectively observable boundaries and connections, such as geographical distribution and access to communication technology. Extending Dixon and Pantelli's (2010) analysis, our study suggests that leadership might be a critical factor in establishing such virtual continuities.

Moreover, in the face of the ambiguity produced by organizational complexity, preestablished roles (rights and obligations) are shown to be especially prominent as interactional resources. The abundance of available identity targets, together with the lack of strong contextual cues, highlighting one of them (such as a shared office space) makes identification ambiguous and unstable. In our case, the rights and obligations tied to the role of a formal team leader played a particularly important role. These preestablished and commonly known elements were repeatedly mobilized, fostering team identification. Thus, they fill a stabilizing function in a situation characterized by complexity and ambiguity. Guarana and Hernandez (2015: 61) suggest that when followers experience higher levels of ambiguity than leaders, this might result in subordination and downward sensegiving processes "to give sense or interpret the context for followers”. Our analysis show that the team leader can enable sensegiving processes by fostering team identification. By consistently forwarding the team as the relevant identification category, the current situation can be clarified.

As a consequence, the team leadership process, which fosters team identification, turns out to be collaborative, yet somewhat asymmetrical. While a role as formal team leader certainly can bring a range of resources (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018), such as access to privileged information sources or control over budgets, in the situation upon which we are focusing, the main function seems to be that it offers interactional resources to stabilize an unstable situation. However, the influence process always involves other team members, both in forwarding the team as identification target and by actively aligning and supporting this identification process. These results thus support the assumption in previous studies of the importance of the role of formal team leader (Al-Ani et al., 2011; Sivunen, 2006); however, in this case, it is empirically demonstrated rather than the starting point for the analysis. Further, while, for instance, Crevani (2018) and Simpson et al. (2018) described leadership as a collective and emergent process, our results offer nuances to their descriptions. While the team identification is clearly an emergent and situated process, individual contributions play a significant role. The conversation involves tensions and conflicts, such as considerations between subgroup identification and whole team identification (for instance, in excerpt 1). Here, individually crafted, and at times persistently offered, contributions (such as in excerpt 2) play a pivotal role in shifting the flow of the conversation. In essence, the results present a picture of both a collaborative and asymmetrical interactional flow. The emerging image is of an intricate dynamic between formal roles and team processes that is more complex than treating vertical and shared leadership as balancing phenomena (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018). Instead, the close interaction analysis reveals how vertical leadership, in the form of particular rights and obligations, is mobilized by team dynamics (in our case by subgrouping and ambiguity) and leveraged by the team to achieve temporary stability.

Conclusion

Producing a shared team identity is a situated collective interactional accomplishment that can be facilitated by team leadership processes. Subgroupings emerge based on interactional identification categories that are relevant to some, yet not to others. The difference between local space and virtual space fosters subgrouping, which consequently complicates the production of a shared team identification category. As such, the leadership task of providing the team with a shared team identity calls for significant interactional work by both the team manager and the team members. Interlocutors, both team manager and team members, have to use several multimodal resources (words, eye gaze, arms) to move the situated attention away from subgrouping categories, and instead make the whole team relevant as an interactional identity category by, for example, reframing the tasks relevant for the team, pointing towards those sitting remotely, and even explicitly inviting those sitting remotely into the conversation.

This study extends the previous focus on team identity as a static team state by demonstrating some of the interactional processes through which it is accomplished and maintained. Shared team identity is anything but the static state of the team because the restricted virtual interactional environment invites the production of subgroups. Thus, establishing a shared team identity calls for continued interactional work by all interlocutors. Our analysis further extends the research on leadership in teams and virtual contexts by demonstrating precisely how the establishment of a shared team identity is an important result of leadership, rather than a preexisting condition upon which leadership processes can develop.

5 Article 2: A situated leadership configuration: Accomplishing leadership in interaction in a virtual meeting

Authored by Lise Dahl Arvedsen

Abstract

In the literature, leadership configuration is typically presented as a dichotomy between position (a formal hierarchical leader) and process (emergent leadership). This paper argues that this dichotomy is ontologically problematic and empirically simplistic. Drawing on conversation analysis, this paper analyzes situated interactional data to show that explicit local roles can be mobilized by subordinates as a resource in the leadership process. As such, this paper demonstrates that explicit local role assignment goes beyond hierarchical institutional structures and enables a situated leadership configuration.

Introduction

In a globalized world teams collaborate across departments, companies, and national borders. For each new collaboration the tasks vary, the expectations differ, and the constellation of participant skills, experience, and norms is unique. COVID-19 has further accelerated this type of collaboration, throwing the world into a new reality calling for increased virtual collaboration. In other words, the virtual context is becoming an increasingly regular work context, albeit, a complex context, which calls for leadership. The mediated interaction complicates transparency as to whom holds the rights and obligations to, for example, decide upon future actions, which could be considered a leadership task. In some virtual meetings, it might be the formally appointed hierarchical leader who influences subordinates throughout the meeting. In other meetings, no one such person might be present. This leaves peers to subtly negotiate through emergent processes and collaboratively influence each other and produce a future direction, and as such accomplish leadership. Then, there might be meeting situations in which a formal hierarchical leader may possibly be present, but still have subordinates engage in the leadership processes.

The scholarly literature points to how various leadership configurations, such as shared, distributed, and relational leadership (referred to as plural forms of leadership (Denis et al., 2012)), might accommodate some of the complexities of today's leadership expectations. Al-ani et al. (2011) identify the importance of the hierarchical, formally appointed leader in virtual collaboration, arguing that this person plays an important role in structuring the group's tasks and processes. At the same time, studies have demonstrated a strong relationship between team performance and processes and shared leadership (Eisenberg et al., 2016; Hoch et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014). How this variety of pluralistic approaches to leadership are configured needs further deciphering (Fairhurst et al., 2020). In the present article leadership configuration is understood as "the unit of leadership analysis … or pattern of relationships" (Gronn, 2009: 390). Studies focusing on leadership configuration assume a priori that a certain dichotomy exists in the leadership configuration. On the one hand, leadership emanates from the formally appointed leader in a hierarchical superior position (what Holm and Fairhurst (2018) refer to as vertical leadership) and, on the other, leadership can derive from an emergent and organic unstructured process involving subordinates (Fairhurst et al., 2020; Gronn, 2009). Ontologically speaking, leadership based on "a position" and leadership based on "a process" are two different things (Grint, 2005a). Zooming in on the process within the interaction, it makes sense to instead look at the formal roles that interlocutors orient towards within the interaction.

This paper shows that leadership configuration is influenced by explicit local role assignment, as well as hierarchical roles and emergent, organic unstructured processes. Local roles, such as that of the chair, are explicit in the sense that, within a specific situation and context, they are endowed with certain rights and obligations that are known and related to within the situation. These rights and obligations can then be mobilized in the leadership process. The virtual context focuses the analysis by deciphering the interactional nuances as the interactional cues are limited to that of what the information and communication technology (ICT) mediates in between the interlocutors. In the conversation analysis (CA) of interaction in a virtual context, I illustrate situations in which leadership is configured based on subordinates appointed as chair, who then act as influencers, although team managers are present as well. The subordinates are explicitly and locally assigned the role of chair and mobilize the stable, visible role of chair as they, in situ, influence the team. The implication of this finding is that the leadership configuration is to be understood as complex, in the sense that it is situated and influenced by explicit local role assignment, rather than as a dichotomous configuration between either a formally appointed hierarchical leader and an emergent leadership process involving subordinates.

This article is structured as follows: First, I present the literature review, which focuses on leadership configuration, leadership in interaction, and the virtual context. Next, I describe the methodology used, together with a short introduction to my data. Third, I present the analysis, which is based on two data extracts. Fourth, I provide the findings from the analysis in my discussion and, finally, I present the conclusion, which includes a description of the implications and suggestions for further research.

Literature Review

This study seeks to understand how leadership is configurated. Focusing on explicit local role assignment as a means to structure collective leadership, I will review the notion of leadership configuration and argue that by segregating explicit local roles (e.g., chair) from the position (e.g., formally appointed hierarchical leader) permits a nuanced understanding of leadership. Following this, I will examine the notion of leadership in interaction to shed light on leadership as it unfolds in the interaction. Finally, I will touch upon the virtual context in which this study takes place.

Configurating leadership

The focus in recent decades on plural perspectives on leadership (Denis et al., 2012) emphasizes a shift in the understanding of leadership from something a person does to others, towards something that is collectively accomplished. Notions such as shared leadership (Pearce et al., 2008), distributed leadership (Bolden, 2011), and relational leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006) all point to the importance of recognizing the involvement of subordinates in the leadership process. Combined, these streams of research orient towards leadership as a collective accomplishment, where leadership emanates not just from a manager but also from subordinates in a variety of constellations (e.g., manager and subordinates together, or two or more subordinates). To understand how these constellations are produced and accomplished, scholars frame this as a unit of analysis, denoting it as a leadership configuration (Chreim, 2015; Gronn, 2009; Holm and Fairhurst, 2018).

The notion of configurating leadership is relevant in the discussion as to how we can understand and strike a balance between leadership emanating from formally appointed hierarchical leaders and from subordinates. Leadership configuration is an "accurate description of situational practice that includes both individual leaders and holistic leadership units working in tandem" (Gronn, 2009: 384). This is supported by Holm and Fairhurst (2018: 715), who argue in support of a shared hierarchical leadership configuration based on their empirical findings, asserting that "team members wanted a stronger hierarchical presence" as a mean to organize extensive participation by team members. They portray leadership configuration as a dichotomy, as they argue how leadership configuration is a matter of establishing the right balance between vertical leadership and the more informal, emergent, and collective leadership processes.

Specifically, vertical leadership (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018) is portrayed as structured and formal in the sense that leadership is linked to a position (Grint, 2005a). Vertical leadership is argued to help "contain the excess of too much participation" (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018: 715). Al-Ani et al. (2011) argue that the formally appointed hierarchical leader plays an important role in structuring the group's tasks and processes in distributed teams. Locke (2003), who points to a number of leadership tasks that are inherent to the hierarchical managerial role, argues that the role cannot be shared and thus points towards the importance of what he denotes as vertical leadership. Scholars are, as such, attaching the notion of vertical leadership to the individual's hierarchical position and the power that comes with this position (Pearce and Conger, 2003). Consequently, vertical leadership is presented as structured, formalized, and organized, and most importantly, as closely related to the hierarchical managerial role. The problem is that, as Tost, Larrick and Gino (2013) argue, the formally appointed hierarchical leader can have a negative impact on team performance because the formally appointed leader's verbal dominance can reduce team communication and consequently diminish performance. The vertical leader, these scholars argue, has an important role in leadership configuration, but too much involvement may simultaneously have negative consequences for team performance. As such, leadership emanating from subordinates is relevant for the leadership configuration as well.

Collective leadership (Fairhurst et al., 2020), which is contrasted to vertical leadership, is portrayed as emergent, informal, and unstructured (Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017). One version of collective leadership, shared leadership, is described as messy, spontaneous, and in need of containment by the formally appointed hierarchical leader (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018). Described as intertwining and interdependent (Pearce and Conger, 2003), shared leadership is viewed as coexisting with vertical leadership (Wassenaar and Pearce, 2017), which, as such, supports the argument that a vertical leader has an important function in attending to excessive subordinate participation. Hoch and Dulebohn (2017: 678) argue that subordinates can emerge as “informal leaders inside the team”. As such, the dichotomous understanding of the leadership configuration only allows an a priori understanding of leadership that involves subordinates as emergent, unstructured influencers.

The problem with this dichotomous understanding of the leadership configuration is that the opposing sides represent different ontological perspectives. In the existing dichotomous perspective, vertical leadership is understood based on the position, i.e., a (managerial) leader, and on collective leadership as a process (Grint, 2005a). If leadership is to be understood as an interpersonal influence process (Larsson and Lundholm, 2010), it prompts an understanding of leadership as a social and processual phenomenon (Clifton, 2012). This means that it is constructed in between interlocutors (Clifton et al., 2020; Larsson, 2017) on the basis of an asymmetrical relationship between an influencer(s) and those who are influenced. Ontologically, treating leadership as a process prompts an understanding of formal roles based on how they are mobilized within the interaction. Thus, though formally appointed hierarchical leaders are probably more likely to be the influencer, we should not, as scholars, assume this a priori.

Towards a situated leadership configuration

Engaging with leadership configuration as a social phenomenon is a matter of looking at the process rather than the position. This can be achieved by closely considering the interaction, which contains various roles that are enacted and accomplished (Angouri and Marra, 2010) as interlocuters orient to them as being relevant. Housley (1999) argues that roles, such as that of chair, can be considered as resources for interlocutors. Roles may represent rights and obligations that can be mobilized in the leadership process, and it is possible to assign them to, for example, subordinates. Housley draws on Hilbert (1981) when explaining that roles should be understood as an organizing concept that actors draw upon in social settings. As such, a role is not a specific behavior, but rather represent “conceptual resources actors use to clear up confusion, sanction troublemakers, instruct others in the ways of the world, and so forth … Hilbert 1981:216)” (Housley, 1999: 1).

Roles with rights and obligations can be based on institutional structures, such as the formally appointed hierarchical leader, while other roles are explicitly locally assigned and constituted, for example, that of meeting chair. The existing dichotomous understanding of the leadership configuration contains the risk of excluding the possibility of assigning explicit local roles to team members, i.e. ones that can be mobilized in the leadership process. I argue that assigning roles, such as that of chair, works to strike a balance between excessive leader focus and excessive fluid and emergent negotiation of leadership, and that distributing the role of chair is one way to mobilize and facilitate engagement in the leadership process. Being assigned with an explicit local role is not leadership in itself; however, being ascribed an explicit local role can be a way to engage subordinates in the collaborative process and interactional accomplishment of the leadership process. A more complex role configuration enables, but does not determine, a situated leadership configuration.

Leadership in interaction

Situated leadership configuration can be closely scrutinized using leadership in interaction, an emerging field of leadership that allows an in-depth examination of the leadership process (Larsson, 2017; Schnurr and Schroeder, 2019). Within this strand of research, studies draw on methods such as CA, interactional sociolinguistics, and similar approaches in which situated data is used to explore how leadership is produced and accomplished as part of an ongoing work interaction (Arvedsen and Hassert, 2020; Clifton, 2009; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020). This approach directs attention towards practical work interaction processes and the accomplishment of leadership, rather than, for instance, focusing on the qualities of the individuals participating in the interaction (Raelin, 2016; Yukl, 2013), nor are the internal mental processes of relevance (Fairhurst, 2007). In other words, studies within this strand do not treat leadership as something one person does, or as something that one person does to others, but rather as something that occurs in between people (Larsson, 2017). Using CA, Arvedsen and Hassert (2020) illustrated that one team member influenced the rest of the team by producing a formulation about future actions. Through a fine-grained analysis, Larsson and Lundholm (2013) illustrated that the establishment of a task-based collective identity was one of the primary organizing functions of leadership. Van de Mieroop et al. (2020) analyzed naturally occurring interactions to illustrate how shared leadership was achieved as a situated social practice.

When zooming in on a specific interaction, interlocutors orient towards actions carried out in the situation and organize their next action based on this (Llewellyn and Hindmarsh, 2010; Schegloff, 2007b). Epistemics, deontics, and emotional aspects represent means for analytically addressing interaction because they "are deployed as resources of action recognition—similarly to those resources accessible to bare senses: speech, bodily behavior, material artifacts, and so on" (Stevanovic and Peräkylä, 2014: 187). Of particular relevance for this study is deontic authority, which refers to the right to announce, propose, and decide (Stevanovic and Peräkylä, 2012). By drawing on deontic authority in the analysis of leadership, studies can analytically illustrate the rights and obligations that the influencer situationally draws upon relating to the specific role they have been assigned with. Clifton's (2019) case study of leadership in interaction illustrated how influencers, in the extracts analyzed, drew on deontic authority and how the influenced oriented towards this authority. Svennevig (2011) also applied deontic modality as he illustrated the situated practice of enacting leader identity, while Van de Mieroop (2020) used deontic status and stance to analytically illustrate the rights and obligations the influencer situationally mobilized in relation to his or her role as appointed chair.

The leadership process can be analytically approached through the concepts deontic status and deontic stance (Stevanovic and Peräkylä, 2014), both of which are closely related to deontic authority. Deontic status relates to the relative position of power and authority, while deontic stance relates to public ways of displaying authority or power in relation to others. As Van de Mieroop (2020: 597) indicates, this distinction is relevant, because it "links up with the tension between the pre-discursive organizational structure and the positions that people hold in this structure on the one hand, and the way the actual interaction unfolds". This is supported by Meschitti (2019), who argues that people can position themselves and gain power independent of institutional structures. As such, the notions of deontic authority, stance, and status are a way to separate the formal rights and obligations from the hierarchical leader and relate them to a specific role, such as that of chair. If a subordinate is appointed meeting chair, certain rights and obligations follow, and with those, certain expectations from other meeting participants (Markaki and Mondada, 2012). These rights, obligations, and expectations can be analytically explained with the support of deontic status, stance, and authority.

Note that since I take an interactional relational perspective on leadership, deontic authority is not something one can be in possession of. Rather, based on a social relational perspective, both deontic status and stance are dependent on how the interlocutors receive the deontic claims. One can enact a deontic status. For example, by being a formal appointed leader, a person is morally assigned with certain rights and obligations that enables this person to enact certain behavior or carry out certain actions. However, in a leadership process, granting deontic status or stance any impact, calls for the follower(s) to recognizing the influencer's influence attempt (DeRue and Ashford, 2010). Thus, as analyst, zooming in on the leadership process requires being able to identify both an attempt at influence, for example, through deontic claims and, subsequently, the individual(s) being influenced, by aligning with the deontic claim (also referred to as "next turn proof procedure" within CA (Sacks et al., 1974: 728–729)). As such, the perspective of deontic authority makes it possible to explore how the rights and obligations that come with explicit local roles, such as that of chair, can enable subordinates to enact deontic authority. Additionally, deontic authority can help shed light on what influence assigning explicit local roles to subordinates might have on the leadership process and, essentially, aid in gaining an improved understanding of the leadership configuration.

Leadership configuration and virtual collaboration

As noted by various scholars (Clifton, 2019; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020), accomplishing leadership calls for a significant amount of interactional work, both embodied and vocally. In a virtual context, where collaboration is mediated via ICT, additional complexity is added to the interaction, both regarding asynchronous (Darics, 2020) and synchronous collaboration (Heath et al., 2000). Within synchronous virtual collaboration, such as virtual meetings, interlocutors are limited by a lack of bodily cues, gaze, and minimal responses due to delays (Arminen et al., 2016; Oittinen, 2018). The virtual context is particularly interesting when looking into the leadership configuration as limited access to multimodal resources puts the possible challenges of the interaction at the forefront. Accomplishing the leadership processes in a virtual context entails additional interactional work and engagement by all interlocutors (Arvedsen and Hassert, 2020), hence making the interactional leadership work more accessible for analysis. The virtual context calls for a particularly formalized and structured organizing of interaction, which in previous literature is pointed to as a task for the formally appointed hierarchical leader (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018). This sparked an interest concerning what happens when subordinates are assigned with an explicit local role, such as that of chair, within a virtual context. This study sheds light on the leadership process in a more nuanced way to allow a greater understanding of subordinates as both organized and structured influencers, as well as, emergent and unstructured. This leads to the following research question: How does assigning an explicit local role to a team member, such as that of chair, influence the leadership configuration in a virtual meeting?

