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Beyond Prototypicality: Identity Leadership is about Shaping and Embedding a Sense of Social Identity Not Just Representing It

Abstract

Research inspired by the social identity theory of leadership has focused predominantly on the importance of a leader being seen to be representative of the groups they lead. However, beyond this, research suggests that leaders also need to create, advance, and embed a sense of shared social identity in those groups. In the present research, we explore how these different facets of identity leadership combine to form distinct leader profiles. We draw on two heterogeneous samples from the Global Identity Leadership Development project (N = 7,682; N = 7,855) to explore profiles of leaders' engagement in identity leadership. In both studies, a latent profile analysis of the results of a CFA using a bifactor-(S – 1) model was conducted. In both studies, the analysis identified two different identity leadership profiles: 'engaged identity leaders' and 'moderate-inconsistent identity leaders'. Employees working with engaged identity leaders reported substantially more positive job-related attitudes. The results were very similar across the two studies and suggest that this profile analysis is generalizable. The findings support suggestions that identity leadership is multidimensional rather than solely a matter of identity prototypicality.

Keywords: leadership, social identity, identity leadership inventory, latent profile analysis, bifactor-(S – 1) model

Introduction

Leadership is a naturally occurring phenomenon in most social groups, making it hard to imagine any functional group (e.g., an organization, a sports team, or a group of friends) that does not involve, and benefit from, some form of formal or informal leadership (Halevy et al., 2011). Leadership has been investigated scientifically for more than a century (van Knippenberg, 2011) and is generally defined as the process through which one or more members of a group

influence other group members in ways that motivate them to contribute to the achievement of shared group goals (Haslam, 2004; Hollander, 1985; Rost, 2008; Smith, 1995).

Whereas early models of leadership focused on the characteristics of leaders or the relationships between leaders and group members, these models failed to recognize leadership as a process that occurs *within a specific group*. Consequently, such models generally fail to engage with the psychology of the group or to consider how group dynamics structure processes of influence (Hogg et al., 2012; Reicher et al., 2016). To address this blind spot, the social identity approach to leadership suggests that shared social identity (a sense of 'us') serves as a basis for influence (Turner, 1991) and hence that leaders will be more influential the more they embody this shared identity — that is, the more *prototypical* they are of the group (Hogg, 2001; Turner & Haslam, 2001).

More recently, though, social identity researchers have argued that in order to be effective, leaders need to be seen not only as embodying a shared identity, but also as creating, advancing, and embedding a sense of shared social identity in the groups they lead (Haslam et al., 2020). In other words, leadership effectiveness hinges not only on identity prototypicality, but also on identity *advancement*, identity *entrepreneurship*, and identity *impresarioship*. Consistent with these claims, a large body of research from a range of fields (e.g., organizational, political, sporting, and clinical) indicates that creating, representing, promoting, and embedding a sense of 'us' is associated with positive outcomes for both the leader and their group (for reviews and meta-analyses see Barreto & Hogg, 2017; Epitropaki et al., 2017; Haslam et al., 2020; Steffens et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, thus far, the relative importance of these four facets of identity leadership and the distinct relevance of each for organizational functioning is not well understood. In light of this lacuna, the present research sought to make three contributions to our understanding of (identity) leadership. First, we sought to clarify whether, as they are perceived by followers, the four facets of identity leadership combine to form distinct leader profiles. Second, we sought to investigate whether these leader profiles differ primarily in the extent of leaders' identity

prototypicality or whether a richer and more powerful representation of leaders' identity leadership would be achieved by including the three other facets of identity leadership. Third, we sought to examine whether distinct identity leadership profiles are associated with differences in followers' team identification, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). To address these questions, we drew on two large and heterogeneous data sets that had been developed as part of the Global Identity Leadership Development project (*N*s = 7,682; 7,855).

Identity Leadership

The social identity model of leadership conceptualizes leadership as a group process that is grounded in a sense of group membership — a *social identity* — that leaders and followers share (Haslam et al., 2020; Hogg et al., 2012). Developed over the last two decades (Hogg, 2001; Hogg & van Knippenberg, 2003; Turner & Haslam, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003), this model is derived from social identity theorizing — which incorporates principles from both *social identity theory* (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and *self-categorization theory* (SCT; Turner et al., 1987). The social identity approach argues that an individual's sense of self encompasses not only their sense of themselves as a unique and distinct individual (i.e., their personal identity as 'I' and 'me'; Turner, 1982) but also their sense of themselves as members of one or more social groups (i.e., their social identity as 'we' and 'us'; Tajfel, 1972). It argues that social contextual factors play a role in determining whether and when individuals think, feel, and behave as in terms of these distinct forms of identity, but that there are a range of social and organizational contexts in which social identity is a primary determinant of cognition, emotion, and behavior (Oakes et al., 1994).

The relevance of these ideas for leadership derives from the fact that one important way in which social identity structures cognition and behavior is by providing a basis for *social influence* (Turner, 1991). In particular, SCT argues that a person's capacity to influence others is structured by their ability to embody — and be seen to embody — a social identity that they share with other members of a salient ingroup (Hogg, 2001; Platow et al., 2015). This in turn suggests that, as an influence process, leadership is contingent on perceptions of shared social

identity — so that group members are more likely to be influenced by a given leader to the extent that they see this leader as representing 'who we are' (Barreto & Hogg, 2017; Hogg, 2001; Steffens et al., 2021; Turner & Haslam, 2001).

In line with these insights, research inspired by the social identity approach has been dominated by work which explores the importance of a leader being seen to represent or embody a shared sense of 'us'. More formally, it suggests that *identity prototypicality* is a key determinant of effective leadership such that a leader is more likely to have influence over a given group to the extent that they are seen by its members to be 'one of us' (Hogg, 2001). Here, then, prototypicality encompasses shared characteristics and values that are understood to be essential to 'who we are' and that make 'us' unique and special (Reicher et al., 2018; van Knippenberg, 2011). In this way, researchers have argued that identity prototypicality rests on a leader being seen as an ideal (rather than simply an average) member of the group (Haslam & Reicher, 2016; Steffens et al., 2021; van Knippenberg, 2011). Consistent with this claim, meta-analytic reviews of a large number of studies (*k*s = 35 in Barreto & Hogg, 2017; and 128 in Steffens et al., 2021) have shown that leaders in a wide range of fields and cultures exert more influence over groups the more prototypical they are of them.

However, as research on social identity and leadership has developed, researchers have argued that effective leadership involves more than just identity prototypicality (Haslam et al., 2020). In particular, they have claimed that identity leadership also involves *identity entrepreneurship* in which the leader crafts a sense of shared identity for the group they lead in ways that create 'a sense of us' (Reicher et al., 2005), *identity advancement* in which they promote the interests of shared identity and so are seen to be 'doing it for us' (Haslam et al., 2001), and *identity impresarioship* in which they devise structures and activities that sustain a sense of shared social identity and thereby 'make us matter' (Haslam et al., 2020). Again, each of these claims is supported by a large body of research — with laboratory experiments and field studies showing, amongst other things, that leaders who promote ingroup interests are perceived as better leaders and receive stronger endorsement from group members than those who promote

outgroup interests or who are even-handed (e.g., Haslam & Platow, 2001; Haslam et al., 2001; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), that leaders are more likely to be supported when the language they use invokes a sense of 'we' and 'us' (e.g., Augoustinos & De Garis, 2012; Fladerer et al., 2021; Gleibs et al., 2018; Slater et al., 2015; Steffens & Haslam, 2013), and when the material structures they develop (e.g., practices, rituals, events, buildings) allow group members to live out valued social identities (Haslam et al., 2020; Steffens et al., 2019).

Research investigating the cross-cultural generalizability of the social identity model of leadership have found that identity leadership is applicable to a wide range of cultures (e.g., Butalia et al., 2025; van Dick et al., 2018). Likewise, there is evidence to suggest that identity leadership is applicable across a wide range of contexts, including situations with informal leaders (Fransen et al., 2017), group therapy (Robertson et al., 2024), organizational change (Bachmann et al., 2024), or crisis (Gleibs, 2025). Together, then, there is reason to believe that representing, advancing, creating, and embedding a sense of 'us' is associated with positive leadership outcomes in all contexts and cultures and, in particular, that this is not simply true for populations that are WEIRD (i.e., Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, Democratic; Henrich et al., 2010).

