

Illegitimacy Improves Goal Pursuit in Powerless Individuals

Guillermo B. Willis, Ana Guinote, Rosa Rodríguez-Bailón

► **To cite this version:**

Guillermo B. Willis, Ana Guinote, Rosa Rodríguez-Bailón. Illegitimacy Improves Goal Pursuit in Powerless Individuals. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Elsevier, 2009, 46 (2), pp.416. 10.1016/j.jesp.2009.10.009 . hal-00744818

HAL Id: hal-00744818

<https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-00744818>

Submitted on 24 Oct 2012

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Accepted Manuscript

Illegitimacy Improves Goal Pursuit in Powerless Individuals

Guillermo B. Willis, Ana Guinote, Rosa Rodríguez-Bailón

PII: S0022-1031(09)00262-5
DOI: [10.1016/j.jesp.2009.10.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2009.10.009)
Reference: YJESP 2365

To appear in: *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*

Received Date: 11 August 2009
Revised Date: 14 October 2009



Please cite this article as: G.B. Willis, A. Guinote, R. Rodríguez-Bailón, Illegitimacy Improves Goal Pursuit in Powerless Individuals, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* (2009), doi: [10.1016/j.jesp.2009.10.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2009.10.009)

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Illegitimacy Improves Goal Pursuit in Powerless Individuals

Guillermo B. Willis

Universidad de Granada (Spain)

Ana Guinote

University College of London (UK)

Rosa Rodríguez-Bailón

Universidad de Granada (Spain)

Running Head: Illegitimacy and Goal Pursuit

Word count: 2730

Address correspondence to: Guillermo B. Willis, Departamento de Psicología Social y Metodología de las Ciencias del Comportamiento, Campus de Cartuja s/n, Facultad de Psicología, 18011 Granada, phone: +34-958-240690, email: gwillis@ugr.es.

Abstract

The effects of power legitimacy on self-regulation during goal pursuit were examined. Study 1 focused on goal-setting and goal-striving. Specifically, it examined how much time legitimate and illegitimate powerless individuals needed to set goals, and how many means they generated to pursue these goals. Study 2 examined persistence in the face of difficulties. Consistently across these studies illegitimacy improved self-regulation in powerless individuals. Illegitimate powerless individuals behaved similarly as control participants. They took less time to decide on a course of action, used more flexible means to strive for goals, and persisted longer in the face of difficulties, compared to their legitimate counterparts. The implications of these findings are discussed.

Keywords: Power, Legitimacy, Goal Pursuit, Persistency.

Power - the ability to influence others (Vescio, Gervais, Snyder, & Hoover, 2005), and to control others' outcomes (Fiske, 1993) – is a pervasive feature of social structures. In today's society power emerges to facilitate problem solving and group decision making (van Vugt, 2006). Power hierarchies are necessary and consented by society at large because they serve collective goals. Consequently, power positions tend to be occupied by merit, competence or social agreement (Boehm & Flack, in press; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). Under such conditions, power is perceived as deserved - i.e., power is legitimate (Tajfel, 1981).

Although power is often legitimized, this is not always the case. Some power hierarchies are perceived as unfair and inadequate (i.e., are illegitimate, see Tyler, 2006). Illegitimate power relations are socially undesirable, and are subject to opposition. In this sense, illegitimate power may be less stable than legitimate power (Spears, Greenwood, de Lemus, & Sweetman, in press; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In the present article we examine the effects of power legitimacy on the self-regulatory processes of powerless individuals.

Powerless individuals have more constraints, live in difficult environments (Keltner et al., 2003), and have largely unmet needs (Henry & Pratto, in press). As a consequence, a powerless position strongly and consistently impairs performance in a variety of cognitive and goal directed tasks. Powerless individuals are more inhibited (Keltner et al., 2003), are distracted by peripheral cues, and are less able to focus attention on their focal goals (Guinote, 2007a; see also Smith, Jostman, Galinsky, & van Dijk, 2008). Compared to powerful individuals, those without power distinguish less between goal relevant and irrelevant information (Guinote, 2007b; 2008; see also Overbeck & Park, 2001). Consequently, powerless individuals show poorer performance in all phases of goal pursuit (Guinote, 2007c): They are slower at setting a

goal and initiating goal pursuit once a goal has been set; they use less flexible means during goal striving, and they persist less in the face of difficulties. Noteworthy is the fact that this research has focused on legitimate power.