Methodology

To understand leadership as a social phenomenon, ethnomethodology (EM) and CA represent relevant methodological approaches for this study. The former assumes that social order is an interactional accomplishment (Garfinkel, 1967; Hindmarsh and Llewellyn, 2010) in which talk in interaction is in focus to explore the accomplishment of intersubjectivity (Heritage and Clayman, 2010; Hindmarsh and Llewellyn, 2010), while the latter represents an analytical tradition established based on Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (Sacks, 1992; Sacks et al., 1974) and that is rooted in EM. CA can help demonstrate the complexity of social interaction by focusing on the accomplishment of social order through turn taking. This analytical focus can shed light on the sequential order interlocutors take and also on how this order contributes to accomplishing the work at hand (Schegloff, 2007b). In business meetings, this could be opening and closing the meeting (Nielsen, 2013), choosing who speaks next, and making decisions (Asmuß, 2015; Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Svennevig, 2012).

Besides leaning on the theoretical notion of deontic authority (Stevanovic and Peräkylä, 2014), which derives from CA, sequence organization is used to explore the systematics of who, how, and when people are expected to talk and how anomalies are handled in the situation, providing a systematic approach to seemingly arbitrary interactions and illustrating the close coordination of talk between speakers (Schegloff, 2007b). I also draw on membership categorization (Hester and Eglin, 1997), where categories are understood as framings for participants in which they can assign meaning to actors or events (Whittle et al., 2015).

This study is based on an open collection of naturally occurring video recorded data from 54 virtual team meetings that was collected to gain insight into virtual work collaboration. After watching the videos several times, a variety of interesting phenomena emerged. In particular, I was intrigued by the empirical phenomenon of team members chairing the meeting while the team manager also participated. After identifying and noting where this appeared in the data, I revisited the videos of meetings in which team members chaired part of or the entire meeting. Going over the examples once again (13 meetings out of 54 meetings), I found that most of the time, the role of chair was enacted by what Angouri and Marra (2010) refer to as the index chair contribution (e.g., opening and closing, introducing items on the agenda, shifting between agenda items, orienting to turn allocation, and sanctioning inappropriate meeting conduct). In this process, I came across the two examples presented in this article, where the subordinates assigned with the explicit local role of chair seem to expand this role beyond merely enacting index chair contributions. I transcribed the selected data according to the Jeffersonian (2004) system and carried out a detailed data-driven analysis focusing on the principles of a single case analysis in accordance with Hutchby and Woofitt (2008). In particular, I focused on sequence organization, membership categories, and deontic authority, allowing me to relate my data-driven analysis to the social practice of leadership (Clifton, 2006, 2019) and address my research question.

Data

The extracts presented in this analysis are part of a larger dataset that was collected over a period of one year and three months (2017–2018) in eight teams from five different companies. The study is primarily based on naturally occurring data in accordance with the conversational analytical approach (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). The body of data comprises 56 hours of video and audio recordings, predominantly done on QuickTime, of virtual team meetings. To supplement and understand the teams' structure, function, and organization, I carried out eight interviews lasting from 30 minutes to 2 hours with team managers and key players in the organizations. The extracts in this article derive from two different teams in two different companies, both headquartered in Denmark, and with team members across the globe. Details for each team will be presented in the analysis prior to each extract.

Analysis

The two extracts depict a small fraction of a business team meeting in which the team manager (formally appointed hierarchical leader) and the team members (subordinates) meet to catch up on current business. The extracts are of interest because the formally appointed hierarchical leader is present at the meeting but, prior to the meeting, this person appointed a subordinate the meeting chair. In particular, the two extracts distinguish themselves from one another in that the first one shows a subordinate, in the role of chair, single-handedly influencing a peer. In the second extract, a subordinate enacts the role of chair, and in collaboration with peers, exerts influence towards other peers and the formally appointed hierarchical leader. In other words, two different leadership configurations occur but both emanate from a subordinate appointed as chair. I will use both extracts to illustrate how subordinates appointed as meeting chair mobilize their rights and obligations assigned to them as chairs to engage as influencers in the leadership process. As such, the extracts can depict how leadership is configured without a priori assuming that the influencer is the formally appointed hierarchical leader, nor does leadership emerge organically and unstructured. I instead illustrate how separating the role of chair from the formally appointed hierarchical leader permits a detailed study of how leadership is configured based on roles mobilized within the situation rather than on a priori assuming that leadership is inherently part of a position, i.e. with the formally appointed hierarchical leader.

Extract 1): Subordinate acting as chair, influencing a peer

This extract is from a Skype for Business team meeting between a group located at the headquarters (n=9) of an international oil and gas company, who provides support for a group of team of managers (n=7) located remotely worldwide (indicated by “rem” in the transcript).

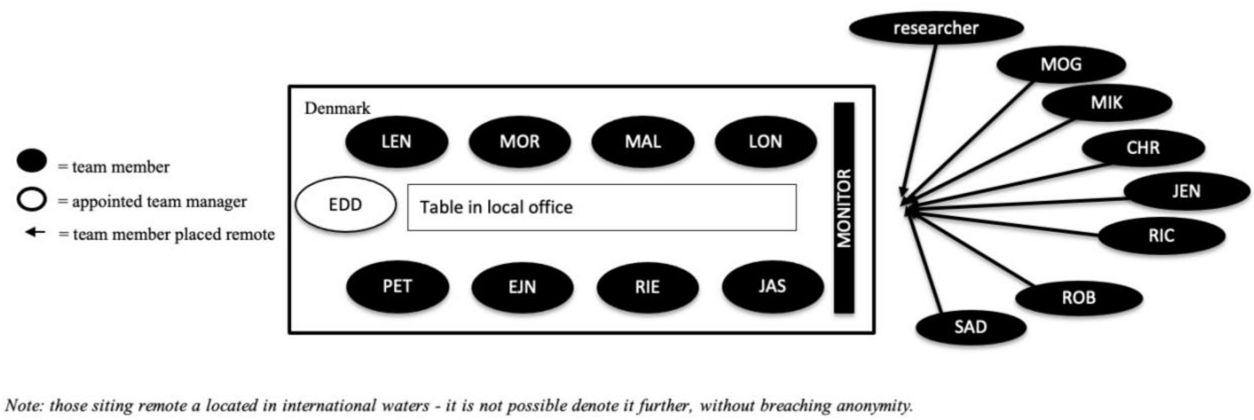

Figure 5: Seating plan of the virtual team in an international oil and gas company

Although cameras are an option, no one has turned theirs on. The meeting’s purpose is to share information. Jasper (JAS), the team member who is assigned the role of chair at their monthly team meeting, is located at the company’s headquarters. Right before this extract begins, Jasper presented the last month’s financial results for each of the remote units. As Jasper finishes, a team member, Rick (RIC), who is located remotely, asks if it is time to make comments. Jasper, as chair, grants permission to make comments. Due to space limitation, 15 lines of Rick’s monologue have been omitted. In the extract below, Rick presents what he refers to as a hot potato, explaining that he has a local buyer who can ensure a discount compared to the price he normally pays when he adheres to the key performance indicators and uses the company’s regulated system, called k mat. This sparks a comment from Jasper.

Extract 1

1 RIC_{rem}: the second? is (.) i want to bring the: eh (.)the maybe a hot

2 potato at least for the scotsman or for UK here is the k mat

3 (1.0)

4 and (0.6) i have a very very good buyer here who kno:ws the

5 local market? and the savings he can s- show to us on a weekly

6 basis? (.) are tremendous (0.7) and we are balancing? between

7 (1.0) buying locally.

8 (1.7)

9 eh::m

10 (0.6)

11 and and obviously following k mat and the k p i and i i really

12 ↑dont ↓know where to swing anymore i mean (0.7) i can

13 understand that the k mat has impact on the company but i

14 dont ↑think that this much is how much we can save here

15 locally?

```
>> 15 lines omitted <<

16          and eh:: (0.5) i think half of that we could have got (0.3) 30%
17          cheaper? (0.3) on average? (0.3) if we buy locally ⌈(       )⌉
18 JAS:                                                     ⌊(i mean)⌋
19          whats the (.) i- i mean i understand? where you are coming
20          ↓from but just ↑one comment at least we are not doing this just
21          to follow a k p i? (.) i mean the k mat is not just a k p i
22          ↓thing (0.3) this is to:: (.) to to ↑look at the company as you
23          know and see if we could do things smarter ↓and ↑easier (0.2)
24          and be cost and be cost conscious at the same time so
25          (0.5)
26          just so ↑thats said at least this is ↑not just a k p i exercise
27          (0.7)
28 RICrem  :no i ↑know its not but im k p i is kind of the output that
29          we have here. in terms of what we ↑need to follow i just try to
30          ↑simplify? the conversation >i i i< can understand the k mat
31          big picture its ↑just
32          (1.1)
33          sometimes. it doesnt add ↑up when you put the numbers together.
```

The analysis of this extract will look at how Jasper, as chair, following Rick's presentation of the situation, mobilizes his rights and obligation to influence Rick's understanding of the situation. In the extract, Rick presents his problem report, describing it as a hot potato. This is a “pre” sequence (Schegloff, 2007b) that indicates that something that might have a high level of interpersonal sensitivity is about to occur. He then introduces “the scotsman ” (l. 2), a membership category that provides a way of giving meaning to actors or events (Whittle et al., 2015) and that attributes this category with the characteristic “UK” (l. 2) and “local” (l. 5), not to mention the validity of “a very very good buyer here who knows the local market” (l. 4). The Scotsman is a membership category (Antaki and Widdicombe, 2008) that can provide “tremendous” savings (ll. 5-6). In l. 11 Rick introduces “the k mat” as a contrast to “the scotsman”. Membership in the k mat category represents “the company” (l. 13) and means that “the k p i” must be adhered to (l. 11). The contrast lies in how disregarding the membership category k mat (and thus company regulations) results in a 30% cost reduction. Because Rick introduces the problem at this team meeting, he is deferring a moral obligation (Stevanovic, 2018) on the team, or at least someone on the team, to find a solution to the problem.

Jasper takes it upon himself to respond to this moral obligation induced by Rick, initially by mobilizing the rights and obligations of the chair. Jasper self-selects the turn (l. 18) (Schegloff, 2007b) to answer Rick in ll. 18-27. By self-selecting his turn, Jasper displays deontic status (Stevanovic and Peräkylä, 2014). The process of self-selection in the virtual space can be more complicated due to limited multimodal cues, such as gaze and body gestures (Arminen et al., 2016; Mondada, 2013; Oittinen, 2018). As appointed chair, Jasper has the explicit right and responsibility to manage interaction among the participants (Svennevig, 2012) and, as such, Jasper can be reasonably understood as orienting towards an obligation that needs to be fulfilled (Stevanovic, 2018). Further, Jasper produces his self-selection through an overlap (l. 18) (Schegloff, 2000), signaling a certain sense of urgency on his part to provide input on Rick’s comment, based on knowledge that Jasper is in possession of (Heritage, 2012).

Jasper then engages in the influence process in the sense that he reformulates the categories that Rick presented. Jasper initiates his response to Rick with a self-repair and restarts, followed by markers of joint understanding (Schegloff, 2007b) in which he states that he understands Rick’s position (l. 19). He then follows with a change-of-state-token (“but”, l. 20) (Heritage, 1984a), demonstrating that he will provide a dispreferred answer (Schegloff, 2007b). Jasper states that “we” are not “just” following a KPI (ll. 20-21), “we” are using the k mat to “do things smarter and easier” (l. 23), and “to be cost conscious at the same time” (l. 24). Jasper introduces the inclusive first-person plural pronoun “we”, which could reasonably be heard as including the entire organization as Jasper also refers to “the company” in l. 22. As such, Jasper could be heard to reiterate the two categories previously introduced by Rick. In this iteration, "local" and "the company" are not contrasts; by following "the k mat", they can be both cost conscious and follow the KPI. With this framing of the categories, Jasper displays a deontic stance, in the sense that he proposes a policy statement (Svennevig and Djordjilovic, 2015) that explains how the world ought to be by simultaneously reformulating the categories initially presented and contrasted by Rick. Consequently, it can be argued that Jasper is attempting to influence Rick's perception of the category, in the sense that Jasper presents the organizational goal as doing "things smarter and be[ing] cost conscious at the same time" (ll. 23-24).

Rick's response to this influence process is primarily to align with Jasper's deontic authority in the sense that Rick does not make a visible attempt to reclaim his turn after the overlap (l. 18). Second, in ll. 28-33, Rick somewhat reluctantly affiliates (Stivers, 2008) with the new framing of the categories. Although using "but", which could potentially be heard as partial disagreement, he also states that he understands the big picture (ll. 30-31). He further orients towards "we" (l. 29), in which he recognizes the framing of the membership category "the k mat", which was presented by Jasper as more inclusive than he initially portrayed it as. We see here how they reach a joint agreement that is congruent with Jasper's presentation of the categories, and not Rick's. In relation to leadership, I argue that seeing how Rick's perception of two organizationally relevant categories (local vs. company) has been altered, Rick was influenced by Jasper, a peer from the team.

Extract 2): Subordinate acting as chair, collectively influencing peers and team manager

Data from extract 2, which is divided into three parts, is from a monthly meeting of the finance team, which supports the company, a global engineering and consultancy firm, with budgets and reporting. Eight team members and one team manager participate in the meeting. Three team members are located at the headquarters in Copenhagen, Denmark. One team member joins the online meeting from another place in Denmark, two team members from two different places in Finland, one from Germany, and one from India. The team manager joins the online meeting from the UK but is normally located in Copenhagen. Team members not located in Copenhagen are indicated "rem" in the transcript. This extract is also from a Skype for Business meeting. The team members in Copenhagen have their video turned on but the rest do not.

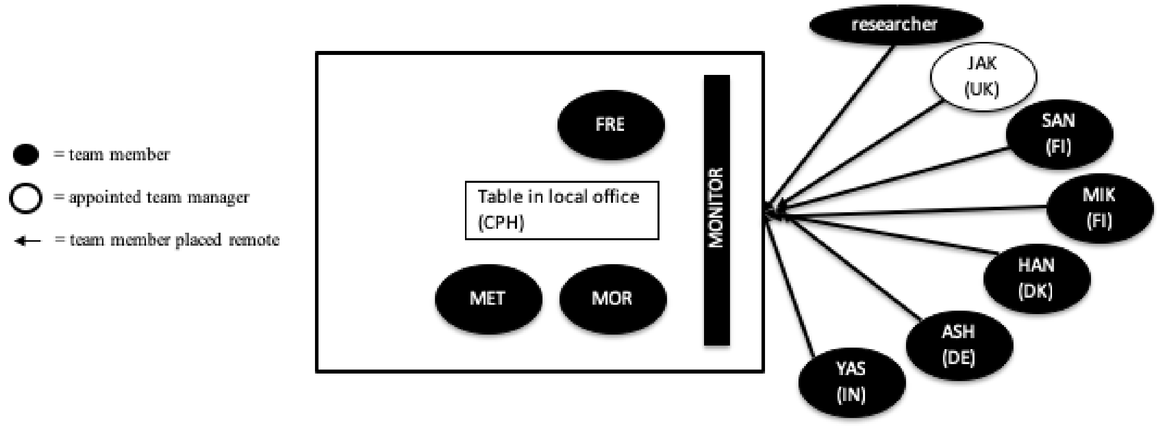

Figure 6: Seating plan of the virtual team from a global engineering and consultancy firm

One of the tasks scheduled for this specific meeting is to carry out an evaluation workshop of a budget process that had just been complete. Prior to the meeting, Jakob (JAK), the team manager, asked Sanne (SAN) to facilitate the workshop. In the meeting, Sanne, located in Finland, shares her screen and presents an almost empty PowerPoint slide. Sanne describes how the PowerPoint contains topics related to the budget process, e.g., tools, process, and stakeholders. Each topic has its own slide with a single heading (e.g., process) and subheadings, such as: “What worked well in the process?”. Sanne explains that she plans to fill in the PowerPoint template during the workshop with input from the team while the PowerPoint is visible for everyone to follow along.

Extract 2 is particularly interesting for various reasons. First, it illustrates how Sanne, a subordinate, chairs a part of the meeting, asking for feedback from the team, and how the team orients towards this request. Second, in comparison with extract 1, Sanne’s involvement in the leadership process is less vocal than Jasper’s. Jasper was very specific in his version of the organizational reality, whereas Sanne is much more subtle. Third, in extract 1, Jasper was the sole influencer influencing a peer, but Sanne engages in collaboration with several peers, each influencing the other, including the team manager, which is of particular interest.

For the sake of simplicity, the extract is divided into three parts. The first part (extract 2.1) is Sanne's request for feedback. Because no one on the team contributes to the exercise, Sanne takes the floor and provides an example. The second part (extract 2.2) shows how Sanne's peers and the team manager engage with her proposal. Finally, extract 2.3 illustrates how Sanne's own example motivates a peer to engage in the exercise and put forward a new suggestion for feedback.

Extract 2.1

1 SAN_{rem}: so:: yeah (1.8) any ideas?

2 (1.4)

3 or feedback?

4 (6.6)

5 MOR: (h)ehm ba ba ba ba

6 (3.6)

7 JAK_{rem}: (h)he (.) so- sounds (0.4) real⌈ly⌉

8 SAN_{rem}: ⌊i: ⌋ ⌈i ↑have ↓some ⌉

9 JAK_{rem}: ⌊sounds really eh⌋

10 SAN_{rem}: ⌈i ↑can start ⌉

11 JAK_{rem}: ⌊(inspired Morten)⌋

12 SAN_{rem}: (h)he

13 JAK_{rem}: (h)he

14 (0.6)

15 MET: ( )

16 SAN_{rem}: so: what i thought was or ↓dont know if we had ↓this (.) i

17 never ↑saw it. but i thought it would be good (.)to have a

18 really detailed ↑timeline

It is particularly interesting how Sanne mobilizes the role as chair to engage the entire team in the task at hand. Initially, she does so by enacting her role as chair by orienting towards the actions the team should take (Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009). She finishes introducing the exercise with a “so” (l. 1), a discourse marker that indicates that the exercise introduced involves the entire team (Bolden, 2009). Consequently, she puts forward an expectation to the team to provide suggestions for feedback. Following a long pause (l. 4), Morten self-selects his turn (Schegloff, 2007b), but only emits sounds (l. 5). This demonstrates his alignment in the sense that he depicts participation through the sounds he makes (Stivers, 2008). This is an exceptionally interesting embodiment of alignment in a virtual context. Visual access to each other is rather limited, only the people in Copenhagen have their cameras on, which means this emission of sound could reasonably be heard as a signal to Sanne that the question is received and a relevant answer is being considered. Jakob responds to Morten’s turn (l. 7, 10 and 12), initially with a minor chuckle, and then with a comment on the sound. Jakob’s response can reasonably be heard as an alignment (Stivers, 2008) with Sanne’s task as he critically engages with Morten’s emission of sounds (“sounds really …inspired” (ll. 9-11). Although commenting on the sound, Jakob is not orienting towards the long silence in ll. 4 and 6.

