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IS LEADERSHIP A PART OF ME?

AN IDENTITY APPROACH TO UNDERSTANDING THE MOTIVATION TO LEAD

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Abstract

Is leadership a part of me? An identity approach to understanding the motivation to lead

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Drawing on identity and social comparison theories, we propose and test a model of motivation to lead based on two types of self-to-role comparisons (i.e., self-comparisons with specific leaders and with more abstract representations of the leadership role). We propose that these comparisons imply different identity verification purposes and have different consequences on the motivation of individuals. The results obtained by using structural equation models and response surface techniques among a sample of 180 executives support our predictions. We hypothesize and find that a perceived similarity with a significant leader has a positive effect on the motivation to lead and that this relationship is mediated by self-efficacy perceptions. We also find that the affective, but not the social-normative component, is higher when there is self-role congruence with respect to leadership dimensions such as "power" and "affiliation". We discuss theoretical and practical implications for leadership and the subjective fit at work.

Keywords: motivation to lead, self-to-role comparisons, self-efficacy perceptions, identity

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Is Leadership a Part of Me?

An Identity Approach to Understanding the Motivation to Lead

The motivation to lead (MTL) is an antecedent of leadership performance and is essential for guiding leadership development efforts (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Research has thus far concentrated largely on identifying the antecedents to the MTL, such as personality traits, which are considered to be relatively stable throughout the life span (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Hendricks & Payne, 2007; Kessler, Radosevich, Cho, & Kim, 2008; Van Iddenkinge, Ferris, & Heffner, 2009). However, the motivation to hold leadership roles has also been considered developable and malleable with experience as managers develop a leadership identity. If that is the case, what are the identity antecedents to the MTL? Do they differ for the various MTL components? This paper aims to explore these questions by focusing on the affective (i.e., leading for the pleasure of doing so) and the social-normative MTL components (i.e., leading due to a sense of duty or responsibility).

With the exception of leadership self-efficacy (LSE) perceptions (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Kessler et al., 2008; Hendricks & Payne, 2007), other self-concept variables related to the MTL have been largely overlooked in the literature (see Singer, 1991, for a notable exception). A promising stream of the leadership literature that may serve to guide research in this area is identity theory, which suggests that leader development requires a person-centered focus, including working toward the development of a leader identity as a central component of an individual's self-concept (e.g., Ibarra, Snook, & Guillen-Ramo, 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005). According to identity theory, if one's self-image is aligned with how one perceives the leadership role, one might hold favorable leadership perceptions (Van Knippenberg & Hogg,

2003), be motivated towards enacting the role (Charan, Drotter, & Noel, 2001; DeRue, Ashford, & Cotton, 2009), and see oneself as a leader (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Leadership role refers to the typical behaviors and mental representations that individuals ascribe to persons occupying leadership positions (Harré, 1983), and that result in their leadership identity role standards. Indeed, when people are asked about what being a leader means to them, their responses can be very different because what the leadership role means to them can vary substantially. For example, one individual might describe leaders as "strong people who influence a group to attain their goals", whereas someone else might highlight that leaders need to "provide guidance to employees on work-related issues and consider seriously their personal development as well"[1]. Importantly, how individuals behave and how they feel when enacting the leadership role is governed by their own expectations associated with that role (Lord & Maher, 1993). Therefore, in regard to understanding the motivations of individuals in the workplace, identity theory that highlights the importance of engaging in self-verification processes through self-comparisons with these leadership identity role standards (e.g., Ibarra et al., 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005) becomes a useful theoretical perspective. Our goal in this research is to propose and test a model of how leadership identity verification via self-to-role comparisons influences the motivation to lead.

Identity is a set of meanings attached to the self in a social role (Stets & Burke, 2003). The term identity contains aspects that are essentially personal and social, and identity verification refers to the match of the personal sense of identity with the adequate social constituents of identity (Harré, 1983). When enacting a social role, individuals make deliberate efforts to display

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[1] These examples are excerpted from the qualitative responses of two anonymous participants taking part in this research. They were required to think about what the leadership role meant to them and to finish the following sentence "Leaders are…"

the distinguished characteristics of the identity standards that they ascribed to that role and to integrate them into their sense of self (Lord & Brown, 2004), which in turn serves to preserve their self-esteem and coherence (e.g., Ashforth, 2001). Complementarily, verification processes also serve to compare one's actual states (self in the role) with one's ideal state (leadership role identity standards) to determine an individual's self-regulatory processes toward goal attainment (Higgins, 1987). When the meaning of the self in the leadership role is congruent with the leadership identity role standards, self-verification occurs (Swann, 1990). In contrast, discrepancy or incongruity between self-perceptions and leadership role identity standards signals self-verification problems for that particular role. Based on these arguments, we propose that people strive to maintain a match between self and role meanings to verify themselves in the leadership role and that this match is a key determinant of the willingness of individuals to hold leadership responsibilities. We further propose that the perceived match is assessed via self-comparisons with the leadership role identity standards. We bridge social comparisons (e.g., Ritter & Lord, 2007) and identity (e.g., Ibarra et al., 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005) literature to propose that two types of self-to-role comparisons serve different identity verification purposes that relate to individuals' MTL. We test our hypotheses using structural equation models, polynomial regression and response surface techniques among a sample of executives with considerable work experience, and we discuss implications for theory and research on leadership, identity, and self-role fit at work.

Theory and Hypotheses Development

Motivation to lead

MTL has been defined as "an individual differences construct that affects a leader's or leader-to-be's decision to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affects his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader" (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). The authors identified three MTL components: the affective, the social-normative and the non-calculative. The affective MTL component refers to the positive affect associated with the act of leading. The social-normative MTL component refers to the social norms related to the act of leading. Finally, the non-calculative component refers to a person's beliefs about the outcomes associated with success. We framed this study to look at the affective and social-normative MTL components because previous research has suggested that they are empirically more related to socio-cognitive antecedents (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Kessler et al., 2008).

Types of Self-to-Role Comparisons and the Motivation to Lead

There are different types of self-related concepts (i.e., manifest and deep self-concept dimensions) that may serve as a basis for making different types of self-to-role comparisons (Charan et al., 2001; Lord & Hall, 2005). On one hand, at a more manifest level, individuals need to assess their skills and behaviors with respect to the skills and behaviors that are required to be successful in the leadership role. For example, if someone sees him/herself as being a good communicator and considers articulating and communicating a compelling vision as basic leadership skills, then s/he will be more motivated to lead than if s/he thinks of him/herself as a poor public speaker. On the other hand, at a more profound level, what the individual stands for in terms of values, meanings and ideologies also needs to be aligned with the meanings s/he attaches to the leadership role. For example, if someone considers him/herself as someone who is well-liked by others and thinks that leaders are respectful with their co-workers and usually get

along with them, that person will be more motivated to lead than if s/he thinks that leaders are solitary animals that value working alone to pursue their own individual (and hidden) agendas. We suggest that to evaluate a match with respect to the manifest and deep dimensions, people rely on two qualitatively different types of self-comparisons.