A different scenario may occur when power is illegitimate. An unfair or inadequate powerless position elicits anger (Nugier, Niedenthal, Brauer, & Chekroun, 2007), which in turn may orient individuals towards action (Lerner & Keltner, 2001; see also Lammers, Galinsky, Gordijn, & Otten, 2008). Powerless individuals may also be more inclined to change the system (see Major et al., 2002).

The unfairness and instability of illegitimate power opens an interesting possibility for powerless individuals. Instead of focusing on the social position they have, and the drawbacks of being powerless, these individuals may focus on the social position they want to achieve (Spears, Jetten, & Doosje, 2001). Put differently, because illegitimate power is perceived as inadequate and unstable, powerless individuals may focus on gains rather than losses (Lammers et al., 2008; Willis, 2008). Focusing on gains has a host of beneficial consequences, such as increasing an individuals' sense of control (Langens, 2007).

We propose, therefore, that the negative effects of powerlessness on goal pursuit are ameliorated when power is illegitimate. This prediction is consistent with recent findings indicating that illegitimate powerless individuals, compared to legitimate powerless individuals, engage more in approach behavior, such as risk taking (Lammers et al., 2008). In the present article we argue that illegitimate powerless individuals should also more unequivocally pursue goals. Our focus on powerlessness is justified by the detrimental effects that it generally has on goal pursuit.

We examine the impact of legitimacy on the ways powerless individuals pursue goals, and we focus on different components of goal pursuit. Successful goal attainment

depends on the appropriate completion of the pre-actional and actional phases of goal pursuit (Gollwitzer, 1996; Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987). Specifically, it requires the ability to weight different desires and set goals, to generate flexible means to strive for goals, and to persist in the face of difficulties during goal striving. Failure in any of these tasks can compromise goal attainment.

We propose that illegitimacy improves the performance of powerless individuals in all phases of goal pursuit. Accordingly, illegitimate powerless individuals should be faster at setting goals, should generate more means to pursue goals, and should persist longer in the face of difficulties, compared to their legitimate counterparts. Two experiments tested these hypotheses. Study 1 examined goal-setting and goal-striving. Specifically, it examined how much time powerless legitimate and illegitimate individuals needed to set goals, and how many means they generated to pursue the goals. Study 2 examined persistence in the face of difficulties. This second experiment also included a control condition to better establish the effects of legitimacy.

Study 1

Efficient goal pursuit requires the ability to distinguish between important and unimportant desires, which initiates faster decisions and goal-setting (Gollwitzer, Heckhausen, & Ratajczak, 1990; see also Förster, Liberman, & Higgins, 2005; Shah, Friedman, & Kruglanski, 2002). It also requires flexibility in the means used to pursue goals (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Locke & Latham, 1990). These aspects of goal pursuit were examined in Study 1.

We measured the time participants needed to set a goal, and the number of means they generated to accomplish it. Powerlessness and legitimacy were primed using a past event procedure (Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Magee, 2003; Lammers et al., 2008). Participants were then presented with scenarios depicting various goal-related

situations. For each scenario participants were asked how much time or information they needed to make decisions and how many means they could think of to implement the goal efficiently. It was hypothesised that illegitimate powerless participants, compared to legitimate powerless participants, would need less time and information to set a goal, and would generate more means to attain it.

Method

Participants

Forty-six undergraduate students from a European University (30 women and 16 men), with a mean age of 20.27 years ($SD = 2.06$), participated in the study in exchange for course credits. They were randomly assigned to one of the two legitimacy conditions.

Procedure

Upon arrival participants were asked to participate in two different studies: one study focusing on “past experiences”, and a pre-test about decisions in everyday situations. Participants wrote an essay about a past situation in which they were illegitimately powerless, or a past situation in which they were legitimately powerless, following Lammers et al. (2008). Specifically, participants were given the following instructions:

“Remember a particular incident in which someone else had power over you, and that you would define that power as fair or legitimate [unfair or illegitimate]. By power, we mean a situation in which someone had control over your ability to get something you wanted, or was in a position to evaluate you. By legitimate [illegitimate] we mean that the other was [not] entitled (was fair and adequate)[(was unfair and inadequate)] to have power over you”.

Upon completion participants were asked to take part in a pre-test for another study. They were asked to estimate how long it would take them, or how much information they would need, before setting the goals depicted in 4 scenarios adapted from Guinote (2007c). The four scenarios asked participants to make decisions related to renting a room, buying a motorcycle, doing an internship and planning a holiday. For example, one scenario read: *Imagine that you live outside the city and you are moving into the city. You will start looking for a room tomorrow. How many rooms do you think you will need to see before making a decision?* Answers were given in 10-point Likert scales.

