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Construction and impact of leader identity of dynamic work selves at social enterprises: Linkage of the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes with motivational work outcomes

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Construction and impact of leader identity of dynamic work selves at social

enterprises:

Linkage of the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes with motivational work

outcomes

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ABSTRACT

Three empirical studies conducted for this Ph.D. project investigated the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes related to leader identity construction of individuals at the hybrid institutional work context of social enterprises. Identity work as an intrapersonal process, which is closely linked to leader identity development, has rarely been empirically investigated through experimental studies of leaders-to-be who have motivation to lead. The field experiments in Study 1 ($N = 34$) and Study 2 ($N = 26$) examined the employees' leader-role claiming process that lead to leader identity construction. The longitudinal results showed that leader-role claiming predicted leader identity development, which was related to motivation to lead, demonstrating that the intrapersonal sensemaking process manifested in identity work had sustained motivational effects. The cross-sectional Study 3, which collected data from social enterprise employees ($N = 79$), examined the mediating effects of the dual leader and collective identifications on the relationships of the antecedent variables, including work-role identity salience, servant leadership, and perceived organisational support, with the motivational outcome variables of motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy. The results of Study 3 showed that leader identity, as an individual self-construal, mediated the relationships between work-role identity salience and intrinsic work motivation (marginally) and self-efficacy, while the collective self-construal mediated the relationships of perceived organisational support with social-normative motivation to lead and self-efficacy. The results of the three studies showed a linkage between the intrapersonal process (Studies 1 and 2) and the interpersonal process (Study 3) of the dynamic self at work. Moreover, the three studies extended leadership theories by showing how identity dynamics predicted by work-role and contextual factors impact individual motivational tendencies including leadership, work motivation, and self-efficacy.

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this study to my mum and dad, who are always the main source of inspiration in my life.

Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Purpose of Research Project

The primary concern of this research is to examine the construction of leader identity in the prosocial work context of social enterprises and its effects on individual motivational outcomes at work. The intrapersonal process of making sense of one's leading behaviours through self-narratives is crucial in facilitating one's leader identity internalisation. Internalisation, in turn, has motivational consequences for leadership skill development that is grounded in a possible self—that is, a self that is elaborated through one's leadership trajectory across time. Nevertheless, despite the critical role of identities and internalisation in affecting motivational tendencies of employees at work, many aspects of the underlying processes have not been empirically investigated. Therefore, the goal of this dissertation is to investigate the development of leader identity as an intrapersonal process through self-narratives using experimental studies as an intrapersonal level of study. Moreover, the interpersonal processes that affect individual motivational outcomes at work are examined using a cross-sectional study. The objective here is to determine whether results from the experimental studies will generalise to other settings and how they are linked to the results of the cross-sectional study, which is related to the interpersonal process in generating motivational consequences.

The importance of individual narrative identity work in crafting one's self-conception has been discussed by organisational and identity scholars (Ibarra, 1999; Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006; Pratt, Rockman, & Kaufmann, 2006; Thornborrow & Brown, 2009) as well as by leadership scholars (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). With the goal of

extending the theories related to the process of leader identity construction, the initial two experimental studies conducted as part of this Ph.D. project manipulated how narrative 'leader-role claiming' could mediate leader identity construction among employees. The Ph.D. project examined this process empirically as one that is commonly situated in organisations, and argued for the importance of its intrapersonal dynamics in leader identity construction. Leader identity development was further examined in tandem with external factors in a final cross-sectional study.

Leader identity construction is a kind of situated identity construction that involves both intrapersonal and interpersonal processes and has motivational consequences that affect individuals within organisations. At an individual level, a person's intrapersonal process involves organising episodic memory by constructing self-narratives or *identity work* that interprets the person's role-based experiences that are linked to leading behaviours. At an interpersonal level, a person's relational experiences are grounded in the sensemaking of social and contextual information effected by leadership or organisational culture. A principal theoretical objective is to integrate work at these two levels into a coherent, process-based theory. Consequently, this dissertation has multi-disciplinary conceptual underpinnings, which address internal cognitive processes as well as external social processes. In investigating these processes, a major goal is to integrate theories from neuroscience, cognitive science, social psychology, sociology, leadership, and organisational studies as they apply to this topic and to provide empirical evidence related to this topic.

Empirical studies that have deployed an integrated approach to examine the within-person process of leader identity construction remain limited. Methodologically, this Ph.D. research study aims to investigate a novel method, which combines qualitative and quantitative techniques, for fostering identity development through experimentally

manipulated self-narrative prompts. The use of this experimental approach in examining the

intrapersonal process is intended to further the understanding of causality. The mediating

effect of the activated leader identity that impacts different motivational and attitudinal

individual outcomes has rarely been examined. Therefore, the objective of the final cross-

sectional study, together with the experimental studies, is to offer a holistic view of how

leader identity is constructed and cognitively mediates motivational dynamics that can lead to

motivational consequences.

1.2   Response to Existing Research Gaps

This Ph.D. research study is a response to three important research gaps identified by

prominent academic discussions of the leader identity process and identity work studies: (1)

examining the levels of analysis in leader identity studies; (2) expanding the limited empirical

examination of the 'claiming and granting' concept; and (3) extending deeper understanding

of contextual factors that impact personal and social self-construal at work.

First, the understanding of leadership and followership identity processes has not been

advanced sufficiently, according to Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, and Lord (2017). They

pointed out that different 'levels of analysis' in terms of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and

collective aspects of leader identity processes have rarely been examined in a coherent

manner. At the intrapersonal level, the generally ignored 'personal identification process'

(Ashforth, Schinoff, & Rogers, 2016) is examined as a critical linkage that helps integrate

these levels because it translates the social and organisational levels into an intrapersonal

level of information processing. Hence, the intrapersonal level of analysis provides a

profound, yet seldom researched, understanding of the leadership identification processes.

Moreover, following the call of Epitropaki et al. (2017), who pointed out the inadequate

investigation of the leader identity process, this study theorises that the *identity work* concept should be examined as a process that can lead to leadership identification.

Second, 'claiming and granting'—a socially relevant leadership identity construction process proposed by DeRue and Ashford (2010)—has 635 citation counts (on 21 November 2017) according to a Google Scholar search, but has rarely been empirically examined. One of these authors (S. DeRue, personal communication, February 15, 2015) confirmed that they did not operationalise methods for the empirical examination of the concept. The conception of leader identity involved a role-related self-construal (DeRue & Ashford, 2010), which requires social validation. Thus, the identity can be invoked through "individual internalization, relational recognition, and collective endorsement" (p. 629) within a work environment. These authors suggested 'experimental study' as an appropriate method for examining the causal relationships at play. More recently, Pirlott and MacKinnon (2016) emphasised the power of using an experimental approach to identify causal mechanisms. This study, therefore, attempts to measure leader-role claiming narratives using an innovative approach in two field experiments by integrating qualitative data with longitudinal survey data.

Third, Ashforth et al. (2016), in their discussion of personal identification, advised that contextual factors are hugely important in priming various levels of self. Interpersonal relationships in a specific context are an important contextual factor because they are borne from the dynamics of socialisation, which in turn serves as the building blocks of social self-construal and relational schemas. Ashforth et al. (2016) proposed that relational self-construal is crucial for personal identification. Relational schemas built and validated through social interaction are crucial for shaping one's self-identity. The third cross-sectional study of this research project examines whether contextual factors—namely, perceived organisational

support and servant leadership—together with work-role identity salience are antecedents to leader identity and collective self-concept. It also examines the mediating effects of identity in the relationship between the contextual factors and the attitudinal and motivational outcomes of employees.

1.3   Scope of Research Project

This Ph.D. research project aims to investigate two important aspects of leader identity construction. First, it tests hypotheses related to the *process* that employees use to construct a leader identity in a work context. Second, it examines the mediating effects of self-identity on individual work outcomes. To address these research questions, it is crucial to determine two parameters—namely, the research method and the research context from which data are collected.

The first concern that shaped the scope of this study was the selection of the research method or methods. To examine the leader identity construction process, the 'claiming and granting' process as a form of identity work was investigated relative to leader identity development through the two experimental studies. This approach was adopted because causality in a complex social process is understood only through research relying on an experimental design. The 'claiming' aspect as an identity work process was manipulated through an experimental procedure that produced qualitative, narrative role-claiming measures, which were then turned into continuous variables. (Details are provided in Section 4.1.10). To understand the antecedent of the leader identity process, the work-role identity salience construct was used because work identities are often grounded in work roles (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Then, responding to Epitropaki et al.'s (2017) suggestion to consider the motivational consequence linked to identity development, the 'motivation to lead' construct was included as a central outcome variable in the experimental studies (Studies 1 and 2).

The third study in this research project addresses the second part of the research question, which deals with the contextual factors that impact leader identity. The two field experiments were conducted in two work integration social enterprises (WISEs): one in which employees demonstrated individual leading behaviours, and one in which the WISE operated more on a team basis. The cross-sectional study, though different in design, was consistent with the experimental studies in terms of examining leader identity effects in WISEs, which provide a rich and positive context for investigating the leader identity construction process.

WISEs are an ideal setting in which to investigate identity work and identity development because their goal is to support individuals in ways that nurture identity development. Thus, individual identity development has a more central focus in WISEs than in organisations whose central aim is to generate profits for shareholders. Consequently, we could expect both greater effects of identity work on employees' identity development and changes that persist over time because they are supported by organisational processes. These favourable aspects of the chosen setting compensate for the limitations in sample sizes that were encountered.

Recent appeals by editors of major journals (Salas, Kozlowski, & Chen, 2017; Shaw, 2017) to examine alternative organisational issues and work contexts such as inequality and diversity validated the choice of the research context for this research project. In determining the research context, I selected WISEs for two reasons. First, these organisations have hybrid institutional logics. Specifically, they have both social and financial goals, although their primary organisational mission is to address the social issue of unemployment of the marginalised members of the society. This kind of 'prosocial' work environment has a conscious 'job crafting' concern, which is considered crucial for employee identity

development (Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). This concern is especially relevant for the WISEs' marginalised employees (such as the Study 1 subjects, who were blind or deaf), whose needs were the rationale for founding these organisations. Moreover, the identity literature that examines 'dirty work' and 'the stigmatised' has shown that positive identity construction of employees can become a resource for proactive work attitude development. Positive identification, with the presence of organisational support, can be a form of empowerment. Therefore, it was believed that the positive WISE environment could provide an interesting field setting for exploring the potent force of identity within employees who are served by the organisation, yet also serve the organisation in fulfilling its financial goal and achieving the practical goal of employment—the latter has a profound impact because WISEs offer a purpose-driven work environment.

Since the social enterprise sector is a relatively new and developing area, the organisations in this sector tend to be small in terms of both (financial) size and number of employees. This factor led to the small sample sizes used in the studies. Nevertheless, the 'prosocial' and 'positive work environment' aspects of WISEs are considered important and have been the foci of recent management studies (Battilana, Sengul, Pache, & Model, 2015; Pache & Santos, 2013; Tracey & Phillips, 2016; Wry & York, 2017). It was anticipated that these 'rarely treaded' social enterprise research sites would offer rewarding process-related empirical results for phenomena that are also relevant to mainstream organisations.

1.4   Contributions of Research Project

This research project makes methodological, theoretical, and empirical contributions. Specifically, the project, which included devising a manipulation of role claiming and collecting repeated measures of leader identity activation and motivation to lead, makes five major contributions.

First, the study provides an example of how the 'role claiming' construct can be operationalised and experimentally manipulated. This is important because identity work (Ibarra, 1999), which is an important psychological phenomenon for identity development, has been predominantly studied using an ethnographic approach. This project used an innovative approach to collect qualitative data for analysing participants' verbal claims through an experimental study design. In essence, it integrated qualitative and experimental approaches to allow a more robust design for understanding causality. Future research could employ this method to examine antecedents and outcomes of a variety of role-claiming social interactions.

Second, the empirical results provide insights into leader identity internalisation processes in relation to an individual's motivation to lead, which has been triggered by identity work. This may be especially crucial in understanding how identity as a construct has latent power that can be developed over time if the individual's work-role identity is a salient consideration, even for employees in non-leader positions but whose roles require leading behaviours. Moreover, the potency of the leader identity internalisation stems from the possible activation of social motivation (Lord & Brown, 2004) linked to leadership development.

Third, the results provide initial but significant evidence and insights that extend the existing literature on identity work and leader development. Specifically, they demonstrate the generative power (McAdams, 2013; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992) of identity work unleashed by personal narratives. Verbal claims that produce self-relevant stories in the process of identity work can foster an individual's identity development, which then has behavioural consequences. Thus, when this identity is linked to leadership, self-motivated leadership development can be anticipated. This stands in contrast to the more typical

leadership development, which often is fostered by external programmes (e.g., leadership training by organisations) as learning interventions.

Fourth, identifying the antecedents of leader identity development is important because, as the study results show, leader identity has implications for leadership development, motivation to lead, and other behavioural consequences. This research project, in Study 3, also explores possible organisational factors—namely, perceived organisational support and servant leadership—that impact leader identity development. In addition, this cross-sectional study examines whether the interpersonal process might be mediated by individuated leader or collective identifications in effecting motivational outcomes. The ensuing linkage of the interpersonal process with the intrapersonal process heightens the understanding of identity complexity explicated by the dynamic self at work. This process perspective is a powerful aspect of research, but deserves more attention in appreciating the self in a complex work context.

Fifth, this Ph.D. project has practical implications for talent development—especially the use of the leader-role claiming process as a tool for identifying potential leaders for further leadership development. The practice of awarding leadership training solely to individuals with explicit leadership roles overlooks a potential pool of leadership candidates whose latent leadership potential may be less obvious and more challenging to detect. This is particularly true for marginalised employees, such as those in the WISEs used as the samples for this study. Moreover, managers who are initially put in leadership roles may be poor matches with their new leadership positions. The 'leader-role claiming' construct examined in this study can be used to evaluate the leadership identity and motivation to lead of these organisational leaders, perhaps indicating whether they have high potential to benefit from

leadership development programmes. More importantly, it can foster identity development

through identity work that helps ameliorate mismatches in leadership position appointments.

1.5   Research Design and Chapter Overviews

This research project adopts a dominantly positivist approach in examining leader

identity construction. Figure 1.1 shows the relationships among the three studies undertaken

in this dissertation project. Two field experimental studies (Studies 1 and 2) with longitudinal

designs were used to investigate the relationship between leader-role claiming and leader

identity development as an intrapersonal process. To examine the process of leader identity

development, including its motivational consequences, a correlational study (Study 3)

examined the direct effects of intrapersonal and interpersonal antecedents on leader identity

as well as the indirect effects on motivational outcomes including motivation to lead, work

motivation, and self-efficacy was conducted.

Figure 1.1 Conceptual relations of the three leader identity studies that examined the
intrapersonal and interpersonal processes on individual motivational outcomes at work
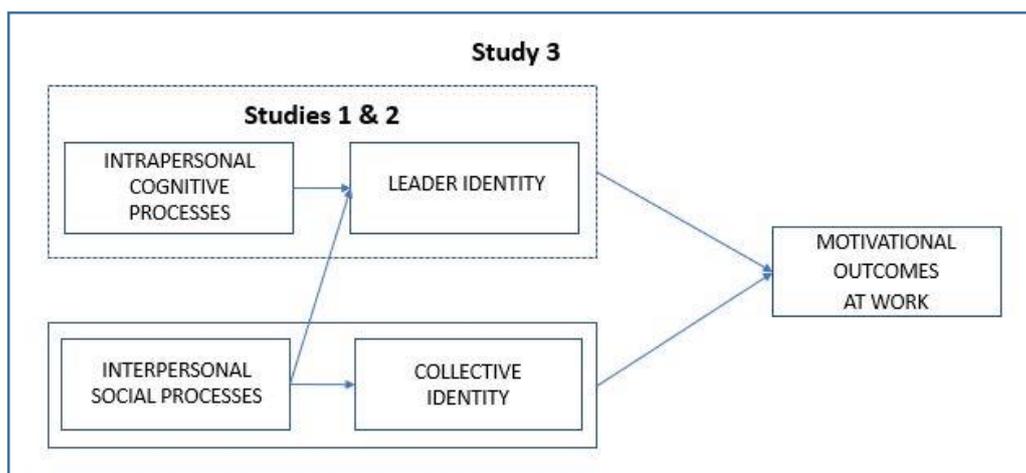
This dissertation provides the rationale, description, and empirical findings for the

three studies. The literature review provided in Chapter 2 discusses theories that are key to

these three studies to develop an overall theoretical framework. These theories are then

elaborated in the specific chapters that profile the respective studies. In Chapter 3, the research philosophy and methodology are covered to provide the rationale of the research design. Chapter 4 presents Studies 1 and 2, while Chapter 5 covers Study 3. Chapter 6 contains the general discussion and research limitations. The dissertation then concludes with Chapter 7, which is followed by references and appendices.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leader identity development over time is a socially constructed, self-based phenomenon that requires the complex integration of internal and external processes, such as social validation. To unravel this complexity in this chapter, prior to the literature review, self theories relevant to leader identity development are summarised into three major assumptions, which serve as the underpinnings for understanding how the self operates.

Following the discussion of these assumptions, identity construction as a situated narrative process is elaborated. Its relations with autobiographical memory access, self-motives, and possible selves are established. Moreover, the linkages of these discussions are placed in the social enterprise context, which is relevant as the context of this research project. Finally, the chapter presents a literature review that contains the related theories for the development of the research models of this research project.

2.1   Self-Based Assumptions about Identity Construction

The "*self* is a complex mental structure involving self-concepts and self-identities on which meaning for actions and events is based" (Lord, Gatti, & Chui, 2016, p. 125). This section's explication of three assumptions included in self-related theories is intended to provide better clarity and guidance towards the subsequent discussion of leader identity construction.

Assumption 1: The self is a dynamic construct that relies on one's memory system in activating self-schemas and constructing self-identities in response to situational cues. The *self* is a dynamic and unifying construct that is based on a conscious convergence of self-relevant information (Lord & Chui, 2018). The overall conception of 'who am I' is contained

in one's self-concept (e.g., I am a 'male', 'tall', and 'committed' 'accountant'), which is a collection of self-schemas connected to one's personal traits, values, attributes, past experiences, knowledge and skill structures, and aspired future selves. Baumeister (1999, p. 247) defined self-concept as "The individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is". Its operation hinges on the memory-based representation (Greenwald & Banaji, 1989) and the working self-concept (WSC), a situated processing structure that regulates attitudes and behaviours (Markus & Wurf, 1987).

Self-schemas are 'modular processing structures' that encompass qualities within a specific domain and context. For example, Paul's professional schema is 'an accountant', while he is one of the 'founders' of the firm within his work context; he is also the 'father' of three kids at home. Day in and day out, Paul carries these self-schemas with him, as an accountant, a founder, and a father, although they are not necessarily put into active use at the same time. Indeed, usually only one situationally activated schema is triggered within a relevant context. Nevertheless, McCall and Simmons (1978) suggest that some identities are clustered. In Paul's case, his professional and work self-schema are clustered within the firm, and each can serve as the basis for a situationally constructed work identity. This kind of complementarity is discussed further in Assumptions 2 and 3.

Self-identity, in contrast to self-schemas, represents "a global interpretation of the self that emphasises its grounding in social and situational processes" (Lord et al., 2016). A self-identity is a consciously constructed structure that integrates active schemas with contextual information. Although often similar to the self-schemas that are activated in a situation, self-identity goes beyond these schemas in that it reflects a self-construal (a process in defining and meaning-making of the self) that takes account of task demands, organisational norms, and expected social reactions to one's qualities and behaviours.

To summarise, the self is a complex structure that deploys both internal and external dynamics to tackle situational and moment-by-moment contextual demands through self-regulation. Self-regulation fosters personal strivings because when action schemas and scripts are aligned with goal cognition, self-regulation creates motivational effects (Karoly, 1993), which can typically be found in self-regulation at work. For example, "[i]ndividual growth and development, greater well-being and realization of desired possible selves" (Lord, Diefendorff, Schmidt, & Hall, 2010, p. 562) can be expected over time as self-regulatory cycles are triggered within a work role. The self relies on its situated self-construal, which integrates information to consciously construct identity, which in turn is a powerful constraint on goal emergence, motivation, and emotional processes. These identity-contextualised behaviours then continue to shape and reshape self-schemas and self-identity. It is this kind of dynamic within-person developmental change in leader identity construction of employees that this study is keen to examine.

Assumption 2: The self seeks positive information and meaning for maintaining positivity for one's work-related identity. Intrinsic need directs an individual to establish a positive self-regard. Self-positivity (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995), as a form of implicit cognition, seeks information to sustain a positive self-view (Baumeister & Jones, 1978) and promote the individual's positivity (Blaine & Crocker, 1993). The search for positivity in identity moves people to be aspirants—that is, to have aspiring identities to attain their preferred self-conceptions (Thornborrow & Brown, 2009) subject to different contexts which evoke different pathways for positive identity development.

Dutton, Roberts, and Bednar (2010) proposed a four-perspective typology in explaining the pathways for positive identity construction, which helps specify the consequences of Assumption 2. This typology comprises the 'virtuous, evaluative,

developmental, and structural' aspects of the self at work. First, a workplace that is imbued with virtuous attributes (WISEs are considered to have these attributes because of their social mission in serving the disadvantaged through work engagement) increases the likelihood that its employees will develop positive work-related self-schemas. Second, the evaluative perspective assumes that individuals are motivated to define personal and collective identities positively. This perspective asserts that identification, which allows individuals to differentiate themselves by establishing their uniqueness and distinctiveness, whether it be at an individual level or a collective level, is inclined to be positively assessed. For example, shared membership (Fine, 1996) provided cooks, as a vocational group, with a means to construct a positive collective identity. Third, the developmental perspective suggests that individuals tend to seek positive information content for realising adaptiveness and progression in their growth process. Hence, this progressive aspect of the identification allows the individual to construct a positive identity over time. Fourth, the structural aspect covers the complementarity of role and social identities and their mutually enhancing influence within a workplace. These pathways offer an overview of the trajectories that WISE employees, whom this study has studied, experience at work. These employees may experience the sum or part of these pathways in their process of leader identity construction.

Assumption 3: An individual self at work is nested in relational and collective identifications because an actor is engaged in a nexus of role relationships within a work context, including leader–follower relationships. Work provides a rich and salient environment for self-definition. Both personal and social identifications can take place (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 2008; Sluss, Ployhart, Cobb, & Ashforth, 2012; van Veelen, Otten, Cadinu, & Hansen, 2016), including role identity at the individual level, social identity at the group level, or identification at the organisational level. Cooper and Thatcher (2010) have suggested that employees' identifications within an organisation can affect their work outcomes because

the sense of 'who I am' and 'who we are' guide behaviours directed towards goal achievement to serve individual and group needs. Moreover, the relationships between the levels of employee identification and the different self-concept orientations are linked to different self-motives. Individual self-concept orientation is suggested to be associated with motives including self-enhancement, self-consistency, and self-expansion (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010). Relational and collective self-concept orientations (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010), by comparison, are associated with uncertainty reduction, self-expansion, and personalised belongingness. These motives explain and direct the intrapersonal dynamics that steer personal and socialised identification tendencies. These tendencies are also connected to leader–follower dynamics and leadership processes.

Employees define, categorise, stereotype, and anchor 'who I am' in the process of achieving salient identifications, including both relational and collective identifications, to derive meaning in a socially constructed work environment. The development of a cognitive category for categorising oneself in relation to the prototypical leader and associated group membership over time can lead to different identifications and relationships. Epitropaki et al. (2017, p. 11) suggest that two types of follower–leader relationships exist: personalised and socialised. A *personalised* leader–follower relationship encourages followers to be "obedient and submissive", such that followers are usually influenced by a charismatic and prototypical leader. Conversely, a *socialised* leader–follower relationship may result in followers who are self-motivated and feel autonomous when driven to action. If these followers anchor their self-identity in a strong group prototype with a leader who typifies group prototypicality, their collective power can be solidified and directed towards shared goals and values. This kind of self-anchoring has also been shown to be prevalent in a minimal group paradigm with in-group members who share the same fate (Candinu & Rothbart, 1996). Ultimately, such a model can result in collective leadership. The interaction of this combined identity-based

perspective with relational dynamics deserves scholars' attention as a means of elucidating

group dynamics, as this kind of identity lens can extend the social exchange perspective in

developing group dynamics theories. Figure 2.1 provides a linkage of the discussed

assumptions to leader identity construction, which is described in the next section.

Figure 2.1 Linkage of self-related theoretical assumptions to leader identity construction

Assumptions based on self-related theories	Leader identity construction underlying processes
The self is a dynamic construct which activates self-schemas in tandem with situated self-identities	Leadership self-narratives are accessed from autobiographical memory in default networks
The dynamic self seeks self-positivity for positive identity construction	Self-motives steer leader identity construction and developmental spirals
Personal identification at work, which is embedded in leader–follower relationships, is nested in relational and collective identifications	Possible selves are influenced by leader identification and possible collective behaviours

In summary, three self-related theoretical assumptions are linked to leader identity

construction. The first one describes situational cues activating self-schema, the second

addresses the need to seek information that maintains a positive work-related identity, and the

third recognises that the individual self is nested in relational and collective identification that

reflects role relations and leader–follower relations. These three assumptions inform

understanding of how individuals engage in identity work related to developing a leadership

identity. Specifically, such work occurs when situations activate a relevant self-schema,

leadership is a high-status role that generally receives positive regard so thinking of oneself

as a leader engenders a positive work-role identity. Leadership can be granted by peers or

superiors and even when supervisors allow more responsibility (high leader–member

exchange), which implies leadership potential. The next section elaborates on the three key aspects of these relations to identity work and leadership identity development.

2.2   Implications of Self Theories on Leader Identity Construction at Work

Leader identity is defined as "a sub-component of one's WSC that includes leadership schemas, leadership experiences and future representations of oneself as a leader" (Day & Harrison, 2007, p. 365). Leader identity is considered an important aspect of leadership development. As a construct, it has been discussed from a leadership skill developmental perspective (Lord & Hall, 2005), a multi-relational identity perspective (Day & Harrison, 2007), and a process perspective of narrating identity work for leader identity development (Ibarra, Wittman, Petriglieri, & Day, 2014). The definition of leader identity used by Epitropaki et al. (2017) does not restrict leader identification to a person's formal role or position as a leader versus a non-leader. This opens up a broad and fluid perspective for understanding leadership identification and leader identity construction, which this research project examines from a developmental perspective.

Since this research project considers the personal development of a leader identity in employees who do not take up formal leadership roles, the argument made here is that engagements such as outstanding individual work performance, leading behaviours within a micro-level work context or work relationship, claiming and granting of a leader identity by other actors, collective pursuit of a high-order goal, and empowerment from higher-level leadership are experiences that allow individuals to experiment with and explore leader identity internalisation. Shared and collective leadership could be a good example of such dynamic shifts between the leader and follower identities, with an individual serving as a leader at one moment and a follower at another time. The three assumptions discussed in the previous section serve to support three theoretical aspects of leader identity construction

which inspired the conceptualisation of the research models utilised in the three studies conducted in this dissertation project. These aspects—autobiographical memory access, self-motives, and future work selves—are addressed in the following three sections.

Identity Construction and Autobiographical Memory Access. The construction of an identity entails a brain-wide synchronisation of self-relevant information. As neuroscience explains, this kind of autobiographical memory access hinges on the default network (Havlik, 2017; Raichle, 2015) that organises self-referential information while we are in a resting state. The brain network decreases its activity when attention is given to task-driven situations, as the self has to tackle work and relational demands in different contexts. In this sense, an identity is not formed on an ad-hoc basis, but rather undergoes integration over time until it emerges into self-awareness, along with the conscious processing of shared global information. This identity construction as a brain-scale convergence of information is a function of the global neuronal workspace that integrates signals from modular processing structures and the default network of the brain.

Identity construction also involves the organisation of self-relevant information over time. The preliminary process of building up the autobiographical self through "reflecting on past experiences" (Lieberman, 2007, p. 268) is crucial. This process involves linking events related to work role, relational, or organisational identification. Autobiographical memory is made up of events of personal significance and, therefore, substantially overlaps with episodic memory. One element that strengthens autobiographical memory is narratives (Nelson, 1993). The identity work literature has advanced self-narratives as an important tactic for identity development (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010) and even for leadership identification (Ibarra et al., 2014). Leader-role claiming and granting, as a leader identity

development process that recalls and recognises present and past experiences, has also been proposed by DeRue and Ashford (2010).

Identity Construction and Self-Motives. Intrapersonal dynamics strongly influence the engaged individuals' internal dispositions and underlying tendencies that drive them towards self-definition. At the core of self-definition is a series of *self-motives* to seek out information about the self, to develop a favourable image, and to maintain a coherent and consistent self. Ashforth and Schinoff (2016), in their discussion of identity construction, summarised the central identity motives as including the need of "belonging, identification, self-enhancement, self-knowledge, self-expression, self-coherence, self-continuity, optimal distinctiveness, uncertainty reduction, self-verification, and self-presentation" (p.114) and the peripheral motives as including "meaningfulness, self-efficacy, and control". These self-motives have direct motivational and affective effects on behaviours, which ultimately contribute to the psychological attribute of self-esteem (Sedikides & Gregg, 2008) and building of a positive self.

Constructing a positive identity within a workplace is a process of creating a coherent and consistent self that can cope with an adaptive life. The intrapersonal tendencies of self-motives are the source of motivation for individuals to learn, adjust, adapt, and interact. The performance of the self can be strengthened in a positive work environment with encouragement and empowerment from various interpersonal factors, including dyadic relations with leaders, group relations with co-workers, and organisational welfare support. When individuals capture work role experiences by either practising leading behaviours or identifying proactivity as a goal-driven process, their leader identity may subsequently emerge from their self-driven and self-motivated behaviours and perceived self-efficacy. Thus, if a positive work environment encourages employees to construct positive work

identities, then their work selves, which include both positive intrinsic needs and underlying tendencies, can work towards promotional self-regulation. In this context, the leader identity is one of these positive identities.

Identity Construction, Future Work Selves, and Alternative Selves. Self-identity is a dynamic system that integrates self-relevant information (Lord et al., 2016), which includes both past and future events. On the one hand, autobiographical memory can shape the current self (Wilson & Ross, 2003). On the other hand, future possibilities and opportunities can create a future self-orientation and a possible self (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Salient work identities, when activated, can influence "future work selves" (Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012), defined as "representations of the self in the future that encapsulate individually significant hopes and aspirations in relation to work" (p. 581). The development of future work selves, according to Strauss et al. (2012), involves a conscious, thoughtful process for their construction. Components of this process include committed skill enhancement, behavioural proactivity, and conscious network building. In this context, individuals are engaged in proactive and promotional self-regulation. Employees consciously reflect choices and attempt to manage their self-systems towards specific career goals. Career aspirations are therefore instrumental for self-leadership with a vision.

Identity development also draws on multiple, parallel realities that are imagined but never realised. Obodaru (2012) theorises that "alternative selves" reflect counterfactual reasoning pertaining to past selves that could have been realised if different choices had been made. These counterfactual selves can provide an interpretive context for the current self to enhance the focal individual's self-knowledge. More importantly, alternative selves have motivational impacts because salient alternative selves can influence plans to change the current self and the current reality. Similarly, Lord and Braun (2017) have discussed how

identity invention can be conceptualised when a clear future orientation is created. An individual can invest time and efforts to work backwards from the future towards the present in an effort to make dreams come true. Thus, if the alternative selves include a leader identity, motivation to lead may be a predictable consequence. In addition, leader identity work can have a profound impact on an employee's career development because it can integrate past actions with imagined alternatives that never happened and never will happen, using both as a basis for elaborating future work selves. With this additional background, Figure 2.1 is extended in Figure 2.2 to show the linkage of the underlying processes of leader identity construction in the WISE context, which is socially oriented and helps disadvantaged individuals to develop leader identity through work role and social identifications.

Figure 2.2 Linkage of self-related theoretical assumptions to leader identity construction in WISEs

Assumptions based on self-related theories	Leader identity construction underlying processes	How does leadership self-construal happen in WISEs?
The self is a dynamic construct which activates self-schemas in tandem with situated self-identities	Leadership self-narratives are accessed from autobiographical memory in default networks	Role identity salience is developed through role behaviours and narrative claims
The dynamic self seeks self-positivity for positive identity construction	Self-motives steer leader identity construction and developmental spirals	Employees' self-motives are embedded in the pursuit of the organisational goal, which is rooted in a purpose-driven social mission
Personal identification at work, which is embedded in leader–follower relationships, is nested in relational and collective identifications	Possible selves are influenced by leader identification and possible collective leadership	Possible selves are made possible through role and social identifications within the workplace

To conclude, identity work as a self-narrative has an integrative effect in developing a leader identity that is embedded in a possible self, when discursive claims happen in a social context. It serves as an envisioning process for a projected self. Adopting this process-

oriented perspective, this research project examines how the positive work environments at WISEs facilitate employees in developing leadership self-construal embedded in their work roles and relationships. This discursive process and the WISE context are further elaborated to explain the linking logic illustrated in Figure 2.2.

2.3   Self-Construal at WISEs and Perceptions of Meaning at Work

Self-construal encompasses "how individuals define and make meaning of the self" and "how individuals see the self in relation to others" (Cross, Hardin, & Gercek-Swing, 2011, p. 143). *Meaning* at work is the sense of purpose that work of a certain nature or a work organisation (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010) can produce as part of the work outcome. It indicates what the "work signifies" (Rosso et al., 2010, p. 95). Work *meaningfulness* is the "amount of significance" that individuals within the organisation derive on a personal basis from engaging in their work. Very often, both the meaning and the meaningfulness at work are crucial for self-definition of organisational members who are cognitively engaged in social encoding and sensemaking to come up with 'who I am'.

Self-construal at work hinges on the extent to which individuals can derive meaning at work. The importance of meaning at work for self-construal is two-fold. First, it serves to satisfy self-motives. These motives include developing authenticity and belongingness (Rosso et al., 2010), which allow the self to be both distinctive and inclusive (Brewer, 1991). At work, the vocational skill and social learning processes permit the self to shape self-esteem through the development of self-efficacy and self-enhancement in task skills and job knowledge. Second, meaningful dyadic and group relational experiences influence self-construal. Employee identification is commonly derived from sources including organisational culture, workgroup team behaviours, and co-worker relations. When the social self is salient, individuals can attach their self-definition to the in-group and its characteristics.

This self-anchoring in the group prototype will diminish the importance of the individual self, such that interdependent self-construal becomes significant (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Cross et al., 2011; Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

The meaning at work has been further examined by Grant (2008), who investigated the effects of perceived social impact and perceived social worth on the relationship between task significance and job performance. According to this author, *perceived social impact* is the "extent to which employees feel that their own actions improve the welfare of others" (p. 110), while *perceived social worth* describes "the degree to which employees believe that their actions are appreciated by others" (p. 110). Both these attributes attached to the meaning of work exist in WISEs.

Understanding how WISE employees can find meaning and meaningfulness at work is essential for analysing them as participants in the studies completed during this research project. The primary goal of WISEs is to provide job opportunities for disadvantaged persons, thereby enhancing their sense of inclusion within the larger society. To facilitate the self-development of the target employees, the WISE employer provides a positive workplace environment that offers psychological safety and fosters both sense- and meaning-making processes in employees. In this way, WISE employees are given the opportunity to develop perceived social worth. This sense of self-importance then contributes to the sense of meaningfulness of their work roles.

Moreover, as the WISE employees serve these enterprises in their product or service production processes, they are aware that their task performance is an integral part of fulfilling a 'social inclusion' mission. This allows the employees to embrace the perceived social impact linked to the meaning of their task. Ultimately, WISEs seek to align the individual goal of self-development with the organisational goal of creating a social impact

by enhancing social inclusion. The coherent and consistent sense of purpose that each WISE employee experiences and shares with other disadvantaged employees represents a fundamental attribute of social identification. It is this kind of positive meaning at work found within WISEs that fosters employees' role and group identifications.

The subsequent sections of the literature review are arranged in the logic of antecedents, processes, and outcomes in relation to leader identity. In this review, we also carefully distinguish between the intrapersonal factors investigated in Studies 1 and 2, and the interpersonal factors addressed in Study 3. Therefore, salient role identities have implications for how we define ourselves and relate to others.

2.4   Antecedents of Leader Identity

2.4.1   Intrapersonal Factor: Role Theory

The self is often considered a social product by symbolic interactionists, including Mead (1934) and Cooley (1902), because self-definition relies on social interaction and the subsequent sensemaking and evaluation from others. However, the intrapersonal dynamics of one's work role enactment are crucial for self-definition. Roles can include social roles, such as being a student at school, or work roles, such as being a co-worker in an organisation. Kahn (1992) described selves in work roles as involving not only one's physical presence, but also one's psychological presence. For example, psychological presence—which is strongly connected to physical presence—includes cognitive engagement in role enactment and affective attachment during socialisation in the process of working towards an organisation's goal. Role enactment is an integral part of creating self-definition (Ashforth, 2001; Burke, 1980; Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995; Thoits, 1991) because roles are designated positions in any status structure formed by networks of individuals (Stryker & Statham, 1985).

Individuals can thrive through network and relationship building steered by their role identities. Hogg et al. (1995) described identity as "pivotal", connecting "social structure with individual action" (p.257). According to these authors, this process is so powerful that role identities can become self-defining roles that override all other characteristics of a person. As a result, attributes attached to roles and identities created by roles are important for the definition, development, or destruction of the self. Burke and Reitzes (1981) showed that an individual's role identity is enhanced if behaviours are relevant and meaningful to the role. The link of *identity salience*—that is, the ease with a person can evoke this identity and generalise it in other contexts—was further examined in conjunction with role behaviour and commitment to a role by Hoelter (1983), who found that identity salience increased with increased commitment and high evaluation of a role.

Role-identity salience as a concept was born from three prominent areas of discussion—namely, self-definition, social relations with others, and behaviour (Callero, 1985). When a role identity is salient, the self is more closely identified with the role, which in turn causes strong self-definition to reflect salient role identities. Zurcher (1977) used a 20-statement test to demonstrate how self-definitions are shaped by socially recognised positions. Salient role identities are important to individuals because they govern the individual's overall self-assessment and development of self-esteem. As role-identity salience affects the development of self, it also affects social relations with others. Research shows that the more salient the role identity of a role occupant, the higher the likelihood that the individual will take the role performance seriously and that stable relationships will be fostered through effective role performance (Callero, 1985). In terms of behavioural consequences, actions which are most closely related to role tasks such as praying and caring for others are prominent in religious role-identity occupants whose identity salience is high. Therefore, salient role identities have implications for how we define ourselves and others.

2.4.2   Interpersonal Factors: Perceived Organisational Support and Servant Leadership

Leadership behaviours do not exist in a vacuum, but rather are embedded in a work role that occurs within an organisational context (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006). The dynamics between leaders and employees involve social exchanges within this role-based work context. Employees form an overall perception of the organisation context, thereby priming various levels of self. At the organisational level, situational cues, such as new staff orientation, resource provision, welfare benefit allocation, and management recognition, can shape general identification. Ashforth et al. (2016) proposed that relational-based construal could stimulate interpersonal nearness and, in turn, personal identification based on this relational closeness. This kind of relational closeness is linked to the leader–member exchange with supervisors, who can also affect an employee's perceived organisational support (POS) (Eisenberger, Stinghlhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). In this study, the contextual factors examined are POS and servant leadership, which are representative of the organisational and relational context in which identity development occurs.

Perceived Organisational Support (POS). Based on social exchanges (Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997), employees' POS can motivate their cognitive and emotional engagement in an organisation. *Perceived organisational support* as a construct refers to employees' "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p.698). A fair and caring work climate can allow employees to develop a sense of security and commitment (Lind & van den Bos, 2002) and prevent uncertainty.

The POS construct has been examined both as an antecedent and as a mediator in organisational studies. Settoon et al. (1996) showed that POS is strongly associated with organisational commitment and explains more variance in organisational commitment than does leader–member exchange. Edwards' (2009) empirical study revealed that POS is strongly related to organisational identification and mediates the relationship between employees' perception of the human resources environment and organisational identification. Therefore, POS is considered an important organisational factor in shaping employee identification.

Servant Leadership. Servant leadership is defined as "a leadership style that emphasises the moral high ground of doing good to others now and into the future" (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, & Chonko, 2008, p. 1222). Servant leaders put the personal development and growth of other employees above their own personal interest. The nature of the leader–member exchange when servant leadership is present is follower-focused. The six core characteristics identified in Dierendonck's (2010) review of servant leadership included (1) empowering and development people, (2) humility, (3) authenticity, (4) interpersonal acceptance, (5) providing direction, and (6) stewardship.

The discussions on the perceived organisational support and servant leadership variables are relatively brief here as they will be covered in greater length in Chapter 5 which will cover how these two constructs are reviewed and adopted in Study 3 hypotheses.

2.5 Processes of Leader Identity Development

2.5.1 Identity Work and Leader Identification

Identity work refers to the process of actively constructing an identity within a social context (Ibarra, 1999; Pratt, Rockmann, & Kaufmann, 2006; Snow & Anderson, 1987;

Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). As described by Ashforth (2001), roles are fluid. In other words, *role occupants* need to negotiate related tasks and the identity of a role within changing structural constraints. Career transitions and the process of negotiating a new work role are a matter of reshaping one's private and public views of the self to attain a desirable and future *provisional self* (Ibarra, 1999) in the workplace context. To understand how identity change occurs in organisations, this section reviews the literature on possible selves and provisional selves.

Possible selves are a future-oriented part of the self-concept that links self-views with a projected self (Lord & Brown, 2004), and the activation of that part of the self-concept can foster self-development. Markus and Nurius (1986) identified three types of possible selves—the *expected self*, the *hoped-for self*, and the *feared self*—which are differentiated by the positive or negative assessment of the self. The expected self is evaluated by factors including age, status, and experience, while the hoped-for self is an aspirational self, which is more distant but emotionally preferred by the self. The feared self is shunned and associated with negative emotions.

Role transition for a newcomer involves experimentation with possible selves that may fit into the new organisational environment. This experimentation can be affected by the individual's cognitive self-knowledge related to a specific domain of attributes or abilities. For example, in the area of presentation skills, when a person considers himself or herself to be a fluent speaker, this is a self-schema of the individual's abilities at a certain standard.

The evaluation of possible selves and possible performance can be dominated by the individual's self-schemata. Cross and Markus (1994) described individuals without a self-schema in a particular ability domain as 'aschematic'. In two experiments with students, these authors found that people who were 'schematic' for an ability were more motivated on

specific tasks related to that ability. These people were more able to direct attention to the problems and maintain effective concentration for the schema-relevant tasks. Thus, the presence of a self-schematic fosters experimentation with and adoption of new roles and new tasks and enables the possible selves to develop more rapidly and more easily.

Provisional selves, according to Ibarra (1999), can evolve through adaptive behaviours of identity negotiation in careers. The socialisation literature discusses identity changes within the context of work role change (Ibarra, 1999) and explores how tactics are adopted to tackle the identity gap during the transitional stage of provisional self. These tactics include observation of a role model, experimentation with provisional selves, and evaluation of provisional selves. Ibarra emphasised that the negotiation is more than a learning process. Internal and external evaluations dominate this negotiation process because the self has to process information, make decisions, and adjust to create congruence between the provisional constructions and personal belief. Moreover, if the wrong role model is chosen or experimentation is not successful, and if personal belief cannot negotiate with the provisional construction, the self will not attain a 'stable, unitary self', rendering role transition unsuccessful.

Storytelling as 'narrative identity work' is also suggested as an effective way to carry out identity transformation and work-role transition (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010) because the narrative process helps crystallise the meaning of work. Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010) predicted that work-role transition will be more radical if narrative identity work is more prevalent. Storytelling is also considered a self-evaluation process (McLean, Pasupathi, & Pals, 2007), and self-narratives may help achieve validation of outcomes in socially desirable work. Moreover, self-narratives combined with the presence of an audience can help increase legitimacy and facilitate work-role transition outcomes. In turn, this helps the individual

define 'who I am'. It is worth stressing that these processes translate contextually activated local self-schemas into situated identities through conscious, integrative, brain-scale, cognitive and emotional processes (Lord & Chui, 2018).