Nevertheless, research typically reveals high correlations between the four facets of identity leadership (e.g., Steffens et al., 2014; van Dick et al., 2018) and, to date, there is little empirical evidence that these four facets are associated with clear and distinct aspects of leadership. Furthermore, several studies have observed that the effect of these facets is not additive but rather interactive (e.g., Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; Platow et al., 2006; Ullrich et al., 2009). For example, van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005) conducted a series of studies that explored the simultaneously impact of leaders' identity prototypicality and advancement (i.e., their self-sacrificing behavior) and found evidence of an interaction whereby the positive effect of identity advancement on perceptions of leadership effectiveness was amplified for leaders who were less group prototypical. This raises three key questions. The first concerns the unique added benefit of the four different facets of identity leadership; the second

concerns the extent to which these facets operate in tandem or independently; and the third relates to the capacity for these different facets to (differentially) predict different leadership outcomes.

Overview of Present Research

The above review speaks to the various ways in which previous research supports the social identity model of leadership in general and principles of identity leadership in particular. However, as noted above, this previous research leaves us with three important unanswered questions about the importance and variability of the facets of identity leadership and their relevance to organizational functioning. These are important questions because answering them can provide insight into the nature of identity leadership *in vivo* and help us understand whether identity leadership is only or mainly about identity prototypicality or whether identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship are also important to fully apprehend identity leadership.

The primary aim of this study was to answer these three questions. As these had not been the focus of previous research we had no a priori expectations or hypotheses but instead approached each as a question to be resolved empirically. The first of these was whether there are indeed different profiles of identity leadership; that is:

RQ1: *Do the four facets of identity leadership combine to form distinct leader profiles?*

As noted above, the various components of identity leadership have been observed to be highly correlated (e.g., Steffens et al., 2014) and, to date, it is unclear whether they have discrete leadership footprints. Accordingly, our second research question was whether these profiles differed primarily in identity prototypicality or whether consideration of the other facets of identity leadership would make the representation of identity leadership not only richer but also more predictively powerful:

RQ2: *Do identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship add to the concept of identity leadership above and beyond identity prototypicality?*

Finally, as noted above, identity leadership is associated with a range of positive organizational outcomes including positive job attitudes, health, and improved performance (e.g., De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002; Steffens et al., 2018; Stevens et al., 2019). In line with such work, to explore the implications of identity leadership profiles for organizational functioning we focused on their capacity to predict three criterion variables: (a) team identification (as an indicator of social identity; Steffens et al., 2017), (b) job satisfaction (as the most widely used measure of job attitude; Faragher et al., 2005; van Dick & Monzani, 2017), and (c) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; as a marker of extra-role performance; Organ, 1988; van Dick et al., 2006). More specifically, we sought to answer the following question:

RQ3: *Are distinct identity leadership profiles associated with differences in employees' levels of team identification, job satisfaction, and OCB?*

Study 1

Method

Participants

The sample comprised participants in the first phase (i.e., 2016-2017) of the Global Identity Leadership Development (i.e., GILD; [reference deleted to maintain the integrity of the review process]) project. This involved 7,682 participants from 27 countries/regions across the globe[1]. Results of Monte Carlo simulations (Nylund et al., 2007; Tein et al., 2013) suggest that a sample size of 500 is appropriate to perform latent profile analysis (LPA) and latent class analysis (LCA). Our sample size greatly exceeded this required number and included data from Egypt (n = 1,294), Germany (n = 460), Spain (n = 356), China (n = 353), Japan (n = 337), Norway (n = 329), Hungary (n = 324), Australia (n = 311), Israel (n = 308), Finland (n = 307), North America (n = 302, including 277 people from the United States and 25 from Canada), the United Kingdom (n = 300), South Africa (n = 291), Chile (n = 286), France (n = 286), Greece (n = 271), Turkey (n = 253), Portugal (n = 206), the Netherlands (n = 203), India (n = 196), Italy (n = 169), Belgium (n = 155 including 141 participants who answered the survey in Dutch and 14

participants who answered the survey in French), Iran (n = 131), Brazil (n = 105), Nepal (n = 88), and the Balkans (n = 61). The sample was heterogeneous in terms of (a) sex, (52.7% females, 46.8% males, 0.5% missing values), (b) age (13.9% 18–25 years old, 39.1% 26–35, 23.1% 36–45, 14.3% 46–55, 5.0% over 55; 4.7% missing values), (c) years of work experience (5.9% < 1 year, 17.7% 1–3 years, 29.1% 4–10 years, 26.9% 11–20 years, 19.9% over 20 years; 0.5 % missing values) and (d) number of years working for their current company (16.7% < 1 year, 29.8% 1–3 years, 19.1% 4–6 years, 12.6% 7–10 years, 21.3% over 10 years; 0.5% missing values). The sample was also heterogeneous in terms of the type of industry and size of the company in which participants worked.

Measures

Identity Leadership

Participants rated the identity leadership of their immediate supervisor using the 15-item Identity Leadership Inventory (ILI; Steffens et al., 2014). All responses were made on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*completely*). The ILI is composed of four dimensions which represent the four facets of identity leadership: identity prototypicality (four items; e.g., 'My immediate supervisor embodies what the group stands for'), identity advancement (four items; e.g., 'My immediate supervisor has the group's interests at heart when he or she acts'), identity entrepreneurship (four items; e.g., 'My immediate supervisor makes people feel as if they are part of the same group'), and identity impresarioship (three items; e.g., 'My immediate supervisor arranges events that help the group function effectively').

Team Identification

The four items of the Team Identification scale (Doosje et al., 1995) were used to measure participants' identification with their team (e.g., 'I feel strong ties with my team colleagues'). Responses were made on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (*disagree completely*) to 7 (*agree completely*).

Job Satisfaction

Participants completed the 11-item Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; e.g., 'I am satisfied with how secure things look for me in the future in this organization'). Responses were made on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (*does not apply*) to 7 (*applies fully*).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Participants' OCB was assessed using a five-item scale (van Dick et al., 2006; e.g., 'I always follow rules very thoroughly'). Responses were made on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (*disagree completely*) to 7 (*agree completely*).

Procedure

All measures were translated using Brislin's (1970) translation, back-translation methodology from English to the 21 target languages. Participants were recruited using either a snowball technique and/or online platforms for which participation was paid. Participants completed the above measures in an online questionnaire and responded to other measures that were not the focus of the present research (see [reference deleted to maintain the integrity of the review process], for more details about all the measures included in the GILD Project).

Data Analyses

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and profile analysis were performed using Mplus 8. All other analyses were performed using R software (R Core Team, 2025). First, we computed descriptive statistics (i.e., means, standard deviations, and correlations) and tested assumptions for our factor analysis and profile analysis. Participants who had more than 10% of missing values were removed from the dataset. Multiple imputation was used to compute the remaining missing values. We tested for normality and multivariate normality, and checked whether we had extreme outliers.

Second, we performed a CFA using a bifactor-(S – 1) model (Eid et al., 2017) to estimate the variance of identity leadership explained by the *G*-factor and the specific factors. The bifactor-(S – 1) model defines the specific factors as residuals of the *G*-factor (i.e., the reference factor) and therefore allowed us to estimate the variance of the specific factors that was not

explained by the *G*-factor (Eid et al., 2017). As the aim of this study was to investigate whether identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship add to identity prototypicality in our understanding of identity leadership, we set identity prototypicality as the *G*-factor and identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship as the specific factors. The analysis was performed using the MLR estimator (i.e., a maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors) which is appropriate when univariate and/or multivariate normality is not respected (Vermunt & Magidson, 2002). As recommended by Kline (2023) we evaluated model fit using the chi-squared (χ^2), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989).

Third, a latent profile analysis (LPA) was performed to identify the different types of identity leaders. LPA is similar to latent class analysis (LCA) as it allows researchers to determine the number of exclusive and exhaustive latent classes (i.e., profiles) endogenously based on a series of similar responses on a set of indicators (continuous indicators for LPA and categorical indicators for LCA) rather than setting an a priori number of classes. We used the MLR estimator. As recommended by Hipp and Bauer (2006) we used 7,000 random starts with 300 iterations for each random start and we retained the 200 best solutions for final stage optimization.

Fourth, to assess criterion-related validity, we examined the associations between the different identity leadership profiles and our three criterion variables (i.e., team identification, job satisfaction, and OCB). We conducted simple regressions using the class probability as the predictor and our criterion variables as the outcomes.[2]

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics including the means, standard deviations, correlations, and McDonald's omegas are presented in Table 1. Univariate and multivariate normality assumptions

were tested by assessing the skewness and kurtosis of each variable with the psych R package (Revelle, 2025) and by using Mardia's (1970) multivariate test of the MVN R package (Korkmaz et al., 2014). The results indicated that the data was not normally distributed (Kline, 2023).