Research differentiates between self-comparisons with particular individuals occupying leadership roles with whom people interact to a certain extent in their daily life (i.e., a previous supervisor or a senior manager that was influential to the person in the past or still is at present) (i.e., self-exemplar role comparisons) and self-comparisons with more abstract, general representations of the leadership role category (i.e., prototypical role comparisons) (e.g., Andersen, Glassman, Chen, & Cole, 1995; Andersen & Chen, 2002; Smith & Zarate, 1990). Drawing on previous motivation (e.g., Fishbein & Stasson, 1990; Hurtz & Williams, 2009; Singer, 1991; Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991) and leadership theories (e.g., Ashforth, 2001; Charan et al., 2001; Ibarra et al., 2010; Lord & Hall, 2005), we propose that self-exemplar role comparisons are mainly performed with the identity verification purpose of assessing personal adjustment with the leadership role in terms of skills and behaviors (i.e., manifest self-concept dimensions), and they serve to gain confidence in feeling capable of succeeding in the leadership role (i.e., the "I can" component of motivation). In contrast, self-prototypical role comparisons are used with the identity verification purpose of assessing the individual match to the leadership role in terms of values, meanings or ideologies (i.e., deep self-concept dimensions), and they serve to evaluate the extent to which leadership activities are attractive, self-relevant and fuel authentic feelings (i.e., the "I like" component of motivation). Figure 1 represents the hypothesized identity model for the MTL. In the next section, we elaborate separately on our hypotheses regarding self-exemplar role and self-prototypical role comparisons.

"Insert Figure 1 about here"

Self-exemplar role comparisons: Perceived similarity with a significant leader.

Frequently, people do not know what the crucial attributes for succeeding as a leader in their organization are because those attributes are not explicitly written or communicated to them. Therefore, when evaluating their own capacities for leadership positions, people usually use specific individuals who already made it (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007). Research has shown that the alignment of the self with the leadership role in terms of skills, knowledge and behaviors occurs, to a large extent, through these upward comparisons with specific individuals or role models (Gibson, 2003) that are particularly important to identify specific knowledge (Andersen et al., 1995), understand the idiosyncratic behaviors and skills associated with the role (Bandura, 1977), and look for manifest signs of effective performance and calibrate someone's capabilities to succeed (Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007).

Previous studies have shown how comparisons with significant others are used to judge new individuals (e.g., Berk & Andersen, 2000; Hill, Lewicki, Czyzewska, & Boss, 1989), to define self-concepts (Andersen & Chen, 2002), and to judge oneself (Aron, Aron, Tudor, & Nelson, 1991; Hinkley & Andersen, 1996). More specifically, research in the leadership field has shown that past leaders are used to judge the performance of new leaders (Ritter & Lord, 2007), and for trying to overcome "gaps" in understanding and performing their role (Harrison, Leitch, & Chia, 2007).

Past leaders are important to guide self-perceptions for several reasons. First, because being a leader is socially attractive (Hogg, 2001), leaders are often scrutinized by employees who try to decipher their behavior (Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999). Second, previous studies suggest that aspects of a follower's self-concept can be activated by the leader and that this information

strongly guides self-perceptions and reactions (e.g., Andersen et al., 1995; Ritter & Lord, 2007). Importantly, the identity (Harré, 1983) and social comparison (Festinger, 1954) literature also suggests that self-comparisons with successful others trigger motivation to acquire leadership skills, especially if the individual perceives some similarity with the subject of comparison (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007, Kilduff, 1990).

When an individual perceives him/herself to be to some extent similar to someone who succeeded, the role identity becomes more salient (LeBoeuf, Shafir, & Bayuk, 2010), and s/he will be more likely to try to emulate the similar other (Greenberg et al., 2007). Similarity with a significant leader can boost self-esteem (Byrne, 1971), strengthen the social identity of leadership (Pilegge & Holtz, 1997), validate individuals' self-concepts as leaders (Clore & Byrne, 1974), establish closer and frequent interactions with the leader (Ducheon, Green, & Taber, 1986), improve personal feelings and trust toward the leaders (Berscheid & Walster, 1969, Clore & Byrne, 1974; O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989), and enhance job performance outcomes (Miller, 2002). We operationalize self-exemplar role comparisons as the perceived similarity between the self and a specific, significant previous leader and propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: *Perceived similarity with a significant previous leader relates positively to both the affective and social-normative components of motivation to lead.*

Leadership self-efficacy perception as a mediator between perceived similarity with a previous leader and MTL. When people who evaluate their resources perceive themselves as being similar to powerful individuals, the upward comparison to that target inflates perceptions of one's competence (Van der Zee, Buunk, & Sanderman, 1990; Ybema & Buunk, 1995). Thus,

these upward comparisons raise one's confidence in the capacity to marshal resources to meet the leadership demands (i.e., the "I can" component of motivation). Therefore, we propose that the relationship between perceived similarity with a significant former leader and the MTL is mediated by LSE.

Indeed, the literature on significant-others comparisons has explained the process by which perceived similarity leads to higher self-efficacy perceptions. According to this body of literature, when an individual perceives that s/he has similar skills and abilities as the leader who has had or still has an influence on him/her, a transference process (Andersen et al., 1995) is likely to occur through which the leader's attributes are adopted as the individual's own (Aron et al., 1991). Therefore, individuals feel better equipped to succeed in a leadership role (Ritter & Lord, 2007). Thus, we expect that perceived similarity with an influential leader relates to individuals' LSE.

Complementary, Bandura (1977) noted that self-efficacy perceptions were a key determinant of how much effort people were going to put in a certain task. More recently, aligned with this prediction, the leadership literature has pointed out that LSE relates to individuals' willingness to hold a leadership role and persist in their leadership activities (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), as well as to their leadership performance (see Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008 for a review on the topic). These arguments lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: *The relationship between perceived similarity with a significant previous leader and the motivation to lead is mediated by leadership self-efficacy perceptions.*

Prototypical role comparisons: Self-role congruence in terms of "power" and "affiliation". With experience, managers actively observe, adapt and reject attributes of multiple

leaders they encounter and develop richer and more nuanced leadership role views of those occupying leadership positions. As a result, people can judge how they stand with respect to the deeper meanings they ascribe to the leadership role, including goals, values, beliefs and ideologies, and they engage in a verification matching process with respect to these dimensions (Kehr, 2004a; Lord & Maher, 1993). Previous studies have shown that this process serves, in turn, to boost their leadership motivation (e.g., Charan et al., 2001; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Hogan & Shelton, 1998; Lord & Hall, 2005), and to preserve self-esteem (Swann, 1990). For example, research has documented the positive relationship of value congruence with job outcomes such as commitment (Cable & DeRue, 2002), and job satisfaction and mutual liking with the leader (Jurgensen, 1978; Locke, 1976). Congruence is also associated with positive feelings towards the job as a whole, personal affirmation and authentic beliefs while enacting the role (Edwards & Cable, 2009), thereby increasing the attraction to and the liking of leadership activities (i.e., the "I like" component of motivation). We propose that high self-congruence in terms of deeper meanings attached to the leadership role will be related to higher motivation to hold leadership roles.