2.5.2   Claiming and Granting Leader Identification

Based on Identity Theory (IT) and Social Identity Theory (SIT), DeRue, Ashford, and Cotton (2009) put forth a process model of leader identity internalisation. This internalisation process involves two steps: 'claiming' and 'granting'.

Claiming is an internal self-comparison process based on the leader's perspective of what a leader looks like and the attributes embodied by a leader—that is, a leader schema, which is likely to be defined by a contextualised leadership prototype (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001). Claiming occurs when the self-view is compared to the leader schema, with the self-perceptions found to be congruent with a situationally relevant leadership schema.

DeRue et al. (2009), however, suggest that claiming can still occur if there is a discrepancy between the self-view and the individual's schema of a leader. In line with Ibarra's (1999) concept of the *provisional self*, an individual can take small steps to explore the ability to attain a leader identity by adjusting to a specific social context. If the exploration of this provisional self can be adequately processed, the claiming can occur through gap-bridging or negotiation. This is similar to the identity work discussed earlier. Thus, small steps working or negotiating towards a leader identity are important to the self, and the opportunity to work through and express that the identity work process can promote claiming and lead to leader-identity internalisation.

Granting, the second identity internalisation step, involves "actions that express how others perceive the focal individual" (DeRue et al., 2009, p. 220). This social validation

process provides acceptance, recognition, and legitimacy to the focal leader if he or she is rated positively. If the individual is rated negatively, it can mean a rejection or an implied mismatch between that person's qualities and the situational needs. Granting can include verbal and nonverbal communication affirming or negating the occupant of the leader role. It involves the match of the leader's attributes and actions to the perceiver's contextualised prototypes of what leaders should be as well as an acknowledgement of status differences, even if only momentary.

When claiming and granting are combined, the two steps form a contextualised evaluation process of the personal leader identity of an individual. DeRue and Ashford (2010) refer the claiming and granting processes as a repetitive process for leader identity construction to be effectively advanced.   Thus, the claiming and granting processes, which are the core constructs for Studies 1 and 2, are both contextualised, which is why Study 3 is needed to show how interpersonal factors can influence identity development.

2.6   Motivational Outcomes of Leader Identification

The motivational consequences of identity phenomena at work have been discussed by leadership scholars (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Day & Harrison, 2007; Kark & van Dijk, 2007; Lord & Brown, 2004), identity theorists (van Knippenberg, 2000), and organisational psychologists (Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010). These discussions show that identity, if positively directed, can be a resource of the self that activates behavioural processes. This intricate but powerful force for motivation has been discussed by scholars from different psychological perspectives.

Kanfer (1990) integrated the three important streams of motivation discussions and offered a convergent perspective. These three streams include the 'need–motive–value' perspective, the cognitive research that incorporates expectancy-value in behaviours and

dynamics of action theory, and the goal-driven self-regulatory motivation approach. Kanfer (1990) showed that motivation could be connected to the intrinsic needs of the self but was also connected to environmental dynamics that can stir individuals' propensity to action. Since the present study examines leader identity development of individuals at work, the two specific motivational outcomes that are examined are motivation to lead and work motivation.

2.6.1 Motivation to Lead

Individual differences lead to different human behaviours and motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Four psychological motives (Ashforth, 2001) of the self—identity, meaning, control, and belonging—are aroused by role enactment. As the self tries to develop its identity, the salient work-role identity and the context can offer a testing ground for social validation and confirmation of one's identity. The arousal of positive psychological motives may then ensue, including self-knowledge, self-expression, self-continuity, self-enhancement, self-coherence, and self-distinctiveness (Ashforth, 2001). Consequently, identity-relevant behaviour will be tried out in the work-role context concurrently with the role task performance. Leader-role behaviours are among these relevant behaviours.

Leadership behaviours, according to Lord and Hall (1992), may be affected by individual differences such as personality, value system, prior personal experience as a follower, and leader skill self-efficacy. Chan and Drasgow (2001) put forward a *motivation to lead* (MTL) construct that affects a "leader's or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affect his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader" (p. 482). The MTL construct has three dimensions—affective identity, plus non-calculative and social normative dimensions—that vary across respondents. The 'affective' dimension captures the motivation of individuals who inherently like to lead others. The 'non-calculative' dimension refers to leading without being calculative of the

costs over the benefits obtained from the leading process. The 'social-normative' dimension refers to the sense of duty or responsibility behind the motive of leading. The MTL and leader identity constructs can predict the self as a leader. This relationship has important implications for identifying the leadership tendencies of individuals.

2.6.2 Work Motivation and Self-Efficacy

The present study examines whether marginalised employees can achieve self-determination and construct positive identity—specifically, leader identity—as they engage in role enactment and identification. If the intervention of WISEs is effective and an empowering context is present, it is believed that the potential human capital, including the leadership potential of these employees, can be developed. Therefore, leader identity is considered an appropriate outcome variable to investigate. If positive work identity can be formed and self-determination achieved, the likelihood of *self-efficacy*—that is, perceived competency specific to work tasks—should be increased because it reflects self-positivity (Greenwald et al., 2002). According to Ryan and Deci (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991; Ryan & Deci, 2000), the agentic tendency to pursue self-growth is an innate human disposition. Work motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, is therefore an important work outcome.

Deci and Ryan (1991) advanced the motivation literature by identifying three categories of motivation: amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. These authors maintain that work tasks that are not taken up by choice will create amotivation (i.e., lack of motivation). 'Extrinsic motivation' is completely non-internalised; it is externally regulated through contingent rewards or explicit praise. 'Intrinsic motivation' can be divided into three types: introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation. Introjected regulation refers to the regulation of behaviour through internally driven forces, such as ego involvement, shame, and pride (Ryan & Connell, 1989). With 'identified

regulation', the regulation is volitional. 'Intrinsic motivation' is the drive to perform tasks for

personal interest or enjoyment. These constructs are important not just to measure the work

outcomes, but also as social impact indicators to measure whether the social goals of WISEs

can be achieved. If these intrinsic motivation components are positive, the Deci and Ryan

perspective will be aligned with Day and Sin's (2011) viewpoint that leader development can

be achieved as part of the adult development process.

To conclude, the unifying structure of the self at work integrates intrapersonal and

interpersonal processes. Linking these processes to leader identity construction and

examining the associated motivational work outcomes is the focus of this research project.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides the rationale for the research methodology used in this Ph.D. project. Behavioural scientists and psychologists typically adopt empirical, observational, and experimental means of investigating behavioural phenomena that are tested for validity. As this research project addresses theory and knowledge development of a complex identity process embedded in a social context, multiple research approaches have been employed. Consequently, the practical need of seeking pluralistic data sources for theory advancement has been addressed.

The chapter has three parts. First, to facilitate the choice of a research methodology, a primary review of the key concepts related to research philosophy, including 'ontology', 'epistemology', 'research paradigms', and 'methodology', is conducted. Next, the research design, methods, and sampling logic that have been selected for the theoretical focus are explained. Finally, the operationalisation of the research methods is described.

3.1   Research Philosophy and Related Concepts

The research philosophy adopted for a study is connected to the way the researcher views the world. This view can directly determine the research strategy employed to meet the objective of knowledge development, which is either theory testing or exploratory. Very often, a subjective–objective continuum perspective, which comprises dichotomous ontological perspectives, is considered.

Ontology. The concept of ontology considers the nature of reality. The Cartesian perspective (Boland, 1998; Wicks & Freeman, 1998) regards knowledge as objective, existing separately and independently from humans. Scholars favouring this perspective see

the world through causal relations, which are observed objectively. Objectivism is the belief that social entities exist in reality separate from social actors. The contrasting view considers human knowledge to be subjective, situational, and interpretational (Heidegger, 2001; Merleau-Ponty, 1962). Scholars who adopt this view believe meanings emerge from subjective experiences (Polanyi, 1967).

Epistemology. The concept of epistemology refers to the adoption of an appropriate research approach and data when conducting a study. Epistemological discussions support two broad research approaches: the positivist position and the interpretivist position. Positivism offers an objective view of the social reality, whereas the interpretivist perspective places much emphasis on subjectivity. Positivist researchers examine theories on the a priori principle, advocating the notion of an observable social reality similar to that employed by natural scientists. Interpretivist scholars consider that it is the role of researchers to understand the differences between humans. The dominant strands of interpretivist scholarship are phenomenology and symbolic interactionism: 'phenomenology' refers to the research approach that focuses on making sense of the world around us, whereas 'symbolic interactionism' interprets the social reality through the social interactions of social subjects and advances meanings based on the actions and language of social actors. Table 3.1 summarises the differences between the positivist and interpretivist approaches.

Table 3.1 Summary of Differences between Positivism and Interpretivism

	Positivism / Objectivity	**Interpretivism / Subjectivity**
Ontology	Researcher and reality are isolated	Researcher and reality are inseparable
Epistemology	Objective reality exists independent of human minds	Human experience contributes to knowledge development
Method and data	Statistical analysis of quantitative data	Interpretation of qualitative data, based on phenomenology, symbolic interactionism
Concept about truth	Seeking a law that can be	Analysis is context specific and based

| | generalised | on subjective understanding |
| **Validity and reliability** | Theory can be tested and verified empirically | Notions of 'trustworthiness' (Seale, 1999) and generalisability (Maxwell, 1992) of qualitative accounts are crucial. The triangulation approach (Mathison, 1988) is suggested to help improve validity and reliability. |

The selection of an appropriate research approach affects the theory building process (Kuhn, 1970). This paradigm issue is closely linked to the beliefs, values, and methods of inquiry. Burrell and Morgan (1979) identified four possible research paradigms: 'interpretive', 'radical humanist', 'radical structuralist', and 'functionalist' (Figure 3.1). Although this Ph.D. research project has predominantly adopted the functionalist paradigm, the interpretivist approach is also integrated to advance the theory development of an identity process, which will be elaborated later in this dissertation. To facilitate discussion of the research design selected for this study, the nature of the four paradigms is explored in the following section.

Figure 3.1 Burrell and Morgan's (1979) four paradigms
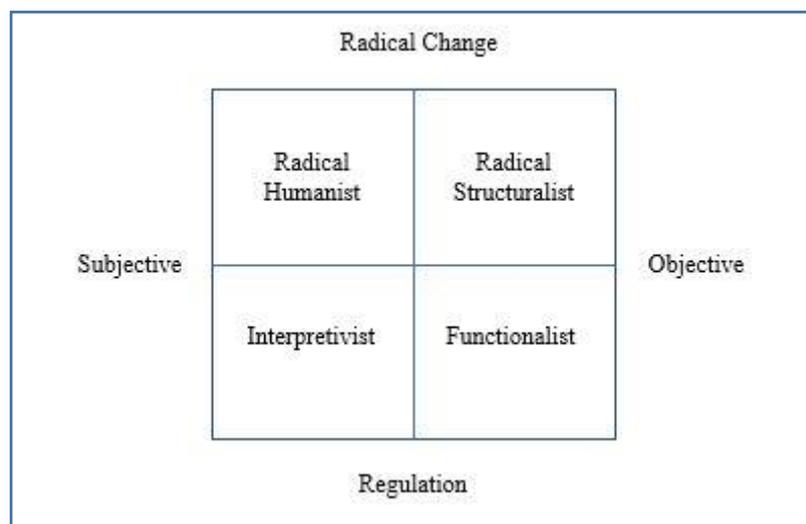
Theory Building and Research Paradigms. Theory is defined as a "coherent description or explanation of observed or experienced phenomena" (Gioia & Pitre, 1990, p.

587). This broad definition permits a wide scope of theoretical representations advanced by different research paradigms (Figure 3.1). Gioia and Pitre (1990) asserted that 'paradigm-based' theory building can yield better results when developing organisational phenomena. These authors agreed that the dominant positivist theory building and deductive approaches contribute to organisational theory building, but argued that using different paradigmatic perspectives, including a multi-paradigm perspective, can facilitate a search for comprehensiveness in finding *the* truth, consequently enriching and extending the theory building process. For example, if the research aim is to describe the social construction of a cultural norm, it is better to represent theories rooted in subjective/interpretive assumptions. In contrast, for research that seeks to reveal causations, it is better to adopt methods rooted in the objective/functionalist paradigms.

Gioia and Pitre (1990) further suggested that the paradigmatic boundaries should be treated as transitional and permeable. Researchers, in turn, can seek ways to bridge these transition zones for theory building purposes. The implication is that paradigms are not completely independent, but rather can be combined to reveal complex organisational phenomena or theories that are supported by a more pluralistic, multiple-perspective view. Nevertheless, a multiple-perspective view is not always essential for theory building. Researchers need to take into consideration the basic assumptions of each paradigm in making appropriate choices about their choice of methodology for theory building or advancement. Moreover, when multiple approaches are adopted, sound justification should be provided for this strategy. The current research project has adopted a hybrid approach that combines qualitative and quantitative methods because it looks at causality using an experimental design grounded in a functionalist logic, but it is interpretivist in assessing how participants react to the manipulation. Specifically, it is argued that individuals construct their identity based on feedback (granting) from others, which is a social constructionist

perspective. To bridge the quantitative–qualitative dichotomy in analysis, the solution

discussed in Section 3.2 has been applied in the research.

Methodology is a systematic approach to addressing a research problem. It involves

more than the methods used for the data collection that determines the research design.

Indeed, there are four aspects of methodology: the type of data collected, the technique of

data elicitation, the type of design for observing change, and the treatment of data as

qualitative or quantitative (Breakwell, Hammond, & Fife-Schaw, 2000). These four aspects

will serve as a guide for the subsequent discussions of the quantitative and qualitative

approaches selected as the methodology of this research project.

In the selection of the type of data required to pursue the research question or theory

building, the research methods can distinguish between the positivist approach, which mainly

relies on a quantitative treatment, and the interpretivist approach, which mainly involves a

qualitative treatment. Quantitative data can be measured and expressed in numbers.

Researchers can then make inferences on the magnitude of effects for the various factors

(represented by variables) measured. In contrast to quantitative data, qualitative data cannot

be accurately measured and counted, but rather are descriptive and expressed in words. Table

3.2 summarises the research methods typically used in psychology; note that this list is not an

exhaustive one.

Table 3.2 Typical Research Methods Used in Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

Quantitative Approaches	Qualitative Approaches
Survey methods	Open-ended/unstructured interviews
Observational methods	Participant observation
Laboratory experiments	Participatory action research
Field experiments	Ethnographic research
Case studies	Case studies
Longitudinal study	Grounded theory
Cross-sectional study	Discourse analysis
Content analysis	Content analysis

Quantitative Approaches. Survey methods involve measurement procedures in which respondents are asked to respond to questions presented on questionnaires or in interviews. Survey research is more suited for positivists and functionalists who pursue deductive approaches, which usually test for hypotheses. Observational methods in psychological research encompass the observation and description of the subjects' behaviours. Observation with intervention can be applied in experimental studies, where objective observation is used; alternatively, it can be used in participant observation studies, where participatory observation with subjectivity will result. Experimental studies are considered objective and aim at examining causality. In contrast, participatory observation offers researchers contextual insights through direct personal experience.

Experiments refer to the research design in which variables are manipulated and their effects on other variables are observed in an isolated situation. A procedure based on a manipulation, one or more treatment groups, and a control group is used to compare the observed effects of manipulation on the dependent variables between groups to which subjects were randomly assigned. Laboratory experiments take place in controlled environments. In psychology, laboratory experiments have been criticised for their artificiality and lack of external validity (Berkowitz & Donnestein, 1982). A field experiment is defined as a study that occurs in a real setting (Kerlinger, 1986). Although one might suggest that researchers have less control over the procedures in field experiments compared to laboratory experiments, Antonakis et al. (2004) suggested field experiments may be useful in examining answers to practical problems. Field experiments also have advantages from an interpretivist perspective, in that the context is critical. Thus, a hybrid approach, integrating quantitative and qualitative data, is required for the field experiments of this project that examined the WISE context—an emerging sector that has been covered by only limited studies to date.

This Ph.D. project adopts a field experimental design mainly because it is important to reveal causality for advancing the identity work and leader identity construction theories. The field experimental approach also reduces the presence of confounding variables, which might otherwise interfere with the discovery of the truth. Moreover, the understanding of the WISE setting as an organisational context is limited in academic research because WISEs have attracted research attention only in recent years. Therefore, the use of a field experiment design to examine identity phenomena in WISEs, which have a social orientation, is geared towards not only furthering the knowledge and theory building of positive identity construction, but also enhancing the knowledge of the organisational fabric in general.

Analysis of quantitative data in psychology is largely based on the calculation of parametric statistics, which assume that sample data are derived from a population that follows a probability distribution based on a set of parameters. This study has chosen to examine the leader identity development in WISEs, which are an emerging organisational form. While there are over 600 social enterprises in Hong Kong, the United Kingdom has more than 60,000 such organisations. Thus, the number of social enterprises in Hong Kong is still limited, and about 80% of them are relatively small WISEs, typically with the number of employees ranging from 5 to 30. This explains the relatively small sample sizes in the studies described in this dissertation.

Qualitative Approaches. *Open-ended interviews* and *unstructured interviews* seek to solicit qualitative responses from respondents. One of the core principles of qualitative research is that inferences are not solely based on the data analysis; that is, the interviewer's perspective also comes into play. *Participant observation* stretches the role of the researchers because the researchers take part or play a role in the group observed. In *participatory action research*, the researcher steps out from the role of an observer to become an active agent of

social change. With this approach, the researcher plays a participative and collaborative role in the social activities within the research context. Action research has some commonalities with participant observation, yet it differs from the latter in terms of the relationship between the researcher and the researched. In participant observation, the researched do not know that the researcher is conducting research; in contrast, in action research, the researched are aware of the role of the researcher. In other words, in action research, the researcher is actively involved in the social activities and as part of the community.

In the data collection process of this Ph.D. project, the researcher, who assumed the role of an experimenter with the manipulation of the field experiments in Studies 1 and 2, and the role of a researcher with the cross-sectional survey of Study 3, stepped into the social reality of the participants within their workplaces. Despite the functionalist and objective research paradigm adopted in these studies, it is believed that the presence of the researcher in the data collection process could have, to some extent, influenced the responses of the participants. As a result, both social desirability bias, which is also present in self-report questionnaires, and experimenter-related bias, which is a concern in the elicitation and interpretation of qualitative data, are possible limitations as a student research project.

In qualitative research, *content analysis* is a systematic, replicable analysis of text from speeches, narratives, letters, or articles. It can be carried out either quantitatively or qualitatively. Content analysis can provide categorical data that are open to quantification. *Grounded theory* is another systematic data analysis strategy, typically qualitative in nature, for developing categories using different rationales of coding data at various stages. *Discourse analysis* is an analysis approach that is typically applied to examine discursive data, such as speech, dialogues, and situational exchanges. This type of analysis considers communication, whether it is one-way or two-way, as having goals and including speech acts

that should be interpreted as human actions within contexts to make inferences for answering research questions.

This study applies content analysis in understanding participants' discursive claims about leadership behaviours. The qualitative data were coded in the content analysis process. Then, using frequency counting, continuous variables were derived for conducting quantitative analyses. The essence of the discourse analysis in revealing the participants' experience of social dynamics in the work context, rather than attending only to the textual structure, was subsequently incorporated in the content analysis process. When coding the participants' narratives, sensitive consideration of the work-related social dynamics was undertaken. A rigorous procedure in treating the qualitative data systematically (Schillings, 2006) has been adopted to minimise experimenter-related bias and to emphasise the focus on human experiences that became manifest in the qualitative text (Tesch, 1990).

3.2   Research Design, Methods, and Sampling

One of the main foci of the experimental studies undertaken in this research project is the mediating effect of the identity work process of claiming on leadership identity construction. Despite the extensive qualitative studies investigating identity work in relation to identity construction, the examination of this relationship using a quantitative approach remains at an early stage of theorising. The adoption of an experimental design in this research project, with the goal of establishing a causal relationship between the narrative claiming of leadership behaviours and leader identity construction, is expected to advance the 'claiming and granting' theory (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) as an identity-based model in leadership development. This consideration demonstrates a functionalist paradigm in advancing theory by examining causality. Therefore, this study primarily adopts a quantitative approach.

The manipulation of the identity work process, however, involves direct self-narratives of subjects in making their leader-role claims. This aspect of the research involves a qualitative interpretivist approach to data collection and analysis. In earlier work, Alvesson (2003) discussed critically the interpretivist approach in using interviews as vehicles for tapping into knowledge of social realities and people's subjective worlds. In doing so, he described how interviews could create a site for identity work. Nevertheless, Alvesson warned researchers that they should be aware of how interviews could allow subjects to construct an identity but not necessarily reveal one. In issuing this warning, Alvesson may have been referring to the effects of social desirability bias, which typically influence participants by motivating them to create a good image of themselves in their responses to the interviewer's questions.

Despite the limitations inherent in this approach, conducting qualitative interviews creates an interactive social environment in which subjects can deliver genuine responses and reveal their authentic selves. This is crucial in identity work research because the participants can describe their contextual identities versus a general self-schema that is created out of their imagination. Moreover, the supportive context of WISEs is particularly relevant for participants of this project to make sense of the work identities and task roles, because the work roles in WISEs are created to help these participants secure employment. Hence, working in WISEs is directly linked to positive identities and self-esteem for these participants. To minimise the influence of social desirability bias, clear invitations can be extended to the participants regarding the specific narratives in terms of the nature of claims, so that only accounts of naturalistic experiences are elicited. This strategy has been applied in this research study—specifically, asking participants to describe leading behaviours related to their work roles and client relations. Therefore, the narrative accounts are expected to be drawn from participants' episodic memory, which is considered more accurate and more

data-driven (Hansbrough, Lord, & Schyns, 2015). In the study of identity work, it is understood that an integration of both the quantitative and qualitative approaches with delicate research strategies must be carefully considered.

Moreover, to achieve the research goal of examining durability of change, a longitudinal design was used in the experimental studies because the repeated data were expected to show the time factor and illuminate the sustainability of the causal effects. The sustainability of the causal effects is especially important for this study because it reflects genuine identity development rather than just a situated self-schema activation. Schwartz (2005) suggested that researchers adopt a longitudinal design to map the course of identity development and to identify antecedents and consequences of identity development. Table 3.3 shows the research methods (indicated by ticks) chosen for the pursuit of this research project. Thus, this research project dominantly adopted a quantitative positivist perspective in examining leader identity construction, but also integrated qualitative narrative data that were analysed using content analysis and transformed into continuous variables for statistical analysis. These quantitative content variables then served as mediators in causal models examining the effects of the experimental manipulation in the experimental studies.

Table 3.3 Research Methods Selected for the Study

Quantitative Approaches		Qualitative Approaches	
Survey methods	✓	Structured/unstructured/group interviews	
Observational methods	✓	Participant observation	
Laboratory experiments		Participatory action research	
Field experiments	✓	Ethnographic research	
Case studies		Case studies	
Longitudinal study	✓	Grounded theory	
Cross-sectional study	✓	Discourse analysis	
Content analysis	✓	Content analysis	✓

Another goal of this research project is to apply the leader identity model established in the experimental study to a wider sample size, so as to investigate whether the

organisational contextual factors of servant leadership and perceived organisational support predict leader identity. Therefore, a cross-sectional survey research was adopted as the research method in the last study.

Theoretical sampling (not random or stratified sampling) was employed in this study. The identification of the social enterprise sector as the research site was explained in Section 1.3; the subjects studied were the marginalised employees working in work integration social enterprises. The samples were selected because they were distinctly suitable for illustrating and extending leader identity development in followers and non-prototypical leaders. The advantage of adopting this sampling approach is that it enabled the researcher to tap into the insights of specific subjects when answering the research question.

Schwartz (2005), in discussing recommendations for expanding identity research, suggested that researchers avoid university student samples because of the external validity issue in this population. This issue arises for two reasons. First, identity research is linked to a person's developmental functions. Second, the educational setting can affect university students' responses; studies involving these students may not necessarily produce data that can be generalised, because university student populations represent only a small percentage of the general population. In contrast, in laboratory experiments that examine specific and situational psychological phenomena, the research very often hinges on the use of situated stimuli to generate the examined responses.

3.3   Operationalisation of the Research Design and Methodology

This research project includes two experimental studies and one cross-sectional survey study. This section identifies the overall research design and highlights some of the generic techniques for operationalising the chosen methodology. Detailed descriptions of the research methods employed in the three studies are provided in Chapters 4 and 5.

Experimental Studies 1 and 2. Two field experimental studies with longitudinal design were conducted using a structured interviewing method. The interviews included the use of questionnaires and a between subjects manipulation of the identity work to examine the effect of 'leader-role claiming' on leader identity development. The control condition received a comparable prompt, but it focused respondents on their work role rather than on leadership activities. The manipulation of the experimental studies involved the use of 'prompting', referring to the stimuli presented before or during the performance of a behaviour. Promptings stimulate behaviours to occur so that "subjects are given reinforcement" (Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 2014, p. 312). The researcher incorporated the prompting approach in the experimental studies by asking the subjects to recount their leader behaviour experiences to reinforce their claiming of leader-role behaviours. The identity work of claiming provided by the subjects was a 'stimulus control'—that is, "the antecedent stimulus that is present when a behaviour is reinforced and is known as the discriminative stimulus" (Miltenberger, 2014, p. 142). The behavioural reinforcement was to strengthen the narrative process through follow-up questions and the attention granted to the participants by an experimenter. The 'leader-role claiming' took the form of self-narratives offering qualitative data, based on the symbolic interactionist approach; the data were subsequently subjected to content analysis. The control condition received a comparable prompt, but it focused respondents on their work role rather than on leadership activities. The subjects in these conditions were similarly reinforced along their work roles and asked follow-up questions.

The narrative qualitative data were designed to be transformed into variables to support the subsequent quantitative analyses. Therefore, the content analysis adopted a deductive and pragmatic perspective in understanding the narrative discourses of participants for identity development. A content analysis process comprising a five-level approach

(Schillings, 2006) was adopted to handle the verbal raw data (i.e., audio tapes) of participants' narratives so as to arrive at the codings for frequency count before forming the claiming measure variables. Although the specific content of the narratives could not be predicted, it was anticipated that the scope of identity work conducted by the social enterprise employees would capture broad areas including self-definition, self-development, self-enhancement of participants, and relational experiences with different stakeholders within the work context. The five-level approach is explained in Chapter 4.

In summary, a hybrid design was created for the two experimental studies, with the use of experimental manipulation and content coding of subjects' responses to that manipulation, both as a manipulation check and as a measure of the extent to which subjects 'complied' with the treatment.

Correlational Survey Research of Study 3. A correlational survey study was conducted with employees of 9 social enterprises, for the purpose of examining the direct effects of antecedents on identity variables. These antecedents included work-role identity salience, servant leadership, and perceived organisational support. The identity variables, which were tested as mediators, included leader identity and levels of self-concept (individual and collective). The dependent variables included motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy. The hypotheses of Study 3 were examined using structural equation modelling to examine the path analyses and model fit using MPlus. A key objective was to determine the extent to which the mediating role of identity generalised from the experimental to the survey study.

CHAPTER 4

STUDIES 1 AND 2

This chapter describes the theory, method, results, and discussion for two related studies (i.e., Study 1 and Study 2) that investigated the effects of narrated identity work on leader identity and motivation to lead. Study 1 utilised a sample of thirty-four workshop trainers who conduct corporate training and who exhibit distinct leading behaviours. Study 2 was conducted with a sample of twenty-six retail sales representatives of a chain of second-hand ladies' fashion stores.

4.1   Study 1

4.1.1   Introduction

This section provides background related to identity development. It defines the key terms and describes the identity development process. This process perspective is then linked to a dynamic sensemaking model that involves claiming and granting components that embed one's developmental narrative in a social context.

Identities are mental constructs containing information about the self (Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012). In this study, 'identity' refers to a "brain-scale, consciously-created processing structure that adjusts self-schemas through top-down feedback" (Lord et al., 2016, p. 125). Identity theorists have recognised that a process-based, rather than an entity-based, approach is needed to explain the development of the self. 'Entity-based' approaches focus on traits and personal characteristics of organisational actors, such as leaders and followers, while 'process-based' approaches consider the psychological activities that are important to constructing one's identities. The identity construction process involves the recurrence of meaning-making and meaning-breaking to achieve self-definition (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). In this process, the self acts as a mental processor that integrates, screens out, screens

in, and makes sense of different information. The range of information involved includes external activities—such as task behaviours, social interactions and relational dynamics, and contextual information, such as organisational climate—which are self-relevant for creating a coherent self-verifying structure for defining 'who I am'.

Despite the plethora of identity process studies (e.g., Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Brown, 2006; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009; Ibarra, 1999; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Pratt et al., 2006) that have been published in recent years, empirical studies examining intrapersonal processes that make sense of the social context for one's identity development remain sparse. Recently, Meleady and Crisp (2017) examined the effects of an imagined contact on individuals' organisational identification based on mental processes using experiments. However, the use of field experiments stays limited. In view of this research gap, Study 1 created an operationalisation of role-claiming, based on the 'claiming and granting' framework (DeRue & Ashford, 2010), to examine the relationship between narrated 'identity work' and leader identity development. It addressed this research need by developing a role-claiming manipulation that was validated through verbal protocol analysis and linked to leader identity development processes within a work environment. In this way, it advances our understanding of the process by which leader identity develops over time within a specific work context.

Identity development processes have been described using a variety of terms, including *identity work* (Ibarra, 1999; Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010; Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006), *identity construction* (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Pratt et al., 2006; Roberts & Creary, 2012), *leader identity identification* (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009), *identity negotiation* (Swann & Bosson, 2008; Swann, Johnson, & Bosson, 2009), and *strategizing a resilient career identity* (Vough & Caza, 2017). However, relatively little

attention has been devoted to how the self, described as the "architect of social reality" (McNulty & Swann, 1994), integrates role enactment, relational dynamics, and social interaction within organisations to construct a coherent, situated, and socially validated self-identity.

Situated identities embedded in organisational roles are socially constructed (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016), but the interpretation of the work-role meaning is an intrapersonal process. In other words, a dynamic self at work is cognitively engaged in active sensemaking for intrapersonal role and interpersonal relational processes (Markus & Wurf, 1987), as suggested by Assumption 1 in Chapter 2. Roles within an organisation are associated with expected titles, responsibilities, behaviours, and relations. When enacting their roles, organisational actors find themselves operating in a reality that is socially constructed. Roles, according to Katz and Kahn (1978, p. 191), are more "function(s) of the social setting than … personality characteristics" of the role-occupants. At the same time, roles are "fluid and always negotiable shared understandings" (Ashforth, 2001, p. 4) between individuals.

The capacity to modify oneself while simultaneously making sense of one's work task and advancing a role identity is a unique cognitive ability. This human ability reflects the functioning of dedicated brain structures, typically referred to as the *default networks*. Cognition scientists (Gusnard, 2005; Spreng & Grady, 2010) have confirmed that sensemaking is a spontaneous brain function. The default networks of the brain facilitate information convergence (Dehaene, 2014). In turn, identity activation within a social context occurs when there is relevant converging role information. Understanding these integrative identity processes requires a social cognitive perspective that reveals the complexity of self-based information processing, which itself makes sense of the external dynamics and personal work experiences. More importantly, this area of identity knowledge extension is

closely associated with the important organisational research areas of identity and leadership development.

4.1.2 The Importance of Examining Identity Development Processes

Identity, whether it is discussed as an entity-based construct or as a self-development process, has become an increasingly crucial area of organisational scholarship. 'Identity work', for example, is described as the process whereby individuals actively engage in "forming, repairing, maintaining, strengthening, or revising" (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003, p. 1165) the coherence and distinctiveness of a self-identity within a specific social context. The process of forming a coherent and distinctive meaning is a matter of making inferences not just for the self, but also for the organisational memory. The identity construction processes of organisational actors are, in turn, embedded in a system of organisational processes that are anchored in the inferences of individual experiences (Hernes, 2014). Hence, human experiences are rooted in the social interactions of actors who perform their role tasks. By adopting a process approach to examine the identity development process, this Ph.D. project aims to extend the process theory of organisation at the identity level of employees. In doing so, it highlights two important aspects of the identity development process: the research methodology required to examine identity processes and the relationship between the intrapersonal (examined in Studies 1 and 2) and interpersonal (examined in Study 3) processes that impact the dynamic self of employees.

In the past, ethnographic approaches relying on qualitative and discourse evidence have been the dominant approach in examining processes of identity development at work. Such qualitative approaches provide content-rich evidence of the dynamic, situational, emotional, and cognitive complexity faced by organisational actors who have gone through deep sensemaking processes. Related studies have shed much light on the complexity of

identity construction, negotiation, and transition in organisations. Nevertheless, qualitative studies in general fall short in offering causal explanations—explanations that are crucial for knowledge advancement in organisational and leadership studies.

Biddle (1986) argued that adopting a qualitative approach as the sole means to examine the identity development process, without integrating quantitative methods, weakens the contributions of related cognitive theories. At least two research concerns should be addressed in this regard. First, quantitatively based social, physiological, and cognitive psychology studies have shown how identity activation and configuration of meaning can lead to behavioural and motivational consequences. Thus, the potent force of salient work identities (Strauss et al., 2012) can motivate career behaviours that then prove crucial for attaining future work selves. In the two studies described in this chapter, the epistemological concern in examining leader identity is addressed by an innovative and integrative method that combines the experimental approach with continuous variables derived from qualitative narrative data.

Second, the multi-faceted self requires a multi-disciplinary perspective to determine how the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes operate to make sense of the organisational life. The multiple selves (Collinson, 2003), multiple identities (Alvesson, 2010; Hillman, Nicholson, & Shropshire, 2008; Pratt et al., 2000; Reid, 2015), and multiple identifications (van Dick, Wagner, & Lemmer, 2004) phenomena of the self are embedded in the social, organisational context from which inferences can be made for task- and self-based experiences. In proposing a model that examines how the intrapersonal processes can make sense of the interpersonal processes for leader identity construction, this research project reviews, elucidates, and integrates theoretical underpinnings drawn from social cognition, neuroscience, social psychology, and leadership theories. Appendix 1 provides a list of

definitions that have been used in this publication and are organised under different theoretical foundations.

The social psychology and sociology underpinnings are illustrated by the focus on work-role identities. The work-role identities of organisational actors can determine the global experiences of their work life because they guide and organise task behaviours over substantial periods of time at work. Identities also influence the cognitive and emotional aspects of the self through episodic and relational experiences. Claiming of one's organisational role involves the shaping of events, experiences, and relationships. Subject to the centrality and salience of the individual's work-role identity, the role-claiming process aligns information about the self according to the individual's role identities. The two studies described in this chapter examine this kind of role-claiming process, in the form of personal verbal accounts of respondents' work experiences related to a role and related behaviours. Specifically, I develop a role-claiming manipulation that operates through role claiming to examine how identity work impacts identity development and relevant social motivation.

4.1.3 Research Focus

Studies 1 and 2 are both field experiments with employees in a WISE context: WISEs are enterprises that have the social goal to provide employment to disadvantaged groups. They use employment as a means for achieving social integration, offering a 'dynamic and principled process where all members participate in dialogue to achieve and maintain social relations' (United Nations, 2015). The research context for Study 1 is a WISE that has provided corporate training and entertainment experiences over the last nine years. The company's social mission is to promote awareness amongst customers of the importance of social integration and social inclusion through offering direct customer experiences in darkness and silence. The trainers are themselves disadvantaged—they are either blind or

deaf. The company gives customers experiences that allow them to directly put themselves into the shoes of the visually impaired or hearing-impaired person, and thereby develop empathy for and better understanding of individuals who are physically challenged. Participants in this study were the experienced trainers or experimental tour leaders, who act as guides for the workshop attendees/customers as these customers navigate their way through the temporary loss of sight or hearing while going through the experiential exhibitions or activities at the WISE.

A two-group, between-subjects experimental design was used, created by a manipulation of the 'leader-role claiming' process. Role claiming was manipulated by directing employee participants to provide role-claiming narratives based on their previous work experiences. More specifically, participants in the *treatment group* were asked to focus on their *leader identity* as they constructed claiming narratives regarding their relationships with customers. In contrast, participants in the *control group* were asked to focus on their work-role identity as a *trainer* to describe their experience with customers. Thus, participants in the treatment and control groups all described their work-relevant experiences and should have comparable motivation, but the members of the control group lacked a leadership focus. The recounting of prior customer interactions was designed to help employees re-live a real, socially constructed process that, for the treatment group only, fostered leader identification. Effects of this manipulation on the outcome variables of leadership identity activation and motivation to lead (MTL) were measured directly after the manipulation, and then again in a follow-up session approximately six weeks later.

To facilitate an understanding of the contributions made by this study, a discussion of related concepts and theories, including identity activation, work-role identity salience, identity work, role claiming, role granting, leader identity, and motivation to lead, follows.

As the study was conducted in a socially inclusive workplace environment, the discussion integrates the importance of the chosen setting with the different concepts that are discussed.

4.1.4 Identity Activation and Dynamic Sensemaking Self-Processes

This section summarises and extends the points made so far, and it lays out a general framework that guides the development of specific hypotheses for Studies 1 and 2. It begins with the recognition that the self must manage its conscious sensemaking of the external stimuli triggered by a situated environment on a moment-by-moment basis. To do so, the individual's brain operates dynamically through activated networks of processing structures (such as memory, evaluative, perceptual, and motor systems) that support information convergence (Dehaene, 2014). Situated identity activation and its subsequent development rely on this dynamic self to bring about a meaningful interpretation and integration of multiple pieces of external and internal self-relevant information (Lord & Chui, 2018). The related information can include "social and task context, roles, activated self-schema, current affect, current goals, social stereotypes, and very recent information processing" (Lord et al., 2016, p. 125).

The self-identity operates as a dynamic system that synchronises information for self-definition and identity activation (Lord et al., 2016). The localised cognitive processing structures used in identity construction are called 'self-schemas'. These self-schemas are part of a larger self-structure or network of central and peripheral schemas, but only some of these schemas are active at any given moment. The momentarily activated set of self-schemas—termed the *working self-concept* (WSC) (Markus & Wurf, 1987)—has two functions. First, it interprets context- and task-specific information, with the self acting as an interpreter. Second, it directs behaviours and emotions borne from task demands within a specific context, with the self acting as the social architect. The moment-to-moment making of meaning relies on

the activation of those self-schemas relevant for the interpretation of and integration with contextual stimuli. Therefore, the WSC comprises momentarily activated networks of processing structures for sensemaking of social situations and personal construal of one or more relevant role identities. The individual self, when situated in a context, makes sense by constructing situated stories. The production of these stories very often is linked to the self-identity. As these stories are told, personal construal emerges as both intrapersonal and interpersonal sensemaking (McLean et al., 2007).

The construction of a coherent identity through identity work is a high-level verbal construal process that is both symbolic and attention demanding in nature. The verbal act of storytelling has an intervening effect on the development of leadership identities (Shamir & Eilam, 2005) for both leaders and non-leaders. This act of storytelling is guided by the WSC in organising a situationally coherent and relevant identity—usually a role identity in a work environment. An activated identity can connect one's past work experiences with a possible, provisional, or future self, and with specific, relevant goals. Consistent with Assumption 2 in Chapter 2, the development of one's leader identity hinges on the self's ability to organise a consistent and positive role meaning for leading-related behaviours and social relations. However, the identity development process takes time to take shape. Therefore, the dynamic self not just defines 'who I am', but also shapes 'who I will be', creating a positive self-conception to be pursued. More importantly, a salient identity that shapes an individual's self-concept within a work role replete with leading behaviours influences motivation, behavioural outcomes, and even leadership development. Thus, understanding of leader identity construction is important to unpack these relationships.

Adopting a role-based perspective to examine positive self-conception and leader identity development can advance self theories within the organisational and leadership

literature. The current research examining the intrapersonal processes affected by role claiming for developing a leader identity within a work environment attempts to fill the research gap in the identity literature with studies designed to be more quantitative and to have greater experimental rigor. How roles, identities, and WSC might be causally and dynamically related to role claiming is difficult to unravel, however, unless one takes an experimental approach. This examination must happen *in situ* to incorporate the contextual factors that drive self-construal.

Figure 4.1 shows a conceptual model that depicts how work-role identity salience is predicted to influence identification and motivation. Moreover, the concept of identity work as involving socially embedded processes is predicted to have a possible mediating role in the relationship of work-role salience with the development of leader identity and motivation to lead. Figure 4.1 provides a conceptual guideline for the coverage of relevant concepts and literature, and the following sections describe the constructs and expected relationships in more detail.

Figure 4.1 Components of leader identity development processes
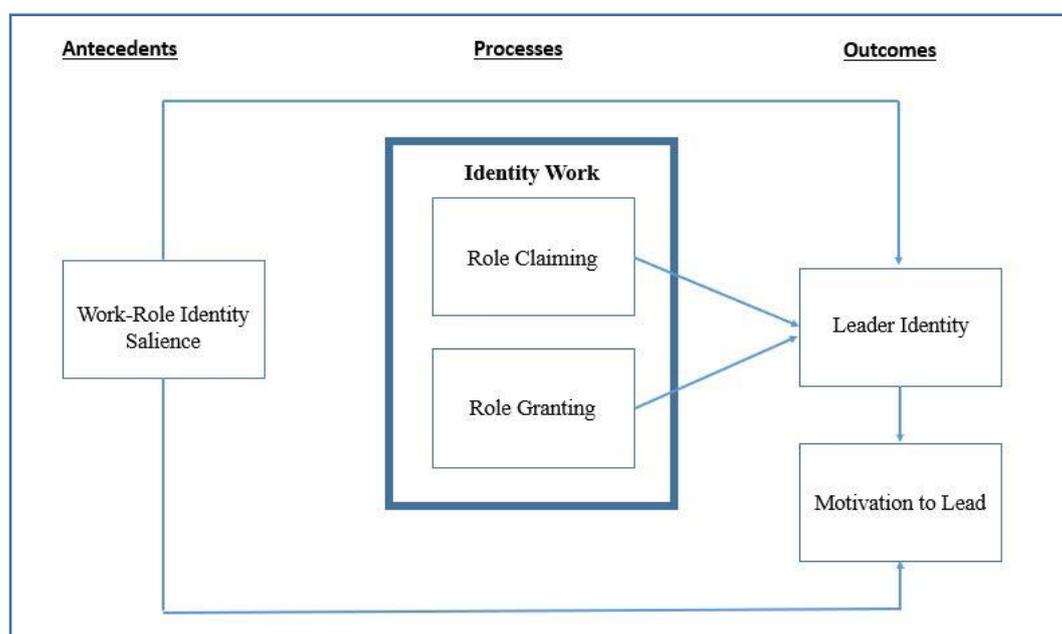
Work-Role Identity Salience and Recursive Interpretive Processes. Work-role identities are crucial in shaping 'who I am' for organisational actors because organisations comprise human systems of roles (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Each organisational member has a role that determines both his or her identity and many aspects of organisational life. Roles are 'functions' (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and 'positions' (Ashforth, 2001) within social structures. Role theory, which elaborates the key components of roles, has been well discussed in the sociology literature (Biddle, 1986; Stryker, 1980; Turner, 1978). This literature emphasises that roles are constrained by (1) status or positions within the hierarchical structure of organisations, (2) defined tasks that affect expected behaviours, and (3) role-connected relationships that shape interpersonal interactions. Role identities are social representations of the self, which are themselves embedded in specific social contexts. Those role-identity characteristics that best define an individual self and are salient in work roles may become personal self-schemas and will be integrated into part of the core self-concept as the individual gains experience with a role.

"Identity salience is defined as the probability that one will invoke a specific identity across situations" (Stets & Serpe, 2013, p. 36). Salient identities are considered by the self as central social representations; they are more prevalent and may be discussed across situations. For example, a first-time father, whose son has just been born, can carry his strong identity salience as a father across situations. This salience prompts him to tell every colleague and every friend stories about himself as a father, and possibly about his son as well.

