

KU LEUVEN

FACULTEIT PSYCHOLOGIE EN  
PEDAGOGISCHE WETENSCHAPPEN

**'We are One': Effects of Social Identity Leadership  
on Work-Related Outcomes and the Moderating  
Role of Leader Gender**

A validation study of the Identity Leadership Inventory (ILI) in  
the Belgian working population

Masterproef aangeboden tot het  
verkrijgen van de graad van  
Master of Science in de  
psychologie

Door

**Charlotte Edelmann**

promotor: Prof. Dr. Jeroen  
Stouten

copromotor: Prof. Dr. Katrien Franssen

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## Summary

In today's organizations, an important mission for leaders is identity management that connects them with the employees through a collective identity. The social identity approach to leadership has led to a wide field of research in regard of its impact on work-related outcomes, resulting in the Identity Leadership Inventory (ILI) of Steffens et al. (2014) as a tool to help quantify this very impact. However, the evidence about the criterion validity of the ILI is scarce as it has been examined in a limited number of countries and contrasted with only a select few existing leadership concepts. Also, identity leadership (IL) has not yet been defined in terms of gender congeniality. More insights might be necessary in today's world where organizations strive for an optimal fit between leadership styles and leaders themselves.

The first part of the study investigated the unique criterion validity of ILI in Belgium with respect to three outcomes: burnout, work satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Theory was used to hypothesize positive relationships with work satisfaction and OCB, and a negative relationship with burnout. In the second part, the study further concentrates on the relationship between IL and OCB by adding the gender of the leader as a moderating variable. Building on Eagly's (1987) social-role theory, the effect of IL on OCB was assumed to be more pronounced in case of female leaders. Data related to engagement in IL, other leadership approaches, and work-related outcomes were randomly collected for 335 employees working in Belgium through an online self-report survey.

Correlation and regression analyses supported the expected relationships between IL and burnout, work satisfaction and OCB. However, the significant predictive power of IL diminished when other leadership approaches were included in the analyses. Therefore, the findings of this study do not support previous findings about the criterion validity of the ILI. Second, when engaging in IL, the gender of the leader does not appear to have a moderating effect on employees' OCB. These findings provide novel insights into the extent to which ILI is a useful and valid measure and how identity management plays a role across different countries, settings and outcomes. Further implications of these findings are discussed and directions for future research are provided.

## Acknowledgements

I would first like to thank my promotor of this thesis, prof. Jeroen Stouten, for his unfailing guidance, encouragement and support throughout this research project. His passion for the leadership domain highly motivated my own interest in this topic, and his broad knowledge about social psychological theories helped me identify possible frameworks to further explore. These ideas helped produce a successful thesis.

Special thanks are due to my fellow student Vincent Van Dam, with whom I had the pleasure to work during the data collection. I am grateful for the smooth communication and coordination of this process, as it helped motivate me to do whatever was necessary to reach as many participants as possible and whatever it may take (e.g., time and creativity).

I am also grateful to my former colleagues from previous internships and everyone else who helped me by sharing the survey within their private and professional networks. I could not have done it without them, and I am grateful for their assistance.

My deepest gratitude goes to my friends and my boyfriend, Ralf, who reminded me to stay motivated and balance work and play every day. Their insightful comments, grammatical help, and inspirational quotes were particularly valuable to me during the writing process. Now, at the end, some of these words resonate even more: “And will you succeed? Yes, you will indeed! 98 and  $\frac{3}{4}$  percent guaranteed!” (Dr. Seuss).

Last, but definitely not least, special thanks go out to my parents for the opportunity to study (abroad) and help just when I needed it most. They encouraged me to strive for a life full of pleasure and passion, never doubting the choices I have made. The occasional trips home, the Skype calls and their everlasting love mean more to me than words can express.

## **Approach, procedure and ownership**

The present study serves as a complementary part of a global validation project of identity leadership, wherein the Identity Leadership Inventory (ILI) is being validated across 15 countries and five continents. As a student of KU Leuven, my main responsibility was the data collection in Belgium and herewith, the findings of this study contribute to the larger project.

I was blessed to have been assigned to this research project, as it was my first choice of all obtainable topics. Having just recently moved to Belgium, however, collecting data was very challenging. I was fortunate to have collaborated with a fellow Belgian student, Vincent van Dam. His connections and a video<sup>1</sup> that we created helped to attract participants from a specific organization. I was also determined to reach participants on my own (e.g., randomly handing out flyers with the survey-link on the street). Due to my German roots, I communicated with the team in Germany responsible for the coordination and administration of the online survey (Kim van der Wahl & Charlotte Rabener), and despite the initial technical difficulties, they did their best to provide a smooth survey-experience to the participant. Progress was tracked and reported every Tuesday during the collection.

Vincent's and my paths separated after data collection, and I decided to examine the criterion validity of the ILI. I chose this because the practical implications were most interesting to me. Specifically, I sought to answer: What are potential benefits/detriments of IL, and how can this be relevant to organizations seeking specific work-related outcomes. Accordingly, I carried out theoretical research and all necessary analyses to answer this question. Also, I got the chance to expand my study by adding "gender" as an extra variable. Being an ambitious woman myself, I am especially intrigued by the role women currently play in leadership positions. Being a passionate traveler with an observing attitude, I am also aware of the cultural differences regarding the perception of female leaders. It might be interesting to carry out the gender-related analyses of this study in different countries and assess potential differences.

My promotor, prof. Jeroen Stouten, has supported me throughout the entire process: literature review, data collection and data analysis. He, for example, referred me to relevant authors (especially for the gender-leadership part) and double-checked the correctness of my SPSS analyses.

Finally, this master thesis with all its aspects (the added value, tasks and writing itself) made me realize my passion for psychological research. To prepare for a potential future in this field, I have taken up another personal challenge by writing this thesis in English.

Charlotte Edelmann  
Leuven, 16/05/2018

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<sup>1</sup> Click here to see the video for data collection: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J260dZqMKzU>

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“The leaders who work most effectively [...] never say ‘I’. And that’s not because they have trained themselves not to say ‘I’. They don’t think ‘I’. They think ‘team’.” (Drucker, 1992)

In the past decades, organizations have increasingly encouraged their employees to cross the individual boarder and instead focus on collaboration across functions to gain better performance results. This shift is no surprise given the increasing attempts in today’s organizations to close the gap between those at the top and those at the bottom (Child, 2015). According to Kellerman (2014), reducing the distance between leaders and employees results in a growing importance of teamwork. Successful collaboration within groups, however, requires a leader that enables a strong group cohesion as perceived by the employees. Building on this notion, a framework for understanding the formation of this collective experience in the organizational context has been established. This framework is based on two influential social psychological theories: self-categorization (Turner, 1985) and social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Both draw on a social identity approach which derives from the core insight that organizational behavior develops from people’s sense of themselves as a group member (‘us’) rather than an individual (‘I’). Further, Morton, Wright, Peters, Reynolds, and Haslam (2012) propose that a sense of shared identity within a group is crucial in determining positive work-related outcomes.

This led social identity theorists to concentrate on leadership processes, since leadership is about leading groups of people that together represent a larger entity (e.g., a department within an organization). Haslam, Reicher, and Platow (2011) argue that, contrary to traditional leadership theories endorsing an individualistic perspective of the leader, the social identity approach to leadership stimulates the idea that the leader and employees identify themselves as parts of a common group. Here, the core task of the leader lies in the creation of a shared sense of group identity among the employees, as a sort of “mental glue” binding them together (Haslam et al., 2011). Haslam et al. (2011) point out that any quality that sets a leader apart from his or her employees will undermine his or her leadership effectiveness. For example, in one study a great difference in salary between the leader and the employees led to a high turnover rate among the employees (Pfeffer & Davis-Blake, 1992). This suggests that leadership effectiveness is greater when employees perceive an alignment between the psychology of the leader and themselves, which in turn will cause them to be more motivated to follow the leaders’ instructions (Haslam et al., 2017).

Therefore, building on research findings like the ones by Pfeffer and Davis-Blake (1992), a new psychology of leadership has emerged, generally known as the social identity theory of leadership. This theory was first mentioned by the social psychologist Michael

Hogg (2003), claiming that this leadership style suggests a common “we” and exceeds the traditional individualism in leadership research. Due to its infancy, however, research on leadership embracing the social identity approach is limited. The present study therefore aims to examine the impact of Identity Leadership (IL) where leaders are engaged in creating and managing this shared social identity. Also, Haslam et al. (2011) consider IL a leadership style that encompasses a set of human relation skills allowing leaders to motivate employees through a shared sense of “us”, which is necessary for both leadership and followership. To examine the extent to which the theoretical construct IL is applicable and beneficial in real-world settings, Steffens et al. (2014) introduced the ILI (Identity Leadership Inventory). This inventory is based on criteria that represent the way in which a leaders’ actions lead to a shared identity as perceived by the employees.

Even though research exists that supports the general content, discriminant and criterion validity of the ILI, this has not been established on a national level. In other words, the extent to which IL is represented in various countries with diverse cultures and leadership notions has not been investigated yet. In addition, research related to the impact of IL on various work-related outcomes is limited to the study of criterion validity by Steffens et al. (2014), and this study included only two outcome variables (job satisfaction, team identification). Also, the authors do not differentiate between countries and their corresponding culture (United States, China) which is why the obtained findings solely apply for general practice.

Thus, the first objective of this thesis is to investigate the criterion validity of the ILI in Belgium. More specifically, I will focus on the extent to which Belgian employees assess their leaders’ engagement in IL and rate their outcomes at work. I will examine the impact of IL on three outcomes—burnout, work satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)—that have been shown to contribute to effective team work and are included in the modern leadership literature. Therefore, investigating the distinctiveness of IL compared to other leadership styles might be necessary to determine its value in terms of work-related outcomes.

Secondly, the thesis will further concentrate on OCB as a relevant outcome variable. Here, I strive to explore the relationship between IL and OCB by including the gender of the leader as a third moderating variable. The principal reason for directing attention to OCB lies in the existence of literature which suggests that the engagement in various leadership styles impacts the degree to which employees demonstrate OCBs. For the most part, the relationship between leadership style and OCB is explained using social exchange theory. Here, OCB can

be interpreted as an employees' voluntary contributions to the organization in exchange for what the employee expects to receive from it (Purcell, Kinnie, Swart, Rayton, & Hutchinson, 2008). León-Cázares (2012) argues that when a leader induces a sense of a shared identity, employees tend to internalize more readily the organization's mission and values.

Additionally, the employees' perception of fairness and equity at work is strengthened. This, in turn, enhances employees' intrinsic motivation to go beyond their individual interests to fulfill a larger collective vision (Hui, Law, Hackett, Duanxu, & Zhen Xiong, 2005).