Subsequently, participants were asked to generate as many means as possible to successfully accomplish each goal. For instance, participants were asked: *Please list all things you could do in order to select the best option for you.* The number of means generated was our measure of flexibility of means during goal striving.

Results and Discussion

Three foreign participants were excluded from the analyses due to inappropriate language skills.

Goal Setting

First, the answers given to the 4-scenarios were averaged into one score ($\alpha = .69$). This score indicated participants' readiness to set a goal, with lower values reflecting less decision time, and less information needed before the decision. An independent samples *t*-test was then conducted on this score. This revealed significant differences between participants in the illegitimate and legitimate powerless conditions, $t(41) = 2.79$; $p = .008$; $d = .87$. As expected, illegitimate powerless participants ($M = 5.10$; $SD = 1.49$) needed less time to set their goals compared to legitimate powerless participants ($M = 6.47$; $SD = 1.72$).

Flexibility during Goal Striving

The number of different ways to strive for the goals was counted, and averaged across scenarios ($\alpha = .67$). An independent samples t -test conducted on this score showed, as expected, that illegitimate powerless participants ($M = 2.95$; $SD = .68$) generated more means to pursue a goal compared to legitimate powerless participants ($M = 2.53$; $SD = .54$), $t(41) = 2.24$, $p = .030$, $d = .69$).

These results indicate that legitimacy is a crucial factor influencing the ability to quickly set goals and the number of means generated to strive for these goals. When powerlessness was illegitimate, individuals took less time to decide on their courses of action and generated more means to strive for their goals.

Study 2

Study 2 examined an additional aspect of self-regulation necessary for successful goal pursuit: persistence in the face of difficulties (Goeschke & Kuhl, 1993; Gollwitzer, 1996). Moreover, a control condition was included to verify whether powerlessness affects goal pursuit when power is illegitimate.

Participants were asked to search for 12 words embedded in a matrix of letters. In reality, the matrix only contained 8 words, which rendered the task difficult. The total time participants took before they gave up the word search was the measure of persistence in the face of difficulties.

Method*Participants*

Participants were 60 undergraduate students from a European University (all were women) with a mean age of 18.88 years ($SD = 1.50$). Participants were assigned to one of the three between-participants conditions (legitimate powerless, illegitimate powerless or control group).

Procedure

Power and legitimacy were manipulated similarly as in Study 1. Depending on the experimental condition, participants were instructed to describe a situation in which they were in a legitimate powerless position, in an illegitimate powerless position, or they described what they did the day before (control condition; Galinsky et al., 2003). As part of a supposedly separate study, participants were invited to complete a 12-word search puzzle, and were asked to try to find all the 12 words. A pre-test indicated that participants could generally find at least 7 words. The task was completed on a personal computer. Participants were instructed to press a key each time they found a word, to write down the word, and to press a different key if they wanted to discontinue the task. The computer recorded how long participants took to find each word, and how long they took to give up the task. After participants had pressed the give-up key or 16 minutes had elapsed, they were probed for suspicion, thanked, debriefed and dismissed. All participants believed that the puzzle contained 12 words.

Results and Discussion

Goal Persistence

Three participants were excluded from the analysis because they did not follow the instructions. A univariate ANOVA on persistence (measured in seconds from starting to ending the task) was conducted, with legitimacy (illegitimate, legitimate, and control) as the between-subjects factor. This analysis yielded a main effect of legitimacy, $F(2, 57) = 3.88, p = .026, \eta^2 = .12$. To test our hypothesis, a planned contrast was ran in which participants assigned to the illegitimate ($M = 745.24; SD = 168.78$) and control conditions ($M = 816.72; SD = 150.40$) were compared to participants assigned to the legitimate condition ($M = 681.78; SD = 152.75$). In line with previous findings, legitimate powerless participants persisted less than control participants, $F(1,$

57) = 5.31, $p = .024$. However, illegitimate powerless participants did not differ from control participants ($F(1, 57) = 2.05$, *ns*). In other words, when power was illegitimate, powerless participants were as persistent as those who were not in a power relationship.

Efficiency

We interpreted the previous results in terms of differences in persistence. However, it is possible that legitimate powerless individuals were faster at finding the words, and therefore finished the task earlier. We examined this possibility.