With respect to the leadership dimensions to consider in our model, research has shown that there are some dimensions that are consistently ascribed to the leadership role across individuals (Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, & Reichard, 2008). Motivational and management theories have proposed that two of these key dimensions are "affiliation" (i.e., also referred as getting along with others or communion in previous studies) and "power" (i.e., also referred to as getting ahead, control or agency) (e.g., Adler, 1939; Hogan & Shelton, 1998; McAdams, 1985; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; Purcell, 1967). "Affiliation" refers to valuing feeling liked and supported by one's colleagues and reflects the influence of social desirability and socialization

processes, whereas "power" refers to valuing gaining control over resources and the desire to have an impact on others (Digman, 1997). Managers with a high level of "affiliation" are considered good team players, organizational citizens, and service providers (Mount, Barrick, & Stewart, 1998), whereas managers with high levels of "power" are perceived as achieving results, providing leadership, communicating a vision, and motivating others (Conway, 1999).

Regardless of self-perceptions, different individuals may have different understandings of the importance of "affiliation" and "power" for leaders. For example, someone may consider the leadership role as a highly social position, emphasizing the "affiliation" dimension of leadership, such as caring for the subordinates. In contrast, another person may see leaders as powerful and high-status people who struggle to gain control over resources and other individuals, emphasizing the "power" dimension of leadership. We propose that in order to understand the identity antecedents to the MTL, self-perceptions related to "affiliation" and "power" need to be juxtaposed with how individuals judge the leadership role identity standards with respect to these two dimensions. Thus, in the present study, we explore how congruence between self-definitions and the meanings attached to the leadership role in terms of "power" and "affiliation" relates to the MTL.

We further refine our prediction by stating that congruence will impact the affective motivation to lead component but not the social-normative component. Scholars have already proposed that people who score high on the affective component derive more personal intrinsic satisfaction from the act of leading, whereas people who score high on the social-normative component are motivated by external forces as determinants of their MTL (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Lane and Scott (2007) suggested that individuals who are pressured only by external forces may feel that their self-concept is not in balance when enacting the role, thereby

experiencing leadership activities as less self-relevant or attractive. Complementary, Shamir and Eilam (2005) stated that self-congruence plays a more important role for people who pursue activities that they like than for people with a sense of obligation to perform externally imposed duties or follow conventions. Thus, if congruence in terms of values, beliefs, or ideologies enhances the extent to which someone judges the act of leading as self-relevant and intrinsically motivating, it is reasonable to expect that it will have an impact on individuals' affective MTL but not on the social-normative one. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: *Self-role congruence in terms of "power" and "affiliation" significantly relates to the affective motivation to lead component but not to the social-normative one.*

Prototypical role comparisons as a moderator between LSE and MTL. As noted above, we have hypothesized that both self-exemplar and prototypical comparisons have direct effects on the MTL. However, Kehr (2004b) suggested that when people consider a task as highly valuable and self-relevant, they may be tempted to engage in it even if they lack the appropriate skills. Similarly, DeRue and Ashford (2010) proposed that if an individual considers him/herself as leader-like, s/he may be motivated to try what s/he values, despite not having developed the appropriate skills through experience yet. Thus, people may engage in leadership activities, even in those exceeding their abilities, if they like them sufficiently. For example, if an engineer has always dreamed about managing a team and after years of doing individual technical work in an organization is finally given the opportunity of leading a group of other engineers, s/he may be tempted to seize the opportunity of leading a complex project, despite the lack of experience and proven competence in similar assignments. Thus, judging the leadership role standards as self-relevant (i.e., as manifested with a high self-congruence with the meanings attached to the leadership role in terms of "power" and "affiliation") can mitigate the importance

of self-efficacy perceptions in determining individuals' intentions to engage in the leadership activities. We therefore propose that in addition to the direct effect that prototypical-role comparisons have on the affective MTL component, they also moderate the relationship between individuals' LSE and their MTL[2]. If individuals value the leadership role to a high extent, their LSE will be less important in determining their affective MTL compared to other people for whom the act of leading is less self-relevant. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: *The relationship between leadership self-efficacy perceptions and the affective MTL will be weaker for individuals with a high self-role congruence in terms of "power" and "affiliation" compared to other individuals.*

Method

Sample and Procedure

Data were obtained from 194 participants in open-enrollment executive education programs at a major European business school who were asked to complete on-line surveys as a pre-assignment for the program. A total of 180 participants, 59 female and 121 male, had complete data and constituted our final sample. The participants were between 23 and 59 years old, and the average age was 35.73 years. The respondents had an average of 5.04 years of leadership experience and 9.24 direct reports.

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[2] As proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) a variable (i.e., "power"/"affiliation" self-role congruence) can have a moderating effect on the relationship between a predictor (i.e., LSE) and an outcome variable (i.e., affective MTL) while at the same time having a significant direct effect on that same outcome variable. To test the moderating effect, the structural model needs to incorporate three paths: (Path 1) the direct effect of the predictor on the outcome variable (i.e., path from LSE perceptions to the MTL), (Path 2) the direct effect of the variable that serves also as moderator on the dependent variable (i.e., path from self-role congruence to the MTL), and, finally, (Path 3) the moderating effect operates as the interaction between the two (i.e., path from the interaction "LSE × self-role congruence" to the MTL). The moderation hypothesis is supported if the interaction (Path 3) is significant. There may also be significant main effects (Paths 1 and 2); we have hypothesized these effects in this study, but these are not conceptually important to testing the moderating hypothesis.

Measures

Motivation to lead. We used the MTL measure developed by Chan and Drasgow (2001). The scale consists of 18 self-report Likert-type question items forming two factors. The first factor corresponds to the affective MTL component and comprises nine items including, for example, "Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in groups," and "I am the type of person who likes being in charge of others." The second factor, the social-normative MTL component, also comprised nine items, including, for example, "I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by other members," and "It is not right to decline leadership roles." The coefficient alpha was estimated at .84 and .71, respectively.

Leadership self-efficacy perceptions. Eight questions were used to assess LSE perceptions, as reported by Murphy (2001). Examples of items from this scale include "I feel that I know a lot more than most leaders about what it takes to be a good leader," and "I am confident in my ability to influence a work group that I lead." The coefficient alpha was estimated at .84.