Next, as stated above, I choose to include gender of the leader as a third variable. The question whether male or female are more effective leaders has been the focus of research with various leadership styles favoring one gender over another. More specifically, relationship-oriented leadership styles tend to be more effective when the leader displays characteristics traditionally associated with women (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). To date, however, IL has not been defined in terms of gender congeniality, and my reasoning to predict differences in OCB due to the gender of the leader will be based on Eagly's (1987) social-role theory.

The contributions of this thesis are threefold. First, it sheds light on the occurrence of IL in Belgium. Examining IL beyond national boundaries can provide valuable insight into the usefulness of ILI in leadership research, as it allows for comparisons and contrasts among various cultures. If the notion of leadership in both Europe and other continents conforms with IL, it speaks for the generalizability and inclusiveness of the ILI. On the other hand, if culture-specific findings are obtained, the ILI will support diversity and multilateralism and thus contribute to the leadership research in the context of ever increasing globalization. Also, focusing on cross-cultural issues may promote research to identify new relationships with variables that have not been considered yet, for example history, religion or language. This information can serve as a helpful source for people working in cross-cultural environments, such as a manager doing business with organizations in other countries.

Second, enhanced knowledge about the impact of IL on relevant work-related outcomes over time can be very valuable. For instance, findings about the relationship with burnout can serve as a valuable starting point for leadership development on an individual and organizational level. Finally, exploring whether the gender of the leader plays a moderating role in predicting OCB might lead to conclusions that not only add to Eagly's (1987) social-role theory, but also might stimulate research in terms of other work-related outcomes. There is some controversy regarding leadership styles and gender within the leadership literature, and the number of women in leadership positions is still quite low (Janjuha-Jivraj &

Chisholm, 2016). Given this under-representation of female leaders (Rhode, 2016), the investigation of differences in outcomes between male and female leaders remains a hot topic.

The thesis is organized as follows. First, I begin by providing an overview of Identity Leadership, together with a discussion of the theoretical background of each outcome variable. The hypotheses are presented and explained sequentially. Next, I review the theoretical background of leadership and gender, followed by a conceptual model, and the discussion of the methods and results. The thesis concludes with a general discussion of the findings, limitations and strengths of the study. Finally, directions for future research and practical implications are proposed.

## **Theoretical background and hypotheses**

### **Defining Identity Leadership**

The overarching concept of IL is that it embodies a process of social identity management. According to Haslam et al. (2011), the key tasks of the leader is to embody and promote the interests and values that define the group, to create and shape a perceivable group identity and to apply it in real-life settings, for instance by developing activities to openly live out the group membership. Another feature of IL is its resemblance with transformational leadership, a leadership style that recognizes the importance of a collective dimension and a shared perspective. Here, the leader enables and inspires employees to go beyond contractual agreements by showing them trust, respect and fair treatment. Transformational leadership, therefore, challenges the traditional view of individualistic leadership and instead corresponds to relationship-oriented leadership styles such as authentic leadership (Haslam et al., 2011).

Yet, IL is distinct from the latter, because it not only goes beyond the leaders' individuality, but it also considers employees as they are needed for organizational progress. Here, the social identity approach comes into play. First, Turner (1985) argues in his theory of self-categorization that people tend to form a self-concept by defining themselves in terms of a group membership. Second, social identity theory complements self-categorization theory as it states that people not only seek to become group members, but they also focus on attributes that unify them as such, such as to think and act in collective interest (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Accordingly, by being part of a common group, leaders and followers are bound together by a shared feeling of "us".

## **Establishing criterion validity of IL**

So far, research on relationship-oriented leadership generally demonstrates beneficial relationships with relevant work-related outcomes. For instance, transformational leadership has been shown to positively relate to employees' work engagement but display a negative relationship with turnover intention (Ding, Li, Zhang, Sheng, & Wang, 2017). Focusing on IL, Steffens et al. (2014) demonstrated general criterion validity of the ILI using several outcomes. As mentioned above, the three outcome variables to be measured in this study are burnout, work satisfaction and OCB. My decision to include these outcomes is primarily based on their direct and indirect effect on teamwork. Team-based structures are increasingly common, and a growing body of evidence links teamwork with greater efficiency, productivity and innovation, compared to employees working in isolation (West, 2012).

Maslach and Leiter (2008) argue that the expression of negative emotions that typically go with burnout, lead to unproductive social relationships and, in turn, undermine effective teamwork. Work satisfaction also was shown to have a positive and significant relationship with team performance (Politis, 2006). A longitudinal study conducted by Lin and Peng (2010) found a direct positive relationship between OCB and team performance, via the mediating effect of group cohesion, a core concept of Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. Bandura explains that people observing fellow employees engaging in OCB (e.g., help newcomers to fit in with the team culture) perceive this action as a behavioral guideline and learn from its impact, which eventually facilitates a shared cognition (Lin & Peng, 2010).

In the following section, I will introduce and discuss the three outcome variables, review relevant literature about their relationship with leadership, and explain how I anticipate the outcome variables to be related with IL.

*Burnout.* Even though burnout is a well-studied phenomenon in the work context, there is no universally accepted definition (Jiang, 2016). Many researchers, however, refer to it as physical, emotional and mental exhaustion due to prolonged stress and lack of recovery, which is associated with negative consequences such as detachment and reduced performance (e.g., Bährer-Kohler, 2012; Jiang, 2016). In fact, today's definition of burnout has been used more than 35 years already and therefore Desart, Schaufeli and De Witte (2017) carefully examined its symptoms in a recent study with a sample of various field experts. Here, next to the common core symptoms of depletion, cognitive and emotional loss of control, and mental detachment, three additional symptoms were identified: complaints of depression, behavioral stress and psychosomatic stress. Burnout was studied as an outcome variable in this study for

several reasons. First, gaining more insight into concepts related with burnout is valuable not only given its current relevancy, but also because it occurs within the scope of many occupations (see Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Second, burnout not only concerns affected employees, but it also has negative consequences for group members and processes. For instance, in a study conducted by Welp, Meier, and Manser (2016), clinician's emotional exhaustion led to reduced interpersonal teamwork.

Another argument for the inclusion of burnout is the theoretical consensus that leadership plays a major role in generating burnout. In line with this notion, Maslach et al. (2001) argued that a lack of social support from one's leader is strongly related to burnout. In fact, the relationship between leadership and burnout varies depending on leadership styles. While transformational leadership negatively relates to burnout, transactional and laissez-faire leadership have a positive relationship with burnout (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010). According to Cheng, Bartram, Karimi, and Leggat (2016), leadership influences burnout through the psychological mechanism of social identification. Social identification, acquired through a group membership, allows employees to feel connected with and supported by members of the same group, thereby contributing to employees' well-being and ability to cope with stress (Haslam, Jetten, Postmes, & Haslam, 2009). When group members harness the social support acquired through this shared identity, the negative effects of stress are buffered. Hence, a leader that strengthens social identity among his or her employees may also temper their experience of burnout (Cheng et al., 2016). In sum, given the relationship-oriented nature of IL and its roots in social identity theory, I expect the same negative relationship with burnout as found in research examining transformational leadership and burnout.

*Hypothesis 1: IL is negatively related to burnout.*

*Work Satisfaction.* Work satisfaction is most commonly defined as the positive feelings and attitudes people have about their work and its aspects. It describes the general well-being of the employee and can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction, depending on external and internal circumstances (Aziri, 2011). Examining the relationship between leadership and work satisfaction is of great importance as it has relevant consequences for both employee and organizational productivity. For instance, work satisfaction has been shown to explain a considerable amount of variance in work-related outcomes, like loyalty and absenteeism (Robbins, 2009). Furthermore, there is a strong body of evidence that leadership affects work satisfaction, even more so than individual employee characteristics.

Adopting the social identity perspective, the relationship between leadership and work satisfaction can be explained by means of organizational identification and work engagement (Karanika-Murray, Duncan, Pontes, & Griffiths, 2015). Organizational identification is a specific form of social identification, whereby employees define themselves in terms of the organization for which they work. Consequently, the beliefs and values of an employee get intermixed with those of the organization and a strong psychological bond between the employee and the organization evolves. This bond may enhance the employee's attitude toward the job and willingness to engage with his or her work. Karanika-Murray et al. (2015) argue that work engagement, in turn, leads to fulfillment and happiness and is thereby positively related to work satisfaction. In terms of leadership, Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, and Frey (2013) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and both work satisfaction and team performance, which underscores the importance of supporting work satisfaction in today's organizations. Consistent with prior research, the validation of the ILI by Steffens et al. (2014) confirmed a positive relationship between IL and overall work satisfaction. Taken together, these theories and observations lead me to propose similar results in the current study.

*Hypothesis 2: IL is positively related to work satisfaction.*

*Organizational citizenship behavior.* The interpretation of OCB has undergone several refinements since it was first coined by Organ (1988). Meanwhile, the most general and updated research defines OCB as “the set of behaviors that sustain or enhance the cooperative system of the organization but are not systematically or generally recorded in the formal system of the organization or tied in any consistent way to specific rewards” (Organ, 2016, p. 5). I have chosen OCB as an outcome variable for the similar reasons stated above in regard to work satisfaction. Due to its prosocial and altruistic nature, OCB is recognized as a relevant contribution to team performance, which in turn makes the organizations flourish (Gemmiti, 2008). For instance, if an employee works overtime to help a colleague with a task unrelated to his job it has benefits for both the colleague and the organization. Nevertheless, examining the relationship between leadership and OCB is particularly important, as it may impact the degree to which employees are motivated to perform beyond their job requirements. Thus, OCB is a desired phenomenon within organizations.

Numerous studies support a relationship between various leadership styles and OCB. For example, supportive and transformational leadership is positively correlated with OCB,



whereas directive and transactional leadership is negatively correlated with OCB (Euwema, Wendt, & van Emmerik, 2007; Lian & Tui, 2012). Drawing on social identity theory, the underlying process through which relationship-oriented leadership leads to OCB is thought to be group identification. If employees identify with a group, they generally emphasize collective interests and perceive group successes or failures as their own. Consequently, when engaging in OCB employees tend to experience feelings of achievement and satisfaction (Tse & Chiu, 2012). For example, helping a colleague not only improves group effectiveness, but it also is internally rewarding for the individual. In terms of IL, previous evidence underpins the social identity theory as it suggests a higher level of employee commitment when leaders actively foster a shared group identity (Haslam et al., 2011). Apart from these findings, not much is known about the impact of IL on OCB. However, work commitment has been found to have a significant positive relationship with OCB (Ariani, 2012), and employees who are devoted to their work are more likely to engage in altruistic, prosocial behavior. Based on this research and the social identity mechanism described above, I hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 3: IL is positively related to OCB.*

### **Gender of leader as a moderator**

The second objective of this study is to examine the relationship between IL and OCB by considering the gender of the leader. Theoretically, the question whether one gender is generally more effective in leading than the other has motivated considerable research. One of the most recognized theories in this domain is Eagly's (1987) social-role theory of gender differences in social behavior, which states that people grow up with culturally defined gender roles and expect others to behave consistently with this gender role. Here, both genders internalize the cultural expectations about their gender, leading to intrinsic motivation to engage in gender-consistent activities. This can be problematic for female leaders, because leadership is a social role that generally requires qualities which are traditionally considered masculine. According to Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995), women eventually end up in a role conflict by taking on masculine traits as a leader. In turn, this often leads to further devaluation of their leadership effectiveness.