The number of words found was not dependent on experimental conditions, $F < 1$. There were also no significant differences regarding the time spent to find existing words, (illegitimate powerless, $M = 352.68$, $SD = 43.70$; legitimate powerless, $M = 375.57$, $SD = 41.45$; and control, $M = 431.12$; $SD = 39.52$), $F < 1$, *ns*. However, as expected, there were significant differences regarding the time participants spent trying to find nonexistent words, $F(2, 57) = 4.80$; $p = .012$, $\eta^2 = .14$. That is, when the task became more difficult, legitimate powerless participants ($M = 196.38$; $SD = 150.84$) persisted less than illegitimate ($M = 298.43$; $SD = 134.52$) and control participants ($M = 340.77$; $SD = 170.04$), $F(1, 57) = 8.53$; $p = .004$.

General Discussion

Past research has shown that being in a powerless position has detrimental effects for goal pursuit (Guinote, 2007c). However, this research focused only on legitimate power relations. The present article expands this work by examining the effects of power legitimacy on the performance of powerless individuals. Consistent with previous findings, powerlessness had a negative impact on goal pursuit, but only when participants were primed with legitimate powerlessness. In contrast, when participants were primed with illegitimate powerlessness, their goal directed behavior did not suffer. Specifically, in Study 1, participants primed with legitimate powerlessness were slower

at setting a goal, and were less flexible in the means used to pursue the goal compared to those primed with illegitimate powerlessness. In Study 2, when goal pursuit was difficult, participants primed with legitimate powerlessness persisted less in goal striving compared to control participants, a result that is consistent with past findings. However, when participants were primed with illegitimate powerlessness, they persisted as much as their control counterparts.

Recent findings have shown that illegitimacy disinhibits powerless individuals (Lammers et al., 2008). As the present research shows, illegitimacy also enhances self-regulation in powerless individuals during goal pursuit. These effects were observed across different phases of goal pursuit, and were reflected both in the speed of action, and in the flexibility and persistence during goal striving.

These findings provide initial insight into the role of power legitimacy in goal-related behavior, helping to establish the boundary conditions of the effects of power. Furthermore, they highlight a paradox of power. Although powerless individuals consent power at the service of collective goals, legitimizing it, legitimate power is detrimental for the powerless individuals involved. In contrast, when power is illegitimate, powerless individuals are more prone to protest power, yet they are less affected by power at the self-regulatory level. In a similar vein, studies with non-human primates indicate that when power hierarchies are unstable, subordinate animals exhibit less maladaptive stress responses (Rivers & Josephs, in press; Sapolsky, 2005).

One limitation of the present work is that power and legitimacy were manipulated using a priming procedure. In past research, this priming procedure yielded similar results to research that used actual role manipulations to induce legitimate or illegitimate power relations between participants (e.g., Lammers et al., 2008). However, future research needs to examine power and legitimacy in more realistic power contexts.

It also needs to examine more ecologically valid behavior during goal striving, and to focus on the mechanisms that account for the present findings. In particular, it is important to establish the role of emotions, such as anger, and expectancies of increased power in powerless individuals.

From a broader perspective, legitimate powerlessness helps perpetuate hierarchical systems, given that power differences imply differences in performance, and differences in performance increase differences in actual power (see Vescio et al., 2005). In contrast, illegitimacy renders low power groups more able to oppose the system and engage in collective action (Spears et al., in press). Revolts, social movements, and social revolutions are clear examples showing that, even without resources, illegitimate powerless groups attempt to gain power by creating, developing, and attracting resources (Pfeffer, 1992, Turner, 2005). If past research has indicated that perceived illegitimacy is crucial for collective action and social change, the present work suggests that, at least in part, this may occur through the ways illegitimacy affects self-regulation.

References

- Boehm, C., & Flack, J.C. (in press). The Emergence of Simple and Complex Power Structures through Social Niche Construction. In A. Guinote y T. K. Vescio (Eds.), *The social psychology of power*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Fiske, S. T. (1993). Controlling other people: The impact of power on stereotyping. *American Psychologist*, 48(6), 621-628.
- Fiske, S. T., & Dépret, E. (1996). Control interdependence and power: Understanding social cognition in its social context. In W. Stroebe y M. Hewstone (Eds.), *European Review of Social Psychology* (vol 7, pp. 31-61). New York: Wiley.
- Förster, J., Liberman, N., & Higgins, E.T. (2005). Accessibility from active and fulfilled goals. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 41, 220-239.
- Galinsky, A. D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Magee, J. C. (2003). From power to action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 3, 453-466.
- Goeschke, T., & Kuhl, J. (1993). Representation of intentions: Persisting activation in memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 19, 1211-1226.
- Gollwitzer, P.M. (1996). The volitional benefits of planning. In P.M. Gollwitzer & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *The psychology of action: Linking cognition and motivation to behavior* (pp. 287-312). New York: Guilford.
- Gollwitzer, P. M., Heckhausen, H., & Ratajczak, H. (1990). From weighing to willing: Approaching a change decision through pre- or postdecisional mentation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 45(1), 41-65.