Exemplar-role comparisons: Similarity with a previous leader. Singer (1991) reported that a closed list of leadership attributes did not account for the observed variance in the leadership aspirations of individuals. A possible explanation for the lack of significance was that the specific attributes on the closed list might not be relevant to all participants (Pfeffer & Fong, 2005). She suggested that idiographic approaches that capture significant leadership attributes might be more appropriate. Previous studies (Andersen & Cole, 1990; Berk & Andersen, 2000; Ritter & Lord, 2007) used idiographic descriptions using self-generated inventories to characterize leaders, and we used a similar approach to identify meaningful leadership attributes in the participants in this study. Participants were asked to recall and visualize the leader who

had been the most significant to them in the past or who was still significant to them in the present. Following the procedure suggested in previous studies, the subjects generated a list of 10 descriptive statements referring to abilities, skills and behaviors that characterized the recalled individual as a leader. Respondents were then requested to indicate how well each of the statements fit with their personal attributes on a scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*extremely well*). An average aggregate score that we called 'similarity with a previous leader' was calculated by adding up these values and dividing them by the total number of attributes that the person generated.

We content analyzed a total of 1548 descriptors produced by the participants (not all of them generated a complete list with 10 descriptive statements). We identified nine leadership attributes categories (people management, influencing, integrity, results orientation, energizing, decisiveness, networking, strategic thinking, change management). Most of the descriptors that were used involved behavioral mannerisms (e.g., encourages people to grow).

Prototypical role comparisons: Self-role congruence in terms of "affiliation" and "power." Self-assessments on "affiliation" and "power" were conducted using a short version of the Personality Research Form (PRF) (Jackson, 1984). In this study, each scale consisted of five items. The PRF dominance scale was selected for measuring "power". Examples of dominance items included "I feel uneasy when I have to tell people what to do" (reversed item), and "I avoid positions of control over other people" (reversed item). The PRF affiliation scale was used to assess "affiliation". Examples of affiliation items are "sometimes I have to make a real effort to be sociable" (reversed item), and "often I would rather be alone than with a group of friends" (reversed item). Reliability was estimated at .72 and .70 respectively.

Prior to assessing the meanings attached to the leadership role with respect to these two leadership dimensions, we primed the mental representation of the leadership social category by asking the participants to describe what the leadership role meant to them. We then assessed the extent to which participants attributed "power" and "affiliation" to leaders. We chose to use different measures for assessing how individuals judge the leadership role with respect to these leadership dimensions than for self-assessments to avoid method effects produced by social desirability, leniency biases or item demand characteristics. Thus, we adapted King's (1995) descriptions of "power" and "affiliation". We adapted the definition in two scales, "power" and "affiliation", each of which comprised four items. "Power" items were "leaders would prefer to be in charge of situations," "leaders have the desire to have an impact on others," "leaders have the recurrent need for having influence over other people," and "leaders enjoy the feeling that they had an effect on the world." "Affiliation" items were "leaders are concerned with getting to know others," "leaders are concerned with maintaining their interpersonal connections and with deepening their relationships with others," "leaders have the recurrent concern for being with other people," and "leaders prefer to have other people around in just about every situation." Coefficient alpha was estimated at .70 and .75 for the "power" and "affiliation" scales, respectively.

Control Variables. We included personal variables such as gender, age, marital status, children, previous role, and past leadership experience as controls in our study. Previous studies (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Shamir & Howell, 1999) have suggested that the organizational context can have an effect on an individual's MTL level. Kark and Van Dijk (2007) distinguished between dynamic organizational contexts (i.e., that require and enable the introduction of new strategies, markets, products, or technologies) versus stable ones (i.e.,

operating under routine and standardized conditions). We use a shortened version of the scales they proposed to assess the two types of organizational cultures. The participants had to indicate to what extent they thought that the following characteristics were applicable to their current work context: "dynamic," "change oriented," "bureaucratic," and "mechanistic". The correlation coefficient between the first two indicators that related to a dynamic organizational context was .53 (p < .01), whereas the correlation coefficient for the last two indicators that related to a stable context was .54 (p < .01).

Results

Discriminant validity and common method variance. Prior to testing our hypotheses, we addressed two issues: discriminant validity among the variables used in our model and common method variance. To address discriminant validity, we first looked for evidence of the two-factor MTL components (i.e., affective and social-normative components) due to their conceptual overlap by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis with LISREL. We compared the goodness of fit of a baseline two-factor structure and a structure with only one factor. The model with two factors ($\chi^2 = 212.56$, $df = 130$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .95, SRMR = .07) resulted in a significantly better fit ($\Delta\chi^2 = 78.97$, $\Delta df = 1$, p < .01) than the model with one factor ($\chi^2 = 291.53$, $df = 131$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .93, SRMR = .08). These results indicate the appropriateness of studying the two MTL components separately.

Next, we continued by considering all the variables used in our theoretical model. The seven-factor measurement model was fitted to the data ($\chi^2 = 1488.15$; $df = 881$, RMSEA = .06, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .08). This confirmatory factor analysis provides an indication of the convergent validity of the items used to represent the seven factors (Bentler, 1989). An

alternative one-factor nested model was used to assess the discriminant validity of the constructs (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988). The single factor model used to assess the overall discriminability poorly accounted for the data ($\chi 2$ = 2725.01, df = 902; RMSEA = .11, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .10), and it resulted in a significantly worse fit compared to the theoretical model ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 1236.86, Δdf = 21, p < .01). These results supported maintaining the hypothesized seven-factor structure.

Because our goal was to gain an understanding of intra-personal processes related to leadership, our focal variables were self-assessed by our participants. Therefore, it was particularly important to address whether common method variance represented a challenge to the validity of our results. The influence of common method variance has been cited as a concern in the organizational research (Podsakoff, McKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), and it implies that the variance in observed scores is partially attributable to a methods effect. To address this issue, we first used Hartman's one-factor test to examine if a single factor could account for the variance of the scales used in the study. The results showed that more than one factor emerged and that the first factor accounts for only 18.32% of the total variance. Subsequently, we ran a seven-factor model including the items of all variables in our model plus an additional latent common methods variance factor. Items were allowed to load on their theoretical constructs as well as on the latent common methods factor. Global fit indexes of this model were the following: χ^2 = 1437.11, df = 838, RMSEA = .063, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .08, which suggested that there was a nonsignificant improvement ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 51; Δdf = 43, $n.s.$) over the seven-factor theoretical model and that common method variance may not be a major concern in the present study. We standardized our focal variables, and all subsequent analyses were performed

controlling for age, gender, marital status, children, previous role, leadership experience, and stable organizational culture and dynamic organizational culture.

Exemplar-role comparisons, MTL, and the mediating role of LSE. Means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities are shown in Table 1. To examine the impact of perceived similarity with a former leader on MTL and the mediating role of LSE, we conducted a two-step analysis using structural equation modeling with LISREL 8.80.

"Insert Table 1 about here"

In Model 1, we predicted the affective and social-normative MTL components with perceived similarity with a previous leader (see Figure 2A). In Model 2, we added the direct effects of LSE on the MTL components and the indirect effect of perceived similarity with a leader on LSE (see Figure 2B). Supporting Hypothesis 1, similarity with a former leader had a significant positive effect on both MTL components. The magnitude and the significance of the effect of the perceived similarity with a former leader diminished and became non-significant for both MTL components after introducing LSE (Model 2).