However, Eagly (1987) argues that this role conflict can be minimized through the adoption of a more feminine leadership style. In other words, when taking on a leadership style that is consistent with traits traditionally regarded as feminine, female leaders are no longer devalued in terms of their leadership effectiveness. Hence, even though social-role

theory suggests that men are more effective leaders than women, this difference is non-existent when female leaders adopt female consistent leadership styles. This position aligns with contingency theories of leadership. Notwithstanding the criticism related to practical application, contingency theories emphasize the impact of leadership contexts. In other words, the theories hold that leadership effectiveness depends on situational factors, such as the gender's leadership style and that there is no 'one best way' of leadership (Northouse, 2012). Women and men differ in their leadership effectiveness as their leadership style is chronically different. In general, women adopt a democratic, participative and interpersonally-oriented style, whereas men manifest a more task-oriented and autocratic style (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

This fit between gender roles and leadership roles is referred to as the "gender congeniality" of leadership roles, which is partly biologically determined and partly influenced by differences in ability. From this standpoint, female leaders are rated as more effective when the leadership role requires a higher level of interpersonal abilities, such as collaboration and getting along with colleagues and subordinates. Also, women are relatively more relationship-oriented, non-hierarchical and interested in sharing information and power (Rosener, 1990). In contrast, male leaders are rated as more effective when adopting a leadership role that requires a task focus, such as directing and controlling people. These findings are consistent with the results of a study conducted by Cavallo and Brienza (2006), where female leaders scored higher on interpersonal competencies compared to male leaders. Cross and Madson (1997) argue that this difference in interpersonal processes may be related to self-schemas, and they distinguish between independent and interdependent self-schemas held by males and females as a group, respectively.

By now, numerous leadership styles are characterized by a relationship-oriented approach and the idea of connecting with subordinates on a deeper level. Consequently, these leadership styles tend to be more congenial, that is better suited, to women (Billing & Alvesson, 2002). In fact, Billing and Alvesson (2002) claim that "recent conceptions of leadership and management are more in harmony with what the gender literature frequently refers to as feminine values and orientations" (p.146). For instance, connective leadership has been classified as a female leadership style in the 21st-century workplace with aspects like human interaction, emotionality and group processes, which are central to the traditional female role behavior (Lipman-Blumen, 1992). Likewise, studies like *The Pollution Game* by Watzke, Doktor, Dana, and Rubenstein (1972) demonstrated that compared to men, women tend to set aside their self-interest for the sake of the group.

As previously mentioned, the literature about the link between social identity theory and gender congeniality in terms of leadership is scarce. However, taking in mind that the core aspect of IL is about connecting and collaborating with subordinates, I predict the same effect of gender congeniality as demonstrated in other relationship-oriented leadership styles. More specifically, due to women's superiority in social skills, I propose that they possess the characteristics found to be effective for group processes and IL. Therefore, the adoption and enactment of IL is probably more strongly pronounced in female leaders than male leaders.

Another crucial point to consider is whether men or women are rated as more effective leaders depending on the type of organization in which they lead. That is, female leaders tend to be more effective in the civilian sector, such as organizations active in business, government, social service and education. In contrast, male leaders are perceived as more effective in autocratic sectors like the military (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Autocratic sectors generally require a leader with attributes like dominance, a trait that typically is more strongly displayed in men, both physically and psychologically (Browne, 2007). The sample of this study mostly consists of business sector employees. Thus, a more female-consistent leadership style may be appropriate, which makes it even more interesting to examine the occurrence of IL and to what degree it is more strongly represented by female leaders.

As indicated above, relationship-oriented leadership styles are broadly associated with positive outcomes at work. Relationship-oriented leadership consistently improves motivation, work satisfaction and team performance, while this is less frequently the case in task-oriented leadership styles (Davis & Buskist, 2007). A possible explanation for this association might be that relationship-oriented leadership stimulates interconnections and communication, which consequently results in the enhancement of the information flow and work-related outcomes (Crowell, 2015). Moreover, Harwiki (2016) conducted a study with leaders and employees of women cooperatives and found that engagement in servant leadership positively related to OCB. These leadership styles are closely related to IL in their focus on collaboration and group processes. Research confirming a positive relationship between IL and OCB is limited. Ultimately, I expect to find a moderator effect of gender on the relationship between IL and OCB, and this effect is predicted to be stronger when the leader in question is female rather than male.

*Hypothesis 4:* The positive relationship between IL and OCB is moderated by gender of the leader; the relation between IL and OCB is expected to be stronger for female leaders.

To summarize, I anticipate that IL relates negatively with burnout and positively with both work satisfaction and OCB, while gender of the leader moderates the relationship between IL and OCB. The hypotheses are outlined in the conceptual model (see Figure A1).

## Method

### Participants

This field study used a heterogeneous sample of adult employees working in Belgium. Participants were approached via simple random sampling and invited to fill out an online survey about leadership and well-being at work. Initially, the participants were selected based on their employment status in Belgium, and no differentiation was made in terms of the participants' education level, gender, SES status or employment level (i.e., both employees and leaders could participate). However, participants were required to (a) be at least 18 years of age, (b) be employed in Belgium and (c) have a direct supervisor or leader. Therefore, only people working in organizations with hierarchical levels were included in the data collection, whereas self-employed persons without a leader were excluded. Participation was voluntary and not reimbursed. Anonymity and confidentiality was guaranteed to encourage participation. Upon completion of the survey, participants were also given the chance to win one out of five 20€ vouchers from bol.com as an additional incentive. Ethical approval for the implementation of this study was obtained from the Social and Societal Ethics Committee at KU Leuven.

A total of 336 participants from both Dutch and French speaking parts of Belgium (Flanders and Wallonia, respectively) participated. Out of those, 189 participants did not fill out the online survey completely. Still, data of those participants was included in the analysis, because relevant information for this study can be yielded from the parts of the survey they filled out before dropping out. A possible explanation for the early dropout could be that the survey was relatively long (i.e., approximately 25 minutes). In this study, most participants prematurely quit the survey after completing only half of the survey. This is in accordance with the literature, which holds that long surveys generally have a higher dropout rate compared to short surveys (e.g., Hughes, 2012; Hewson, Vogel, & Laurent, 2015). The overall response rate of this study was 44% and comparable to similar studies. In fact, Chapman, Hopwood and Shields (2009) claim that over time, the response rate of surveys used for organizational research has declined from 56% to 36%. One reason for this decline in participants might be the increasing job and time pressure experienced by employees (Chapman et al., 2009). Nevertheless, the response rate is lower than expected, possibly because data collection took place during the winter holidays where a substantial number of potential participants were absent from work.

During explorative data analyses using scatter plots, I also identified one extreme value resulting from a participant who provided the same response to every survey question. These data are untrustworthy in a sense that almost certainly the participant has not filled in the survey truthfully, causing inaccurate measurement. Therefore, the data of this participant was removed from the dataset to ensure valid statistical analyses and to avoid distorted results.<sup>2</sup> The final sample size was 146 participants. Notwithstanding the high dropout rate and the decrease in completed surveys, it is important to note that most variables relevant to this study were located in the first half of the survey. Therefore, more data for these variables were available for analysis. Out of the total sample size of 335 participants, 221 participants provided a complete set of responses for IL (response rate = 66%), 168 participants gave responses to all items related to burnout (response rate = 50%), 185 participants filled out the section concerning OCB (response rate = 55%) and finally, 181 participants provided full information about work satisfaction (response rate = 54%). The participants were given five categories to choose from to indicate their age. In total, the sample ranged in age from 18 to 55+ years (with categorical classes: 18-25 years: 16.44%, 25-35 years: 39.73%, 35-45 years: 14.38%, 45-55 years: 19.18%, > 55 years: 10.27%). In terms of gender, the sample consisted of 80 female employees (55%) and 66 male employees (45%). However, the gender of the employees' leader was not evenly balanced--100 leaders were male (69%) and only 46 leaders were female (31%). Out of all participants, 48 participants (33%) held a leadership position with a responsibility for at least three employees. Moreover, 77% of the participants worked full-time in contrast with the remaining 23% of participants working either part-time or having a mini-job. Finally, the tenure of the participants ranged between less than one year and more than 20 years with an average work experience of 7 years (with categorical classes: < 1 year: 9.59%, 1-3 years: 13.69%, 4-10 years: 26.71%, 11-20 years: 20.55%, > 20 years: 29.45%). Most participants had 4 or more years of work experience.

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<sup>2</sup> In the original data set, data point 333 appeared to be the extreme observation. When included in the data analyses, the results differed from the ones where the extreme observation was eliminated. For example, when included, the interaction-effect of IL and gender of leader turned out to be non-significant ( $B = -.15, p = .172$ ), whereas a significant interaction effect was shown when the extreme observation was excluded ( $B = -.21, p = .045$ ).

## Material

Data were collected by means of an online survey and the participants were directed to the survey either through following a link or decoding a QR-code to fill out the survey on their smartphones. The survey consisted of five parts measuring different variables which were presented to the participants in a fixed order (see Appendix B for the original English version including all scales to be completed). Participants were required to answer each item prior to continuing with the following item. Thus, skipping items was not possible and completed data sets were ensured until the end of participation. Firstly, all participants needed to fill out the ILI. Secondly, the three work-related outcomes to be tested in this study were assessed (burnout, work satisfaction, OCB). Finally, participants were asked to provide demographical information.

## Measures

All measures were self-report and rated on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 (*never; does not apply; disagree completely*) to 7 (*every day; applies fully; agree completely*). The survey was provided in both Dutch and French to avoid misunderstandings regarding contents and to cover participants from all regions in Belgium.

*IL.* Steffens et al.'s (2014) 15 item ILI was used which showed excellent reliability ( $\alpha = 0.98$ ). An example item was: "My immediate supervisor creates a sense of cohesion within the group". Even though this study lacks a pure objective measure of leader effectiveness, some data measuring work-related outcomes were collected, such as employee burnout, work satisfaction, OCB.