[Insert Table 1 about here]

Factor Analysis

We performed a CFA on a bifactor-(S – 1) model. As noted above, the identity prototypicality facet was set as the *G*-factor and the other three facets (i.e., identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship) were set as specific factors. The items with the strongest factor loadings were used to set the metric of their respective factor (i.e., Items 3, 7, 10, and 14). The results of the CFA bifactor-(S – 1) model had a good fit to the data, $\chi^2(76, N = 7{,}682) = 1127.49$, $p < .001$, CFI = .99, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .04, 90% CI [.04 - .05], and SRMR = .01.

The *G*-factor represents the level of identity prototypicality while the values of the other factors represent the deviations from the level on these specific facets expected based on the level of identity prototypicality. For instance, a positive value on the identity advancement-specific factor would indicate a higher level of identity advancement than what would be expected on the basis of the level of identity prototypicality. A negative value on the identity advancement-specific factor would indicate a lower level of identity advancement than expected on the basis of the level of identity prototypicality.

Unstandardized and standardized factor loadings on the *G*-factor and the three specific factors as well as consistency and specificity values are displayed in Table 2. All factor loadings were significant at *p*s < .001. All items had stronger standardized factor loadings on the *G*-factor than on their respective specific factor. The standardized factor loadings ranged from .76 to .93 on the *G*-factor and from .27 to .54 on the specific factors. Consistency represents the amount of true variance in identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship that is shared with identity prototypicality (i.e., the *G*-factor). Specificity represents the amount of true variance in identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship that

is not shared with identity prototypicality (i.e., the *G*-factor). The consistency and specificity values indicate that an important part of the variance of the specific factors was explained by the *G*-factor (between .66 and .91). However, there was still a meaningful amount of the variance in identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship that was not explained by identity prototypicality (between .09 and .34). The correlation between the three specific factors ranged from small to large magnitude ($r_{\text{advancement-entrepreneurship}} = .52$; $r_{\text{advancement-impresarioship}} = .22$; $r_{\text{entrepreneurship-impresarioship}} = .55$; Cohen, 1992; all ps < .001).

[Insert Table 2 about here]

These results (i.e., factor loadings, consistency, and specificity values, correlations between specific factors) indicate that the *G*-factor captured an important component of identity leadership, but there was a meaningful part of the variance of identity leadership that derives from identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship that was not accounted for by this *G*-factor (i.e., identity prototypicality). Furthermore, the correlations between the specific factors indicate that identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship have more in common than what could be explained by identity prototypicality alone. In sum, this means that identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship add to the concept of identity leadership above and beyond identity prototypicality.

Profile Analysis

The factor loadings of the bifactor-(S – 1) model were used to perform the profile analysis. For this purpose we assumed that the variance between profiles would vary rather than be equal. To test whether this was the case we tested two different models with varying variances. In the first model the covariances were fixed to 0, while for the second model the covariances were allowed to vary. The second model with varying variances and covariances did not run properly as the estimated covariance matrix could not be inverted. Accordingly, the results of this model are not trustworthy and are not reported here.

The LPA indicated that a two-class model with varying variances and covariances fixed to 0 fitted the data well. The model with three classes was not identified. Although the entropy value (.74) is slightly below the optimum .80 level (Clark & Muthén, 2009; Haines III et al., 2018), entropy values between 0.60 and 0.80 are considered acceptable (Jung & Wickrama, 2008; Muthen, 2004). The Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test (BLRT) confirmed that the two-class model was a superior model to the one-class solution ($p < .001$). Figure 1 displays the two profiles on the four identity leadership facets including identity prototypicality (i.e., the *G*-factor) and identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship (i.e., the three specific factors).[3]

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

The first profile we refer to as '*engaged identity leaders*' and represented 31.0% (n = 2,381) of the sample. It captured leaders whose employees perceived them to be characterized by high levels of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Prototypicality}} = 1.45$). These leaders also engaged in identity advancement which was higher than the level of identity advancement of the other leaders but not meaningfully higher than what would be expected on the basis of their level of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Advancement}} = 0.07$). However, their levels of identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship were meaningfully higher than expected on the basis of their level of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Entrepreneurship}} = 0.16$ and standardized $M_{\text{Impresarioship}} = 0.41$). Inspection of the raw scores suggests that engaged identity leaders were seen generally to display high levels of identity leadership across the four facets (see Figures 2a-2d). This suggests that engaged identity leaders were perceived by their employees to engage in moderate/high levels in the four facets of identity leadership.

The second profile we refer to as '*moderate-inconsistent identity leaders*' and captured the vast majority (69.0%; n = 5,301) of the sample. It represents leaders who were perceived by their employees to show somewhat lower levels of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Prototypicality}} = -0.65$). These leaders were also perceived to have a level of identity advancement that was lower than that of engaged identity leaders but not meaningfully lower than what would

be expected on the basis of their level of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Advancement}}$ = -0.03). However, their levels of perceived identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship were meaningfully lower than expected on the basis of their level of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Entrepreneurship}}$ = -0.07 and standardized $M_{\text{Impresarioship}}$ = -0.19). In terms of absolute levels, moderate-inconsistent identity leaders were perceived to engage in moderate levels of identity leadership across all four facets of identity leadership (around the mid-point of the scale) but also to show lower levels of at least one of these four facets. They were perceived to have, on average, lower levels of identity impresarioship ($M_{\text{Impresarioship}}$ = 3.5) than levels of the other three facets ($M_{\text{Prototypicality}}$ = 4.0; $M_{\text{Advancement}}$ = 4.1; $M_{\text{Entrepreneurship}}$ = 3.9). At the same time, it is worth noting that there was a high degree of variability in the extent to which leaders in this group were perceived to engage in identity leadership. These distributions highlight the point that while the engaged identity leaders were relatively homogenous in terms of how they were perceived on the four facets of identity leadership (i.e., high across the board), there was much greater variability in the way that moderate-inconsistent identity leaders were perceived across the four facets. So while engaged identity leaders were perceived to show high levels of all facets of identity leadership, moderate-inconsistent identity leaders were perceived to show moderate levels on most facets but lower levels of at least one (though which facet(s) this/these was/were varied).

[Insert Figures 2a-2d about here]

Regressions: Criterion-Related Validity

We performed simple linear regression analyses to assess the associations between the identity leadership profiles and our three criterion variables (i.e., team identification, job satisfaction, and OCB). The probability of belonging to the engaged identity leaders profile was used as the predictor and our three criterion variables as the outcomes. As can be seen from Table 3 and Figures 3a-3c, the results showed significant associations between the identity leadership profiles and team identification (β = 0.34), job satisfaction (β = 0.42), and OCB (β = 0.19). Employees working with an engaged identity leader had significantly higher team identification (M = 5.8) than those with a moderate-inconsistent identity leader (M = 4.8). They

also had significantly higher job satisfaction ($M_{\text{engaged identity leaders}} = 5.4$, $M_{\text{moderate-inconsistent identity leaders}} = 4.4$) and higher OCB ($M_{\text{engaged identity leaders}} = 6.1$, $M_{\text{moderate-inconsistent identity leaders}} = 5.7$).

[Insert Table 3 Figures 3a-3c about here]

Discussion

Overall, Study 1 provided evidence that the four facets of identity leadership combine to form distinct leader profiles (RQ1); that identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship add to the concept of identity leadership above and beyond identity prototypicality (RQ2); and that distinct identity leadership profiles are associated with differences in employees' levels of team identification, job satisfaction, and OCB (RQ3). Nevertheless, it is widely recognized that confidence in profile analyses is greatly enhanced when they are replicated across samples, contexts, and time points (Hirschi & Valero, 2015; Spurk et al., 2020; Woo et al., 2018). With this in mind, Study 2 sought to replicate the findings of this first study with a different sample of participants.

Study 2

Study 2 investigated whether we could reproduce the findings of Study 1 with another large sample. Data for Study 2 was collected approximately four years after Study 1 (2020-2021 vs. 2016-17). This allows us to attempt to replicate the analyses across different samples (i.e., different participants from similar and different countries), at different time points (i.e., four years apart), and in different contexts (i.e., before and during the COVID-19 pandemic).