Two primary considerations influence how work-role identity salience develops: situational relevance and subjective importance (Ashforth, 2001). 'Situational relevance' hinges on whether the identity can be socially accepted in, or is legitimately suited to, a situation. For example, an employee can receive social appraisal through commendations of

her performance from her boss, peers, or customers, and then use this information to determine whether her performance is relevant in terms of being positively viewed by others. Alternatively, the employee can reflect on whether her role enactment is purposeful in making contributions to the organisational goals. If the outcome messages are positive in most of these events related to assessing situational relevance, work-role identity salience can be developed. 'Subjective importance' refers to whether one's role is highly central and aligns significantly with one's global sense of self or other important self-aspects including goals, values, or key attributes. For example, a social entrepreneur who is passionate and compassionate about solving social issues will assign greater importance to his or her role in starting a social enterprise that provides equal job opportunities and personal development to the disabled.

Stets and Serpe (2013) differentiated identity 'salience' from 'centrality'. 'Identity salience' is linked more to the extent to which the identity is called to mind and acted out (i.e., situational relevance), while 'identity centrality' describes the internalised importance to the self (i.e., subjective importance). Identity salience is thought to have a more profound impact on behaviours and, therefore, was chosen as a predictor variable in Study 1.

Work-role identities are organised in one's self-concept according to one's salience hierarchy (Stryker, 1980). Thus, when a work-role identity has stronger salience, an individual is more likely to be motivated to enact related role behaviours with linkages to a specific set of values and goals. For example, a social entrepreneur usually gives a higher priority to addressing social issues than to making a profit compared with business entrepreneurs, even though the same responsibility of shouldering financial risks exists in both types of entrepreneurship. Moreover, higher identity salience can prompt an actor to be more dedicated to task achievement or social interactions according to the role expectation,

which in turn makes it more likely that the actor will succeed and receive social validation. Consequently, the identification process is more readily internalised. Yet, it takes time for an actor to fully achieve identification derived from role enactment, as the self must continually perform two levels of cognitive interpretation—that is, role- and self-based interpretation. If both levels of interpretation have a common conceptual space with shared dimensions, a form of metacognition can take place fostering identification. Examples of these situations include performance appraisal or post-training debriefing during which the self-based interpretation is closely integrated into role-based performance evaluation.

Work-role identification involves both role-based and self-based interpretation for processing task-level and identity-level information. Interpretation of situationally enacted role-based actions requires making sense of task experiences, which may be routinely carried out with familiar roles. By comparison, the self-based level of interpretation organises a consistently meaningful self, likely using default networks (Gusnard, 2005). As the attentional capacity and metabolic resources in the brain are limited, an individual cannot attend to both of these interpretations at the same time. The interpretive work that makes sense of the temporal and task-based self differs from the work that organises the coherent and relatively stable self. The former may involve more proceduralised knowledge, whereas the latter requires integration at the symbolic level. Work on action identification theory (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987) also supports this distinction.

Figure 4.2 shows how the two levels of related attentional focus can be dynamically integrated over time. In the figure, the WSC and the 'conscious self-construal', or construed identity, are activated in an alternating manner over time. This kind of interactive process, which allows people to cycle between situational behavioural regulation and coherent identity sensemaking, has been found in empirical studies of identity work (Creed, DeJordy, & Lok,

2010; Kreiner, Ashforth, & Sluss, 2006; Pratt et al., 2006) and is also discussed in the

cognition literature (de Jaegher, Di Paolo, & Gallagher, 2010; Eustache et al., 2013).

Figure 4.2 Cycles of attentional focus in identity development processes
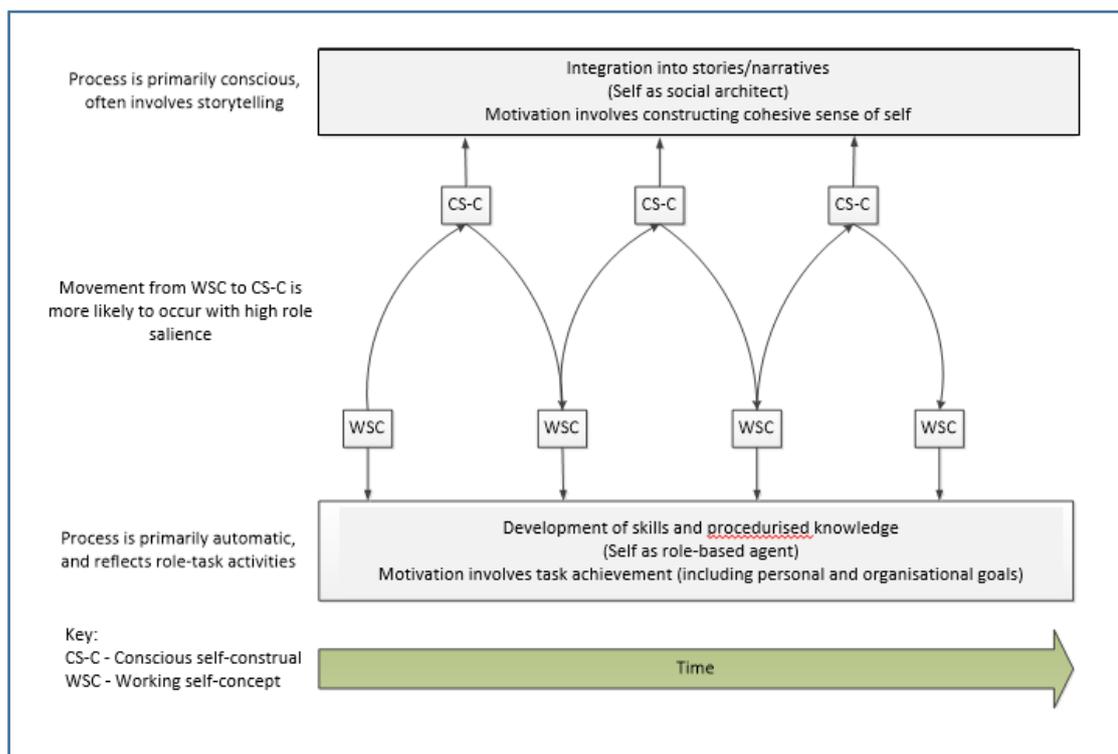
Thus, these cycles of role- and self-based interpretation are the key building blocks

used by social architects in constructing an enduring self. The next section expands on its

theoretical conception.

Cyclical Role- and Self-Based Attentional Foci. As depicted in Figure 4.2, these two

foci connect the conscious meaning of the role enactment process at the lower level with the

conscious integration of one's role identity at the upper level. Two levels of cognitive

sensemaking processes take place over time.

One level of interpretation is related to the evaluation of the role-based actions as part

of self-evaluation towards role-task activity improvement. When the tasks at hand are

consciously tackled, these tasks are in the forefront of the individual's attention. Other role-

based concerns, such as the person's role identity, position, and role-related social relations, subside into the background and may not receive conscious attention. This level of the sensemaking process is primarily automatic and simultaneous when it involves well-practised work activities. The WSC integrates the perceptual process of encoding external stimuli and tackles situated task achievement and social interaction at the behavioural level. The interpretative outcome at this task level can be linked to the motivation of self-development in terms of skills and proceduralised knowledge, although this may be largely sub-symbolic. In this way, skill development can be integrated with identities, as suggested by Lord and Hall (2005).

The leadership literature also discusses how similar motivational processes can be affected by leaders. Specifically, Lord and Brown (2004) describe how the leader may influence a follower's current view towards a possible self, which can in turn trigger self-development through feedback. Therefore, identity is linked to skill development in a mutually enhancing way. Thus, the more an individual perceives his or her work skills are enhanced with better efficacy and efficiency, the more that individual's work role becomes internalised. This relationship explains how self-efficacy can precede motivation to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

The higher level of interpretation is an integrative and controlled cognitive process that involves self-reflection and self-narration or storytelling, usually shared socially, to organise and define one's self-concept. Yet, this kind of integrated narration at this symbolic level entails more than storytelling: It combines and organises the overall role-based information from tasks achievement, relational quality, and organisational goals with the self-relevant preferences and self-motives to achieve self-definition. It is at this level that the individual's identity development takes shape. The integrated narration lays the foundation

for the advancement of a new identity, such as a leader identity, though it may remain latent until opportunities arise that favour its construction. For example, an employee with a latent leader identity may take the initiative to lead a project or to apply for transfer to a higher managerial position. Notably, self-definition as a leader may come from the integration of self-relevant actions and stories with social feedback that grants leadership status, even when it is not claimed by an actor (Alvesson, 2017) Nevertheless, the individual may not organise these activities into a self-definition as a leader, particularly when challenging work tasks keep him or her focused at lower levels. The experimental manipulation in Studies 1 and 2 provides an opportunity to make this latent integration explicit. Thus, it is hypothesised that leader-role claiming will be greater in the experimental condition compared to the control condition.

> *H1: The narrative manipulation of the leader role is positively related to the extent of leader-role claiming.*

Because the identity construal involves integrative-level processing that links multiple task-level episodes, it takes time to crystallise a positive self-concept over time from work-role activities. That was why repeated measurement was conducted to track the durability of the effects on identity construction. Specifically, an individual may step up to perform a different aspect of his or her job or even assume a different role if that employee's salient work role is congruent with his or her own self-concept. This stretching of role responsibilities may be particularly critical for development of leadership skill and identities. The cyclical role-based and self-based interpretive work illustrated in Figure 4.2 is reflexive, but it can have a profound impact on identity and motivation development. Although few studies have been devoted much discussion or empirical attention to this intrapersonal process of sensemaking, it is an important cognitive epiphenomenon in understanding self-

identity development, particularly leadership identity development, within a role context, and as such supports the following hypothesis:

H2: The stronger the salience of the work-role identity, the higher the likelihood of developing a leader identity.

As depicted in Figure 4.2, the interplay between the self as 'the role-based agent' (conducted by the WSC) and as 'the social architect' (conducted as a conscious self-construal) can make better sense of the individual's self-based conception development, and lead to higher aspiration and motivation for self-enhancement. Self-based motivation in followers has been discussed in the leadership literature (Day, 2014; Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2012; Lord & Brown, 2004; Lord & Hall, 2005; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Leaders can empower followers' motivation for self-development, which then leads to leadership development driven by each follower's future career self. The understanding of this kind of intricate cognitive epiphenomena that facilitate identity advancement is important for leadership development and career advancement.

Another important aspect of identity salience is the notion that its strength can be affected by psychological motives (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Golledge, & Scabini, 2006). Identity elements that provide a stronger sense of self-esteem, continuity, distinctiveness, or meaning have been shown to facilitate both identity centrality (Vignoles et al., 2006) and identity enactment. These elements, which are collectively termed 'identity motives', refer to "pressures toward certain identity states and away from others, which guides the processes of identity construction" (Vignoles et al., 2006, p. 309). As identity salience advances, what becomes embedded in the identity construction process for the self are motivational forces that may potentially fulfil psychological needs such as sense of belonging, purposefulness, consistency, or self-enhancement, which can also

determine the distinctiveness of the self. It is believed that the self may have a gravitational tendency toward an 'implicit positivity' (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995) in the identity construction process. Achieving this state in the workplace depends on the success of securing coherent meaning (self as the interpreter) and positive self-conception (self as the architect) within the role-based context.

The self as an interpreter in the workplace plays a key role in the acquisition of coherent meaning from the different stimuli so as to construct a positive or negative self-conception. Meaning is derived from one's role, job nature (Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003), social validation, and recognition by others. When an employee's psychological motives are satisfied in terms of role performance and deriving a sense of purpose, his or her role identity salience conveys a much stronger motivation to act out the employee's role and to seek social validation amongst peers, customers, and even personal social circles. Hence, this can strengthen one's identity importance as well. It is predicted that WISE employees who have a leading role will benefit from their positive work environment and achieve this goal.

H3: The stronger the salience of the work-role identity, the higher the motivation to lead.

The self as architect directs motivation and behaviours, especially if the individual's positive self-conception is called upon to act for a purpose-driven cause. Positive self-view within a role can push an individual towards a desired self. As an example, Creed et al. (2010) showed how some gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender (GLBT) ministers of Protestant denominations in the United States tackled and addressed major institutional contradictions because of their GLBT status. In this case, the identity saliences that emerged from both role-based and social identity–based self-schemas merged to become a major driving force for a

stigmatised group within a traditional social system, prompting the members of this group to seek identity reconciliation. This process also illustrates how positive self-conception could increase the likelihood of developing a leader identity and the motivation to lead.

The current field research study took place in a WISE that was founded with the primary social mission of developing the well-being of disabled employees and promoting their social inclusion within the larger society. As the personal needs of the disabled employees were primarily aligned with the organisational goal, it was anticipated that these employees would exhibit a strong sense of work-role identity salience. Thus, the salient work-role identity imbued with personal importance and situational relevance was anticipated to propel role occupants towards positive identity and motivational development. When one is engaged in narrative identity work linked to leadership development at work, the discursive performance aligns with the three fundamental assumptions discussed in Chapter 2. Thus, as self-schemas are activated by situational cues, the self interprets self-relevant information for leadership construal. Very often, these situational cues are associated with relation and collective identifications that reflect the role and leader–follower relations. One of these positive identities could be the leader identity, and the related self-regulated promotional focus could be motivation to lead (Kark & van Dijk, 2007) if these constructs exist in a latent form in this WISE and were afforded an opportunity for conscious elaboration.

4.1.5 Conceptualising a Narrative Process Approach of Leader Identity Development

An integral part of leadership development is self-narratives, which can define the self, according to Shamir and Eilam (2005). These authors theorised that those persons who failed to construct and share coherent life-stories that contain meaning and conviction would find it difficult to lead authentically. Life-stories narration can be a natural process of expressing self-justifications and self-knowledge of one's life experiences, whether those experiences

are positive or negative. An individual can derive a positive identity from tackling adversity or participating in 'a cause' that involves collective actions—for example, in a social movement—to claim leadership development.

This kind of positive self-conception can translate into leadership that drives social change (Creed et al., 2010; Plowman et al., 2007). In the case of the Protestant minsters who tackled institutional contradictions, as studied by Creed et al. (2010), the process of embodying their ministerial role through their role-claiming narratives was reinforced by their public role enactment as clergy members. As these GLBT clergy members reconciled their internalised contradictions through identity work, they felt liberated to pursue their career paths. Positive self-conception within a work role should not be taken for granted, however—it can be a tough struggle. More importantly, when roles are used or function as "a resource" (Creed et al., 2010, p. 1356), those roles can enable "purposeful agency".

Within a complex work dynamic, such as the presence of stigmatisation for certain communities of organisational actors, mere positive self-conception is not sufficient for motivating positive behaviour. Instead, individuals require a journey of identity development, reconciliation, and negotiation similar to the development from childhood to adulthood described in developmental psychology. During this journey of identity construction, self-narratives play a pivotal role in crystallising an identity that is seen as an 'internalized and evolving story' (McAdams, 2001), which embodies the past, present, and future experiences of an individual. This process, called 'identity work', has been described (Creed et al., 2010; Maitlis & Lawrence, 2007; Pratt et al., 2006) as an important intervening process for personal identity construal within the capacity of organisational and institutional roles.

4.1.6 Identity Work for Narrative Identities

Identity work that fosters narrative identities provides a unified sense of not only the current self, but also the 'becoming' or 'emergent' self (Ashforth, Harrison, & Sluss, 2014). Figure 4.2 illustrates how the reconstruction of the self-concept can be achieved through storytelling, which allows the situated, enactive self-aspects to be integrated into the individual's core stable self-schemas. Consequently, a salient work-role identity is underpinned by a dynamic self, which is continually 'generative' (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992) in renewing and developing the core self. The act of storytelling, therefore, is an important and dynamic part of not only identity construction and but also identity reconstruction (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). Indeed, the constructed identity needs ongoing social validation for maintenance and solidification to be internalised.

Storytelling as 'narrative identity work' is an effective way to promote identity transformation and work-role identity transition (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010) because the narrative process helps crystallise the meaning of work. Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010) predicted that a work-role identity transition will be more radical if narrative identity work is more prevalent. Storytelling is also considered a self-evaluation process, as self-narratives can help achieve validation of outcomes in socially desirable work. Situated stories and self-development are closely linked because self-narratives involve an autobiographical shaping of the past that has an intimate connection with, and anticipation of, the future self (McLean et al., 2007). Moreover, Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010) asserted that self-narratives in the presence of an audience may help increase legitimacy and facilitate 'macro role transition', defined as 'changes in a person's orientation to a role already held' (Louis, 1980) and related work outcomes. This process helps those going through a role transition define 'who I am'. In summary, storytelling is so important that it supports specific neurological structures, such as default networks whose function is to make sense of the self in a current context, integrating work actions with the self that previously have negative self-perception.

According to the extant literature, recounting part of one's narrative that is focused on work-role identities in the presence of another person creates or strengthens a linkage between the self and that work-role identity. A plethora of studies (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Roberts, Dutton, Spreitzer, Heaphy, & Quinn, 2005) support the supposition that identity construction and identity change in the workplace are facilitated by an integrated intrapersonal and interpersonal process. This process, if it is successful and positive, can help the individual to define, verify, confirm, and embrace his or her identity or role. It is this logic that forms the basis for the experimental manipulation in Study 1.

In summary, work identity and identity change are understood as involving a process of continuous adjustment before a new role identity can be adopted cognitively and recognised socially. The leader identity is one of the personal identities that can be developed within a work-role identity. A central aim of Study 1 was to experimentally manipulate the opportunity to engage in such a narrative that elaborates one's work role with respect to leadership.

4.1.7 Role Claiming and Role Granting as Identity Work Processes

The theory of the claiming–granting process adopted in Study 1 is based on a combination of prior discussions advancing two areas of identity development. Roberts and Creary (2012) and Ibarra and Barbulescu (2010) suggested that the claiming–granting process consists of socially constructed and intervening processes for positive identity construction and work-role identity transition. More specifically, DeRue et al. (2009) and DeRue and Ashford (2010) proposed that claiming–granting serves as a process framework for the social construction of leader identity. This section introduces claiming and granting as general concepts within the identity work literature in general. The focus is placed on the importance of these two acts in relation to identification with a role.

Role Claiming. For purposes of clarity within the current work, *role claiming* comprises the narratives constructed to lay claims to the core components of a work role. In this study, the term 'role claiming' refers to narratives related to (1) specific role or position description, (2) role behaviours such as specific leading behaviours, (3) role relationships with customers, or (4) purposefulness of the roles such as contributions to certain communities or the society at large.

Role claiming can be a negative as much as a positive interpretative process. If it is not successful, failure in self-verification can result. Issues of identity work do not emerge only in individuals with negative self-views; they also challenge professionals or business executives when they are adjusting to new work-role identities (Ibarra, 1999). Therefore, role claiming is a crucial discursive act that can lead to the development and advancement of the self both psychologically and socially.

Callero (1985) offered a 'role as resource' perspective that enriches the understanding of why claiming a role is important. He elaborated two realities of roles and functions of roles. A role has an actual existence, which is visibly seen when a role-occupant enacts the role-related tasks and responsibilities. In contrast, when a role is perceived as a cognitive or transcendent schema, it has a virtual reality. Because a role is embedded in a social structure, which can be constantly visible, it incurs possible social interactions stemming from the role enactment. Moreover, a role can become a cognitive factor by impacting one's role expectation and enactment. By mentioning, enacting, referring to, or claiming his or her role in an organisation, an individual may gain access to different assets—resources, physical or cultural contexts, social legitimacy, or general acceptance by others. Role claiming, then, can evoke multi-dimensional implications according to Callero's 'role as resource' perspective. The sense of membership and position is strongly linked to physical, social, and cognitive

resources that can have profound impacts on an individual. In this study, role claiming is considered in terms of identity development; thus, Callero's discussion supports how roles can be a strong determinant in the cognitive processing of the individual's identification.

Laying claim to the central components of one's identity at work creates coherence and legitimacy (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010) for narrative identities. Storytelling is an act of organising past events in a credible and meaningful way. The technique of 'emplotment' links previously fragmented events so that they become a plot and provide consistent 'scripts'. Emplotment is a process "by which narrative links temporal events by directing them toward a conclusion" (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010, p. 141). By sharing these self-narratives socially, an individual can seek social validation and establish authenticity. This process is important for self-definition. Moreover, as these authentic stories embedded in the larger context of an organisation are shared, they can become legitimate discourses of a larger cultural structure that are important both for the narrator and for the organisation.

An increasing number of organisational studies have examined how 'identity work' and 'institutional work' can help address the negative effects of stigmatisation happening at individual and organisational levels. The research interest in this area indicates that narrative identities are becoming an important organisational topic that is related to both individual and organisational identity phenomena. It is reflected in the following hypothesis, which integrates role claiming and leader identity development:

> *H4: The more the prevalent the leader-role claiming, the higher the likelihood of developing a leader identity.*

Role Granting. The organisational literature that looks at work meaning for stigmatised subpopulations reveals that these employees can (re-)build a positive social identity through the affirmational views of others, including both colleagues and persons

external to the organisation (Kreiner, Ashforth, & Sluss, 2006). This form of 'granting' facilitates the validation and acceptance of the focal person's role in an organisation. *Granting* is defined as "the actions that a person takes to bestow a specific identity onto another person" (DeRue & Ashford, 2010, p. 631). 'Role granting' in this study refers to both direct and indirect forms of this process. Direct granting includes remarks or comments forwarded to a target to affirm, commend, and evaluate an individual's roles and related performance. Indirect granting, through listening to the leader-role claiming of a focal person, is another form of nonverbal approval.

Role granting and role claiming are seen as being related through a discursively engaging pattern that allows meaning to be imparted and shared so that learning of the self can occur via the processes of self-verification and self-validation, which in turn lead to self-enhancement (Swann, 1983) and self-development. Role granting is part of the external social dynamics that can reinforce a relevant self-aspect to inform and enrich one's self-knowledge. In a work context, role granting naturally occurs in performance evaluations and through feedback regarding future possible work-related or self-growth opportunities. The role-granting actor can be a supervisor, a peer, or even a customer; the role-claiming actor is the self. Therefore, the granting process can be direct and indirect in validating the legitimacy of one's role or specific identity or one's identity and role claims. In Study 1, examining the leader identity of trainers in a social enterprise is appropriate because of the implicitly leadership-related role held by the trainers who were in charge of workshops and tours.

The claiming-and-granting social interaction framework for leader identity internalisation, which is based on the identity work literature (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; DeRue et al., 2009), is partially operationalised in this experimental study. Inspired by the role identity literature, Study 1 integrates the concepts of work-role identity salience, positive

work psychology, and the leader identity internalisation process theory of 'claiming–granting' to examine the development of leader identity as a within-person process experienced by non-leaders. Only the 'claiming' process was manipulated in this study, as explained in the Methods section; the 'granting' process was not manipulated because of the measurement complexity. Nevertheless, to complete the claiming–granting interaction framework, granting was assured through formal feedback from customers and the experimenter's act of listening to participants. To reiterate, identity work, within the context of this study, refers specifically to the processes of role claiming and role granting.

4.1.8 Leader-Role Claiming as a Determinant of Leader Identity and Motivation to Lead

'Leader identity' has been previously defined as a construction based on a subcomponent of one's WSC involving activated schemas of the leading role and leading behaviours (Epitropaki et al., 2017). The traditional perspective on leadership is to consider leader identity as a role attached to an actor who is assigned a position with authority to lead in a hierarchical structure. To an increasing extent, however, scholars are beginning to understand that leadership can be emergent and relational (Uhl-Bien, 2006), meaning that leadership is a process that is socially constructed and socially distributed. This understanding becomes more important as more work environments begin operating in such a way that knowledge is distributed among different actors. In addition, Quinn (1996) debated whether leadership must be confined to the formal positions that people hold within an organisation. Indeed, Day et al. (2009) acknowledged that leadership could be developed outside formal leadership roles.

Similarly, the team leadership literature considers leadership to be distributed and shared (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Pearce & Conger, 2003). In self-managing groups,

the roles that members assume are flexible and dynamic (Seers, 1989). As such, any member of a self-managing group can be called upon to provide leadership on a specific task. Typically, the person with the most appropriate knowledge, skills, abilities, and traits for a specific task provides leadership on that task.

Collectively, these perspectives suggest the potential for development and exercise of leadership even by employees who do not formally hold leadership positions. To date, scant studies have focused on leadership development in followers. Thus, Study 1's examination of the leader identity of employees in a WISE extends prior work to fill this research gap.

Prior sections of this chapter have explained the intervening effects of the claiming-and-granting processes on leader identification. Self-definition is clearly not a solely cognitive but also a social-cognitive process. Therefore, relational influences are inherent in different areas of self-development, including self-awareness, role transitions, adult development, socialisation, and identity development processes (Day, Zaccaro, & Halpin, 2004). For an individual to identify with the leader role, an internalisation process must take place after the process of identification. Internalisation is "the adoption of a decision based on the congruence of one's values with the values of another" (Bagozzi & Lee, 2002, p.228).

'Claiming' is initiated when there is "a discrepancy between the self-view and one's schema of a leader" (DeRue et al., 2009, p. 225). An individual, such as a deputy head of a department, may experiment with a possible self when trying out a new role. At other times, an individual claims a leader identity naturally, when he or she has self-awareness of a leader-like image, quality, and attributes associated with the leader role. The claim of being a leader can be congruent, as the individual spontaneously asserts a leader identity in interpersonal activities within a defined social setting, usually a workplace. This is one way of claiming leadership through behaviour (see Ibarra et al., 2014).

In other situations, the individual needs to think through whether the attributes are self-descriptive. Strauss et al. (2012) emphasised the importance of elaboration for advancing one's future work self. However, DeRue et al. (2009) suggested that claiming can still occur if a discrepancy exists between the self-view and the individual's schema of a leader. That is, the individual may 'try out' a transition in which the self changes to match the self-view. Adopting Ibarra's (1999) concept of provisional self, an individual can take small steps to explore his or her ability to attain a leader identity when adjusting to a specific social context. If the exploration of this provisional self can be adequately processed, the claiming can occur through gap-bridging or negotiation. This is similar to the concept of identity work discussed earlier. During this transition, small steps working towards a leader identity are important to the self, and the opportunity to process and express that identity work can promote role claiming and leader-identity internalisation. Further, this process can be solidified by social and organisational processes that grant legitimacy to the emergent identity by accepting and responding positively to these steps. This process is central to the objectives of WISEs.

Motivation to Lead. Individual differences lead to different human behaviours and motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Leadership behaviours, according to Lord and Hall (1992), may be affected by individual differences such as personality, value systems, prior personal experience as followers, and leadership skill self-efficacy. Chan and Drasgow (2001) put forward a motivation to lead (MTL) construct that affects a "leader's or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affect his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader" (Chan & Drasgow, 2001, p. 482). The MTL construct has three dimensions: the affective identity, non-calculative, and social normative dimensions. According to Chan and Drasgow (2001), 'affective MTL' occurs when individuals have an intrinsic inclination to lead others. 'Non-calculative MTL' describes motivation when leading others is not based on any calculated benefits or costs

derived from that leadership. 'Social-normative MTL' is borne out of a sense of duty or responsibility.

The MTL and leader identity constructs can predict the self-as-leader. This has important implications for identifying the propensity of individuals to become leaders. Lord et al. (2016) elaborated on the relationship between motivation and identity. As one's WSC is persistent and activated by situational cues, the related context-specific leader or follower identity will be motivated to pursue goals consistent with that identity. Goal-related information will steer the specific identity, which is situated in local processing structures in the brain, to become connected to the global mental structure of the self-system so as to produce "situationally-tuned interpretations and behaviours" (Lord et al., 2016, p.125). Thus, the leader identity, once activated, can trigger a strong motivation in the individual to seek out new horizons, to learn, to develop new skills, and to obtain more feedback so as to ensure the individual is equipped to attain the implicit standard of the possible self. When this process is applied to leadership, it induces leadership development.

H5: The stronger the leader identity, the higher the individual's motivation to lead.

4.1.9 Research Setting and the Summarised Hypotheses

The opportunity to gradually attain a positive identity through work-role enactment is crucial for WISE employees to reintegrate their socially marginalised or stigmatised image. In essence, by building a positive image while simultaneously honing their work skills, they can gradually assert their self-confidence, self-efficacy, self-worth, and self-esteem. For members of disadvantaged groups going through re-integration into the society as employees in WISEs, the opportunity to conduct work-role identity claiming has a powerful implication. Through role claiming, social inclusion may potentially be achieved in such a way that the sense of stigma and the marginalised self-views are turned around to

reconstruct positive self-views and identities. Social interactions with customers usually allow marginalised individuals to develop perceived competence, while they can develop relatedness through interactions with peers. Therefore, the choice of a WISE for this study offers a unique setting in which to examine the implications of role claiming in work life operating through clearly defined and well-researched psycho-social processes. The importance of these processes is expected to be magnified for disadvantaged individuals, who have leading behaviours embedded in their work roles in WISEs.

For all these reasons, WISEs offer a unique setting for studying the effects of a leadership-role claiming intervention. WISEs provide a prosocial and supportive work environment for marginalised individuals, with the goal of helping them achieve re-integration into society through job employment.

The field experiment of Study 1 took place in a franchise of a social enterprise, Dialogue in the Dark, which operates a business aimed at raising awareness and promoting social inclusion of visually impaired and hearing-impaired persons. The parent company was founded in Germany in 1986 by Andreas Heinecke. Heinecke, whose family was affected by the Holocaust, has both Jewish and German ancestry. The founding of the company represented a response to his quest to solve the social issue of marginalisation. This study took place in the Hong Kong franchise of Dialogue in the Dark (DIDHK), which was founded in 2010 as a Hong Kong–based WISE. The data collection took place from August to October 2015.

The social mission of DIDHK is to promote social inclusion, equality, and diversity. In the DIDHK exhibitions and workshops, the blind or deaf guides lead visitors in small groups through different settings in absolute darkness or silence. The activities aim to change public perception towards disability and diversity and to promote inclusion. The abled

visitors of exhibitions or trainees in workshops learn how to interact without sight or speech to get first-hand experience of disability. The DIDHK also offers dark and silence entertainment activities including 'Birthday in the Dark', 'Dinner in the Dark', 'Concert in the Dark', and 'Cabaret in Silence'. These business activities represent innovations developed by the Hong Kong franchise, rather than the parent organisation. Another business arm of DIDHK provides corporate training workshops tailor-made for corporate clients, whose employees receive group experiential training either in a dark or silent setting.

DIDHK has gained significant recognition in Hong Kong for its activities over the last seven years. It has repeatedly won awards for offering innovative and creative new dark and silent business experiential products, such as 'Concert in the Dark' and 'Cabaret in Silence'. These innovations have involved close collaboration with the blind and deaf trainers.

The blind or deaf trainers who participated in this study were asked to recall their experiences with clients in the corporate training setting. When they are in action, the blind and deaf trainers take charge in leading training activities either with their voice in the dark or their body language in silence. The trainers also navigate physically in the dark or silence to help trainees conduct their group activities. After each workshop, there are two debriefing sessions. In the first debriefing, the blind or deaf trainers and the trainees share their observations made during the workshop. In case of the deaf trainers' sharing, a sign interpreter is present. In the second debriefing, professional facilitators engage with the corporate trainees in regard to their workshop learning.

With this research setting in mind, the hypotheses advanced in the previous section can be combined into a more integrated theoretical model, shown in Figure 4.3. This model suggests that the strengths of one's leader identification and motivation to lead are primarily influenced by one's work-role identity salience. The manipulation of the Study 1 experiment

is proposed to impact identity work, specifically referring to 'role claiming'—that is,

narratives related to (1) specific role or position description, (2) role behaviours such as

specific leading behaviours, (3) role relationships with customers, or (4) purposefulness of

the roles such as contributions to certain communities or the society at large. Moreover, the

salience of the leadership role, along with the extent and success of the claiming and granting

processes, influence the development of leader identity and motivation to lead. The current

study examines Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 (see Figures 4.3A and 4.3B showing the

hypotheses tested for Time 1 and Time 2) without testing the effects of a granting variable,

because role claiming as an internal cognitive process should be manipulated separately to

avoid confounding with role granting. Leader-role claiming as an internal process is expected

to have a stronger effect on identity internalisation than role granting and, therefore, was

given higher priority and became the core focus of Study 1.

Figure 4.3A Study 1 Time 1: Modified research model for testing
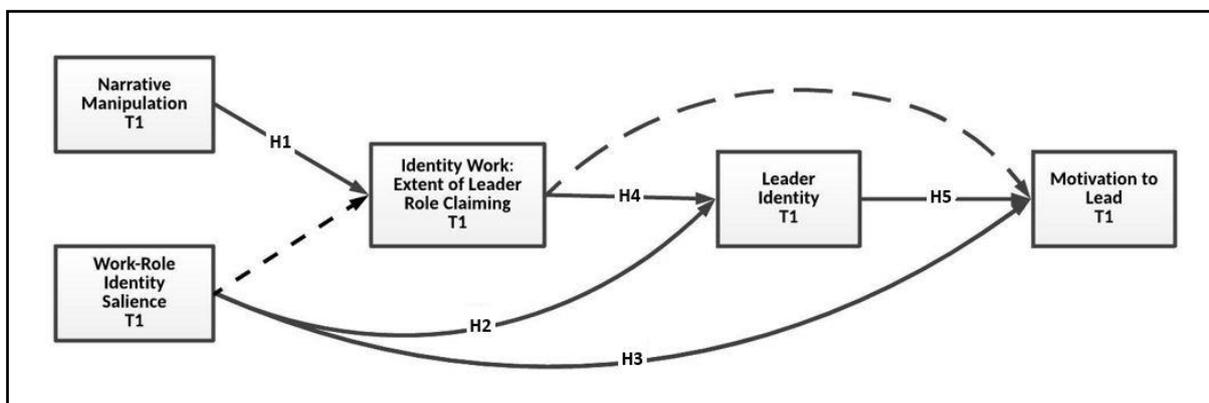
Figure 4.3B Study 1 Time 2: Modified research model for testing
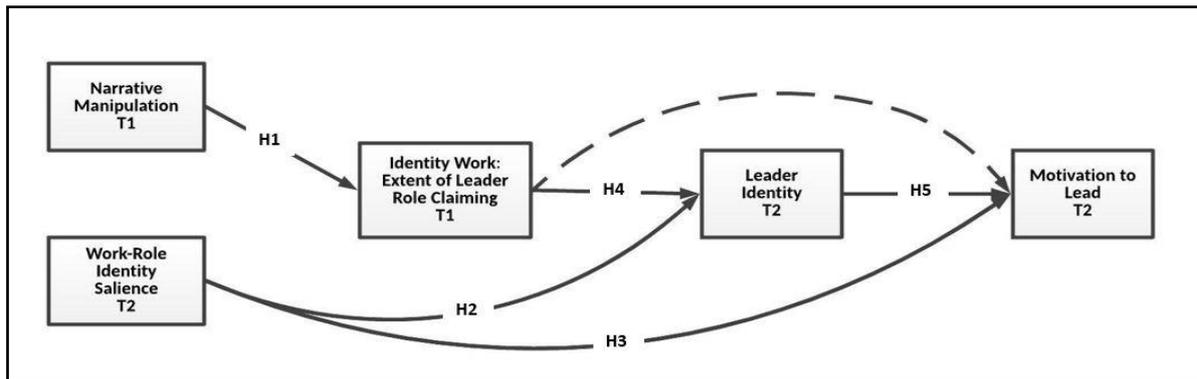
4.1.10 Methods

Participants. Study participants consisted of $N = 34$ visually impaired ($n = 31$) and hearing-impaired ($n = 3$) trainers working for the Dialogue in the Dark Hong Kong social enterprise. The sample appears to have included the entire population of this type of trainer in Hong Kong. Although the small sample size creates power issues, the fact that this sample was particularly appropriate for leader identity development interventions and was atypical for leadership research helps to mitigate the concerns. Of the participants, 17 were male and 17 were female. The average age was 35 years, while the average tenure with the organisation was 4.6 years.

Procedures. To examine the effects of role claiming on positive identity development, a field experiment was conducted. Participants were assigned to either a treatment group, which received a *leader-role claiming intervention*, or a control group, which received a *work-role identity claiming intervention.* (Due to the small sample size, a systematic procedure was adopted to assign participants to conditions by alternating between the treatment and control conditions. This ensured an equal number of participants in each condition). Because all the participants had disabilities, the collection of both the quantitative and qualitative data was conducted through face-to-face interviews, one participant at a time.

Data were collected from all participants at two different points in time to gauge whether the effects of the leader-role claiming manipulation could have a sustained effect on identity development. The time interval between the Times 1 and 2 questionnaire-based data collections was 6 to 8 weeks. The manipulation was delivered only at Time 1. The Times 1 and 2 procedures are shown in Figures 4a and 4b, and the specifics are described next.

Figure 4.4a Study 1: Data collection procedure at Time 1
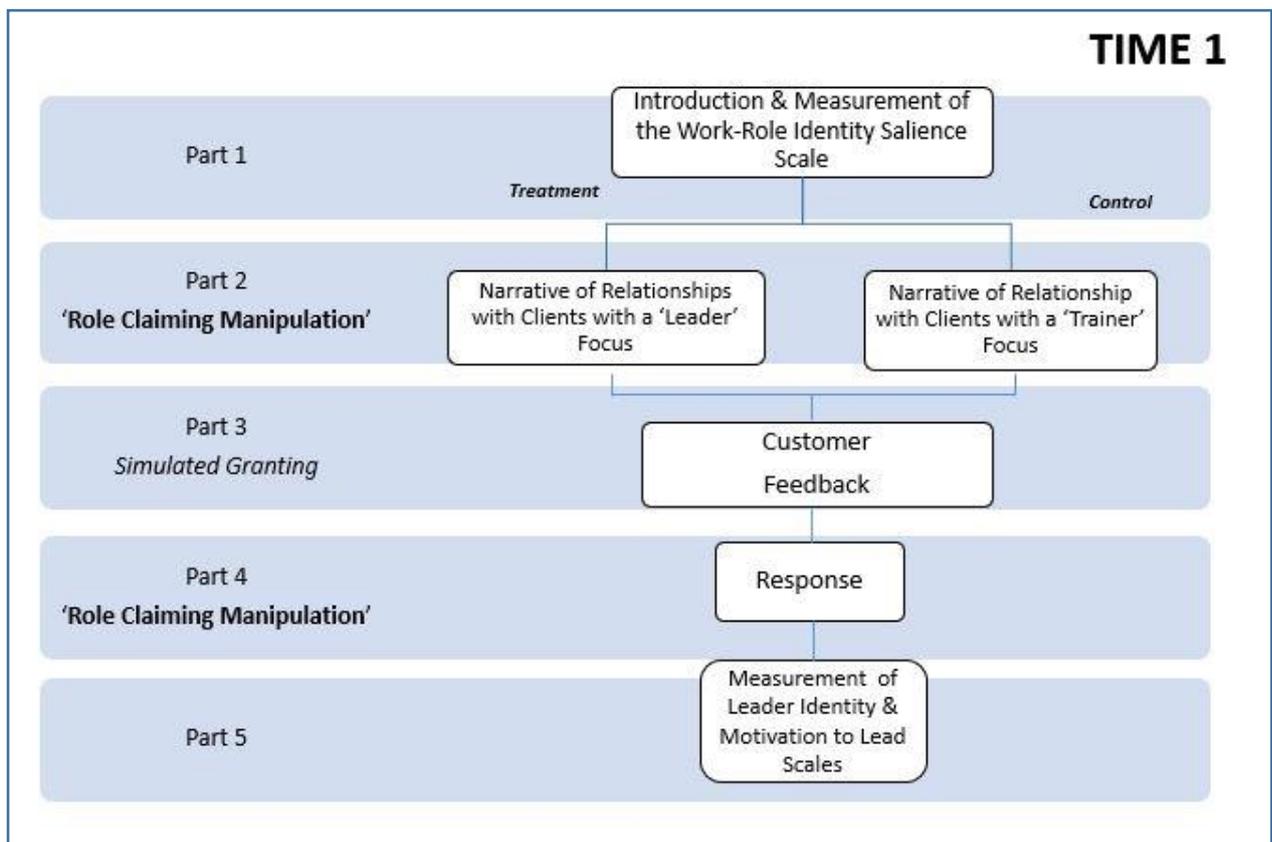
Figure 4.4b Study 1: Data collection procedure at Time 2
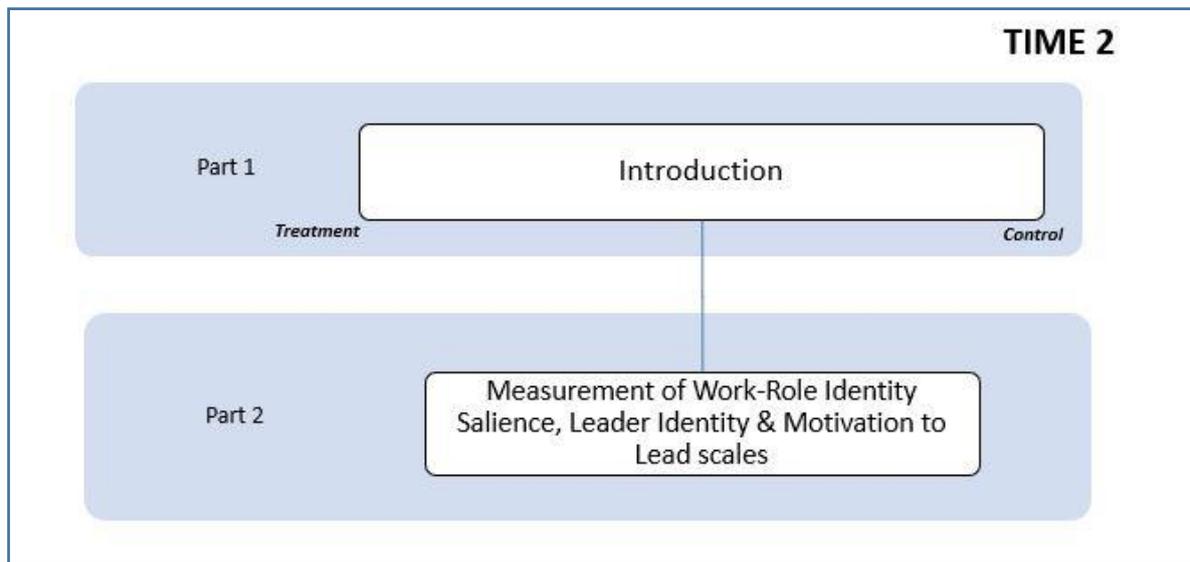
Role-Claiming Manipulation (Time 1). The manipulation was conducted within the

WISE's real work context, one participant at a time. For persons in both the treatment group

and the control group, at the beginning of the first data collection session, the experimenter

explained the aim of the study verbally and then read aloud each work-role identity salience

survey item, allowing the participant to respond verbally (see Part 1 of Figure 4.4a). (For the

few hearing-impaired participants, a sign interpreter was present to facilitate the

communication). The participant was then invited to share his or her work-role identity

experience in a narrative feedback, elicited with a semi-structured interview protocol that

focused on issues related to the leadership role for the treatment group and the trainee role (a

normal work-role identity) for the control group (see Part 2 of Figure 4.4a). The purpose of

this claiming manipulation was to encourage participants to engage in one of two different

types of identity work (i.e., leadership identity versus employee identity) based on a claiming

process. Thus, *its effects on other variables in the model depend upon the extent to which the*

participants were willing and able to make appropriate claims. The time allocated to the self-

narrative and claiming process was not limited, although participants were told the overall

experiment was to last approximately 40 to 50 minutes. Following this role-claiming process, actual customer feedback (i.e., granting feedback) was presented by the researcher (see Part 3 of Figure 4.4a). Participants were then invited to give responses (see Part 4 of Figure 4.4a) to this feedback.