*Burnout.* The extent to which the participants experienced burnout was measured using a subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). This subscale assesses symptoms of emotional exhaustion and consists of nine items (e.g., "I feel emotionally drained from my job") with  $\alpha = 0.89$ .

*Work Satisfaction.* Eleven items from the Job Diagnostic Survey (van Dick, Schnitger, Schwartzmann-Buchelt, & Wagner, 2001) were used (e.g., "I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job") with  $\alpha = 0.74$ .

*Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).* This was measured with five items used in van Dick, Grojean, and Wieseke (2006). A sample item was "I gladly help orient new colleagues", and  $\alpha = 0.74$ .

Apart from IL, three additional leadership styles were measured to allow comparisons. Leader-member-exchange (LMX) was assessed using the seven-item (LMX7) scale by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). This scale measures the extent to which one's leader engages in LMX leadership with items like "What are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?" and shows excellent reliability ( $\alpha = 0.93$ ). Transformational leadership was measured with the Global Transformational Leadership scale (GTL; Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000). This scale consists of seven items (e.g., "My immediate supervisor fosters trust, involvement and co-operation among team members") with  $\alpha = 0.95$ . Authentic leadership was examined with the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008) using nine items (e.g., "My immediate supervisor makes decisions based on his/her core beliefs"). The scale demonstrated excellent reliability ( $\alpha = 0.94$ ).

## **Procedure**

After translation of the survey into Dutch and French, I contacted Human Resource managers of medium-sized to large organizations either personally or via mail, as well as personal contacts (e.g., family and friends, professional network) with a written request to participate in the study. This request contained broad information about the objectives and implications of this study and an invitation to spread the word and distribute the link among the employees. I offered two incentives: 1) a presentation about organization-specific results to be obtained from this study, and 2) a lottery with a one-in-five chance of winning a 20€ voucher from bol.com. To qualify for the lottery, participants had to complete the survey and provide their email address. Upon agreement with the Human Resource manager or another person with a similar function, the link with the corresponding language was sent to the participants' email address at work either directly by me or indirectly by their direct supervisor/leader. Additionally, I joined professional networks in LinkedIn.com to reach participants that fulfilled the criteria of participation. The data were automatically transmitted to SPSS which helped keeping track of the sample size and potential errors.

## **Data analysis**

Prior to examining the criterion validity of the ILI, new variables were generated with the mean score of all variables to be measured in this study. More specifically, mean scores were computed for the scales of IL, burnout, work satisfaction and OCB based on 221, 168,



181 and 185 responses, respectively. Correlations were then computed for the mean score of IL with each outcome variable, together with scatterplot trend lines which provided first impressions of the relationships to be explored. High correlations would suggest a high degree of criterion-related validity. In this case, Spearman's rank correlations (two-tailed) were used as it seemed more appropriate for the investigation of criterion validity. This is because the survey yielded ordinal rather than continuous or interval data (e.g., participants rated their agreement on a scale from 1 to 7).

Finally, to test for incremental validity, I conducted a linear regression analysis to control for the other leadership styles included in the survey, and to investigate whether IL explains more variance in the outcome variables compared to other leadership styles (i.e., LMX, transformational and authentic leadership). Incremental validity is supported if IL demonstrates significant variance in the outcome variables, above and beyond that of the other leadership styles measured in this study. For the sake of completeness and to justify the use of linear regression analysis for prediction purposes, the data was tested for the assumptions of linearity, independence, normality of the error distribution and homoscedasticity. If violated, the scientific findings obtained through linear regression may be inefficient, incorrect or misleading. This limitation should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings.

Several linear regression analyses were executed for the assessment of the relationship between IL and OCB and a potential moderating effect of leader gender. First, I conducted a simple linear regression to examine if there was a significant main effect between IL and gender of the leader. Second, I computed the interaction term comprised of IL and gender of the leader as a new variable, and I then conducted a multiple linear regression analysis to test the interaction. A significant interaction effect implies that IL and gender of the leader interact to influence the degree of OCB. Finally, if the results showed a significant interaction effect, then it is appropriate to explore the underlying main effects. Therefore, I ran two simple linear regression analyses to examine if there was a relationship between IL and OCB: one analysis with only male leaders and one with only female leaders, respectively.

## Results

### Descriptive statistics

Table A1 reports the means, standard deviations and intercorrelations of the study variables. Each correlation between IL and the three criterion variables of this study were significant, suggesting a high degree of criterion-related validity. All findings related to the criterion validity of IL are summarized in Figure A2.

To fully assess the fit of the model used in this study, I checked the common assumptions related to multiple regression: linearity, normality, homoscedasticity and independence of the criterion variable. First, I conducted three one-way ANOVA's to check for linearity with IL as the predictor variable and burnout, work satisfaction or OCB as criterion variables. The deviation from linearity was not significant for burnout, work satisfaction and OCB-- $p = .96$  and  $p = .71$  and  $p = .29$ , respectively. The relatively low value for OCB comes as no surprise as the scatter plots also indicated a non-linear relationship between the two variables. Overall, I am confident the assumption of linearity within my sample has been met for all criterion variables.

Second, the assumption of normality was assessed using exploratory analysis. The histograms of IL, as well as those for work satisfaction and OCB, indicated a left-skewed distribution. In contrast, burnout appeared to be distributed with most scores clustered to the right. All variables also were tested for normality with a significance threshold of  $\alpha = 0.05$ . In this study, the values for IL and all three criterion variables OCB, work satisfaction and burnout were significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) and thus did not meet the assumption of normality. While investigating boxplots and after deleting the extreme value mentioned above, eight potential outliers were detected along with two other extreme values. These outliers and extreme values were removed and the analyses repeated, but these additional analyses revealed no statistical impact on the results and assumptions. Hence, the outliers and extreme values were kept in the data set and the analyses were conducted as planned.<sup>3</sup> Exploratory data analysis showed that all three criterion variables met the assumption of homoscedasticity with all data points evenly scattered along the regression line, representing equal variance for all data points (see Figure A3). Finally, the assumption of independence in this study was not violated given the fact that the observations of the criterion variable IL were neither clustered or collected over time, thereby ruling out the possibility of serially correlated criterion values. The results of hypothesis testing are discussed next.

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<sup>3</sup> The following data points appeared to be outliers: 190, 233, 247, 249, 259, 291, 312, 313. The exclusion of these data points had no impact on the assumptions and results, whatsoever.

### **Hypothesis 1: IL and burnout**

Hypothesis 1 concerns the relationship between Identity Leadership (IL) and burnout. As anticipated, the data points indicated a negative relationship (Figure A1). Table A1 shows the significant correlation between the two variables and confirms the direction of this relationship ( $r = -.39, p < 0.01$ ). This suggests that a high degree of IL behavior represented by a leader is associated with less employee burnout. Hence, hypothesis 1 was supported.

### **Hypothesis 2: IL and work satisfaction**

Hypothesis 2 concerns the relationship between IL and work satisfaction. A significant correlation was found in the expected direction ( $r = .63, p < 0.01$ , see Table A1), and the positive correlation between IL and work satisfaction indicates that the work satisfaction of an employee is related to the extent to which his or her leader engages in IL behavior. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

### **Hypothesis 3: IL and organizational citizenship behavior**

Hypothesis 3 concerns the positive relationship between IL and OCB. However, at first sight the scatter plot did not show a clear positive relationship (see Figure A1). This was confirmed by the low correlation between IL and OCB as is shown in Table A1, nevertheless resulting in a significant positive relationship ( $r = .26, p < 0.01$ ). As a result, the findings of this study confirm the conception that there is a positive relationship between a leader's IL and employees' OCB.

To further elucidate the incremental validity of IL, two hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted by first entering IL in the equation, followed by the inclusion of all other leadership styles measured in this study. The results of the first regression analysis that only includes IL as a predictor shows a significant contribution of IL for the three criterion variables. Specifically, IL was significantly related to burnout ( $B = -.30, p < .001$ ), work satisfaction ( $B = .34, p < .001$ ) and OCB ( $B = .14, p < .05$ ), therefore providing support for hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. However, the results of the second regression analysis including IL, transformational leadership, authentic leadership and LMX leadership, did not indicate any increase in predictive ability of IL with respect to these three criterion variables above and beyond the other leadership styles. IL did not add incremental validity with respect to burnout ( $B = -.16, p = .19$ ), work satisfaction ( $B = .07, p = .32$ ), or OCB ( $B = .04, p = .69$ ). All results are presented in Table A2.

This finding can possibly be explained either by the full absence of additional contribution of IL in predicting these criterion variables, or by the strong relationship between

IL and the other covariates transformational, authentic and LMX leadership (see Table A3). The correlations between IL and the three other leadership styles are notably high ( $r = 0.87$ ,  $r = 0.81$ ,  $r = 0.79$ , all significant with  $p < .01$ ), implying potential multicollinearity. To determine the similarity of these predictors, I performed a variance inflation factor (VIF) test using the more conservative maximum threshold for identification of multicollinearity among predictors of 3.3, as proposed by Kock and Lynn (2012). This alternative threshold is an acceptable alternative to the more stringent one of 2.5. As presented in Table A4, the threshold of 3.3 was exceeded for the most part with VIF values ranging from 3.03 to 5.78. However, the collinearity was not exceeding the value of 10, therefore implying no severe inflation of variance (O'Brien, 2007). Given the possibility of high multicollinearity, the additional predictors might have accounted for variance from each other, resulting in non-significance. To verify this supposition, I compared the predictive ability of IL with all leadership styles separately. Indeed, in all cases the introduction of IL as a predictor did not provide additional variance accounted for in the criterion variables. Consequently, IL appears to provide no additional predictive input in the organizational sample when considering different leadership styles.

Counter to the hypothesis, the proportion of variance explained by IL beyond the other leadership styles assessed in this study (transformational leadership, authentic leadership, LMX leadership) was not significant with  $R^2 = .19$ ,  $R^2 = .47$  and  $R^2 = .08$  for burnout, work satisfaction and OCB, respectively. It is notable that almost 50% of the variance in work satisfaction in my sample could be accounted for by the various leadership styles.