"Insert Figures 2A and 2B about here"

We assessed the significance of our suggested mediation model using the bootstrapping procedure developed by Preacher and Hayes (2008) by constructing 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals around the indirect effects of perceived similarity on the two MTL components. The results indicated that, as predicted in Hypothesis 2, perceived similarity with a leader had a positive effect on LSE perceptions and that the latter mediated the effect of perceived similarity on both MTL components. The confidence interval for the indirect effect on

the affective MTL component excluded zero (.065, .240), and the mediation was total. The confidence interval for the indirect effect on the social-normative MTL also excluded zero (.006, .127), and the proportion of the total effect mediated was 33%.

Prototypical role comparisons and MTL. We next assessed the direct effects of "power" and "affiliation" self-role congruence on the MTL. Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, and Heggestad (2010) suggested that an appropriate first step in analyzing the effects of congruence on the dependent variable is to check descriptive information about the occurrence of discrepancies between the predictors. Any participant with a standardized coefficient on the affective MTL component half a standard deviation above or below the standardized score of the other predictor variable was considered to have a discrepant value. More than half of our sample presented individual-role discrepancies (71.14% for "affiliation" and 65.98% for "power"). Therefore, we concluded that it was advisable to explore how congruence related to the MTL.

Following Edwards (2002; see also Shanock et al., 2010), we first tested the linear relationships of self- and leadership role "affiliation" and "power" values. We then proceeded to test the quadratic equations to analyze the congruence effects on the MTL components. The equations to test the linear (Equation 1) and quadratic (Equation 2) models were the following:

$$MTL_{i\text{LINEAR}} = b_{M0}+b_{M1}S_{\text{Aff/Pow}}+b_{M2}R_{\text{Aff/Pow}} +e_M \tag{1}$$

$$MTL_{i\text{QUAD}}=b_{M0}+b_{M1}S_{\text{Aff/Pow}}+b_{M2}R_{\text{Aff/Pow}}+b_{M3}S_{\text{Aff/Pow}}^{2}+b_{M4}S_{\text{Aff/Pow}}R_{\text{Aff/Pow}}+b_{M5}R_{\text{Aff/Pow}}^{2}+e_M \tag{2}$$

where affective and social-normative MTL (MTL_i) are the dependent variables, and $S_{\text{Aff/Pow}}$, and $R_{\text{Aff/Pow}}$ are the predictors for self- and leadership role "power" and "affiliation" dimensions. Table 2 shows the results of testing the linear and the quadratic models. The linear model was significant in predicting both MTL components. As expected, the inclusion of the

quadratic terms yielded a significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, p < .05) only for the affective MTL component.

"Insert Table 2 about here"

We used structural equation modeling and response surface analysis to test Hypotheses 3 and 4. Following Edwards (1994, 2002), we first tested which were the adequate "power" and "affiliation" polynomial terms to be included in our model. As suggested by the results reported in Table 2, we introduced only the "power" and "affiliation" linear coefficients for predicting the social-normative component in all subsequent models. We also introduced the linear coefficients for predicting the affective MTL and used this linear model as a Baseline Model for making comparisons with two alternative nested models. Alternative Model 1 included the effects of the "affiliation" quadratic terms on the affective MTL, and Alternative Model 2 included in addition to Alternative Model 1 the effects of the "power" quadratic terms on the affective MTL. We calculated the sequential R-squared difference tests of the structural equations predicting affective MTL between the Alternative Model 1 vs. Baseline Model 1 and subsequently between the Alternative Model 1 vs. Alternative Model 2. The R-Square difference between the Alternative Model 1 and the Baseline Model for explaining affective MTL was significant (R-Square of .47 and .44, respectively, F Change = .31, p < .05). In contrast, comparing Alternative Models 1 and 2 yielded a nonsignificant R-square change (R-Square of .48 and .47, respectively, F Change = .82, *n.s.*). Based on these results, we concluded that a linear relationship was appropriate to describe the relationship between "power" and affective MTL, whereas "affiliation" relates to affective MTL in a more complex way.

We included all "affiliation" polynomial terms (i.e., linear and quadratic terms in Equation 2) in our final model. We then computed the absolute difference between the self and the leadership role "power" linear terms and included this term as a predictor in the final model presented in Table 3 (Model 1, Revised Model). The absolute difference is an appropriate conceptualization of self-role "power" congruence in this study because we predicted in Hypothesis 3 that the size of the difference (i.e., how different the self and leadership role "power" scores are) is relevant but not the direction of the difference (i.e., whether one is higher than the other) [3].

"Insert Table 3 about here"

As reported in the table, the self-role "power" absolute difference had a significant negative effect on the affective MTL (β = -.13, p < .05) and a non-significant effect on the social-normative MTL component (β = -.10, *n.s.*). Thus, as hypothesized, a high discrepancy between the "power" personal and leadership role values decreased the affective MTL and did not play a role in determining the level of social-normative MTL.

Then, to interpret the direct effect of "affiliation" self-role congruence on the affective MTL component, we plotted the LISREL unstandardized coefficients reported in the revised model (Model 1 in Table 3) using the response surface technique in MATLAB. Figure 3 shows the response surface analysis. To visualize the whole surface, we have changed the orientation values in the graph from what Edwards and colleagues reported.

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[3] We also conducted a nested model comparison to check if the effect of "power"/"affiliation" congruence on affective MTL was mediated by LSE (i.e., like it is the case for "perceived similarity with a previous leader"). To do so, we included six additional paths to Model 1 in Table 3 (from the "affiliation" polynomial terms and the self-role "power" score to LSE). The results of this model ($\chi2$ = 12.29, *df* = 8, RMSEA = .06, CFI = 1.00, SRMR = .02) indicated a non-significant improvement over Model 1 ($\Delta\chi2$ = 12.25, Δdf = 6, *n.s.*), and an inspection of the added paths revealed that none of them was significant in predicting affective MTL. Therefore, we discarded a mediating role of LSE between "power" and "affiliation" congruence and affective MTL.

"Insert Figure 3 about here"

We used the coefficients of the quadratic model to calculate four surface test values—the slopes and curvatures of the congruence and the incongruence lines (Edwards, 2002; Shanock et al., 2010). These coefficients are displayed at the bottom of Table 3. The congruence line includes all points where self and leadership role values were the same ($S_{Affiliation} = R_{Affiliation}$). In contrast, the incongruence line includes all points where the value scores were in perfect disagreement ($S_{Affiliation} = - R_{Affiliation}$). The coefficients are as follows: a_1 ($b_{M1} + b_{M2,}$ in Equation 2) is the slope of the line for perfect agreement, where b_{M1} is the unstandardized beta coefficient for self-"affiliation" and b_{M2} is the same for leadership role-"affiliation." The curvature along the line of perfect agreement is assessed by a_2 ($b_{M3} + b_{M4} + b_{M5,}$ in Equation 2). The slope of the line of incongruence is assessed using a_3 ($b_{M1} - b_{M2,}$ in Equation 2), and the curvature along the incongruence line is assessed using a_4 ($b_{M3} - b_{M4} + b_{M5,}$ in Equation 2).