Sanne once again mobilizes her rights and obligations as chair as she produces an overlap to Jakob (l. 8). Sanne states that she has “some”, which could reasonably be heard as a response to her own question in l. 1, to explain that she can start (l. 10). In ll. 16-18, she produces a reply to her own question in l. 1. Sanne chooses to enact the deontic status offered by the role as chair to self-select her turn through an overlap with the team manager. She orients towards the silence as a need for the team to be fulfilled, i.e., they need for example clarification, examples, elaboration (Stevanovic, 2018). She then enacts deontic stance, in the sense that she demonstrates how to provide ideas during the exercise, which can in itself be understood as a policy statement (Svennevig and Djordjilovic, 2015) in that her suggested feedback is a proposed line of action. Doing this, she demonstrates strong deontic authority (Stevanovic and Peräkylä, 2012), which consequently shows how Sanne attempts to influence her peers and team manager, both in the near future, in the sense that she wishes to inspire her colleagues to share ideas (“I can start”, l. 10), and in terms of suggesting how the world ought to be, hence defining a general principle for the groups’ actions.

After line 18, Sanne talks about what a detailed timeline (referred to in ll. 17-18 in extract 2.1) might include for about one minute (omitted due to space limitations). As she finishes talking, the team manager, Jakob, suggests that this type of timeline does exist. However, Mette (MET) initially contests this, as does Mikko (MIK) later.

Extract 2.2

```
19 SAN:     i dont know if we had such ah (.) a ↑timetable somewhere
20 JAK_rem: i think we ↑did but [unclear] changed quite a few times (
21            ⌈     )⌉ ownership of the plan times ( ⌈          )⌉ with the plan
22 SAN:       ⌊yeah ⌋                                  ⌊but     ⌋
23 MET:     i think we had an overall. one but we ↑didnt ↓have it that
24          detailed. i guess (.) eeeh but i think that would be ⌈ nice    ⌉
25 JAK_rem:                                                      ⌊(        )⌋
26 MET:     or that would be a ↑good idea (.) for eeeh for the ↑next time
27 JAK_rem: (   ) delivery maybe on each step
28 MET:     ↑yeah
29 MIK_rem: mm (0.3) yeah like sometimes it does ⌈ like ⌉
30 MET:                                          ⌊(         )  ⌋
31 MIK_rem: eh we had that like eh like high level (.) like eh (.) eh
32          (agenda) like ↑whats happening eh when and since we had those
33          few changes and it wasnt that detailed. sometimes (.) i had a
34          (.) hard time to (.) eh (.) like eh (.) to understand what is
35          happening ↑next and eh (.) (     ) okay id like eh ↓okay (.)
36          ↑these allocations ah okay they are coming tomorrow and eh the
37          ideas (.) eh affecting this in this (  ) of ↓time and eh (.) i
```

38 felt that i was (.) more lost whats happening next than i was

39 last eh ↓year ⌈( )⌉(first)

40 JAK_{rem}: ⌊ mmm.⌋

41 (4.0)

In this extract, we see how Sanne's peers engage in the leadership process after the team manager contests Sanne's proposal. In l. 19, Sanne finishes her long, uninterrupted turn by downplaying her suggestion somewhat, as she rephrases her feedback statement from l. 18 as a question. The team manager, Jakob, self-selects his turn (l. 20) and states that he believes that they already have this type of timeline. This statement is followed by a change-of-state token ("but") (Heritage, 1984a) in which Jakob self-repairs and restarts with a marker of joint understanding (Schegloff, 2007b). As Jakob accounts for the content of the plan that he refers to (ll. 20-21), Sanne produces overlaps, first with a "yeah" and then a "but" (l. 22), which could reasonably be heard as an attempt to reclaim the turn to produce another self-repair (Schegloff et al., 1977). This is not successful, as Sanne is not acknowledged as next-turn speaker.

Instead, Sanne's peers choose to engage in this influence process by supporting Sanne's proposal. Mette self-selects the turn (l. 23) first and produces a repair and restart, followed by markers of joint understanding (Schegloff, 2007b). She initially indicates agreement with Jakob ("I think we had an overall one", in l. 23), followed by a change-of-state token ("but", l. 23), demonstrating a dispreferred answer (Schegloff, 2007b) to Jakob. Mette then stresses "but we didn't have it that detailed" (ll. 23-24), thus aligning with Sanne by agreeing that such a detailed plan did not exist (Stivers, 2008). In l. 26, Mette affiliates (Stivers, 2008) with Sanne's proposal on a "detailed timeline" by stating she believes that "that would be a good idea" (l. 26). Then, in l. 29, Mikko aligns with Sanne's proposal with a "yeah". He accounts for this in ll. 31-39, where he produces alignment with Mette (l. 31) first, stating that he believes there is a high level plan (emphasizing "high"), and due to a lack of detail in the plan, he did not know what was "happening next" (l. 35). He further explicates that the existing timeline actually made him "more lost … than I was last year" (ll. 38-39).

Jakob produces an overlap “mmm” (l. 40) with a downward intonation, which could be heard as an aligning sequence closing candidate (Schegloff, 2007). Especially taking the four-second pause in l. 41 into account, it is reasonable to believe that the team manager aligns with the overall feedback provided initially by Sanne and subsequently supported by her peers. As such, the team manager is being influenced collectively by Sanne and two of her peers, Mette and Mikko.

After the four seconds pause (l. 41) Mikko begins a turn, however, when he produces a small pause Mette begins to speak.

Extract 2.3

```
42 MIKrem:  bu::t ehm (.)
43 MET      =i wa (.) i ↑wasnt ↓there for the full period? but (.) i also
44          think it would be ↑nice ↓if we could (.)  limit the ↑time we
45          spent on the budget? (.) ↑somehow
```

In this last part of the extract, extract 2.3, Mette constructs a proposal for future action, which demonstrates how she is being influenced by Sanne’s suggestion in extract 2.1. Mikko self-selects the turn (l. 42), most likely due to no one else taking the turn in the long pause (Schegloff, 2007b). While seemingly hesitant about what is to come (dragging out the “but” and adding a hesitant “ehm” (l. 42)), Mette latches on in the micro-pause that Mikko produces and puts forward a new proposal for future action, which could be heard as a policy statement (Svennevig and Djordjilovic, 2015). This is also the case in the sense that she presents a suggestion as to how the world ought to be, thus defining a general principle for the teams’ actions. Mette is influenced by Sanne’s example to engage in the construct of how the world ought to be in this feedback exercise.

The analysis of the above two extracts shows how leadership is situationally configured between the interlocutors. Of particular interest is how the formally appointed hierarchical leader is present in both meetings; however, the leadership process emanates from a subordinate assigned with the explicit local role as chair. With a microanalytic lens, I zoomed in on the actual interaction to illustrate how the leadership process was configured. In extract 1, the subordinate appointed as chair influences a peer single-handedly in an interpersonal process of influence. Rick presents a certain perspective of organizational membership categories that are then contested by Jasper, the subordinate appointed chair, by mobilizing deontic authority related to the role of chair. Subsequently, Rick enacts being influenced by aligning with Jasper. In extract 2, the subordinate as chair influences both the formally appointed hierarchical leader and peers, with support from other peers, leading to a different leadership configuration than extract 1. These two extracts thus illustrate how subordinates appointed as meeting chairs can mobilize their rights and obligations associated with that local role to single-handedly influence, but also to collectively engage, others to be a part of the interpersonal influence process.

Discussion

This article examined how assigning an explicit local role to a team member, such as that of chair, influences the leadership configuration in a virtual meeting, leading to three theoretical contributions, which I will present in the following.

Situated leadership configuration

The existing understanding of the leadership configuration is presented as a dichotomy between vertical leadership emanating from a formal hierarchical position and collective leadership as an emergent process emanating from subordinates (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018). This was, I argued, ontologically problematic, as the two opposing sides of the dichotomy were treated differently analytically. Treating leadership as a social phenomenon, fosters an opportunity to explore explicitly assigned local roles in the leadership process. By distributing the role of, for example, meeting chair, roles can work as an organizing concept that actors draw upon in social settings. The findings of this study suggest that explicit local role assignment to subordinates can work to strike a balance between leadership emanating from formally appointed hierarchical leaders and subordinates in the leadership process. This is the case as the subordinates assigned to the role of chair can mobilize rights and obligations from this explicit local role. Consequently, this study demonstrates how leadership initiated by subordinates does not have to be emergent and unstructured emanating from informal talk. Rather, the two extracts illustrate that leadership initiated by subordinates can be related to more structured and planned aspects by assigning explicit local roles, such as that of meeting chair. As such this finding adds another dimension to the leadership configuration. Organizing participation in the leadership processes (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018) is not a task solely limited to the formally appointed hierarchical leader but also includes subordinates assigned with an explicit local role.

This premise is supported by Meschitti (2019), who showed that interlocuters could position themselves within the conversation based on discursive and multimodal resources to gain power, independent of institutional structures. That said, although Meschitti (2019) argues that positioning is essential for leadership to unfold, she does not demonstrate how leadership is actually accomplished. Returning to the leadership process as such, leadership calls for both influencer(s) and the influenced (Larsson, 2017). In other words, as actors place themselves in an influence process, the relational aspect plays an incremental role in terms of accomplishing leadership. Leadership is not accomplished until the influencer(s) has visibly influenced some(one). This relates to DeRue and Ashford's (2010) argument on claiming and granting leader identity, which they argue goes beyond institutional structures. However, despite DeRue and Ashford's (2010) theoretical portrayal of the relational aspect of how leader identity is claimed and granted, they do not relate to the actual production of leadership, which is what this paper demonstrates. In terms of extract 1, Jasper positioned himself in a situated knowledgeable role, mobilizing the rights and obligations offered by the role of chair. Leadership, however, is not accomplished until Rick aligns with Jasper's act of influence. Extract 2 shows how Sanne might have been appointed to chair the feedback session by the hierarchical formally appointed leader, but leadership is not accomplished until her peers and team manager align with her questions and suggestions. These findings give reason to undertake a more complex and situated view of the leadership configuration, where explicit local roles can be mobilized in situ as a resource (Housley, 1999) by subordinates to participate as influencers in the leadership process.

Based on the findings in this paper, I argue that it is essential that we, as researchers, separate explicit local roles from the hierarchical position of the formally appointed leader to analytically uphold the complexity that exists in the leadership configuration. This contradicts the leadership configuration presented by Gronn (2009), who argues that configuration is based on position rather than a situated construction of roles. Understanding the configuration of leadership as a dichotomy is, as my findings illustrate, too simplified. I argue that it is essential to account for the assigned explicit local roles, in addition to the formally appointed hierarchical leader. The role of chair is not an informal, emergent role. On the contrary, it serves to structure the interaction. Assigning a role, such as that of chair, explicitly to subordinates enables a subordinate to contain "the excess of too much participation" within a team (Holm and Fairhurst, 2018: 715) while simultaneously working against the tendency of a formal leader to dominate a meeting (Tost et al., 2013). Consequently, this paper's first contribution is that the configuration of leadership should be based on a situated configuration that includes subordinates, the formal hierarchical leader, and explicitly assigned local roles.

Finally, and notably, the scope of this paper was to research how subordinates mobilize explicit local roles in the leadership process. This is not to say that position is no longer relevant in the leadership process. One could assume that formally appointed hierarchical leaders can mobilize rights and obligations based on their position; this topic, however, goes beyond the scope of this paper.

Conflation of chair and leadership

Although scholars argue that leadership is a relational phenomenon produced in the interaction between actors (Larsson and Lundholm, 2010; Uhl-Bien, 2006), there is a tendency to conflate the role of chair with leadership (Van De Mieroop, 2020). This conflation presents the peril of sliding between a positional and a processual perspective on leadership because there is the risk of focusing on what a person does rather than on what happens in the process. Conceptually distinguishing between chairing as the performance of a role and the leadership process as an interactional process allows a nuanced understanding of leadership dynamics. In other words, it makes it possible to reserve the concept of leadership for the interactional work.

Various scholars draw on acts of chairing a meeting to demonstrate leadership (Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009; Clifton, 2006). For example, Holm and Fairhurst (2018) argue that leadership is produced based on the actions inherent to the role of chair (e.g. opening/closing meetings and turn taking). Consequently, they assume that leadership is accomplished once a person has enacted the role of chair. In contrast, accessing my empirically situated data while keeping the conceptual separation of chair and formal leader in mind and analyzing the process in which this role is mobilized enables me to demonstrate how the chair was mobilized in the collaborative production of leadership but nonetheless did not intrinsically produce leadership. For example, in extract 2, the introduction of an exercise by the subordinate acting as chair is not innately leadership. The analysis of the two different extracts, however, illustrates how subordinates assigned with the explicit local role of meeting chair mobilize their deontic status, allowing them to influence their peers. In terms of the second contribution, the findings suggest that the explicit local roles assigned to the subordinates offer them a resource through which they can mobilize deontic status in a leadership process.

This adds to previous findings by Van de Mieroop (2020), who points to the fact that participation in the leadership process based on position should not be presumed. What is essential is that we as analysts carefully tend to the risk of a priori assuming deontic status in relation to, for example, being appointed chair. As Housley (1999: 2) argues, roles are “occasioned, locally ordered, situated, interactionally achieved resources” and, as such, assuming deontic status, could assume an a priori role that may or may not exist in the leadership process. Instead, it is of eminent importance that the analytical process follows a strict method in relation to member orientation (Garfinkel, 1967; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008; Schegloff, 2007b).

Enablers of collective virtual leadership

Scholars argue that leadership is important in a virtual context (Al-Ani et al., 2011; Arvedsen and Hassert, 2020), which is why enablers of collective leadership in virtual teams have received great attention (Eisenberg et al., 2016). Less attention has been paid, however, to explicit local team roles as enablers of leadership. Sharing and distributing roles might be considered as an enabler of collective leadership. Explicitly assigning a local role to a subordinate gives this person the possibility of mobilizing the deontic status offered by a given explicit local role to produce influence. As such, leadership emanating from a subordinate does more than facilitate the informal talk, which is otherwise suggested by, e.g., Al-ani et al. (2011). This study shows that the chair can be mobilized in fulfilling leadership functions, such as managing the understanding of the context (extract 1), or suggesting new future directions (extract 2).

Conclusion

By separating the explicit local role from the hierarchical position in the analytical process, I have shed new light on the leadership configuration, shaping an understanding of the involvement of subordinates in the influence process as more structured than first assumed. Based on situated data from virtual meetings, I demonstrated that distributing an explicit local role, such as that of a meeting chair, to a subordinate allows the subordinate to mobilize the role as an interactional resource to explicitly, and in a structured manner, participate as influencers in the leadership process. Consequently, scholars must take it upon themselves to analytically address the leadership configuration based on this complexity by separating the explicit local role, such as that of chair, from position, and conduct research on the leadership configuration based on subordinates, the formal hierarchical leader and assigned explicit local roles.

In the call for increased research on the leadership configuration (Fairhurst et al., 2020), the implications of the findings in this study primarily point towards the necessity of conducting further research into explicit local roles within business meetings in general and virtual collaboration in particular, where the context challenges emergent and informal collaboration. Distributing explicit local roles to subordinates represents one possible way to enable collective leadership and has been shown to be remarkably relevant in the virtual context (Wang et al., 2014). In addition, the methodology used in this study made it possible to provide a more nuanced perspective of the leadership configuration. In line with Clifton (2019), I argue that analyzing situational data can widen the perspective on how collective leadership is discursively and multimodally constructed, both informally and in a structured way, but also more broadly as to how other organizational social phenomena are accomplished.

6 Article 3: Accomplishing leadership-in-interaction by mobilizing available information and communication technology objects in a virtual context

Authored by Lise Dahl Arvedsen and Liv Otto Hassert, (2020)
***Leadership* 16(5): 546–567**

Abstract

Leadership-in-interaction[1] is a somewhat underdeveloped area of research which to date has concentrated on talk-in-interaction to the detriment of other modalities. Consequently, this paper seeks to illustrate how social actors make use of different modalities to accomplish leadership, which we conceptualize as the creation of direction, alignment, and commitment. Through multimodal conversation analysis this paper explores interactions between actors in virtual contexts, a particularly interesting empirical setting as the context offers specific constraints on everyday workplace interaction. By zooming in on the interaction using transcripts of naturally occurring interaction, we find that the accomplishment of leadership, direction, alignment, and commitment, in a constrained virtual context can appear mundane. However, at the same time the accomplishment of leadership calls for the mobilization of several multimodal resources (both talk and information and communication technology objects). The analysis makes it evident that the actors mobilize objects to draw on their situated affordances, in the accomplishment of direction, alignment, and commitment. With a fine-grained analysis of naturally occurring data, we illustrate that leadership is a collective achievement. We also expand the understanding of leadership in practice, especially in virtual contexts, by demonstrating how actors utilize objects and verbal resources in the co-production of leadership.

[1] Contrary to the rest of this dissertation, leadership in interaction is in this article written with hyphen. As this article has been published this have not been altered. Aligning with Larsson (2017) and Clifton et al. (2020) this dissertation adheres to leadership in interaction without hyphen.

Introduction

In recent years, a significant part of the leadership field has developed from a leader-centric perspective (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014) towards a perspective in which leadership is increasingly understood as a process (Grint, 2005a) involving both leaders and followers (Uhl-Bien and Carsten, 2018) in the co-production of interpersonal influence (Larsson and Lundholm, 2010). However, despite the leap that this field has taken, the number of studies informing us about how leadership is actually accomplished in everyday workplace interaction is quite limited (Larsson, 2017). The few studies that do exist demonstrate for example how leadership enables and facilitates organizing processes (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013), how leadership plays an important role in organizational and strategic change processes through categorization practices (Whittle et al., 2015), and how co-leaders successfully negotiate both the achievement of the task at hand and the maintenance of a positive working relationship (Vine et al., 2008). This paper seeks to contribute to the growing number of studies attending to how leadership is accomplished in situ by exploring leadership-in-interaction in virtual meetings which, for many, has become a mundane aspect of their everyday workplace environment.

Virtual meetings are a particularly interesting empirical setting. This is because the context offers specific constraints on everyday workplace interaction, participants in virtual meetings are geographically distributed, and they interact and work together through information and communication technology (ICT) (Gilson et al., 2015). Although ICT makes it possible to work in this way, virtual environments are said to be challenging settings (Heath et al., 2000). Being geographically distributed, actors cannot use their bodies to communicate, nor do they have the same access to objects such as whiteboards and at times technical challenges can disrupt an entire meeting (Laitinen and Valo, 2018). Nonetheless, research in virtual interaction shows that ICT is important for virtual team collaboration (Duranti and de Almeida, 2012). It supports the creation of trust in virtual teams (Kauffmann and Carmi, 2014), and, with the right use, ICT can have a positive effect on team performance (Malhotra and Majchrzak, 2014).

Recently, the field of leadership research has begun to explore connections between materiality and the accomplishment of leadership (Pullen and Vachhani, 2013). Furthering this line of research, which considers leadership in relation to material surroundings, objects, and bodies, the virtual context is particularly interesting to explore. This is because, as previous research has shown, actors within a virtual context are highly dependent on ICT objects (Gilson et al., 2015;

Malhotra and Majchrzak, 2014). To fully explore such a setting, we need to differentiate between objects such as desks and whiteboards and ICT objects such as software programs (e.g. PowerPoint). ICT objects can be observed and controlled from various locations, depending on technological access such as screen sharing or sharing of control of the software. As these ICT objects are predominantly the ones that participants draw on in business meetings, we therefore focus on their use.