#### **Hypothesis 4: IL and OCB with gender of leader as a moderating effect**

Hypothesis 4 concerns the relationship between IL and OCB moderated by the gender of the leader. I tested the assumption that IL is related to employee OCBs and that this relationship would be stronger when his or her leader is female rather than male. First, the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), presented in Table A5, clearly revealed a non-significant statistical main effect of gender of leader on IL ( $p = .99$ ). Whether a person in a leading position is male or female appears not to influence the degree to which this person engages in IL behavior. However, it should be noted that when testing for normality, the value of the Shapiro-Wilk Test was below the commonly accepted threshold value of .05 (see Table A6). Therefore, the data of my sample significantly deviates from a normal distribution and given the unequal sample size of each gender group, this violation of normality increases the

risk of invalid statistical inferences as obtained from my data. A Levene's test of homogeneity of variance confirmed that the assumption of homoscedasticity was met ( $p = .99$ ).

Second, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to test for a significant interaction. The results of the multiple regression analysis with IL, gender of leader, and the interaction-term of both variables as predictor variables, and OCB as the criterion variable are presented in Table A7. Counter to the hypothesis, the interaction of IL and gender of the leader was not significant ( $B = -.21, p = .045$ ). The predictor variables did not explain a considerable proportion of variance in OCB ( $R^2 = .06, F(3,142) = 3.20, p = .025$ ). In other words, only 6% of the variance in OCB could be accounted for by this multiple regression model. As has been the case in the one-way ANOVA, no significant main effect of gender of leader on IL was found ( $B = 1.03, p = .046$ ). Also, the main effect of IL on OCB appeared not to be significant using the more stringent significance threshold of  $\alpha = .001$  ( $B = .47, p = .011$ ). All findings of the multiple regression analysis are summarized in Figure A4.

Prior to the regression analysis, correlations between all variables included in this study were checked and a relatively high significant correlation was found between IL and the interaction term ( $r = .73$ ). Due to this indication of multicollinearity, all predictor variables were centered by subtracting the mean from each predictor and multiplying the resulting residuals with IL to represent the interaction effect. Even though multicollinearity reduced to  $r = .20$ , it appeared that centering the variables had no impact on the results of the multiple regression analysis. One possible reason for this lack of impact might be that the correlation of  $r = .73$  was high, but not excessively high to be problematic. This was confirmed by another variance inflation factor test, revealing a VIF value of 1 which is below the maximum threshold of 3.3. Therefore, I decided to keep the data as it is and continue the data analysis without centered variables.

## Discussion

The first aim of this study was to examine the criterion validity of the ILI in Belgium by determining the impact of identity management on relevant work-related outcomes. Specifically, the study explored whether the relationships between IL burnout, work satisfaction and OCB were significant above and beyond those for transformational, authentic and LMX leadership. The goal was to provide novel insights regarding both the value of IL in terms of work-related outcomes and the distinctiveness of IL compared to other leadership styles. In line with hypotheses, the findings of the first study demonstrate (1) a significant negative relationship between IL and burnout, (2) a significant positive relationship between IL and work satisfaction and (3) a significant correlation between IL and OCB. Furthermore, results show a significant effect of IL on all three criterion variables. However, when examined simultaneously, it was found that IL appeared to have no additional predictive power above and beyond the other leadership styles tested in this study. Therefore, in contrast to previous findings, the current study does not provide further confirmation of the ILI's unique criterion validity.

Second, the role of leader gender as a moderating variable in the relationship between IL and OCB was tested. The findings did not support the role of gender as a moderator. This suggests that whether a leader is male or female does not have an impact on the relationship between IL and the extent to which one displays OCBs. Apart from this interaction, the magnitude to which a leader employs the IL style does not appear to be significantly related to the amount of reported OCBs of employees. The gender of a leader also does not seem to be of significant relevance in predicting employees' OCBs. It should be noted, though, that in this study I chose to set the significance threshold at  $\alpha = .001$  to avoid type I errors. This decision for a more stringent significance level is based on recommendations of psychological methodologists such as Tuerlinckx, Ceulemans, Debeer, and Fischer (2016). However, some p-values of the present study can be deemed significant when using a less conservative significance threshold of  $\alpha = .05$ . This, however, has its own problems, like dubious interpretations of accuracy.

### Theoretical implications

The findings of the current study contribute to the leadership literature in several ways. As previously mentioned, the results of this study demonstrate significant positive correlations between IL and work satisfaction and OCB, as well as a significant negative correlation between IL and burnout. These results are in accord with theoretical predictions

derived from recent literature about relationship-focused leadership styles such as IL (Haslam et al., 2011; Ariani, 2012; Cheng et al., 2016). However, a subsequent analysis of the ILI's incremental validity revealed that the impact of IL on various work-related outcomes is not significantly distinct in comparison with other leadership styles. Hence, the current study does not confirm the criterion validity and thereby usefulness of Steffens et al.'s (2014) ILI in leadership research.

As outlined above, even though it was found that IL relates significantly with all work-related outcomes examined in this study, the findings do not support the criterion validity of the ILI above and beyond other leadership styles. The findings of this study therefore are inconsistent with those found by Steffens et al. (2014) using a sample from the United States. However, when comparing only the correlations, both studies revealed a significant positive relationship between IL and work satisfaction. Furthermore, in the study of Steffens et al. (2014), a high degree of IL behavior seems to be significantly positively related with work engagement. Work engagement is a construct that not only has a positive relationship with OCB, but also was shown to act as a mediator of the relation between OCB and charismatic leadership (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010). In fact, Liu and Wang (2013) state that employees with a high amount of work engagement more readily engage in behavior that constitutes OCB. In the present study, IL appeared to be significantly positively related to OCB. One possible explanation for this finding might be that here, too, IL is indirectly related to OCB via an underlying positive relationship with work engagement. To sum up, some parallels between the results of both studies can be established, which speaks to the generalizability of the ILI. Yet, despite the statistically significant correlation between IL and OCB, this association can be considered practically negligible given its low correlation ( $r = .26$ ).

Aside from examining the criterion validity of ILI by means of work satisfaction and OCB, I investigated the relationship between IL and burnout, a work-related outcome that had not been assessed in the validation study of Steffens et al. (2014). The decision to add this to the set of criterion variables is based on theoretical grounds described earlier. By demonstrating that IL is negatively related to burnout, the present study further supports theories about the relevance of identity management across different outcomes. Yet, examining more than these three criterion variables goes beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, I recommend further research to detect a possible impact of IL on other outcomes that play a crucial role in teamwork. For instance, a leader that engages in IL might create a work atmosphere that stimulates trust, not only in the leader but also in one another. When

team members perceive reliance on one another, they are more likely to speak up without fearing rejection (Chmiel, 2017). Another interesting outcome to examine is the perception of equality among team members. A leader that fosters a feeling of “us” within a team might encourage an employee’s feeling of being treated fairly and just like all other team members (e.g., in regard of appreciated effort), resulting in better team performance.

Taken together, the findings of this study contribute directly to the theoretical literature as they do not provide solid evidence for the ILI’s criterion validity for the sample of Belgian employees. In fact, IL had no additional predictive power for all outcomes when compared to other leadership styles. For instance, this finding is inconsistent with the study of Steffens et al. (2014) where IL was shown to be distinguishable from authentic leadership. Therefore, the results of this study serve as an extension of the literature about leadership and followership in the sense that engagement in IL is seemingly not more beneficial for reaching work-related outcomes than engagement in authentic leadership.

Also, in this study IL was contrasted with two other prominent leadership approaches that were not considered before in identity management literature (i.e., transformational leadership, LMX leadership). Here, too, the effect of IL on all three outcomes did not account for additional variance beyond that of the other two leadership styles. Hence, another relevant question to ponder is how IL differs theoretically from other leadership styles, especially the ones that also draw upon identity management. For instance, like IL, transformational leadership draws upon social identity theory and has been shown to influence employees by increasing a collective identity (Tyler & De Cremer, 2005). While additional discriminant validity analyses are outside the bounds of this study, taking a superficial glance at the difference between the criterion validity results of both IL and transformational leadership allows first impressions. Interestingly, transformational leadership in this sample appears to be similarly correlated with the criterion variables as IL. In fact, the correlations between transformational leadership and burnout ( $r = -.41$ ), work satisfaction ( $r = .64$ ) and OCB ( $r = .26$ ) not only confirm the expected direction of the relationships, but also, all three correlations are significant and come very close to the correlations observed in IL. Building on these results, together with the observation that IL does not have predictive power beyond the three other leadership styles in this study, one might conclude that the impact of IL on work-related outcomes is not as strong as the impact of transformational leadership.

In this study, I also tested whether the gender of a leader plays a moderating role in predicting work-related outcomes. Findings contribute to IL research as it had not been defined before in terms of gender congeniality with some leadership styles being regarded as



especially suited for female or male leaders (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). However, counter my predictions, IL appears not to be gender-consistent in a sense that whether a leader engaging in IL behavior is male or female has no significant effect on work-related outcomes (e.g., OCB). These findings contradict the assertion of Eagly and Johnson (1990) that relationship-oriented leadership is generally more effective when leaders display characteristics associated with women. In her article about men's and women's psychological qualities, Eagly (1987) differentiates between men's "agentic" and women's "communal" attributes. According to Forsyth (2018), women are more communal through helpfulness and awareness of other's feelings, whereas men generally tend to be dominant and ambitious. This difference in qualities can be explained by the historical role of women as child-rearing required interpersonal skills and prosocial behavior (Hojat, 2016). Forsyth (2018) suggests that community is more important for the existence of a team, which links female-congenial attributes to IL. However, despite these theoretical claims that IL is a relationship-focused leadership style with its emphasis on teams and positive relationships within, hardly any literature explicitly states that IL is relationship-focused. For this reason, it might be interesting, if not necessary, to clarify whether the concept of IL is in fact a relationship-oriented leadership style rather than, for instance, a task-oriented leadership style.

Also, findings of this study provide theoretical insights on the occurrence of IL on a national, European level. Until now, the ILI had only been measured in the United States and China. Therefore, investigating the extent to which Belgian employees assess their leaders' IL behavior enables us to compare the occurrence of this leadership style on different continents. This helps inform the generalizability of IL across international borders and identify possible culture-specific findings. For instance, the mean of engagement in IL behavior as rated by employees in the United States (see Steffens et al., 2014) is 4.68 on a 7-point-Likert scale, whereas the mean of engagement in IL behavior as rated by Belgian employees is 4.63. Thus, the average degree of IL behavior in America seems to be comparable with the average degree of IL behavior in Europe, thereby suggesting generalization across borders. However, the IL mean as rated by Chinese employees is slightly higher with 5.16 (Steffens et al., 2014). Even if no statistical significant differences between these means exists, it would still be interesting to further explore the possibility of cultural aspects of IL behavior. If the extent to which leaders engage in IL differs greatly between countries, this might be an indication of culturally-contingent attributes that either help or hinder leadership. Wilderom et al. (1999) showed that attributes of transformational leadership might be beneficial in one culture but detrimental in another culture. Regarding IL, novel insights about the social identity theory

could be unraveled as using the social identity approach in a leadership context may not be of universal value.