As shown in Table 3, the coefficients a_1 and a_2 are significant. The slope of the line of perfect agreement (a_1) is negative, suggesting that affective MTL improved as self-"affiliation" and "affiliation" attached to the leadership role decreased. The significant positive coefficient a_2 derived from the surface tests also indicated that along the line of perfect agreement, $S_{Affiliation}$ and $R_{Affiliation}$ have a non-linear relationship. The affective MTL is higher at the near left and especially the far right corner of the graph and lower toward the middle. Combining these results, we can conclude that the affective MTL was higher when both "affiliation" self- and leadership role values were low and was lower when both values were high. Overall, these results suggest that self-role congruence in terms of "power" and "affiliation" results in high affective MTL and support Hypothesis 3. Also as expected, self-role congruence was not found to be related to the social-normative MTL component.

Prototypical-role comparisons as a moderator between LSE and MTL. We predicted in Hypothesis 4 that the relationship between LSE and affective MTL would be weaker when individuals had high value congruence as a sign of finding leadership more intrinsically motivating and self-relevant. To test this hypothesis, we computed a block variable (Igra, 1979) for "affiliation" including all polynomial terms, i.e., $S_{Affiliation} + R_{Affiliation} + S_{Affiliation}^2 + S_{Affiliation}R_{Affiliation} + R_{Affiliation}^2$. Then, we multiplied the "affiliation" block variable by the self-role "power" absolute difference (|Self "Power" − Leadership Role "Power"| × Block "Affiliation") to identify participants congruent in both "affiliation" and "power". To assess the hypothesized moderating effect of self-role congruence, we calculated the interaction term by multiplying this resulting variable by LSE (LSE × |Self "Power" - Leadership Role "Power"| × Block Affiliation). The results are reported in Model 2 of Table 3 (i.e., the term that relates to our hypothesis is in bold). As shown, the interaction term was significant (β = -.03, p < .05). To further interpret this result, we divided the sample into two subgroups: an aligned group (i.e., participants high in self-role "power" and "affiliation" congruence)[4] and a group formed by the rest of participants. We hypothesized the LSE coefficient on affective MTL to be less statistically significant for participants aligned compared to participants misaligned with respect to "power" and/or "affiliation". Due to the sample size of the subgroups (n=31 and n=149 for the groups aligned and misaligned, respectively), we ran linear hierarchical regressions with SPSS. The results showed that, as predicted, in the group aligned with respect to both "power" and "affiliation", the LSE was not significantly related to affective MTL (b = .46, *n.s.*), whereas for

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[4] Participants categorized as high in "power" congruence had an absolute difference "power" score smaller than the median of that variable. Participants categorized as high in "affiliation" congruence had self and leadership role "affiliation" values in the top or bottom quartiles of the self and leadership role variables (i.e., participants high-high or low-low in "affiliation").

the group composed of the rest of participants, LSE had a positive significant effect on the affective MTL (b = .50, p < .001), thus supporting Hypothesis 4.

Discussion

Do self-to-role comparisons help to explain variance in individuals' MTL? We proposed and showed that both exemplar and prototypical role comparisons relate to individuals´ MTL. Perceived similarity with a previous leader relates to higher MTL. Furthermore, we found that the relationship between perceived similarity and the MTL is mediated through self-efficacy perceptions, which is consistent with previous research suggesting that perceived similarity impacts motivation through self-efficacy perceptions (e.g., Gibson, 2003). Our findings also suggest that self-congruence with leadership role standards with respect to "power" and "affiliation" is related to the affective MTL component but not to the social-normative component. Interestingly, with respect to the "affiliation" value, low scores both for self and leadership role are related to higher levels of affective MTL. We also showed that when people had high levels of self-role congruence with respect to "power" and "affiliation", the relationship between their LSE perceptions and the affective MTL was weaker than for other participants. Thus, when managers have high regard for the leadership role, the relationship between self-efficacy perceptions and the affective MTL is lower. This result indicates a need for special training of the appropriate leadership skills and knowledge to those who are motivated to lead and who may be willing to take over responsibilities that may exceed their actual competencies. Taken together, our findings offer valuable theoretical contributions to various streams of research and suggest recommendations for practice.

Theoretical Contributions

Our study empirically tests a model of identity antecedents drawing on self-to-role comparisons at work. Our findings respond to calls for bridging social comparisons and identity processes for the leadership field (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). This is particularly important because social comparisons have been largely overlooked in the leadership field (Greenberg et al., 2007) and, specifically, perceived similarity with individual exemplars has received scant attention (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). Our results suggest that both highly particularistic comparisons with individual-person exemplars (e.g., how Peter sees Maria behaving as a leader) and more global and general leadership representations of the leadership role (e.g., how Peter sees leaders in general, as a social category) (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007) can impact individuals' levels of MTL. We propose that individual comparisons with specific individuals serve to compare one's behavior and skills to the ones of successful individuals, whereas more general and prototypical comparisons can be used to evaluate more abstract characteristics. Importantly, we find that individual comparisons in terms of skills and behaviors were a source of self-efficacy perceptions, whereas more global comparisons with the leadership social category in terms of "power" and "affiliation" related directly to the affective MTL component.

Our study serves to theoretically integrate the notion of self-role fit and the MTL. There has been a recent resurgence of research on the authenticity of leaders (e.g., Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May & Walumbwa, 2005; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). However, in the MTL field, this research has focused primarily on the direct effects of individual values on the MTL. To our knowledge, no research has assessed the importance of congruence in deep self-concept

dimensions attached to the leadership role (i.e., "power" and "affiliation" in the present study) as a determinant of individuals' motivation to lead, despite the proclaimed need to be authentic and coherent with one's own beliefs and standpoints. Our results also provide an explanation of how the social-normative and the affective MTL components differ with respect to identity verification processes.

Our research advances current knowledge of the relationship between self-efficacy perceptions and the motivation to lead. First, aligned with Bandura's (1977) conceptualization of the antecedents to self-efficacy, our research identifies one mechanism by which people may gain belief in their leadership role competency: The perceived similarity with a previous leader. Importantly, our study also identifies contingencies that moderate the effect of LSE perceptions on the MTL. The prototypical role comparisons are a boundary condition of the effects of LSE on the affective MTL. When people valued the leadership role to a high extent, as reflected in high congruence between the role and themselves, the importance of LSE perceptions in explaining the affective MTL component decreased.

Finally, our findings reveal a potential irony in the field of leadership: although the value of being a good team player and an affiliative leader is often highlighted in leadership theory and leadership development practice, the managers that are reporting higher levels of affective MTL are those who do not score high on "affiliation". This may indicate that even if leadership theory has evolved toward a more communal understanding of the leadership role (Pearce, Conger, & Locke, 2007), managers motivated to lead do not necessarily score high in collaborative values. This mismatch indicates that the development of relationship and collaborative skills is crucial in leadership development efforts of organizations. Our findings call for a reflection of the

relationships between contemporary leadership models and theories on leadership motivation and values.