We are curious to understand leadership-in-interaction, and how leadership is actually accomplished in everyday workplace interaction. In this case, we find the empirical setting of virtual meetings particularly interesting, as the context in itself has some interactional constraints (Heath et al., 2000) that highlight the importance of ICT objects. Therefore, in this paper, we particularly focus on two types of resources available for interaction, namely talk and the use of ICT objects. We are interested in how actors mobilize ICT objects that are available to them in their virtual contexts, and how these actions, combined with talk, shape the interaction and accomplish leadership.

The paper is divided into four sections. First, we provide a literature review which addresses both prior work on leadership-in-interaction and materiality and objects. We relate this literature to current understandings of constraints within virtual contexts. Second, in the methodological section, we introduce multimodal conversation analysis (multimodal CA), describe our analytical process, and present our data. Third, we then present the analysis of our selected extracts, illustrating how leadership-in-interaction is accomplished by mobilizing available ICT objects in a virtual context. Finally, we discuss the theoretical implications of the findings of our analyses, present our conclusions, provide suggestions for further research, discuss implications for practitioners, and discuss the limitations of our study.

Literature review

Several concepts are of interest in this paper: leadership-in-interaction, virtual interaction, and ICT objects. First, as we will argue, leadership-in-interaction is of increasing interest to leadership research. Such an approach to leadership offers a lens to zoom in on what is actually taking place. Second, a place in which interaction often unfolds in organizations, is that of business meetings (Boden, 1994), which are becoming increasingly digitalized (Oshima and Asmuß, 2018). The virtual meeting is therefore an interesting empirical context, which is relevant for practitioners as well as scholars. In this setting, interaction is carried out with the support of ICT objects, which gives us the opportunity to visit the literature within the fields of both leadership and materiality. This invites us to divide this coming section into three different parts: leadership, materiality and objects, and finally, virtual interaction.

Leadership

Within leadership studies, scholars are increasingly focusing on the situated accomplishment of leadership ((Uhl-Bien, 2006), where leadership is defined as a process (Grint, 2005a) involving both leaders and followers (Uhl-Bien and Carsten, 2018) in the co-production of interpersonal influence (Larsson and Lundholm, 2010). This has prompted scholars to discuss how leadership can be understood as a collective phenomenon. Based on a significant literature review of contemporary leadership literature, Denis et al. (2012) present four different streams of leadership literature, which all, in one way or the other, address a distributed and collective approach to leadership. In one stream, they categorize studies which focus on the interactional accomplishment of leadership. Here, they point to the increased attention to discursive approaches to leadership (Fairhurst, 2008). Scholars argue that words are best understood as actions (Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014). Consequently, they focus on interaction, arguing that leadership is to be understood as accomplished within interaction (Clifton, 2006; Larsson, 2017). Using interactional data to "locate leadership in everyday organizational practice" (Larsson, 2017: 173), some scholars have begun to uncover the fine-grained interactional details of the leadership process (Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Svennevig, 2008). However, this still remains a somewhat underdeveloped area of research.

Uncovering the fine-grained interactional details of the leadership process calls for a narrow definition of what we are looking for. Smircich and Morgan (1982: 258) argue that "(l)eadership lies in large part in generating a point of reference, against which a feeling of organizing and direction can emerge". Similarly, Crevani (2018: 88) argues that the production of direction is a central aspect of leadership work and that this offers a narrower definition of leadership than "influence process". Denis et al. (2012) specifically point to the conceptual article on direction, alignment, and commitment (DAC) by Drath et al. (2008), which centers their model around outcomes. Focusing on outcomes allows them to argue that by accomplishing DAC, we have an indication that leadership has been accomplished. Further, in line with a collective processual understanding of leadership, Drath et al.'s (2008) focus on outcome, provides an ontological understanding of leadership, which implies that leadership can be produced in many different actor constellations (Drath et al., 2008). In other words, from this perspective, leadership is not a matter of a leader's skills or of one person influencing others; rather it is a matter of the collaborative accomplishment of DAC.

A key point in this theoretical turn within leadership studies is that leadership is no longer attributed to one single person. Rather, leadership is accomplished collaboratively. As such, some leadership scholars are turning towards the role of materiality in this process of accomplishing leadership. Some scholars argue that the body is a part of accomplishing leadership (Ladkin, 2013; Pullen and Vachhani, 2013), while others point to the fact that artifacts and objects can be a part of the leadership process (Hawkins, 2015; Ropo et al., 2013). In short, as Grint (2005a: 2) noted

> leadership is essentially hybrid in nature – it comprises humans, clothes, adornments, cultures, rules and so on and so forth. There are, in effect, almost no cases of successful human leadership bereft of any 'non-human' supplement – that is naked.

In this paper, we treat leadership as an interactional phenomenon. The DAC model by Drath et al. (2008) highlights the role of talk and interaction. Attending to the role of talk and interaction makes mundane interaction a primary empirical focus. In this way, we can extend the DAC model by delving deeper into naturally occurring interactional data. Thus, to operationalize the notion of leadership within interaction, we draw on Drath et al. (2008) and argue that leadership is accomplished within the interaction through a co-production of DAC. Drawing on Drath et al.'s (2008) leadership ontology allows for a nuanced, yet focused, understanding of leadership, and allows us to explore the situated accomplishments and possible variations of DAC in virtual contexts.

Materiality and objects

Before turning to studies of virtual contexts, we turn our attention to how objects and materiality have been considered in relation to leadership more generally.

In the aftermath of the linguistic turn within leadership studies, some scholars have recently argued that leadership studies should not merely focus on discursive aspects, but they should also attend to the material environment in which leadership is achieved (Fairhurst, 2009; Oborn et al., 2013; Putnam, 2015). This shift implies a need for a more multimodal approach to understanding the accomplishment of leadership (Pullen and Vachhani, 2013; Ropo and Salovaara, 2019). Consequently, there has been a proliferation of leadership studies which explore the relation between materiality and leadership. These studies address, inter alia, how such things as surroundings, objects, and bodies are, in different ways, part of the accomplishment of leadership. This is for example seen in relation to space (Pöyhönen, 2018; Ropo et al., 2013), embodiment (Fisher and Robbins, 2015; Pullen and Vachhani, 2013), felt experience and esthetic (Ladkin, 2013; Ropo and Salovaara, 2019), and objects (Hawkins, 2015; Oborn et al., 2013).

Several of these studies consider that objects have agency and "produce and enable certain actions and behaviors" (Ropo et al., 2013: 379). Most research within this strand of leadership literature draws on theoretical perspectives such as actor-network theory (Bencherki, 2017) and sociomateriality (Orlikowski, 2007). Another line of research within organizational studies addresses the role of objects within the interaction (Streeck et al., 2011). However, this research does not assume that objects have agency, rather it is the social actor's use of objects that is of interest. Mortensen (2012) refers to this line of research as the "interactional perspective". Within this perspective, it is understood that a range of modalities might matter, but only when oriented to as interactionally relevant by the actors (Mortensen, 2012). Multimodalities are often understood as verbal and non-verbal communication (Deppermann, 2013). In more recent research, however, all aspects such as talk, body, objects, and context are included in the definition (Oshima and Asmuß, 2018). Streeck et al. (2011) argue that individuals have a set of semiotic resources, which in themselves are partial and incomplete. However, when gathered in local contexts of action, these resources "create a whole that is both greater than, and different from, any of its constituent parts" (Streeck et al., 2011: 2). Thus, studies taking what Mortensen (2012) refers to as an interactional perspective focus on the social aspect of leadership and the agency of actors, not objects. In other words, objects "are not things which impose themselves upon humans' actions ... But they do set limits on what it is possible to do with, around, or via the artefact" (Hutchby, 2001: 453).

Few leadership studies, with perhaps the exception of Van de Mieroop et al. (2020), attend to the fine-grained interactional details of the leadership process. Through close analysis of interactional data, Van de Mieroop et al. (2020) show that leadership is negotiated in subtle ways through talk, gaze, the use of space, artifacts, and so on. Further, although not studying objects as such, Meschitti (2019: 17) argues that "(i)ndexicality and the negotiation around objects (such as the formula on the board) are also central in leadership work". Outside of the field of leadership, however, studies have demonstrated the relevance of focusing on objects in terms of understanding social phenomena such as sense-making (Mondada, 2011), coordination (LeBaron et al., 2016), or strategizing (Samra-Fredericks, 2010). However, despite the fact that there is an increasing interest in the way in which leadership is enacted in interaction, few studies combine what Mortensen (2012) refers to as the interactional perspective with studying how actors put objects to use in the accomplishment of leadership. This illustrates a gap in the leadership literature, which prompts us to investigate how objects might be of use in the accomplishment of leadership. Further, how leadership is accomplished in a virtual context, where interaction is only possible if mediated by technology, remains unexplored. In this context, actors face other conditions for using objects than in face-to-face contexts in their everyday work situation. This is why virtual interaction becomes interesting in regard to the accomplishment of leadership.

Virtual interaction

Returning to our empirical setting of virtual interaction, we are curious about how actors use ICT objects to accomplish leadership in a virtual context. Virtual interaction occurs when actors are geographically distributed and interact through ICT. Considering matters such as the reliance on technology, possible cultural differences, and geographic dispersion (Gilson et al., 2015), this type of interaction has been found to be challenging. Further, although ICT makes work interaction possible for geographically distributed teams (Klitmøller and Lauring, 2013), research has demonstrated that mediation with ICT in itself adds complexity to the accomplishments of social interaction (Heath et al., 2000). This is because, on account of the lack, or limited use, of body cues, gaze, delay in minimal response, and so on (Kangasharju, 1996; Oittinen, 2018), technological mediation restricts virtual interaction. This consequently complicates the co-production of meaningful interaction in virtual contexts.

In line with this, previous studies find that leadership is challenging in virtual teams (Al-Ani et al., 2011; Antonakis and Atwater, 2002; Purvanova and Bono, 2009). Nonetheless, studies also find that leadership has a significant role to play in overcoming the collaborative challenges within the virtual context (Avolio et al., 2014; Gilson et al., 2015). Yet, despite these claims, no study to date has engaged with naturally occurring data of virtual interaction, to shed light on how leadership is accomplished as part of everyday workplace practice.

In this empirical context, actors use ICT objects, such as Teams, Skype, PowerPoint, and so on to collaborate. In this paper, we seek to understand how actors make use of ICT objects that are available to them to accomplish leadership within the interactionally constrained virtual context. Consequently, we find it highly relevant to explore how ICT objects can be mobilized in the accomplishment of leadership, understood as the co-creation of DAC. In doing so, we hope to fill the gap in understanding how actors mobilize both material and discursive resources in their virtual contexts to accomplish leadership. This prompts the following research question: 'Looking at interaction within a virtual context, how do actors use both talk and ICT objects to accomplish leadership understood as the co-production of DAC?'

Data and method

Conversation Analysis

CA is an established method used to study how actors accomplish coordinated, meaningful actions (Sacks et al., 1974; Sacks, 1992; Schegloff, 2007b) and how actors, through closely coordinated interactional actions, co-produce meaning (intersubjectivity) in situ (Mondada, 2011). A growing number of studies draw on CA to explore organizational contexts and by connecting to organizational research, these studies expand our knowledge about phenomena such as routines (LeBaron et al., 2016) and strategy planning (Samra-Fredericks, 2003, 2010). Within leadership studies, we have seen this method in use by, for example: Larsson and Lundholm (2013) who explore the organizing properties of leadership in workplace interactions, Svennevig (2008) who explores leadership conversations, and Clifton (2019) who provides a case study which illustrates how CA can make visible, and thus analyzable, how leaderships is "done" in situ. These studies, among others, illustrate how leadership is interactionally achieved through an array of seemingly small, yet closely coordinated actions, such as requests, questions, assessments, and so on. Compared to more traditional methodological approaches on leadership, for example interviews or surveys, this approach thus provides us with an understanding of what is actually going on in mundane everyday workplace interaction in which leadership is supposedly accomplished.

Central to CA is the notion of co-production and intersubjectivity (i.e. a "socially shared grasp of the talk and the other conduct in the interaction" (Schegloff, 1992: 1301)). Goodwin (2000: 1491) stresses that the

> accomplishment of social action requires that not only the party producing an action, but also that others present, such as its addressee, be able to systematically recognize the shape and character of what is occurring.

Whether the addressee is able to recognize the given action, and thus achieve intersubjectivity, will be observable in the utterance the addressee responds with. This could be, for example, displaying recognition of a turn as a request and accepting or rejecting it in an adjacent turn (Sacks, 1992). In that way, the situated co-production of intersubjectivity is made observable to the speakers as well as to the analysts. This intersubjectivity is accomplished through the sequential organization of talk (Schegloff, 1992). In other words, "through their talk, speakers can display aspects of their understanding of prior talk" (Schegloff, 1992: 1300).

The multimodal turn

As with the increasing focus on material aspects within organizational research, the number of CA studies taking a multimodal approach has proliferated in recent years, moving CA from being a method concerned primarily with talk, to one addressing all relevant modalities. Multimodal CA studies demonstrate the way in which talk as well as non-verbal actions (including body movements), objects, and contingencies of the surroundings influence the interaction. One of the pioneers of the multimodal approach, Goodwin (1994), demonstrated how professionals through the use of objects accomplished a shared understanding which enabled the progression of the work. Building on this work, more recent studies such as

Deppermann (2013) and Mondada (2011, 2016) demonstrate the intricate relationship between different modalities in interactions. Studies such as these underline the importance of attending to multimodality when exploring social interaction and social phenomena. Particularly relevant for this paper, are studies that explore multimodal aspects of the accomplishment of workplace activities in, for example, medical environments (LeBaron et al., 2016; Mondada, 2007b), the transport industry (Nevile, 2007; Nevile and Wagner, 2016), and corporate meetings (Mortensen, 2013; Mortensen and Lundsgaard, 2011; Oittinen, 2018; Oshima and Asmuß, 2018). Finally, we draw on the study by Van de Mieroop et al. (2020), which is, to date, the only study which combines leadership and multimodal CA.

In line with CA's emic approach, multimodal CA studies consider all modalities made relevant by the participants in interaction, while recognizing that no modality is to be attributed a priori analytical significance. Consequently, various modalities can be significant in interaction, if made relevant by the actors. One way to explore the use of objects in social interaction is by drawing on the notion of affordances. Originally presented by Gibson (1979), Hutchby (2001: 444) describes affordances as "functional and relational aspects which frame, while not determining, the possibilities for agentic action in relation to an object"; that is, affordances are functional in the sense that they enable, and constrain specific activities. In a study of technological affordances of online interactions, Meredith (2017) argues that the notion of affordances is particularly relevant when analyzing technology. This is because affordances are not static features of an object, rather the affordance depends entirely upon the relationship between the actor and the object, or as she writes: "The concept of affordances allows for the possibility that the practices of online interaction are not determined by the technology, but rather by how an actor uses that technology" (Meredith, 2017: 43).

Aligning with Hutchby (2001), we apply the notion of affordances as an analytical tool, which helps our exploration of how objects are mobilized in social interaction. In doing so we are not assuming that objects have agency, nor that they are completely open to interpretation (Hutchby, 2001); rather, objects gain observable meaning through their use by actors, which is restricted by the affordances of the given objects as well as the actors' ability to make use of the object. Multimodal CA studies have, by drawing on the notion of affordances, demonstrated how the affordances of different objects (e.g. technologies, media, post-its, etc.) enable actors to co-produce meaning and how the objects are resources for the accomplishment of (both online and offline) interactions (Due, 2015; Meredith, 2017; Tudini, 2019) and work-related activities (Mortensen, 2013; Mortensen and Lundsgaard, 2011).

Thus, in this paper, we apply a multimodal conversation analytic approach in order to explore the multimodal resources that actors use to produce DAC, and thus leadership, within virtual interaction. Whereas much previous multimodal CA research as well as studies of leadership-in-interaction have been primarily concerned with contexts in which the actors interact within the same spatial, temporal, and material surroundings, this study considers how leadership-in-interaction is accomplished in settings where the presence of ICT objects in a virtual environment offers the participants different affordances for action.

Data

The data for this paper are extracts from a large corpus of video- and audio-recorded conference calls (e.g. Skype, WebEx, etc.) from 23 different teams in six different companies, comprising 110 h of recordings[2]. The companies come from industries such as IT, engineering, oil and gas, consulting, and food & beverages. The meetings were audio recorded and when possible video recorded. In most of the video recordings, it was the screen and not the participants that was recorded, that is, what the meeting participants themselves had visual access to during the meeting.

Following the data collection for this study, the recordings were repeatedly listened to, and based on an abductive approach (Svennevig, 2001), examples which could be related to DAC were found. These extracts were then rigorously transcribed according to the Jeffersonian system (Jefferson, 2004), and a data-driven analysis based on the principles of CA was carried out. CA emphasizes the importance of carrying out a detailed case-by-case analysis "to make an accountable decision that it is indeed a case of the phenomenon one is looking for" (ten Have, 2007: 162).

[2] The amount of data in this article deviates from what is described in this dissertation's chapter on methodology, as this is the accumulated data from both Hassert's Ph.D. project and this dissertation.

Analysis

The analysis uses multimodal CA to explore interactions between actors in a virtual context, focusing on how the actors utilize ICT objects and verbal resources to co-produce DAC, and thus accomplish leadership (Drath et al., 2008). Contrary to Drath et al. (2008), who propose two central aspects of the DAC-ontology, namely leadership beliefs and leadership practices, we will, in this study, not attend to the beliefs as such nor trace patterns of practices. Rather, we will zoom in on the unfolding of situated practices that demonstrate the accomplishment of leadership-in-interaction.

In the analysis, two extracts will be presented to illustrate the interactional complexities of accomplishing leadership within a virtual context. The analysis of the extracts will, in different ways, demonstrate how the actors, both team managers and team members, orient to the available ICT objects and use the affordances of these to align with an understanding of the current work situation. Further, the analyses will illustrate how the actors build on alignment and use the ICT objects to produce direction for the ongoing work. In other words, we illustrate how meeting participants agree on an intersubjective version of what is going on, and based on that agree on future action. Additionally, through their engagement in both the present work and their focus on the future, it will be argued that the actors produce a commitment to the work at hand. In both extracts, all meeting participants can see the ICT objects (i.e. a Kanban board and PowerPoint slides). However, in the first extract, only the team manager can modify the Kanban board, and in the second extract, only one particular team member can modify the PowerPoint slides.

Extract 1: accomplishing DAC with team manager in control of ICT object

Extract 1 is taken from an IT project team's virtual meeting. The core team consists of eight people who are all participating in the meeting. Five people, including the project manager, are in Denmark, one person is located in the UK, and two are calling from India (see Figure 7).