Method

Participants

The sample was composed of 7,855 participants from 29 countries across the globe[4]. It includes data from Germany (n = 859), Spain (n = 692), China (n = 445), Poland (n = 375), Canada (n = 353), the United States (n = 318), Belgium (n = 285), Japan (n = 284), the Philippines (n = 281), the Netherlands (n = 270), Australia (n = 269), the United Kingdom (n = 263), Czech Republic (n = 256), Bosnia and Herzegovina (n = 241), Brazil (n = 222), Switzerland (n = 216 including 164 participants who answered the survey in French, 30

participants who answered the survey in German and 22 participants who answered the survey in English), Israel (n = 215), Greece (n = 210), Portugal (n = 202), Norway (n = 200), India (n = 192), Italy (n = 191), Turkey (n = 190), Pakistan (n = 172 including 139 participants who answered the survey in English and 33 participants who answered the survey in Urdu), Russia (n = 171), Kazakhstan (n = 161), France (n = 123), Uzbekistan (n = 103), and Slovenia (n = 96). The sample was heterogeneous in terms of (a) sex (with 56.9% females, 42.6% males, 0.4% 'other' and 0.1% missing values), (b) age (18.2% 18–25 years old, 33.4% 26–35, 23.8% 36–45, 17.3% 46–55, 7.2% over 55), (c) years of work experience (6.4% < 1 year, 17.8% 1–3 years, 25.7% 4–10 years, 25.2% 11–20 years, 24.9% over 20 years) and (d) number of years spent in their current company (17.8% < 1 year, 30.9% 1–3 years, 18.7% 4–6 years, 11.3% 7–10 years, 21.3% over 10 years; 0.1% missing values). The sample was also heterogeneous in terms of the type of industry and size of the company in which participants worked.

Measures and Procedure

In Study 2 participants completed the Identity Leadership Inventory (Steffens et al., 2014), the Team Identification scale (Doosje et al., 1995), and the five-item OCB scale (van Dick et al., 2006). They also answered a six-item version of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). All measures had at least acceptable internal reliability (see Table 4). The procedure and data analyses were identical to that of Study 1.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics including the means, standard deviations, correlations, and McDonald's omegas are presented in Table 4. The assessment of univariate and multivariate normality showed that the data were not normally distributed (Kline, 2023).

[Insert Table 4 about here]

Factor Analysis

As in Study 1, we performed a CFA on a bifactor-(S – 1) model with the identity prototypicality facet as the G-factor and the other three facets (i.e., identity advancement,

identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship) as the specific factors. The results of the CFA bifactor-(S – 1) model showed a good fit to the data, $\chi^2(76, N = 7{,}855) = 1325.56$, $p < .001$, CFI = .98, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .05, 90% CI [.04 - .05], and SRMR = .01.

The standardized factor loadings ranged from .71 to .91 on the *G*-factor and from .30 to .61 on the specific factors. The consistency and specificity values indicate that there is a meaningful part of the variance in identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship that is not explained by identity prototypicality (between .11 and .43). The correlations between the three specific factors ranged from small to large magnitude ($r_{\text{advancement-entrepreneurship}} = .47$; $r_{\text{advancement-impresarioship}} = .22$; $r_{\text{entrepreneurship-impresarioship}} = .52$; Cohen, 1992; all ps < .001).

[Insert Table 5 about here]

These results (i.e., factor loadings, consistency and specificity values, and correlations between specific factors) are very similar to those found in Study 1. They show that there is still a meaningful part of the variance in identity leadership that represents identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship and that is not accounted for by the *G*-factor (i.e., identity prototypicality) although the *G*-factor represents identity leadership well.

Profile Analysis

Again, the factor loadings of the bifactor-(S – 1) model were used to perform the profile analysis. The LPA indicated that a two-class model with varying variance and covariances fixed to 0 fits the data well (see Figure 4). The entropy of Study 2 (.71) was similar to Study 1 (.74). The BLRT confirmed that the two-class model is superior to the one-class solution ($p < .001$). Once again, the model with three classes did not run properly.[5]

[Insert Figure 4 about here]

The two profiles were similar to those identified in Study 1. The ‘engaged identity leaders’ represented 34.8% (n = 2,733) of the sample and captured leaders whose employees perceived them to be characterized by high levels of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Prototypicality}} = 1.29$). These leaders were also perceived to engage in a higher degree of identity

advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship than what would be expected on the basis of their level of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Advancement}}$ = 0.08; standardized $M_{\text{Entrepreneurship}}$ = 0.20; standardized $M_{\text{Impresarioship}}$ = 0.49).

The 'moderate-inconsistent identity leaders' represented a substantial proportion (65.2%; n = 5,122) of the sample and captured leaders who were perceived by their employees to engage in lower levels of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Prototypicality}}$ = -0.69). These leaders were also characterized by levels of perceived identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship that were lower than expected on the basis of their level of identity prototypicality (standardized $M_{\text{Advancement}}$ = -0.04; standardized $M_{\text{Entrepreneurship}}$ = -0.11; standardized $M_{\text{Impresarioship}}$ = -0.26). In terms of the absolute levels, moderate-inconsistent identity leaders were generally perceived to engage in moderate levels of identity leadership across the four facets but also to show lower levels of at least one of these four facets (which, similar to Study 1, were not always the same for all leaders). As in Study 1, the distributions highlight the point that there was much less variability in the facets of identity leadership among engaged identity leaders than there was among moderate-inconsistent identity leaders (see Figures 5a-5d).

[Insert Figures 5a-5d about here]

Regressions: Criterion-Related Validity

The results of the linear regressions revealed significant associations between the identity leadership profiles and team identification (β = 0.40), job satisfaction (β = 0.44), and OCB (β = 0.21; see Table 6 and Figures 6a-6c). Employees who worked with an engaged identity leader had significantly higher team identification (M = 6.0), job satisfaction (M = 5.8), and OCB (M = 6.1) than those with a moderate-inconsistent identity leader (M = 5.0; M = 4.8; M = 5.8 respectively).

[Insert Table 6 Figures 6a-6c about here]

Discussion

Study 2 provided further evidence for our three research questions. More specifically, they again indicate that the four facets of identity leadership combine to form distinct leader

profiles (RQ1); that identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship add to the concept of identity leadership above and beyond identity prototypicality (RQ2); and that distinct identity leadership profiles are associated with differences in employees' levels of team identification, job satisfaction, and OCB (RQ3). In this, the results of Study 2 provide evidence of the replicability of the profile analyses across different samples (i.e., different participants from similar and different countries), different time points (i.e., four years apart), and different contexts (i.e., before and during the COVID-19 pandemic).

General Discussion

Our analyses show that it is possible to reliably differentiate two key types of leaders (RQ1). Based on the structure of participants' responses (see Figures 1 and 4), we described these as engaged identity leaders and moderate-inconsistent identity leaders. These represent two distinct categories of leaders — (a) about one-third of the leaders in our samples who were perceived to engage in moderate-to-high levels of all four facets of identity leadership (i.e., identity prototypicality, identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship); and (b) about two-third of the leaders in our samples who were seen to engage in lower levels of at least one of the four facets of identity leadership.

We can make three important observations regarding these two identity leadership profiles. The first is that the two profiles differ considerably in terms of the leaders' mean levels of perceived identity leadership across the four facets (i.e., prototypicality, advancement, entrepreneurship, and impresarioship). In other words, the two types of identity leaders differ in the extent to which they are seen to engage in identity leadership. Indeed, there was an average difference of 2.1 points out of 6 (on a scale from 1 to 7) in mean scores on the four facets between the engaged identity leaders and the moderate-inconsistent identity leaders profiles. Results showed that these two types of leaders differed least in terms of identity advancement (1.9) and most in terms of identity impresarioship (2.4). These results also show that in natural teams on the ground, there is considerable variation in leaders' engagement in identity leadership such that some leaders are seen to do a very good job of creating, advancing, representing, and

embedding a sense of ‘we-ness’ within their team, while others are seen to do a poor job in this regard (Haslam et al., 2020).

Second, our analyses showed that while there was considerable variability in the scores on the four facets between moderate-inconsistent identity leaders, there was a relatively homogenous distribution of the scores on the four identity leadership facets for engaged identity leaders. This suggests that participants who perceived their leader as a good identity leader saw that leader as showing equally high levels of all four facets of identity leadership. These results are in line with previous research which has found strong-to-very-strong correlations between the four facets. Findings from our profile analyses suggest that among engaged identity leaders, the four facets tend to go hand in hand and that group members of these leaders tend to form global impressions of the degree to which their leaders can represent, advance, cultivate, and embed a shared sense of ‘us’.