Limitations and Future Research

Our study is subject to a number of limitations that suggest directions for future research. Even if the focus of our paper is on intra-personal processes (self-to-role comparisons, MTL and LSE perceptions), which is why we assessed our focal variables through a survey instrument, we cannot derive causal connections, and experimental studies could explain further the direction of relationships posited by our model. In addition, our study suggests that the refinement of self-to-role identity verification processes can serve as a mechanism to boost the motivation to lead. Longitudinal studies could provide insights into how this occurs. Moreover, we have focused on the affective and the social normative components because they have been claimed to have a stronger cognitive component. Future research will enable a deeper understanding of how self-to-role comparisons relate to the non-calculative MTL component (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

McClelland and Boyatzis (1982) noted long ago that the leadership syndrome was characterized by people with low "affiliation" and high "power" values. Our findings support and extend this notion. However, to date, other value models (e.g., Schwartz, 1992) may provide more nuanced views of how specific values relate to the leadership role. For example, how value congruence of benevolence or universalism impacts individuals' MTL? In addition, previous studies have established the predictive value of personality for the MTL (e.g., Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Hendricks & Payne, 2007; Kessler et al., 2008). How personality and self-role comparisons interact remains open for further investigation. For example, do introverts rely more on social comparisons than extroverts?

Finally, in our study, we used perceived similarity with a previous influential leader. However, we do not have specific information about that influential leader. For example, Brown, Ferris, Heller, and Keeping (2007) warned about the different antecedents and consequences of upward and downward social comparisons. Who do people think of when they are asked to recall the most influential leader in their career? Do people tend to think about their first supervisors? Does the answer depend on their career stage, or level of autonomy? These questions can be addressed in the future. In this study, we used an idiographic approach to assess the effects of similarity with previous leaders. While some researchers (e.g., Andersen & Cole, 1990) believe that this form of measurement better addresses how people perceive others, such measures are controversial (Ritter & Lord, 2007). Building on Lord, Foti, and De Vader's work (1984), additional research might provide the ability to identify general categories of leadership attributes that can characterize organizational leaders in the future.

Practical Implications and Conclusions

Our research offers practical insights for managers, leadership development practitioners and HR professionals. For managers, there are three key implications: First, our study highlights the importance of reflecting on past experiences with particular individuals to understand the individual meaning that the leadership role has for managers. By understanding the standards they use to assess their competence, managers grasp some of their underlying assumptions regarding their capability as leaders and, potentially, challenge them. In developing these reflections, managers may wish to consider what leadership means to them, in what ways the leadership role is valuable to them, and what potential trade-offs there are between their personal self-concept and the leader-role identity. Second, our results suggest that managers are also role models that are scrutinized by junior managers with whom they interact in their careers.

Reflecting on what type of role models they would like to be and how they would like to be described by their subordinates may serve to gain a sense of responsibility in shaping the next generation of leaders. Finally, our research introduces values into the discussion of leadership processes. Going beyond what leaders do and trying to understand what they value may lead to a more humanistic view of leadership in organizations.

There are also a number of implications for leadership development practitioners and HR professionals. First, people who are highly motivated to lead because leadership is a part of their self-concept may be less susceptible to assess their own skills when evaluating their probability to engage in managerial duties. As our results suggest, people who value the leadership role may be motivated to lead even with low levels of competence. Therefore, highlighting the importance for people to understand the appropriate skills and knowledge for adopting new leadership responsibilities, as well as having the chance to calibrate their own skills and knowledge against them, can be very valuable. Second, leadership development practitioners can use social comparisons and the understanding of the gap between self-definition and the individual's view of the leadership role as a principle to guide development efforts. Our results also suggest that there is no one-fits-all approach to leadership development. In understanding leadership development processes, one might benefit from exploring what the leadership role means to different individuals by using a highly particularistic approach. Third, our findings reveal a potential irony that organizations may want to reflect on. Despite the rhetoric about the importance of being a good team player and an affiliative leader, our study indicates that people who are highly motivated to lead have low levels of affiliation. If affiliative leaders are something desirable for organizations, and if those who are attracted to hold leadership roles do not value affiliation, organizations should consider how to enhance leaders and leaders-to-be

group skills and willingness to collaborate with others. Finally, our study also highlights the importance of developing mentoring programs with adequate leaders that embody the values and behaviors that are important for the organization.

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TABLE 1

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

	Variables	Mean	SD	Correlations														
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Perceived Similarity	32.00	8.83															
2	LSE	41.05	5.67	.34**														
3	AffMTL	41.24	7.98	.11	.50**													
4	SNMTL	36.15	7.17	.14	.21**	.37**												
5	Self Power	3.53	.95	.12	.30**	.42**	.09											
6	Leader Power	22.27	3.39	.27**	.17*	.16*	.30**	.17*										
7	Self Affiliation	2.76	1.27	.23**	.29**	.25**	.08	.19*	.14									
8	Leader Affiliation	17.28	4.40	.10	.07	-.03	.17*	-.02	.28**	-.02								
9	Gender	1.67	.47	-.17*	.08	.13	-.04	.09	-.16*	-.01	-.02							
10	Age	35.73	7.04	.05	.14	-.07	-.26**	.03	.03	.02	-.10	.00						
11	Marital Status	1.76	.56	.04	.11	.01	-.13	.04	-.05	-.09	.01	.06	.48**					
12	Children	1.59	.49	-.02	-.17*	-.08	.04	-.04	-.08	-.01	.06	-.02	-.47**	-.46**				
13	Previous Role	3.49	1.15	-.11	-.19*	-.04	.15*	-.05	-.08	-.08	.00	-.06	-.50**	-.26**	.23**			
14	Stable Org.	4.99	1.99	.01	-.06	.15*	-.01	.08	.10	-.02	.12	.14	-.08	-.04	-.01	.09		
15	Change Org.	7.96	1.78	-.01	.26**	.13	.08	.04	-.01	.09	-.04	-.04	.25**	.15*	-.15*	-.20**	-.43**	

Note. N=180

** p < .01; * p < .05

TABLE 2

R-Square values from Tests of Linear and Quadratic Equations

F value	Affective MTL	Social Normative MTL
R-Square for Linear Model	.40*	.26*
R-Square for Quadratic Model	.45*	.29*
Incremental R-Square for Quadratic Model	.05*	.03

Note. N=180. Results are after controlling for gender, age, marital status, children, previous role, leadership experience, stable and change cultures, perceived similarity to a leader and LSE.