Treatment Group. The treatment group received an intervention designed to increase their focus on their leadership role and experience. To elicit appropriate narratives, the questions for the treatment group participants included: *How would you describe your leadership role in the darkness/silence workshops? Do you think your leadership role is important for the training of these trainees? How would you describe the interaction and communication with your trainees during and after leading the workshops? Could you share one or two leadership episodes with me?*

Control Group. Similar questions were asked of the control groups but with a different role focus. Wordings of 'leader', 'leadership', or 'lead' were replaced with 'trainer', 'training', and 'conduct'. Thus, control group questions included: *How would you describe your trainer role in the darkness/silence workshops? Do you think your trainer role is important for the training of these trainees? How would you describe the interaction and communication with your trainees during and after conducting the workshops? Could you share one or two training episodes with us?*

All manipulations have trade-offs. In this study, I tried to precisely equate the motivational aspects of the leader-role claiming and control groups, as well as their activities in the experiment. However, this may have increased some aspects of role salience in the control group.

Operationalisation of Granting Feedback (Time 1). The granting process was identical for both the treatment and control conditions. Granting was operationalised by giving all participants three categories of feedback from customers: (1) ratings of individual trainers, given by customers who participated in executive workshops; (2) customer ratings of the workshop itself; and (3) the customers' overall satisfaction with the organisation. Ratings given to each individual trainer and ratings of the specific workshops given by the clients were routinely collected for evaluation purposes after customers had participated in an executive workshop. The experimenter obtained the recent ratings from the WISE, which were shared with the treatment and control group participants. The overall customer satisfaction ratings were collected in a separate study conducted by the researcher 10 months before this experiment took place.

After providing the feedback, the experimenter asked a few more questions to facilitate further identity work. These included: *What do you think about the customer comments? Are they important for you to perform your work-role identity? Do you think that you have experienced any personal development after working in DIDHK?*

The resulting narratives were recorded, transcribed, translated from Chinese to English, and analysed to provide manipulation checks as well as more substantive measures of role claiming and other claiming variables.

4.1.11 Measures and Variables (Times 1 and 2)

All the measurement instruments were translated from English to Chinese and back-translated before they were used in the experiment. A Ph.D. student at Hong Kong Baptist University Business School conducted the translation from English to Chinese. An undergraduate psychology student at Sheffield University (United Kingdom) subsequently

did the back-translation. I then checked that the Chinese translation matched the English scales as accurately as possible.

4.1.11.1 Independent Variables

Work-Role Identity Salience. To measure the salience of work-role identity, I adapted Callero's (1985) five-item scale, which was originally developed to measure *blood donor role–person merger.* The items were rated on a five-point response scale (from strongly agree to strongly disagree), and item responses were summed to create a total score. The items included: *Being a trainer in DIDHK is something I rarely even think about (R); I would feel a loss if I were forced to give up being a trainer in DID; I really do not have any clear feelings about being a trainer in DID (R); For me, being a trainer means more than just completing a workshop;* and *Conducting a workshop is an important part of who I am.* The scale was selected because of its high reliability ($\alpha = .81$) in the previous study conducted by Callero (1985). These items were administered two times. At Time 1, this scale was administered at the beginning of the data collection process, before the manipulation of claiming was conducted. At Time 2, this scale was again administered at the beginning of the data collection.

Internal consistencies for both measurement occasions were lower than is optimal: $\alpha = .51$ and $\alpha = .64$, respectively. This may in part be due to some multi-dimensionality in the measurement instrument. Another potential reason for the low internal consistency is that participants responded to the items sequentially as they were read aloud. This might have reduced response bias because participants could not refer to their prior responses ratings, as is typical with a pen-and-paper or online survey. Moreover, the work-role identity salience

was the first scale read aloud to the subjects, who were still adjusting to the response process at this point, which may have affected the consistency of their responses.

Claiming Measures. The claiming measures consisted of frequency counts of the number of times that participants explicitly claimed various roles or outcomes in their narrative interviews. Using content analysis, the qualitative narratives of the participants were transcribed, translated, and coded into key claiming categories. Occurrences within each category were counted to become the values of the claiming measure variables. The four claiming measure coding categories were (1) claiming of a leader role; (2) claiming of a customer benefit; (3) claiming of a general contribution to society, such as social inclusion or environmental protection awareness; and (4) claiming of self-enhancement. A fifth claiming measure consisted of the clock time (minutes) that participants spent on the claiming narrative (the researcher did not impose a time deadline on this activity). A sixth claiming measure, consisting of the word count of the transcribed content, was also created.

The claiming of a leader role was deemed equivalent to the 'leader-role claiming' construct and was used as a mediator to examine the relationship between the manipulation and the leader identity. The remaining three claiming measures—'contribution to customers', 'contribution to society', and 'self-enhancement'—were combined using their aggregated scores as a non-leader role-claiming variable in exploratory testing.

Rationale for Using Content Analysis to Create Role-Claiming Measures. Content analysis was used to process the qualitative data from the narrative interviews so as to create a measure that could be used in the quantitative analysis. This treatment of the qualitative data is explained in detail for three reasons. First, adopting qualitative data for variable creation in an experimental context has not been a common practice. Second, clarifying the analytic process is important for assessing the content validity of the new 'role claiming'

variable created from the qualitative data. Third, experimental studies of identity work, combining quantitative and qualitative data, are unusual. If the current practice is shown to be useful and valid, other investigators might want to use this process to conduct similar research in the future and, therefore, will benefit from an expanded description of what was done in the current study.

The narrative qualitative data were designed to be transformed into variables so as to support the subsequent quantitative analyses. Therefore, the content analysis adopted a deductive and pragmatic perspective in understanding the narrative discourses of participants for identity development.

A content analysis process consisting of a five-level approach (Schilling, 2006) was adopted to handle the verbal raw data (from audiotapes) and arrive at the codings for frequency count before forming the claiming measure variables. Although the specific content of the narratives could not be predicted, it was anticipated that the scope of identity work conducted by the social enterprise employees would capture broad areas including self-definition, self-development, self-enhancement of participants, and their relational experiences with different stakeholders within the work context.

At the first level, when the transcription and translation procedures were carried out to turn the audio files into written raw data, simple rules were adopted. Since the narratives were answer-focused according to an interview guideline, the content tended to be answer-focused. The transcription and translation captured the original narratives as closely as possible without creating complete sentence structures for short and incomplete answers. At the second level, the direction of the analysis was intended to capture relevant information in relation to participants' identity development within a work context. Here, the unit of analysis included single words, such as 'lead', 'leading', and 'nurture'; phrases such as 'create a

learning environment', 'encourage customers to use (their) imagination', and 'facilitate communication'; and full sentences such as 'We inspired them to think about new opportunities in life'.

In the process of conducting the content analysis, without changing the original transcribed data, relevant paragraphs were paraphrased (Schilling, 2006) in three ways. First, relevant words or phrases were highlighted. Then, sidebar notes next to a long section of narrative that captured a single meaning in the form of shorter phrases or a sentence were added next to the original texts. A lengthy narrative digression about a third party, such as a customer personal story, used as an illustration of the participant's justification for describing a personal experience or attribute, was captured as a sidebar note with one or two summarised statements.

At the third level of the structuring content analysis stage, different units of analysis were put into broadly defined dimensions. In this study, the three broad dimensions included (1) self-relevant leader or leadership experience, (2) self-relevant narratives, and (3) non-self-relevant narratives. The texts were then reviewed again based on these three broad dimensions for the next stage of categorisation.

At the fourth level of creating a category system and coding protocol, four categories of claiming were identified: (1) leader-role claiming, (2) claiming related to contributions to customer benefit, (3) claiming related to benefits to the community, and (4) claiming related to self-enhancement. Next, all words, phrases, and statements that were coded within these themes were grouped for frequency counts. Subsequently, the counts were included as four variables in the data set. The length of the narrative time was also included as the last claiming measure.

At the fifth level, descriptive statistics and the intercorrelations of the claiming measures were calculated and presented. They were then employed in the exploratory analysis process.

4.1.11.2 Dependent Variables

To gauge the effect of the claiming manipulation, participants were asked to provide self-perceived leader identity and MTL ratings. Both scales used a five-point Likert response scale, with response anchors ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Leader Identity. For the leader identity construct, Hoffman's (2013) seven-item measure was used. Sample items included *'I questioned my identity as a leader' (R)*; *'I felt less like a leader than I usually do' (R)*; *'I had less confidence in being a leader than I usually have' (R)*; and *'Serving in a leadership capacity was a priority for me'*. Coefficients were $\alpha = .81$ for Time 1 and $\alpha = .80$ for Time 2.

Motivation to Lead (MTL). Then participants were also asked to rate their own motivation to lead using Chan and Drasgow's (2001) 27-item MTL measure. The three-dimensional MTL construct included affective MTL, non-calculative MTL, and social-normative MTL ($\alpha = .66$, .79, and .71 for Time 1 and $\alpha = .77$, .82, and .71 for Time 2, respectively). Responses were made on a five-point Likert response scale, with anchors ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A multi-dimensional MTL composite was formed by calculating participant z-scores for each dimension and combining them to create a standardised MTL composite score.

4.1.12 Results

Content Analysis to Create Claiming Measures. As noted in the Methods section, participant self-narratives were transcribed and translated to create measures of role claiming.

Table 4.1 DIDHK Sample: Coding Examples and Frequency Counts by Group for Claiming Categories

First-Order Codes	Theoretical Categories	Aggregate Claiming Categories	Frequency Treatment	Control
• 'I have sown a seed in their mind. It will blossom one day to support and encourage them in the future'. • 'My behaviours can influence them'. • 'I feel that I can fulfil the role of a teacher at DID. Through our sharing, the participants are touched and they are moved to conduct self-reflection'. • 'Our ability moved some of the clients to tears because of their awakening of the unjust bias towards us or the disabled'. • 'I have a different role in leading and managing a dark theatre'. • 'I took the initiative to create a start-up in designing souvenirs'. • 'During the training, the trainees were inspired and told us how we stimulated them to look at life and adversity differently'. • 'I encourage them to communicate in the dark'. • '… they told us that they considered us as their role models'. • 'Under my leadership, my colleagues can influence customers and participants'.	Experiences that influenced or led others	Leader-role claiming	58	10
• 'In the dark, the trainees re-learn how to listen and how to conduct dialogues with friends and families'. • 'The clients can apply what they learn in the dark to their daily life. They told us they start to change. They do not hold former assumptions about the disabled'. • 'After going through the dark experience, they [clients] were inspired and looked at life with a new perspective'. • 'In the dark, the clients learn how to handle uncertainty'. • 'They [clients] are able to transform and develop their empathy towards other people'. • 'I help them reflect on relationships and how to appreciate the importance of listening and communication'. • 'They understand better about the visually impaired'. • 'The little girl was very scared at the beginning and wrapped her arms around me. … she was able to walk independently later. She overcame her fear in the dark'.	Experiences related to customers	Claiming of customer benefit	66	34
• 'The participants know more about the blind and come to see the disabled with a new light'. • 'I realise that we can help each other without differentiating you and me, we could help each other in the daily life'. (Promotion of social inclusion through enhancing awareness of the ability of the disabled). • '… we can help … promote social inclusion'. • 'Students said that they wanted to be volunteers to support the blind'. • 'Our mission is to give them insights … so that they learn more about the blind'. • 'They can take away prior assumptions about the disabled'.	Perceived influence on the community at large	Claiming of contribution to society	44	26
• 'After being a trainer at DID, I am more optimistic and more engaged in voluntary work. I aspire more to try new things'. • 'My experience … has stimulated me to explore more'. • 'I find that I have changed over the last six years. I learnt how to control my emotions'. • 'My horizon has widened a lot …'. • 'I never believed that my loss of sight would affect my knowledge and expertise development. I believe that if there is an opportunity, I can get back into a professional role'. • '… other colleagues consider me as a role model'. • 'I will try to think about how to make improvement. In such a way, I could feel that there is a lot of personal growth'. • 'My self-confidence has improved'.	Personal change and growth	Claiming self-enhancement	49	22

Typical phrases related to work-related claims were identified, and the data were categorised into four thematic claiming categories. Sample phrases for these categories are presented in Table 4.1.

For each participant, the value of a particular claiming measure consisted of a count of the number of times the person made a statement that fell into the relevant claiming category.

The mean and standard deviation statistics for the four claiming measures are presented in the first four rows of data in Table 4.2a. The fifth claiming measure was created to combine all the non-leader-role claiming measures for exploratory testing purpose. As can be seen from the t values in the right-hand column of the table, three of the four claiming category measures (all except claims of contribution to society) had significantly different means in the treatment versus control groups, thus providing a check of the experimental manipulation. The largest of these differences was—as would be expected given the goal of the manipulation—for the leader-role claiming measure. Specifically, the treatment group had a significantly higher mean level of leader-role claiming ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.87$) than did the control group ($M = 0.59$, $SD = 0.71$), $t = 4.39$, $p < .01$. Also, as is clear from the frequencies reported in Table 4.1, a substantial number of participants in the control condition made *no* leader-role claims (*range* = 0–2), while most in the treatment group did (*range* = 0–6). Given the focus of Study 1 on the leader role, and the intention that the manipulation influence the extent to which participants engaged in making leader-role claims, these results were as expected and are consistent with Hypothesis 1. The remaining three claiming measures— 'contribution to customers', 'contribution to society', and 'self-enhancement'—were combined using their aggregated scores as a non-leader role-claiming variable in exploratory testing.

Table 4.2a DIDHK Sample: Descriptive Statistics for the Claiming Measures

Claiming Measures	Full Sample		Treatment		Control		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Claiming Frequency							
1. Leader role	2.00	1.94	3.12	1.87	.59	.71	4.39**
2. Contribution to customers	2.94	1.79	3.65	1.87	2.24	1.44	2.47*
3. Contribution to society	2.06	1.43	2.35	1.37	1.76	1.48	1.20
4. Self-enhancement	2.09	1.19	2.88	1.11	1.29	.59	5.21**
5. Combined non-leader	7.09	3.61	9.35	3.64	4.82	1.67	3.30
Process Measures							
6. Claiming time (mins)	16.52	7.93	20.88	8.83	12.18	3.40	3.79**
7. Words in narrative	681	361	829	440	533	169	2.25**

Note. N = 34. * *p* < .05, two-tailed. ** *p* < .01, two-tailed.

Table 4.2b DIDHK Sample: Intercorrelations of the Claiming Measures

Claiming Measures	Correlations						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Claiming Frequency							
1. Leader role	—						
2. Contribution to customers	.73**	—					
3. Contribution to society	.56**	.52**	—				
4. Self-enhancement	.57**	.56**	.35*	—			
5. Combined non-leader	.77**	.90**	.77**	.76**	—		
Process Measures							
6. Claiming time (mins)	.77**	.69**	.47**	.76**	.78**	—	
7. Words in narrative	.69**	.59**	.45**	.60**	.67**	.83**	—

Note. N = 34. * *p* < .05, two-tailed. ** *p* < .01, two-tailed.

Another issue to note is that, on average, the participants in the treatment group (*M* = 20.88 minutes, *SD* = 8.83) spent considerably longer in the narrative interview than did participants in the control group (*M* = 12.18 minutes, *SD* = 3.40), *t* = 3.79, *p* < .05. An outlier

identification rule (Iglewicz & Banerjee, 2001) was applied to detect if there were any unusually high claiming times. The lower boundaries for the treatment and control groups were 10 and 3.25 minutes, respectively, while the upper boundaries were 50 and 21.25 minutes, respectively. No outliers were identified.

Table 4.2b shows the intercorrelations of the claiming frequency measures and the claiming process measures. In general, all of these measures were positively related, with values of correlations ranging from .35 to .90.

Assessment of Group Assignment and Manipulation. Table 4.3 compares the treatment and control groups on a variety of descriptive variables. As one would expect, there were no significant differences on age, gender, tenure, education, or work hours.

Table 4.3 DIDHK Sample: Descriptive Statistics for Participants

Variable	Full Sample		Treatment		Control		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Age[1]	2.91	1.08	2.65	.94	2.91	1.08	.19
Gender[2]	.50	.51	.47	.51	.53	.51	.33
Tenure[3]	4.56	1.62	4.47	1.84	4.56	1.62	.31
Education[4]	2.00	1.15	2.29	1.21	2.00	1.15	−1.51
Work hours per week[5]	2.74	1.29	3.12	1.17	2.74	1.29	−1.8

Note. N = 34.
[1] 1 = 18–25; 2 = 26–35; 3 = 36–45; 4 = 46–55; 5 = more than 55.
[2] 0 = male; 1 = female
[3] Range: maximum 7 years; minimum 1 year.
[4] 1 = secondary school or less; 2 = college or diploma; 3 = degree; 4 = master's degree or higher.
[5] 1 = less than 10 hours per week; 2 = less than 20 hours per week; 3 = less than 40 hours per week; 4 = 40 hours or more per week.
* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Most importantly, the effectiveness and meaning of the manipulation was examined by looking at is effect on the leader-role claiming measure. As previously noted, the treatment and control groups significantly differed in leader-role claiming, supporting the

intended effect of the manipulation of producing greater leader-role claiming in the treatment group.

4.1.12.1 Descriptive Data

Correlations relevant to the hypothesis tests are summarised in Table 4.4. Intercorrelations among the major constructs at Time 1, including the manipulation ($M = .50$, $SD = .51$), leader-role claiming ($M = 1.97$, $SD = 1.90$), work-role identity salience ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .55$), leader identity ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .69$), and MTL composite ($M = .00$, $SD = 1.97$) ranged from .15 to .81. The Time 2 intercorrelations among the work-role identity salience ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .5$), leader identity ($M = 3.95$, $SD = .46$), and MTL composite ($M = .00$, $SD = 1.77$) constructs ranged from .04 to .80.

4.1.12.2 Tests of Hypotheses

As already noted, the manipulation successfully affected leader-role claiming, strongly supporting Hypothesis 1. Its effects on leader identity and MTL are assessed in the exploratory sections that address the mediational models.

Effect of Manipulation on the Leader-Role Claiming. Hypothesis 1 was supported, with the manipulation being positively and significantly correlated with the leader-role claiming ($r = .61$, $p < .01$). Another way of examining Hypothesis 1 is to analyse the proportion of leader-role claiming statements out of the total role-claiming statements between the treatment and control conditions. This proportion was .36 in the treatment condition and .12 in the control condition. Therefore, these findings support the contention that the narrative manipulation of the leader role is positively related to the amount of leader-role claiming. Those in the treatment condition who received the narrative manipulation of leader role made more leader-role claims than those in the control condition.

Effects of Work-Role Identity Salience. Two hypotheses dealt with the effects of work-role identity salience—namely, the hypotheses that work-role identity salience would predict both leader identity (H2) and MTL (H3). As shown in Table 4.4, work-role identity salience at Time 1 was not significantly correlated with leader identity ($r = .19$, $p = .29$), providing no support for Hypothesis 2. This non-significant effect likely reflects the fact that the measurement of Time 1 work-role identity salience took place before the role-claiming manipulation occurred, thus the identity work had not yet occurred. However, the correlation of work-role identity salience at Time 1 with leader identity at Time 2 was statistically significant ($r = \mathbf{.40}$, $p < \mathbf{.05}$), as was the correlation of work-role identity salience at Time 2 with leader identity at Time 2 ($r = \mathbf{.69}$, $p < \mathbf{.01}$). The latter two correlations supported Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 proposed a relationship between work-role identity salience and MTL. Work-role identity salience at Time 1 was significantly correlated with the composite measure of MTL, created by combining the three MTL components into a single score, at Time 1 ($r = \mathbf{.42}$, $p < \mathbf{.05}$). In addition, work-role identity salience at Time 2 was correlated with composite MTL at Time 2 ($r = \mathbf{.50}$, $p < \mathbf{.01}$). These findings supported Hypothesis 3. Following exploratory analyses showed that work-role identity salience was significantly related to some of the components of MTL, specifically, $r = \mathbf{.31}$, $p = .08$ for affective MTL at Time 2; $r = \mathbf{.51}$, $p = .00$ for non-calculative MTL at Time 1; and $r = \mathbf{.45}$, $p = .01$ for social-normative MTL at Time 2.

Table 4.4 DIDHK Sample: Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations for Focal Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Role-claiming manipulation	.50	.51	—							
Time 1 Measures										
2. Leader-role claiming	1.97	1.90	.61**	—						
3. Work-role identity salience	4.02	.55	.17	.26	—					
4. Leader identity	3.66	.69	.19	.37*	.19	—				
5. MTL composite	.00	1.97	.15	.20	.42*	.55**				
Time 2 Measures										
6. Work-role identity salience	3.98	.50	.04	.04	.34	.32	.18	—		
7. Leader identity	3.95	.46	.17	.41*	.40*	.39*	.32	.69**	—	
8. MTL composite	.00	1.77	.18	.04	.16	.33	.39*	.50**	.60**	—

Note. $N = 34$. MTL = motivation to lead (a composite of the affective, non-calculative, and social normative dimensions).
Coefficient α, where applicable, is reported on the matrix diagonal.
* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis Involving Leader-Role Claiming. Determining the effect of leader-role claiming was the main thrust of Study 1. As shown in Figure 4.3, Hypothesis 4 predicted that leader-role claiming would be significantly related to leader identity identification. This hypothesis can be investigated in two ways. The first manner is a classic experimental approach, in which the effects of the role-claiming manipulation on leader identity at Times 1 and 2 are scrutinised directly. The manipulation was positively correlated with the leader identity measure at Time 1, as expected ($r = .19$, $p = .29$); however, the relationship was not statistically significant. Similarly, relationship of the manipulation with leader identity at Time 2 was positive but not statistically significant ($r = .17$, $p = .35$). However, low statistical power of the small sample size ($N = 34$) might have made it difficult to detect a real effect of the manipulation using this analytic approach.

The second strategy for investigating this hypothesis starts by acknowledging that the purpose of the manipulation was to induce leader-role claiming in the treatment group. Thus, its effect depends upon whether those participants did, indeed, engage in leader-role claiming, much as the treatment effects of a medication depend upon compliance in following a treatment protocol—that is, whether a participant actually takes the prescribed dosage of the medicine. Following this logic, another way to test Hypothesis 4 is to determine whether a participant's level of leader-role claiming predicts his or her leader identity at Times 1 and 2. The leader-role claiming measure at Time 1 was significantly correlated with leader identity at both Time 1 ($r = .37$, $p < .05$) and Time 2 ($r = .41$, $p < .05$). These results suggest that there was, indeed, a relationship between leader-role claiming and the participant's leader identity. These results suggest that the effect of the manipulation on leader identity depended upon whether the participant actually engaged in the leader-role claiming activity. These results thus imply an indirect effect of the manipulation, an idea this is considered shortly in more detail in the exploratory analysis section.

Leader Identity and MTL. Hypothesis 5 addressed the relation of leader identity to MTL. This hypothesis received strong support at Time 1, with leader identity being significantly correlated with the composite MTL ($r = .55$, $p < .01$). The same pattern occurred at Time 2 (see Table 4.4), with leader identity at Time 2 being significantly correlated with the composite MTL at Time 2 ($r = .60$, $p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported. In addition, exploratory follow up analysis showed that leader identity was significantly related to most of the components of MTL: $r = .66$, $p = .00$ for affective MTL at Time 1; $r = .54$, $p = .00$ for affective MTL at Time 2; $r = .45$, $p = .01$ for social-normative MTL at Time 1; and $r = .39$, $p = .02$ for social-normative MTL at Time 2.

The previously reported hypothesis tests were bivariate in nature, and did not consider the full set of implied relationships using a single analysis. The results reported in this section further investigate the pattern of relationships among the focal study variables. To address this issue, four exploratory tests were conducted, which examined (1) the mediation effects of leader-role claiming, (2) the effects of the aggregated non-leadership-role claiming measures, (3) the interaction effect of the manipulation and work-role identity salience, and (4) the possible causal chain mediation triggered by the identity work of role claiming.

Mediational Effects of Leader-Role Claiming. To explore the possibility of leader-role claiming as a mediator of the manipulation effect of Time 1, a mediation analysis was conducted following Preacher and Hayes' (2008) procedure. This approach allows for the analysis of both direct and indirect (mediated) effects and uses a bootstrapping procedure to set confidence intervals around the indirect effect (*ab*, in Preacher and Hayes' terms). The results strongly supported a mediational effect.

More specifically, using the Indirect macro in SPSS (downloaded from http://afhayes.com/spss-sas-and-mplus-macros-and-code.html), the unstandardized effect of

the experimental manipulation on the leader-role claiming measure (a) was $\beta = \mathbf{2.24}$ ($t = 4.08$, $p < \mathbf{.01}$); the direct effect of the mediator on the dependent variable (b) was $\beta = .14$ ($t = 1.96$, $p = .06$); and the direct effect of the manipulation on leader identity (c') was $\beta = -.07$ ($t = -.24$). The bootstrapping procedure yielded a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect: $ab = .32$, 95% confidence interval = [.08, .80]. Since this interval does not include zero, it was concluded that the indirect effects were statistically significant.

At Time 2, significant mediation effects also occurred. Again, following Preacher and Hayes' (2008) approach, the unstandardized effect of the experimental manipulation on the leader-role claiming measure (a) was $\beta = \mathbf{2.24}$ ($t = 4.08$, $p < \mathbf{.01}$); the direct effect of the mediator on the dependent variable (b) was $\beta = \mathbf{.11}$ ($t = 2.36$, $p = \mathbf{.02}$); and the direct effect of the manipulation on leader identity (c') was $\beta = -.10$ ($t = -.56$). The bootstrapping procedure yielded a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect: $ab = .25$, 95% confidence interval = [.10, .56].

Despite the significant leader-role claiming effects being tested, it also seemed as if the amount of attention directed to the non-leadership aspects of one's role could bring about a negative, but non-significant relationship with leader identity. This effect, then, would be responsible for the negative direct effect, c', of the manipulation on leader identity that was observed in both of the previous analyses.

Non-Leadership-Role Claiming. To investigate how non-leader-role identity work negatively affected leader identity development, multiple regression of a composite variable composed of the other three claiming aspects—including 'self-enhancement', 'customer benefit', and 'societal benefits' and their associations with leader identity—was performed using SPSS (see Table 4.5). The amount of variance explained by the non-leadership-focused claims composite was 13% (see ΔR^2 in Table 4.5 between Model 1 and Model 2) at Time 1.

The beta weight for the combined non-leadership-focused claims was ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .05$), indicating a significant negative association with leader identity.

Table 4.5 Regression of Leader Identity and Motivation to Lead at Time 1 and Time 2 on Leader-Role and Non-Leader-Role Claims of the DIDHK Sample

IV \ DV	Leader Identity T1		Leader Identity T2		MTL T1		MTL T2	
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Leader-role claims	**.13***	**2.28***	**.10***	**2.54***	.21	1.18	.05	.29
R^2	**.14***		**.17***		.04		.00	
Leader-role claims	**.29****	**3.36****	.12	1.96	.40	1.44	.15	.60
Non-leader-role claims	**−.11***	**−2.35***	−.02	−.47	−.13	− .90	−.07	−.54
R^2	**.27***		.17		.07		.01	

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

A Possible Causal Chain Effect of Identity Work. Subsequent to the hypothesis and exploratory testing, a possible causal chain effect was observed. Finding 1 showed that the manipulation affected the outcome of leader identity through the mediation of the leader-role claiming measure. Without the manipulation effects, the identity work process would not have been triggered, leading to the process of leader identification mediated by the leader-role claims. Finding 2 demonstrated that when the motivation to lead variable was regressed on leader identity, significant results were obtained at both Time 1 ($\beta = 1.14$, $t = 3.16$, $p = .00$) and Time 2 ($\beta = 1.73$, $t = 4.08$, $p = .00$). Therefore, with the backing of theories, a path-analytic approach to assessing mediation (Judd & Kenny, 1981) was adopted to form the possible causal chain effect of identity work in the exploratory model (see Figure 4.5).

Figure 4.5 A process model of identity work manipulation

102
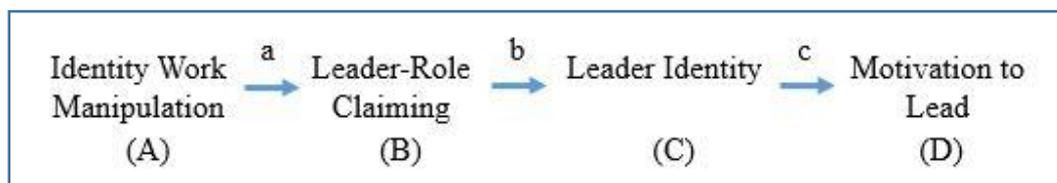
To explore this causal chain effect, the non-parametric bootstrapping procedure described by Preacher and Hayes (2008) was performed. Specifically, the causal chain effect measurement was divided into two parts. In Part 1, the indirect effect of identity work manipulation (A) on leader identity (C) through leader-role claiming (B) was measured as the product of the A → B ($\beta = $ **2.24**, $t = 4.08$, $p = $ **.00**) and B → C ($\beta = $ **.14**, $t = 1.96$, $p = $**.05**) paths, with $ab = .31$, 95% confidence interval = [.09, .77] at Time 1. In Part 2, the indirect effect of leader-role claiming (B) on motivation to lead (D) through leader identity (C) was measured as the product of the B → C ($\beta = $ **.13**, $t = 2.28$, $p = $ **.03**) and C → D ($\beta = $ **1.15**, $t = 2.91$, $p = $ **.01**) paths, with $bc = .15$, 95% confidence interval = [.02, .53] at Time 1. Since these intervals did not include zero, it was concluded that the indirect effects were statistically significant. The significant mediational effects from A → B → C → D showed that there was causal-chain intrapersonal process effect triggered by the identity work manipulation. The statistical results for Time 1 and Time 2 are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Causal Chain Effect of Identity Work (Time 1 and Time 2)

Paths	A → B	B → C	*ab* Product	95% Confidence Interval
Time 1 result	$\beta = $ **2.24** ($t = 4.08$, $p = $ **.00**)	$\beta = $ **.14** ($t = 1.96$, $p = $ **.05**)	.31	.09 (L), .77 (U)
Time 2 result	$\beta = $ **2.24** ($t = 4.08$, $p = $ **.00**)	$\beta = $ **.11** ($t = 2.36$, $p = $ **.02**)	.25	.10 (L), .56 (U)

Paths	B → C	C → D	bc Product	95% Confidence Interval
Time 1 result	$\beta = $ **.13** ($t = 2.28$, $p = $ .03)	$\beta = $ **1.15** ($t = 2.91$, $p = $ **.01**)	.15	.02 (L), .53 (U)
Time 2 result	$\beta = $ **.10** ($t = 2.54$, $p = $ **.01**)	$\beta = $ **1.91** ($t = 4.11$, $p = $ **.00**)	.19	.06 (L), .38 (U)

When the same two-part mediation analyses were conducted using Time 2 leader identity and motivation to lead measures, significant mediational results from A → B → C →

D also were obtained. Specifically, as shown in Table 4.6, the indirect effect of identity work

manipulation (A) on leader identity (C) through leader-role claiming (B) was measured as the

product of the A → B (β = **2.24**, t = 4.08, p = **.00**) and B → C (β = **.11**, t = 2.36, p = **.02**) paths,

with ab = .25, 95% confidence interval = [.10, .56]. The indirect effect of leader role claiming

(B) on motivation to lead (D) through leader identity (C) was measured as the product of the

B → C (β = **.10**, t = 2.54, p = **.01**) and C → D (β = **1.15**, t = 4.11, p = **.00**) paths, with bc = .19,

95% confidence interval = [.06, .38] at Time 2.

4.1.13 Discussion

Tests of Hypotheses. The findings from Study 1 showed that the role claiming

manipulation significantly affected identity work (H1), and that work-role identity salience

had significant relationships with leader identity (H2) and with MTL (H3). Leader-role

claiming as a form of identity work was significantly related to leader identity (H4). In

addition, leader identity was significantly related to MTL (H5).

Moreover, the claiming measures (leader-role claiming, contribution to customer

benefits, contribution to the community, self-enhancement, aggregated non-leader claims,

time of claims, and words of claims) derived from the qualitative data showed high strong

correlations (with most r values > .50). Since identity work focusing on leader-role claiming

was the main thrust of the study, the related measures derived from the content analysis

indicate that the analysis has significant validity.

Mediational Effects of Role Claiming. The significant mediational effects of leader-

role claiming suggested that it was the intrapersonal process of sensemaking that is associated

with leader identity construction. In this study, the participants' leader-role claims were found

to mediate the relationship between the manipulation and the leader identity internalisation.

Role claiming as a form of identity work has an apparent effect on leader identity

development because the narrating process activates the relevant information needed for the cognitive processes to converge in the brain. Thus, the leader identity internalisation involves psychologically complex development stages, which take time to mature. When the same mediational effects were tested at Time 2, significant mediational results were found, verifying that the participants experienced a sustained effect.

Non-Leadership-Role Claiming. Regression results showed that the aggregate non-leader-role claiming was significantly and negatively associated with leader identity. This analysis was conducted only at Time 1, because claiming narratives were used only at that time. The regression results revealed that the more participants claimed a non-leader role, the weaker their leader identity was. It is likely that non-leader-role claiming creates considerable noise undermining leader identity development. It dilutes the attention given to leader-role claiming, creating negative effects for leader identity. This implies that effective identity work intended to benefit leader identity needs to be domain specific, with a focus on recalling and narrating leadership episodes.

This result is interesting because it implies that the two mediators—the leader-role claims and the non-leader-role claims—created the leader-role claiming effect on leader identity development. These mediating effects of the claiming constructs suggest that verbal role claims could influence the strength of leader identity internalisation. If recalling leadership episodes derived from work-role identities can help activate one's leader identity, and if work-role identities are more salient, then discussing them openly could have a greater effect on identity development. The work-role identity salience of a role-occupant may reflect richer experience and higher identification or internalisation, which in turn may result in more narrative claims. Consequently, work-role identity salience can affect the strength of role claiming—specifically, leader-role claiming, which has an impact on leader identity.

4.1.14 Implications

The importance of positive identity construction in a work setting advanced through the narrative process of identity work has been widely discussed (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Dutton et al., 2010; Ibarra, 1999; Reynolds, 2003), predominantly from an interpretivist orientation. Nevertheless, experimental efforts geared towards addressing the question of *how* the process takes place are almost non-existent in the literature. Thus, a major contribution of Study 1, shown by the causal-chain mediation analysis, is to trace the processes by which identity and identity-related motivation development occurs. Results of this experimental study supported most of the proposed hypotheses, and the implications are discussed here to elucidate how the dynamic process of role claiming could influence leader identification. The repeated measures aspect of the study allowed for observation to see whether the outcomes could be sustained over time. More importantly, the results of Study 1 supported a causal inference of the powerful psychological process prompted by identity work—an inference that has not been examined in any other experimental studies to date.

According to Roberts and Creary (2012, p. 80), the research gap of "identity work's emphasis on claiming–granting processes and self-verification offers little explanation of how individuals construct socially validated positive, complex identities". The results of Study 1 offer evidence pertaining to three important impacts of identity work. First, participants in this study were able to advance a favourable and positive identity, including leader identity, as a result of their work-role–related narratives. Self-narratives, if given social validation, reconstruct a social reality in which individuals are engaged on a daily basis and can lead to motivational consequences. When the work-role identity involves any leading tasks or

responsibility, this experimental study suggests that successful construction of a complex and positive identity—the leader identity—is achievable and sustainable.

Second, the results of Study 1 imply that the same self-narratives of these stigmatised employees became the information for bottom-up processing that reshaped the self-schema. If this information is coherent and consistent with one's self-motives, it can, on the one hand, affect one's motivation and, on the other hand, start to reshape one's self-concept. The Time 2 results in the causal-chain mediation analyses showed that the effects of identity work could be sustained even six weeks later. *The intrapersonal psychological process of identity work is a dynamic and powerful self-construal and self-influence process that is strongly rooted in narrative sensemaking connected to a salient role and, in this study, to work-role identity.* It appears that the positive identity of the participants who are employed in social enterprises becomes a resource for them in reversing their adoption of a 'stigmatised self' and, through their work-role identity, unleashing a new possible thriving self.

The importance of positive identity development for stigmatised individuals has been discussed over the last 20 years (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Kreiner, Ashforth, & Sluss, 2006) by identity theorists. Issues of dis-identification and ambivalent identification are identity threats for employees in 'dirty' work roles, such as janitors or other low-status jobs, and those who are socially stigmatised. As social awareness of social issues of inequality, injustice, and marginalisation has been raised in recent years, creation of a positive work environment that can offer esteem-enhancing meaning for positive identity development has emerged as an important organisational research area. Moreover, positive identity development for marginalised populations has practical implications for the self-development of marginalised individuals, especially in rekindling their career aspirations. In fact, nearly 10 of the DIDHK

trainers (i.e., 25% of the Study 1 sample) have already committed to further education and founding business start-ups.

Third, the followers' positive identity development, evidenced through identity work within the social enterprise context in Study 1, has profound implications. Shamir and Eilam (2005) claimed that followers authenticate their leaders through their shared values and convictions. In WISEs, the employees' re-integration into the society is the prioritised organisational mission, rather than profit-making. Other higher-order social goals, such as social inclusion or environmental protection, may co-exist with this mission. Their practice of servant leadership may enable followers to derive much purpose from their work-role identity. Nevertheless, the intensity of meaning is likely to vary because sensemaking may not be internalised equally for all employees until that meaning is unlocked. One means of doing so is identity work, as shown by the indirect effect of the role-claiming manipulation conducted in this study.

The unique hybrid approach employed in Study 1, using both qualitative and quantitative analyses, provides a new way to measure identity work. In this study, the qualitative data generated by the self-relevant narratives allowed for the operationalisation of the analysis of this construct through the frequency count of the leader role theme-related qualitative data. As a result, the leader-role claiming became a continuous variable that could be analysed with other constructs using a quantitative approach. This significant operationalisation of a field experiment provides a breakthrough in measurement for an area of self theory. Likewise, this measurement can be applied in leadership and followership studies.

4.1.15 Limitations

Study 1 has two main limitations. The first limitation is the small sample size ($N = 34$), which constrained the statistical power in the statistical analyses. This study, however, included the entire population of this specific group of WISE trainers. Despite the small sample size, the magnitude of the relationships (i.e., the effect sizes) between the variables in the four hypotheses was sufficient to result in significant associations. The analyses in this study offered a strong impetus for further research on claiming manipulation effects on leader identity and motivation to lead. The current study's limited statistical power constrained further analysis on how work-role identity salience might moderate the mediation effect of the leader-role claiming on the relationships between manipulation and leader identity.

Second, the leader-role claiming measures were produced by subjects and could reflect pre-existing individual differences, so they need to be replicated, ideally in a way that extends this logic. This limitation provides a strong motivation for subsequent studies to be conducted with replication of the role-claiming manipulation employed in Study 1. Replication is important for theory development, and in this case, the identity work theory deserves verification and generalisation for theory extension.

4.1.16 Conclusion

Identity work theory is regarded as an important narrative process for constructing a new identity and for advancing a provisional self. This study has offered statistical evidence regarding how claiming a leader role can be associated with leader identity development. More importantly, leader identity can be related to motivation to lead. Both of these identity and motivational phenomena are important leadership and organisational research areas that deserve attention for theory development. The results of Study 1 provide evidence that should

inspire further research to replicate and validate its findings in this area of identity work theory development.

4.2 Study 2

4.2.1 Introduction

Study 2 is a conceptual replication of the effects of narrative identity work shown in Study 1. In replicating Study 1, the goal was to advance theories that suggest identity work narratives have effects on identity construction. Leader-role claiming was a construct developed in Study 1; its mediating effect between role claiming and leader identity, though observed in Study 1, required further confirmation via a conceptual replication study.

Study 2 was a second field experiment with participants who were employees in another work integration social enterprise (WISE). In this study, the participants, who worked in groups, were given a differently phrased positive instruction asking them to recall and describe 'trend-setting' actions in their claiming narratives that were associated with leader identity development. To re-affirm the psychological principles of the narrative identity work, it was hoped that the tests conducted in Study 2 would achieve reproducibility and generalisability within a different population, thereby making an important step towards theory development.

4.2.2 Theory Development and Replication

Discussions of identity work and leader identity (DeRue et al., 2009; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Ibarra, Snook, & GuillenRasmo, 2010; Ibarra et al., 2014) have established the clear importance of social constructionism in leadership development. However, because social constructionist empirical research on identity work has been tied to qualitative studies, it has constrained the causal inferences that could be established with leader identification.

Study 1 took an innovative step by examining the effects of identity work through combining quantitative and qualitative approaches. Study 2 served as a conceptual replication of Study 1.

Replication research has been considered a 'must' for theory development (Tsang & Kwan, 1999) and the scientific advance of psychological knowledge (Amir & Sharon, 1990). Replication studies serve a number of purposes in theory development, including establishing reliability and validity and clarifying variables and hypotheses through tests of reproducibility. Therefore, for the purposes of theory advancement, Study 2 adopted a conceptually equivalent manipulation that was appropriate for the organisational context, and the identity development process was replicated with a different population to determine whether the results of the Study 1 could be generalised to another population. Thus, Study 2 was guided by the same model for testing as used in Study 1 (see Figure 4.3).

4.2.3 Research Setting and the Repeated Hypotheses

This study served as a replication of the role-claiming effects on identity development in a different context. The WISE in this study was called Green Ladies (GL). In GL, the business model is a retail shop environment, and the employees' generic role is that of a retail associate. All of the employees were female. Gender is important in domain-specific self-construal, which in turn affects the processing of information relevant to the domain. Notably, interdependent self-construal and an emphasis on relationships are typical characteristics found in females (Cross & Madson, 1997). GL provided an interesting research ground for testing the posited theory in this conceptual replication study.

GL is a WISE that demonstrates a clear social mission and strong advocacy related to environmental protection and adoption of a green lifestyle by recycling second-hand clothes. GL is subunit of a well-established non-profit organisation in Hong Kong, St. James Settlement. Its middle-aged female employees are the target beneficiaries, owing to the age

discrimination that is all too prevalent in Hong Kong's retail sector. These female employees have embraced GL's green mission and its advocacy role in providing equal work opportunities for middle-aged females. Moreover, because the second-hand shopping market in Hong Kong still faces considerable resistance amongst general customers, GL aims to set a trend. Given this orientation, the term 'pioneer' was adopted in the manipulation dialogue in the experiment process to evoke the trend-setting movement that GL's employees were driving. The participants in this sample did not engage in the typical leadership role, but rather functioned as equal members of retail teams. Thus, when the treatment group participants were asked to describe and claim their 'pioneering' role, personal construal and interpretation of that 'pioneering' aspect were left to their own discretion. Of course, this means that while the narrative effect on identity development could be replicated, the manipulated construct was broader than leadership, and also had potential implications for leadership development.

It is argued that the term 'pioneering' fits the three assumptions mentioned in Chapter 2 to create the situated and conscious construal of a positive identity, especially when these retail associates promote the environmentally friendly concept to their customers. GL aims to change the negative perception of the general public towards using second-hand clothes—an important consideration given that all of the enterprise's products fit this description. This committed effort towards changing perceptions demonstrates leading through changing a trend. As the participants in Study 2 were prompted by references to this 'pioneer' role, the manipulation effect matched that from Study 1, which relied on the 'leader-role' manipulation. Consequently, the hypotheses used in Study 1 applied to Study 2 as well (see Figure 4.3).

4.2.4 Methods

Participants. Study participants consisted of $N = 26$ retail associates working for the Hong Kong–based Green Ladies social enterprise. Within the GL sample of 26 employees, all participants were female. The average age was 40 years, and the average tenure was 2.5 years.