The third observation is that about a third of the participants’ leaders were seen to display high levels of identity leadership but that the other two-thirds were regarded by employees as displaying lower levels of at least one of the four facets of identity leadership. Even though one could assume the proportions of these two different profiles are likely to vary from sample to sample (and within sub-populations), the present findings based on two very large cross-country samples (spanning 35+ countries) found similar proportions of engaged identity and moderate-inconsistent identity leaders (i.e., engaged identity leaders ranged from 31.0% in Study 1 to 34.8% in Study 2) when conducting the profiles analyses on two different samples collected in two different time points and two different contexts. This gives us an indication of the proportion of leaders who might generally be expected to fall into these two clusters. While some people might use tools and principles of identity leadership for personal gain and to achieve their own objectives (Reicher & Haslam, 2017; Reicher et al., 2016), we see it as a reasonably positive sign that about a third of leaders are being viewed as demonstrating high levels of identity leadership across the board.

Turning to RQ2, we aimed to investigate whether identity prototypicality could be a proxy for identity leadership or whether identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship are also important for apprehending and capturing this construct. This is important to establish because although identity leadership has been theorized as being comprised of identity prototypicality, identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship (Haslam et al., 2020), previous studies have found high correlations between the four identity leadership facets and hence there was little empirical evidence that these facets are associated with clear and different features of leadership. Following Eid et al.'s (2017) recommendation, we used a bifactor-(S – 1) model to represent the multidimensional structure of identity leadership. The bifactor-(S – 1) is composed of one reference factor (i.e., *G*-factor) and k-1 specific factors (where k represents the number of dimensions). The specific factors are defined as residual factors of the *G*-factor. By setting identity prototypicality as the *G*-factor and the three other identity leadership facets as specific factors, our analyses allowed us to model the variance in identity leadership not explained by identity prototypicality. Thus, we could investigate the variance in identity leadership explained by perceived identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship above and beyond perceived identity prototypicality. Across the two studies, our findings suggest that identity prototypicality provides a good representation of identity leadership, but that there is still a substantial part of the variance in this construct that cannot be explained by identity prototypicality alone and that represents the contribution of identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship.

Findings from the profile analyses in both studies are in line with these results. Indeed, the two profiles were clearly distinct on three of the four facets of identity leadership including the *G*-factor representing identity prototypicality and two specific facets (i.e., identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship). As these two specific facets were modeled as residuals of the *G*-factor, these results suggest that identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship are necessary aspects of identity leadership which help to distinguish engaged

identity leaders from moderate-inconsistent identity leaders. These findings give empirical substance to claims that identity leadership is a multidimensional construct rather than simply a manifestation of identity prototypicality (Haslam et al., 2020). More specifically, it suggests that identity prototypicality may be closely related to identity advancement (in being manifest aspects of leadership), but quite different from both identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship (which are more performative aspects). This indeed, is a conclusion that [reference deleted to maintain the integrity of the review process] reach on the basis of evidence that identity prototypicality and identity advancement predict followers' trust of leaders, while identity entrepreneurship and identity impresarioship predict their group identification.

Finally, speaking to RQ3, in line with the vast literature on the positive impact of identity leadership (e.g., Haslam et al., 2020), we sought to test whether the identity leadership profile of a given leader was associated with measures of social identity (team identification), job attitudes (satisfaction), and performance (OCB). As expected, employees who saw themselves as having an engaged identity leader reported higher team identification, job satisfaction, and OCB than those with a moderate-inconsistent identity leader. Although this was expected on the basis of previous research (e.g., De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002; Steffens et al., 2018; Stevens et al., 2019), these results add to a wealth of evidence which suggests that leaders who create and mobilize a sense of shared identity within their team are a source of significant added value for both their employees and their organization.

Limitations and Future Research

The following limitations should be kept in mind when drawing conclusions from this research. First, although the data were obtained from two heterogeneous samples, we cannot assume that the sample from each country is representative of the population in that country and some important socio-demographic information was not collected (e.g., ethnicity, socioeconomic status). That said, in an earlier version of the dataset (with 5,290 participants from 20 countries), van Dick et al. (2018) found that there was invariance in the ILI across country, sex, and age

group in ways that suggest that the present data are unlikely to be generalizable only to the specific samples from which these data were obtained.

Second, this is a cross-sectional study which prevents us from making causal inferences based on this data (Antonakis et al., 2010). In line with this point, we have sought to avoid causal interpretations of the various patterns we have reported. We cannot conclude, for example, that it is the identity leadership behaviors of a leader which determines the amount of extra-role behaviors shown by their employees. Instead, leaders of employees who show more OCB may be more willing to engage in behaviors that would promote a sense of 'us' within their team. At the same time, though, our findings align closely with the results of a growing body of experimental and longitudinal research which points to the causal impact of identity leadership on team identification, job attitudes, and performance (e.g., Steffens et al., 2018; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005).

Nevertheless, to address this issue, future research should certainly aim to test the impact of different identity leadership profiles experimentally using appropriate designs (e.g., vignettes) that can guarantee both internal consistency and external consistency (Atzmüller & Steiner, 2010; Evans et al., 2015). The limits of cross-sectional design could also be addressed using longitudinal studies with appropriate cross-lagged panel designs to more clearly establish how identity leadership profiles influence organizations and their members over time (Selig & Little, 2012). Furthermore, although our understanding of identity leadership is growing rapidly, there is a need for additional research that draws on objective rather than self-report data, especially to measure relevant outcomes such as health (Slater et al., 2018; Steffens et al., 2018) or in-role or extra-role performance at individual (e.g., Sosik et al., 1997) and collective levels (e.g., Howell & Avolio, 1993). Similarly, researchers should investigate leadership data that is drawn from different sources (e.g., ratings from multiple employees or self- and employee ratings; Fleenor et al., 1996). Additionally, relationships between a leader and their team, as well as relationships between all the members of the team, could be investigated using social network analysis (e.g., Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008).

Conclusion

Together, the above findings confirm that the effectiveness of identity leadership is not attributable to perceived leader prototypicality alone. Instead, leaders need to attend to the material aspects of leadership that involve shaping and embedding a sense of us within the groups they lead. Further, our research suggests that there is a substantial proportion of leaders who fail to master these aspects to a sufficient degree and whose leadership suffers as a result – pointing to the need for this to inform not only leadership theorizing but also leadership coaching and development. In other words, being an engaged identity leader turns on more than just being seen to be representative of one's group — it also involves being understood to have advanced that group and to have made it a group in the first place.

Endnotes

[1] Data are available at [link deleted to maintain the integrity of the review process].

[2] Additional packages used but not reported in the core text are dplyr (Wickham et al., 2023), ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016), Hmisc (Harrell Jr, 2025), jtools (Long, 2022), lm.beta (Behrendt, 2023), MBESS (Kelley, 2023), mice (van Buuren & Groothuis-Oudshoorn, 2011), tidyverse (Wickham et al., 2019), and reshape2 (Wickham, 2007).

[3] The profile analysis was also reproduced on R using the mclust package (Scrucca et al., 2016). The results are in line with those found on Mplus. The 2-class model with varying variance and covariance fixed to 0 converged properly and identified two classes which are very similar in terms of shape and proportion of participants. These analyses are presented in the supplementary material.

[4] Data are available at [link deleted to maintain the integrity of the review process].

[5] The profile analysis was also reproduced on R using the mclust package (Scrucca et al., 2016). The results are very similar to those found on Mplus (see supplementary material).

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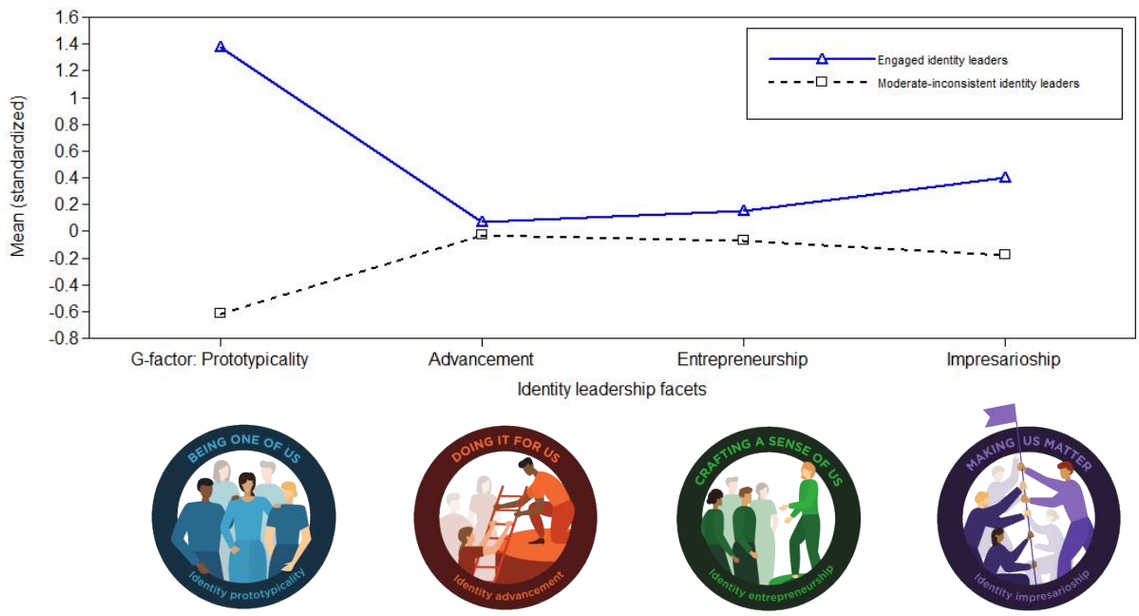
Figures