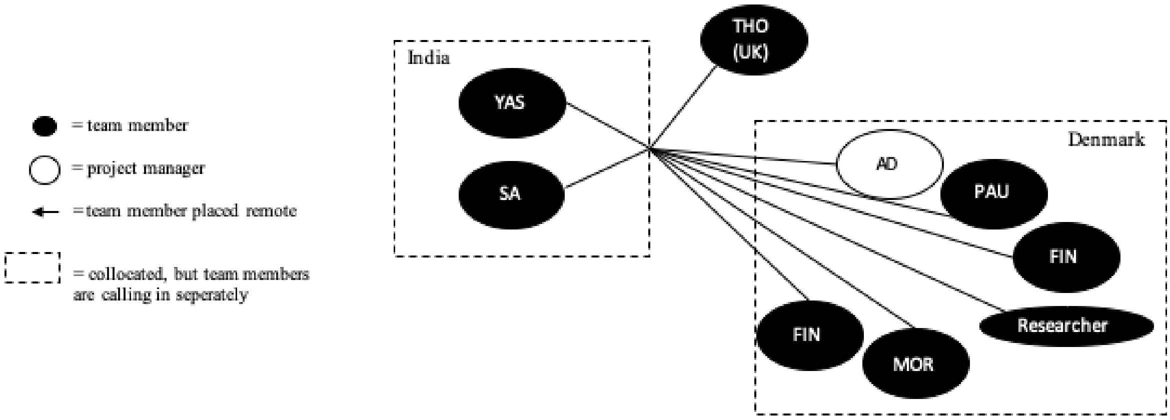

Figure 7: Seating plan of the virtual IT project team

In the extract analyzed below, the project manager (AD) and a project team member (SA) are talking about the status of a project. AD is located in Denmark and SA in India. In the meeting, the project team uses a virtual Kanban board, a workflow visualization tool, which offers an overview of the different project activities (see Figure 8). The virtual board is visible to all the meeting participants through screen sharing, but AD is the only person who can manipulate what appears on the screen/Kanban board.

Figure 8: Screenshot of the Kanban board

Extract 1: Identifying and deciding direction with the affordance of the Kanban board

```
1   AD:    okay (1.0) lets take a look at the board then development work
2          starting with the production support e s b↑ services
3          (1.0)
4   SA:    yeah adam this is regarding the ( ) commitment card ⌈(        ) so⌉
5   AD:                                                        ⌊((cursor
6          starts to move))⌋
7   SA:    ⌈pradeep⌉ has started regression testing on that
8          ⌊((cursor moves to second card in first row))⌋
9          (1.0)
10  SA:    ⌈eh⌉ (.) so once we see the outcome then no tha- ⌈thats the⌉ first
card
11  AD:    ⌊((moves cursor from one card to another)) ⌋
12  AD:                                                    ⌊((moves cursor
13         back to the initial card))⌋
14  SA:    in the eh:: (.) (ell) yeah
15  AD:    ⌈this one⌉.
16  AD:    ⌊((clicks and new window opens) ⌋
17  SA:    ⌊yeah⌋ that's the one (.) eh yes (.) so pradeep has started testing
on
18         that ⌈(.) (we are identical ) (  ) (discuss) with pradeep he has
19  SA:    nothing⌉
20  AD:         ⌊((scrolls down in text field on pop-up window)) ⌋
21  SA:    and now today he has started testing on that
22  AD:    okay
```

```
      ((background noise))
      ⌈(5.0) ⌉
AD:   ⌊((closes pop-up window))⌋
      (0.5)
AD:   good (.) should this be moved into the ↑test column then or::
      (3.0)
SA:   e:h yes actually we have already done the code so yeah we can move
      it ⌈to eh test column⌉
AD:      ⌊((moves card to column named Test Cycle)) ⌋
```

In line 1, the project manager AD puts forward a proposal for the next action (Oshima and Asmuß, 2018), in this case what they are to talk about now. By mentioning “production support e s b services” he calls attention to a specific topic (also a headline on the board), and thereby uses the ICT object, the virtual Kanban board, as a means of directing the conversation, much like an agenda (Asmuß and Svennevig, 2009). SA then initiates his turn in line 4 with a response token “yeah”, accepting the suggested topic, and mentions the “commitment card”. Through this action, he demonstrates that he knows which specific card (and the work it represents) is relevant in relation to the topic.

When SA mentions the card, AD starts to move the cursor (line 5). AD continues to move the cursor around on the board, simultaneously with SA sharing information. In line 10, it becomes observable that SA orients towards the movement of the cursor, while he is speaking, as he produces a repair initiator which corrects AD’s movement (“no tha- that’s the first card”). It is thus apparent that SA orients to AD’s cursor movements on the board as a non-verbal demonstration of a lack of clarity as to which card SA is referring to, or in other words, it is a way of assuring intersubjectivity (Schegloff, 1992). The movements are in that way treated as a “search for the right card”. As a response to SA’s repair initiator, AD moves the cursor back to the initial card (line 12), and thereby the cursor embodies AD’s pointing to the card, which becomes observable in the next turn. Thus, in line 14, when AD’s cursor is placed on the initial card, SA finishes his turn with a simple token of agreement: “yeah” (Schegloff, 2007b). AD then asks “this one” (line 15), in which he asks for verbal confirmation that he has located the right card, which is then confirmed by SA in the next turn (line 17). Here, it is apparent that the different modalities, both talk and the mobilization of the ICT object, are simultaneously at play and are influencing not only the sequential unfolding of the interaction, but also the accomplishment of the workplace activity. The ICT objects, the Kanban board and the cursor, which are visible to all the meeting participants, but only controlled by AD, are functioning as means of producing a shared understanding of the status of the work.

Having successfully located the card, AD clicks on the card, which opens a pop-up window with additional information (line 16). Simultaneously with this, SA continues his explanation from line 7 (lines 17–21). AD then starts scrolling down (line 20), as if reading the text in the box. These dual actions unfold without problem. In line 25, AD closes the window and then asks if the card should be moved to the “test column” (line 27) (which is another area on the virtual Kanban board). SA responds affirmatively in lines 29–30, also producing an account for the confirmation. AD then uses the cursor to move the card to the test column, thus making it visible that a project activity has now moved into a new phase. By coordinating talk and the available ICT objects, the actors display that they align with the activity’s status and are able to move the specific task into a new phase, thus producing the direction for that specific work activity and making it visible for all participants. In other words, through their actions, the actors orient towards the board as a relevant tool for accomplishing intersubjectivity in this virtual context.

The production of a shared intersubjective understanding and new direction is here accomplished using the affordances of the ICT objects. In this case, the affordances lie in the fact that the cursor points to the cards on a virtual Kanban board, while the Kanban board itself allows the participants to visualize the project, and the organization of work-related tasks (by moving the cards around the board). Although not all the participants control the ICT object, they coordinate and repair this through talk. As Hutchby (2001: 450) concludes:

> When people interact through, around or with technologies, it is necessary for them to find ways of managing the constraints on their possibilities for action that emerge from those artifacts’ affordances.

In this extract, we see how SA is constrained in terms of accessing and modifying the Kanban board himself, but he manages this through talk. It is apparent in this extract that the ICT objects are not steering the talk, but their affordances are used to smoothly coordinate the talk and produce an intersubjective understanding of what is going on and what will happen next in the project (i.e. DAC).

Considering the analysis in the light of Drath et al.'s (2008) notion of DAC, it becomes possible to understand what is occurring here as leadership. The actors use the affordances of the ICT objects, in this case the cursor and the Kanban board, to align their understanding of the current state of the project and to produce direction for, and commitment to, the future state of the project activity. More precisely, the analysis illustrates how the ICT objects are deployed by the actors as a resource to visualize an intersubjective understanding of the "here and now" work status. Upon this alignment, they then collectively agree on what the relevant next actions are, producing direction. In terms of commitment, by displaying detailed knowledge about the work at hand, the actors in this extract demonstrate an active involvement in the ongoing work. Further, by engaging in this meeting, where they observably report on the status of the work and plan how to proceed with the project, they make a commitment to continue the work. Thus, drawing on the DAC-notion of leadership, the analysis shows the interactional production and presence of alignment, direction, and commitment, which in Drath et al.'s (2008: 63) words "marks the occurrence of leadership".

Extract 2: accomplishing DAC with team member in control of ICT object

Extract 2 is taken from a financial team's meeting. Nine people are participating in this meeting (see Figure 9). Three people are in the same location in Denmark, one is calling in from another place in Denmark, two are calling from two different places in Finland (SAN and MAK), one is calling in from Germany (ASH), one is calling in from India, and the team manager (JAK) is calling from UK.

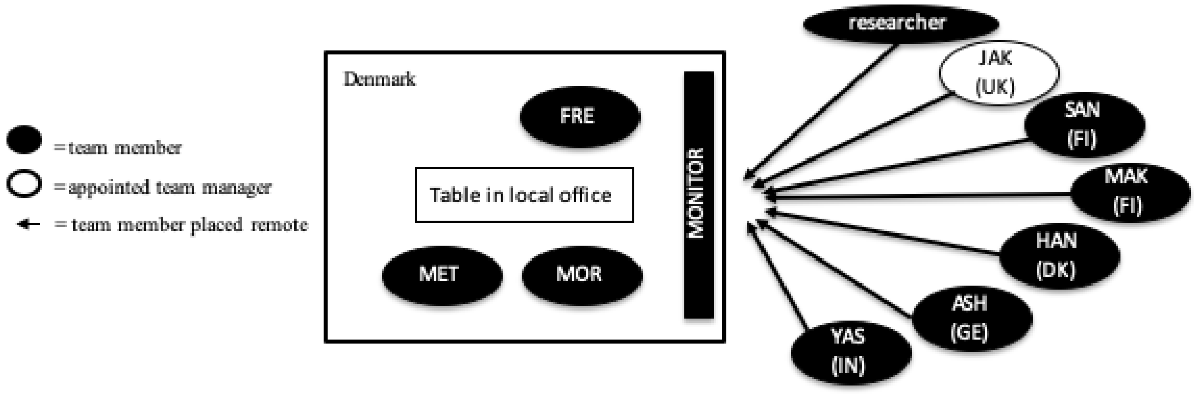

Figure 9: Seating plan of the financial virtual team

The purpose of the meeting is to evaluate the previous year's budgeting process and to improve the process for the coming year. A team member, SAN, who has been appointed facilitator of this evaluation process, has prepared a PowerPoint presentation with questions and headings and space to register comments (see Figure 10). Through screen sharing, the presentation is visible to all participants in the meeting. However, the editing is only accessible to SAN.

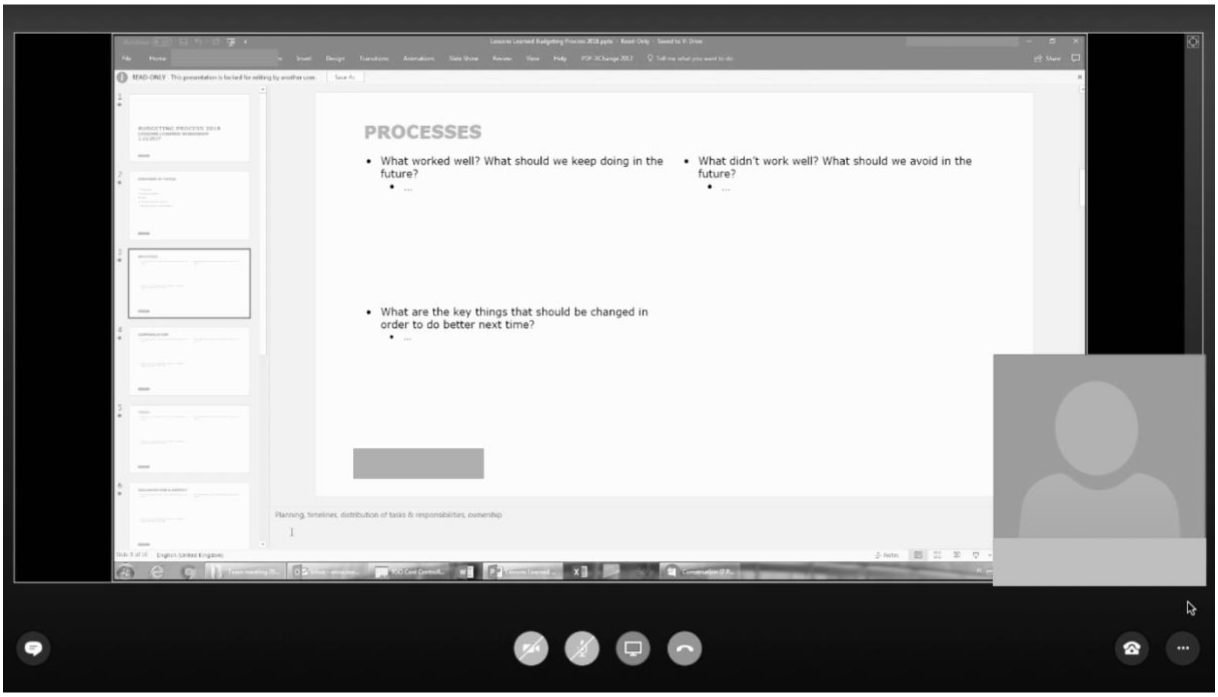

Figure 10: Screenshot of the PowerPoint slide

Extract 2:

```
*ASH:  but they also have initial in this part
*JAK:  ⌊ ((unintelligible))⌋
*ASH:  ⌊being able          ⌋ internally to:: to figure out what their
       targets are what they their goals are and what (.) what what what
       ↑clear tasks do they have to reach (.) eh within the next year
       because it ⌈was⌉ ⌊one⌋ of the challenges with doing this budget was
*JAK:             ⌈mm ⌉ ⌊mm ⌋
*ASH:  to< (.) (pull) out from them  eh: ⌈reliable data⌉
*SAN:                                    ⌊((types "stakeholders")) ⌋
*ASY:  consolidated between them so that i can get (.) ⌈disregarded⌉
*SAN:                                                  ⌊((types "not
       clear on what their goals are"))⌋
       whether i ask (.) eh: ↑lucas or: ↑peter or: ↑william i would
       nee- want to have one and the same answer for one question ⌈where⌉
*JAK:                                                             ⌊mm    ⌋
*ASH:             else
```

In lines 1–4, ASH states that their stakeholders should "figure out" their targets, indicating that this is not the case currently. This report of a problem is met with minimal response by JAK, the team manager (line 7), and this functions as a continuer (Schegloff, 2007b) and a token of weak agreement (Kangasharju, 1996). As ASH continues, she accounts for why the stakeholders should know their targets (line 8). SAN starts typing (line 9) in a PowerPoint slide titled "Process" under the subheading "What didn't work well/what should be avoided in the future". She types "stakeholders not clear on what their goals are". Thus, in overlap with ASH, SAN produces a formulation of the gist of the talk which as Heritage and Watson (1979: 130) argue constitute clarifies, or demonstrates an understanding of prior talk which fixes the meaning of the talk and so, unless challenged, provides an intersubjective understanding of what is going on in the organization. Usually in meetings, a chair produces a formulation (Barnes, 2007) to summarize central points, but here the ICT object is used in the same way as SAN materializes ASH's comment, rather than verbalizing it. Without commenting on it or in any way responding to what has been typed, ASH continues to elaborate on what she finds to be challenging (lines 13–14) to which JAK produces minimal response. According to Heritage and Watson (1979), disagreement to a formulation would be appropriately uttered soon after the actual formulation. Silence, in this case, thus displays affiliation with the formulation that the stakeholders are not clear of their goals (Steensig, 2013). ASH, through her verbal contribution, and SAN, through her control of the ICT object (i.e. PowerPoint), thus co-produce a shared point of reference. Here, the use of the ICT object supports the work at hand, namely the evaluation of the budgeting process, as well as the production of a shared understanding of the current situation and requirements for the future.

In terms of affordances, the screen sharing of the ICT object, in this case the PowerPoint slide, gives the actors participating in the meeting an opportunity to view the slides and read what has been pre-written on them as well as the text being written during the meeting. As SAN controls the PowerPoint, it further gives her the opportunity to write and rewrite points. Thus, the affordances of the ICT object make the discussion points (pre-written on the slide) relevant as agenda points. This is because typing text into the PowerPoint, simultaneously with the talk, summarizes and visualizes central points. In that way, the ICT object is used by the actors as a resource for managing the talk and for creating an intersubjective understanding of what took place in budgeting process.

Considering the above in terms of DAC, it is clear that the talk and the ICT object are first used to create a shared and visualized understanding of the status of the work. Through the verbal contributions, non-verbal actions (writing on the board), and silence, the meeting participants co-produce alignment (i.e. an intersubjective agreement with what is going on the organization and what needs to be done). Simultaneously, due to the nature of the talk, which is concerned with how to make adjustments in future processes, the actors are constituting the team's future activities. As with the first extract, the actors, through their talk and use of the ICT object, demonstrate a commitment to the work and display agreement on how to carry on with the work beyond the meeting. They, thus, also display that they are committed to the work in the future.

This can be seen as the production of commitment which is a consequence of the alignment and direction.

The analysis of this extract illustrates that accomplishing leadership is not dependent on the participation of the formally appointed leader but can be carried out by team members. In contrast to the first extract, the team manager in extract 2 only contributes to the production of DAC through minimal responses. Drath et al. (2008) suggest that leadership within a DAC-ontology is not restricted to leader–follower interaction but encompasses a variety of constellations, and that DAC can take various forms. The analysis of this extract illustrates this, namely that the production of DAC is not necessarily tied to a formal leader role, but can, given that the relevant resources available, be co-produced by other actors. Thus, our findings support Drath et al. (2008: 642) who state that "leadership has been enacted and exists wherever and whenever one finds a collective exhibiting direction, alignment, and commitment". Further, although this extract illustrates that the production of leadership is a collective accomplishment, it is also shown that the actors, considering the constraints of the virtual context, have differentiated access in terms of influencing the production of DAC. While SAN has control of the object and can thus contribute verbally and visually, the others are limited to using verbal communication. In this case, the object is used to summarize what is said by others. The use of the PowerPoint slides thus produces a formulation (Barnes, 2007), which Clifton (2006) argued, is one way of "doing" leadership. This is because it produces shared meaning (alignment) and outlines what comes next (direction).

In sum, the analyses of these two extracts, in different ways, illustrate the interactional accomplishment of leadership in a virtual context and how leadership, understood as DAC, is accomplished through the use of multimodal resources. Further, the two extracts illustrate how the use and control of ICT objects influence not only the sequential unfolding of the interaction, but more interestingly in this context, the situated accomplishment of leadership.

It could be argued, that accomplishing DAC could be done without the ICT objects used in the two above presented extracts. However, in this interactionally constrained virtual context, this would have placed other demands and constraints on the interactions, and hence would have called for a significant amount of interactional work, where the participants would need to actively seek alignment in another way. Further, considering that the actors have chosen to use these ICT objects suggests that they orient to a need for this in order to accomplish the work at hand in the most efficient way (Streeck et al., 2011). Thus, it seems that the actors make use of these ICT objects in virtual interactions to overcome some of the challenges of the particular context.

Discussions and conclusions

Returning to our research question: how do actors use both talk and ICT objects to accomplish leadership understood as the co-production of DAC? In the analysis of extract 1, we see that leadership is collaboratively achieved not only through sequences of talk but also through the use of objects such as the movement of a cursor on the Kanban board. Talk combined with the use of objects thus ensures an intersubjective understanding of what is going on in the organization and so paves the way for commitment to a future direction and thus accomplishes leadership. Similarly, in extract 2, we see that it is talk in the form of formulations and the materialization of such talk on a PowerPoint slide that accomplishes leadership by formulating an intersubjective understanding of the current state of affairs in the organization which leads to commitment to a future course of action and so accomplishes leadership. Broadly speaking, the analysis of the extracts thus illustrates how both team members and team managers can use ICT objects in their virtual context in the co-production of DAC and thus in their accomplishment of leadership. More specifically, considering the analytical findings, this paper offers four central contributions to leadership research, notably it illustrates how leadership can be achieved in virtual interaction, provides empirical evidence of how DAC is realized in interaction, demonstrates that, contrary to the findings of prior research, virtual settings are not treated as problematic for leadership, and offers insights into the accomplishment of leadership in virtual contexts that may be useful to practitioners.