Procedures. Participants were assigned either to a treatment group, which received a *'pioneer'-role claiming intervention*, or to a control group, which received a *work-role identity claiming intervention*. (Due to the small sample size, a systematic procedure was adopted to assign subjects to conditions by alternating between the treatment and control conditions, ensuring an equal number of subjects in each group). The experimenter, during each meeting with each participant, read aloud the instructions and items to the retail associates for the survey completion. The experimenter then provided the appropriate promptings to facilitate participants in providing self-narratives of their work experience and episodes in the work setting. Data were collected from all participants at two different points in time to gauge whether the effects of the pioneer-role claiming manipulation could have a sustained effect on identity development. The time interval between the Time 1 and Time 2 questionnaire-based data collection waves was 6 to 8 weeks. The manipulation was delivered only at Time 1. The Time 1 and Time 2 procedures are shown in Figures 4.6a and 4.6b, and

Figure 4.6a Study 2: Data collection procedure at Time 1
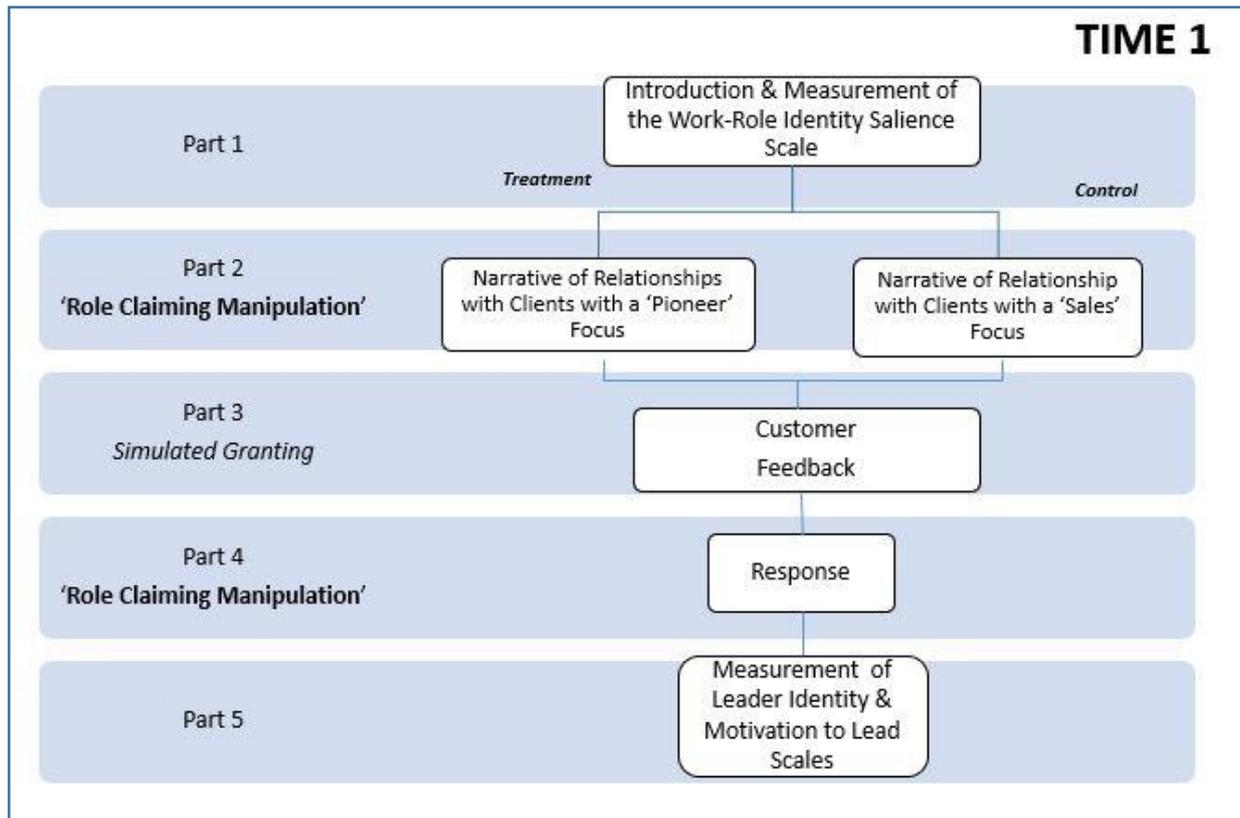
Figure 4.6b Study 2: Data collection procedure at Time 2
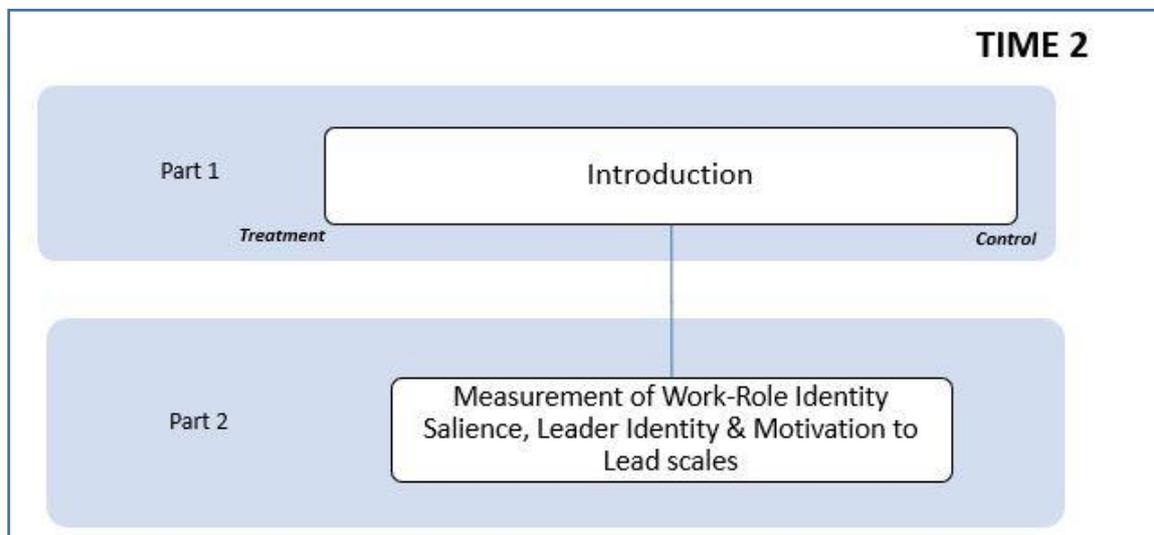
Role-Claiming Manipulation (Time 1). The manipulation was conducted within the WISE's real work context, one participant at a time. For both the treatment and the control groups, at the beginning of the first data collection session, the experimenter explained the

aim of the study verbally and then read aloud each work-role identity salience survey item, allowing the participant to respond verbally (see Part 1 of Figure 4.6a). The participant was then invited to share her work-role identity experience in a narrative feedback, elicited with a semi-structured interview protocol that focused on issues related to the 'pioneering' role for the treatment group and the 'sales' role (a typical work-role identity) for the control group (see Part 2 of Figure 4.6a). The purpose of this claiming manipulation was to encourage participants to engage in one of two types of identity work (i.e., pioneer identity versus employee identity) based on a claiming process, and thus its effects on other variables in the model depended upon the extent to which the participants were willing and able to make appropriate claims. The time allocated to the self-narrative and claiming process was not limited, although participants were told the overall experiment would last approximately 30 to 40 minutes. Following this role-claiming process, indirect customer feedback (i.e., granting feedback) was presented by the researcher (see Part 3 of Figure 4.6a). Participants were then invited to give responses (see Part 4 of Figure 4.6a) to this feedback.

Treatment Group. The treatment group received an intervention designed to increase the focus on their pioneering role and experience. To elicit appropriate narratives, the questions for the treatment group participants included the following items: *How would you describe your pioneering role in conducting sales at your (location) shop? Do you think your pioneering role is important for customers to understand the environmental concept? How would you describe the interaction and communication with your customers? Could you share one or two pioneering episodes with me in which you promoted environmental shopping?* It was expected that this manipulation was as close as one could get to a leadership manipulation in this setting and still be consistent with the unique aspect of participants' roles.

Control Group. Similar questions were asked of the control groups but with a different role focus. The 'pioneering' wording was replaced with 'sales'. Thus, control group questions included the following items: *How would you describe your sales role in conducting sales at your (location) shop? Do you think your sales role is important for customers to understand the environmental concept? How would you describe the interaction and communication with your customers? Could you share one or two episodes with me in which you promoted environmental shopping?*

Operationalisation of Granting Feedback (Time 1). The granting processes were identical for both the treatment and control conditions. Granting was operationalised by giving participants in Study 2 feedback from customers at three levels: (1) ratings for the specific shops; and (2) overall customer satisfaction with the organisation. The ratings given to each individual salesperson and retail shop by the clients were the standard customer evaluation data collected after those customers had participated in an executive workshop. The experimenter obtained the recent ratings from GL, which were then shared with the treatment and control group participants. The overall customer satisfaction ratings for the GL organisation as a whole were collected in a separate study 10 months before this experiment took place.   GL participants in this study got feedback at only two levels. First, ratings for the three separate shops operated by GL were collected by the researcher from a range of 7 to 9 customers per shop.

The experimenter also asked a few more questions to facilitate further identity work by the participants. These included: *What do you think about the customer comments? Are they important for you to perform your work role? Do you think that you have experienced any personal development after working in this WISE? Can you describe which areas of development?*

The resulting narratives were recorded, transcribed, translated from Chinese to English, and analysed to provide manipulation checks as well as more substantive measures of role-claiming and other claiming variables.

4.2.5   Measures and Variables (Times 1 and 2)

All of the measurement instruments were translated from English to Chinese, and then back-translated, before they were used in the experiment. A Ph.D. student at Hong Kong Baptist University Business School performed the translation from English to Chinese. An undergraduate psychology student at Sheffield University (United Kingdom) then did the back-translation. I subsequently checked that the Chinese translation matched the English scales as accurately as possible.

4.2.5.1 Independent Variables

Work-Role Identity Salience. As in Study 1, to measure work-role identity salience, Callero's (1985) five-item scale, originally developed to measure *blood donor role–person merger*, was adapted for use in Study 2. The items for this measure are described in the discussion of Study 1 (see page 88 of this document). These items were administered two times. At Time 1, this scale was administered at the beginning of the data collection process before the manipulation of claiming was conducted. At Time 2, this scale was once again used at the beginning of the data collection. Internal consistencies for both measurement occasions were lower than is optimal: $\alpha = .52$ and $\alpha = .57$. Similar to the procedure used in Study 1, the items were read aloud to participants. Therefore, similar impacts from this practice could have occurred in Study 2.

Claiming Measures. The claiming measures consisted of frequency counts of the number of times that participants explicitly claimed various roles or outcomes in their

narrative interviews. The same five steps as were used in Study 1 (see page 91) were applied in Study 2 to come up with the claiming measures. The claiming of a 'pioneering' role conceptually replicates the 'leader-role claiming' construct and was used as mediator to examine the relationship between the manipulation and the leader identity.

4.2.5.2 Dependent Variables

The same dependent variables used in Study 1—leader identity and motivation to lead (MTL)—were tested in Study 2. Items for these two variables can be found on page 92. The coefficients of leader identity were $\alpha = .81$ at Time 1 and $\alpha = .80$ at Time 2. For the MTL coefficient, the values were $\alpha = .85$, .79, and .60 at Time 1, and $\alpha = .95$, .62, and .60 at Time 2. Similarly, a multi-dimensional MTL composite was formed by calculating participant z-scores for each dimension and combining them to create a standardised MTL composite score.

4.2.6 Results

Content Analysis to Create Claiming Measures. As noted in the Methods section, participant self-narratives were transcribed and translated to create measures of role claiming. Typical phrases related to work-related claims were identified, and the data were categorised into four claiming themes. Sample phrases for these categories appear in Table 4.7. For each participant, the value of a particular claiming measure consisted of a count of the number of times the person made a statement that was deemed to belong in the specific claiming category.

Table 4.7 GL Sample: Coding Examples and Frequency Counts by Group for Claiming Categories

First-Order Codes	Theoretical Categories	Aggregate Claiming Categories	Frequency Treatment	Control
• 'We would spread the concept of recycling and the importance of environmental protection'. • 'I will influence our customers to understand that they need to be conscious of not over-purchasing'. • 'I have a sense of pride and satisfaction when customers appreciate my advice'. • 'We definitely set a trend in environmental protection'. • 'We have solid team spirit and lead together in passing the green messages because we insist the customers try on [clothes] before purchase'. • 'Our shops lead in the retail sector because we do not provide any plastic bags'. • 'I encourage them not to buy so many items and they are pleased that we can be their guardian angels'.	Experiences that influenced others	► Leader-role claiming	27	4
• 'We create a very friendly environment for customers to shop very relaxingly here'. • 'We have a group of customers who come to visit us almost on a daily basis. We would chat about anything'. • 'Some of the customers would tell me very personal matters including family issues. They trust us very much'. • 'Our customers like us because we promote the green message'. • 'We have good community relations'. • 'Our mission is to encourage customers to be ethical consumers and people to be consignors when their wardrobe is too full'. • 'Sometimes, the consignors can give us harsh words when we do not accept their clothes. This is a tricky area'.	Experiences related to customers	► Claiming of customer benefits	31	11
• 'I like to be an environmental ambassador because the trend of buying second-hand clothes is still picking up. So we need to help spread the concept of recycling'. • 'Some customers are almost addicted in buying. However, we would remind them of what they have purchased to save their spending'. • 'Our social mission also helps customers appreciate the trend of social enterprises having social missions. But it still takes a long time to make people understand what we do'. • 'We get a lot of support and donations from corporations that support corporate social responsibility'. • 'We are triggering people's awareness of sharing and sustainability'.	Perceived influence on the community at large	► Claiming of contribution to society	22	5
• 'We can learn a lot of things including customer service, using computers, and environmental protection'. • 'I am more in touch with the society'. • 'I have better relations with my children because I can share my work experiences with them'. • 'My horizon has widened a lot'. • 'I have never helped organise a fashion show and drunk champagne. However, my experience at GL gives me a lot of satisfaction'. • 'I find that my listening skills has improved because there are some customers who would share a lot'. • 'I have learnt a lot about the apparel industry because I learnt about how to use diplomacy from training. I also know more about the latest brands'. • 'I never knew that a job could make me feel so contented and that we can still have personal growth after the age of 50'.	Personal change and growth	► Claiming self-enhancement	31	8

The mean and standard deviation statistics for the claiming measures are presented in Table 4.8a. As seen, all four of the claiming category measures had significantly different means in the treatment group versus the control group. Consistent with the goal of the manipulation, the largest of these differences was for the leader-role claiming measure, for which the treatment group had a significantly higher mean ($M = 2.08$, $SD = 1.12$) than did the control group ($M = .31$, $SD = .63$), $t = 4.98$, $p < .01$. Another area of high claims in the treatment group related to self-enhancement. This factor may help explain why the treatment group had longer narratives. Also, as is clear from the frequencies reported in Table 4.8a, more than 50% of participants in the control condition made no leader role claims (*range* = 0–2), while most in the treatment group did (*range* = 0–5). Given Study 2's focus on the 'pioneer' role, and the intention that the manipulation influence the extent to which participants engaged in making leader-role claims, these results are encouraging. The remaining three claiming measures—'contribution to customers', 'contribution to society', and 'self-enhancement'—were combined, using their aggregated scores, into a non-leader-role claiming variable in exploratory testing.

Table 4.8a GL Sample: Descriptive Statistics for the Claiming Measures

Claiming Measures	Full Sample		Treatment		Control		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Claiming Frequency							
1. Leader role	1.19	1.27	2.08	1.12	.31	.63	4.98**
2. Contribution to customers	1.62	1.50	2.39	1.56	.85	.99	3.01**
3. Contribution to society	1.04	1.22	1.69	1.25	.38	.77	3.21**
4. Self-enhancement	1.50	1.70	2.38	1.04	.62	.87	4.70**
5. Combined non-leader	4.15	3.31	6.46	2.70	1.85	1.99	4.96**
Process Measures							
6. Claiming time (mins)	13.92	4.80	16.85	4.98	11.00	2.16	3.88**

| 7. Words in narrative | 460 | 166 | 567 | 144 | 354 | 108 | 4.26** |

Table 4.8b GL Sample: Intercorrelations of the Claiming Measures

Claiming Measures	Correlations						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Claiming Frequency							
1. Leader role	—						
2. Contribution to customers	.44*	—					
3. Contribution to society	.72**	.54**	—				
4. Self-enhancement	.72**	.47*	.54*	—			
5. Combined non-leader	.75**	.84**	.82**	.81**	—		
Process Measures							
6. Claiming time (mins)	.34	.60**	.29	.59**	.61**	—	
7. Words in narrative	.63**	.52**	.48**	.80**	.73**	.72**	—

Another issue to note is that, on average, the participants in the treatment group (*M* = 16.85 minutes, *SD* = 4.98) spent considerably longer in the narrative interview than did participants in the control group (*M* = 11 minutes, *SD* = 2.16), *t* = 3.88, *p* < .01.

Table 4.8b shows the intercorrelations of the claiming frequency measures and the claiming process measures. In general, all of these measures were positively related, with the values of the correlations ranging from .29 to .84.

Group Assignment and Manipulation. Table 4.9 compares the treatment and control groups on a variety of descriptive variables. As one would expect, there were no significant differences in age, tenure, education, or work hours.

Table 4.9 GL Sample: Descriptive Statistics for Participants

Variable	Full Sample		Treatment		Control		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*
Age[1]	4.19	1.02	4.00	1.08	4.38	.96	.96
Tenure[2]	2.19	.98	2.08	1.19	2.31	.75	.59
Education[3]	1.15	.46	1.15	.55	1.15	.38	.00
Work hours per week[4]	3.04	.72	3.08	.86	3.00	.58	2.67*

Note. $N = 26$. * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.
[1] 1 = 18–25; 2 = 26–35; 3 = 36–45; 4 = 46–55; 5 = more than 55.
[2] Range: maximum 7 years; minimum 1 year.
[3] 1 = secondary school or less; 2 = college or diploma; 3 = degree; 4 = master's degree or higher.
[4] 1 = less than 10 hours per week; 2 = less than 20 hours per week; 3 = less than 40 hours per week; 4 = 40 hours or more per week.

Most importantly, the effectiveness and meaning of the manipulation were examined by looking at its effect on the leader-role claiming measure. As previously noted, the treatment and control groups significantly differed in leader-role claiming, supporting the intended effect of the manipulation to produce greater leader-role claiming in the treatment group. The proportion of leader-role claiming statements out of the total role-claiming statements for the treatment condition was .24; by comparison, that proportion was .13 for the control condition. In contrast to Study 1, which focused more specifically on leadership, in Study 2 leader-role claiming was only the third most frequent statement type, with statements related to self-enhancement and customer benefit being more numerous.

4.2.6.1 Descriptive Data

Correlations relevant to the hypothesis tests, for Time 1 and Time 2, are summarised in Table 4.10. Intercorrelations among the major constructs at Time 1—the manipulation (*M* = .50, *SD* = .51), leader-role claiming (*M* = 1.19, *SD* = 1.27), work-role identity salience (*M* = 4.00, *SD* = .45), leader identity (*M* = 3.45, *SD* = .58), and MTL composite (*M* = .00, *SD* = 1.97)—ranged from .15 to .81. The Time 2 intercorrelations among the work-role identity

Table 4.10 GL Sample: Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations for Focal Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Role-claiming manipulation	.50	.51	—								
Time 1 Measures											
2. Leader-role claiming[a]	1.19	1.27	.71**	—							
3. Claiming customer benefits[a]	1.62	1.50	.52**	.44*	—						
4. Work-role identity salience	4.00	.45	.07	.30	.49*	—					
5. Leader identity	3.45	.58	.29	.41*	.56**	.55**	—				
6. MTL[b] composite	.00	2.22	.28	.42*	.59**	.67**	.69**	—			
Time 2 Measures											
7. Work-role identity salience	3.80	.35	.00	−.07	.29	.40*	.44*	.35	—		
8. Leader identity	3.90	.37	−.03	−.01	.31	.49**	.70**	.45*	.52**	—	
9. MTL[b] composite	.00	2.29	.00	.15	.18	.25	.42*	.54**	.27	.37	—

Note. $N = 26$ separated into control ($n = 13$) and treatment ($n = 13$) groups.
* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.
Coefficient α, where applicable, is on the diagonal.
[a] The claiming measure variable is derived from counts of participants explicitly claiming a leadership role in their claiming narratives.
[b] MTL: motivation to lead; a composite variable that includes affective, non-calculative, and social normative dimensions of motivation to lead.

salience ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .35$), leader identity ($M = 3.90$, $SD = .37$), and MTL composite ($M = .00$, $SD = 2.29$) constructs ranged from -.07 to .71.

4.2.6.2 Tests of Hypotheses

The effects of the manipulation were significant, but it had greater effects on claims of benefits to customers than on leader role-claiming.

Effects of the Manipulation on Leader-Role Claiming. Hypothesis 1 was supported, as the manipulation was positively and significantly correlated with leader-role claiming ($r = .71$, $p < .01$). Moreover, another way of examining Hypothesis 1 is to analyse the proportion of leader-role claiming statements out of the total role-claiming statements between the treatment and control conditions. This proportion was .24 in the treatment condition and .13 in the control condition. Therefore, the results supported the contention that the narrative manipulation of leader role was positively related to the amount of leader-role claiming. Those in the treatment condition who received narrative manipulation of the leader role made more leader-role claims than those in the control condition.

Effects of Work-Role Identity Salience. Two hypotheses dealt with the effects of work-role identity salience—namely, that work-role identity salience would predict leader identity internalisation (H2) and MTL (H3). As shown in Table 4.10, work-role identity salience was significantly correlated with leader identity at Time 1 ($r = .55$, $p < .01$) and at Time 2 ($r = .49$, $p < .05$), rendering Hypothesis 2 significant in Study 2.

Hypothesis 3 proposed a relationship between work-role identity salience and MTL. Work-role identity salience was significantly correlated with the MTL composite at Time 1 ($r = .67$, $p < .01$) but was not significant at Time 2 ($r = .27$, $p = $ n.s.). These findings supported Hypothesis 3. Work-role identity salience was significantly related to some of the components

of MTL: $r = $ **.65**, $p < $ **.01** for affective MTL at Time 1; $r = .29$, $p = $ n.s. for affective MTL at Time 2; $r = .34$, $p = $ n.s. for non-calculative MTL at Time 1; $r = .03$, $p = $ n.s. for non-calculative MTL at Time 2; $r = $ **.51**, $p < $ **.05** for social-normative MTL at Time 1; and $r = .24$, $p = $ n.s. for social-normative MTL at Time 2. However, for the sake of parsimony, these composites were aggregated and the composite MTL in Time 1 and Time 2 adopted.

Hypothesis Involving Leader-Role Claiming. Determining the effect of leader-role claiming was the main thrust of this study. As shown in Figure 4.3, Hypothesis 4 proposed that leader-role claiming is significantly related to leader identity identification. Similar to Study 1, this hypothesis was investigated in two different ways. First, a classic experimental approach was used, in which the effects of the role-claiming manipulation on leader identity at Times 1 and 2 were examined directly. The manipulation was positively correlated with the leader identity measure at Time 1 as expected ($r = .29$, $p = .15$), but the relation was not statistically significant. The relationship of the manipulation with leader identity at Time 2 was not positive and not statistically significant ($r = -.03$, $p = .88$). The low statistical power of the small sample size ($N = 26$) might have made a real effect difficult to detect. In Study 2, there seemed to be a different effect at Time 1 and Time 2 compared to Study 1. For Study 1, the leader identity predicted by leader-role claiming had a sustained effect in Time 2, six weeks after Time 1. However, this did not happen in Study 2. Perhaps the more general manipulation (i.e., a 'pioneering' role instead of a 'leader' role) did not really result in a lasting change in the participants' leader identity. As an alternative explanation, when the subjects returned to work, their group processes may have exerted a strong influence on them, thereby reducing their personal identification with the leader role.

The second manner of investigating Hypothesis 4 determined whether a participant's level of leader-role claiming predicted his or her leader identity at Times 1 and 2. In Study 2, the

leader-role claiming measure at Time 1 was significantly correlated with leader identity at Time 1 ($r = $ **.41**, $p < $ **.05**), but not at Time 2 ($r = -.02$, $p = $ n.s.). These results suggest that there was a relationship between leader-role claiming and the participant's leader identity at Time 1, but that effect did not sustain six weeks later. Thus, at Time 1, the manipulation was indirectly related to leader identity, through the pioneering-role claiming activity.

Leader Identity and MTL. Hypothesis 5 addressed the relationship between leader identity and MTL. This hypothesis received strong support at Time 1, with leader identity being significantly correlated with the composite MTL ($r = $ **.69**, $p < $ **.01**). Leader identity was positively correlated with the MTL composite at Time 2 (see Table 4.10), but was not significant ($r = .37$, $p = $ n.s.). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported only at Time 1. Perhaps leadership was not such a central tenet in the work-role environment for these subjects, such that the manipulation did not advance their personal identification as a leader in a distinct manner. This observation was evident when coding the narratives of the subjects in Study 2. The referent 'we' (see Table 4.7) was used more frequently in the Study 2 narratives than in the narratives in Study 1.

Follow up analyses showed that leader identity was significantly related to most of the components of MTL: $r = $ **.69**, $p < $ **.01** for affective MTL at Time 1; $r = $ **.40**, $p < $ **.05** for affective MTL at Time 2; $r = $ **.70**, $p = $**.01** for social-normative MTL at Time 1; and $r = $**.44**, $p < $ **.05** for social-normative MTL at Time 2.

4.2.6.3 Exploratory Tests

The results reported in this section further investigate the pattern of relationships among the focal study variables. To address this pattern, three exploratory tests were conducted, which examined (1) the mediation effects of leader-role claiming, (2) the mediation effects of the

aggregated non-leadership-role claiming measures, and (3) the interaction effect of the manipulation and work-role identity salience.

Mediational Effects of Leader-Role Claiming. Preacher and Hayes' (2008) procedure was followed to explore the possibility of leader-role claiming as a mediator of the manipulation effect of Time 1. The results did not support a mediational effect of the leader-role claiming. More specifically, using the Indirect macro in SPSS, the unstandardized effect of the experimental manipulation on the leader-role claiming measure (*a*) was $\boldsymbol{\beta = 1.77}$ ($\boldsymbol{t = 4.98}$, $\boldsymbol{p = .00}$); the direct effect of the mediator on the dependent variable (*b*) was $\beta = .19$ ($t = 1.51$, $p = .15$); and the direct effect of the manipulation on leader identity (*c′*) was $\beta = .00$ ($t = .00$, $p = .99$). The bootstrapping procedure yielded a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect: $ab = .33$, 95% confidence interval = [–.43, .99]. Since this interval includes zero, it was concluded that the indirect effects were statistically insignificant. At Time 2, the mediation effects did not occur.

Despite the non-significant leader-role claiming effects being tested, one of the non-leader-role claims—namely, customer benefits correlated significantly with leader identity and MTL (see Table 4.10). The customer benefit claiming was significantly correlated with leader identity ($r = \boldsymbol{.56}$, $p < \boldsymbol{.01}$) and MTL ($r = \boldsymbol{.59}$, $p < \boldsymbol{.01}$) at Time 1. The customer benefit was still correlated with leader identity ($r = .31$, $p = $ n.s.) and MTL ($r = .18$, $p = $ n.s.), but not significantly, at Time 2.

Non-Leadership-Role Claiming. To study how a non-leader-role focus in identity work positively affected leader identity development, multiple regression of other claiming aspects—'self-enhancement', 'customer benefit', and 'societal benefits'—and their associations with leader identity was examined using SPSS (see Table 4.11). The amount of variance explained by the non-leadership-focus claims was 28% (see ΔR^2 in Table 4.11 between Models 1 and 2) at

127

Time 1. At Time 2, their accumulated beta weights ($\beta = .09$, $p < .01$) were still significantly

associated with leader identity positively, while the leader-role claims were significantly

negatively correlated with leader identity ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .05$). The amount of variance explained

by the non-leadership-focus claims was 28% (see ΔR^2 in Table 4.11 between Model 1 and

Model 2) at Time 2. Their accumulated beta weights ($\beta = .09$, $p < .01$) were significantly

positively associated with leader identity. Two factors might explain why the manipulation in

Study 2 accounted for a significant amount of non-leader-role claiming. First, the manipulation

of narratives regarding the 'pioneering role' in Study 2 was more general than that for the

Table 4.11 Regression of Leader Identity and Motivation to Lead at Time 1 and Time 2 on Leader-Role and Non-Leader-Role Claims of the GL Sample

IV / DV	Leader Identity T1		Leader Identity T2		MTL T1		MTL T2	
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
Leader-role claims	**.19***	**2.20***	.00	−.07	**.74***	**2.27***	.26	.72
R^2	**.17***		.00		**.18***		.02	
Leader-role claims	−.09	−.83	**−.18***	**−2.28***	.02	−.05	−.33	−.61
Non-leader-role claims	**.14****	**3.46****	**.09****	**2.98****	**.39***	**2.24***	.30	1.47
R^2	**.45***		**.28***		**.32***		.11	

$* p < .05$, two-tailed. $** p < .01$, two-tailed.

'leader role' in Study 1. Second, the work context in Study 2 was a retail service climate, which

meant that the team efforts were directed towards serving customers and ensuring their

satisfaction. Therefore, the claiming of an individual sense of leader distinctiveness for Study 2

subjects was less apparent and salient.

Mediational Effects of Non-Leadership-Role Claiming. To explore the possibility of non-

leader-role claiming as a mediator of the manipulation effect at Time 1, a similar mediation

analysis as Study 1 was conducted by following Preacher and Hayes' (2008) indirect procedure.

The unstandardized effect of the experimental manipulation in Study 2 on the non-leader-role

claiming measure (*a*) was $\boldsymbol{\beta = 4.62}$ ($\boldsymbol{t = 4.96}$, $\boldsymbol{p = .00}$); the direct effect of the mediator on the

dependent variable (*b*) was $\pmb{\beta = .16}$ (*t* = **4.38**, *p* = **.00**); and the direct effect of the manipulation on leader identity (*c'*) was $\beta = .33$ (*t* = 1.49, *p* = .15). The bootstrapping procedure yielded a bias-corrected 95% confidence interval for the indirect effect: *ab* = .74, 95% confidence interval = [.29, 1.33]. Since this interval did not include zero, it was concluded that the indirect effects were statistically significant. These significant indirect effects support the hypothesis that the psychological impact of claiming narratives in identity work can influence an individual's situated leader identity construction. Although some claims were not directly related to leader behaviours, they could be interpreted and attributed by the subjects when constructing a situated leader identity. However, the sustained relationship between leader identity and MTL at Time 2 was not found in Study 2, unlike in Study 1, showing the potent effect that leader-role claims could have on leader identity maintenance.

4.2.7 Discussion

Study 2 sought to replicate the effects of role claiming and work-role salience on leader identity internalisation and motivation to lead. The results of this second experiment supported most of the proposed hypotheses, and the implications are discussed here to elucidate how the dynamic process of role claiming affected leader identification. This conceptual replication study was conducted mainly to examine whether and to what extent the results of the prior study of role-claiming manipulation would be generalisable to another population and with a slightly different manipulation of role claiming. The results supported the hypothesis that leader-role claiming could lead to leader identity. In addition, the effects of role salience were larger than in Study 1. The analysis of this replication is presented next.

Role-Claiming Effects. The leader-role claiming in Study 2 was slightly different in nature from the leader-role claiming in Study 1. Participants in Study 2 were asked about their 'pioneering' or 'trend-setting' advocacy of environmental protection, recycling used clothes,

and selling second-hand clothes. Moreover, the nature of the sales associate work role did not inherently incorporate either leading activities/behaviours or embedded leading relationships with customers.

When the 'pioneering-role claiming' narratives were converted into the 'leader-role claiming' measure, this measure was found to be significantly and positively correlated with leader identity ($r = .41$, $p < .05$). In Study 1, the same correlation existed between the 'leader-role claiming' measure and leader identity ($r = .37$, $p < .05$). However, the effects of the 'leader-role claiming' based on the pioneering-role narratives were not sustained ($r = -.01$, $p =$ n.s.) at all at Time 2, whereas the effects of the 'leader-role claiming' based on leading activities were sustained ($r = .41$, $p < .05$) at Time 2 in Study 1. This difference might arise simply because the job nature of the subjects in Study 2 was different. In Study 2, as work-role identity salience was the main driver of this role claiming, those subjects with distinct leading behaviours could advance their personal identification as a leader; in contrast, those who could not do so may have had less obvious leading behaviours embedded in their work role.

The results obtained in relation to role-claiming effects deserve further elaboration. First, the theoretical prediction that leader-role claiming would lead to leader identification was supported in both Studies 1 and 2. The replication in Study 2 established the reliability of the research by showing that identity work in the form of role claiming—specifically, leader-role claiming—is related to leader identification. The area of knowledge theorising that identity work can lead to leader identity was advanced through these experimental results.

Second, the identification of the variable leader-role claiming pinned down a specific variable related to leader identification, whose relation could be statistically measured and analysed despite the small sample sizes in both Studies 1 and 2. These studies initially established that the intra-individual identity work elicited by an authority figure (experimenter)

can have a profound immediate effect and a sustained effect when it is consistent with the work role, as shown in Study 1.

Leader Identity and MTL. Both Studies 1 and 2 showed that leader identification triggered by leader-role claiming predicts motivation to lead. In Study 1, leader identity was significantly correlated with the composite MTL ($r = .55$ $p < .01$) at Time 1; in Study 2, similarly significant correlations were found ($r = .69$, $p < .01$). At Time 2, a sustained effect was observed in Study 1 ($r = .60$, $p < .01$), but that effect was not significant in Study 2 ($r = .37$, $p = $ n.s.). Two factors are suspected of influencing the non-sustained effect between leader identity and MTL in Study 2. First, the small sample size led to low power for this study. Second, the result may reflect the critical importance of role salience and a team orientation for the GL employees in Study 2. For these middle-aged female retail associates, their collective identification of being customer-focused may have shaped their role perception, causing them to engage in relatively fewer leading behaviours or relations with customers. Moreover, the average tenure of most of the GL associates was only around 2 years, compared to more than 4 years for the participants in Study 1, most of whom worked on a part-time basis. The strength of the work-role salience of the subjects in Study 2 was lower than that for the subjects in Study 1, which likely explains why the link between leader identity and MTL might take more time to be maintained.

The connection between leader identity and MTL shows that leader identity is a potent force in stimulating the motivational cognition that prepares an individual for leadership behaviours or self- or leadership-development actions, such as training. In this case, leader identity established a possible chain of effects activated by leader-role claiming in leadership development. This connection suggests that if potential leaders are given opportunities to claim their leadership behaviours, it is more likely that their leader identity will be activated,

consequently activating their motivation to lead. In turn, this relationship may predict leadership development. Therefore, the effects of leader-role claiming can be considered a 'key' for activating individuals' possible leadership potential—a potential waiting to be discovered.

Work-Role Identity Salience. It was hypothesised that participants' work-role salience would have positive effects on their leader identity internalisation, and that these effects would remain significant over time. As shown in Table 4.10, the results confirmed Hypothesis 2, which stated that work-role salience would have significant impacts on leader identity. In Study 1, a Time 2 correlation of $r = .69$ ($p < .01$) was found; in Study 2, the Time 1 and Time 2 correlations were $r = .55$ and $r = .52$, respectively ($p < .01$). These results suggest that possible dynamic processes of the work-role identity took place for Study 2 samples and influenced their leader identity development.

As Hypothesis 3 predicted, work-role identity salience was associated with MTL in these studies. This relationship provides insights into how the dynamic social interaction process of role claiming might work effectively with the work role in constructing leader identity and MTL. Once the leader identity internalisation is activated, the MTL seems to work concordantly to create a possible positive effect.

Work-role identity salience comprises various components at different levels within the work setting. At the individual level, it is largely task-oriented. At the relational level, it encompasses a nexus of relations, including in-group, out-group, and client relations. When an employee can engage in sensemaking based on the complexity of both tasks and relationships and find the distinctive characteristics necessary for self-definition, it is more likely that the individual will advance a personal identification.

Many factors can affect the salience of an employee's work-role identity. Construction of identity salience requires a cognitive process that facilitates the interpretation of the meaning

and importance of the individual's work role and the nature of the work. If work-role identity salience is low, it is probably difficult for an employee to advance his or her leader identity within the work context. Thus, the social cognitive process of role claiming through narratives can impact the work-role identity, which is in turn linked to the leader identity if these identities are intrinsically or perceived to be connected.

4.2.8 Implications and Limitations

Leadership development has traditionally been perceived to be initiated by training. Training always comprises an external effort, whether it involves a corporate arrangement or self-directed commitment. However, seldom has leadership development been perceived as a latent seed waiting to sprout when the individual's leader identity is activated through intrinsic sensemaking and role-claiming narratives, which can take place in a socially constructed work context. The chain effect analysis in Study 1 suggests possible stages to measure and in which to explore the leadership potential of employees before any employees become engaged in leadership development training.

This suggested protocol for developing potential leaders requires further research validation before it can unequivocally be recommended, because the sample sizes of both studies leading to its development were relatively small. Moreover, the populations involving the marginalised employees working in WISEs were very specific. Despite this limitation, these studies have an important practical implication. If future studies can enrol a larger, more varied disadvantaged-population sample to validate the present research, the role-claiming protocol may become an important and economic way to develop potential leaders.

In Study 1, the findings revealed that some of the blind trainers demonstrated leader identification and motivation to lead. It was not expected that these findings would have prospective implications. Subsequent to Study 1, however, some of these blind trainers have

pursued personal development beyond their work role at DIDHK. A few of the blind trainers in Study 1 have become self-made entrepreneurs and started their own businesses. These ventures include a bakery that puts Braille messages on cookies being sold, a corporate gift design company, and an innovative theatre experience—that is, dark theatre. Lord and Braun (2017) suggested that identity invention could be possible if a person could transform future probabilities through conscious efforts. Such identity transformation involves the creation of situated possible, alternative, or ought self-identities, which then guide a person towards specific types of actions and goals (Higgins, 1997). These self-made blind entrepreneurs have definitely extended their leadership potential, enhanced their creativity, and maximised external constraints, such as social networks, in creating a new entrepreneurial identity for themselves. Clearly, the claiming-and-granting research framework (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) provides fruitful opportunities for exploring and examining leader–follower dynamics and leader identity development.

In this research, the WISE context was chosen because of its prosocial work environment. If a mainstream organisation can offer a positive and structured work environment with career advancement prospects, employees in these work contexts might also be prepared to perform role claiming or leader-role claiming. For organisations pondering whether the claiming-and-granting framework might be appropriate for corporate coaching processes, Studies 1 and 2 have initially shown the practical implications of helping to identify potential leaders.

CHAPTER 5

STUDY 3

This chapter presents the third study of the research project. Studies 1 and 2 focused on the intrapersonal dynamics of employees in leader identity construction and their motivational consequences. Extending the findings of the two studies presented in Chapter 4, a third, cross-sectional study that examined the antecedents, consequences, and mediating effects of leader identity and collective self-concept is reported in this chapter.

The chapter begins with an introduction to the specifics and goals of the third study. The theoretical underpinnings of a proposed model for testing are then established, followed by the underlying theories that advance the hypotheses. The details of the study, including the method, analysis of the results, and discussion of the findings, conclude the chapter.

5.1 Introduction

In Study 3, I put forward a conceptual model for the analysis of the mediating effects of leader identity and collective self-concept on the relationships of a set of intrapersonal and interpersonal antecedent variables with their motivational consequences. The antecedent variables include work-role identity salience, which was previously examined in Studies 1 and 2 as an 'intrapersonal' antecedent that is related to leader identity and motivation to lead, and is tested again in this study. The new antecedent variables examined in Study 3 are, in contrast to leader identity, 'interpersonal' in nature, and include servant leadership and perceived organisational support. The motivational outcome variables investigated in Study 3 include motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy. The outcome variable of motivation to lead, which was found to be associated with leader identity, was previously investigated in Studies 1 and 2. Thus, Study 3 extended the examination of motivational consequences to include the two additional work-related outcomes of work motivation and self-efficacy.

The mediating effects of the working self-concept (WSC) in intrapersonal and interpersonal processes have been well discussed by behavioural scientists (Markus & Wurf, 1987), leadership theorists (Lord & Brown, 2001, 2004; Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999), and social identity scholars (van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, de Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). Individual perceptions of macro contextual factors can influence a person's psychological and motivational processes in the workplace (Kanfer, 2012). One's WSC plays a role in perception and cognitive processing, and is constantly accessed when making sense of the external contextual factors. This function involves perceptual filtering and organising processes (see Figure 4.2), both of which are linked to situated identity construction.

Self-identities that evoke a sense of distinctiveness from others are considered individual personal identities, whereas those that emphasise shared similarities with other group members are social identities. Lord and Brown (2004) discuss how the influence of leaders—evidenced by their behaviours, communication content, and value system—can activate followers' WSCs. The followers' WSCs, in turn, shape their own values and self-concepts, possibly prompting the followers to model those of the leader. Followers' identification with leaders inspires possible selves who aspire to pursue self-enhancement to arrive at a competence level to lead. An individual pathway of leadership development is typically a product of individualised identification.

As employees are members of an organisation, their selves at work can also be subject to group influences. These collective influences affect how individuals develop the sense of who they are. Van Knippenberg and Hogg (2018) maintain that when an individual identifies with a group prototype at work, the individual perceives the collective interest as also being in his or her own self-interest. At the same time, these authors assert that social identification is an individual-level concept, because an individual conceives the self in terms of the group

membership. Hence, the self is intrinsically motivated to invest efforts in the collective good. Underpinned by these personal and collective identification foci at work, Study 3 integrates and examines both individual-level (i.e., leader identity) and collective-level (i.e., collective self-concept) identities as the two mediators that impact individual motivational outcomes at WISEs.

The goals of Study 3 are threefold. First, it expands the set of potential antecedents that impact leader identity development beyond the previously identified (in Studies 1 and 2) intrapersonal effects cued by work-role identity salience. The two interpersonal factors—servant leadership and perceived organisational support—are proposed to also predict leader identity and/or collective identity development. Second, Study 3 examines the joint effects of identity variables—namely, the leader identity as an individual identity and the collective self-construal as a social identity—on motivational outcomes at work. Third, this study examines two more motivational outcome variables—work motivation from the perspective of self-determination theory (Diefendorff, Houlfort, Vallerand, & Krantz, 2018; Gagne & Deci, 2005) and general self-efficacy—to understand the effects of identity at work more broadly.

The literature review provided here first presents the underlying rationale that supports the proposed conceptual model for examining the identity mediators. Next, the theories for advancing the hypotheses in the model are discussed. The relationships of the variables in the model are then explained to make connections to the goals of this study. Moreover, as the data for this study were collected from socially oriented WISEs, the tested model presents findings from an organisational context that has attracted increasing academic interest (Battilana & Lee, 2014; Battilana et al., 2015; Pache & Santos, 2013, 2015; Seelos, Mair, Battilana, & Dacin, 2015), though the identity processes at WISEs have yet to be given sufficient empirical attention. The results of the individual work psychological processes in this study not only serve to

address the three goals mentioned, but also supplement Studies 1 and 2 to better explicate

followers' intrapersonal and interpersonal processes in a prosocial work environment.

5.2   Literature Review

The review presented in this section focuses primarily on how employees' WSCs act as

their 'key self-regulatory structures' (Lord & Brown, 2001) in handling interactive and dynamic

self-relevant information, such as that arising from social interactions with leaders and work

groups, thereby influencing employee attitudes, motivation, behaviours, and performance. Since

the focus of this study is on the construction of leader identity as influenced by work factors,

motivational consequences are viewed as particularly relevant. The findings of Studies 1 and 2

in this dissertation project suggested that leader identity is predicted by work role-identity

salience, and that the relationship of leader identity with with motivation to lead is mediated by

leader-role claiming narratives that are believed to contribute to intrapersonal sensemaking.

Moreover, followers under the influence of leaders can embrace either a 'promotion

focus' elicited by transformational and supportive leadership behaviours or a 'prevention focus'

elicited by monitoring and transactional leadership behaviours (Kark & van Dijk, 2007).

According to Kark and van Dijk (2007), followers who are under the influence of positive

leadership, as is likely to be the case in WISEs, are more likely to adopt a promotion focus and

to demonstrate positive affectivity and affective commitment. These followership phenomena

are elicited by followers' WSCs, which in turn can be integrated into their self-concept

(Epitropaki et al., 2017). Identity self-construal and their effects on employees are discussed in

Study 3 specifically in relation to the self-construal of leader and collective identities. Follower

identity development in a positive and meaningful work environment is a desirable area for

scholarly exploration because of its profound impacts on individual outcomes (Berg, Dutton, &

Wrzesniewski, 2008; Rosso et al., 2010; Wrzesniewski et al., 2003) and team performance

(Duchon & Plowman, 2005). Therefore, the interactive dynamics found in the prosocial WISE environment are briefly described in the following paragraphs to provide the background before advancing the theoretical framework.