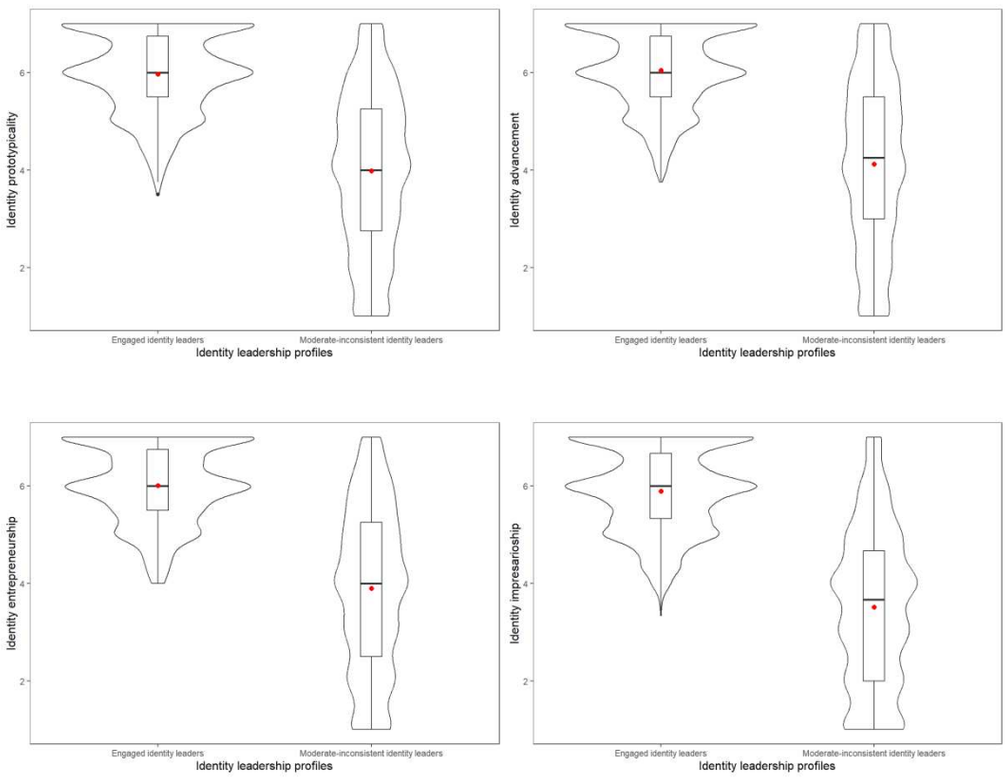
Figure 1

The Two Distinct Profiles of Leaders on the Four Facets of Identity Leadership in Study 1.



Figures 2a-2d

Violin Plots Representing the Distribution of Scores of (a) Identity Prototypicality, (b) Identity Advancement, (c) Identity Entrepreneurship, and (d) Identity Impresarioship for the Two Identity Leadership Profiles in Study 1



Figures 3a-3c

Violin Plots Representing the Distribution of (a) Team Identification, (b) Job Satisfaction, and (c) OCB Scores for the Two Identity Leadership Profiles in Study 1

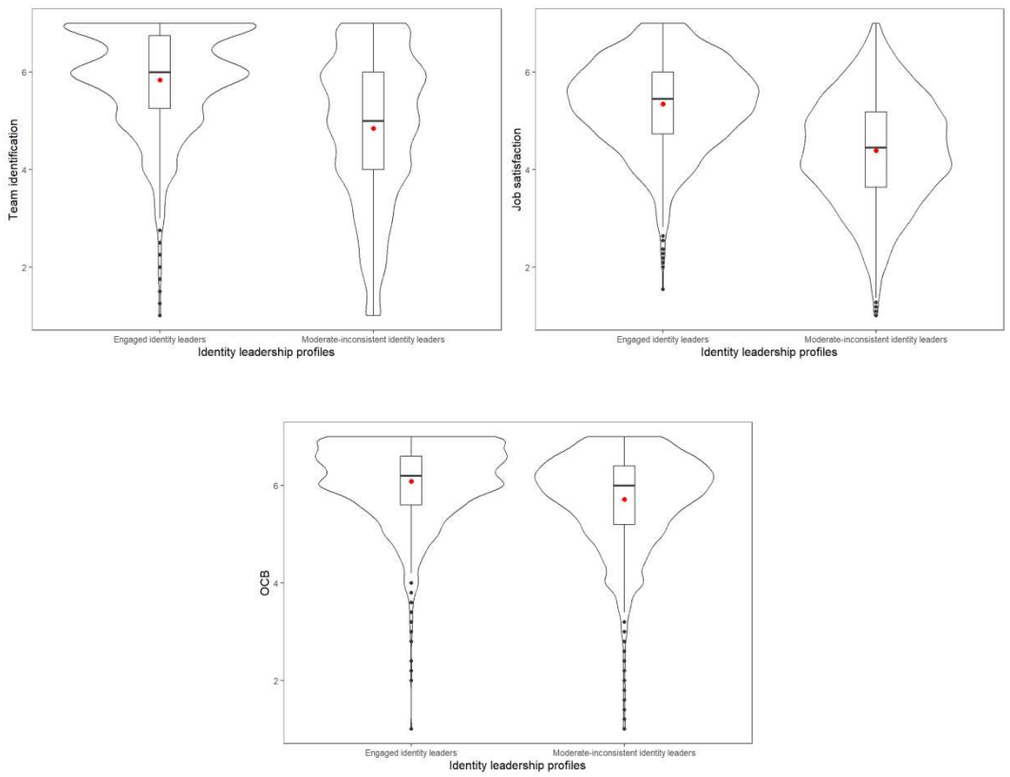
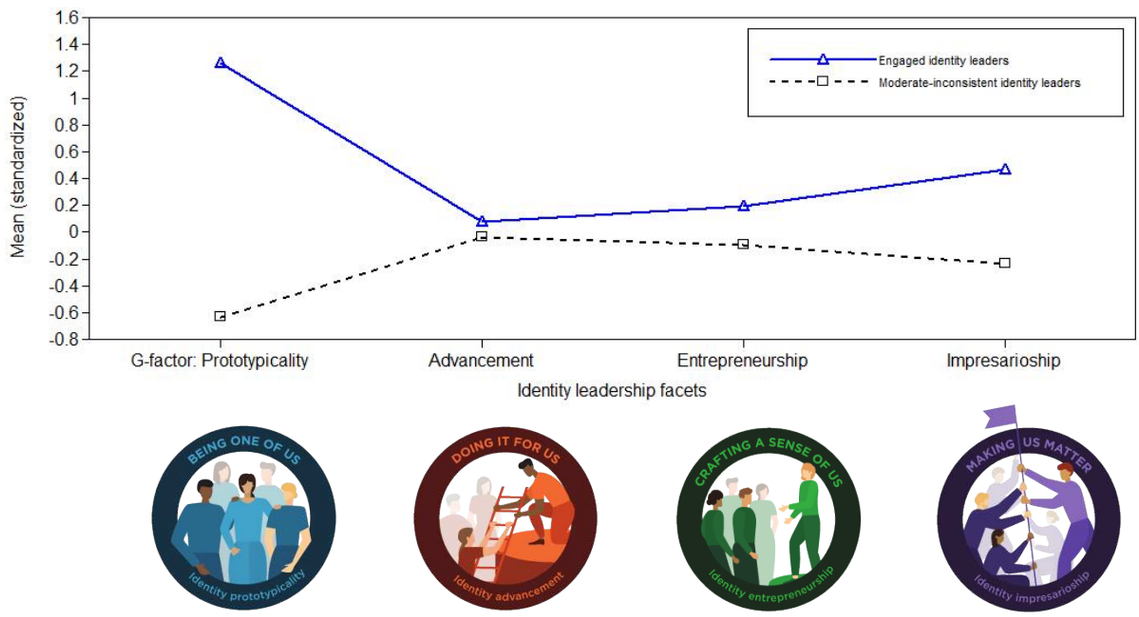