Elaborating further on the observation above, Hofstede's (1983) widely known culture dimensions (power distance, indulgence, long term orientation, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, individualism) serve as a suitable framework for understanding the differences in IL means on a theoretical level. This is because leadership is a complex construct with a great amount of cultural issues, which align well with Hofstede's dimensions. For example, the issue of authority is represented in the magnitude of power distance, as well as dealing with unforeseeable and ambiguous events or environments, goes well with uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede & Arrindell, 1998). With respect to the present study, the focus is set on the dimension of individualism and collectivism, because it applies most to the underlying sense of "us" within IL. Whereas a high score on individualism represents a self-image that is defined in terms of "I", a high score on collectivism relates to a self-image defined in terms of "us". As for the latter, members of a group are expected to care for each other in exchange for loyalty, which ultimately leads to a perception of unity among leader and employees. (Hofstede, 1983).

Using the 'Country Comparison tool'<sup>4</sup> which is built on these culture dimensions and can publicly be accessed on the internet (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), it is striking that America and Belgium score relatively high on individualism with scores of 91 and 75. In contrast, China scores low on individualism with a score of 20. This comes as no surprise given the fact that America and Europe are classified as highly individualistic and most Asian countries are considered collectivists that value membership (Hopkins, 2016). So far, differences in IL across cultures have not received much attention in the identity management literature. Thus, the present study helps fill this void by assessing employees in Belgium and proposing Hofstede's culture dimensions as a potential underlying theoretical construct for the observed differences in IL engagement between China, America and Belgium.

### **Practical implications**

The findings demonstrate a positive impact of IL behavior on various work-related outcomes among the Belgian working population. Not only do these insights confirm the practical utility of identity management in leadership contexts, but they also guide its application in today's interconnected world where organizations are expanding their

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<sup>4</sup> See <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/> for more information.

geographical boundaries into international labor markets. For instance, knowing that IL relates to burnout, work satisfaction and OCB in American, Asian and European employees, engaging in IL can be stimulated in manager functions that drive business globally (e.g., working with customers of a different cultural background). Nowadays, applying a leadership style that is internationally beneficial for work-related outcomes is of high importance for both organizations and employees (Tucker, Bonial, Vanhove, & Kedharnath, 2014). For instance, (team) leaders that strive to enhance productivity of working groups (e.g., via OCB) or of the individual (e.g., via burnout or work satisfaction) might be determined to focus on team work and a shared feeling of “us”. The leaders should then reconsider their management style and assess if IL fits the team and organizational culture to ensure potential improvement. Taken together, the insights of this study might be of importance for cross-cultural organizations as the application of IL demonstrates a beneficial outcome on three different continents.

Another practical contribution of this study is that we gain valuable insights into the relevance of IL as a leadership approach, given the observation that IL is significantly related to work-related outcomes. Thus, if organizations wish to reduce burnout and pursue the reinforcement of work satisfaction and OCB among the employees, it can be advised to establish a leadership culture within the organization which has been shown to relate to these outcomes in the desired direction. This is especially the case in organizations that emphasize teamwork. In contrast with other leadership styles, managers engaging in IL build a connection with their employees by creating a collective identity which has been shown to result in unity, engagement and common goals (Haslam et al., 2011). Since the importance of teamwork within today’s organizational units is growing (Kelloway, Nielsen, & Dimoff, 2017), it might be advisable for these types of organizations to invest in practices that encourage IL behavior on management level. This leadership development could be done for example by raising awareness about IL throughout the organization and illustrating the advantages and pitfalls, as well as the relevance of implementing this specific leadership style. After stimulating motivation among the managers to flexibly adapt IL, training could be provided to the managers concerned to ensure a smooth adaptation in leadership behavior.

According to Riggio (2017), the implementation of a new leadership style is only effective, if the organization accepts and supports IL as a new leadership style. To guarantee acceptance and support of adapting IL as a new leadership style in an already existing group of people, such as a department, Haslam et al. (2011) recommended practical principles referred to as the three “R’s” (reflecting, representing, realizing) of identity leadership. First, a

leader needs to reflect on the group to determine how the group in question relates to other groups. He or she can do this by observing the group and understanding its history and culture. Second, a leader should be representing the group in a way that the group's values, norms and aspirations are being reflected and advanced by his or her actions. Third, a leader needs to make sure that the goals of the group are realized and that these achievements align with its identity. The three "R's" are considered successful principles for the introduction of IL that need to be sustained over time (Haslam et al., 2011).

However, one thing to consider is that a dramatical change in leadership behavior can also lead to undesirable side effects that hinder an organization's success. In a case described by Goleman and Boyatzis (2013), a leadership development training provided to the top executives turned out to be unsuccessful in its implementation, because the top executives did not see the added value of the new leadership style. Since they were not briefed about the reasons for a changed leadership style and how the new style would fit into the organization's culture, the top executives did not fully grasp the relevance of the leadership training, which resulted in defensive reactions. Thus, the reader needs to bear in mind that regardless of the advantages of IL demonstrated in this study, which leadership behavior is most adequate depends on the type of organization. The psychological fit in terms of leadership behavior and organizational culture is a dynamic relationship which is considered a critical antecedent for organizational effectiveness. However, this leader-culture fit and its benefits are largely situation-related (Burns, Kotrba, & Denison, 2013). For instance, sticking to the assumption that IL represents a leadership style more congruent to the female gender role, IL will not reap the desired benefits in military organizations where rather male-congenial leadership is desired, such as autocratic leadership (Eagly et al., 1995).

Hence, it remains crucial to acknowledge that the positive relationship between IL and work satisfaction and OCB, as well as the negative relationship between IL and burnout that were found in this study, do not imply that this is the case in every type of organization. The same holds for international organizations with managers working on a global level. Jogulu (2010) argues that a specific leadership style can vary due to cultural influences such as assumptions about effective leadership. Recognizing this is critical for global managers as different competences might need to be developed for different workplaces.

## **Strengths & limitations of study and suggestions for future research**

In addition to the various ways in which the findings add to the extant leadership literature, some methodological issues need to be addressed. One of the strengths of this study is that the survey completed by Belgian employees had first been translated from English into French and Dutch, the two officially spoken languages in Belgium. According to Hubscher-Davidson (2017), the translation of surveys into the participants' native language is critical for the reliability and validity of the obtained results, since the language of a survey can influence the response style of participants through cultural influences. Thus, assuming a correct translation of the survey, one of the potential threats of unreliable results has been prevented already at the beginning of the study.

A second strength of this study is that all variables concerned (IL, burnout, work satisfaction and OCB) were assessed via self-report rather than supervisor-rated. In fact, Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, and Johnson (2011) point out that self-rated performance in regard of OCB not only reflects the actual performance itself, but also the motivation which lies behind it. In contrast, the author argues that other-rated performance as appraised by the leader only captures the employee's behavior and therefore represents a less reliable source of information. Also, the psychological and perceptual nature of most variables being tested in this study cannot accurately be assessed and validated by an objective measure (Brazer & Bauer, 2013).

Apart from the strong points of this study, a critical look also reveals several shortcomings. First, self-report measures also can be considered a limitation of this study. As a matter of fact, the self-report measures of this study inevitably lead to criticism regarding common method variance (CMV). CMV is a widely known concern, because of its potential contaminating effect on the construct tested. By collecting psychological variables, such as the ones used in this study through self-report, Peeters, de Jonge, and Taris (2013) claim that the relationships between variables become inflated due to other construct-unrelated factors. The authors argue that personality traits, such as optimism, can distort the actual "true" results of the intended variable to be measured. For example, the OCB data obtained in this study might be biased through self-report. Here, the subjective perception of OCB may be intertwined with other variables which makes it difficult to determine cause and effect. A possible way to disentangle the predictor and criterion is by conducting controlled experiments that isolate these variables. Separate analyses can be executed to replicate the measurement of OCB either by assessing it several times or by applying different sources of measurement. For instance, future research may benefit from use of behavioral measures

through diverse objective behavior indices such as helping a coworker with personal matters or defending the policies of the organization.

The same argument holds true for the assessment of IL. When analyzing the results, it should be noted that the ILI assesses IL as it is perceived. Hence, it is not an objective measure of the extent to which a leader actually engages in IL behavior. Given that the judgments of the employees do not provide a measurement of actual behavior, the subjective ratings of the leaders' IL and effectiveness (as measured by means of work-related outcomes) can raise questions of validity. Yet, despite the potential vulnerability to various kinds of biases, these kinds of evaluative ratings are moderately consistent and accurate (Eagly, 1995). Whether self-report is an appropriate means of data collection remains a debatable topic in the literature.

Another methodological issue to consider centers around the issue of generalizability of results. Only Belgian employees took part in this study which results in an overrepresentation of the so-called WEIRD (western, educated, industrialized, rich and democratic) population. According to Alcock and Sadava (2014) this population consists mostly of North American and Western European participants and is a plague to all social scientists, as it potentially biases participants' responses. For instance, Alcock and Sadava (2014) argue that participants from the WEIRD population differ from other populations regarding concepts like self-concept and motivation. With respect to the present study, then, it helps explain why the findings obtained by the Belgian employees are comparable to the findings of the ones originating from the United States (Steffens et al., 2014). However, the fact that the investigation of the validity of ILI on a national level have been clarified through this study, goes hand in hand with a negative side effect. To be precise, the results of this study cannot be automatically applied to real-world settings across different cultures. In fact, members of WEIRD populations are considered the least representative population for concluding about humans (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). A possible solution to compensate the WEIRD population effect in future research could be to offer the survey in two countries with different cultures but the same native language (to avoid the language bias mentioned above). For example, it might be interesting to compare the results of Belgian employees with employees from Suriname.

Next, the survey used in this study did not measure demographic variables such as education level and SES (Socio Economic Status). Finding out more about possible moderating or mediating effects of these variables by including another factor or a combination of these factors, might be of relevance for cross-cultural leadership issues. If IL

behavior turns out to have a weaker or even opposite organizational impact on employees with distinct SES levels, then such insights might be taken into consideration for managing organizational structures and hierarchies. For instance, Carroll, Arkin, and Wichman (2015) claim that employees with a relatively high SES prefer democratic leaders, whereas low-SES employees favor autocratic leadership. I therefore recommend adding these variables to future research.

Regarding statistical assumptions of normality, future research might utilize experimental designs where the gender of the employees, as well as the gender of the leaders, is evenly balanced. As for the multicollinearity between IL and the three other leadership styles, Tuerlinckx et al. (2016) suggest to either merge the variables that demonstrate a high correlation with each other or to include only one of the highly correlating variables in the regression model. Another option would be to employ a data reduction using principal component analysis and to add the obtained components as variables into the regression model (Tuerlinckx et al., 2016).