WISEs provide rehabilitation to disadvantaged populations through employment that has two distinct organisational characteristics: The WISE designs an interactive work role for target employees and offers a supportive and inclusive work environment that prioritises social goals above commercial goals. These characteristics are designed and well communicated among internal and external stakeholders, at least in the WISEs examined in Study 3. Not only is the prosocial culture made known to the employees, but the organisational commitment to support these employees is made explicit.

If an employee's work role offers regular opportunities for interacting with both internal and external stakeholders (as those roles do in WISEs), including colleagues or customers, the employee will be better able to define work meaning and values that are crucial for shaping his or her social role, image, and self-concept within the work environment (Rosso et al., 2010). Constructing meaning is crucial for individuals to develop knowledge structures for dynamic behaviours (Hernes, 2014; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005) and task enactment. Moreover, social interaction is crucial for employees who have experienced prior stigmatisation (e.g., due to disabilities, age discrimination, or other reasons of marginalisation). In such cases, interactions within the workplace offer new opportunities for normal social engagement that employees might have drifted away from in the past, owing to their isolation from the larger society. Isolation of any form is a barrier to self-development, as connectedness and the 'need to belong' (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) are innate features of human nature. The prosocial WISE environments are uniquely positive supports to disadvantaged individuals who might have held negative self-

views because of their isolation. It is this positive environment that revises and promotes reorganisation of meaning and personal growth, with these positive effects likely being even stronger among the disadvantaged employees than among the average employees.

Recent scholarly attention to WISEs' hybrid social and commercial pursuits has increased substantially in recent years, as mentioned earlier. These scholarly interests attest to the fact that WISEs, as a type of purposeful work environment, are fostering a new kind of institutional hybrid logic that management scholars find meaningful to explore and examine. To date, however, few empirical studies have inspected the intricate psychological and positive identity development processes of the WISE employees, which serve as an important reason for these enterprises to initiate their social business pursuits in the first place.

5.2.1 Mediational Effects of Situated Identities

The self at work is shaped by the interplay of dynamic self-processes, and by the larger social system within which it functions. The coherent creation of self-knowledge that depends on self-relevant information processing is at the core of self-identity construction (Lord & Chui, 2018). Lord and Chui (2018) asserted that active cognitive processing dynamics contribute to the activation of self-schemas and self-identities, which also depends on automatic or consciously controlled information processing at either the individual, intrapersonal level or the social, interpersonal level (see Figure 5.1). According to these authors, the activation of self-relevant and social schemas is associated with low-level acts or tasks that are characterised by automatic information processing. The activation of individual or social identities, for example, requires the integration of schemas that create the situated sense of the self. Hence, construction of individual versus social identities depends upon whether the integration of the schemas is individuated or collective, respectively. The understanding of how the dynamic self operates at

work is linked to employees' personal and social identifications—processes that form the core of Study 3's research focus.

Figure 5.1 Lord and Chui's (2018) four perspectives on the self as integrated across time and internal versus social context
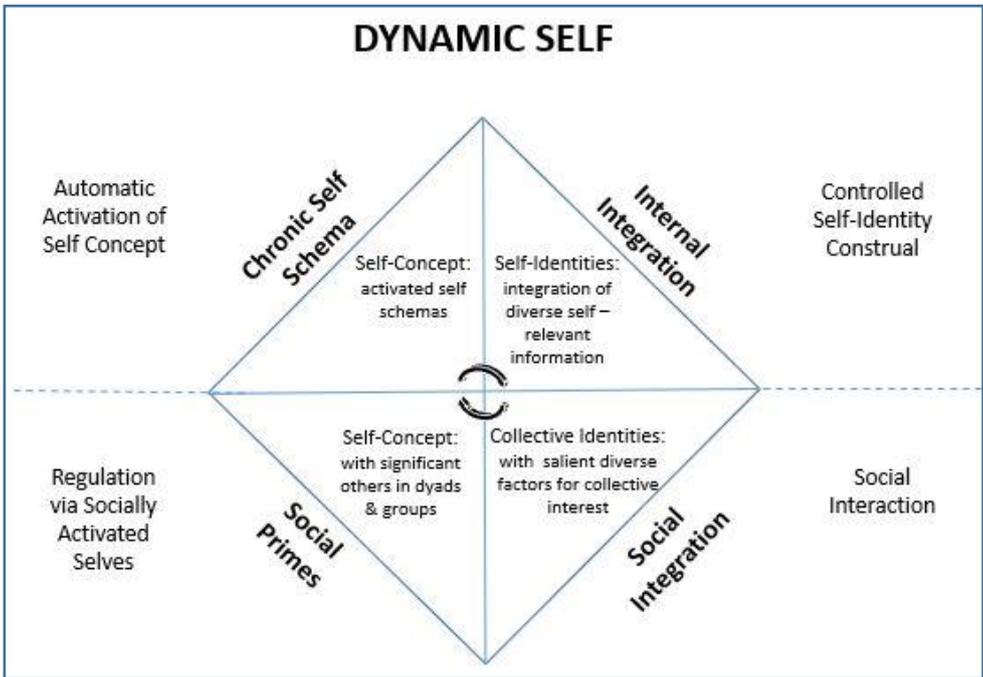
To establish the understanding of how the dynamic self at work can construct individual schemas and identities versus social ones, Lord and Chui's model of the dynamic self is elaborated. The following discussion aims at elucidating the cognitive perspectives of how individual versus social schemas and identities control the dynamic functioning of selves at work.

Individual Self-Schemas and Individual Self-Identities. The activated self-schemas are domain-specific. These schemas can include attributes derived from task-related experiences, such as being experienced, professional, savvy, or customer-oriented; or having skill-related attributes of fluency, efficiency, or accuracy in delivery. Hence these attributes are closely linked to context-specific self-regulatory behaviours, such that the self-schemas prompt

spontaneous actions. For example, an educator's schema of giving a lecture-like verbal delivery may be activated when he or she is invited to give an opinion on a familiar topic. When applied to behaviours related to leadership that an individual performs at work, an individual's leadership schema can be activated across other contexts when that person is called upon to exercise similar role behaviours. The memory access for the automatic activation of these self-schemas is between 10 and 15 milliseconds.

In contrast, the formation of self-identity involves a controlled and conscious activation of brain-scale information. In essence, self-identity construction integrates past experiences, sets of skills, and experiences that converge to create a sense of 'who I am' in a context-specific situation. The convergence is marked by an emergence of salient self-relevant information that is connected to self-motives, such as self-enhancement. Moreover, the construction of self-identity emphasises distinctiveness and uniqueness. The memory access for such phenomena requires more than 300 milliseconds, so it is much slower than the activation of self-schemas. This kind of phenomenon was examined in Studies 1 and 2, where leader-role claiming narratives describing role experiences (see the top left quadrant in Figure 5.1) were shown to facilitate leader identity construction (see the top right quadrant in Figure 5.1).

Social Self-Schemas and Social Identities. Automatic activation of social and relational self-schemas takes place as a result of social stimuli that occur as actors are engaged in situated dynamic interactions. Social knowledge structures process relationships with significant others. This kind of activation is typical in dyadic or small-group relations such as leader–member exchange (LMX) (see the bottom left quadrant in Figure 5.1). Relational identities can moderate LMX processes (Chang & Johnson, 2010). In addition, the conscious processing of one's membership in a specific social context can activate one's sense of collective self in relation to the contextual group membership. Such social processes include group engagement (Tyler &

Blader, 2001, 2003) and team learning (Bell & Kozlowski, 2011) (see the bottom right quadrant in Figure 5.1).

In Study 3, the identities examined at work include the individual leader identity and the collective social identity. These two identities can co-exist within an individual, but are activated at separate times subject to the situated contexts that stimulate the convergence of self-relevant information. Within the same social context, some individuals may have only individual identities activated, while others have only collective identities activated. This point is relevant to Study 3, because at the time when the participants responded to the survey, the aggregate results (i.e., going across all respondents) could produce effects that look as if individuals have both identities activated. This factor is accounted for in the analysis and addressed in the Results section to facilitate understanding of the mediating effects of identities on motivational outcomes at work.

Individual Identity in the Form of Leader Identity Construal. Subordinates, rather than leaders, complete the leadership process (Lord & Brown, 2004). In essence, followers' self-regulatory processes in the workplace, linked to their possible selves in role task performance, drive goal accomplishment. More importantly, work identities interact with work environments dynamically (Miscenko & Day, 2016) to create meanings in defining the situated sense of who one is. An individual's self-concept levels and identities at work are related to that person's leadership behaviours (Johnson, Venus, Lanaj, Mao, & Chang, 2012) or to the perception of the organisational justice climate (Johnson & Lord, 2010) at work which in turn can impact on job satisfaction and a sense of accomplishment (Pearson, Hammond, Heffeman, & Turner, 2012). Thus, followers' self-regulatory processes in role performance may be guided by their persistent self-schemas under the influence of leading behaviours. As such leading role and related leading behaviours are internalised, the coherent

meaning of being a leader, over time, can be developed. 'Leader identity' contains "the sub-component of one's identity that relates to being a leader or how one thinks of oneself as a leader" (cited in Day & Harrison, 2007, p. 365). Leader identity as an individual identification organises self-schemas in a coherent way to sustain motivational and behavioural processes in followers.

As described in Chapter 4, Studies 1 and 2 showed that an individual's process of claiming leading behaviours could stimulate leader identity construction. Thus, the leading behaviours included in one's narration can be a crucial self-aspect of the evoked leader identity. Hence, the opportunity to exercise leading behaviours creates a positive self-development for the WISE employees. This conclusion implies that identity construction is connected to one's behaviours and actions. The more an individual is 'identified' with an action, the more that individual achieves autonomous regulation by 'internalising' the regulation (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987). This view is based on the self-organisation of the global properties of the self-system which constantly manages intrinsic and extrinsic dynamics. This cognitive perspective of identification and internalisation converges with the self-determination perspective (Ryan & Deci, 2000) of human motivation which directs human behaviours that align with intrinsic and extrinsic human needs. Thus, both perspectives confirm that if the identification and internalisation of related actions are attached to a specific identity, such as the leader identity, the autonomous regulation can enhance the construction of such an identity.

Social Identity in the Form of Collective Self-Construal. The key elements of collective identity (considered as an individual-level construct rather than a group-level construct) —including self-categorisation, evaluation, importance, sense of interdependence, social embeddedness, and task involvement (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe,

2004)—are typically found in WISE employees. When WISE employees embark on a job role, they are placed in a complex social identity milieu (Roccas & Brewer, 2002) in which they find themselves simultaneously belonging to multiple social groups—the disadvantaged group, the WISE employee group, and the job-role in-group. As these three memberships become integrated into employees' work roles, the sense of group prototypicality remains distinct, as each employee is ready to step away from his or her previous sense of isolation and accept the social label and mission of the WISE. The historical isolation or marginalisation experience of these employees promotes a constant evaluation of their importance in their work role and in the organisation. Through training, constant feedback, superior encouragement, and coaching, the positive and purpose-driven culture in these organisations allows their employees to develop a sense of interdependence not only with their workplace supervisors, but also—and more so—with their group peers. In this way, each WISE provides a positive work environment that encourages employees to identify with a strong collective identity embedded in their ongoing work relationships and task engagement.

Collective self-construal is an important mediator in leader–follower dynamics. De Cremer and van Knippenberg (2002) showed that collective identification mediates the interaction effects of leader self-sacrifice and procedural fairness on followers' cooperating behaviours. Kark, Shamir, and Chen (2003) investigated the mediating effects of personal and social identification foci between transformational leadership behaviours and empowerment on followers in terms of self-efficacy and collective efficacy. Identity scholars have established that follower identification, personal or social, impacts followers' work outcomes and yet remains a desirable area of organisational and leadership research. Further exploration of this area can bring about deeper insights into how social identification is related to shared cognition and collective self-regulation.

Shared cognitions, regulatory processes, emotions, and goals are important for organisational members to form a unique group prototype that serves as an organising schema or a group schema. This kind of collective cognition (Lord & Emrich, 2001) is anchored in collective social processes and experiences in goal pursuit. The dynamic processes generate a group prototype that becomes a shared schema in the collective memory of the group's members. The relationships between social identification and work motivation and group performance (Ellemers, Gilder, & Haslam, 2004; van Knippenberg, 2000; van Knippenberg & Ellemers 2014) have been well discussed. The collective identification acts like a social glue that can solidify group members' cohesion cognitively, emotionally, and conatively as they share the same experiences and same fate. "The shared resource, and associated interdependence, must, in effect, form the basis for a superordinate group identity, which encompasses all of the individuals in the commons" (Kramer & Brewer, 2006, p. 121). Therefore, social identification, especially amongst peers, is typically found in WISEs, as these socially oriented organisations seek to engage the beneficiaries they serve to be employees.

Based on the reviews of the literature that discussed the compelling forces of personal and social identifications, this study proposes a conceptual model of identity mediation that serves as an extension of Studies 1 and 2. Specifically, Study 3 integrates the variables related to both the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes that influence individual motivational work outcomes.

5.2.2 Proposed Model of Identity Mediation

The model being tested in Study 3 (see Figure 5.2) proposes that identity variables mediate the relationship of the three antecedent variables of work-role identity salience, servant leadership, and perceived organisational support with the set of motivational outcomes. Servant leadership is a positive form of leadership encompassing the leader behaviours and interpersonal

dynamics that augment followers' self-confidence, potency (Hu & Liden, 2011), positive self-development, and prosocial behaviours (Hannah, Sumanth, Lester, & Cavarretta, 2014; Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne, & Cao, 2015). Thus, servant leadership strongly aligns with the inclusive and prosocial leading approach envisioned by WISE leaders. Moreover, the prosocial interpersonal dynamics, if successfully practised in WISEs, are expected to result in the development of followers' well-being and perceptions of support gained from the organisation, which in turn can directly impact employee work outcomes, including work engagement (Zacher & Winter, 2011), job satisfaction, intention to stay, and performance (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). For these reasons, servant leadership and perceived organisational support are considered antecedents that are vital for predicting WISE employee identifications. The motivational processes—such as self-efficacy, work motivation, or affective processes—of individuals within a work context are important self-relevant phenomena that are connected to self-motives. Taken together, these self-motives create the underlying momentum that guides the dynamic self at work in the self-regulation of actions and organisational goal-setting so as to achieve individual, team, and organisational performance. On the road to attaining different levels of human performance, both intrapersonal and interpersonal processes at work are mediated by the individual's self-concept (Markus & Wurf, 1987) and possibly by situated identity construal. This area of research deserves further investigation to enrich the understanding of how the dynamic self operates at work and contributes to motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy.

Figure 5.2 Study 3: Proposed research model
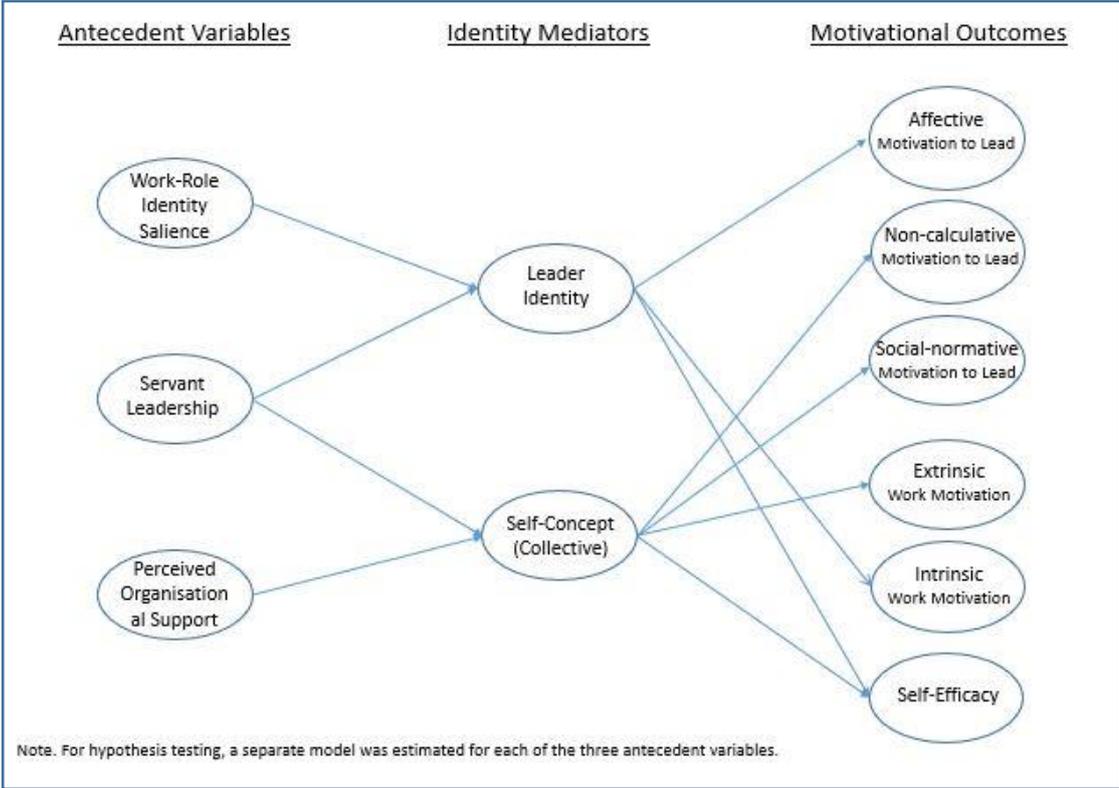
Figure 5.2 depicts the proposed research model for Study 3, showing how the effects of

the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes that affect individual motivational work outcomes

are expected to be mediated by individual and social identities. In this model, work-role identity

salience is proposed as an antecedent of affective and non-calculative motivation to lead, and of

intrinsic motivation. The effects of work-role identity salience are proposed to be mediated

through an intrapersonal process that depends upon an individual's level of leader identity.

Intrapersonal processes involve role- and task-related experiences that have been identified and

internalised; in turn, the motivational outcomes are based on self-interest and self-motivation.

Moreover, it is proposed that the interpersonal processes associated with servant

leadership and perceived organisational support will impact an employee's social identity (i.e.,

collective self-construal), which in turn is expected to indirectly impact social-normative

motivation to lead and extrinsic motivation. Interpersonal process can create instrumentality

through group membership and experiences of individuals, especially if their collective self-construal is significant. Self-efficacy is the belief that one will be able to perform well in different roles (Bandura, 1986). Although leadership self-efficacy has been associated with motivation to lead (Guillen, Mayo, & Korotov, 2015), the general self-efficacy construct is used to examine the disadvantaged subjects in Study 3, as these individuals might be expected to take a longer time to establish leadership self-efficacy. It is predicted that both the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes will contribute to personal self-efficacy. Servant leadership is proposed to affect both the leader identity and the collective self-concept. The underlying theories of the constructs are reviewed in the following subsections to advance the Study 3 hypotheses for testing.

5.2.3   Antecedents of Identity Phenomena

Work-Role Identity Salience (Intrapersonal). Work-role identity salience refers to the centrality of an individual's work identity within his or her global self-system. It forms part of the self-aspects that define 'who I am' within an organisation. Relevant work-role identity salience can affect task regulation (Lord et al., 2010), emotions (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000), and identity development of individuals at work. Studies 1 and 2 showed that work-role identity salience is positively related to leader identity development. Therefore, the centrality of the work role can predict cognitive, affect, behavioural, and identity development of the individual selves. If the work role involves leading behaviours or leadership processes at the personal or social level within a supportive and positive context, it is more likely to evoke the intrapersonal dynamic that supports leader identity development.

H1: Work-role identity salience is positively related to leader identity internalisation.

Leadership and organisational scholarship has discussed how leaders' ethical orientation can shape an organisational climate that impacts followers. The prosocial orientation at WISEs

that puts employee interest above financial goals creates a moral and principled workplace climate. WISEs' ethical climate is linked to individual-level work outcomes which have been discussed in related organisational and business ethics literature (Martin & Cullen, 2006; Victor & Cullen, 1988). The two contextual constructs of servant leadership and perceived organisational support are considered appropriate for Study 3. Leaders of WISEs consider followers' (employees') well-being to be a higher priority than financial concerns and they exercise moral principles in balancing the social and financial double bottom-line. Thus, servant leadership (Liden, Wayne, Meuser, Hu, Wu, & Liao, 2015)—as a leadership construct that captures other-directed, supportive, and inclusive leading behaviours—has been chosen as a relevant interpersonal construct. Another antecedent that is considered appropriate in predicting the identity mediators of leader and collective identifications is perceived organisational support (Wayne, Bommer, & Terick, 2002). When an employee perceives himself or herself to be a valued member of the organisation, this positive perception is important in defining who he or she is. These two antecedents are further discussed in the following sessions for advancing hypotheses.

Servant Leadership (Interpersonal). Leaders who demonstrate servant leadership behaviours prioritise the needs of their subordinates before their own needs and dedicate their efforts towards supporting and helping subordinates as those subordinates seek to meet their personal needs and goals (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leaders assert the moral principle of leading by serving (Greenleaf, 1977). Followers' interests are given the highest priority by these leaders. Servant leadership impacts individual employees in terms of their organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009); positive perceptions of the leader and organisational trust (Joseph & Winston, 2005); organisational justice (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008); and perceived organisational support (West, Bocarnea, & Maranon, 2009). At the team level, servant leadership affects team effectiveness (Irving &

Longbotham, 2007) and team potency (Hu & Liden, 2011), and shapes the serving climate (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu, & Wayne, 2014).

Servant leadership as a form of ethical leadership has role modelling effects. The initial servant leadership construct identified nine dimensions of leaders' qualities (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008): (1) personal concern shown to others; (2) community building; (3) possession of conceptual skills; (4) empowering others; (5) helping others to grow; (6) putting subordinates first; (7) leading ethically; (8) genuine focus on building long-term relationships; and (9) strong awareness of servanthood. As most of these dimensions (e.g., empowering, helping others to grow, putting subordinates first, showing personal concerns, or leading ethically) match the social mission of WISEs in empowering the disadvantaged, the servant leadership construct is considered relevant in predicting WISE employees' identity development. Servant leadership as a positive, morally ethical, and other-directed leadership form has been empirically suggested to be related to positive individual and team work outcomes.

H2: Servant leadership is positively related to leader identity internalisation.

H3: Servant leadership is positively related to self-concept at the collective level.

Perceived Organisational Support (Interpersonal). As suggested by the organisational identification literature (Edwards, 2009; Riketta, 2005; Sluss, Klimchak, & Holmes, 2008), if employees believe that their organisations value their contributions and show concern towards their well-being, those employees are more likely to identify with their organisations. Social exchange theory (Blau, 2009; Katz & Kahn, 1978) describes the fundamental organisational life as being built upon relationships. Relationships within organisations are typically hierarchical in the context of team dynamics, or dyadic between leaders and subordinators in the context of leader–member exchange (LMX). Employees' psychological perceptions, in turn, hinge on

social processes that are particularly relevant to their self-motives, such as self-definition and self-enhancement.

Studies that have addressed perceived organisational support (POS) and leader–member exchange together as a means of predicting employee work outcomes have yielded significant support for this relationship (Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). Some of these work outcomes include affective commitment, intentions to stay, and organisational citizenship behaviours. Eisenberger and Stinglhamler (2011) provided an overview of how POS is formed, presenting its antecedents, organisational processes, and behavioural outcomes. These authors emphasised the importance of employees' perceptions of organisational attributes such as organisational discretion, sincerity, embodiment, felt obligation, and anticipated help when needed. If employees view these processes positively, then POS will be positively perceived. Moreover, to employees, social relationships also include the receipt of material and social resources that signals the organisation cares about the employees' well-being. Positive valuation from the organisation leads employees to increase their engagement at work and commitment in terms of attitude.

Eisenberger and Stinglhamler (2011) have suggested that felt obligation may arise among employees if POS is evaluated positively. This emotional attachment explains why POS can lead to affective commitment. Therefore, employees' POS can impact their cognitive and affective processes in the context of social relations. When employees' salient identification and self-construal at the individual and collective levels interact with their belief that their organisation can provide support and assurance within the workplace, their POS has significant influence on their identity phenomena. Moreover, when employees experience inclusion, the perceived differences amongst organisational members are reduced. They feel more at ease to express their opinions, and their perception of cohesion and group membership is strengthened

152

(Nishii & Mayer, 2009). Inclusive leadership contributes to positive work consequences for individuals, including development of a shared social identity and self-categorisation (Shore et al., 2011). In the WISE setting, POS as an interpersonal factor impacts employees in terms of their collective identification and motivation.

> *H4: Perceived organisational support is positively related to self-concept at the*
> *collective level.*

5.2.4   Identity as a Mediator of Antecedent Effects on Motivational Outcomes

An identity provides a source of motivational and steering forces that shape decisions and behaviours. Entrepreneurial studies have shown how the founder identity, a form of leader identity, steers entrepreneurial motivation, action, and resilience (Fauchart & Gruber, 2011; Hoang & Gimeno, 2010; Murnieks & Mosakowski, 2007; Powell & Baker, 2014). Leadership identity is a determinant of both proximal and distal motivations (Lord & Brown, 2004). Leader identity as an internal resource drives proactive orientation to lead, to take up responsibilities, and to enact relevant leading behaviours in leading situations in the process of problem solving and goal pursuit. Moreover, as an individual's leader identity solidifies, that person's readiness for leadership development becomes more salient (Day & Harrison, 2007; DeRue et al., 2009).

The identity orientations of leaders elicit different motivational orientations (de Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002) and forms of social exchange (Flynn, 2005). Leadership driven by individual-level identity, for example, tends to involve pursuit of pro-self goals. Thus, novice leaders whose focus is fixed on self-enhancement and self-development through self-role experiences (Lord & Hall, 2005) tend to focus more on individual-level identities. Such leaders are engaged in leadership development confined within their work roles for career advancement. Lord and Hall (2005) also described how group membership can be salient for leaders and followers who are strong in their group prototype (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg et al., 2004).

A shared and distributed form of depersonalised leadership becomes possible within the prosocial work context within WISEs, which features a common pursuit of social goals.

Despite the importance of identity levels in mediating motivation and behaviours, individual and collective identities normally cannot be activated together. Those persons who have a salient individual leadership identity would differ in important ways from those persons who have a collective identification. In turn, the individually oriented leader identity versus the collective identification will impact WISE employees on different dimensions of motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy.

Motivation to Lead. Studies 1 and 2 in Chapter 4 covered the theoretical underpinnings of leader identity and motivation to lead (MTL). Moreover, the results of these studies showed the relationship between the leader identity and MTL variables. Defined as "an individual-differences construct that affects a leader's or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities" (Chan & Drasgow, 2001, p. 482), MTL can vary in intensity and nature according to individual and collective identifications. Affective MTL has been found to be related more closely to individualism, whereas social-normative MTL is more closely associated with collectivism (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). In Study 3, non-calculative MTL is tested with collective identification, as this construct is considered more closely associated with prosocial motives.

Since identity is a cognitive process, Study 3 asserts that self-construal based on situational information processing may be related in different ways to one's motivation to lead depending on the individual or collective identification.

> H5a: Leader identity is positively related to affective motivation to lead.
>
> H5b: Leader identity positively mediates the relationship between work-role identity salience and servant leadership and affective motivation to lead.

H5c: Self-concept at the collective level is positively related to non-calculative and social-normative motivation to lead.

H5d: Self-concept at the collective level positively mediates the relationship between perceived organisational support and non-calculative and social-normative motivation to lead.

Work Motivation. Work motivation is a crucial organisational construct because it has significant implications for employee self-regulatory focus and behavioural phenomena linked to goal performance. The latest review of motivational studies over the last century, conducted by Kanfer, Frese, and Johnson (2017), suggested a framework based on three approaches to understanding work motivation: (1) content-based approaches, (2) context-based approaches, and (3) process-based approaches. The content-based approaches take into consideration those motives based on employee traits, including personality traits and role-based task achievement and experience, to determine the possible motivational orientations. These approaches encompass extrinsic and internal factors including extrinsic rewards, task and job characteristics, and group- and team-level influences, each of which can trigger extrinsic and intrinsic motivations. The process-oriented theories are mainly characterised by their emphases on goal striving, self-regulation, expectancy, and resources allocation as factors that can affect actions.

Kanfer, Frese, and Johnson (2017) suggested that an integrated perspective should be adopted when studying work motivation. This perspective reflects that individuals experience life span development within work environments. This is because one's work experience can determine the success or failure of one's career, self-conception or even social role and status. Therefore, an individual's self-identity as a unifying construct is important in influencing work motivation. Moreover, Johnson, Chang, and Yang (2010) proposed that self-identity at different levels can interact with different aspects of commitment and regulatory foci. Therefore, work motivation is believed to be related to various identity phenomena at work. This social-cognitive

perspective of work motivation aligns with Deci and Ryan's (1985) perspective of the relationship between self-determination and intentionality, specifically in regard to autonomous and controlled motivation. When individuals believe that they have the autonomy and competence to control their role, their intentionality is manifested by actions to gain experience for satisfying self-enhancement and self-development motives.

Self-Determination and Work Motivation. The choice to act, competency, and belongingness predict an individual's self-regulatory drive. These concepts are at the core of Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory. However, contextual factors can "play a role in the initiation and regulation of behaviour" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 1025). In Study 3, the interpersonal factors of servant leadership and perceived organisational support are important determinants affecting employees' work motivation. Individuals with amotivation have a passive orientation towards work and demonstrate reluctance and helplessness (Deci & Ryan, 1991). A social context that supports autonomy, like the environment found within WISEs, promotes intentionality and nurtures employees to pursue their personal goals (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). Intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000), as an inherent tendency to exercise one's capacities to learn and to explore, stands in stark contrast to extrinsic motivation, which hinges on materialistic rewards, instrumental recognition, or social recognition. In Study 3, the leader identity, based on the individual work-role identity, reflects an intrinsic work motivation. In contrast, a collective identity tends to be associated more with the group's interests, group goals (van Knippenberg, 2000), and social acceptance.

H6a: Leader identity is positively related to intrinsic work motivation.

H6b: Leader identity positively mediates the relationship of work-role identity salience and servant leadership to intrinsic work motivation.

H6c: Self-concept at the collective level is positively related to extrinsic work motivation.

H6d: Self-concept at the collective level positively mediates the relationship of perceived organisational support with extrinsic work motivation.

Self-Efficacy. Task-related self-efficacy is defined as "the conviction that one can successfully execute a given behavior required to produce certain outcomes" (Bandura, 1977, p.193). Self-efficacy influences the degree of effort put forth by an individual, and that person's persistence in the face of obstacles to achievement of the desired outcomes. A high level of self-efficacy in a person promotes greater effort by that individual and more persistence. Self-efficacy can influence both goal attributes and goal mediator mechanisms, such as task strategies adopted by employees to achieve work goals (Latham & Locke, 2007). Self-efficacy, which is considered to be a proximal motivational process by motivational theorists (Kanfer, 1990; Kanfer & Chen, 2016; Kanfer et al., 2017), can account for the variance of leadership identity. The perceived gap between the current state and the desired outcome will drive performance only if an individual sees the performance goal as achievable and, therefore, worthy of effort. Self-efficacy, then, as a proximal motivational construct relates to a person's proactive behaviour and personal initiative at both the individual and collective identity levels.

H7a: Leader identity is positively related to self-efficacy.

H7b: Leader identity positively mediates the relationship of work-role identity salience with self-efficacy.

H7c: Self-concept at the collective level is positively related to self-efficacy.

H7d: Self-concept at the collective level positively mediates the relationship of perceived organisational support with self-efficacy.

Figure 5.3 summarises the model with hypotheses used in Study 3.

Figure 5.3 Study 3: Hypothesised research model
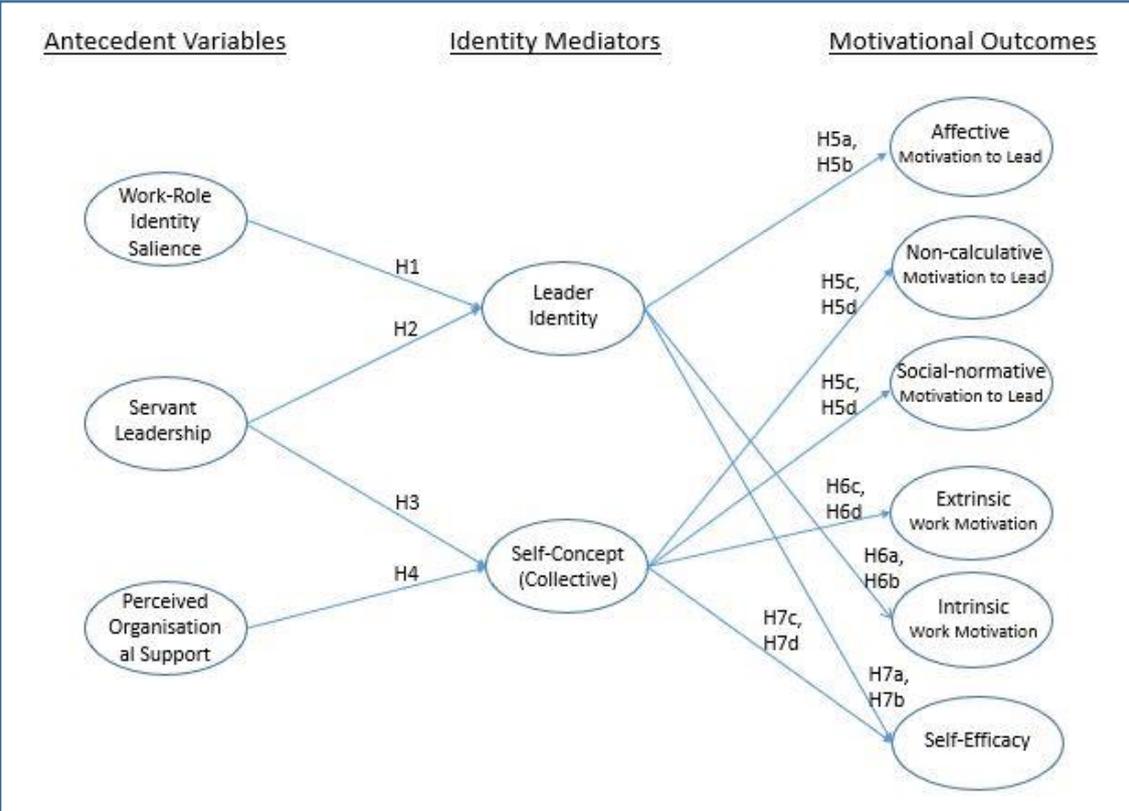
5.3   Methods

5.3.1   Sample and Procedure

In Study 3, 79 full-time and part-time employees (40 men and 39 women) from 9 social

enterprises and non-government organisations were surveyed. These participants voluntarily

completed the survey at their workplaces through face-to-face interviews. Each interview took

20–30 minutes to complete. These employees employed by the WISE included disadvantaged

individuals with disabilities (blind, deaf, or reliant on a wheelchair) and individuals who were

chronically ill, low-skilled, elderly without financial independence, ex-inmates, or academically

low-performing youth. The face-to-face interviews allowed the researcher to respond to queries

from respondents and to obtain an understanding of the workplace environment. Some of the

participating WISEs were subsidiaries of parent non-government organisations; others operated

independently as social enterprises. All of the enterprises shared a primary social mission of

158

providing employment for disadvantaged persons in the community, with profit-making being prioritised as a secondary goal. As the WISEs adhered to business models as means of achieving financial independence and offering job opportunities for these disadvantaged individuals, all of the respondents' work roles offered them the opportunity to have social interactions with customers. Table 5.1 provides a profile summary of these disadvantaged employees and the business nature of the WISEs.

Table 5.1 Study 3: Profile Summary of Participants and WISE Businesses

Business Nature of WISEs	Target Beneficiaries	*N*
1. Restaurant	Ex-inmates	6
2. Grocery store	Low-skilled local residents	14
3. Local tours for tourists/visitors	Low-skilled local residents	3
4. Local tours for tourists/visitors	Low-skilled local residents	5
5. Relocation and moving services	Ex-inmates	3
6. Bakery	Ex-inmates	2
7. Restaurants	Elderly who are not financially independent	15
8. Call centre	Disabled or chronically individuals	11
9. Eco-tours	Academically under-performing youth	20
	SUB-TOTAL (Used For Hypothesis Testing)	**79**
10. Dark and silence experiential tours	Blind and deaf employees (used in Studies 1 and 2)	36
11. Second-hand women's clothing boutique	Middle-aged females suffering from age discrimination (used in Studies 1 and 2)	25
	TOTAL (Used For Measurement Model Testing)	**140**

To encourage candidness by study participants, employees were given verbal assurances that their individual responses would be kept confidential and that only group data would be revealed to their employers. The response rate for the survey was 100%. The 79 interviews took three months to complete due to the need to negotiate access to the research sites and to carry out interviews. Moreover, as the social enterprise sector is still a developing sector, the researcher faced two constraints during data collection. First, these social enterprises are not large-scale operations, so the number of employees available for conducting data collection was small within each enterprise. This explains the difficulty of finding a large sample within a few

organisations. The study ultimately included data from nine new organisations, each with a range of 3–20 employees being involved. These were combined with data from Studies 1 and 2 for assessment of the measurement model, but only the data from the nine new organisations were used fro hypothesis testing. Second, it took time to negotiate the co-operation of the social enterprises for this field study.

5.3.2   Measures

Responses to a three-part questionnaire were used to measure the independent variables, identity mediators, and motivational outcome variables so as to examine the antecedents and motivational work outcomes of leader identity development. The independent variables included *work-role identity salience* (an intrapersonal antecedent), *servant leadership* (the relational antecedent), and *perceived organisational support* (the organisational contextual antecedent). The identity mediators included *leader identity* as well as *collective self-concept*. The outcome variables included *motivation to lead*, *work motivation*, and *self-efficacy*.

Unless otherwise noted, all responses were made on a five-point scale ranging from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 5 = 'strongly agree'.

Work-role identity salience was measured with Callero's (1985 five-item scale (α = .62). The items assessed the role–person merger of the employees' perceived salience at work. A sample item was 'Conducting XX is an important part of who I am'. *Perceived organisational support* was measured with Wayne et al.'s (2002) nine-item scale (α = .88). The items assessed the employees' perception of organisational valuation of employees' contributions and concern for employees' well-being. A sample item was 'The organisation strongly considers my goals and values'. *Servant leadership* was measured with Liden et al.'s (2015) seven-item scale (α = .79). The items assessed the employees' perceived leadership according to seven dimensions: (1) emotional healing, (2) creating value for the community, (3) conceptual skills, (4)

empowering, (5) helping subordinates, (6) putting subordinates first, and (7) behaving ethically. A sample item was 'My leader can tell if something work-related is going wrong'.

Leader Identity. Leader identity was measured with Hoffman's (2013 seven-item scale (α = .69). The items assessed the employees' perceived importance and confidence in leadership identification. A sample item was 'Being a leader is important to me'. *Self-concept* at the collective level was measured with Johnson, Selenta, and Lord's (2006) five-item scale. A sample item was 'Making a contribution to my work groups is very important to me'.

Motivation to lead (MTL) was measured with Chan and Drasgow's (2001) 27-item scale. The items assessed individual differences and employees' motivation to be involved in leadership according to three dimensions: (1) affective motivation to lead (α =.85), (2) non-calculative motivation to lead (α = .76), and (3) social-normative motivation to lead (α = .74). The composite reliability was α = .50. Sample items were 'Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group' (affective motivation to lead); 'I am only interested in leading a group if there are clear advantages for me' (non-calculative motivation to lead); and 'I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked' (social-normative motivation to lead).

Work motivation was measured with Gagne et al.'s (2010) 19-item scale. The items assessed the employees' work motivation according to six dimensions: (1) amotivation (α = .79), (2) extrinsic regulation—social motivation (α = .69), (3) externally regulation—material motivation (α = .71), (4) introjected regulated motivation (α = .81), (5) identified regulated motivation (α = .84), and (6) intrinsic motivation (α = .85). For some analyses, five of the dimensions were further collapsed into more global extrinsic factors (specifically, extrinsic regulation—social motivation, extrinsic regulation—material motivation, and introjected regulated motivation) and intrinsic factors (specifically, identified regulated and intrinsic

motivation). Amotivation was kept separate, as it did not co-vary substantially with other factors. The stem for all items was 'Why do you or would you put efforts into your current job'? A seven-item Likert scale was used (1 =' not at all', 2 = 'very little', 3 = 'a little', 4 = 'moderately', 5 = 'strongly', 6 = 'very strongly', 7 = 'completely'). A sample item was 'To get others' approval . . . (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, family, clients . . .)'.

Self-efficacy was measured with Sherer, Maddux, Mercandate, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs, and Rogers's (1982) eight-item scale (α = .81). The items assessed the employees' belief in their ability to successfully perform a behaviour. A sample item was 'I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself'.

5.3.3   Translation of Questionnaire Items

All the measurement instruments were translated from English to Chinese, and then back-translated, before they were used in the experiment. A Ph.D. student at Hong Kong Baptist University Business School conducted the translation from English to Chinese. An undergraduate psychology student at Sheffield University (United Kingdom) then did the back-translation. I then checked that the Chinese translation matched the English scales as accurately as possible.

5.3.4   Data Analysis and Fit Indices

Data analysis technique consisted of structural equation modelling, factor analysis performed using MPlus version 7 (Muthuen & Muthuen, 2012) and correlational analysis and reliability analysis performed using SPSS 20. The goodness of fit of the models was evaluated using absolute and relative indices. The absolute goodness-of-fit indices (cf. Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993) calculated were (1) the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic, (2) the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), and (3) the standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR).

Acceptable fit depends on such considerations as the size of the sample and the complexity of the theoretical model. Given this, I elected (based on Kline, 2011) to use a comparative fit index (CFI) value of .90 as indicative of an adequate fit. For the RMSEA, I interpreted a good fit as a value less than .05, a moderate fit as a value between .08 and .05, and a poor fit as a value greater than .10. SRMR that yielded a value greater than .10 was considered to indicate a poor fit.

Due to the small sample size for Study 3 ($N = 79$), the estimation of measurement model included data collected from the samples ($N = 60$) in Studies 1 and 2 (which also provided data for all of the Study 3 variables) to test expected relations of the manifest indicators to their appropriate latent variables. Therefore, the total sample size for the measurement model analysis was 140. I tested the hypotheses using structural equation modelling with maximum likelihood estimation with the smaller sample of $N = 79$. Structural equation modelling corrected for the measurement error in the multi-item measures tested in the measurement models, and allowed for testing the hypothesised relationships simultaneously in the structural models.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Descriptive Data

Table 5.2 reports means, standard deviations, and correlations among the Study 3 variables ($N = 79$). The pattern of correlations was generally supportive of the proposed model, with significant correlational coefficients ranging in value from $r = .22$ to .71.

As would be expected, the proposed antecedent variables of work-role identity salience and servant leadership were significantly correlated with leader identity *(r = **0.39**, p < **.01**; r = **.26**, p < **.05***), while servant leadership and perceived organisational support were significantly

Table 5.2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations among Variables ($N = 79$)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Gender[1]	.49	.503											
Age[2]	3.06	1.904											
Education[3]	1.47	.830											
1. Work-role identity salience	3.95	.47	—										
2. Servant leadership	3.89	.38	.27*	—									
3. Perceived organisational support	3.93	.39	.48**	.71**	—								
4. Leader identity	3.86	.29	.39**	.26*	.19	—							
5. Self-concept (collective)	4.03	.33	.40**	.41**	.57**	.44**	—						
6. Affective motivation to lead	3.20	.59	.09	.01	.01	.22	.25*	—					
7. Non-calculative motivation to lead	3.66	.44	.31**	.31**	.36**	.35**	.33**	.36**	—				
8. Social-normative motivation to lead	3.58	.41	.38**	.32**	.46**	.36**	.53**	.44**	.39**	—			
9. Extrinsic work motivation	4.46	1.27	.28*	.22	.26*	.13	.33*	–.03	–.06	.25*	—		
10. Intrinsic work motivation	.08	2.13	.24*	.47**	.38**	.30**	.16	–.07	.17	.28*	.30**	—	
11. Self-efficacy	3.90	.36	.04	.21	.25*	.35**	.45**	.35*	.31**	.35**	.11	.13	—

[1] 0 = male; 1 = female.
[2] 1 = 18–25; 2 = 26–35; 3 = 36–45; 4 = 46–55; 5 = more than 55.
[3] 1 = secondary school or less; 2 = college or diploma; 3 = degree; 4 = master's degree or higher.
* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.
Coefficient α, where applicable, is on the diagonal.