- Guinote, A. (2007a). Behaviour variability and the situated focus theory of power. In W. Stroebe & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *European Review of Social Psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Guinote, A. (2007b). Power affects basic cognition: Increased attentional inhibition and flexibility. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *43*, 685-697.
- Guinote, A. (2007c). Power and goal pursuit. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *33*, 1076-1087.
- Guinote, A. (2008). Power and affordances: When the situation has more power over powerful than over powerless individuals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* *95*, 237-252.
- Heckhausen, H., & Gollwitzer, P.M. (1987). Thought contents and cognitive functioning in motivational versus volitional states of mind. *Motivation and Emotion*, *11*, 101-120.
- Henry, P. J., & Pratto, F. (in press). *Power and Racism*. In: A. Guinote & T. K. Vescio (Eds.). *The social psychology of power*.
- Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review*, *110*(2), 265-284.
- Lammers, J., Galinsky, A.D., Gordijn E.H., & Otten, S. (2008). Illegitimacy moderates the effects on power on approach. *Psychological Science*, *19*, 558-564.
- Langens, T. A. (2007). Regulatory focus and illusions of control. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *33*(2), 226-237.
- Lerner, J. S., & Keltner, D. (2001). Fear, anger, and risk. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*, 146-159.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Major, B., McCoy, S. K., Schmader, T., Gramzow, R. H., Levin, S., & Sidanius, J. (2002). Perceiving personal discrimination: The role of group status and legitimizing ideology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *82*(3), 269-282.
- Nugier, A., Niedenthal, P. M., Brauer, M., & Chekroun, P. (2007). Moral and angry emotions provoked by informal social control. *Cognition and Emotion*, *21*(8), 1699-1720.
- Overbeck, J. R., & Park, B. (2001). When power does not corrupt: Superior individuation processes among powerful perceivers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*, 549-565.
- Pfeffer, J. (1992). *Managing with power: Politics and influence in organizations*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Ridgeway, C. L., & Berger, P. (1986). Expectations, legitimation, and dominance behavior in task groups. *American Sociological Review*, *51*, 603-617.
- Rivers, J.J., & Josephs, R.A. (in press). Dominance and health. In A. Guinote y T. K. Vescio (Eds.), *The social psychology of power*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Sapolsky, R. M. (2005). The influence of social hierarchy on primate health. *Science*, *308*(5722), 648-652.
- Shah, J., Friedman, R., & Kruglanski, A. (2002). Forgetting all else: On the antecedents and consequences of goal shielding. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*, 1261-1280.
- Smith, P. K., Jostman, N., Galinsky, A. D., & van Dijk, W. W. (2008). Lacking power impairs executive functions. *Psychological Science*, *19*, 441-447.

- Spears, R., Greenwood, R., de Lemus, S., & Sweetman, J. (in press). Legitimacy, social identity and power. In: A. Guinote & T. K. Vescio (Eds.). *The social psychology of power*.
- Spears, R., Jetten, J., & Doosje, B. (2001). The (Il)legitimacy of ingroup bias. From social reality to social resistance. In J. Jost, & B. Major (Eds.) *The psychology of legitimacy: Emerging perspectives on ideology, justice, and intergroup relations* (pp. 332-362). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tajfel, H. (1981). *Human Groups and Social Categories*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Tajfel, H. & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In: W. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The psychology of intergroup relations* (pp.33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Turner, J. C. (2005) Explaining the nature of power: A three process theory. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 35, 1-22.
- Tyler, T. R. (2006). Psychological perspectives on legitimacy and legitimation. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 57, 375-400.
- van Vugt, M. (2006). Evolutionary Origins of Leadership and Followership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 10, 354-371
- Vescio, T. K., Gervais, S. J., Snyder, M., & Hoover, A. (2005). Power and the creation of patronizing environments: The stereotype-based behaviors of the powerful and their effects on female performance in masculine domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 88, 658-572
- Willis, G.B. (2008). *Power, Legitimacy and Goal Content*. Paper presented at the symposium “Power, Legitimacy and Leadership”, convener: Russell Spears. 15th EAESP General Meeting. Opatija, Croatia.