TABLE 3

Analyses of the effects of "Affiliation" and "Power" on the Motivation to Lead

Variables	Model 1: Revised Model		Model 2: Moderated Model	
	AffMTL	SNMTL	AffMTL	SNMTL
LSE	.46*	.19*	.47*	.19*
Self Affiliation	-.38	.03	-.07	.03
Leader Affiliation	-.91*	.17*	-.77*	.17*
Squared Self Affiliation	.04		-.10	
Squared Leader Affiliation	.58*		.55*	
Self Affiliation × Leader Affiliation	.53*		.33	
|Self Power - Leader Power|	-.13*	-.10	-.2*	-.10
LSE × |Self Power - Leader Power| × Block Affiliation			**-.03***	
R^2	.44	.30	.44	.30
Goodness of Fit Statistics	$\chi^2(14)=25.15$; p-value=.03; RMSEA=.07; CFI=.99		$\chi^2(16)=25.63$; p-value=.06; RMSEA=.06; CFI=.99	
Surface Tests				
a_1	-1.30*			
a_2	1.09*			
a_3	.42			
a_4	.07			

Note. N=180. Entries are unstandardized coefficients. Results are after controlling for gender, age, marital status, children, leadership experience, stable culture and change culture, and perceived similarity to an influential leader.

*p < .05

FIGURE 1

An Identity Model of Motivation to Lead
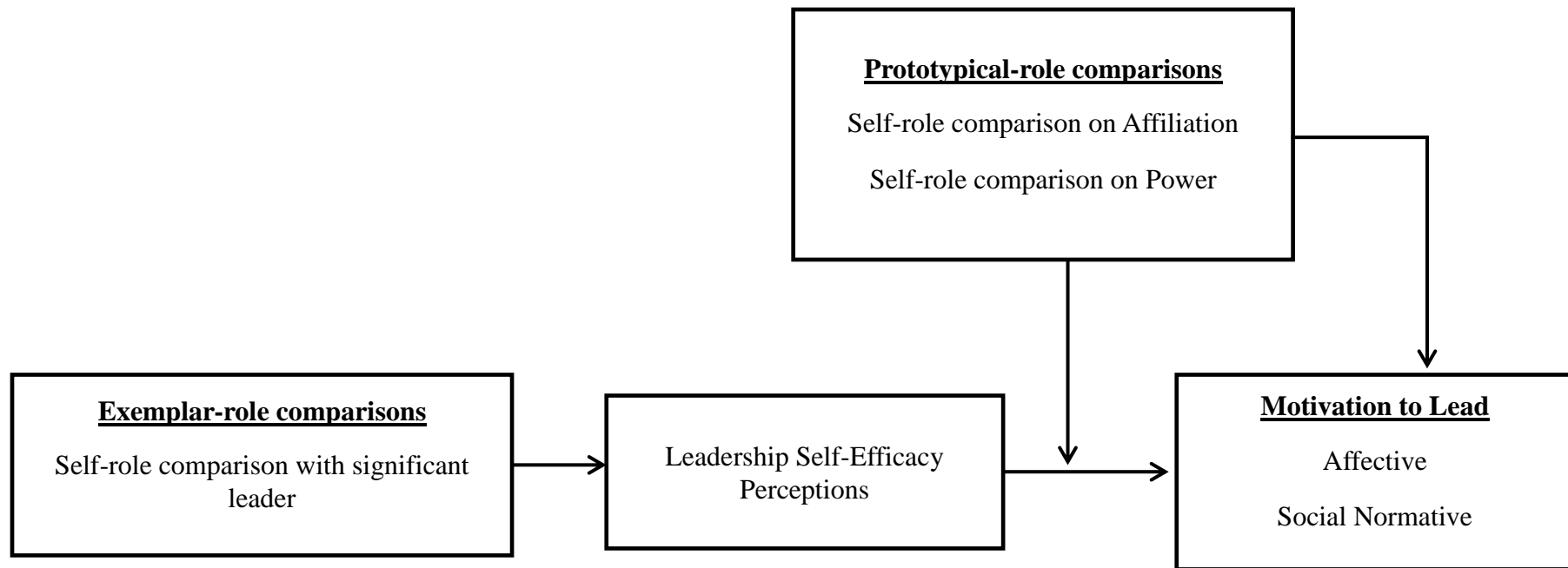
FIGURES 2A-2B. Mediating Role of LSE in the Relationship between Perceived Similarity to Boss and the MTL Components.

FIGURE 2 A. Direct Effects of Perceived Similarity to Leader on the MTL Components
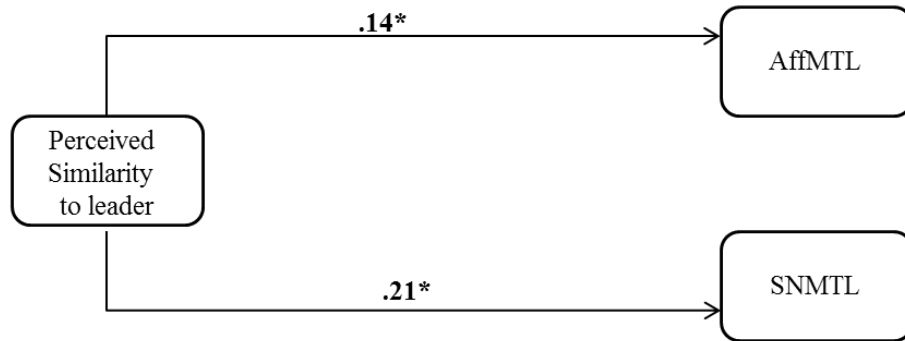
FIGURE 2 B. Structural Equations Model testing the Mediating Role of LSE
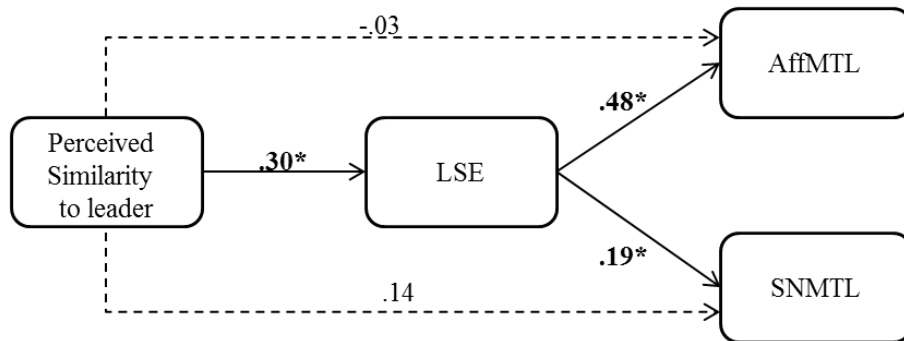
$X^2(5)=5.10$; p-value=.40; RMSEA=.01; CFI=1.00

Note: n=180. Entries in the figures are unstandardized coefficients. Results are after controlling for Gender, Age, Marital Status, Children, Previous Organizational Role, Stable Organizational Culture and Change Organizational Culture.
* p<.05

FIGURE 3

"Affiliation" Congruence as Predictor of Affective Motivation to Lead

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