Table 5.3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations among Variables ($N = 140$)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Gender[1]	.58	.496											
Age[2]	3.29	1.663											
Education[3]	1.53	.909											
1. Work-role identity salience	3.94	.46	—										
2. Servant leadership	3.83	.43	.28**	—									
3. Perceived organisational support	3.90	.39	.34**	.69**	—								
4. Leader identity	3.90	.33	.49**	.19*	.09	—							
5. Self-concept (collective)	4.02	.32	.35**	.28**	.36**	.34**	—						
6. Affective motivation to lead	3.19	.62	.18*	.11	.00	.32**	.27**	—					
7. Non-calculative motivation to lead	3.65	.43	.24**	.23**	.14	.25**	.07	.21*	—				
8. Social-normative motivation to lead	3.58	.38	.33**	.33**	.44**	.30**	.54**	.36**	.12	—			
9. Extrinsic work motivation	4.52	1.27	.20*	.19*	.23**	.10	.22*	.03	–.10	.28**	—		
10. Intrinsic work motivation	0.07	2.15	.24*	.36**	.33**	.29**	.19*	.17*	.24**	.37**	.41**	—	
11. Self-efficacy	3.86	.39	.08	.22**	.19*	.30**	.25**	.22*	.20*	.19*	.31**	.09	—

[1] 0 = male; 1 = female.
[2] 1 = 18–25; 2 = 26–35; 3 = 36–45; 4 = 46–55; 5 = more than 55.
[3] 1 = secondary school or less; 2 = college or diploma; 3 = degree; 4 = master's degree or higher.
* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.
Coefficient α, where applicable, is on the diagonal.

correlated with the self-concept at the collective level ($r = .41$, $p < .01$; $r = .57$, $p < .01$), respectively.

Most of the outcome variables were correlated with all or most of the three antecedents, except for affective motivation to lead and self-efficacy. It is notable in Table 5.2 that the correlation of POS with collective identity ($r = .57$, $p < .01$) was higher than the respective correlations for work-role identity salience and servant leadership with leader identity ($r = .39$, $p < .01$; $r = .26$, $p < .05$). Moreover, the correlations of the collective identity with social-normative motivation to lead ($r = .53$, $p < .01$) and with self-efficacy ($r = .45$, $p < .01$) were higher than the correlations of leader identity with non-calculative motivation to lead ($r = .35$, $p < .01$) and with self-efficacy ($r = .35$, $p < .01$). These differences in the correlational coefficients suggest that the interpersonal factor of POS has a relatively strong impact on employees who are engaged in a prosocial work environment. These findings initially suggested relatively strong collective identity effects on WISE employees and their motivational outcomes. These effects are further discussed with regard to hypothesis testing analyses. Table 5.3 reports means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables of the measurement model sample ($N = 140$). The overall pattern of correlations was similar to those shown in Table 5.2 with affective motivation to lead showing significant correlations with work-role identity salience ($r = .18$, $p < .05$) and leader identity ($r = .49$, $p < .01$). Moreover, intrinsic motivation in the measurement model sample (N=140) has significant correlations with affective ($r = .17$, $p < .05$) and non-calcuative ($r = .24$, $p < .05$) motivation to lead which were not found in the smaller sample (N=79).

5.4.2 Analysis Approach

A two-step approach was used to test the hypotheses that corresponded to paths in the structural model. First, the appropriateness and soundness of the measurement model was confirmed, and then followed by the testing of path models.

I performed a confirmatory factor analysis to ensure that the items properly loaded onto the expected factors for the measurement model. An item parcelling technique (Hall, Snell, & Foust, 1999) was used for testing the measurement models. Given the relatively small sample size and the desire to increase the reliability of indicators, items were randomly assigned to item parcels. The values were then averaged to create parcel scores. The use of item parcels rather than individual items as manifest indicators of the latent constructs allowed for maintaining an adequate sample-size-to-parameter ratio (Bentler & Cho, 1988). For the testing of the structural models, scale scores were used. Once the construct validity and the reliability of the measures were established, the path models were tested using the scale score variables. The emphasis of the path model tests was on parameter estimation for hypothesis testing purposes, instead of focusing on the fit indices for the path models.

Measurement Model. The measurement model was assessed with two separate analyses due to sample size considerations. The first set of analyses tested the relations between the latent antecedents and the mediating variables. The second set of analyses tested just the latent outcome variables and relationships among them. Model fit indices are provided in Tables 5.4 and 5.5, which show the analyses for alternative models.

Table 5.4 Independent Variables and Mediators ($N = 140$)

Model	χ^2	df	p	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p
1[a]	46.058	34	0.0812	.980	.050	.045	—	—	
2[b]	69.286	38	0.0014	.949	.077	.069	23.23	4	$p < .05$

[a] Model 1: Work-role identity salience, servant leadership, perceived organisational support, leader identity, and self-concept at the collective level as five latent factors.

[b] Model 2: Work-role identity salience, servant leadership, perceived organisational support, and one identity variable as four latent factors.

The initial measurement model for antecedent and mediating variables (Model 1) provided an initial fit to the data when all the fit statistics were considered: χ^2(df = 34, N = 140) = 46.058, p = .0812; CFI = .980; RMSEA = .050; SRMR = .045. Model 1 specified three latent antecedent variables (work-role identity salience, servant leadership, and perceived organisational support) and two mediating variables (leader identity and collective self-concept). Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to examine the distinctiveness of the two mediating variables (by combining leader identity and collective self-concept) in Model 2.

When comparing Models 1 and 2, the change in the chi square statistics was significant between the models. Therefore, Model 1 remained a better fit model. Model 1 with more latent factors presented a smaller χ^2 value, implying that Model 1 (which includes more factors) explains the data significantly better, and the loss in model parsimony is adequately compensated for the gain in model fit.

Table 5.5 Dependent Variables Only ($N = 140$)

Model	χ^2	df	p	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p
3[a]	98.37	51	<0.0001	.942	.08	.05	—	—	
4[b]	242.93	60	<0.0001	.776	.15	.11	144.56	9	$p < .05$
5[c]	255.31	56	<0.0001	.756	.16	.14	156.94	5	$p < .05$

[a] Model 3: Affective motivation to lead, non-calculative motivation to lead, social-normative motivation to lead, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy as six latent factors.

[b] Model 4: Motivation to lead as a composite factor, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy as four latent factors.

Analyses of the measurement models for the outcome variables (Models 3, 4, and 5) of affective, non-calculative, and social-normative motivation to lead; extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation; and self-efficacy were also conducted. Model 3 specified six latent variables (affective, and non-calculative, social-normative motivation to lead; extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation; and self-efficacy). Model 4 combined the three motivation to lead latent factors (affective, non-calculative and social-normative motivation to lead) into one factor and considered this factor together with extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy as a four latent factor analysis. Model 5 combined the two work motivation variables as one latent factor to be analysed, with the three motivation to lead latent factors (affective, non-calculative, and social-normative motivation to lead) and self-efficacy in a five latent factor analysis.

Similarly, when comparing Models 3, 4, and 5, the change in the chi square statistics was significant between the models. Therefore, Model 3 remained a better fit model in explaining the outcome variables based on six latent factors. The measurement models support intended number of underlying latent factors.

In addition to the information provided by the model fit indices, the normalised residuals for co-variances between indicators of the latent constructs in Models 1 and 3 were reviewed; significant co-variances were not found. The absence of significant measurement error co-variances suggested that the observed correlations among parcels can be explained by the intended underlying factors. Table 5.6 presents the values of the correlations among the latent constructs as estimated in the preferred Measurement Models 1 and 3.

Table 5.6 Intercorrelations among Latent Variables ($N = 140$)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Work-role identity salience	—										
2. Servant leadership	.04**	—									
3. Perceived organisational support	.06**	.18**	—								
4. Leader identity	.07**	.03*	.02	—							
5. Self-concept (collective)	.04**	.03**	.04**	.04**	—						
6. Affective motivation to lead	.04	.03	.00	.07**	.04**	—					
7. Non-calculative motivation to lead	.04**	.04*	.02	.04**	.01	.05*	—				
8. Social-normative motivation to lead	.06**	.07**	.05**	.04**	.06**	.07**	.02	—			
9. Extrinsic work motivation	.04**	.07**	.06**	.02*	.03**	.03*	.00	.04**	—		
10. Intrinsic work motivation	.06**	.07**	.08**	.03	.01	.03	.00	.04*	.05**	—	
11. Self-efficacy	.05*	.13**	.12*	.02	.04**	-.01	.02	.05**	.08**	.06**	—

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.
Coefficient α, where applicable, is on the diagonal.

5.4.3 Tests of Hypotheses

I tested structural path models (see Figures 5.4 and 5.5 later in this chapter) in which the intrapersonal antecedent of work-role identity salience and interpersonal antecedents of servant leadership and perceived organisational support were specified to relate to the work motivational outcome variables of motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy. These relationships were specified to be both direct and indirect (i.e., acting through the mediators of leader identity and collective self-concept). The hypothesised models were tested with structural equation modelling using MPlus version 7 (Muthuen & Muthuen, 2012). As explained earlier, the structural model using scale scores of all the variables was applied to obtain the estimates of

the direct and indirect effects in the hypothesis testing. Given the small sample size, the structural model testing was divided into two analyses: The first analysis tested the outcome of the motivation to lead with the antecedents and mediators in one model, and the second analysis tested the outcomes of work motivation and self-efficacy with the antecedents and mediators in another model.

Controls, including gender, age, and education, were included by specifying pathways to control alternative explanations for the antecedent–motivational link. Testing these models revealed whether the associations described in Hypotheses 1–7 were supported. To ensure the robustness of the results, the model was also tested without controls. Because the results showed only minor changes, the results reported here come from the models without the control variables.

The path coefficients in the next sections come from two models. The first model included all antecedents and mediators, but only the three motivation to lead outcomes. Fit of this model was adequate (CFI = .912, SRMR = .050), although the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic was significant, χ^2(df = 1) = 11.898, p = .0006, and the RMSEA was large (= .371) due to the nearly saturated nature of the model. The second model included all antecedents and mediators, plus the two work motivation and self-efficacy outcomes. The fit of this model was less adequate compared to the first model (CFI = .892, SRMR = .069), although the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistics were significant, χ^2(df = 1) = 11.898, p = .0006, and the RMSEA was large (= .371) due to the close to saturated nature of the model. Both of these models included all possible paths, with the exception of a co-variance between the disturbance terms of the two mediating variables. This allowed assessment of the statistical significance of both hypothesised and non-hypothesised relationships. (Supplementary analyses including only the hypothesised mediating paths plus all possible direct paths are included in Appendix 4).

Testing for Direct Effects of Antecedents on Mediators. Table 5.7 presents the direct

effects of the antecedents on the identity variables as proposed in Hypotheses 1–4. As

hypothesised, work-role identity salience was positively related to leader identity ($\beta = $ **.41**, p

$< $ **.001**). It was not expected to be related to self-concept at the collective level, and indeed the

estimate was not significant at conventional levels ($\beta = .17$, $p = .09$). Servant leadership was

positively related to leader identity as hypothesised ($\beta = $ **.30**, $p = $ **.03**), but, contrary to

expectations, it was not related to self-concept at the collective level ($\beta = .03$, $p = .81$). POS was

related to self-concept at the collective level as hypothesised ($\beta = $ **.47**, $p < $ **.001**) and, as expected,

was not related to leader identity ($\beta = -.22$, $p = .17$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 (effect of work-

role identity salience on leader identity), Hypothesis 2 (effect of servant leadership on leader

identity), and Hypothesis 4 (effect of perceived organisational support on collective self-concept)

were supported, while Hypothesis 3 (effect of servant leadership on collective self-concept) was

not supported.

Table 5.7 Direct Effects of Antecedents on Mediators ($N = 79$)

Identity Variables/ Antecedents	Work-Role Identity Salience			Servant Leadership			Perceived Organisational Support		
	β	se	p	β	se	p	β	se	p
Leader identity	**.410****	**.095**	**.000**	**.302***	**.141**	**.033**	−.215	.156	.168
Self-concept (collective)	.173	.103	.092	**.031**	**.129**	**.812**	**.467****	**.135**	**.001**

Note: Boldfaced values are for hypothesised paths; regular font indicates additional non-hypothesised paths.
* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Testing for Direct Effects of Mediators on Outcomes. Hypotheses 5a and 5c posited that

leader identity and collective self-concept have direct effects on specific components of

motivation to lead. Table 5.8 presents the direct effects of leader identity and self-concept at the

collective level on three motivation to lead outcome variables (affective, non-calculative, and

social-normative MTL). Hypothesis 5a, which proposed that leader identity is positively related

to affective MTL, was not supported ($\beta = .12$, $p = .36$). Hypothesis 5c, which proposed that self-

concept at the collective level is positively related to non-calculative and social-normative MTL, was partially supported. Collective self-concept was significantly related to social-normative MTL (β = **.30**, p = **.01**) but not related to non-calculative MTL (β = .06, p = .63). In addition, the following non-hypothesised relations were noted to be statistically significant: Leader identity was significantly related to non-calculative MTL (β = **.23**, p = **.05**), and collective self-concept was significantly related to affective MTL (β = **.30**, p = **.03**). As expected, leader identity was not significantly related to social-normative motivation to lead.

Table 5.8 Direct Effects of Identity Variables on Motivation to Lead Variables (N = 79)

	Identity Variables						
	Leader Identity				Self-Concept (Collective)		
Motivation to lead	β	se	p		β	se	p
Affective	**.119**	**.130**	**.362**		.304*	.141	.031
Non-calculative	.230*	.118	.052		**.064**	**.134**	**.632**
Social normative	.159	.111	.152		**.299***	**.121**	**.013**

Note: Boldfaced values are for hypothesised paths; regular font indicates additional non-hypothesised paths.
* p < .05, two-tailed. ** p < .01, two-tailed.

Hypotheses 6a, 6c, 7a and 7c posited that leader identity and collective self-concept have direct effects on work motivation and self-efficacy. Table 5.9 presents the direct effects of leader identity and the collective self-concept on work motivation (including both intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation) and self-efficacy. Leader identity was positively related to intrinsic work motivation (β = **.23**, p = **.03**) and self-efficacy (β = **.29**, p = **.02**). Collective self-concept was significantly correlated with extrinsic work motivation (β = **.28**, p = **.04**) and self-efficacy (β = **.39**, p = **.00**). Therefore, Hypotheses 6a, 6c, 7a and 7c were supported.

Table 5.9 Direct Effects of Identity Variables on Work Motivation and Self-Efficacy (N = 79)

	Identity Variables						
	Leader Identity				Self-Concept (Collective)		
Work motivation	β	se	p		β	se	p
Extrinsic motivation	−.081	.123	.513		**.275***	**.134**	**.040**
Intrinsic motivation	**.234***	**.110**	**.033**		−.209	.123	.090
Self-efficacy	**.285***	**.118**	**.015**		**.393****	**.128**	**.002**

Note: Boldfaced values are for hypothesised paths; regular font indicates additional non-hypothesised paths.
* p < .05, two-tailed. ** p < .01, two-tailed.

Testing for Indirect Effects of Antecedents via Identity Mediators. Table 5.10 presents the indirect effects of leader identity on the relationships between the three antecedent variables of work-role identity salience, servant leadership, and perceived organisational support and the motivational outcome variables as hypothesised in Hypotheses 5b, 5d, 6b, 6d, 7b, and 7d. The significant mediation results appear in boldface. Leader identity significantly and positively mediated the relationship between work-role identity salience and self-efficacy (ab = **.12**, p = **.05**), as hypothesised in Hypothesis 7b. Collective self-concept significantly mediated the relationship between perceived organisational support and social-normative motivation to lead (ab = **.14**, p = **.05**), as hypothesised in Hypothesis 5d. Moreover, collective self-concept significantly mediated the relationship between perceived organisational support and self-efficacy (ab = **.18**, p = **.02**) as hypothesised in Hypothesis 7d. However, leader identity did not significantly mediate the relationship of work-role identity salience (ab = .05, p = .38) or servant leadership (ab = .04, p = .40) with affective MTL, as proposed in Hypothesis 5b.

Table 5.10 Indirect Effects of Antecedents via Identity Mediators (N = 79)

	Identity Variables					
	Leader Identity			**Self-Concept (Collective)**		
	ab	*se*	*p*	*ab*	*se*	*p*
Antecedent: Work-Role Identity Salience						
Motivation to lead						
Affective	**.049**	**.06**	**.377**	.053	.04	.185
Non-calculative	.094	.06	.087	.011	.02	.646
Social normative	.065	.05	.183	.052	.04	.164
Extrinsic motivation	−.033	.05	.520	.048	.04	.193
Intrinsic motivation	**.096**	**.05**	**.067**	−.036	.03	.235
Self-efficacy	**.117***	**.06**	**.046**	.117	.06	.145
Antecedent: Servant Leadership						
Motivation to lead						
Affective	**.036**	**.04**	**.403**	.009	.04	.814
Non-calculative	.069	.05	.153	.002	.01	.832
Social normative	.048	.04	.237	.009	.04	.813
Extrinsic motivation	−.024	.04	.532	.008	.04	.814
Intrinsic motivation	**.071**	**.05**	**.131**	−.006	.03	.814
Self-efficacy	**.086**	**.05**	**.112**	.012	.05	.813
Antecedent: Perceived Organisational Support						
Motivation to lead						
Affective	−.026	.03	.448	.142	.08	.071

Non-calculative	−.050	.04	.264	**.030**	**.06**	**.636**
Social normative	−.034	.04	.324	**.140***	**.07**	**.046**
Extrinsic motivation	.017	.03	.555	**.129**	**.07**	**.081**
Intrinsic motivation	−.050	.04	.250	−.098	.07	.131
Self-efficacy	−.061	.05	.236	**.183***	**.08**	**.024**

* p < .05, two-tailed. ** p < .01, two-tailed.

In sum, the indirect effect results supported Hypotheses 5d, 7b and 7d. Thus, three out of the six hypotheses on the proposed identity mediation model were supported, leaving Hypotheses 5b, 6b, and 6d not supported.

In view of the limitation created by the small sample size, it is worth noting a few marginally non-significant indirect effects related to the unsupported Hypotheses 6b and 6d. The results for the indirect effects—leader identity on the relationship between work-role identity salience and intrinsic motivation ($\beta = .10$, $p = .067$); collective self-concept on the relationship between perceived organisational support and extrinsic work motivation ($\beta = .13$, $p = .081$)— were marginally non-significant and were close to supporting Hypotheses 6b and 6d. Although the lack of power of the small sample size constrained the testing of the hypotheses, these marginally non-significant results provide reason for optimism regarding replication studies of the same model with a larger sample size in the future.

In addition to the hypothesised indirect effects of antecedents on the outcomes, the models contained direct paths from the antecedents to the outcomes, as is typically recommended when assessing mediator models. These additional relationships are reported for completeness, although these effects were not hypothesised. Table 5.11 presents the direct effects of the antecedents on the outcome variables when the mediating paths are also present in the model for reference.

Table 5.11 Direct Effects of Antecedents on Outcome Variables ($N = 79$)

Outcome Variables/ Antecedents	Work-Role Identity Salience			Servant Leadership			Perceived Organisational Support		
	β	se	p	β	se	p	β	se	p
Motivation to lead									
Affective	.017	.133	.897	−.010	.158	.950	−.188	.186	.311
Non-calculative	.092	.123	.454	.072	.147	.625	.180	.172	.296
Social normative	.097	.113	.391	−.039	.135	.775	.245	.159	.122
Extrinsic motivation	.190	.126	.131	.111	.151	.461	−.053	.179	.768
Intrinsic motivation	.052	.116	.654	**.334***	.136	**.014**	.190	.162	.242
Self-efficacy	**−.283***	.120	.018	−.032	.144	.823	.132	.170	.436

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Figure 5.4 depicts the complete path analysis model summarising the relationships between the antecedents, the mediators, and the outcomes variables of affective, non-calculative, and social-normative MTL. Moreover, collective identity was found to predict affective MTL ($\beta = .30$, $p = .03$). As shown in Figure 5.4, the three motivation to lead outcome variables have error terms with covariance of disturbances between affective motivation to lead and non-calcuative motivation to lead ($r = .34**$); non-calculative motivation to lead and social-normative motivation to lead ($r = .19*$); and affective motivation to lead and social-normative motivation to lead ($r = .42**$). These results show that the three outcome variables share common omitted cause(s). This will be addressed in the limitation section.

Figure 5.4 Path model of antecedents, mediators, and outcome variables including affective, non-calculative, and social-normative motivation to lead and self-efficacy
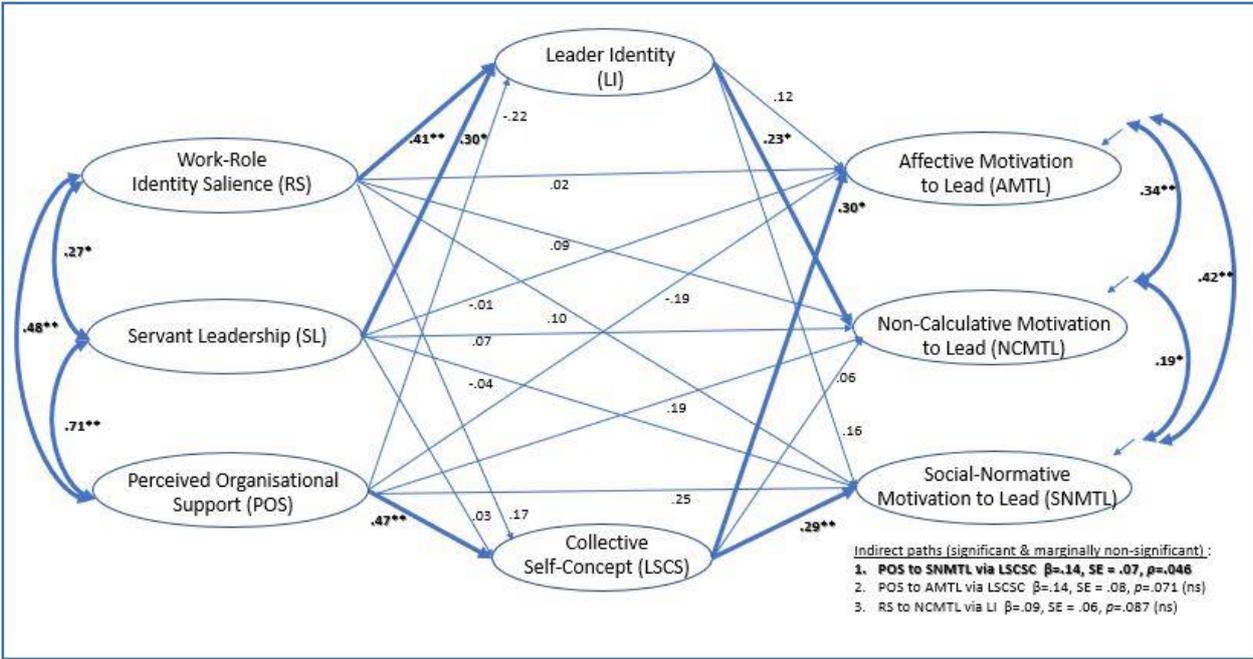
Figure 5.5 provides the path analysis model summarising the mediation results of the relationships between the antecedents and the outcome variables of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy. The correlation between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation was shown. A similar beta weight was found, as shown in Table 5.2. Moreover, the direct effect of servant leadership on intrinsic motivation ($\beta = .33$, $p = .01$) was included. As shown in Figure 5.5, the two work motivation outcome variables have error terms with covariance of disturbances between extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation to lead ($r = .26*$) This result shows that the two outcome variables share common a omitted cause. This will be addressed in the limitation section.

Figure 5.5 Path model of antecedents, mediators, and outcome variables including extrinsic and intrinsic work motivation and self-efficacy
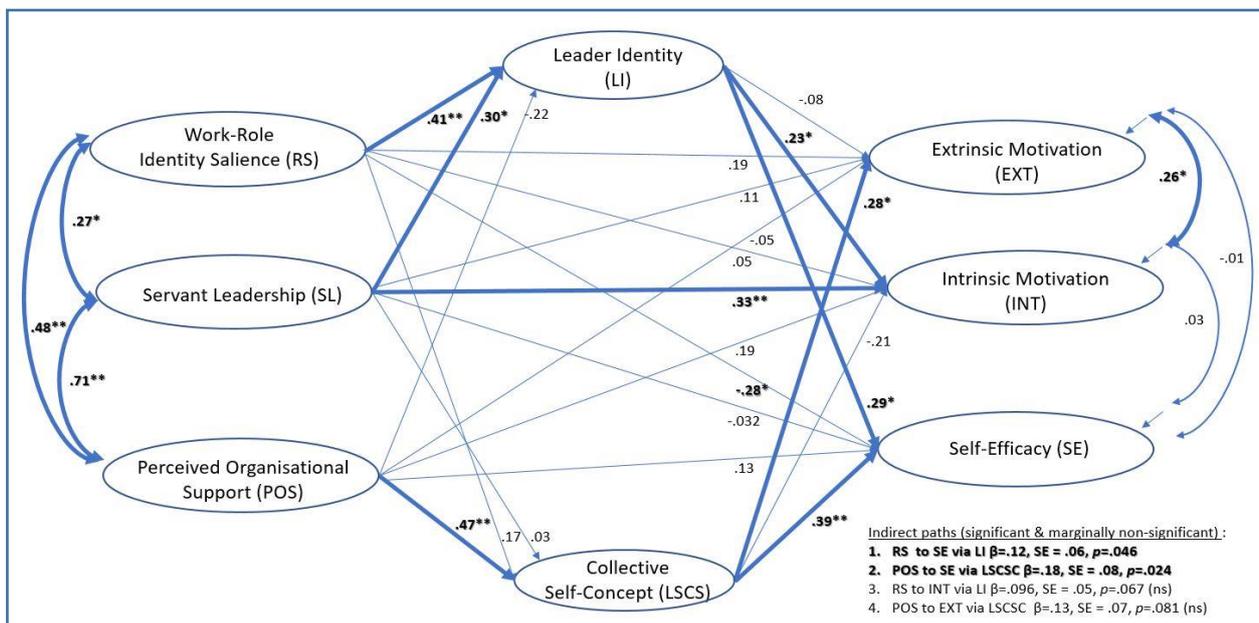
The question arises of whether the results from the two models just presented would differ substantially if the models had been estimated with only the hypothesised mediating paths and no other mediating paths (but still including all possible direct paths from antecedents to outcomes). Those two different sets of models can be compared along two dimensions: (1) model fit (see Table 5.12) and (2) proportion of variance explained (i.e., R^2) for the six outcome variables (see Table 5.13).

Table 5.12 Comparison of Model Fit for All Possible Mediator Path
Models versus Hypothesised Mediated Paths–Only Models

	χ^2 (df)	p	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	Δ df	p
Motivation to Lead Models							
All possible mediated paths	11.898(1)	.0006	.371	.912	.050		
Hypothesised mediated paths only	27.384(6)	.0001	.212	.828	.085	5	.004
Work Motivation and Self-Efficacy Models							
All possible mediated paths	11.898(1)	.0006	.371	.899	.069		
Hypothesised mediated paths only	19.832(5)	.0013	.194	.863	.056	4	.045

For the motivaton to lead models, the "all possible mediated paths" model had a better fit according to all indices shown in the table except RMSEA. For the work motivation and self-efficacy models, the result was more ambiguous, with the CFI better for "all possible paths" model but other indices supporting the "hypothesised mediated paths only" model.

Table 5.13 R^2 for Outcome Variables

	MTLA	MTLNC	MTLSN	EXT	INT	SE
All possible mediated paths model	.082	.209	.331	.155	.297	.241
Hypothesised model	.015	.163	.288	.146	.260	.268

For the motivaton to lead outcomes, there were more variances in outcomes explained by the "all possible mediated paths" model.   For the work motivation and self-efficacy models, more variances in outcomes were explained by the "all possible mediated paths" model, but for self-efficacy, "hypothesised model" explained more.

5.5   Discussion

Overall, the reported results provide some support for the proposed identity mediation model (Figure 5.2), though the results are stronger in some respects and weaker in others. First, as an important precondition to looking at the structural relationships, the two measurement models provided a good fit to the Study 3 data. That is, the CFA, RMSEA, and SRMR resulted in good fit indices for both Models 1 and 3. This suggests that the measures used in the study demonstrated construct validity, and that although they are interrelated, the constructs did not overlap too much.

Second, the estimates for the direct and indirect effects resulting from the path model analyses supported the major hypotheses, despite the lower statistical power that would be

expected with the relatively small sample size. More specifically, two of the three antecedent variables (work-role identity salience and servant leadership) significantly predicted leader identity, with the positive signs of these relationships indicating that employees who had a higher level of work-role identity salience and leader identity were likely to have a stronger leader identity. In addition, perceived organisational support significantly predicted collective self-concept, such that higher levels of perceived organisational support were associated with higher levels of collective self-concept. Taken together, these results suggest direct links between employees' work experience and leadership-related identity development. The identity variables were also shown in several instances to carry (i.e., mediate) the effects of work-role identity salience and aspects of the organisational environment over motivational variables related to leadership.

Table 5.14 summarises the extent to which the mediator hypotheses were significantly supported. In this table, results (of unstandardised values) are grouped by whether the effects are from intrapersonal (i.e., work-role identity salience) or interpersonal (i.e., perceived organisational support and servant leadership) antecedent variables. This grouping provides some evidence for both types of antecedents, with stronger evidence supporting the roles of the two interpersonal factors in influencing individual motivational outcomes. Specifically, two hypotheses support the indirect effects of the interpersonal antecedent variables on motivational outcomes, while only one significant hypothesis supports the indirect effect of the intrapersonal antecedent variable.

Table 5.14 Summary of the Mediated Effects (Significant and Marginally Non-significant) of Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Antecedents on Motivational Outcomes via Identity Variables

	Mediated Pathway	Result	Indirect Effect [LLCI, ULCI]	p
	Intrapersonal			
H5b	Work-role identity salience to affective MTL via leader identity	Not supported	.05 [−.07, .20]	.38
H6b	Work-role identity salience to intrinsic motivation via leader identity	Marginally not supported	.44 [−.04, .92]	.067
H7b	Work-role identity salience to self-efficacy via leader identity	Supported	.09 [.00, .17]	**.046**
	Interpersonal			
H5d	Perceived organisational support to social-normative MTL via collective self-concept	Supported	.14 [.00, .29]	**.046**
H6d	Perceived organisational support to extrinsic motivation via collective self-concept	Marginally not supported	.42 [−.06, .91]	.081
H7d	Perceived organisational support to self-efficacy via collective self-concept	Supported	.17 [.02, .31]	**.024**

Note. LLCI = lower limit for .05 confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit for .05 confidence interval.

Theoretical Implications. The primary research objective of Study 3 was to extend the findings of Studies 1 and 2 related to the intrapersonal identity work effect on leader identity by examining the determinants of leader identity at work simultaneously with the collective self-concept variable. Since the antecedent variables of work-role identity salience, servant leadership, and POS were found to be positively related to all identity variables, the Study 3 results suggested that both intrapersonal and interpersonal factors are related to individualised and collective self-conception. Thus, intrapersonal and interpersonal factors appear to play crucial roles in affecting the dynamic self at work for the situated construal of identities.

The self at work relies on both intrapersonal cognitive processes and interpersonal social processes in achieving self-conception. However, seldom has research examined the relationships of these processes with work outcomes as mediated through multiple identity influences. Although some prior empirical efforts have sought to examine employees' dual organisational identification foci (Kark et al., 2003; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000; Vora & Kostova, 2007), few of these studies systematically investigated related impacts on

motivation. The results of Study 3 did not suggest that the participants had dual identification

foci because only one situated identity should be activated at a specific time (Lord & Chui,

2018). Yet, a major goal of Study 3 was to investigate the relationships between identities and

motivational consequences. Formal examinations of the identification–motivation link along the

personal and social identification foci remain sparse despite the continuous discussions of this

relationship's importance (Diefendorff et al., 2018; Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000; van

Knippenberg, 2000). As some of the mediated hypotheses at both the intrapersonal and

interpersonal levels received significant support, Study 3 extends our understanding of how

identity complexity can affect different motivational consequences of dynamic selves at work

under the influence of both intrapersonal and interpersonal factors.

The second objective in conducting Study 3 was to test the extent to which leader

identity and collective self-concept were related to the motivational outcome variables. Despite

the small sample size ($N = 79$), leader identity was found to have significant direct effects on

non-calculative motivation to lead, intrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy. Collective self-

concept was found to have significant direct effects on affective and social-normative

motivation to lead, extrinsic motivation, and self-efficacy. These findings support the self-

determination theory perspective that posits the interface between organisational factors and the

self is crucial and deserves more attention in research inquiry (Diefendorff et al., 2018). This

person-centred approach in examining the motivational consequences of the self at work extends

organisational theories on the importance of identity development in advancing self-

development, including leadership development.

The third objective of Study 3 was to extend the examination of the identity mediational

effects to include work motivation and self-efficacy variables. This extension addresses the

causal chain effects of the mediating effects of identity work on the relationship of work-role

identity salience with leader identity development, as revealed through effects on the motivation

to lead. The significant mediational effects found in Study 3 supported Hypotheses 5d, 7b, and 7d, thereby showing that the identity mediators had effects on some motivational outcomes including motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy. Table 5.14 summarised the total indirect and direct effects of the intrapersonal processes versus the interpersonal processes on motivational outcomes. The comparison showed that in the prosocial WISE environment, the indirect effects of interpersonal factors can be relatively stronger than those of intrapersonal factors. This result aligns with the social identity literature, which suggests that salient group membership creates a self-categorisation effect in which individuals conceive of themselves in terms of their membership in the group, integrating the shared norms, values, and beliefs into their own self-schemas. The social identity within WISEs is typically strong and salient, as these employees share a similar history and fate of being disadvantaged and, in turn, develop a sort of self-anchoring in their shared identity.

In general, the identity mediators in Study 3 were shown to influence individual work outcomes. The results of Study 3 align with the identity-based leadership literature in demonstrating how followers' leader identity and collective self-concepts can be influenced by contextual factors, such as leadership, that affect their proximal and distal motivational outcomes (Lord et al., 1999; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; van Knippenberg et al., 2004). The mediation tests support the notion that leader identity and self-concept affect motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy. In other words, the data of Study 3 suggest that the interplay of intrapersonal (work-role identity salience) and interpersonal (predominantly perceived organisational support) dynamics contribute to personal and social identifications that encourage motivational tendencies, some proximal and some distal. These kinds of proactive attitudes can have strong implications for individual personal development, which ultimately hinges on long-term cognitive, affective, and behavioural regulations.

The antecedent variable of servant leadership exerted a direct effect only on intrinsic motivation ($\beta = .30$, $p = .03$) and did not show any significant mediating effects on motivational outcomes, despite having a significant effect on leader identity ($\beta = .23$, $p = .03$), as hypothesised. There might be a few interpretations for this relatively weak effect. First, the statistical power was constrained by the small sample size. Second, this finding might reflect the structure of the WISEs and the nature of the employees' work. Most of the WISEs in Study 3 operate under tight budgets, so their organisational heads or social entrepreneur leaders typically maintain lean teams and have to manage multiple roles. They tend to have limited personal interactions (i.e., not daily) with the employees; instead, the employees are usually supervised by team supervisors, who might not possess the same attributes of the higher-level servant leaders. Nevertheless, these organisations establish fundamental systems of training and counselling support to ensure that their employees can be re-integrated into employment, and in turn employees perceive the existence of organisational support for them. Moreover, statistically, servant leadership was so highly correlated with perceived organisational support ($r = .71$) that the unique effect of servant leadership is drastically reduced and is non-significant. For all these reasons, despite the strong social orientation of both the organisations and their organisational heads, the influence of servant leadership might not be as strong as was expected when the model was specified. Second, most of the work carried out by these employees tends to be team-based and, therefore, enhances employees' group identification. The social identification with peers might well assume greater importance than the social identification with the WISE leaders given the socially inclusive work environment that these employees experience.

5.6   Limitations and Research Implications

The biggest limitation of Study 3 was the small sample size, which meant that some non-significant effects might have been due to low statistical power. Even so, most of the hypotheses

were supported. Ideally, future research would fully examine the proposed identity mediation model with a larger sample size, in order to replicate the significant effects and retest the mediator effects that were not significant in the current study.

The small sample size also ruled out examination of the full set of latent variables within a single integrated model. It would be expected that results would change much by simply including all six outcome variables in the same model. However, if the hypotheses could have been tested within a fully latent variable (rather than manifest variable) model, path coefficients might have been stronger (i.e., because they were corrected for unreliability) and this might resulted in identifying additional significant paths. With an integrated model, the intrapersonal phenomena could be examined to elucidate how additional different levels of self-concept (i.e., individual and relational self-concept as described by Brewer & Gardner, 1996) relate to the different antecedents. Such an investigation could provide deeper insights into the interplay between the intrapersonal self-construal at different levels and the macro perception of the contextual factors.

Causal interpretation of the results of Study 3 was also constrained by the cross-sectional design. In addition, the use of a single source of data collection (i.e., the employees) could have potentially biased the results as described in the literature on common method bias (Doty & Glick, 1998). Therefore, replications and extensions of Study 3 by adopting longitudinal designs and multi-source data collection are needed.

Moreover, the significant covariance of disturbances amongst the affective motivation to lead, non-calculative motivation and social-normative motivation to lead variables and the extrinsic and intrinsic work motivation variables show there are common causes that have not been included in the models tested in Study 3. Future studies can follow up to examine possible causes for these motivational outcome variables.

In addition, future research might examine follower identification together with self-concepts at the individual, relational, and collective levels and the subsequent regulatory focus. Study 3 identified significant effects of the collective-level self-concept in terms of the motivational variables at work. These findings suggest that future research might fruitfully explore how identities can affect group outcomes as well as team and organisational performance.

CHAPTER 6

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The findings of Studies 1, 2, and 3 support most of the hypotheses tested regarding the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes that were proposed to influence followers' individualised leader identity and social identity, which in turn were expected to impact work motivational phenomena. Since the limitations of each study have been discussed at the end of the respective result sections in previous chapters, this chapter focuses on the contributions of the three studies considered together and some related future research implications. The following sections elaborate on the contributions of this Ph.D. research project in terms of three aspects: theory extension, research methodology, and research context. These contributions are integrated in the discussion of the subsections under the three areas of (1) intrapersonal process, (2) interpersonal process, and (3) process model of the dynamic work selves.

6.1   Intrapersonal Process: Leader-Role Claiming's Effect on Leader Identity Construction

The results of Studies 1 and 2 suggest that the leader-role claiming effect arises when the work-role–relevant leadership narrative claims are associated with leader identity construction. Across these two experiments, subjects were found to develop a significant leader identity when their leading behaviour narrative claims were cued by the experimental manipulations. The mediating effect of leader-role claiming on the relationship between the experimental manipulation, which prompted the identity work of leader-role claims, and leader identity was supported. This quantitative finding initially aligns with results from many qualitative identity studies (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2006; Pratt et al., 2006;

Thornborrow & Brown, 2009) that have suggested identity work acts as an internalised storytelling dynamic by making sense of and facilitating the individual's identity development and advancement, thereby overcoming socio-environmental and contextual complexity and struggles.

From the perspective of self-development and leader development, leader-role claiming during social interactions, possibly in tandem with role granting, may be explored as a new form of leader development, with the end goal of encouraging leader identity development through discursive strategies. More importantly, identity work could be addressed as a conscious identity activity using a more global, brain-scale system that may involve conscious processing elements (Lord & Chui, 2018; Lord et al., 2016), instead of simply drawing on self-schemas from the central aspects of the self. The dynamic and socially situated nature of identity work requires the self to connect the internal mental structure to the complex external social context to shape or even reinvent the self so as to reduce role ambiguity and to meet role expectations. In this way, role tension can be addressed. Relief of role tension requires the mitigation of daily dynamic social interactional processes, thereby enabling individuals to manage their role stress. With their longitudinal, quantitative empirical results, Studies 1 and 2 have extended the identity work research by addressing identity work's dynamic consequences for leader identity and motivation to work.

Using mixed quantitative and qualitative data collection as part of fixed experimental studies, Studies 1 and 2 introduced an innovative method for manipulating and analysing the participants' narratives for their relevance to leader identity development. This extends the research methodology for studying the discursive-oriented identity work within the context of leader identity studies. On the one hand, the discursive information can be turned into continuous variables for quantitative analysis. On the other hand, the magnitude of this

intrapersonal discursive process can be measured with other psychometric constructs. Together with the longitudinal data, the qualitative data led to a richer understanding of the nature of the causal relationships between the narrative leader-role claiming (as a form of identity work) and leader identity development, and subsequently to motivation to lead.

Moreover, based on the longitudinal data in Studies 1 and 2, a causal chain effect of identity work as an intrapersonal process is suggested by the statistically significant indirect effects of manipulation on leader identity and motivation to lead through leader-role claiming at Times 1 and 2. This causal chain effect of identity work supports the potent force of the WSC in activating the individual's situated identity, which then regulates the simultaneous processes of low-level task enactment and high-level sensemaking (see Figure 4.2 in Chapter 4) over time. These multi-level processes are mutually interactive and reflect the temporal factor in the leader identity construction, which itself is closely associated with followers' work-role identity.

In summary, Studies 1 and 2 extend the identity work theory by showing how the compelling force of self-narratives can advance leader identity development, which then influences motivational outcomes.

Examination of the dynamic self lies at the heart of the three studies in this Ph.D. project. The idea that one's self-concept is dynamic is usually discussed from the perspective that a person's self-representation can be construed simultaneously as an individuated and differentiated self and as a similar and united self with others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Markus & Wurf, 1987). Studies 1 and 2 explain how the WSC creates such a differentiated self through the simultaneous intrapersonal construal processes inherent in sensemaking as personal identification. Lord and Chui (2018) have extended the discussion of the dynamic self by integrating theory on consciousness and brain processes (Dehaene, 2014; Lord et al.,

2016) to describe this kind of personal identification as the result of brain-scale, conscious processes. Such brain-scale processes draw information from multiple domains, including the external context, to construct a context-relevant self-construal. Studies 1 and 2 also integrate the cognitive and neuroscience literature with leadership and identity theories to better understand leader identity development—a phenomenon that has heretofore been discussed and examined primarily by the identity work literature and related qualitative studies.

Lord and Chui (2018) suggest that the conscious integration processes can adopt a strong socially inclusive focus, attending to information dealing with how the individual would expect others to interpret and react to the salient characteristics of the self. In this way, group prototypicality becomes salient for self-definition. This kind of social identification incorporates complex social motives connected to cooperative behaviours and group engagement. Based on this understanding of how the dynamic self can construe personal and social identifications by oscillating between personal and social foci, Study 3 sought to investigate the mediating effects of both leader and collective identities. Hence, future research that examines how shared social cognition and dynamic team regulation at work operate might be helpful in illuminating how team leadership can emerge out of the group dynamics exercised by dynamic work selves. In such a way, the intrapersonal processes of a dynamic work self do not solely contribute to the self-development of individuals, but also serve the team leadership development of a group or even a community that is underpinned by interpersonal processes.

6.2   Interpersonal Process: Leadership and Organisational Processes at WISE Impacting Social Identification within a Prosocial Workplace

The potency of the self serving as a confederacy (Brown & Zeigler-Hill, 2018) for organisational sensemaking emerges in the motivational and behavioural outcomes associated

with individual and organisational performances. As the data collection for Study 3 took place in the socially oriented WISEs, the implications of this research extend beyond examining the impact of interpersonal and contextual processes on employee work outcomes as generalised organisational dynamics. That is, this study also revealed how the purposeful and meaningful organisational WISE contexts supported the employees' dynamic selves; the end results were positive motivational tendencies in preparation for employees' possible selves, allowing the employees to achieve self-enhancement in terms of self-efficacy at work as satisfaction of a personal need or motive.