First, our findings suggest that the accomplishment of leadership, DAC, in a constrained virtual context occurs as part of mundane meeting talk. However, although mundane, the setting is interactionally intricate and calls for the mobilization of several multimodal resources, as the actors observably mobilize objects to draw on their situated affordances, in the accomplishment of DAC. We illustrate how leadership is both a complex task, calling for significant interactional work by participants, but also that the leadership process is deeply integrated in the midst of the mundane work life. This paper makes a significant contribution that develops our understanding of how leadership-in-interaction can be accomplished and thus expands on previous work on leadership-in-interaction in everyday contexts (Clifton, 2014; Fairhurst and Connaughton, 2014; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013). In contrast, however, to existing studies of leadership and materiality (objects, space, place, bodies, etc.) which draw primarily on retrospective data such as interviews (Fisher and Robbins, 2015; Hawkins, 2015; Ropo and Salovaara, 2019), our study zooms in on the actual interaction taking place. This methodological approach reveals the significant amount of interactional work which has to be done to accomplish leadership. This study therefore aligns with previous studies that argue that objects can be put to use in the process of accomplishing leadership (as seen in e.g. Hawkins, 2015; Ropo et al., 2013). This study, however, further contributes to research on the multimodality of leadership by illustrating how the actors mobilize the objects to accomplish leadership, in this study understood as DAC. Specifically, we illustrate how actors mobilize the situated affordances of ICT objects to coordinate the talk and to achieve an intersubjective understanding of what is going on in the organization. This is achieved, for example, through pointing to specific cards (extract 1) or writing in specific boxes on a PowerPoint slide (extract 2). Further, the analysis shows how the ICT objects are used to materialize shared understandings of current and future states of work, through the movement of a card (extract 1) and through the uncontested writing on a slide (extract 2). The situated affordances of the ICT objects thus enable the actors to smoothly coordinate and align with a shared understanding of the current situation and to produce direction for their work, while simultaneously showing commitment to the work going forward. In short, this paper shows how actors can actively mobilize and use the situated affordances of the ICT objects available in a virtual context to accomplish leadership.

Second, by illustrating how DAC can be accomplished in practice, this paper expands on the theoretical leadership propositions of Drath et al. (2008). The findings of this paper supplement both the argument of Uhl-Bien and Carsten (2018), who argue that leadership is a process of co-production, and the argument by Drath et al. (2008), who suggest that leadership should be conceptualized as DAC, located in a variety of actor constellations. Further, we also illustrate that producing leadership in practice is not just a matter of one actor articulating direction and influencing others to follow that direction, rather leadership, perceived as DAC, is a co-production (Drath et al., 2008). Specifically, the analyses demonstrate how team members as well as formally appointed leaders are important actors in the accomplishment of leadership. Additionally, while the accomplishment of DAC is shown to be a co-production in which all actors in the interaction engage with either verbal, non-verbal, or object-based contributions, our findings indicate that actors with access to the ICT objects have a different and potentially more influential role in the production of DAC. In the first extract, the appointed team manager had access to the ICT objects, making the team manager a natural part of the production of leadership. In the second extract, however, this access was assigned to a team member, who was consequently entitled to produce a written formulation, summarizing what was being said and so she was instrumental in producing DAC, and so accomplishing leadership. As several scholars have pointed out (Clifton, 2006; Svennevig, 2008), producing such formulations is one way of doing leadership. Thus, this paper illustrates the co-production of leadership (Uhl-Bien and Carsten, 2018) and also how leadership is not necessarily a process of influence unfolding between formally appointed leaders and team members (Drath et al., 2008) but one in which the formally appointed leader may play a minimal role. Further, the findings suggest that access to, and control of, ICT objects may be consequential in regard to the situated production of DAC in virtual contexts.

Third, the findings of this paper contribute to the studies of virtual contexts which in the past have tended to associate such contexts with problems for the accomplishment of leadership (Al-Ani et al., 2011; Gilson et al., 2015). Zooming in on mundane everyday interaction, our study refutes the assumption that mediated communication is necessarily problematic for the accomplishment of leadership. In the analyses presented here, the participants orient to the unproblematic nature of the interaction. Although we cannot know how the interaction would have played out without the use of ICT objects, we do know that the actors chose to use these ICT objects, which suggests that they orient to a need for this in order to accomplish the work at hand in the most efficient way (Streeck et al., 2011). Some studies would argue that since only some of the participants had access to the ICT objects, this could be considered to be a constraint (Barrett and Oborn, 2010). Our analysis, however, shows that actors are able to use talk to repair this problem. This is for instance apparent in extract 1 in which the actors used talk to coordinate the use of the ICT object and where the ICT object simultaneously supported the production of shared understanding, or intersubjectivity, and DAC. Thus, our study illustrates that through using different modalities, such as talk and ICT objects, the accomplishment of virtual collaboration and leadership can be smoothly accomplished.

Fourth, the findings of this study are highly relevant for practitioners collaborating in the virtual context. Although, actors seemingly are already using ICT objects in their meetings, our findings suggest that actors can mobilize the ICT objects available to them in a strategic and planned fashion, mobilizing them in the production of DAC. Further, our findings could indicate that practitioners should pay attention to who has access to ICT objects. This is because variation in one's assigned access to ICT objects influences not only the interaction but also different actors' influence in the accomplishment of leadership. Moreover, our findings suggest that practitioners should not necessarily dread virtual collaboration, as it is evidently possible to accomplish fruitful interaction, although it is produced with the support of ICT objects.

Finally, we note that limitations for our paper relate to the complexity of the context. A large number of things can and do influence the production of leadership, matters which we have not treated in this paper. Our focus was limited to the ICT objects in the sense of technological tools such as PowerPoint and the cursor. Previous research indicates that communication tools in themselves (such as Skype) have an influence on the interaction. It also matters whether the communication tools allow for video interaction and how it works, as previous studies argue that media richness do have an influence on the interaction (Klitmøller and Lauring, 2013). Additionally, the number of people participating and the degree of virtuality in the meeting might also have an influence on the production of leadership (Gilson et al., 2015). In general, linking this study to the scarcity of research in leadership-in-interaction, the findings in this paper should be considered as groundwork for further analysis to enhance the understanding of leadership-in-interaction. We therefore recognize that there are many more aspects of leadership in virtual environments that could profitably be investigated, and we close this paper with a call for further studies into the achievement leadership-in-interaction in virtual contexts.

7 Discussion

This chapter is structured as follows: First, a short summary of the articles presented in the previous chapters; second, I present and discuss the theoretical contributions, the methodological contributions and finally, the practical contributions.

Resume of articles

The three articles presented in the previous chapters all relate to the processual accomplishment of leadership within a virtual context; more specifically, within virtual meetings. Although they all examine different aspects of leadership, they all lean on the understanding of leadership as an interpersonal influence process. By exploring and taking a micro-perspective on the interaction, it has been possible to illustrate how leadership unfolds within the mundane, everyday work-life taking place in a number of different organizations. More specifically, the three articles illustrate how different actors, both team managers and subordinates, engage in the leadership process as both influencer(s) and as influenced. To shortly sum up the three articles, the main conclusions are presented below.

Article 1, chapter 4: In the first article, I looked at how team identification is accomplished interactionally within a virtual context, and what role leadership in interaction had in this process. With my co-author, Magnus Larsson, I focused on the situated data of virtual meetings, to gain an understanding of how this identification process unfolded. We established that producing a shared team identity in a virtual context is challenging, because the virtual environment fosters subgroupings, which orient towards situated accomplished categories. This was produced through, for example, topics of relevance or use of local language. As such, we concluded that establishing a shared team identity calls for interactional work by both team manager and team members. Establishing a shared team identity is not an automatic process. First, we illustrated that leadership, in the sense of interpersonal influence processes, is essential in establishing a shared team identity. We found that leadership is, in this case, the collective production of relevant shared categories for team members to orient towards. Second, we showed that the role of the formally appointed hierarchical leader and the role of chair are both important roles for leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process, and the identification process to be accomplished.

Article 2, chapter 5: In the second article, I examined the notion of the leadership configuration. In a time when subordinates are increasingly recognized as contributors in the leadership process, as more than mere followers, understanding the configuration of leadership becomes crucial. Previous research argued for a dichotomous understanding of the leadership configuration, in the sense that it is a matter of establishing the right balance between a formally appointed hierarchical leader and more informal, emergent and collective leadership processes. Through situated data and a conversation analytical approach, I showed that assigning an explicit local role, such as that of chair, enables subordinates to mobilize the rights and obligations offered by this role, in the production of leadership. I therefore argued that the dichotomous understanding of the leadership configuration is too simplistic. Instead, the situated complexity found within the interaction can be adhered to by analytically separating explicitly assigned local roles, such as that of chair, from hierarchical positions. This further prompts an understanding of leadership as an interpersonal influence process, and as such, a social phenomenon. Recognizing both the influencer(s) and the influenced allows for an analytical focus in which leadership can be treated ontologically, as an interactional social phenomenon.

Article 3, chapter 6: In the third article, I looked at how leadership is accomplished in interactions by mobilizing available ICT objects. Together with my co-author, Liv Otto Hassert, I studied how actors used both talk and ICT objects to accomplish leadership in interaction within a virtual context. By drawing on multimodal CA, we unfolded how leadership is collaboratively achieved with the use of objects, and that accomplishing leadership within a virtual context calls for the use of several multimodal resources. Although we found that research previously had an a priori understanding of the virtual context as problematic, we illustrated that leadership in the virtual context is not necessarily problematic; on the contrary, with the right competencies to mobilize the ICT resources available in the virtual context, actors can collaboratively accomplish leadership rather smoothly.

Theoretical contributions

This dissertation set out to answer the question of the role of leadership processes in handling the particular challenges presented by a virtual context, and how such processes are accomplished in practice. The three articles presented in the previous chapters contribute to answering this dissertation's overall research question, as they demonstrate the role of leadership in handling the discontinuities experienced and oriented to in a complex virtual context. Further, in different ways, the articles show how such leadership processes are accomplished in practice. In the following sections, I will elaborate on how leadership can be seen as a resource for producing virtual continuities, and how leadership is not just something added to the daily work tasks, but is deeply entangled with work practices. Additionally, I will argue that explicit local role assignment can be seen as an important resource for shaping the interactional environment. Followingly, I will address how different affordances can be mobilized within the virtual space to enable leadership in a complex context. Finally, I will discuss how recognizing and approaching leadership as a collective phenomenon calls for analytical sensitivity and ontological awareness by the researcher.

From talk about leadership to leadership as work

This dissertation demonstrates that leadership works to establish virtual continuities. Leadership is deemed important in virtual teams (Charlier et al., 2016; Gilson et al., 2015; Liao, 2017), and is closely related to effective team performance (Hoch and Kozlowski, 2014; Serban et al., 2015). Particularly in virtual team leadership literature, leadership is assumed, rather than demonstrated, to be important (e.g., as seen in Gibbs et al., 2017; Gilson et al., 2015; Liao, 2017). What this dissertation illustrates is that interlocutors attend to the challenges experienced in the virtual collaboration, and collaboratively engage in the leadership process to produce what Dixon and Panteli (2010) call virtual continuities. They describe virtual continuities as a matter of changing the experience of a boundary. Virtual continuities are produced when altering practices and doing things differently in such a way that discontinuities are no longer problematic. For example, in article 3 in chapter 6, the project manager and the team member mobilize affordances provided by the ICT object to accomplish a future direction. Though observably being influenced by the virtual context, in the sense that it was complicated to align on project status, they collectively managed to mitigate this apparent constraint of the virtual context. As such, they collaboratively tended to team's needs and produced leadership. Thus, this dissertation expands on Dixon and Panteli's (2010) study by examining the actual production of virtual continuities.

In addition to adding to the understanding of leadership in a virtual context, this dissertation adds to the broader leadership literature as well, demonstrating that leadership is deeply integrated in the work done, rather than being an action in itself. The three articles in this dissertation showed that leadership is deeply entangled in the work tasks caried out in mundane, everyday interactions. In article 1 in chapter 4, for example, the leadership process is shown to be a matter of tending to the shared team identity within the situation. This is not done as a separate task, rather it is achieved through the work task of discussing an employee feedback survey. As such, this dissertation follows previous studies of interaction that illustrate how leadership is embedded in the everyday, mundane work (Larsson and Lundholm, 2010, 2013; Van De Mieroop, 2020). This contrasts with the notion of leadership being a matter of a leader influencing an entire organization (König et al., 2020). Within leadership in interaction, leadership is just as much about collaboratively engaging in the leadership process within the situated meeting talk. This very much aligns with Boden's (1994) conclusion on the business of talk. What this dissertation adds to the existing studies of leadership in interaction is the fine-grained analysis of interaction in a complex context; a context that offers explicit and vocalized actions, which helps highlight the immense amount of interactional work that has to be carried out to achieve leadership.

What the complex contexts in this study in particular offer is an opportunity to see *how* leadership is a part of the mundane work interactions. Leadership is intertwined in everyday work, in a messy muddle of work tasks, and as such, there is no such thing as 'naked leadership.' This is seen in all three articles, wherein leadership is accomplished as the interlocutors discuss regular work matters. These findings support and demonstrate Fairhurst's (2007) argument that leadership is not floating above everything else. Alvesson and Svenningson (2003) raise a doubt on whether leadership is something that is achieved within the context of middle and senior managers, and question whether the construct of leadership can say anything valuable about what formally appointed leaders do. This dissertation challenges this claim. Exploring the situational interactions has shown that leadership is the work task, not something done on top of the work, nor not done at all. The implication of this is that, rather than epistemologically looking for leadership in itself, leadership is to be found in conjunction with work tasks. Consequently, leadership exists in the work that is done.

Looking at the practical work of leadership it is small, mundane, far from grandiose, yet important. All three articles demonstrated how both team managers and team members engaged in the interpersonal influence process in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals. Although these goals might seem mundane and less than what one could relate to organizational goals, it is, amongst others, such talk in business meetings that constitutes organizations (Boden, 1994). Turning towards practice studies within leadership, Crevani and Endrissat (2016) argue that leadership is a phenomenon of organizing (based on an interpersonal influence process), and that practice is the analytical framework. In line with this understanding Crevani (2018) advocates for a strong process ontology, wherein the focus shifts from what people do, to what the process of leadership does to organizing practices. With her argument, Crevani (2018) removes agency from the interlocuters, in the sense that she argues that all actions are interconnected and fluid. The findings in this dissertation emphasize how interlocutors do engage in the leadership process with individual actions. As such, we might discuss a fluid leadership process when talking broadly about the concept of leadership; however, examining the interaction, each individual contributes with individual influential actions, which together produce leadership. Thus, the implication of this dissertation is to emphasize that interlocutors' actions ought not to be analytically neglected in the leadership process. Though leadership is a process, each person engaging in this process can influence the leadership process, and as such, I would argue that having a strong process ontology alone, leaves out important aspects of those engaging in the process.

Mobilizing rights, obligations, and affordances to accomplish leadership

This dissertation shows how interlocutors can mobilize rights and obligations from roles and affordances of material objects to enable leadership in a complex context. Leadership is a process of interpersonal influence in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). Acknowledging that leadership is a collective accomplishment that is constructed within the given situation, this dissertation shows that interlocutors can mobilize rights and obligations of explicitly assigned local roles and affordances of objects present within the context to accomplish leadership. As such, and perhaps not surprisingly, this dissertation shows that these leadership enablers are to be found within the mundane, everyday work. This dissertation thus extends the argument provided by Bülow et al. (2019) that the affordances of the everyday exchange of emails are essential to the development of complex relations within a business setting in mediated work collaborations. While their focus is not particularly on leadership, as such, they demonstrated how interlocutors mobilized affordances of emails in interorganizational relationships in a complex context. This dissertation, in line with Bülow et al. (2019), shows that interlocutors mobilize roles and material objects in their mundane everyday work collaboration. Where this study extends Bülow et al. (2019) is examining how this mobilization of affordances not only works to mend complicated relationships, but is also used to accomplish leadership.

Relating to the configuration of leadership, the findings of this dissertation indicate that interlocutors can mobilize the rights and obligations of assigned explicit local roles in the process of leadership. Holm and Fairhurst (2018) argue that leadership emanating from subordinates emerges as informal and unstructured. In article 2, chapter 5, I showed that when a subordinate is assigned with the explicit local role of meeting chair, the subordinate could situationally mobilize the rights and obligations provided by this specific role within the leadership process. However, importantly, assignment of the role of chair does not automatically produce leadership, as seen in Holm and Fairhurst's (2018) study. What is essential in this finding is that assigning explicit local roles, such as the meeting chair, can support shared leadership. Tost et al. (2013) argue that formally appointed hierarchical leaders can have a negative impact on team performance, as this person, through verbal dominance, can reduce team communication, consequently diminishing performance. Simultaneously shared leadership is found to be essential for virtual team effectiveness (Eisenberg et al., 2016; Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017). The findings of this dissertation prompt the question of what other situated roles can be assigned with the intention to enable shared leadership.

When collaborating in a restrained virtual context, interlocutors can mobilize material objects based on their situated affordances to accomplish leadership. Previous studies advocate for the impact of materiality in the leadership process (Pöyhönen, 2018; Pullen and Vachhani, 2013) and in relation to the context in which leadership is accomplished (Fairhurst, 2009). Ropo et al. (2013) argue that objects in themselves have agency and produce actions within the leadership process. This argument spurs a discussion as to who is leading whom, and where agency actually lies with respect to the leadership process. What this dissertation shows, with a multimodal CA perspective, is that it is the interlocutors who mobilize the material objects in the leadership process, not the objects themselves. This resonates with an argument by Hutchby (2001: 453) who states that objects "are not things which impose themselves upon humans' actions ... But they do set limits on what it is possible to do with, around, or via the artefact". What is also demonstrated in article 3, chapter 6, is how those with access to the ICT objects have the competencies to work with these given material objects. For further research, it might be relevant to look into when competencies to handle ICT objects become a constraint and consequently create discontinuities, rather than act as a resource in the leadership process.

Finally, interlocuters can draw on shared knowledge in the accomplishment of leadership in a challenging virtual context. This shared knowledge can support the situated construction of social categories. In all three analytical chapters, leadership is accomplished based on interactional collaboration. What this dissertation shows is that interlocutors collaboratively construct certain explicit social structures, which they orient towards as known. As Heritage and Clayman (2010: 10) argue, "it is these shared methods that enable [interlocutors] to build and navigate their sequences of interaction". Thus, as a subordinate enacts specific actions of meeting chair, it is oriented towards by the others in the team, as recognizable as the meeting chair. This shared knowledge eases the leadership process, in the sense that the rights and obligations of the meeting chair can actually be mobilized by, for instance, a subordinate. Had these meeting chair actions not been recognized as shared knowledge, it would have taken a significant amount of interactional work to obtain the same result. For example, in article 1 in chapter 4, the interlocutors orient towards the manager as a known fact. Similarly, article 2 in chapter 5 showed that, as the subordinates were assigned with these explicit local roles, this was accordingly recognized as such, based on a shared knowledge that this is yet another example of 'doing' the role of chair. Had it not been recognized, it would have called for additional interactional work, to first negotiate the rights and obligations of the role of meeting chair, before, if the individual is to be recognized as chair at all, this role could be mobilized in the leadership process. As was seen in article 1 in chapter 4, it took a significant amount of interactional work to produce a shared identification category within the virtual context that could serve as a recognizable social pattern (Garfinkel, 1967) of being a collective team. As such, collaborating in a virtual context can foster a number of discontinuities. The findings of this dissertation prompt the idea that a shared experience of categories, such as manager, roles, collective team, etc. are particularly important in the virtual space, in the sense of having recognizable social structures to mobilize in a complex context.