Moreover, in this study IL has been treated as a holistic concept on its own and was assessed by means of the 15 items of the existing ILI. This was done to examine the general impact of IL on several work-related outcomes. In their overall construction and validation of the ILI, Steffens et al. (2014), referred to IL as a concept consisting of four distinct components: identity prototypicality, identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship. The division into four IL components draws upon theoretical assertions by Haslam et al. (2011), who argued that the different dimensions of IL relate to specific work outcomes. Nevertheless, the findings obtained by Steffens et al. (2014) also indicate associations between one component and multiple work-related outcomes. For instance, a leaders' identity prototypicality was found to predict both team identification and work satisfaction (Steffens et al., 2014). When distinguishing between these components, future research may lead to more refined conclusions in terms of the relationship between each single IL component and various work-related outcomes which points to important contextual sensitivities.

Finally, the reader might recall that earlier I pointed out the growing relevance of teamwork in today's organizations. Teamwork has become a popular and integral element of the new way of working, and it requires leaders to flexibly adapt their competences and behaviors to this process of working (Haines, 2007). Accordingly, future research can adjust to this development by investigating study variables that are relevant to teamwork. The focus in this study rested on outcomes that might contribute to effective teamwork (burnout, work

satisfaction, OCB), but none the less remained focused on the individual. Therefore, it might be beneficial to also examine the impact of IL on outcomes that directly relate to the group-level. After all, if IL really does invoke a stronger sense of “us” among the employees, then this effect should be reflected in collaboration across functions that results in enhanced team performance.



## Conclusion

The present study expanded upon prior research in two ways. First, I investigated the impact of IL on burnout, work satisfaction and OCB. In line with my hypotheses, IL appeared to be significantly related to all outcomes (i.e., positively with work satisfaction and OCB, negatively with burnout). However, the results showed that IL has no predictive power above and beyond transformational, authentic and LMX leadership. This finding does not confirm the strong criterion validity of ILI in Belgium that was demonstrated earlier in Steffens' et al. (2014) study in the United States and China. Second, I was interested in the moderating role that gender might possibly play in the relationship between IL and OCB. Contrary to my hypothesis, when engaging in IL, the gender of a leader did not have a moderating effect on the magnitude of employees' OCB behavior.

The hypotheses related to the criterion validity of IL were confirmed. However, when compared to other leadership approaches, the significance of these results seemed to disappear, thereby revealing a need for further research that considers the methodological issues presented above. Next to the theoretical contribution, this study also offers a more detailed understanding of the practical value of IL. For the sake of employees' well-being (high work satisfaction, low burnout rate) and performance (high engagement in OCB) at work, results suggest organizations would benefit from introducing IL to their management, as this may create a shared sense of group identity between managers and their subordinates. At the end of the day, the "mental glue" that binds leaders and employees as one entity will be particularly important, if not necessary, to realize the benefits of teamwork within the organizations of today and tomorrow.

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## Appendices

## Appendix A

## Tables and Figures

Table A1  
*Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations among the Variables*

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Leadership position	1.67	na	-													
2. Age	2.68	na	-.17*	-												
3. Gender	1.46	na	-.30**	.08	-											
4. Gender of leader	1.69	na	-.16	.06	.23**	-										
5. Employment status	1.31	na	.14	.03	-.23**	-.24**	-									
6. Work experience	3.48	1.31	-.13	.87**	.14	-.00 <sup>a</sup>	.05	-								
7. Tenure in current organization	2.96	1.41	-.17	.57**	.03	.09	.04	.58**	-							
8. Identity Leadership	4.61	1.54	.00	-.18*	-.05	-.01	.04	-.16	-.22**	-						
9. OCB	5.55	0.91	.03	.04	-.11	.03	.15	.04	.01	.26**	-					
10. Burnout	2.74	1.08	.09	.01	-.22**	-.11	-.02	.02	.03	-.39**	-.29**	-				
11. Work satisfaction	4.82	0.85	-.04	-.13	.04	-.12	.03	-.00 <sup>c</sup>	-.16	.63**	.28**	-.43**	-			
12. Transformational leadership	4.76	1.47	-.03	-.23**	-.08	.02	.03	-.19*	-.25**	.87**	.26**	-.41**	.64**	-		
13. Authentic leadership	4.46	1.42	-.14	-.16	-.08	-.00 <sup>b</sup>	.02	-.13	-.15	.81**	.27**	-.40**	.59**	.86**	-	
14. LMX leadership	4.55	1.38	-.01	-.07	-.06	-.08	.05	-.02	-.16	.79**	.30**	-.39**	.68**	.80**	.76**	-

Note. na = not applicable.  $n = 221$  for Identity Leadership,  $n = 185$  for OCB,  $n = 168$  for Burnout, and  $n = 181$  for Work Satisfaction. To check for incremental validity:  $n = 192$  for Transformational leadership,  $n = 192$  for Authentic leadership, and  $n = 185$  for LMX leadership. a = -.004, b = -.004, c = -.003. \*  $p < .05$ , two-tailed. \*\*  $p < .001$ , two-tailed.

Table A2

*Stepwise Linear Regression to check for Incremental Validity by comparing the Predictive Ability for the Criterion Variables Burnout, Work Satisfaction and OCB of the two Models: Burnout of IL alone (1) and IL alongside Transformational Leadership, Authentic Leadership and LMX Leadership (2)*

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t-value</i>
<i>Burnout ((1) R<sup>2</sup> = .17, (2) R<sup>2</sup> = .19)</i>				
(1) Identity leadership	-.30	.05	-.41	-5.79**
(2) Identity leadership	-.16	.12	-.21	-1.32
Transformational leadership	-.12	.14	-.16	-.87
Authentic leadership	.11	.12	.14	.92
LMX	-.17	.10	-.22	-1.69
<i>Work satisfaction ((1) R<sup>2</sup> = .38, (2) R<sup>2</sup> = .47)</i>				
(1) Identity leadership	.34	.03	.62	10.47**
(2) Identity leadership	.07	.07	.12	.99
Transformational leadership	.19	.08	.24	1.63
Authentic leadership	-.06	.07	-.11	-.91
LMX	.27	.06	.46	4.51 **
<i>OCB ((1) R<sup>2</sup> = .06, (2) R<sup>2</sup> = .08)</i>				
(1) Identity leadership	.14	.04	.24	3.27*
(2) Identity leadership	.04	.09	.07	.40
Transformational leadership	-.09	.11	-.16	-.83
Authentic leadership	.12	.09	.20	1.24
LMX	.11	.08	.18	1.35

Note. Ratings for all variables were indicated on Likert scales ranging from 1 (*never; does not apply; disagree completely*) to 7 (*every day; applies fully; agree completely*). Degrees of freedom vary due to missing data. \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .001$ .

Table A3

*Correlations between IL and Other Leadership Styles (Transformational, Authentic, LMX)*

Leadership style	1	2	3	4
1. Identity leadership	-			
2. Transformational leadership	.87**	-		
3. Authentic leadership	.81**	.86**	-	
4. LMX	.79**	.80**	.76**	-

Note.  $n = 221$  for Identity leadership,  $n = 192$  for Transformational leadership,  $n = 192$  for Authentic leadership, and  $n = 185$  for LMX leadership. \*  $p < .05$ , two-tailed. \*\*  $p < .001$ , two-tailed.

Table A4

*Variance Inflation Factor Test with IL as Criterion Variable and Transformational, Authentic and LMX Leadership as Predictor Variables*

Model	Collinearity statistics		
	Tolerance	VIF	
1	Transformational leadership	.17	<b>5.78</b>
	Authentic leadership	.21	<b>4.79</b>
	LMX leadership	.33	3.03

Note. VIF = variance inflation factors. VIF values  $> 3.3$  are in boldface.

Table A5

*One-Way Analysis of Variance with Gender of Leader as Predictor Variable and IL as Criterion Variable*

<i>Source</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between groups	1	.00 <sup>a</sup>	.00 <sup>b</sup>	.00 <sup>c</sup>	.99
Within groups	144	306.89	2.13		
Total	145	306.89			

Note. a = .001, b = .001, c = .000.  $R^2 = .00$ .

Table A6

*Testing the Assumption of Normality using the Shapiro-Wilk Test with a Minimum Threshold Value of .05*

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Identity Leadership	.098	221	.000	.955	221	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

Table A7

*Multiple Regression Analysis with IL, Gender of Leader and their Interaction as Predictor Variables and OCB as Criterion Variable*

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t-value</i>
1. Identity leadership	.47	.18	.78	2.58*
2. Gender of leader	1.03	.51	.55	2.02*
3. Identity leadership x Gender of leader	-.21	.10	-.81	-2.02*

Note. Ratings for all variables were indicated on Likert scales ranging from 1 (*never; does not apply; disagree completely*) to 7 (*every day; applies fully; agree completely*). Degrees of freedom vary due to missing data. \*  $p \leq .05$ .



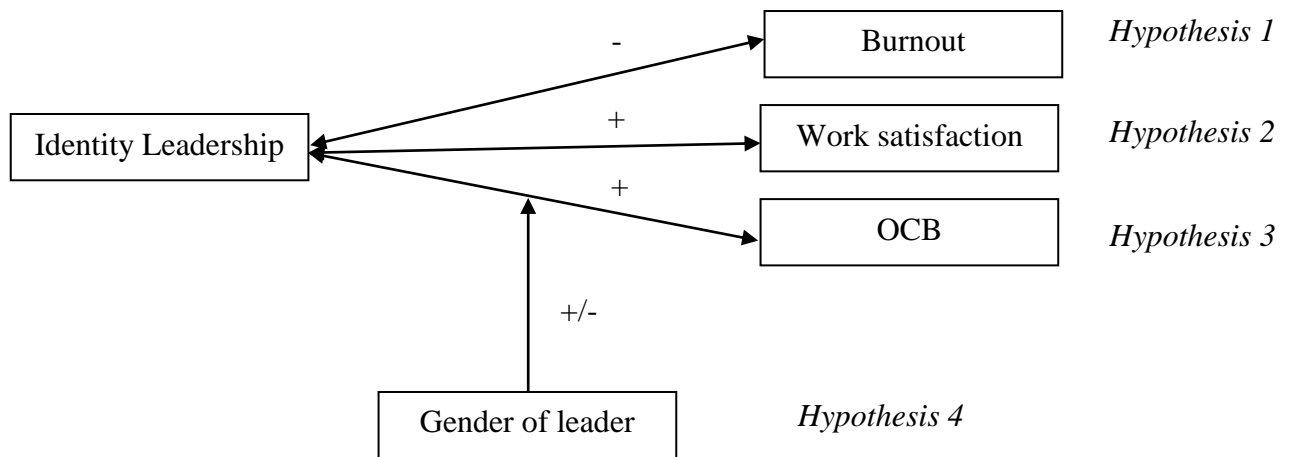


Figure A1. Conceptual model.