The findings of Study 3 showed that the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes at work were related to individual motivational phenomena, albeit under the mediating effects of a salient identity and possibly as an enduring self-concept. Similar examination of how leadership impacts employees' personal and social identifications has been conducted (Kark et al., 2003), but the dual identification of the WISE employees at the individual level has deeper implications. The dual identification in WISEs is borne from a virtuous cycle of social identification (Reicher, Haslam, & Rath, 2008), as the core mission of these organisations is to improve the inclusion and personal growth of the disadvantaged populations whom they serve. The dual identification foci examined in Study 3 were not activated at the same time, but rather emerged separately.

While each employee strives to attain self-efficacy through task and role enactment, that individual is embedded in work groups that focus at large on delivering a social good—namely, achieving social inclusion, justice, and equal opportunities in the workplace. Therefore, the dual identification that occurs among employees in WISEs connects the personal and social levels of striving to achieve with a higher aspiration of improving human work conditions. This kind of symbolic virtuousness embedded in the organisational culture

has profound implications for these socially motivated organisations (Cameron & Winn, 2012). First, it creates common aspirational goals or foci for the collective to work towards, based on the goodness of its intrinsic value. Second, the collective embraces the same inherent values in pursuit of socially good outcomes. Third, the common values upheld by the collective have an amplifying effect as those employees act collectively.

Organisational and social identifications have consequences on selves at work (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2018). Organisational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), likely to be experienced by employees in Study 3, is based on social identity theory because the shared social identity within the workplace requires the processes of sensemaking and group experiences for achieving negotiation and internalisation into a common work group membership. Therefore, it is expected that employees' social identity is derived from shared experiences, including high-level information of values, beliefs, and organisational goals as well as low-level experiences and interactions in work-role enactment, including team-regulated task performance, team learning, and shared emotions that shape the team morale. More importantly, a common social identity, over time, can become a strong force in accomplishing organisational phenomena. These include serving the organisation's best interests, establishing social exchanges with solidarity, engaging in team leadership, pursuing organisational change, and building intergroup relations in organisations (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2018).

Integrating the previous discussions on a prosocial work environment, salient social identification, and personal striving for self-determination, it appears that WISEs, which evince a hybrid institution logic directed towards achieving both financial and social goals, deserve further research attention in examining how dynamic selves attain personal, group, and organisational goals within a workplace imbued with a virtuous culture that promotes

positive values and beliefs. Furthermore, social identification is pivotal for leadership

processes (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003), as the enactment of goal pursuit is embedded in

shared group membership. The leadership effectiveness literature has recognised the

importance of interpersonal levels of dynamics including leader–member exchange in both a

dyadic context (between-person) and a group-based context (Epitropaki et al., 2017).

Epitropaki et al. (2017), for example, discussed about 'a dynamic leader–follower interplay'

of identification. According to these authors, identity negotiation and self-verification play

pivotal roles at the interpersonal level of leadership identity construction within an

'interpersonal space'. Study 3 examined this 'interpersonal space' by assessing contextual

factors of interpersonal processes using the perceived organisational support and servant

leadership constructs. The findings showed that when followers perceived that their well-

being was being supported so that they could work with psychological safety and dignity,

they had an opportunity to thrive. Hence, work roles that typified or involved leading roles

(e.g., trainers or tour guides) or leading behaviours (e.g., inspiring or informing) with

customers and clients provided the role contexts for individuals to exercise their

proactiveness and experiment with internalising a leader identity. This perspective on how

followers develop leader identity, although examined in Studies 1 and 2, has been given only

limited research attention to date. However, as researchers increasingly turn their eyes to the

social enterprise sector, they may discover that followers' leader identity development within

a prosocial work environment offers rich opportunities for understanding leader identity

construction.

The hybrid organisational context of WISEs has emerged as an important research

area for institutional studies. Although this form of organisation is considered somewhat of a

paradox (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Smith, Besharov, Wessels, & Chertok, 2012) in terms of

the conflicting financial and social goals to be managed, the complexity and organic growth

of the social enterprise sector have yet to be disentangled by organisational, entrepreneurship, leadership, and followership scientists. Moreover, only cursory attention has been devoted to social enterprises from a research perspective (Wry & York, 2017). The research performed in this Ph.D. project makes an important contribution by peering into this black box and showing how the dynamic self mediates the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes on individual work motivation.

WISEs also offer a positive interpersonal space within which not only leaders can promote social identification, but the employees, in their process of achieving self-determination, can also develop a positive identity, shared social identity, proactiveness, and even passion (Diefendorff et al., 2018). In sum, WISEs—as a prosocial work environment with a prosocial goal—offer not only hold great promise for assisting disadvantaged populations to achieve self-determination, but also represent an enriched organisational context in which researchers focusing on positive organisational and leadership studies might explore new perspectives and theories. The findings of this dissertation project amply demonstrate how WISEs within the social enterprise sector can support fruitful research efforts.

6.3   Process Perspectives of Dynamic Work Selves and Leadership Studies

The three studies described in this dissertation adopted a person-centred (rather than variable-centred) and process-oriented approach in examining the intrapersonal and interpersonal processes of leader identity development that influence motivational outcomes at work. Propositions to examine processing dynamics of the self is to extend the understanding of how the self response to contextual and situational factors beyond the influence of the stable personality trait factors. By examining the relationships between

employees' intrapersonal mental structures and leader identity development and leadership perception, Studies 1, 2 and 3 have taken on board the call for process approaches by leadership and psychology scholars to understand dispositions and behaviors in a more flexible manner (Dinh & Lord, 2012; Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001; Mischel & Shoda, 1998). The three studies integrated multiple research designs (experimental and cross-sectional studies) and multiple types of data (quantitative and qualitative; longitudinal and cross-sectional) in investigating how dynamic selves at work achieve motivational work outcomes, with the goal of understanding the cognitive, identity, and psychological dynamics at play. Figure 1.1 in Chapter 1 captures this process perspective by showing how research efforts that aim at understanding the self at work can appreciate the complexity through application of a process research model. The findings in Study 3 highlighted the linkage of the intrapersonal and interpersonal dynamics of identity in contributing to the differentiated aspects of individual work motivation tendencies. The discovery of this relationship confirms the importance of using a process perspective in leadership and organisational studies. Some of the within-person processes examined in this dissertation project are summarised in the following discussion.

Sensemaking Process of the Dynamic Work Self. The intrapersonal sensemaking and meaning-making process is crucial for self-definition within a situated context, particularly within a work context. Over time, the self-schemas rooted in one's work role and integrated with one's experiences—for example, task-related self-regulation, relational dynamics, shared cognition, and emotional attachment—are internalised and interpreted to create high-level meaning to make sense of one's commitment to an organisation. More importantly, the meaning-making process creates a sense of 'who I am' and 'who we are' so that the dynamic selves ensure their personal needs and motives, such as self-definition, self-enhancement, or self-development, can be achieved. Work-role identity salience—a construct examined in all

the studies in this project—evidenced the pivotal influence of one's work role in shaping the sense of self.

Self-Construal Processes and Leader Identity Activation. Identity activation requires the dynamic selves to bring about a global and coherent meaning and to define a sense of the self that is more likely to be internalised with the presence of social validation. The leader identity claiming-and-granting framework (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) that guided the experimental design of Studies 1 and 2 suggested the power of discursive identity work in leader identity construction. However, the self-construal process is most effectively produced when domain-specific self-schemas are organised and made coherent within the context of one's narratives. Studies 1 and 2 findings revealed that non-leadership narratives could diminish leadership self-construal, resulting in weaker or less salient identity construction. However, the manipulation of granting was not operationalised in this research project. This process deserves future research attention, including investigation of both the importance of granting in leader identity construction and the interaction of claiming and granting effects.

Social Identification of Coherent and Consistent Meaning-Making for Self-Anchoring. Study 3 was conducted under the assumptions that individualised and social identity development would contribute to separate motivational phenomena. For example, leader identity is related to intrinsic motivation, while collective self-concept is related to extrinsic motivation. However, two interesting findings were observed in Study 3. First, the collective self-concept was a significant mediator in slightly more indirect paths than the individualised leader identity, suggesting that the employees in the prosocial WISE work context might have a stronger socialised orientation during self-anchoring. Simply put, these employees may develop a stronger sense of 'who we are' than 'who I am'. Depending on the job crafting for employees, the same balance of results can be anticipated and generalised in retail businesses

that emphasise team-based adaptive operations, such as catering, hotel, and tourism operators. Second, the collective self-concept was related not only to the social-normative motivation to lead, which can be interpreted as a kind of prosocial motivational tendency, but also to the affective motivation to lead, which can be seen as a kind of proself motivational tendency. Thus, social identification can impact or even inspire individual self-development rather than following the depersonalisation path often predicted by social identity theory.

Self-Determination of a Possible Self Driven by Motivational Tendencies. Within the prosocial WISE environment, the dynamic work selves experience both intrapersonal and interpersonal processes that impact the person's identity development. Subject to individual differences and personal experience, the development of persistent levels of the self will vary amongst different employees. The common linkage is that identity development can influence motivational outcomes at work. The significant motivational outcome results suggest an impetus for envisioning not only a positive self, but also possible selves amongst these employees who were previously stigmatised. Both the individualised and collective identifications are embedded in each employee's self-concept, and are underpinned by that person's own past and present experiences. With the motivational tendencies of motivation to lead, work motivation, and self-efficacy made possible at WISEs, it is possible that their future selves might help these employees to pursue further transformative and development aspirations, including leadership development.

Process perspectives can help explain within-person variance of the dynamic processes underlying the activation of one's self-concept (Dinh & Lord, 2012). This is particulary important in understanding individual and team leadership emergence, the sustained motivation in the leadership and followership processes and adaptive behaviours enacted in dynamic and complex environments. This research project has looked at processes of how work selves conduct sensemaking, intrapersonal self-construal, social identification

and motivated self-determination processes at work. The results provide a foundation for examining other areas of leadership phenomena such as leadership development, team leadership and leadership identification of followers. To summarise, this Ph.D. project has examined how dynamic work selves can thrive in a prosocial work environment with a process perspective which can have leadership research implication applied in other general organisational contexts.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

This Ph.D. project commenced with a proposition in Chapter 1to examine three areas
of research gaps and offer five areas of contributions. This concluding chapter will complete
the thesis by summarising how these gap and contribution areas have been addressed. Some
of these areas will be merged in the following discussion.

In response to the gap of limited quantitative research on leadership and followership
identity processes, this gap was first addressed using a process approach in two longitudinal
experimental studies. These two studies suggested the importance of an intrapersonal process,
which required social validation through leader-role claiming, in the process of leader
identity construction. Subsequently, in a cross-sectional study that added the contextual
antecedents of servant leadership and perceived organisational support, the mediating leader
identity effects were shown to influence a variety of individual motivational outcomes at
work. Owing to the positive and collective nature of WISEs as a prosocial work context, the
examination of the dual identification of personal leadership and collective construal yielded
initial results justifying the investigation of dual identification involving personal, relational,
or collective identities (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007, 2008) that have
profound direct and indirect effects on individual motivational phenomena at work.

As a result of the three leader-identity related studies that investigated identity
processes, four areas of contributions will be summarised. They include (1) the
operationalisation of the role-claiming construct in experimental studies using a hybrid
qualitative/quantitative approach; (2) the investigation of the antecedents and outcomes of
leader identification; (3) the suggested relationship of leader identity construction with

leadership development and its related practical implications; and (4) future research methodology in examining how identity work is related to leadership development.

First, by championing a hybrid approach using qualitative and experimental approaches, I identified and replicated a causal chain which would not have been obvious had a solely experimental approach been adopted. That is, the experimental manipulation produced nonsignificant results on leader identity in Studies 1 and 2, but based on qualitative analysis of leader claiming responses to this manipulation, it was possible to articulate a significant causal path that involved the actual identity work of subjects as a key mediator. Thus, a hybrid effect involving both quantitative and qualitative approaches may be best suited to describing identity work and assessing its causal impact. Moreover, had I just obtained qualitative narrative data relative to the identity work and its outcomes, rather than using an experimental design, there would be too many exogenous explanations to warrant causal inference. Again, a hybrid approach seemed to be needed on for both conceptual and research design considerations, and Studies 1 and 2 showed that adopting a hybrid approach resulted in novel insights.

Second, the investigation of leader identification as a process or as a construct is still only emerging and deserves a more systematic approach in examining the related antecedents and outcomes. This thesis has taken the initial steps in examining work-role identity salience, servant leadership and perceived organisational support as the antecedents and motivation to lead, work motivation and self-efficacy as the motivational work outcomes. The resulted significant findings offer an encouraging prospect to further investigate the associated processes of leader identification and leadership development.

Third, the examinations of leader identity development and motivation to lead in the three studies have implications for leadership development studies. The relationship of

leader identity construction with leadership development has been discussed by a number of authors (e.g., Day, Zaccaro, & Halpin, 2004; Ibarra,Wittman, Petriglieri, & Day 2014) and leadership emergence has usually been associated with external experiences that provide skills, knowledge or relational resource which are commonly considered as crucial for leadership practice. Day (2001) talked about leadership development from a training perspective. While Shamir and Eilam (2005) suggested a 'life-story' approach for authentic leadership development. Avolio (1999) described a leadership system between leaders and followers as the vital force in organisations for leadership development to happen.

However, this thesis has chosen to examine the *internal* dynamics of leader identity construction. The results of Studies 1 and 2 suggested that within-person leader identity development was related to motivation to lead. Hence, these results indicated that leadership emergence in non-prototypical leaders in WISEs who were engaged in purposeful organisational pursuits began at the intrapersonal level with the sensemaking of leadership behavioural experiences and social dynamics. This has practical implications for talent development in general organizational contexts. The importance of job role crafting in enhancing the opportunities that promote leading, autonomy, creativity, innovation and purposeful experiences can be considered to encourage employees to develop intrinsic leadership identity and motivation. Moreover, in order for potential leaders to internalise leader identification, mentoring or coaching programmes that can allow the claiming and granting processes to take root can be a driver for potential leaders to not only achieve leader identity construction but also an upward spiral of leadership development.

Fourth, by creating a hybrid quantitative and qualitative approach as discussed earlier, this thesis has created a new research implication for identity work scholarship which is fundamentally qualitative in approach. Discursive processes which are important for

sensemaking and self-construal processes achieve the high-level integration of self-schemas and contextual information for self-identity development. Identity work scholarship, which is usually pursued within a subjective interpretivist paradigm, has produced valid narrative evidence which is associated with identity processes, such as identity negotiation. These identity processes have been examined by psychologists, social psychologists and leadership scholars who usually adopt the objective functionalist research paradigm, such as experimental studies. Future research related to leadership identification, emergence and development can consider this new hybrid approach to combine both qualitative and quantitative data to explore a diverse of leadership identity phenomena.

Finally, in understanding the way that study of the dynamic self aligns with positive psychology scholarship, leadership and organisational research can develop profound insights about leadership and followership identity processes. This study has discussed how the intrapersonal self of sensemaking can be a crucial factor in major work identities development. Employees when given supportive leadership and work climate, they feel positive to build self-definition through task experience and social validation. If leaders can grant employees more interpersonal opportunities to allow them to establish self-definition through claiming and evaluation, employee work motivation and sense of empowerment can be more readily resulted.

Moreover, scholarship that investigates how the management of stigmatised identity (Lyons, Pek, & Wessel, 2017) can lead to social change is increasing within organisational studies, especially as research interests in the social enterprise and social innovation sectors continue to expand. Although this dissertation project has now been completed, it has provided initial and interesting findings that may well inspire future research in the social

enterprise and social innovation sectors where potential leadership development of non-

prototypical leaders deserve adequate and serious research attention.

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Appendix 1

Definitions of Key Constructs and Concepts

Theoretical Disciplines / Concepts and Constructs	Definitions Used in This Publication
Social cognition	
• Identity	A "brain-scale, consciously-created processing structure that adjusts self-schemas through top-down feedback" (Lord et al., 2016, p. 125).
• Identity construction	A brain-scale convergence of information as a function of the global neuronal workspace that integrates signals from modular processing structures and the default network of the brain.
• Self	"…a complex mental structure involving self-concepts and self-identities on which meaning for actions and events is based" (Lord, Gatti, & Chui, 2016, p. 125).
• Self-concept	"The individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is" (Baumeister, 1999, p. 247).
• Self-construal	A process in defining and meaning-making of the self (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).
• Self-identity	"… a global interpretation of the self that emphasises its grounding in social and situational processes" (Lord et al., 2016).
• Self-regulation	The regulated and routine actions that foster personal strivings because when action schemas and scripts are aligned with goal cognition, self-regulation creates motivational effects (Karoly, 1993).
• Self-schemas	They are modular processing structures that encompass qualities within a specific domain and context.
• Working self-concept	A situated processing structure that regulates attitudes and behaviours (Markus & Wurf, 1987).
Social psychology	
• Identity salience	The ease with a person can evoke a specific identity and generalise it in other contexts.
• Identity work	The process of actively constructing an identity within a social context (Ibarra, 1999; Pratt et al., 2006; Snow & Anderson, 1987; Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003).
• Leader identity claiming and granting	*Claiming* is an internal self-comparison process based on the leader's perspective of what a leader looks like and the attributes embodied by a leader. Granting, the second identity internalisation step, involves 'actions that express how others perceive the focal individual' (DeRue et al., 2009, p. 220).
• Social identity	The shared social identity within workplaces requires the processes of sensemaking and group experiences for achieving negotiation and internalisation into a common work group membership (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).
• Role-identity salience	A concept based upon three prominent areas of discussion—namely, self-definition, social relations with others, and behaviour (Callero, 1985).
• Self-efficacy	Perceived competency specific to work tasks (Bandura, 1997).
• Work motivation	Process-oriented theories that focus on goal striving, self-regulation, expectancy, and resources allocation related to individual actions at work. These approaches encompass extrinsic and internal factors including extrinsic rewards, task and job characteristics, and group- and team-level influences, each of which can trigger extrinsic and intrinsic motivations.
Neuroscience	

• Default network	The part of the brain that that organises self-referential information while we are in a resting state (Havlik, 2017; Raichle, 2015).

Leadership

• Leader identity	"A sub-component of one's WSC that includes leadership schemas, leadership experiences and future representations of oneself as a leader" (Day & Harrison, 2007).
• Servant leadership	Leaders who demonstrate servant leadership behaviours prioritise the needs of the subordinates before their own and dedicate their efforts to supporting and helping subordinates as they seek to meet their personal needs and goals (Greenleaf, 1977).
• Motivation to lead	A "leader's or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affect his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader" (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

Organisational theory

• Role theory	Literature that emphasises that roles are constrained by (1) status or positions within the hierarchical structure of organisations, (2) defined tasks that affect expected behaviours, and (3) role-connected relationships that shape interpersonal interactions (Biddle, 1986; Stryker, 1980; Turner, 1978).
• Perceived organisational support	Employees' perceptions and beliefs that their organisations value their contributions and show concern for their well-being (Edwards, 2009; Riketta, 2005; Sluss, Klimchak, & Holmes, 2008).

Appendix 2

Ethics Form

Durham
Business School
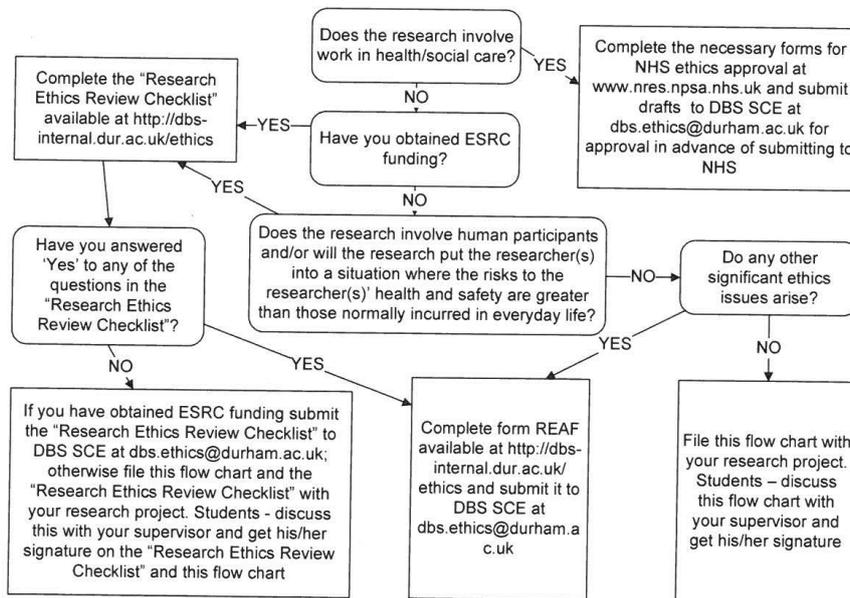
Ethics in Research

Process flow chart for students and staff undertaking research

Note: all research can potentially raise ethical issues. The focus here is on research involving human participants, but consideration should also be given to ethical issues that may arise in connection with research that does not involve human participants. In all cases research is governed by the University's "Policy for the maintenance of good practice in research" which is available at http://dbs-internal.dur.ac.uk/ethics and should be read in conjunction with this process flow chart. This process flow chart applies to each discrete research project and it is suggested that this flow chart is completed for each such project.

Please complete the details as requested below and highlight either 'YES' or 'NO' after each box to show your route through the flow chart. "DBS SCE" refers to Durham Business School's Sub-Committee for Ethics throughout.

Title of Project: ① RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER IDENTITY CHANGE & TRAINING
② SOCIAL IDENTITY SALIENCE & SELF ESTEEM RELATIONSHIP. INTERVENTION

Name of Principal Researcher
or anonymous code of student: .... SUSANNA CHUI LAI HAN ....

```
┌─────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│ Complete the        │        │ Does the research    │ YES    │ Complete the necessary forms │
│ "Research Ethics    │        │ involve work in      │───────>│ for NHS ethics approval at   │
│ Review Checklist"   │        │ health/social care?  │        │ www.nres.npsa.nhs.uk and     │
│ available at        │        │        NO            │        │ submit drafts to DBS SCE at  │
│ http://dbs-         │<──YES──┤                      │        │ dbs.ethics@durham.ac.uk for  │
│ internal.dur.ac.uk/ │        │ Have you obtained    │        │ approval in advance of       │
│ ethics              │        │ ESRC funding?        │        │ submitting to NHS            │
└─────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────┘        └──────────────────────────────┘
          │ YES                          NO
          ▼
┌─────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────────┐
│ Have you answered   │        │ Does the research involve      │        │ Do any other         │
│ 'Yes' to any of the │        │ human participants and/or will │  NO    │ significant ethics   │
│ questions in the    │        │ the research put the           │───────>│ issues arise?        │
│ "Research Ethics    │        │ researcher(s) into a situation │        │                      │
│ Review Checklist"?  │        │ where the risks to the         │        │                      │
└─────────────────────┘        │ researcher(s)' health and      │        └──────────────────────┘
     NO        YES              │ safety are greater than those  │          YES        NO
                               │ normally incurred in everyday  │
                               │ life?                          │
                               └──────────────────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐
│ If you have obtained ESRC   │   │ Complete form REAF   │   │ File this flow chart │
│ funding submit the          │   │ available at         │   │ with your research   │
│ "Research Ethics Review     │   │ http://dbs-          │   │ project. Students –  │
│ Checklist" to DBS SCE at    │   │ internal.dur.ac.uk/  │   │ discuss this flow    │
│ dbs.ethics@durham.ac.uk;    │   │ ethics and submit it │   │ chart with your      │
│ otherwise file this flow    │   │ to DBS SCE at        │   │ supervisor and get   │
│ chart and the "Research     │   │ dbs.ethics@durham.a  │   │ his/her signature    │
│ Ethics Review Checklist"    │   │ c.uk                 │   │                      │
│ with your research project. │   └──────────────────────┘   └──────────────────────┘
│ Students - discuss this     │
│ with your supervisor and    │
│ get his/her signature on    │
│ the "Research Ethics Review │
│ Checklist" and this flow    │
│ chart                       │
└─────────────────────────────┘
```

Signature of Principal Researcher or Supervisor:

.... [signature] ....

**Durham
University
Business School**

ETHICS **FORM B**: REVIEW CHECKLIST

"DUBS SCE" refers to Durham University Business School's Sub-Committee for Ethics throughout.

This checklist should be completed for every research project that involves human participants. It should also be completed for all ESRC funded research, once funding has been obtained. It is used for approval or to identify whether a full application for ethics approval needs to be submitted.

Before completing this form, please refer to the University's "Ensuring Sound Conduct in Research" available at http://dbs-internal.dur.ac.uk/ethics/default.aspx – all researchers should read Sections A, B and F; Principal Investigators should also read Section D. The researcher and, where the researcher is a student, the student and supervisor are responsible for exercising appropriate professional judgement in this review.

This checklist must be completed before potential participants are approached to take part in any research.

Section I: Project Details

1.   Project title: RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADER IDENTITY CHANGE & TRAINING INTERVENTION.

2.   Start date: 15 NOVEMBER 2014   Expected End date: 30 APRIL 2015.

Section II: Applicant Details

3.   Name of researcher (applicant) Or student: Susanna CHUI LAI MAN.

4.   Status (please delete those which are not applicable)

~~Undergraduate Student / Taught Postgraduate Student~~ / Postgraduate Research Student / Staff

5.   Email address (staff only): s-l.m.chui @ durham.ac.uk.

6.   Contact address: ....

7.   Telephone number: 07474 911269.

Section III: For Students Only

8.   Programme title: PhD in LEADERSHIP

9.   Mode (delete as appropriate)

Full Time / ~~Part Time / Distance Learning~~

10.   Supervisor's or module leader's name: Prof ROBERT LORD

11.   Aims and Objectives: Please state the aims/objectives of the project

> ① To examine the relationship between leadership development as an intervention and the changes in self-concept, leader identity and motivation to lead.
> ② To examine the mediating effects of trust and affectivity on the relationship between leadership development and the changes of leader identity.

12.   Methodology: Please describe in brief the methodology of the research project

> SURVEYS WITH T1, T2 and T3 DATA COLLECTION BETWEEN NOVEMBER 2014 TO APRIL 2015.

13.   Will data be collected from participants who have not consented to take part in the study e.g. images taken from the internet; participants covertly or overtly viewed in social places? If yes, please give further details.

> *Does the research take place in a public or private space (be it virtual / physical)? Please explain: - Private space after participants have attended a corporate workshop.
>
> Explain whether the research is overt or covert: - Overt
>
> Explain how you will verify participants' identities: - Each participant will be assigned a Survey number and he/she has to fill in that Survey number on each questionnaire.
>
> †Explain how informed consent will be obtained: - They will be given a cover letter and they can choose not to participate in the Survey after reading the explanation of the cover letter

*Ethical guidelines (BPS, 2005) note that, *unless consent has been sought, observation of public behaviour takes place only where people would reasonably expect to be observed by strangers.*

†It is advised that interactive spaces such as chat rooms and synchronous and asynchronous forums be treated as private spaces requiring declaration of a research interest and consent.

Additional guidance on internet research can be obtained at:
    http://www.bps.org.uk/sites/default/files/documents/conducting_research_on_the_internet-guidelines_for_ethical_practice_in_psychological_research_online.pdf

14. Risk assessment: If the research will put the researcher(s) into a situation where risks to the researcher(s)' health and safety are greater than those normally incurred in everyday life, please indicate what the risks are and how they will be mitigated. (Please note that this also includes risks to the researcher(s)' health and safety in cases of international research and in cases where locally employed Research Assistants are deployed).

Research which will take place outside the UK requires specific comment. (Note that research outside the UK is not automatically covered by the University's insurance. See the DUBS intranet site (http://dbs-internal.dur.ac.uk/ethics/default.aspx) for further details).

For student research the supervisor should tick the following, as appropriate. The study should not begin until all appropriate boxes are ticked:

☑ The topic merits further research

☑ The participant information sheet or leaflet is appropriate (where applicable)

☑ The procedures for recruitment and obtaining informed consent are appropriate (where applicable)

Comments from supervisor:

> Data is low risk as participants are doing exercise they would normally do. Participants only fill out questionnaire.

Section IV: Research Checklist

Research that may need to be reviewed by NHS NRES Committee or an external Ethics Committee (if yes, please give brief details as an annex)	YES	NO
1 Will the study involve recruitment of patients or staff through the NHS or the use of NHS data or premises and / or equipment?[1]	☐	☑
2 Does the study involve participants age 16 or over who are unable to give informed consent? (e.g. people with learning disabilities: see Mental Capacity Act (MCA) 2005).	☐	☑

Footnotes

[1] Research in the NHS may be classified as "service evaluation" and, if so, does not require NHS research ethics approval. In such cases, prior written confirmation that the research is considered to be service evaluation is required from the appropriate authority, and on receipt of this the "No" box may be ticked and this form used for ethics approval. Advice and assistance is available from dbs.ethics@durham.ac.uk

240

Please note: - That with regard to 1 and 2 on the previous page, all research that falls under the auspices of MCA must be reviewed by NHS NRES.

> **Research that may need a full review by Durham University Business School Sub –Committee for Ethics (DBS SCE)**

3 Does the study involve other vulnerable groups: children, those with cognitive impairment, or those in unequal relationship e.g. your own students? [2]   ☐ ☑

4 Will the study require the co-operation of a gatekeeper for initial access to the groups or individuals to be recruited? (e.g. students at school, members of a self-help group, residents of a Nursing home) [3]   ☐ ☑

5 Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their knowledge and consent at the time? (e.g. deception, covert observation of people in non-public places)   ☐ ☑

6 Will the study involve discussion of sensitive topics? (e.g. sexual activity, drug use)   ☐ ☑

7 Are drugs, placebos or other substances (e.g. food substances, vitamins) to be administered to the study participants or will the study involve invasive, intrusive or potentially harmful procedures of any kind?   ☐ ☑

> **Research that may need a full review by Durham University Business School Sub –**
> **Committee for Ethics (DBS SCE) (continued)**

8
   Will tissue samples (including blood) be obtained from participants?   ☐ ☐

9
   Is pain or more than mild discomfort likely to result from the study?   ☐ ☐

Footnotes

[1] Research in the NHS may be classified as "service evaluation" and, if so, does not require NHS research ethics approval. In such cases, prior written confirmation that the research is considered to be service evaluation is required from the appropriate authority, and on receipt of this the "No" box may be ticked and this form used for ethics approval. Advice and assistance is available from dbs.ethics@durham.ac.uk

[2] Vulnerable persons are defined for these purposes as those who are legally incompetent to give informed consent (i.e. those under the age of 16, although it is also good practice to obtain permission from all participants under the age of 18 together with the assent of their parents or guardians), or those with a mental illness or intellectual disability sufficient to prevent them from giving informed consent), or those who are physically incapable of giving informed consent, or in situations where participants may be under some degree of influence (e.g. your own students or those recruited via a gatekeeper - see footnote 3). Where students are perfectly able to choose to be involved and to give informed consent then, so long as there is no impact on assessment, the "No" box may be ticked.

[3] This applies only where the recruitment of participants is via a gatekeeper, thus giving rise to particular ethical issues in relation to willing participation and influence on informed consent decisions particularly for vulnerable individuals. It does *not* relate to situations where contact with individuals is established via a manager but participants are willing and able to give informed consent. In such cases, the answer to this question should be "No."

		YES	NO

		YES	NO
10	Could the study induce psychological stress or anxiety or cause harm or negative consequences beyond the risks encountered in normal life?	☐	☑
11	Will the study involve prolonged or repetitive testing?	☐	☑
12	Will the research involve administrative or secure data that requires permission from the appropriate authorities before use?	☐	☑
13	Does the research involve members of the public in a research capacity (participant research)?	☐	☑
14	Will the research involve respondents to the internet or other visual / vocal methods where methods are covert, intrude into privacy without consent, or require observational methods in spaces where people would not reasonably expect to be observed by strangers?[4]	☐	☑
15	Will the research involve the sharing of data or confidential information beyond the initial consent given?	☐	☑
16	Will financial inducements (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) be offered to participants?[5]	☐	☑

Section V: What to do next

If you have answered '**No**' to all of the questions:
Undergraduate and Postgraduate taught students should discuss this with their supervisor, obtain his or her signature and submit it with their business project or dissertation.
DBA / MPhil / PhD students should discuss this with their supervisor, obtain his or her signature and submit it as part of the transfer / 9 month review process and with their thesis.
Work that is submitted without the appropriate ethics form may be returned un-assessed.
Members of staff should retain a copy for their records, but may submit the form for approval by DUBS SCE if they require approval from funding bodies such as ESRC. *In such cases, the letter of invitation to participate, Participant Information Sheet, Consent Form and, where appropriate, the access agreement should also be submitted with this form.*
Please note that DBS SCE may request sight of any form for monitoring or audit purposes.

If you have answered '**Yes**' to any of the questions in Section IV, you will need to describe more fully how you plan to deal with the ethical issues raised by your research. This does not mean that you cannot do the research, only that your proposal will need to be approved by the DUBS SCE.

Contact the Chair of the DUBS SCE in the first instance to discuss how to proceed. You may need to submit your plans for addressing the ethical issues raised by your proposal using the ethics approval application form REAF, which should be sent to the committee at dbs.ethics@durham.ac.uk.

(Continued overleaf)

Footnotes

[4] This does not include surveys using the internet providing that the respondent is identifiable only at their own discretion.

[5] In experiments in economics and psychology in particular it is common to pay participants. Provided such payments are within the normal parameters of the discipline, the answer to this question should be "No."

(Form REAF can be obtained from the School Intranet site at **http://dbs-internal.dur.ac.uk/Pages/Default.aspx** or using the student / visitor access:-

http://dbs-internal.dur.ac.uk/ethics

Username:	**dubs\ethicsvisitors**
Password:	**durham**

If you answered 'yes' to Questions 1 or 2 in Section IV, you will also have to submit an application to the appropriate external health authority ethics committee, but only **after** you have received approval from the DUBS SCE. In such circumstances complete the appropriate **external** paperwork and submit this for review by the DUBS SCE to dbs.ethics@durham.ac.uk.

Please note that whatever answers you have given above, it is your responsibility to follow the University's "Ensuring Sound Conduct in Research" and any relevant academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study. **This includes providing appropriate participant information sheets and consent forms, abiding by the Data Protection Act and ensuring confidentiality in the storage and use of data.**

Any significant change in research question, design or conduct over the course of the research project should result in a review of research ethics issues using the "Process Flow Chart for Students and Staff Undertaking Research" and completing a new version of this checklist if necessary.

Declaration

Signed
(staff only, students insert anonymous code): ....

Date: ....

Student / Principal Investigator

Signed: ....

Date: ....

Supervisor or module leader (where appropriate)

- 6 -

Appendix 3

Sample Consent Letter

Durham University Business School
Mill Hill Lane
Durham DH1 3LB
UK

13 September 2015

Ms Raindy Yu
Founder
Aman Moving Services
Rm 28, Kai Yip Factory Building
15-17 Sam Chuk Street
San Po Kong
Kowloon

Dear Raindy,

CONSENT LETTER for the Leader Identity Study conducted for the fulfilment of the PhD research requirement of Susanna Chui Lai Man at Durham University Business School

I am writing to thank you for your acceptance of my invitation in taking part in the subject research study.

The goal of this research study is to validate the hypotheses in relations to the unleashing of leadership potentiality of marginalized employees working in Hong Kong social enterprises. It is hoped that this study will prove that social enterprises that can provide a prosocial organizational climate, with a social mission and good support, and a salient work role can unleash the talents of the marginalized employees, and leadership potential being part of that.

This study will involve collecting quantitative data and interview data with disadvantaged communities employed at your social enterprises on a voluntary basis.

We understand that the data, both the quantitative and qualitative data need to be prudently handled and reported. Therefore, I will keep the data confidential and the identity of the interviewees will remain anonymous.

I plan to conduct one round of interviews with your trainers in September/October 2015. If time permits, I will try to share the data analysis in the future before I go back to the UK. Each interview will last for about 30 minutes.

We also understand that our interviews with the disadvantaged will have to be handled with much care and sensitivity. We can present the interview questions in advance and if at any stage the interviewees find it uncomfortable to answer any questions, they can have the rights not to continue the interview or answer specific questions.

... / 2

-2-

Since your enterprise has been a prominent player in the Hong Kong social enterprise field, we believe that your participation in this project will allow the achievement of this sector in Hong Kong to be made better known through publication and my future participation in conferences.

Please feel free to contact me any time on 90781387 or by email on suziechui@gmail.com/s.l.m.chui@durham.ac.uk if you have any questions.

I would like to obtain your written acceptance of our invitation for your participation in this project by signing at the end of this letter.

I thank you once again for your kindness in participation and we look forward to our smooth cooperation in making this project fruitful and meaningful.
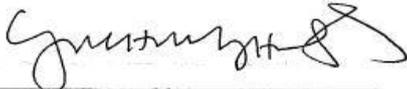
Yours sincerely,

Susanna Chui
Principal Investigator

Encl.

On behalf of *Aman moving Services*
I accept the invitation to participate in the subject research project.

I confirm that our research will proceed following the details of this letter and work closely with Aman Moving Services from data collection to the final report write-up.
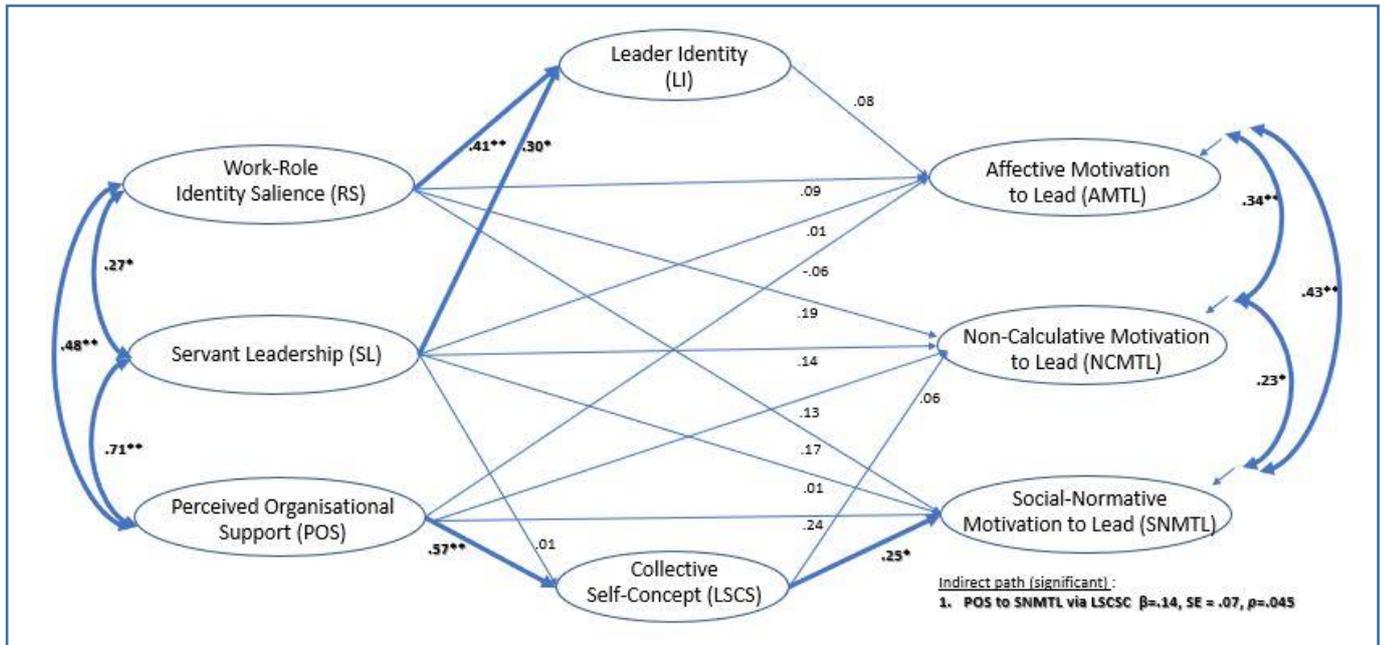
Name: Yu CHUNG Hu NG
Title: Founder
Date: 4/12/15

Susanna Chui, Principal Investigator
Date: 13 September 2015

Hypothesised Model of Antecedents, Mediators, and Outcome Variables Including Affective, Non-calculative, and Social-Normative Motivation to Lead
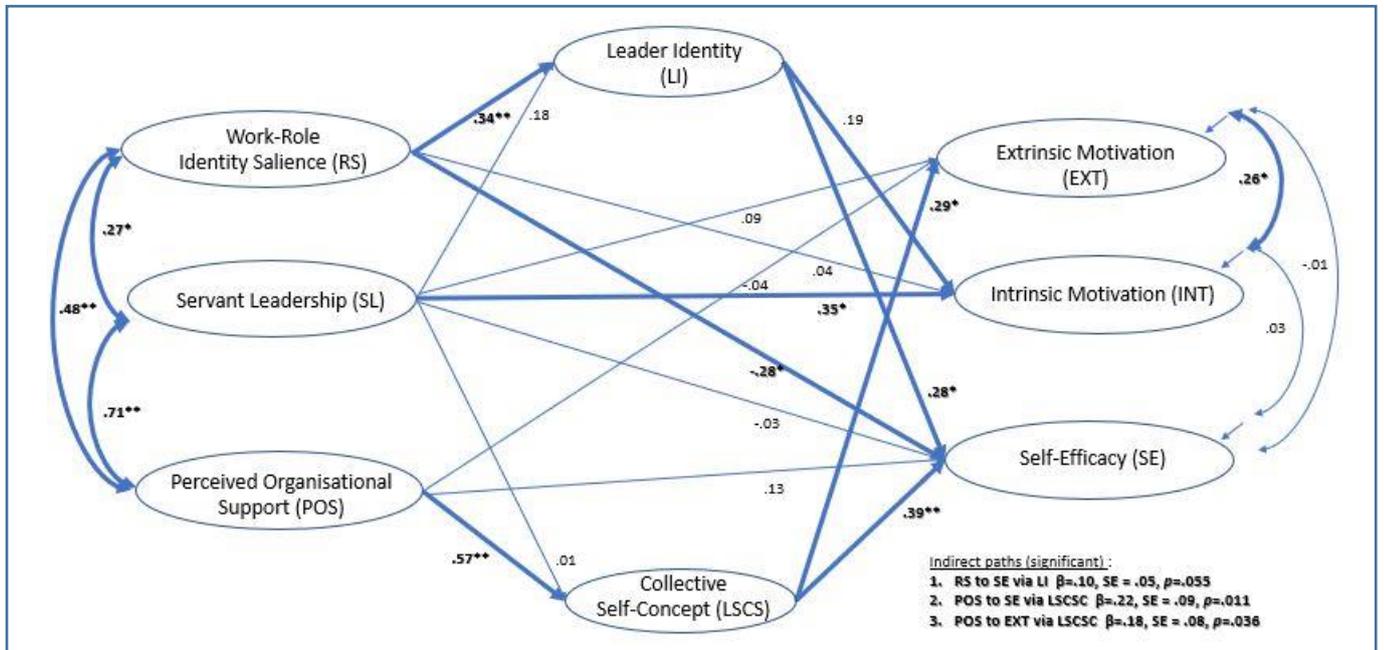

Motivation to Lead (Hypothesised mediated paths only) Model Fit Indices

$\chi^2 = 27.384$ (df=6, N=79), $p = .0001$, CFI = .828, RMSEA = .212, SRMR = .085

Hypothesised Model of Antecedents, Mediators, and Outcome Variables Including Extrinsic and Intrinsic Work Motivation and Self-Efficacy

Work Motivation and Self-Efficacy (Hypothesised mediated paths only) Model Fit Indices

$\chi^2 = 19.832$ (df=5, N=79), $p = .0013$, CFI = .863, RMSEA = .194, SRMR = .056