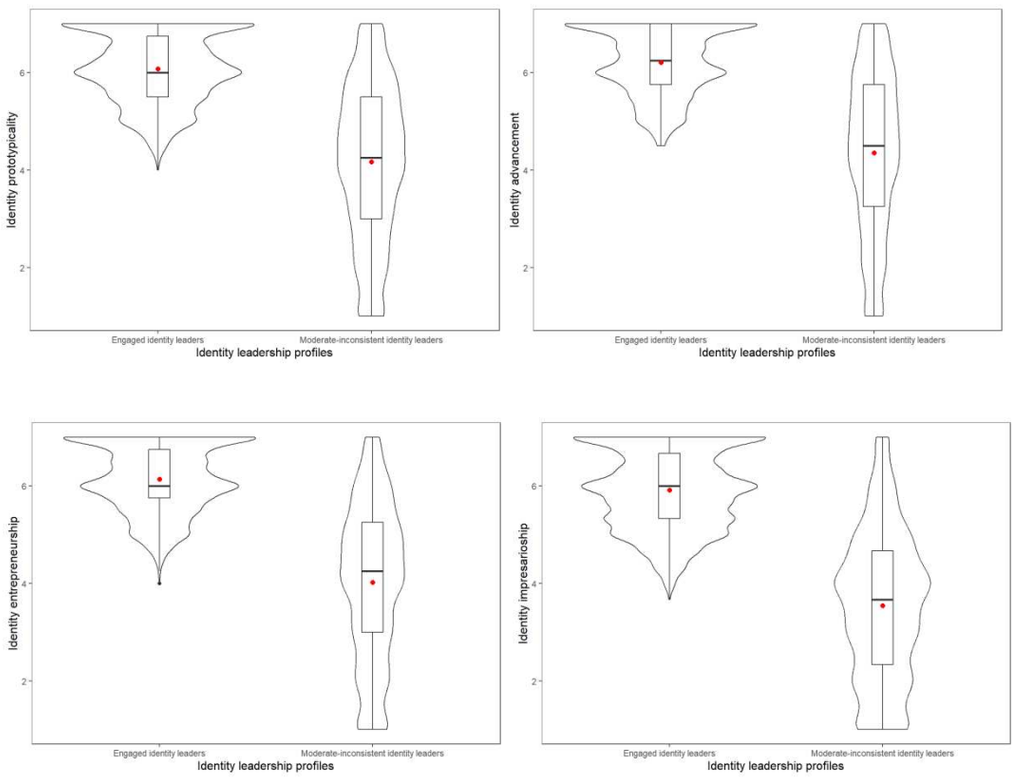
Figure 4

The Two Distinct Profiles of Leaders on the Four Facets of Identity Leadership in Study 2



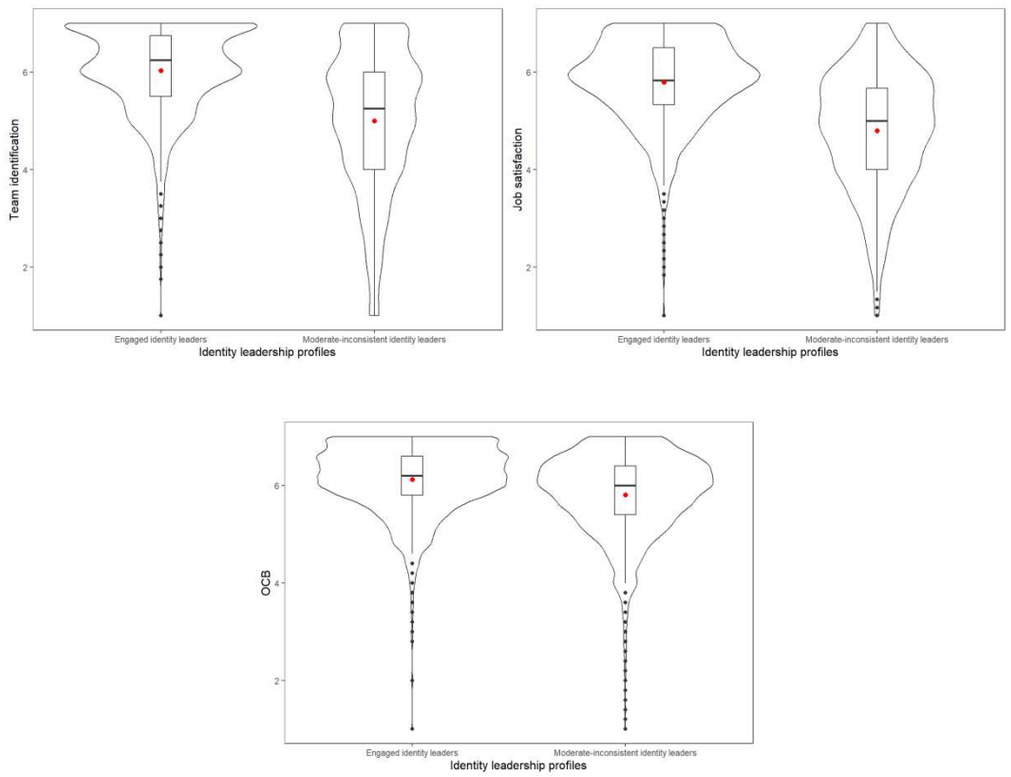
Figures 5a-5d

Violin Plots Representing the Distribution of Scores of (a) Identity Prototypicality, (b) Identity Advancement, (c) Identity Entrepreneurship, and (d) Identity Impresarioship for the Two Identity Leadership Profiles in Study 2



Figures 6a-6c

Violin Plots Representing the Distribution of (a) Team Identification, (b) Job Satisfaction, and (c) OCB Scores for the Two Identity Leadership Profiles in Study 2



Tables

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and McDonald's Omegas for Study 1

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Identity prototypicality	4.6	1.7	*.94*						
2. Identity advancement	4.7	1.7	.86	*.94*					
3. Identity entrepreneurship	4.6	1.7	.88	.89	*.96*				
4. Identity impresarioship	4.3	1.8	.79	.79	.86	*.94*			
5. Team identification	5.2	1.5	.46	.47	.50	.46	*.93*		
6. Job satisfaction	4.7	1.1	.58	.60	.61	.57	.65	*.87*	
7. OCB	5.8	0.9	.24	.22	.24	.21	.38	.33	*.79*

Note. McDonald's omegas are in the diagonal in italics. All correlations are significant with *p*s < .001.

Table 2

Factor Loadings as well as Consistency and Specificity Coefficients of a Bifactor-(S – 1) Model with Identity Prototypicality as the Reference Factor for Study 1

Item	*G*-factor loading	Standardized *G*-factor loading	*S*-factor loading	Standardized *S*-factor loading	Consistency	Specificity
Prototypicality						
Item 1	.86 (.01)	.84 (.01)				
Item 2	.87 (.01)	.85 (.01)				
Item 3	1.00	.92 (.00)				
Item 4	.99 (.01)	.93 (.00)				
Advancement						
Item 5	.89 (.01)	.85 (.01)	.59 (.03)	.27 (.01)	.91	.09
Item 6	.88 (.01)	.82 (.01)	.66 (.03)	.29 (.01)	.89	.11
Item 7	.86 (.01)	.81 (.01)	1.00	.45 (.01)	.76	.24
Item 8	.88 (.01)	.84 (.01)	.82 (.03)	.37 (.01)	.84	.17
Entrepreneurship						
Item 9	.90 (.01)	.84 (.01)	.98 (.03)	.37 (.01)	.84	.16
Item 10	.92 (.01)	.86 (.01)	1.00	.38 (.01)	.84	.16
Item 11	.92 (.01)	.87 (.00)	.86 (.04)	.33 (.01)	.87	.13
Item 12	.88 (.01)	.85 (.01)	.68 (.04)	.27 (.01)	.91	.09
Impresarioship						
Item 13	.83 (.01)	.76 (.01)	.98 (.02)	.53 (.01)	.67	.33
Item 14	.84 (.01)	.77 (.01)	1.00	.54 (.01)	.66	.33
Item 15	.87 (.01)	.81 (.01)	.65 (.02)	.36 (.01)	.84	.16

Note. *G*-factor = reference factor; *S*-factor = specific residual factor. Standard errors are given in parentheses. All loadings significant at *p*s < .001.