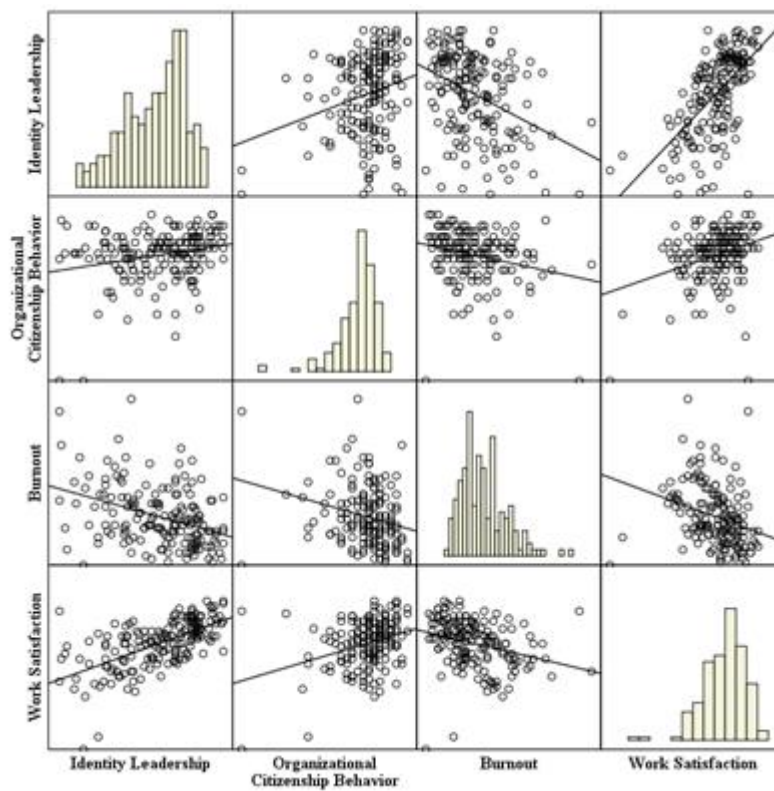
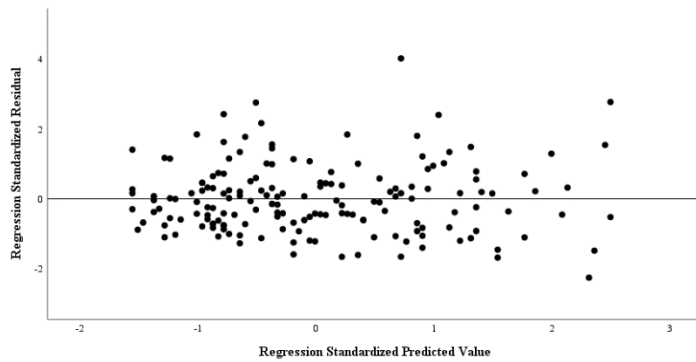
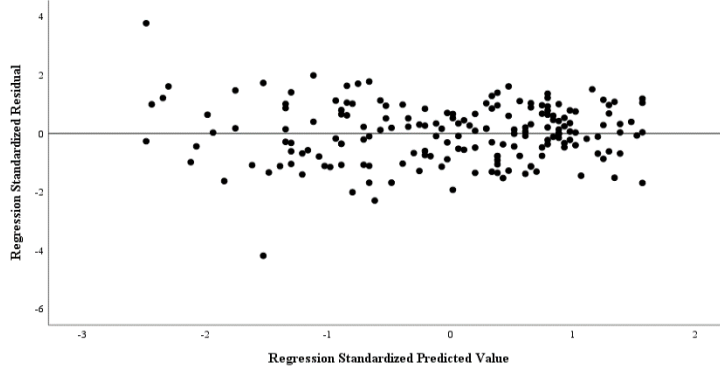


Figure A2. Scatter plots of the correlational relationship between IL and OCB, burnout and work satisfaction with an indication of their respective distribution, respectively.

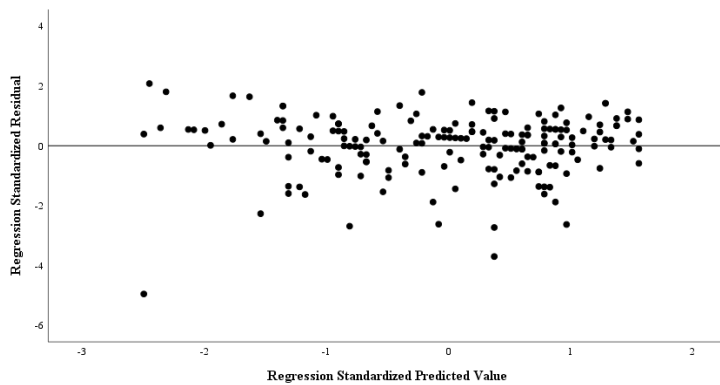
a) burnout



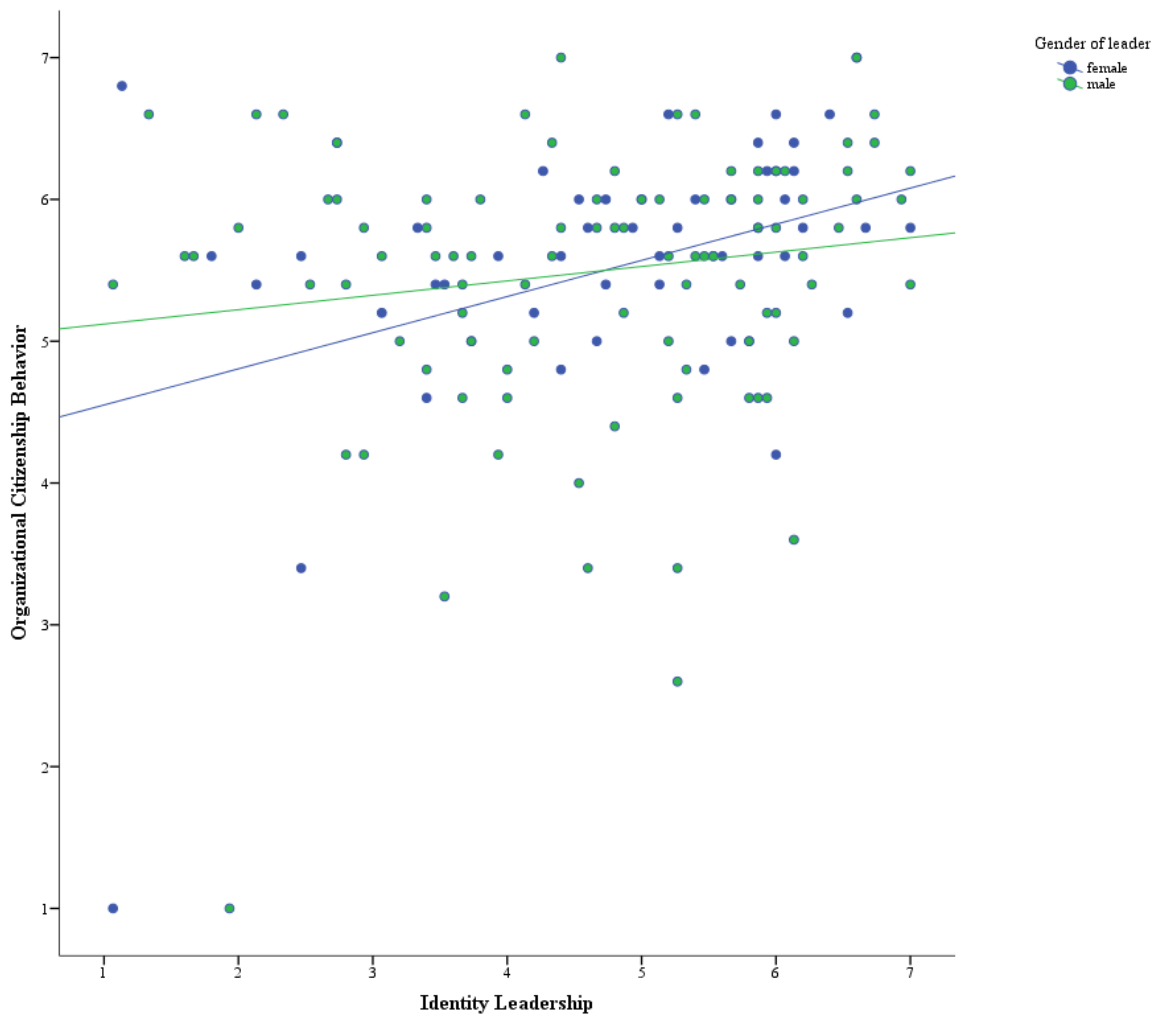
b) work satisfaction



c) OCB



*Figure A3.* Scatter plots used for testing the homoscedasticity of the three criterion variables a) burnout, b) work satisfaction and c) OCB.



*Figure A4.* Scatter plot of the non-significant interaction effect between IL and gender of leader on OCB.

## Appendix B

### Full Survey (English Version)

#### **General instructions**

**Dear participant,**

**thank you for your support and willingness to complete this survey.**

As part of an international collaboration the department of social psychology at Goethe University Frankfurt (Germany) together with academic colleagues in many other countries is carrying out a study regarding questions about your work situation and your leader.

All questions should be answered spontaneously and intuitively. Please be honest – it's all about your own experiences. There are no right or wrong answers.

The survey will be anonymous. Your answers will not allow any conclusions about your identity.

If you do not feel comfortable with anything we ask, you may cancel your participation and stop the survey at any time.

Thank you!

















How many members are in your team? \_\_\_\_\_

Which industry do you work in? \_\_\_\_\_

How many employees do work for the company (approx.)? \_\_\_\_\_

Do you hold a leadership position? (team responsibility for at least 3 coworkers)

yes

If yes: For how many employees do you hold direct leadership responsibility?

\_\_\_\_\_

no

How old are you?

18-25

25-35

35-45

45-55

older than 55

Which is your gender?

female

male

Which is your direct supervisor's gender?

female

male

Which kind of employment do you have?

Full time

Part time

Mini-job

Other

How many years of work experience do you have?

less than 1 year

1-3 years

4-10 years

10-20 years

more than 20 years

How many years have you been working at you current company?

less than 1 year

1-3 years

4-6 years

7-10 years

more than 10 years

**Thank you very much for your participation!**