Leadership for one or for all?

The existing literature on leadership configuration is pre-occupied with formal roles. For example, this is seen in the Bolden's (2011) description of the leadership configuration, wherein the structure of the configuration is determined based on hierarchical position. The same is found in Holm and Fairhurst's (2018) study on the leadership configuration, wherein they a priori assume the vertical leader to be 'doing' leadership, leaving out 'the influenced' in the analysis. Thus, though taking upon themselves a process perspective, this analytical approach is closely related to the behavioral rooted research, in which it is assumed that the manager is 'doing' leadership (Parry and Bryman, 2006; Yukl, 2013). This dissertation, supports Rost's (1991) argument that leadership and management are not the same thing. This dissertation shows that, although actions carried out by the formally appointed hierarchical leader might have impact on the processual accomplishments of leadership, much more is at stake. Leadership can be embedded and entangled in management tasks, but management tasks are not necessarily embedded in leadership processes.

As the articles in this dissertation demonstrate, formal position is not necessarily the determinant of leadership. A priori assuming leadership to be the work of the formally appointed hierarchical leader is problematic. As this dissertation demonstrates, leadership can just as well be enabled by and emanate from subordinates appointed to explicit local roles. Taking an EM approach and examining particular interactional practices that are visibly available in the given situation (Llewellyn and Spence, 2009), roles are constructed and enacted in the situation and subsequently mobilized in the situation. This relates to the theoretical discussion of DeRue and Ashford (2010), who argue that claiming and granting leader identity goes beyond institutional structures. This is particularly observed in article 2 in chapter 5, wherein subordinates are assigned with explicit local roles, and mobilize these to act as influencers in the leadership process by drawing on the role's assigned rights and obligations. As such, this dissertation empirically demonstrates the theoretical claim of DeRue and Ashford (2010), that leadership goes beyond institutional structures. Further, this analytical distinction, separating the formal position from the leadership process, will prevent what Woolgar and Pawluch (1985) refer to as ontological gerrymandering; in other words, focusing on the practices enables an ontological perspective on leadership as being relational and processual.

This is not to say that role or position does not matter in the leadership process. Rather, it is to say that role and position in the leadership process calls for analytical sensitivity. Explicit role assignment can be seen as an important resource for shaping the interactional environment. Critical voices of the processual perspective of leadership argue that leadership can become so fluid that agency is removed, and as such, the logical consequence would be that everyone can lead. Alvesson and Spicer (2012) argue that if leadership is understood as a processual phenomenon in which there is no formally appointed leader involved in the influence process, everything can be viewed as leadership. Thus, Alvesson and Spicer's (2012) perspective on leadership aligns with previous literature on leadership, in which leadership was understood based on position. In this perspective, there is the risk of conflating leadership with management (Rost, 1991), wherein it is assumed that what the manager does equals leadership. This dissertation challenges Alvesson and Spicer's (2012) claim in the sense that it demonstrates that leadership is more than the actions of a formally appointed leader. Sometimes, as shown, it is not even the actions of a leader, but based on the actions of a subordinate from which leadership emanates. At the same time, this dissertation demonstrates that roles and position do matter in the leadership process, in the sense that interlocutors can orient towards these as relevant in a given situation as a resource to shape the interactional environment.

Methodological contributions

Researching leadership through the lens of CA provides a fine-grained understanding of leadership. I have argued that, although leadership in most leadership research is acknowledged to be a process of interpersonal influence (Larsson and Lundholm, 2010) towards organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013), there seems to be little research as to what leadership actually looks like and how it unfolds within interactions. Clifton (2019) provided an illustration of how using CA as a methodological tool can reveal the ways in which leadership is accomplished as an in situ social practice. Thus, adding to previous research of leadership in interaction (Clifton, 2019; Larsson and Lundholm, 2013; Van De Mieroop, 2020; Van De Mieroop et al., 2020), this dissertation depicts what leadership actually looks like within the interaction. By examining interaction, the articles in this dissertation illustrate the immense amount of interactional work that has to be carried out by both influencer(s) and the influenced to reach the necessary intersubjectivity needed to accomplish leadership within the virtual context. This illustrated interactional work has been assumed to exist in previous studies; however, leaning on EM/CA allows for the analytical sensitivity to understand leadership as a relational phenomenon.

As described in chapter 3 on methodology, studies through the lens of CA are often positioned within two different streams: linguistics and sociology. Studies within linguistics focus on what Maynard (2003) refers to as generalizable procedures, such as accomplishing alignments (Stivers, 2008), the study of syntax (Lerner, 1991), or showing the function of a change-of-state token (Heritage, 1984a). These studies are based on small collections of talk. Sociological CA studies orient towards broader sociological structures, such as social status, institutional structures, and identification (Heritage and Stivers, 2014). Based on this, and the analysis produced in this dissertation, I would raise the question of whether it is possible to condense leadership to a linguistic phenomenon examining it through collections. CA allows for a methodological exploration of how leadership *actually* happens in situated social practice (Larsson, 2017). It is, however, challenging to understand a complex phenomenon, such as that of leadership, when focusing on a few turns of conversation, which is what collections require. As Clifton and colleagues (2020: 4) emphasized

> since leadership is a complex, contested, and ambiguous concept (Grint, 2005), this necessarily implies that researchers taking an interactional approach are obliged to draw on a myriad of potentially conflicting, contestable, and ambiguous concepts of leadership for their own work.

Thus, I argue that reducing leadership to merely a linguistic phenomenon would risk the oversimplification of the notion of leadership. As such, I believe leadership actions occur repeatedly as “each another next first time” (Garfinkel, 2002: 182), and thus, applying CA, leadership can most appropriately be addressed through single case (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008).

Practical contributions

Turning towards the field of practitioners, I note that this dissertation contributes to the team managers and subordinates in organizations, to the virtual team in itself, and more particularly to the virtual team manager.

The team manager and subordinates in organizations

Most organizations today experience a certain complexity in the form of the context in which collaboration is infused with technology, multi-teaming and task complexity (Edmondson and Harvey, 2017; Gray et al., 2019; Guarana and Hernandez, 2015; Henttonen et al., 2014). Much literature focuses on team leadership (Morgeson et al., 2010) as a way to organize within this complex context in the pursuit of organizationally relevant tasks or goals (Fairhurst, 2007, 2011; Yukl, 2013). In this literature, the team manager is seen to be the person who acts or gets done what is needed for the team (Morgeson et al., 2010). While it is tempting to lean on this literature to handle the practical complexity, this dissertation indicates that less focus should be placed on single individuals responsible for team needs. Rather, the focus should be on the actions of collaborative work tasks, as this is where leadership will emerge. This dissertation shows that leadership is happening Tuesday morning in the 10 am meeting.

The virtual team

Much effort within the research on virtual teams is put into what knowledge, skills, and competencies it takes to be a part of a virtual team (Gilson et al., 2015; Krumm et al., 2016). However, less attention is put into what constitutes the virtual work collaboration itself. What this dissertation shows is that the virtual context fosters subgroupings, which might be problematic for negotiating team identity. What this dissertation also shows is how both team managers and team members can engage in the situated work to produce a relevant identification category and overcome emerging experienced discontinuities. In other words, when engaging in virtual collaboration, it could be argued that each team member has a moral responsibility to work to make the whole team relevant, not just those who are collocated. Further, this dissertation illustrates that, although a formally appointed hierarchical leader is present at the meeting, a subordinate can act as an influencer in the leadership process.

Collective leadership is found to be essential for virtual team effectiveness (Eisenberg et al., 2016; Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017), as well as having a positive impact on virtual team performance (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). The findings of this dissertation open up possibilities for how practitioners can work with leadership collectively, in between both team managers and subordinates. Producing leadership in a virtual team is a collaborative effort, and though some might produce subgroups, the responsibility of making the team relevant as a whole is not just the team manager's; it lies with everyone in the team.

The virtual team manager

Within the scholarly literature the virtual team manager takes a central role as primary influencer in the leadership process (Gibbs et al., 2017; Liao, 2017). While there are a number of managerial tasks that are deemed important in the virtual context (Hoch and Kozlowski, 2014), this dissertation also argues for the importance of engaging in the virtual team meetings based on the mentality that a team meeting is a team effort. This dissertation shows that the collective leadership processes can be nurtured by, for example, assigning explicit local roles, such as that of meeting chair, to subordinates. In this way, subordinates can mobilize the rights and obligations of this role to engage in the leadership process. Further, access to ICT objects seems to have a role in the production of leadership in the virtual context and distributing ICT objects to subordinates seems to very much influence the leadership process. As such, it might be helpful for practitioners to consider who is in control of tools, such as the cursor, the PowerPoint, or the Kanban Board when sharing the screen. Finally, this dissertation shows that shared knowledge on roles and social structures supports the interaction in an otherwise complicated context. Following this, it might be of relevance to lean on the rights and obligations of the position of the formally appointed leader role to facilitate and enable relevant knowledge on social structures and roles.

Limitations and further research

This dissertation has, as is the case with all studies, certain limitations. In particular, I would like to point out its limitations in terms of data collection and methodological choices.

First, in terms of the data I collected, there are some considerations as to what data I collected and what limitations this implied. Applying an exploratory and EM approach, my data collection was less structured and more empirically guided. Subsequently, the companies worked within different industries, and the team members' professional backgrounds varied as well. As such, this research project did not focus specifically on company values or norms, nor has the data collection process considered which industries the case companies represented. Therefore, the findings of this dissertation might be influenced by the inclusion of other types of industries or companies. Nonetheless, as the industries, which the companies were involved in, in this dissertation varied from food and beverage to oil and gas to consultancy, the dataset does represent a range of industries.

Second, also relating to my data, the companies I collected data from were multinational, in the sense that at least a third of the team were distributed across several countries. This could obviously lead to questions related to culture. Particularly within virtual team research, this topic receives great attention, as collaboration is carried out across not just time zones but also cultural differences. However, although many different cultures were represented in my data, Western European participants dominated in my observation teams. This, of course, has relevant consequences for my research, in the sense that other distributions of cultures, e.g., a dominant Asian representation, might have influenced the results found in this dissertation. Taking an EM/CA perspective in this dissertation, I focused on how interlocuters orient towards each other within the interaction, not who these people were or what their background was. Taking culture into account would have called for other methodologies, such as, for example, a more in-depth EM study, shadowing one team for a longer period, and perhaps including interviews with team members as well, to understand their sensemaking around cultural influence on their teamwork.

Third, in regard to the choice of data, I decided to focus on virtual team meetings instead of, for example, smaller in-group meetings such as one-to-one meetings within the team, or asynchronous communication, such as emails or chats. Research on leadership within virtual work collaboration is less developed, and as team meetings, as found in my data, are where virtual teams primarily collectively engage synchronously as a team, I found this to be a relevant empirical phenomenon and a good place to start. That said, team interaction occurs in many other places, both for the entire team and also across team members and managers in smaller groups. Following the findings in this dissertation, leadership is to be found where work is constructed. As such, virtual team leadership can be located in other interactional spaces besides virtual team meetings, for example, via chat, email, and phone conversations. Subsequently, a possible avenue for further research is continued exploration of leadership in the virtual context by engaging with different kinds of data.

Fourth, the methodology I chose has had some limitations as well. Although "(p)eople's everyday actions in concrete social situations are the stuff of social order, and as such, the constitution of society" (Boden, 1994: 7), and although analyzing interaction through EM/CA permits focusing on actual everyday practices, it does, at the same time, restrict the amount of data possible to work with. Thus, as Llewellyn and Hindmarsh (2010) argue, at some point, the EM/CA scholarship ends and other modes of research begin. This dissertation has applied EM/CA to concentrate on actual practices as they unfold within the interaction. Although applying other approaches could also have been relevant, these would most likely have provided other types of answers to the research question. For example, a more quantitative approach could have embraced a larger amount of data, while still honoring the discursive turn in leadership (Clifton, 2019). This could, for example, be to measure interaction, as Gerpott et al.'s (2019) showed. Applying a quantitative approach such as this would have made it possible to use a larger amount of data. Subsequently, this could have led to shedding light on cultural aspects, or to taking different types of businesses into account. That said, scaling the data into a quantitative study would have abandoned the opportunity of letting the empirical data guide the research, and further, hindered the fine-grained analysis of the methodological aspects supported by EM/CA, as portrayed in this dissertation.

Finally, a possible methodological limitation is the role of materiality in this dissertation. In accordance with the CA perspective, this dissertation treats materiality as something that can be mobilized and used based on its affordances (Hutchby, 2001). This perspective leaves little room for treating materiality as non-human agents within the interactions. As such, further studies might consider how the technology that infuses and facilitates mediated collaboration might impact the leadership process. Here, it could be relevant to take an ANT perspective (Bencherki, 2017) on some of the processes analyzed in this dissertation. This dissertation points to the importance of technology in the interaction when collaborating in the virtual space. Thus, addressing the interactional data using an ANT perspective might shed further light on the role of technology within the interaction.

Studying the role of technology resonates with the increasingly important role technology has in team collaboration (Larson and DeChurch, 2020) in practice. This dissertation illustrates how interlocuters can mobilize technology to their advantage in virtual work collaboration. Larson and DeChurch (2020) discuss how technology will increasingly be a team player, and subsequently, how this might influence team collaboration and team leadership. Some find it rather disturbing to have technology acting as a team member, maybe even seeing it as slightly deterministic, in the sense that humanizing technology equals a loss of control over the technology. The question is how to epistemologically address this interaction with or through technology. Though some methodological approaches, such as ANT (Bencherki, 2017), assume non-humans to have agency, by applying multimodal CA, this dissertation demonstrates that the interplay between technology and humans may be a matter of having the competencies to mobilize affordances of the technology within the interaction. In other words, this methodology prompts an understanding of technology as less agentic, and more as a matter of humans being in possession of the relevant competencies. As such, the findings of this dissertation can support scholars in the ongoing journey of engaging with leadership in work collaborations where technology has an increasingly high impact (Larson and DeChurch, 2020), illustrating how it is methodologically possible to analytically engage with this human/non-human collaboration with analytical curiosity, rather than with determinism.

As we move towards an everyday work-life infused with technology, it is with pleasure that I offer this study, which illustrates that working in a virtual context does not have to be problematic, as some scholars otherwise state (see, for example, Al-Ani et al., 2011; Gilson et al., 2015; Marlow et al., 2017). Leaning on Dixon and Panteli's (2010) concept of virtuality, various aspects of this dissertation illustrate how it is possible to create virtual continuities. Some of the findings might suggest that, for example, the technical skills needed to work with ICT influence the experience of discontinuities. As such, a possible point for future research is to explore how the technical skills of both team members and team managers might influence the experience of discontinuities, and whether having strong technical skills can help establish virtual continuities.

Finally, this dissertation can serve to inspire further exploratory research into virtual team leadership. Though not explicitly contributing to the field of virtual team literature, there are findings within this dissertation that add to the understanding of leadership in virtual teams. In particular, I have pointed to how collective leadership can be enabled by assigning explicit local roles, and further, how collective leadership is actually accomplished in a virtual team setting. This supports and expands on previous and recent studies, which point to shared and emergent leadership as beneficial for virtual team efficiency (Eisenberg et al., 2016; Hoch and Dulebohn, 2017; Hoch and Kozlowski, 2014). Many previous studies inherently treat leadership as management within the virtual team leadership literature. Liao (2017: 648) explains that: "… benefits [of virtual teams] are based on the assumption that virtual teams are well managed. Indeed, leadership effectiveness plays a pivotal role in the success of virtual teams". As such, the findings in this dissertation prompt further studies into how leadership processes can support virtual team performance.

8 Conclusion

This dissertation set out to explore the role of leadership processes in handling the particular challenges presented by a virtual context, and how such processes are accomplished in practice. It was found that leadership was important in creating virtual continuities supporting team collaboration in an otherwise complex context. These leadership processes were accomplished in a collective collaboration between both formally appointed hierarchical leaders and subordinates, both acting as influencer(s) and influenced, where important resources for accomplishing leadership were position, roles, and affordances offered by technology. Answering these questions, this dissertation offers a number of theoretical contributions.

First, I show that leadership can be seen as a resource for producing virtual continuities, a way to handle the particular challenges presented by the virtual context. Subsequently, I find that accomplishing leadership and producing such continuities are not separate work tasks; rather, they are deeply entangled in the mundane, everyday work that is carried out in virtual team meetings.

Second, this dissertation shows that both team managers and team members can mobilize affordances from the objects at hand, as well as rights and obligations from explicitly assigned roles, to act as influencers in the leadership process. Subsequently, this finding prompts a consideration of how distributing access to objects or explicitly assigning local roles, such as that of chair, might be a way to engage subordinates in the leadership process in a structured, explicit manner.

Last but not least, aligning with previous studies, this dissertation shows that leadership is a collective accomplishment, and as such not the task of one single person. However, where previous research points to a dichotomous understanding of the leadership configuration between formally appointed hierarchical leaders and subordinates, this dissertation shows that the configuration is both situated and more complex. Understanding and approaching roles and positions as interactional accomplishments that situationally influence the interactional environment prompts an ontological unification of leadership, which means that influence emanating from subordinates and formally appointed hierarchical leaders is treated analytically equally.

This dissertation demonstrates the relevance of the leadership processes in a virtual context. It shows that the complex context fosters certain complexities, which can be experienced as discontinuities. Collectively producing leadership, understood as an interpersonal influence process, is a way to create virtual continuities to accomplish team performance in this complex context. Importantly, this work of producing virtual continuities is not an additional work task for the team, it *is* the work they carry out.

This dissertation was carried out on the basis of an EM/CA research process. Zooming in on the interaction allowed for fine-grained analysis, which could shed light on what Grint (2005a), as pointed out at the beginning of this dissertation, framed as a complex phenomenon, namely that of leadership understood as an interpersonal influence process. Aligning with previous studies, in particular the CA method, is well-suited for the analysis of leadership in interaction, as it allows for zooming in on the everyday work and situated interaction. That said, CA offers different levels of analysis. CA studies can either focus on small excerpts that can be generalized through collections, or longer excerpts that can shed light on complex social structures. Though this dissertation has applied CA, it is also relevant to question whether all aspects of this methodology are applicable for researching leadership. As such, I question whether collections of excerpts based on a few turns-at-talk are appropriate for analyzing a complex social phenomenon such as leadership.