Table 3

Simple Regression Analyses Testing the Associations Between the Identity Leadership Profiles and Team Identification, Job Satisfaction, and OCB for Study 1

Independent variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*-value
Dependent variable: team identification (R^2 = .12; $F(1, 7372) = 995.62$, $p < .001$)				
Intercept	4.76	0.02		236.92***
Identity leadership profile	1.26	0.04	0.34	31.55***
Dependent variable: job satisfaction (R^2 = .18; $F(1, 7680) = 1670.70$, $p < .001$)				
Intercept	4.31	0.01		287.74***
Identity leadership profile	1.22	0.03	0.42	40.87***
Dependent variable: OCB (R^2 = .04; $F(1, 7679) = 278.71$, $p < .001$)				
Intercept	5.70	0.01		443.98***
Identity leadership profile	0.43	0.03	0.19	16.70***

Note. *B* = unstandardized coefficient; *SE* = standard error; β = standardized coefficient; *** $p < .001$.

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and McDonald's Omegas for Study 2

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Identity prototypicality	4.8	1.6	*.94*						
2. Identity advancement	5.0	1.6	.86	*.94*					
3. Identity entrepreneurship	4.8	1.7	.87	.87	*.95*				
4. Identity impresarioship	4.4	1.7	.76	.76	.83	*.92*			
5. Team identification	5.4	1.4	.46	.46	.50	.46	*.93*		
6. Job satisfaction	5.1	1.2	.55	.57	.57	.51	.65	*.84*	
7. OCB	5.9	0.8	.20	.18	.21	.19	.35	.32	*.72*

Note. McDonald's omegas are in the diagonal in italics. All correlations are significant with *p*s < .001.

Table 5

Factor Loadings as well as Consistency and Specificity Coefficients of a Bifactor-(S – 1) Model with Identity Prototypicality as the Reference Factor for Study 2

Item	*G*-factor loading	Standardized *G*-factor loading	*S*-factor loading	Standardized *S*-factor loading	Consistency	Specificity
Prototypicality						
Item 1	.89 (.01)	.86 (.01)				
Item 2	.91 (.01)	.86 (.01)				
Item 3	1.00	.90 (.00)				
Item 4	1.01 (.01)	.91 (.00)				
Advancement						
Item 5	.90 (.01)	.84 (.01)	.75 (.03)	.31 (.01)	.88	.12
Item 6	.87 (.01)	.80 (.01)	.83 (.03)	.34 (.01)	.85	.15
Item 7	.87 (.01)	.81 (.01)	1.00	.41 (.01)	.80	.20
Item 8	.90 (.01)	.83 (.01)	.82 (.03)	.34 (.01)	.86	.14
Entrepreneurship						
Item 9	.92 (.01)	.84 (.01)	.88 (.02)	.36 (.01)	.85	.15
Item 10	.94 (.01)	.85 (.01)	1.00	.40 (.01)	.82	.18
Item 11	.93 (.01)	.86 (.01)	.86 (.04)	.36 (.01)	.85	.15
Item 12	.89 (.01)	.83 (.01)	.71 (.04)	.30 (.01)	.89	.11
Impresarioship						
Item 13	.82 (.01)	.72 (.01)	.92 (.02)	.56 (.01)	.62	.38
Item 14	.81 (.01)	.71 (.01)	1.00	.61 (.01)	.57	.43
Item 15	.85 (.01)	.78 (.01)	.59 (.02)	.38 (.01)	.81	.19

Note. *G*-factor = reference factor; *S*-factor = specific residual factor. Standard errors are given in parentheses. All loadings significant at *p*s < .001.

Table 6

Simple Regression Analyses Testing the Associations Between the Identity Leadership Profiles and Team Identification, Job Satisfaction, and OCB for Study 2

Independent variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*-value
Dependent variable: team identification (R^2 = .16; $F(1, 7853) = 1472.90$, $p < .001$)				
Intercept	4.91	0.02		267.79***
Identity leadership profile	1.35	0.04	0.40	38.38***
Dependent variable: job satisfaction (R^2 = .19; $F(1, 7853) = 1833.50$, $p < .001$)				
Intercept	4.71	0.02		295.90***
Identity leadership profile	1.30	0.03	0.44	42.82***
Dependent variable: OCB (R^2 = .04; $F(1, 7853) = 347.78$, $p < .001$)				
Intercept	5.78	0.01		503.01***
Identity leadership profile	0.41	0.02	0.21	18.65***

Note. *B* = unstandardized coefficient; *SE* = standard error; β= standardized coefficient; *** $p < .001$.

Supplementary Material for Beyond Prototypicality: Identity Leadership is about Shaping and Embedding a Sense of Social Identity Not Just Representing It

The profile analysis was reproduced on R for both studies using the mclust package (Scrucca et al., 2016). The results of the two profiles analyses conducted with mclust are in line with those found on Mplus. The 2-class model with varying variance and covariance fixed to 0 converged properly and identified two classes which are very similar in terms of shape and proportion of participants. The BLRT confirmed that the two-class model is a superior model to the one-class solution ($p < .001$). Figures S1 and S2 display the two profiles on the four identity leadership facets, which includes identity prototypicality (i.e., the *G*-factor), identity advancement, identity entrepreneurship, and identity impresarioship (i.e., the three specific factors), respectively, for Studies 1 and 2.

Figure S1

The Two Distinct Profiles of Leaders on the Four Facets of Identity Leadership in Study 1

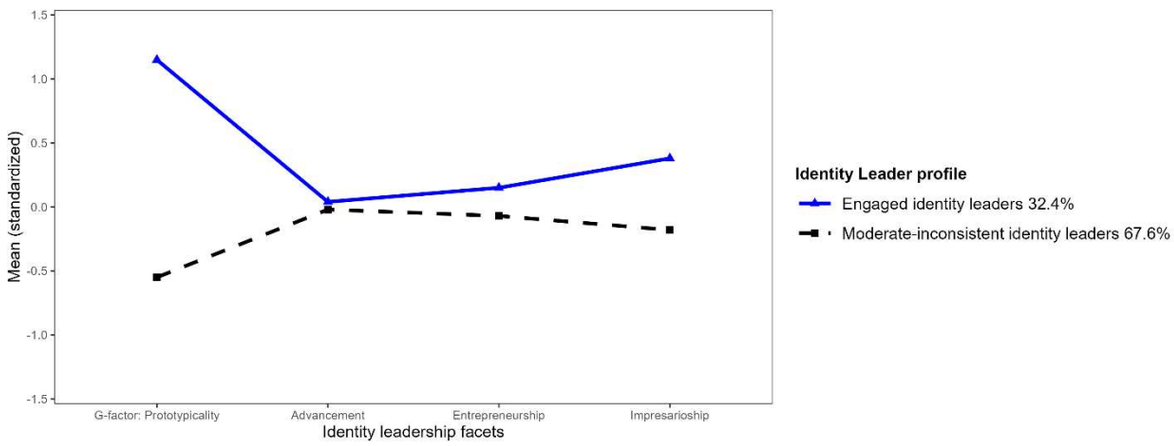
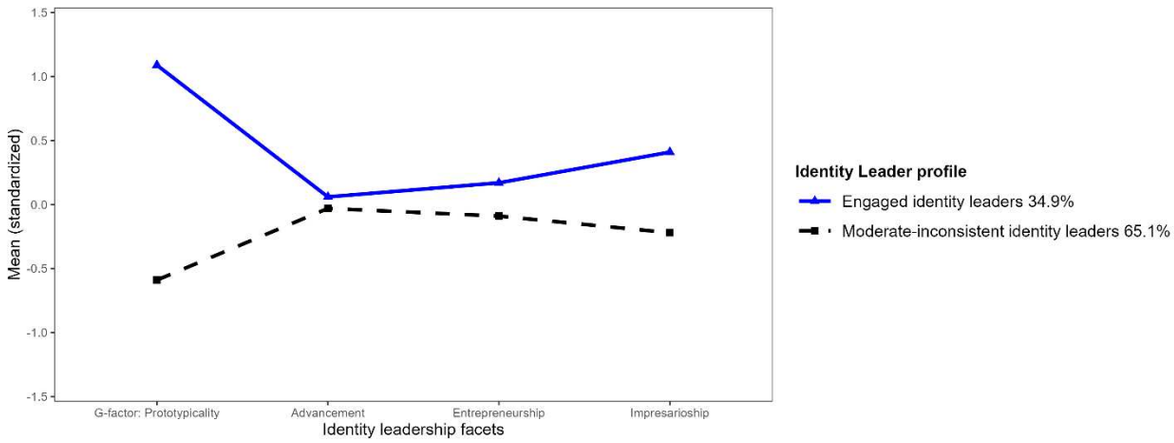


Figure S2

The Two Distinct Profiles of Leaders on the Four Facets of Identity Leadership in Study 2



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