Finally, this dissertation offers a number of practical contributions. First, as many organizations experience a certain complexity, it is tempting for team managers to lean on previous leadership literature and consequently act single-handedly to guard the team against challenges which may arise because of this complexity. That is problematic, as leadership is a team-effort. Practitioners should focus on the collective work tasks rather than on the team manager's managerial tasks. Second, although much research centers around what knowledge, skills, and competencies it takes to be a part of a virtual team, this dissertation prompts a focus on the virtual collaboration itself. The virtual context fosters subgroupings and thus induces a moral obligation from everyone on the team to work to make the whole team relevant. Third, in making the team relevant as a whole is a collaborative task. Subsequently, collective leadership is particularly relevant in the virtual team context, as previous research also demonstrates. This dissertation shows that collective leadership can be nurtured by the virtual team manager by, for example, granting subordinates access to and control over ICT objects, or by assigning explicit local roles, such as that of meeting chair, which subordinates can then mobilize in the leadership process.

I wrote the first sentence of this dissertation five years ago. Much has happened since then. One aspect that remains even more prominent is the importance of understanding the accomplishment of work collaboration and leadership in a virtual context. Though this dissertation may seem rather timely in relation to the COVID-19 pandemic, I believe that it is suitable to emphasize that virtual work collaboration is not a mayfly, rather it has been here for a long while, and it is here to stay. Technology will continue to develop, as should we, as humans, constantly learning and developing ourselves and our competencies to work with and through the technology. That said, I also believe that in a fast-paced, everyday world, understanding the complexity and depth of collaboration between technology and humans may be difficult to unravel. Consequently, it is an important task for us, as scholars, to continue the quest of exploring collaboration in the virtual context and how leadership can support this collaboration. This dissertation has focused on the interaction, taking the time to explore the subtle, everyday work interactions in virtual team meetings. This has given me the opportunity to uncover the small, mundane, far from grandiose, yet rather important, practical work of leadership within this complex context. As such, I believe that this dissertation advances our scholarly understanding of leadership within a virtual context and thus allows us to support practitioners in their everyday work within a complex virtual context. Much more research is still needed in this area to shed light on what future technology might bring. That said, while future work collaboration might offer new interactional environments, other aspects remain the same, no matter the context.

> "Talk really isn't cheap; it's consequential and far-reaching" (Boden, 1994: vii).

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10 Appendixes

Appendix (1): Conversation analysis transcription key

Transcription key

?	Rising intonation on word
.	Falling intonation on word
↑	Shift to high pitch
↓	Shift to low pitch
_	Emphasis
:	Prolongation
=	Latching on
(1.0)	Pause in seconds
(.)	Brief pause
⌈word⌉	First speaker overlap
⌊word⌋	Second speaker overlap
s-	Incomplete word/sound
so	Emphasis on a sound
< >	Pace of speech slow down
> <	Pace of speech quickens
((text))	Action
( )	Sound unintelligible

Appendix (2): Co-author statements

CO-AUTHOR STATEMENT

Title of paper	To team or not to team: The role of leadership in interaction for enabling team identification
Journal and date (if published)	Submitted to Human Relations, January 2021

1. Formulation/identification of the scientific problem to be investigated and its operationalization into an appropriate set of research questions to be answered through empirical research and/or conceptual development
Description of contribution: Arvedsen and Larsson have collaboratively discussed, framed, and formulated the scientific problem and its operationalization into appropriate research questions. In particular Larsson contributed with his significant knowledge within both leadership theory, identificiation theory and methodological experience in working with interactional data.
2. Planning of the research, including selection of methods and method development
Description of contribution: Arvedsen has primary been responsible for planning the research process. Larsson has, however, contributed significantly in guiding the selection of methods, and method development.
3. Involvement in data collection and data analysis
Description of contribution: Arvedsen has been collecting data for this article. Further, Arvedsen have conducted the first rounds of reviewing collected data. Having found, and transcribed extracts, Larsson was a valuable sparring partner in both validating the transcripts, and later providing feedback on the conversation analytical thick descriptions of the excerpts.
4. Presentation, interpretation and discussion of the analysis in the form of an article or manuscript
Description of contribution: In this process, Larsson has been a valuable source of working with text, structure and academiccaly formed contributions. Writing the manuscript has been a strong collaboration, in which both Arvedsen and Larsson has contributed with text, reflections, feedback and insights.

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Publication Please note that the article will be published electronically and in a limited edition in print as a part of the PhD thesis by the CBS library in connection with the PhD defence.

1. Co-author (PhD student)	Lise Dahl Arvedsen Name
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Page 2 of 2

CO-AUTHOR STATEMENT

Title of paper	Accomplishing leadership- in-interaction by mobilizing available information and communication technology objects in a virtual
Journal and date (if published)	Leadership (2020); 16 (5)

1. Formulation/identification of the scientific problem to be investigated and its operationalization into an appropriate set of research questions to be answered through empirical research and/or conceptual development
Description of contribution: Arvedsen and Hassert collaboratively initiated the scientific problem, attending a conference in 2018. Following that we continued to discuss relevant research questions while developing a qualified conceptualization for our data.
2. Planning of the research, including selection of methods and method development
Description of contribution: As the Arvedsen and Hassert is a a product of two different ph.d. projects, each has planned their research accordingly. As we met we had both carried out previous research applying CA. It was therefore a natural choice, that the methodological choices would lie within CA. As Hassert were more experienced at the time in CA, she was pushing the methodogical development, which was a valuable learning opportunity for Arvedsen. As such the methodological section is primary written by Hassert
3. Involvement in data collection and data analysis
Description of contribution: The data for this article is partly from Hasserts Ph.d. dissertation, and partly from Arvedsens Ph.d. dissertation. The first couple of rough data analysis drafts were carried out by Arvedsen, as a valuable learning opportunity, with constructive feedback from Hassert.
4. Presentation, interpretation and discussion of the analysis in the form of an article or manuscript
Description of contribution: The writing of the article is done in several phases. First draft for manuscript was primarely done by Arvedsen (except methodology). Subsequently, Hassert carried out a significant work in sharpening the text, the argument and the form. All in all, a productive and valuable collaboration.

Publication
Please note that the article will be published electronically and in a limited edition in print as a part of the PhD thesis by the CBS library in connection with the PhD defence.

1. Co-author (PhD student)	Lise Dahl Arvedsen Name
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Appendix (3): Letter to case companies

Leadership in Virtual Teams – with [insert case company]

My research into leadership in virtual teams will help companies, team managers, and team members increase the understanding of the challenges of working within a virtual team and provide them with tools to meet these challenges.

The PhD Project

Throughout the last 20 years there has been an increase of people working within the knowledge intensive industries. Teams working with e.g., product and concept development, innovation or R&D are often distributed across the world to meet the demands for knowledge expertise. They work in virtual teams. This type of team calls for a new and different type of leadership style; a leadership approach yet to be explored in depth.

Data Gathering & [insert case company]'s Contribution

To carry out my research I am looking for 2-4 different cross boarder teams, which primary tasks are knowledge intensive work (innovation, product and/or concept development, R&D etc.). It is important that the team is cultural diverse (e.g., not a team with sole Nordic members). For data gathering purposes I would like to

- interview team members and team manager
- observe meetings by listening in on and recording calls/meetings.
- if possible, interview senior management to understand the company's plan or policy for its virtual teams (money, time, strategy, culture etc.).
- gain access to organizational material of relevance for the specific teams, such as organization charts strategy documents, meeting agendas, etc.

Data gathering would start prior to the summer holiday 2017, but mainly be conducted throughout second half of 2017 and first half of 2018.

My collaboration with [insert case company] would be created on the basis of a confidentiality agreement containing a mutual agreement on anonymity and handling of sensitive data together with a contract outlining agreements concerning availability for your part and deliverables for my part.

Value for [insert case company]'s Contribution

Besides having a close dialogue with the team manager throughout the project period for sparring, I would like to offer a Virtual Team Efficiency Process (VTE Process) in which I, in collaboration with the team manager, will put together a training process based on my knowledge about the team and findings in the project. Such a process could include for example

- written material for implementation purposes and future use for the team
- a team-training sessions of e.g., 3 hours working with the findings of the specific team
- two coaching sessions for managers

The VTE Process would be carried out no later than 8 months post data gathering. This is an initial suggestion, which should take into consideration any special needs the given team might have.

I hope this has caught your interest, as it would be a privilege to carry out my research in collaboration with [insert case company]. I look forward to hearing from you,

Best regards, Lise

Appendix (4): Confidentiality agreement

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

between the PhD Student and [name of the company]

Between the following parties

[Name of company]
[Address]
[Address]
Central Business Register no. (CVR no.) [no.]
(the "Company")

and

Name
Address
Address
("the PhD Student")

(the above parties individually referred to as a "Party" and collectively as the "Parties") have entered into the following Confidential Agreement (the "Agreement").

1. Information and Confidential Information

1.1. In connection with and for the purpose of the PhD Student to receive information from Company in order to use such information in connection with the PhD Student's PhD -Research Project regarding [insert wording] with the title "[insert wording]", which includes, but is not limited to, dissemination of the research results at conferences, publication of the research results in different journals, articles and books as well as in a PhD dissertation ("the Purpose"), the Company intends to disclose Confidential Information as defined in this clause 1.1. to the PhD Student. "Confidential Information" shall mean all information and material concerning business, financial, technical, scientific, research and other relations, including, but not limited to, technology, inventions, processes, procedures, rights, specifications, design, plans, drawings, software, prototypes, strategies and know-how, which is disclosed by the Company to the PhD Student during the term of this Agreement and which has been explicitly marked as "confidential" at the time of disclosure or when disclosed orally or visually has been reduced to paper and marked “confidential” by the Company and sent to the PhD Student within 10 business days from the oral or visual disclosure or otherwise, it must be evident to the PhD Student from the circumstances that such information must be treated as Confidential Information.

1.2. The PhD Student shall handle the Confidential Information in accordance with this Agreement.

2. Confidentiality Obligations and publication

2.1. The PhD Student

- shall only use Confidential Information for the Purpose and
- shall keep the Confidential Information confidential. Thus, the PhD Student shall not without written approval from the Company, disclose Confidential Information to any unauthorised third party, see clause 2.2.

2.2. The PhD Student shall at any time be entitled to give and disclose Information to the supervisors of the PhD Student in so far as may be required in order to obtain the proper supervision to write the PhD thesis and to complete the PhD program. The PhD Students supervisors are through their employment at Copenhagen Business School bound by the rules on confidentiality in the Danish Public Administration Act.

2.3. The PhD Student shall enjoy the unrestricted right to publish and disseminate the research results generated, when completing the Purpose, cf. clause 1.1 above, pursuant to the traditions of the area of research in question and with due respect of the confidentiality obligations set out in clauses 2.1 – 2.2.

2.4. According to the Danish ministerial order on PhD Programmes, the PhD Student has an obligation to communicate the research results, which are generated in connection with the Purpose in the form of a PhD thesis and that the PhD thesis must be subject to a public defence. Publication of the PhD Student thesis shall take place with due respect of the confidentiality obligations set out in clauses 2.1 – 2.2.

3. Limitations concerning Confidential Information

3.1. The duty of confidentiality shall not apply to Confidential Information, if and in so far as the PhD Student can show that such Confidential Information

3.1.1. at the time of receipt was published or otherwise available to the general public, 3.1.2. upon receipt has been published or made available to the general public by means other than a breach of the PhD Student’s confidentiality obligations under this Agreement,

3.1.3. already at the time of receipt was lawfully in the PhD Student’s possession,

3.1.4. has been communicated to the PhD Student without any obligation of confidentiality by a third party, who is to the best knowledge of the Recipient in lawful possession thereof and under no obligation of confidence to the Company,

3.1.5. at any time was developed by the PhD Student completely independently of the Confidential Information which the PhD Student has received from the Company,

3.1.6. which the PhD Student is required to disclose in order to comply with applicable laws or regulations or with a court or administrative order, subject to the provision in clause 3.2 below.

3.2. If the PhD Student becomes aware that it will be required, to disclose Confidential Information in order to comply with applicable laws or regulations or with a court or administrative order, it shall, to the extent it is lawfully able to do so, prior to any such disclosure notify the Company, and comply with the Company’s reasonable instructions to protect the confidentiality of the information.

4. Term and Termination

4.1. This Agreement shall become effective on the day of the latest signature of the Parties under this Agreement (the “Effective Date”) and shall automatically terminate without further notice one (1) year after the Effective Date, unless terminated earlier by either Party by giving at least 30 days written notice to the other Party. After expiry or termination of this Agreement the confidentiality obligations under this Agreement shall continue to apply for a period of three (3) years after the last receipt of Confidential Information under this Agreement.

5. Intellectual Property Rights

5.1. The copyright in literary works, publications, etc., accrues to the author of such works and is governed by the Danish Copyright Act (*lov om ophavsret*).

6. Liability

6.1. The Parties shall be liable according to the ordinary rules of Danish law.

7. Amendments and Severability

7.1. Any amendments to the Agreement will not be valid or binding, unless made in writing and signed by both Parties.

7.2. In the event that one or more of the provisions of the Agreement are invalid as a consequence of mandatory rules, the other provisions of the Agreement shall remain in force with their present contents. The Parties shall initiate renegotiation of the invalid provisions and, if possible, replace such provisions with other provisions which, within the framework of the law, have the same result as contained in the invalid provision.

8. Governing Law and Jurisdiction

8.1. This Agreement is governed by Danish law without regard to international private law and conflict of law rules.

8.2. Any disagreement or dispute between the Parties on the construction and scope of this Agreement, which cannot be solved amicably, must be settled according to the general rules of Danish law by a Danish court of law, the District Court of Frederiksberg being the court of first instance.

9. Signatures

9.1. This Agreement is executed in two original copies, each Party receiving one (1) copy.

For the Company	The PhD Student
[Place], on [date]	[Place], on [date]
__________________________	__________________________
[name]	[name]
[title]	

Appendix (5): Interview guide

As one of the interviews were carried out in English, I have included the English interview guide in this appendix. For the interviews carried out in Danish, the same interview guide was used, though translated into Danish.

Interview guide

Introduction

- Short recap of introduction to project
    - purpose with project, timespan, intention with collected data
- Short introduction to my curiosity
    - virtual meetings, interaction, what is going on?

Themes to consider

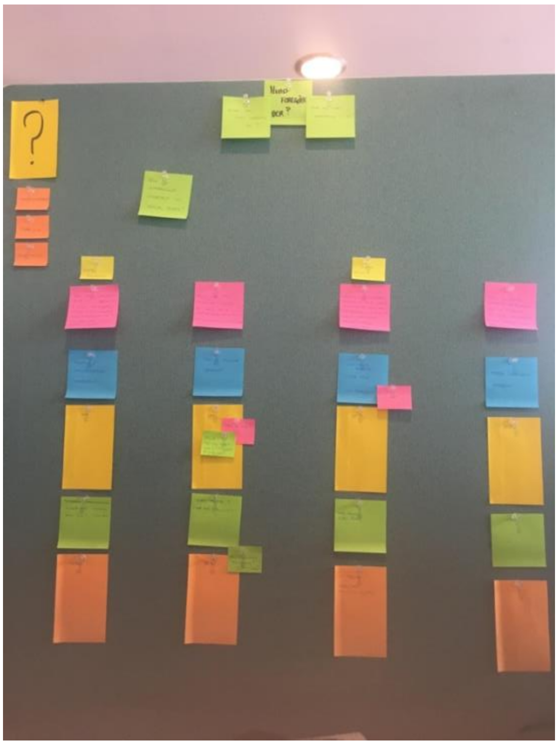
- Team task / purpose with team
- Team constellation
    - How many, where are people located
- Meeting structure
    - When and how often, fixed agenda?
- Meeting content
    - Purpose with meetings, content
- Virtual leadership, what is that? What does that mean in the meeting?

Closure

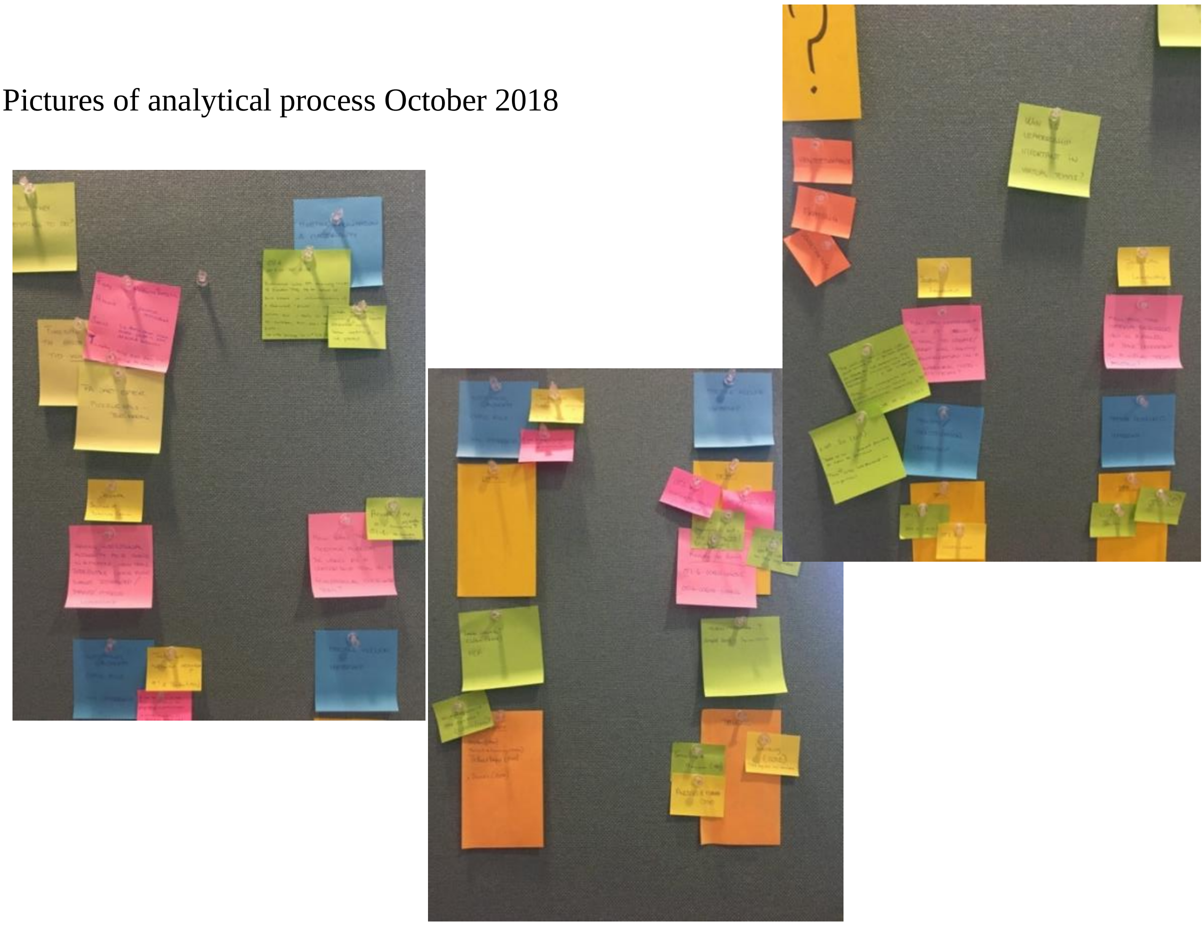
- Recap of what we have talked about
- Schedule first team meeting participation
- Always reach out, if you have any questions or concern

Appendix (6): Analytical process

Picture of the analytical process August 2018



Pictures of analytical process October 2018



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